

**SCHOLARLY PUBLISHING IN AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF THE
POLICIES AND PRACTICES OF AFRICAN UNIVERSITY PRESSES**

DISSERTATION

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Declaration

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma of the university or other institute of higher learning, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

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Date

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Dedication

To my wife Dora,
a blessed friend and confidant, for encouragement, advise and support.

and to Chief Victor Nwankwo of blessed memory.

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Abbreviations

AAU	Association of African Universities
AAUP	American Association of University Presses
ABC	African Books Collective
ADB	African Development Bank
APNET	African Publishing Network
AU	African Union (<i>formerly Organization of African Unity, OAU</i>)
AUPs	African University Presses
CODE	Canadian Organization for Development through Education
CUP	Cambridge University Press
DOI	Document Object Identifier
EALB	East African Language Bureau
EAPH	East African Publishing House
Ecowas	Economic Community of West African States)
GBPA	Ghana Book Publishers Association
IASP	International Association of Scholarly Publishers
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INASP	International Network for the Availability of Scientific Publications
ISBN	International Standard Book Number
NPA's	National Publishing Associations
OUP	Oxford University Press
POD	Print on demand
SADC	Southern African Development Community
STI	Science and Technical Information
STMs	(niche publishing in) Science, Technical and Medicine
Unesco	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
ZIBF	Zimbabwe International Book Fair

Definition of Terms

Wilson (1986:188) explained that **Academic publishing** is preoccupied with the large-scale production of textbooks and trade books for mass sale. 'It is a world of publicly owned corporate giants like McGraw-Hill, and Simon and Schuster.' This term will be reserved for the production of primary and secondary school text books or the lucrative 'school textbook' market.

African studies is meant to be any study or research in any discipline that has Africa as its focus.

A **backlist** is a publisher's catalogue of books in print that have already appeared in a first edition and those that have been or will be issued in subsequent reprints or editions.

Co-publishing is when the originating publishers of a specific book sell a substantial part of the print run to a co-publisher (usually in another country) for that firm to sell at their own risk under their imprint and at an appropriate price in a defined market.

Electronic publishing 'refers to texts made available in any computer-mediated medium such as diskette, CD-ROM, or via the Internet' (Armstrong & Lonsdale, 1998: 9). Works issued mainly in print with appendices or worked examples on computer diskette are categorized as print publication and therefore fall under the type of publishing covered in this study.

A **frontlist** is a publisher's catalogue of first-edition books in print. This publisher's list of books in print has generally been in publication for up to one year.

Funding will include all forms of income provided to a university press by the university. Funding sources might include, but are not limited to, monetary subsidies, use of rent-free space, the difference between market rate and student assistant rate paid for labour, use of university personnel to fill various functions for which the press is not billed, and monetary grants.

An **independent press** is a small press, lacking substantial capital, that specializes in the publication of materials which commercial publishers reject, mainly because of their perceived small economic returns.

An **industry** is meant to be a branch of business or trade. When referring to book publishing as an industry, the term "industry" is used in the same manner as when it is used to refer to banking as the banking industry or to health care as the health care industry.

List building (areas of specialization) Focusing on a few key areas and publishing in depth in those areas is called 'list building'. There is always a core of subjects for which a press house has established itself and for which it is known. List building is the part of the editorial decision that guides the selection and evaluation of manuscripts as well as the marketing of a book. Lists are brand names, registrations of trademark, and other commodities in a label-obsessed culture.

Market demand for the purpose of this study, will include the quantity of orders for various types of monographs and journals in the various forms available, including but not limited to hard copy, CD-ROM, microforms and electronic publication.

I shall borrow the terms **Macropublishing** and **micropublishing** from Bailey (1990: 62), which I find very appropriate even though he admitted they were rather awkward. Macropublishing includes all aspects of the press's work and its list as a whole, and micropublishing covers activities, considerations, and decisions about an individual book or title.

Mass market paperbacks are fiction and nonfiction soft cover books for both adults and juveniles, of which at least 50% of copies are distributed to mass-market outlets such as newsstands, drugstores, chain stores, and supermarkets.

Midlist titles refer to trade book titles with potential unit sales of approximately 5,000 to 15,000 copies. These are titles that the large trade book publishers are no longer interested in publishing because they do not bring a large enough profit.

The scholarly **monograph** is a single learned work on a defined topic (or series of topics) used for, or in the course of, tertiary education or research. It is any book for practising scholars or professionals as opposed to a textbook for students. Many scholars refer to any article or research report that exceeds one hundred manuscript pages as a **monograph**, but length is not the only criterion for a monograph. Sullivan (1976:160) restricts the term to an integrated, book length treatment that reports new results of a theoretical or empirical nature. Similarly, Persell (cited in Sullivan) defined of a scholarly book as 'one based on systematic original research that addresses a significant problem or makes an important theoretical contribution to the field in question'. This is the sense in which the term is used in this study.

On demand printing (or print on demand) is an aspect of on demand publishing (see on demand publishing) and is generally used to describe the underlying print technology which enables short or limited runs to happen.

On demand publishing is concerned with trying to create published works on demand, as and when required by a particular target population, rather than the traditional approach whereby a print run of books is produced as a speculative venture which succeeds if a good fraction is sold.

Scholarly publishing 'refers to the university presses and the modest-size commercial publishers specializing in research-based monographs in comparatively small editions.' (Wilson, 1986:188)

Self-publishing is similar to independent or small press publication. Essentially, self-publication means an author writes, edits, and sometimes prints but more often hires a printer, procures reviews, and finally, distributes his/her own work. As is the case with the small press, material that is self-published may have been rejected by commercial publishers.

A **Strategy** is a pattern or plan that integrates an organization's major goals, policies, and action sequences into a cohesive whole.

The **textbook** is defined as a category of monograph having the prescribed purpose of teaching. It is a manual of instruction.

Trade books are adult and juvenile books, both hardback and paperback, that are primarily created for the general consumer. Most of these books (50% or more) are directly marketed through trade channels such as bookstores and libraries or through wholesalers and jobbers.

The terms **university press** and **scholarly press** would be used interchangeably to mean a press attached to a university or the publishing arm of a university.

Self-publishing should not be confused with **vanity press** publication. The vanity press is deservedly held in disrepute because it publishes anything for which an author will pay, and usually at a loss to the author.

ABSTRACT

University press publishing was introduced in sub-Saharan Africa around the mid 1950s as the new independent countries strived to accelerate the pace of education and training of their peoples with the sole purpose of the rapid socio-economic development of their countries. Just like their universities, African university presses were modeled after their American and European counterparts. Like all genres of publishing, scholarly publishing in Africa has not been cushioned from the challenges imposed by economic factors. In fact publishing in Africa enjoyed a short boom in the early 1970s, but due to the serious socio-economic downturns in most of these countries, starting from the early 1980s, these gains have been halted and in some cases reversed.

This study examines the policies and practices of six sub-Saharan Africa university presses. It is a multi-site case study to establish how far the presses have adopted and/or adapted their policies to suit the environment and circumstances of Africa. The study investigates the extent to which constraints facing them affect their publishing efforts, their coping strategies, and the possible avenues of reducing the effect of these constraints. Several data collection methods were employed including on-site visits, interviews, and observations at three of the presses, and a mail survey of all six presses. There is a serious absence of competition and cooperation between the presses surveyed. There are no aggressive fund raising strategies, yet the survey showed financial constraint as the most crucial factor that impedes the development of their publishing activities. The presses do not have press publishing areas or press lists, which define the subject areas in which each of them concentrates its publishing. None of the presses has a formal written policy on manuscript acquisition. The study confirms that university presses publish mainly in the humanities and social sciences. Views on a unique African model of a university press are divided. The issue of author-publisher relationship is high on the presses agenda, especially as African scholars seek publishing avenues with

African presses. Opinion on publishing non-scholarly materials was divided but swayed towards getting the needed profits to support non-profitable but essential publishing by the university press. For the majority of the presses, the most important publishing category is undergraduate textbook, and direct sales is the most popular means of marketing their works. The presses have succeeded at selling between 25-65% of their output.

The study concludes that the coping strategies adopted by the presses in the face of harsh environmental conditions include the introduction of ICTs, changes in the treatment of authors, editorial policy on publishing non-scholarly materials, staff levels and use of outsourcing, and different approaches to sources of funding. It recommends a consortium of African university presses based at the micro level on Specialization, Cooperation, and the adoption of ICTs especially print-on-demand technologies. Each press must operate as a Trust in order to enjoy autonomy as a private company, but be registered as a non-profit organization. At the macro level funding must be vigorously sourced through donor agencies including The African Development Bank. Governments should prioritize book publishing, the development and stocking of libraries, encourage reading, set up regional university presses, and introduce book and publishing components into research project funds. The study recommends further research into the effect of technological developments on university press publishing in Africa, a follow up study in 10 years to see how university presses in Africa are surviving, and a detailed study of university press consortia and the implications for tertiary education in Africa.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Background to the study

Scholarly research and publishing have become an integral component of the academic world. The importance of publishing to any academic is perhaps best underlined by the maxim 'publish or perish'. Indeed, publishing in the academic world determines a scholar's standing or status both within the local research community and internationally. At the centre of the scholarly communication process is the academic reward system—the issue of promotion and tenure—that is integrally tied up with the formal peer-reviewed publication. The reward system present in most universities recognizes publication as evidence of scholarly achievement and is required for rank and tenure and to satisfy criteria for grants. Over the years the university's basic functions, which have remained unchanged, enable students to learn from their cultural heritage, helping them to realize their intellectual and creative abilities, and encouraging them to become humane and responsible people. The university expands knowledge across the entire spectrum of disciplines, and it can add to the understanding and enjoyment of life. It continues to be needed for imaginative solutions to the problems of society.

Within the range of activities associated with the traditional concept of a university, the university press plays the role of the publisher of the results of teaching and research. In a report on his own university for the 1917-18 academic year, President Butler of Columbia University stated that:

A university has three functions to perform. It is to conserve knowledge; to advance knowledge; and to disseminate knowledge. It falls short of the full realization of its aim unless, having provided for the conservation and advancement of knowledge, it makes provision for its dissemination as well (cited in Irele, 1993:74).

Daniel Gilman the first president of Johns Hopkins University also declared that: 'It is one of the noblest duties of a university to advance knowledge and to diffuse it not merely among those who can attend the daily lectures – but far and wide' (Caraway, 1995:1). The primary function of a university press is to accomplish

this purpose of disseminating the results of teaching and research and to bring scholars together by publishing scholarly knowledge of interest to other such scholars. By making available in the convenient form of the book the results of teaching and research both within the parent university and beyond, a university press finds itself at the very heart of the university system, extending and justifying its meaning as the centre of learning.

The typical university press is an integral part of its parent university, usually organized as a separate administrative department. An editorial board appointed from faculty, occasionally with some members from outside the university, typically controls the imprint of any university press. The board stands behind the imprint of the university and helps ensure the quality and significance of the books on the press's list. Unlike all other publishers, university presses are not expected to publish books for profit and are, in the main, non-profit institutions often receiving subsidy from their parent institution. Notable exceptions include pre-eminent presses like California, Chicago and Harvard (in the US), and Cambridge and Oxford (in the UK).

Scholarly publishing, usually the main business of a university press, is concerned with those publications which report research findings, comment on academic matters, or in general are aimed at an audience of intellectuals. Ganu (1999:113) defined scholarly publishing by function, saying it involves:

The publication of original works of research that may come in the form of books and journal articles that contribute to knowledge; the publication of works that seek to reinterpret established fields of study or knowledge; and the publication of textbooks for use in the universities.

Put otherwise by Hawes (cited in Brice, 1974:221), who equated the scholarly press to the university press:

Most typically, the university press book is written by a scholar to communicate information and ideas in his/her professional field. It conveys new knowledge or new interpretations, pre-eminently the results of his/her own research. Its audience includes anyone who needs to know what the scholar has discovered. But it will typically seem difficult to understand or unimportant to any one without some background in the author's subject.

One characteristic of scholarly publishing is that the works by their very nature cannot be published on an economic basis because they have a limited market, though a high profit margin may be achieved in cases of low manufacturing costs and high marked-up prices for libraries. Scholarly books are therefore of little or no interest to commercial publishers. The average price per title of scholarly monographs is far higher than that for consumer books, a factor resulting from heavy production costs, much editorial preparation, limited market, and complex typography and art work required for scholarly materials.

University publishing evolved in the late fifteenth and sixteen centuries from the early presses of Oxford and Cambridge in the UK. It was introduced in the United States in the late nineteenth century; and much later to the rest of Europe. The purpose of the university press is to provide an outlet for the publication of research by faculty members of its own and other universities, and extend the instructional function of the parent institution by publishing and disseminating knowledge and scholarship as widely and as economically as possible to both scholars and educated laymen. It publishes learned books of small sales potential and limited possibility of financial returns that commercial publishers cannot profitably undertake, and gains favourable publicity and prestige for the university of which it is part.

Scholarly publishing used to be the 'core business' of the university press to the exclusion of all other types of publishing. However increased financial stringency and cut backs in library funding have seen the university press adopt survival tactics and strategies including publishing trade books. In North America, Jones (1998) showed that environmental influences including falling direct sales to libraries and falling university subsidies since 1980 have forced many university presses to find means for attaining or maintaining self-sufficiency. One of the survival strategies was expansion into more profitable areas outside scholarly monograph publishing, that of publishing trade books. The exception has been Cambridge and Oxford, the two largest and at the same time oldest university

publishers, whose lists include trade books, primary and secondary school books, English language teaching texts and Bibles. At Oxford, scholarly publishing represents less than ten percent of its total turnover (Mitchell, 1999:364). The essential mission of the university press, however, remains the publication of significant scholarship.

The establishment of university presses in Africa, Asia and Latin America started in the early 1900s; in fact India's oldest university press in Calcutta was founded in 1908. The university press is a relatively new institution in Africa, as indeed is university education. In the former British colonies, apart from the early beginning at Fourah Bay in 1827, there were no universities till 1948, and no university presses till Ibadan established a nucleus of one in 1952.

1.1.1 Knowledge creation

Theses and dissertations completed in African universities contain a wealth of local empirical data, yet rarely are they indexed in major databases, nor do they feature much in the international literature. Not surprisingly, African research has received little recognition, especially, overseas. While universities do not have the monopoly on either the creation or dissemination of knowledge, they are especially, in the Third World, the key institutions in this process. With very few exceptions, universities stand at the centre of the scientific and intellectual process in many nations, especially those of the developing world. Altbach asserted that:

They house the largest share of creative scholars, sponsor most functioning research institutes, provide stimulation for scholarly life through the norms of academic life, and in the Third World are often the centre of the intellectual life of the nation (Altbach, 1978:489-490).

It was with this in view that the AAU 10th General Conference delegates called on African universities to give priority to effective and positive participation in the global creation, exchange and application of knowledge. This places urgent demand for the development of mechanisms of the publication and dissemination of high-level knowledge in Africa (and developing countries) on scholarly publishers, particularly university presses.

In the specific case of academic journals, Nostbakhen (quoted by Gopinathan 1992:288) justified national efforts to produce academic journals because ‘they allow local research to be published and provide a stimulus and a sense of identity and purpose to research projects peculiar to that country’. They also serve as an indicator of the scope and level of research activity within a country and demonstrate the national standards of editing and publishing. Furthermore, they augment in particular and important ways the global storehouse of knowledge by focusing on specific national contexts. Often for young researchers the national academic journal provides the only chance of being published.

Most scholarly journals are edited and published from the industrialised nations with serious implications for Africa. The most important internationally circulated journals naturally tend to cater largely for the needs in the industrialised nations and not for the small minority of their readers in the Third World. In fact, most of the world’s production of knowledge, and an equally large proportion of its distribution, take place in the larger industrialized countries. As a result, the language of scholarly communication is generally that of the major industrialized nations—usually English or French, occasionally Spanish, German, or Russian. Yet the African academic community depends on close to between sixty and ninety percent book and journal imports for active research and study (Makotsi, 1998).

‘Mainstream’ journals published in the West are seldom interested in publishing material relating to African issues simply because their international readership is not interested directly in Africa. There is simply little consciousness of the issues facing scholars outside the industrialised nations. It is admitted that the countries in Africa are non homogenous but culturally, linguistically and geographically diverse and at different levels of economic development. However they are to a large extent characterized as having high illiteracy rates, high birth rates, low per capita income, high inflation rates, etc.

Focusing on the need for the establishment and nurturing of scholarly journals in Third World countries, Altbach (1998b) indicated that its scholars cannot rely on the international (Western-oriented) journals to publish their work. They can look more optimistically to local journals that may be more oriented to their interests. Indigenous journals can also focus attention on the issues, problems, and approaches that are most relevant to their own regions or countries. The shortage of journals published in Africa—with only an estimated 200 published in Sub-Saharan Africa outside of South Africa—makes the need especially great (Altbach, 1998b:8). More fundamentally, journals are a key part of a fully independent academic and research community.

The widespread use of books from abroad has implications for local publishing industries, for the growth of authorship, and for the basic intellectual life of a nation. Without an indigenous publishing enterprise, a nation is doomed to a provincial status and will continue to be dependent on outside elements for its intellectual sustenance. Even though the existence of a publishing industry does not guarantee an active intellectual life, it is a necessary condition for indigenous scientific and literary activity. Dodson & Dodson (1972:62) advocated that:

To establish an indigenous publishing house is an act of liberation, and therefore a necessity, because it breaks the control, indeed the monopoly which the white races have over the world literature, for which reason they have controlled the mind of the African.

In agreement with Dodson & Dodson, Zeleza (1998) reasoned that there could be no substitute for a vigorous publishing industry in Africa. It is only by developing and sustaining their own publishing outlets, that there can emerge truly African intellectual traditions and communities capable of directing and controlling the study of Africa.

Factors that dictate the urgency of indigenizing the publishing industry in the developing regions of the world, especially Africa include the bias in reporting and indexing research emanating from the developing world, and the creation of publication outlets for the African academic community. Indeed as Altbach (1978) has noted, scholarly publishing is perhaps even more important in the

developing-country context than it is in the industrialized nations. This is because developing countries must establish technological capacities, record their own histories and interpret the workings of highly complex societies to outsiders. Without question, the dissemination of research results, the production of books for use in colleges and universities, and the publication of materials relating to the history and development of developing nations are of crucial importance. Another important factor is that much of the literature published by industrialized nations is not entirely relevant to the Third World, including Africa.

The constraints and challenges of tertiary publishing in Africa have been the focus of much research (Aina, 1999; Teferra, 1995; Pacheco, 1992; Zeleza, 1998). Without a stretch of imagination, the issues of concern in scholarly publishing are identical to those on the general African publishing scene, among them inadequate funding, high production costs resulting from the importation of the bulk of raw materials, (especially paper), and limited capacities in design, production, and printing. Distribution and marketing bottlenecks manifest themselves in nonexistent bookstores, poor transportation and postal facilities, depreciating academic library budgets, and low purchasing power of academics for whom scholarly works are meant. In some cases, publishable manuscripts are in short supply.

While markets for scholarly books are limited anywhere, the relevant markets in most African countries are particularly small and books needed for schools and for basic literacy take priority over scholarly publications. In their article on scholarly publishing in Nigerian universities, Aguolu & Aguolu (1998) predicted that Nigeria may continue for a long time to depend upon imported scholarly, scientific and technical books and journals until serious and concerted efforts are made by the government and university authorities to develop local university presses through adequate subsidies.

1.1.2 University press publishing: justifying an African model

Declaration 6 of the 10th AAU General Conference in Nairobi, Kenya, on 9th February 2001 noted that:

To a greater degree than ever before, African universities must renew their commitment to helping Africa find effective solutions to its perennial problems of poverty, hunger and disease. They must, by their research and teaching, strengthen their contribution to improvements in food production and distribution, disease control and health service delivery, and the general well-being of their people (AAU, 2001).

The expansion of higher education in Africa since political independence in the mid 1950s and the steady development of African endeavours in areas of scholarship outside the Humanities has meant the concept of African Studies has had to be broadened to take account of the new scope of scholarly interests and activities in Africa. This is because a considerable part of the research work that goes on in African universities concerns problems raised by the local environment in the science-based disciplines, such as Medicine and Agriculture, to take the obvious instances. Even in the more natural sciences, there is scope for a more focused research with a local bias, such as in Climatology. The African university press (AUP) could play a very significant role in finding solutions to African problems by disseminating the results of African researchers.

Apart from publishing the scholarly book, the AUP has to have a determined policy on tertiary level textbooks in such areas as History, Economics, and preliminary Science. Imported study materials may have to be adapted and/or rearranged with careful explanation of concepts, to suit students' inadequate backgrounds. The logical extension of a policy on tertiary level textbook publishing downwards to the secondary and primary levels of education, would make the university publisher a complete agent of education. The role played by the two great university presses of Cambridge and Oxford in Anglophone Africa, gives an indication of what is possible. Our present circumstances, as seen in the current difficulties of direct importation of study materials from traditional Western sources, dictate a similar role for the university press in Africa.

The African university press must vigorously pursue bold initiatives that are in the interest of publishing and development on the continent. Two of such examples are the Consortium for African Scholarly Publishing and the idea of a Southern African university press. The Consortium was established in 1993 as a special project of the Nairobi-based African Centre for Technology Studies. It was meant to facilitate cooperation between African scholarly publishers, and to aid the marketing, distribution and co-publication of African titles, as well as train professionals for the industry. This noble venture has been dormant since its inception.

Discussions about the establishment of a regional university press for the twelve Southern African countries have not yielded any practical results (Bgoya, 1999). It was believed that a regional university press would have a larger market catchment area and would be in a position to publish locally written textbooks and licensed editions of overseas texts, scholarly books, books based on research and aimed at the general market, and scholarly journals. The two ventures failed apparently for lack of proper coordination and political will on the part of the publishers.

The age-old concern over language policy is also a reason for the university press of Africa to set its own standards. The question of writing and publishing in African languages will surface anytime there is discussion about literature and its role in culture and development. It cannot be avoided as long as the majority of the African people do not speak the foreign languages which some authors write. For publishers there is the question of economic and financial feasibility, given that educational and cultural policy makers will do nothing or very little to support local language publishing. Ali Mazrui is quoted to have written that: the Pan-Africanism of linguistic/cultural integration [in Africa] will probably be led by East Africa, which enjoys the good fortune of a regionwide indigenous language.

That Kiswahili, which binds together Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Somalia, Rwanda, Burundi, Eastern Zaire and Northern Mozambique, will hit its first 100 million people early in the twenty-first century, if not sooner (Anon, 1999c). Would it be beyond AUPs to publish vigorously in the local languages, thus promoting the literatures and cultures on the continent? Irele (1993:76) argued that 'if a university press cannot will a national literature into existence, the least it can do is to be ready to discern its growth points and provide a medium of expression that will enable them come to fruition.' That was true for the literature in the European languages and must be true for African languages.

The fundamental question to African university presses is do they need to operate on the standards of American and European university presses? What stops AUPs from breaking away from the idea of publishing only scholarly works? After all Cambridge and Oxford are noted for not keeping that standard. In the African context, a university press must take on the special responsibility of publishing not only scholarly works emanating from the specialized research devoted to the continent but also of promoting a literate culture upon which the foundations of the university as a national institute must ultimately rest. The African university publishing house must relate to the university as a significant channel for the discharge of its functions as an institution with the vocation towards scholarship in general and towards service to the wider society within which it operates.

In the words of Irele (1993:74), 'the university press must be seen as one of the clearest manifestations of the educational and cultural role of the university itself in relation to its particular environment.' It is especially in this dual perspective indicated by the terms 'education' and 'culture' that one needs to see the function of the university press in Africa. The emphasis here being the functional role of the scholarly publisher, made necessary by the peculiar circumstances of publishing in the context of Africa. These circumstances are marked by severe economic conditions which lead to high cost of raw materials, no clear policy

regarding the development of industry, generally small markets for books, non existing distribution outlets, low levels of literacy, the structure and size of the publishing industry, as well as the organization and vitality of the academic system itself, and the special challenges which they present.

This thesis enquired whether African university publishing has any unique identity that sets it apart from its American and European counterparts. It is a multiple case study of six university presses in five African countries. It looked at the context of this genre of publishing in the peculiar circumstance of Africa as a developing continent, identified the challenges and constraints under which these presses work and the survival strategies they have adopted to remain viable. Collaboration among African university presses, which is essential but is lacking was explored. By looking at their structure, policies and practices, the study proposed an African model that functions not only as a significant channel for the discharge of scholarship, but more importantly as a centre that serves the wider society within which it operates.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Book and journal assistance programmes to Africa date as far back as the early 1950s with the Franklin Book Program of the US and the British Educational Low Priced Book Scheme (popularly known as the ELBS). One scheme that has received wide acclaim is the Sub-Saharan Africa Journal Distribution Program, sponsored by the American Association for the Advancement of Science. A proposal for the Program was formulated in 1991/92 after Carol Priestly of the International African Institute had sought answers to such questions as: How do African researchers communicate their findings? Do African scholars know what sort of research is being carried out on the continent? Are academic and research libraries in Africa purchasing African scholarly journals? Can a research culture exist without local and regional channels of communication?

The African scholarly community shares these concerns. Seen through the eyes of a renowned African librarian the situation is aptly summarized below:

University education is dependent on the availability of published materials, which support curricula and research. It has been estimated by various authors (Ifidon, 1990; Nwafor, 1989) that 95% of most university library acquisitions in Africa is purchased from abroad, through foreign currency. The state of national economies, fluctuation of and limited access to foreign exchange for universities and their libraries (Coombe, 1991) have resulted in the erosion of both the acquisitions budgets and the potential role of university libraries. Thus not only have library materials not been replenished, but those that are available are worn. Further, African universities have tended to develop a culture of relying on donations of library materials, regardless of the appropriateness of content to the needs of the recipients or curricula (Raseroka, 1999:3-4).

The premise for this assertion is that books and journals are indispensable to a scholarly community symbolized by a university, a research association or a scientific society. More importantly, the message paints the sorry state of scholarship in African universities regarding books, journals and publishing. As the serials librarian at the University of Science & Technology, Kumasi, Ghana, for the brief period of October 1995 to September 1996, I was astonished at the huge difference between serials control and management, and that of a book or monograph. In particular, the cost of the 250 journal titles purchased through a World Bank loan to the Government of Ghana at £10,000 every month made me wonder at this dependency syndrome since all of them were imported.

Whilst looking for answers I came to believe that a local book industry, no matter how embryonic in its current state, could offer a long-term solution to the shortage of books and journals. The scholarly press caught my attention, as it is the publishing arm of the university. I strongly agree with Priestly (1993:220) that 'if donor support is to lead to long-term sustainable publishing, it has to assist the selling of books as well as the making of them.' Every book and journal distribution programme is worthy but offers only a partial solution to the problem of book and journal scarcity in African universities.

University presses in Africa were modelled after their American and British counterparts: they are to publish mainly scholarly works emanating from the universities. Yet there is ample evidence of university presses in America and

Europe diversifying their lists and taking on 'non-core' university press activities. For this and several reasons such as autonomy, economic sense, the not too relevant content of imported materials, and the peculiar circumstance of the African academic, AUPs do not have to retain their original structure and functions. An African university press must have an added responsibility towards the society by engaging in all genres of publishing—scholarly, academic, as well as general. The African model has to adapt to take care of local factors so that the activity of publishing can have real effect and meaning.

The immediate implication of this is that the university press in Africa must be structured to play the role of an educational and cultural agent in a situation of rapid and immense social change, in which the society is being transformed by values of a contemporary civilization, and for which the book represents both an essential product and a medium with a significant status. To this end I shall use the term 'appropriate publishing' to mean one that is adapted to suit local conditions and circumstances; a model African university press that borrows from the American and European counterparts but has a character of its own.

1.3 Purpose of the study

This study investigated how effective the presses have been in terms of what they were set up to do—publish scholarly works. It examined and described their policies and programmes in the face of challenges that confront them as developing country presses, and revealed and explained factors known to stifle growth in African university publishing. In particular, the study:

- a. located the university press and its functions within the socio-economic environment and specifically within the tertiary education structure of the country
- b. critically analyzed press structure, internal operations and functions, and
- c. compared press policies and practices with those in America and Europe.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were to:

- a. establish the extent to which constraints facing the university presses affect their operations, and
- b. explore possible avenues of reducing the effect of the constraints by putting forward a model structure for the African university press.

1.5 Research questions

Apart from South Africa, the rest of Sub-Saharan university presses were products of post independent aspirations of various governments armed with new visions of their countries to carve a new image for their peoples. Each press must have been set up with a specific objective or objectives. The study established the extent to which the presses are individually and collectively meeting the aspirations of the founding fathers. It took a hard look at whether their continued existence is justified in the face of the plethora of problems/challenges, or whether their roles could be conveniently taken over by private commercial entities. In the build up to these, the pertinent questions were:

- What was the vision behind the establishment of the press at the time it was founded?
- Judging by the output or performance over the past fifteen years, would it be fair to continue to support the press or not. In other words, does the press exist only in name or it is performing creditably in the face of the many problems it encounters.
- The study sought to establish how far the presses have been able to cope with these problems; and whether there are innovative ways of meeting the various challenges. For example funding as a problem was scrutinized to see the funding levels over the years, whether static, increasing or decreasing, and what measures have been taken to 'source' funding elsewhere. Other identifiable problems like low sales and changes in technology were treated in a similar way. For example some presses were founding members of African

Books Collective (ABC), which seek to market African books to Europe and North America. How far this move has helped such presses is a pertinent question whose answer in quantitative terms, justified belonging to such a body.

The primary research question was: Do African university presses have a distinct character from their American and European counterparts? The study provided answers to this basic question by answering the following sub-questions:

Who are the selected university presses?

What led to the establishment of the presses?

What kinds of books do they publish?

Are they actually sold, if so in what quantities? And to whom?

Have they done so successfully over the last fifteen years? If not, why not?

What are the policies on manuscript acquisition, editorial, marketing and distribution, and production?

What deficiencies exist in their operations?

How do these shortcomings help in creating a model of an African university press in the 21st century?

How can they promote African scholarship (on a global basis)?

Can they do this in ways which, say Oxford University Press cannot?

What should be the ideal relationship between African scholars and their publishers to replace of the current mistrust between them?

1.6 Significance of the study

Studies on African publishing have mainly focused on issues pertinent to publishing development, and the provision of educational materials for pre-university education (Zell & Lomer, 1996; Apeji, 1995). To date none has made the university press in Africa its primary area of investigation. The litany of problems facing the African university press is well documented in the general context of publishing in Africa (Altbach, 1978; Nwafor, 1991; Rosenberg, 1994; Teferra, 1995). The study of these problems and the extent to which they impact

on the day to day operations of these presses provide a basis for self-evaluation of existing policies, alternative sources of solutions to these problems, attention to the state of the university press in Africa, and an impetus for further research into scholarly publishing in Africa.

The basis for restricting African university press publishing to scholarly works only is questioned with the view to having it adapt to prevailing local conditions which are at variance with those in the Western world. It is believed that an African model of a university press would be more appropriate to the peculiar circumstances of the continent. This study is important inasmuch as its findings will inform press houses, university authorities, and in fact governments of the central role this minor sector of the publishing industry can and must play in the culture, politics and intellectual life of African nations.

1.7 Scope and limitations

The study covers the policies and practices of six university presses in five Sub-Saharan African countries. The six presses are the Ghana Universities Press (Accra, Ghana), the Presses of the Universities of Cape Town and South Africa, (respectively in Cape Town and Pretoria, South Africa), University of Zimbabwe Press (Harare, Zimbabwe), University of Zambia Press (Lusaka, Zambia), and University Press of Nairobi (Nairobi, Kenya). The five countries are known to be among those with the most vibrant publishing industries in the sub region (Zell, 1992; Teferra, 1998; Altbach, 1998a). Within the limits of monetary and time constraints it was thought that the study could adequately cover only six presses. The university presses of Ahmadu Bello and Maiduguri (both in Nigeria) responded to the preliminary questionnaire only.

Based on the definition of the scholarly press by Ganu¹ the core business of each scholarly press was judged to be the publication of original works of research in the form of monographs and scholarly journals, and textbooks for tertiary level

¹See page 2 and Definition of terms on page xiii

The focus of the study is on the internal operations and policies as they relate to manuscript acquisition and list building, the application of technology in production, funding and fundraising, contracts, royalties and copyright, marketing, distribution and sales, co-operation/co-publishing and the sale of rights, and translations. For the sake of emphasis, the focus of the study was the 'printed' book and the 'printed' journal although one was mindful of current changes in the scholarly communication process as far as electronic publishing is concerned.

The power vested in printed information is very strong even with the current technological developments and the book will continue to play a significant role, particularly in developing countries for some years to come. Quoting Jack Goellner of the Johns Hopkins University Press, Day (1991:35) affirmed his belief in the book: 'I believe that the book will endure among us, not because it is sacrosanct, but because it is necessary.' Stressing the same point, Baum (1995:79) stated that:

The long heralded death of the book shows no sign of arriving. In the developed world other media will grow alongside the codex or bound volume; they may outstrip it in terms of market share but are unlikely to replace it in most genres in a plannable future. In the developing world a continuing massive demand for education in a realistic and cost-effective form guarantees the future of the educational book.

For developing regions like Africa that is the reality. While monographs are destined to undergo an electronic transformation as a consequence of technological evolution, there is an inherent belief that the printed monograph is destined to survive as a partner to its electronic companion.

Summary

Chapter 1 gave a background of the research into university press publishing, as an aspect of scholarly publishing in Africa. It attempted to position the campus press at the centre of the scholarly community by linking the author and publisher in the scholarly communication process. It detailed knowledge creation that is skewed in favour of the Western world, and argued for an African model of a scholarly press that would be sensitive to its social responsibility towards the larger society. It attributed the sorry state of book and journals supply in African universities to poor government policies, the state of the economies, and neglect of the sector. It identified book and journal assistance programmes and over dependence on assistance as the causes that stifle the growth of the industry. The study covered six university presses from five Sub-Saharan Africa countries and investigated how effective they have been given the many challenges they face as developing country presses. The objective was to establish the extent of the constraints and explore possible solutions to the problems.

CHAPTER 2

Scholarly Communication and University Publishing

2.1 Contemporary Scholarship

Individuals and groups who carry out research advance knowledge, but the total development of scholarship depends upon a maximum interchange of information and ideas between researchers in particular fields. In many ways authors, as scholars, are primarily concerned with the dissemination of information. For them, publication in the form of books, journals and reports are the most convenient ways of doing this. The scholar-author may be quite happy to receive royalty cheque from time to time but making money is not the main object of the exercise. It must not be overlooked, though, that the prestige gained by scholars through book publication undoubtedly helps their professional advancement and their future income. In the US, and of late in universities all over the world, lack of publication for academics without tenure can even lead to loss of job. Academic advancement and job retention depend upon publishing the result of research.

Intellectual pursuit and scholarly publishing operate within a cyclical dynamic. Scholars do pioneering work in an area, editors take note of that interest and publish in the area, publication encourages more research and more research means more publishing. The cycle continues until the research area is incorporated into existing disciplines, becomes dormant, or becomes an established entity on its own. Women's studies, for instance, constitutes a broad area of inquiry that spans only some three decades of intensive scholarly pursuit; the origination of the women's movement is often pegged at 1970 (Parsons, 1991:45). At first, scholarship consisted of an 'add women and stir' approach in traditional academic subjects. But as women's studies emerged as an independent area of intellectual inquiry and gained academic legitimacy,

scholarly publishers began soliciting books in the field. Remarkably, after only three decades of intensive intellectual pursuit, women's studies is now the second leading area of specialization at university presses.

Scholars have the freedom to set their own research agenda, which causes growth in some fields of scholarship and decline in others. Intellectual pursuit is continually evolving as new fields of inquiry arise or are reinvigorated and others get diminished. This shifting is reflected in the lists of books that eventually reach publication. University presses, as a leading vehicle for intellectual discourse, seldom serve as passive gatekeepers. Instead, they actively shape the cultural agenda by defining their role in the scholarly enterprise through list building and aggressive acquisition methods. By being on the frontiers of scholarship, a scholarly press can help shape the cultural and intellectual agenda, rather than merely reinforce existing values, beliefs and practices.

'Publish or perish!' is a fundamental psychological, indeed physiological, imperative that is rooted in the very metabolism of scholarship as a vocation. Publishing is not only integral to the scholarly activities of the university, but constitutes an essential part of its organic wholeness. In a rather harsh tone, Day (1991:29) lamented:

The cliché 'publish or perish' conflates research and publication and in conflating these two very different processes scants the latter. As does the whole institutional structure: there are grants for research, time off for research, millions spent on laboratories and libraries in the interests of research. Then, with the work done, the results obtained, dissemination of those results is assumed to be the concern of others, requiring neither thought nor resources for the miracle of publication to be achieved. Just as the institution gives little attention to this part of the process, so do few academics acquire an understanding of publishing despite its importance to their careers.

Publication as the criterion for judging faculty members is important for the operation of the university, but that does not necessarily make publishing central to the university's mission. However it would seem paradoxical if faculty members were hired and fired according to their success with something irrelevant or at least extraneous to the university's mission. The meaning behind the phrase 'publish or perish' is to be preferred to 'research or perish': what good

is research known only to its author and its author's coterie? Knowledge advances as it is shared and built upon by the greatest number of other scholars—as it is published, argued Day (1991:30).

American writers on scholarly publishing often refer to the 'creed' which controls the pattern of advancement in their universities. Corwell (1975:100) said 'Publication is the path to preferment and prestige. Promotion, money and professional status are the result of scholarly publication... Professional progress is directly proportional to the bibliography'. Writing on academic authorship in the UK, Sarah Pedersen (1998:159) had this to say:

Even in the UK's ivory towers, publication is no longer merely a means of communication. It has come to be a way of evaluating academics, and can be a major factor in professional advancement. It can also help the academic –or his or her department –attract more research funding from outside bodies.

There are more esoteric reasons for publication, such as the desire for immortality in print and the resolution of 'priority of discovery' disputes. One other most important reason for scholarly publication is still to inform peers of research findings, and be informed by them in turn. In the vast majority of cases, scholars do not publish for money. The average academic is too pleased to find a publisher for his or her monograph or journal article to start making financial demands about royalties or rights income. Obviously, academics hope to be rewarded in an indirect way, such as with promotion or tenure. In some scientific fields, such as physics and mathematics, scholars are even willing to pay to reach their colleagues. When applying for research grant in such subjects, it is not unusual for the applicant to include costs of publication in his or her grant application.

One of the most influential reasons for scholarly publishing in the last ten years in the UK has been the Research Assessment Exercise, in which the Higher Education Funding Council for England assesses the research quality of individual university departments by a process of peer review involving the exercise of academic judgement. The pressure to publish is therefore as strong as ever, forcing university departments to put greater emphasis on the research

output of their staff. For reasons mentioned above the scholar would not deem it enough merely to be seen to be doing research. It has to be measurable in published output and has to be published in a reputable (i.e., peer reviewed) journal or by a well-established publisher to gain the maximum prestige. The demerits in the UK system, said Pedersen, are based on too much pressure on academics to publish at the expense of teaching excellence and the rash of conferences whose sole purpose seems to be to increase the publication count.

According to Parsons (1987), 'university presses serve a prominent gate-keeping role in scholarly publishing because they, unlike commercial presses, can select knowledge for distribution without being wholly captive to the marketplace'. Altbach (1978) indicated that in developing economies '(they) offer a unique model for scholarly publishing'. The university press has as its basic role to publish and distribute scholarly books and journals. Scholarly books are defined broadly to include research monographs, analyses of current problems from a scholarly viewpoint, literary criticism, and the like. In a sense, university presses publish materials of high quality, which are not destined for commercial success, although as direct and indirect subsidies for academic presses have become more limited in recent years, scholarly publishers have taken commercial viability increasingly into account. The average press run of a university press book is fairly low—2000 in the 1970s was a common figure, but currently (2002) between 400 and 500—and most scholarly books take three or more years to sell out. University press publications tend to be expensive, partly because of limited print runs, high-quality production standards and frequently complicated typography.

'To publish' is commonly defined as 'to make public', here the concern is predominantly with the work of commercial book publishing (including the publishing of allied and digital products), as distinct from that of newspapers and magazine publishing. Cowan (cited in Kalmbach, 1997:7) defines publishing as 'the making of information and ideas public and the arts, craft, and technologies involved therein'. Clark (2001:3) defines publishing by stating what publishers do: publishers commission authors (often before manuscripts are written), confer

authority and add value to authors' works, finance the production process, and marketing, and promote and sell the works wherever possible. Breaking down these functions he said the publisher researches in the markets in which it specializes and builds contacts; seeks authors; matches marketable ideas to saleable authors; assesses the quality of the author's work; decides whether to risk its investment funds; exploits new technologies to reduce costs; builds a sales network; promotes and publicizes the books to their intended users; and fulfills orders, distributes the books and pays royalties to authors.

In performing these functions the publisher influences the production, as well as the consumption, of knowledge. The dissemination process goes through the five stages of production, assessment, reproduction, marketing/promotion, distribution, and consumption. The production stage involves the most pervasive and direct way in which the publisher can influence the content of what is written by conceiving the work and commissioning an author to write it. Of course the publisher must be aware of both what authors are writing and what readers want and need. This occurs most frequently where publishing is highly developed, but it can be extremely important where the traditions of authorship are not firmly established. According to a leading American publisher, 'the practice of developing ideas in editorial departments, then finding authors to do them on assignment has...doubled since the 1920s' (Neavill, 1976:50, citing Farrar). 'Editors need to be creative in that they encourage and develop received ideas or initiate ideas themselves and match them to authors' (Clark, 2001:88). Whether or not a work is commissioned, the publisher at the editorial stage is likely to recommend changes in the form or content of a work; changes that range from minor alterations in grammar, spelling, and phrasing to large scale fundamental revisions.

Publishing is an integral part of the intellectual and cultural system of any country. This system includes such diverse elements as bookstores, printing establishments, universities, libraries, newspapers, radio, television and the

cinema. There is also the international aspect to the intellectual system, which includes the import and export of books and other mass media, copyright and translations. Publishing is only a small part of the intellectual system in most nations, particularly the highly industrialized, and has a variety of accessible alternatives to books. Intellectual or knowledge distribution systems give a focus on scholarly books and journals, which contribute to the total store of knowledge in a culture or to the advancement of such knowledge.

2.1.1 Academic journals

A well established feature of scholarly communication is the reliance of the sciences on journals as the main vehicle for publishing research. In the social sciences and humanities books have as big a role, and in engineering conference proceedings are important. The output of research and scholarship is reported in the academic journal and the scholarly monograph. The academic journal is concerned with the validation, assembly and dissemination of scholarly knowledge taken to mean knowledge that has been generated by commonly accepted norms of academic enquiry. The concept of validation is important because academic journals represent an agenda of research for the discipline, and the publication helps to shape the scope and direction of the field. Academic journals are therefore essential part of the way the scholarly community functions. In addition academic journals serve specific communities, are bought usually by institutions not individuals, and are important because of the necessity to conduct research and to report it, both for the purposes of augmenting knowledge and for career advancement.

Journals serve to demarcate the boundaries of a subject and establish the reality of that sector. This process is not achieved in a planned fashion, but arises in the course of the review of papers submitted for publication. If the referees do not regard the paper as germane to the theme of the journal, then they suggest it be sent elsewhere. Thus the 'boundary post' gets inserted at the border of the subject. In a similar fashion, the 'boundary posts' can be moved as research into

a particular field develops, and observations previously disdained are found to be relevant. Again, this process operates at a subconscious level, because the editors of journals do not have the luxury of commissioning articles, instead, they have to choose from the papers submitted to them. Thus, growth in the size and number of learned and academic journals closely matches developments of the subjects upon which they are based. Conversely, journals catering for subjects that are marking time or in decline, shrink. Thus the scholarly journal serves the academic community by keeping it abreast of growth points, expertise and the loci of activity, as a depository for a body of knowledge, and a historical record of the progress in particular fields. Journals also review books and thus are a means of publicizing and criticizing research and analysis. Because of their frequent publication, journals have the advantage of presenting materials quickly to a specific audience.

Scholars in all areas of the sciences, social sciences and the humanities read learned journals and other serials, especially magazines and professional journals, and there are some hybrids like *Nature*. Essentially journals contain unsolicited and unpaid-for content while magazines are compilations of commissioned content. Most learned journals contain mainly primary research, with Scientific, technical and medical (STM) journals representing the biggest category by number of titles. STMs undoubtedly bring in the most revenue and the highest profit for their publishers. The main market for journals is the library, where up to eighty percent of the acquisition budget of a typical university library is allocated to the purchase of serials. A large body of statistical evidence confirms that the cost of journals is going up more quickly than the funds available to buy them (Donovan, 1998; O'Connor, 2000; Tinerella, 1999).

As a result of developments in information and communication technologies (ICTs), propagation of the latest thinking and results to that section of the 'invisible college' to which an academic belongs has always operated outside the published literature, if only because journals traditionally take so long to publish.

The World Wide Web has added a more effective method of maintaining contact than the phone, meetings at conferences and visiting. Institutionalized use of the Internet by means of the preprint (now eprint) servers which make public unrefereed material now coexists with submission to traditional journals. As readers, scholars are conservative. The SuperJournal project of the UK demonstrates that most academics will not go out of their way to produce 'dynamic' content for electronic-only publication and that regular use of electronically available journals, in spite of obvious advantages, in access and in searching over print, requires education, gradual familiarization and user acceptance. It is also clear that print, whether available between covers or as a print-out, is demanded because scholars do not read anything serious on screen. Whether or not the so-called 'Internet generation' will change all that remains to be seen.

2.1.2 Scholarly monographs

Books remain one of the most important means of intellectual communication and continue to be at the centre of the intellectual system in most societies, despite challenges from the mass media, rising costs and inherent difficulties of production, marketing and distribution. Ancillaries to books are journals and magazines, which serve as primary means of introducing new materials to specialized readers. The existence of journals, book reviewing media, bibliographies and ancillary materials is quite important to publishing and can greatly facilitate the sale and distribution of books and help create a general 'book consciousness' in a country. In addition to acting as an independent outlet for intellectual work, magazines and journals provide a medium for book advertising; perhaps more importantly, they are the key means of reviewing books.

Writing on academic monographs, Wratten (1999) explained the current situation in the crisis of this genre of publishing. Following years of greatly increased output marched by demand in the expansion of universities, which was

supported by generous government funding of university libraries, the monograph could sell between 1,500 and 2,000 copies. Also in those days, individual academics could build up their personal libraries. From the end of the 1970s a number of factors, including budget cuts, rising production costs, declining markets and global competition, affected the market adversely. Faced with such difficulties, and with little prospect of a return to growth in the market as a whole, many publishers have curtailed their lists or even abandoned the sector completely. Even university presses have sought to limit their commitment, especially in the more marginal subject areas and have turned to more lucrative areas in educational or trade publishing to help sustain their scholarly programmes. For large and internationally studied subjects like economics, libraries alone can provide market enough, still today accounting for sales of 600 to 700 copies. Even with individual scholars' purchases, a sale of 400 to 500 copies in some subjects is as much as can be hoped for, and even that modest number would be price sensitive. Not surprisingly, publishing in these areas is left exclusively to the university presses.

Academic monographs often take a long time to process editorially, as their high standards of scholarship mean that they must be edited and produced carefully. So there is a relatively high cost at the editorial stage compared with, say romantic fiction. In some houses, authors are being asked to accept lower royalties, deferred royalties, or even no royalties at all. These savings to the publisher are justified on the grounds that for most salaried academics, royalty income is a pleasant extra. Another problem peculiar to scholarly publication is that certain areas of scientific research knowledge are growing so quickly that virtually any form of publication in which there is an appreciable delay between discovery and dissemination is useless. Even scholarly journals may be too slow for some scientists, and in these areas the actual academic viability of the book becomes questionable. However not all subjects expand at the rate of the sciences and university publishers still publish for the long term in the humanities and similar areas.

As a result of a combination of factors, including rising costs of the monograph and budget cuts, libraries have directed an increasing share of their reduced resources to journals, CD-ROMS, and online subscriptions, and even materials to support the teaching programme, including multiple copies of adopted textbooks for students. In the UK, the dozen or so out of the 90-plus universities committed to buying research level book make extensive use of inter-library loan schemes to make their funds go further. What used to be a 50/50 split between journals and books has now come nearer 75/25, and in many areas of science where the ratio is even less favourable, the monograph has all but disappeared.

Library suppliers, the main trade outlets for scholarly books, are also in the doldrums, with margins under pressure both through competition for dwindling budgets and from the libraries' own demands for a better deal, instanced most recently by the emergence of powerful university buying consortia. These consortia aim at economies of scale obtained by their banding together, and also shared access to their individual stocks. Wratten (1999) posed the question: Can monograph publishing still be profitable? In this deteriorating climate a viable business model is elusive. Can the traditional hardback book that libraries prefer be published economically in print-runs as meagre as 400 to 500 copies without price increases that would eventually be its downfall? How far can overheads be cut without compromising the editorial and marketing contribution that is the publisher's main *raison d'être*?

The new technologies of digitisation, desktop publishing, print-on-demand, and Internet dissemination may be harnessed to the monograph's advantage. Organizations like the World Bank and Unesco are already saving substantial freighting costs through this technology. It is reported that New Zealand already makes extensive use of POD with all the Pacific islands, producing very small print runs in very many languages. (Davies, 2002). On the possibility of using POD within Africa, Victor Nwankwo stated that the technology gives scope for co-

editions, or for a lead publisher to sell rights to publishers in other countries who will do their own printing. The experience of Fourth Dimension Publishing of Nigeria with POD technology follows from the ABC organized workshop in 1998 for twelve African publishers. The FDP has entered into a POD Wholesaler arrangement with Lightning Source Inc (UK) that allows it to receive electronic files of certain FDP titles, print small quantities of these, based on orders, and deliver them to ABC's headquarters in Oxford (UK).

Furthermore, the new production processes of computer typesetting and author-prepared disks introduced in the 1980s are now mature. Royalties are invariably low on a net receipts basis (or none on many more marginal titles), and are now generally in step with the financial expectations of each book. But the most significant cost savings of recent years involve the equally important areas of inventory control and marketing. With print-runs in the hundreds and a backlist of often thousands of titles, precise matching of demand with supply is vital. New technology is enabling publishers to move gradually towards a print-on-demand (POD) model, which will increase their stock turn around and reduce warehousing costs. Macmillan's short-run reprint programme—of as few as twenty five copies of a title—has enabled it to cut first print-runs to the level of assured first-year sales, and also to make out of print books available. Oxford and Cambridge have similar programmes.

Although books with any significant market will continue to appear in printed form for the foreseeable future as 'typographic man' still demands, the Internet will increasingly be the solution for more marginal titles. The dream of a continuously available catalogue, with a permanent digital archive of all titles from which as little as a single copy could be printed, either by the publisher or by a third party database holding the digital image under licence, is still some way off. There are cost implications in generating single copies, nevertheless some publishers are moving in this direction, and there is no doubt that electronic delivery will become a significant feature of the monograph market over the next few years.

The dominance of the printed book as a preferred format for the scholarly monograph is an issue borne out by both users and publishers. The report of the eLib¹ study by Armstrong & Lonsdale (1998) provided evidence to support the belief that the scholar or student is culturally conditioned to use the printed book and that this orientation will persevere. That this phenomenon is intrinsically associated with Western culture is the view of North American writers, and their counterparts in the UK scholarly publishing community. In the UK Routledge, for example, acknowledged the longevity of conventional print publishing for textbooks and academic monographs. Their reason for publishing in CD-ROM format as opposed to Web monograph is the fact that the CD-ROM is closer in character to the book format.

2.1.3 Concerns about quality in scholarship

There is a wide debate currently about the number of published titles, the cost of these titles and even the process of peer review (Donovan, 1998; O'Connor, 2000; Tinerella, 1999). One recent commentator suggested that the average price in the UK increased from £85 in 1985 to £311 in 1994 (Donovan, 92). Judson (cited in O'Connor) gave three reasons for the breakdown of the peer review process which is central to the scientific information chain. The first is the declining standards and the growing, built-in tendency toward corruption of the peer-review and refereeing processes. Next, are the pressures of time, quantity, and competition as the number of articles being published, their specialisms, and the range of journals increase beyond control. The last threat is the advent of electronic publishing and with it digital object identifier (DOI) by which each article, graph or table on electronic collections such as the Academic Press or Elsevier stables can be retrieved by this unique number (similar to ISBN). Teplitz (1970:94) predicted this trend some thirty years ago when he said:

the publisher of the future apparently will be a 'repackager' of information that is stored in a central location, selectively reformatted at the requester's option and moved electronically to another location for display, or for filming, copying, or printing for subsequent dissemination.

¹The eLib programme was set up with funding of £15m over three years to explore a variety of problems affecting British libraries. Much of its research was on the development of electronic journals.

With this development it is not unreasonable proposition that articles will be published under the banner of a Press rather than under the masthead of a particular journal. Publishers are then not the producers of particular journals but rather large collections of articles, which their search engines, as well as more traditional indexing and abstracting services would make available. This scenario will shape the approach of the 'intermediaries' such as the Electronic Journal Navigator (Blackwells, Swets, and Qawsons) who would very usefully provide aggregated access to a variety of individual articles (O'Connor, 2000:41).

Most academics involved in scholarly publishing consider themselves members of a scholarly community who has a quest for knowledge. Along with teaching they have placed publication of scholarship as a core activity—researching it, producing it, passing it on. In the last half of the twentieth century, the 'academy' has opened up and encompassed an ever-widening pool of scholars and students. Institutions of higher learning have expanded, raised their standards, added advanced degree programmes, and increased their faculties. Tenure requirements have risen across board and the process has become more elaborate. In the humanities, publishing one or two books has become the norm for tenure. The production of scholarship has accelerated, quantity has trumped quality, and what earns tenure has become the goal.

During that same period, especially in the last few decades, the publishing world has also radically altered. Profit motives have prevailed and competition for prospective best sellers, fuelled by excessive advances, has escalated, while at the same time editorial input and quality control have declined. Sky-rocketing production costs (driven by paper prices and technology) have been supported by cutting back on what is dispensable: editorial personnel. Press lists have been expanded with the logic that increasing the number of books increases the odds of netting some bestsellers. The results have been a lot of mediocre books and the consolidation of publishing houses into a few conglomerated behemoths. What will sell sets the standard, but salability does not always equal quality.

University presses have not been immune to these forces, but instead increasingly act like trade publishers. Indeed, university press editors seek and promote books for the crossover market. This can be good for individual scholars, who as a result may even realize a profit on their scholarship, and good for the scholarly community, to the extent that scholars are encouraged to speak to a general audience. But without appropriate balance, trade marketing standards could have adverse impact on the publication of scholarly monographs. Resources may be diverted to promoting trade books and specialized studies either rejected or relegated to low priority as they are prohibitively expensive due to small print runs of between 275 and 300 copies world-wide. Authors whose topics are suited for a public readership may be pressed to distort their scholarship by shortening texts, popularizing arguments, and minimizing scholarly apparatus.

The two vectors of the marketplace and the professional place seem to be pointing in opposite directions. Academics need to publish more and more work to get tenure and promotion. Libraries cannot afford to buy it or shelve it because sky-rocketing journal prices are eating their budgets and space. In the face of higher production costs and shrinking purchasers, university presses do not want to publish specialized studies that do not sell. Publishers and scholars share a common ground—marketability of books and of careers, but in arriving at this common ground, considerable erosion has occurred in the bulwarks supporting the ideal of creating and disseminating significant new knowledge within the scholarly community. The romantic days of lives of poverty in the cause of learning are past, at least for full-time faculty. Academics are committed to advancing their careers, not just through tenure and promotion, but also through publicity, profits, and high profiles. The result is a commercialization of the academy that is corrupting scholarly standards.

The consequence of market forces on both the publishing side and the academic side is the increase in the quantity of manuscripts produced, circulated and

published. The problem is the quantity of scholarly material being generated and the evaluation of its quality. The process is overloaded, and expectations are inflated. Recently a spate of articles has called for a reduction in the quantity of scholarship required for tenure and an emphasis on quality over quantity. Proponents include Magner, Waters, and Ruark; (Ruark, cited in Teute, 2001). One of the signal problems in the humanities is that the tenure clock militates against further research, careful revision, and maturation of work into significant study. In the rush to publish, authors turn in rough manuscripts that are incompletely conceptualized and under-researched. Expectations are for quick review and then fast turn around of the manuscripts without thoughtful revision. Everyone is to blame, including editors and peer reviewers. The output of the top six highest publishing countries rose from 336,640 in 1990 to 445,580² in 1996.

Editors, eager to get first crack at leading-edge, saleable manuscripts, agree to look at raw dissertations and even solicit unfinished ones. In the competition to acquire, they do not have time for careful readings and critical advice. So the manuscripts get pushed to outside peer reviewers, the same people who are dissertation advisers, scholars in their own right, faculty with committee duties, and the duty for evaluating tenure cases—in other words, very busy people. Thoroughly vetted manuscripts should be producing sound scholarship of value and merit but peer review is becoming a mere formality. Simultaneous submissions of manuscripts have led presses to share readers' reports with the result that one person supplies an identical recommendation on the same book for two or more presses at once. These practices can lead to a kind of generic homogeneity in standards for publishable scholarship. It is corrupting both for the presses and for the authors, turning competition on both sides from criteria of intellectual excellence to those of process. The question is who can turn this manuscript around the fastest and offer the best deal, rather than who can help make this the best book I want it to be?

²Appendix 1A

The pressure of time also works against thorough review. Acquisition editors usually cannot afford to identify, track down, and convince the most appropriate scholars to read a manuscript. Presses send out uniform evaluation questionnaires to reviewers that do not raise specific issues concerning the manuscript under consideration. Editors are too busy processing manuscripts and may not vet them carefully. So readers are not always the experts in the field we would like to believe they are. Even if they are, they do not have the leisure to provide a detailed thorough critique. Then there is the impetus to tenure. Evaluators, unless they are really mean, bend over backwards to support tenuring junior faculty. All in all, it is easier, and quicker to 'go softly' than engage critically in reviewing other scholars manuscripts. All these are challenges to the very existence of scholarship; challenges which conflate the two separate issues of books making genuine contribution to scholarship and books filling a list because they might sell.

Over the last fifteen years university presses, in their attempt to further the goal of building lists, have resorted to creating book series. Series titles have doubled in number over that period to 833 (Ruark, cited in Teute, 2001:107). These series have helped acquiring editors in a number of ways, served to attach top scholars' names to series, enlisted their assistance in attracting authors, and brought their expertise to bear on manuscripts. But they are a corrupting influence; instead of strengthening critical evaluation, they can undermine it. 'Scholars bring their fame but sometimes not their attention to these series' (Teute, 2001:107).

The tenure and scholarly publishing systems as now constituted result in pushing manuscripts through to publication before they are ready whether or not they have met critical scholarly standards warranting publication. Possible ways of addressing these problems include doing away with tenure or drastically revising the bases on which it is accorded, and looking into electronic publishing to relieve the market pressures on scholars, libraries and publishers. In attempting an answer to the question 'who are the dinosaurs in scholarly publishing', Teute

(2001:109) said the answer should come from a collective assessment of what the environment and goals of communities of scholars should be.

The rising costs of published works, especially scholarly journals, have called into question the role of publishers in the scholarly communication process. Law, Weedon & Sheen (2000) attributed the rapid price increases in scholarly publishing over the past thirty years to the transfer of academic journal production from non-profit, scholarly societies and university presses to commercial publishing companies. Commonplace arguments question university scholarship about the senseless selling of copyright by its academics to the publisher who return to sell them to make big profit, concurred Tinerella:

In fact, researchers say, academia is a paradise for publishers. First, the public pays for most scientific research...Then universities pay the salaries of scientists who do virtually all the writing, reviewing, and editing. Finally, authors typically sign over their copyright to publishers, who can sometimes bring in millions of dollars a year in subscriptions paid by university libraries supported by tax dollars and tuition (Tinerella, 1999:3-4).

Consequent to this pricing crisis, there have been calls for the university press to reposition itself in the scholarly process and take over the functions of commercial publishers who charge exorbitantly for their products. Further solutions proffered include libraries cooperating with their university presses and academic departments to do their own publishing, and self publishing on the Internet (Bennet, 1994; Tinerella, 1999). The talk is about 'having university presses take over a large part of that kind of publishing in order to address the problem of universities producing materials that are given to commercial publishers and essentially sold back to universities at exorbitant prices' (Thatcher, 1993:205).

The last decade has seen the emergence and now the institutionalization of the angry librarian reacting to a situation in which the expressed needs of the library's patrons cannot be satisfied because there is not enough money. In the UK there has been a series of government-funded research programmes administered by library activists, seeking alternatives to traditional publishing and

its profits. Models proffered include subsidising cheaper alternatives run by 'good' publishers (usually learned societies), free journals financed by page charges, and the separation of peer review (perhaps organized by universities) from delivery of content. In the US, the library as publisher has existed in the model of HighWire Press of Stanford University where the library has provided the means of electronic publication for the learned society's existing publication.

In a similar initiative, academic libraries in the SPARC (Scholarly publishing and academic resources coalition) and the American Chemical Society have launched in print and electronic form a low-cost chemistry journal, *Organic Letters* (\$2,300) to compete with *Tetrahedron Letters* (\$8,000) (O'Connor, 2000:44). Donovan (1998) reported that hard-pressed librarians have often urged academics to by-pass publishers and set up their own systems of information exchange. The US Research Libraries Project of the Association of American Universities in 1994 specifically encouraged not-for-profit organizations to create electronic journals that can achieve high editorial quality and prestige in the scientific community. They were also to provide incentives that redirect copyright assignment for Science and Technical Information (STI) intellectual property from the commercial to not-for-profit publishers.

Sanford Thatcher, Director of the Penn State Press, commented on issues relating to university presses in an interview conducted by two librarians. He agreed with proponents of that idea that the source of the problem is the spiraling costs of scientific and technical journals, but does not think university presses have either the staff or the experience in scientific publishing to take on this responsibility. With the exception of a few of the larger presses like Princeton and Cambridge, university presses do not do much publishing in science at all; in fact only 20% of the journals published by university presses are in scientific fields (Thatcher, 1993:205). More recently, the Association of American Universities has proposed the idea of 'decoupling' certification from publication as a strategy to defeat the monopoly-like stranglehold that commercial publishers have

exercised over the publication of scientific, technical and medical (STM) fields (Thatcher 1999). Thatcher argues that it would take quite a bit of extra funding for university presses to get up to the speed in this area and have a chance at all of doing it well. The commercial publishers have been at it for a long while and have the staff and the expertise.

Funding for the publication of research results is problematic. Donovan (1998) is concerned that money spent obtaining good research findings that are not subsequently published represents money wasted. It is very clear that expenditure on the publication of the findings of research has not grown in parallel with the increased funding of the research itself. For example, the Medical Research Council allocated £289m to research in 1997/98, while the Wellcome Trust spent £250m for the same purpose. While the two fund only a small part of the total research carried out in the UK, a very few million pounds directed toward the publication of the results could do much to solve the problem of librarians. An option could be through the allocation of one to two percent of the research grant to information retrieval and publication, with the money going toward the purchase of journal subscriptions or other published material related to the topic of the research. Others are looking more benignly on guarantees, subsidies and publishing co-operation with research bodies. There is a growing feeling that research project funds could well contain a certain element to help with the costs of publishing research findings.

In the past fifteen years, ownership of many publishing houses has changed several times. Some examples include the newly emerging electronic information providers: Elsevier and Pergamon are now owned by Reed, Information Access Company (IAC) and the Institute of Scientific Information (ISI) are now owned by Thompson, and Routledge is now owned by Taylor & Francis. The ownership of these companies is important in that they singularly and collectively own the intellectual output of the universities in the western world. Under the copyright provisions in most countries the publishers control that output for the lifetime of

the author and for a further seventy years. This is of course, if the authors have transferred all rights for the duration of the copyright declaration, which are required to be signed before publication proceeds.

Copyright is a major economic and social resource and has been recognized as such by the Lehman Report of the US and the Bangerman Report of the EU. If copyright were of little value, then few would bother about it or argue about its operation. The very vigour of the demands for extension of 'fair dealing' into the digital medium reflects the view of some librarians that expenditure on books and journals could be substantially reduced, at the expense of the authors and publishers. As the Federation of European Publishers pointed out, 'copyright is the vital support of creativity, giving authors, producers and publishers the ability to earn from their work, their skill, and their investment, by granting them the exclusive rights to authorize the reproduction (the making) of copies, and the first distribution or communication of their work to the public (Donovan, 1998:99). In the digital world the opportunities for infringement of copyright are multiplied, for material can be downloaded, copied to other users, stored in a computer, manipulated, and altered in such a way that the rights of the author are grossly infringed.

Not all scholars agree fully with this list of ills, especially the reduction of editorial inputs, and think the claims have been overblown and generalized. Arguments for and against the role of publishers will continue but what remains certain is the change in the publishing process brought about by access to information and communications technologies. It remains to be seen whether publishers will be dislodged from their role as intermediaries in the scholarly discourse.

2.1.4 The potential of electronic publishing

Lancaster has been looking forward to paperless scholarly communication since 1976 but more recently the term 'virtual library' has been coined and we can begin to conceive of a new library concept within not too many generations.

Within the context of today's electronic library and the increasing use made of the Internet and the World Wide Web for research, there is surprisingly little reliance on digital originals. While many aspects of collection management can be aided and facilitated by means of the Internet, all libraries and information units currently depend to a greater extent on the printed page for their stock in trade. More so the mindset of most users of the library remains rooted in the paper book or journal.

Electronic publishing seems very attractive as noted by DeLoughry (cited in Armstrong & Lonsdale, 1998:7): 'officials at many US presses say electronic publishing makes economic sense as printing costs continue to rise, pushing the prices of books and journals beyond the reach of many libraries and scholars'. Suggested advantages of the electronic monograph include information being updated on a regular basis without waiting for new editions. Textbooks often run to an unwieldy 500 pages and students may be forced to buy a complete volume, when only a small section is needed while networked versions could allow the purchase of relevant sections only. Electronic textbooks additionally allow the inclusion of multimedia applications, providing invaluable teaching tools, such as video clips of clinical operations.

For a number of years electronic scholarly publishing has been synonymous with electronic journal publishing. New electronic journals are being announced at the rate of twenty to thirty a week and about thirty percent of these fall into the broad category of scholarly works (Armstrong & Lonsdale, 1998:7). However with the exception of texts added to electronic archives such as Project Gutenberg, the Oxford Text archive, or Project Bartleby, relatively few monographs are made available on the Internet. The serial nature of journals may account for this, besides incentives for currency and convenience of access.

There is a great deal of contradictory evidence in the literature about the demise of scholarly monograph publishing. Several converging trends including declining

university subsidies, the increasing specialization of research, and tightening library budgets account for this observation (Winkler, and Freeman, cited in Armstrong & Lonsdale, 1998). One group of commentators in North America believe these trends would lead to the decline of the scholarly monograph, especially in the humanities and the social sciences. To them the problem is especially acute in the fields of history, area studies, music and literary criticism, and coincidentally it is mostly in these areas that publishers are exploring the potential of electronic formats.

Other observers in North America do not accept this premise, and argue that more academic books are being published than in the past, but that they are in different fields (Wissoker, cited in Armstrong & Lonsdale, 1998). Wissoker offered statistical evidence from the Association of American University Press to support his contention that the growth of academic publishing has not declined but has been preserved. What has changed, however, is the nature of the monograph and this is corroborated by the Publishers Association of the UK. While it does not differentiate between scholarly monographs and other academic publications, the Association noted that 'there has been a rapid growth in the output of academic books over the past ten years. The figure of 25,000 new titles and new editions in 1985 rose to 45,000 in 1995 (Publishers Association (UK), cited in Armstrong & Lonsdale, 1998:16). These statistics however hide the fact that the average unit sales per title are now seriously reduced.

To date electronic publishing in the form of multimedia CDs, for example, has not been commercially successful. This has been in part because too often publishers have tried simply to place printed material straight into electronic form, without taking advantage of the particular strengths that electronic media can offer, and in part because of the very high costs involved in exploiting this medium appropriately for what is a relatively small potential market. Currently, much of the material available has been either online versions of printed journals

or sample material, and solution manuals for printed works. For students there has been an increase in local informal publishing (such as lecture notes) on various university servers, and many universities have linked their sites together. While being a threat to traditional textbook publishing, this provides an opportunity for commercial publishers to make use of this material and tie it in with their resources.

Explaining the cost implications of electronic publishing, Armstrong & Lonsdale (1998) pointed out that the literature reveals ambivalence. One body of opinion suggested that electronic publishing is particularly cost effective for materials that are traditionally expensive to print. Other commentators are less optimistic, arguing that it is too early to determine whether the new technologies will result in significant savings in production costs. For example, many of the costs associated with the highly labour-intensive editorial and peer review processes of scholarly monograph publishing will remain while some costs associated with the actual production of the text can be reduced in addition to distribution and storage costs.

The eLib report by Armstrong and Lonsdale cited the initial experience of CD-ROM publishing by Routledge, which revealed that there is no appreciable decrease in the costs. Wiley maintained that it was no less expensive to publish electronically than in hardcopy and in many instances the cost was higher. Donovan (1998) reported that a general view of the progress of the UK eLib programme included a preliminary finding that the costs of running electronic journals are not lower than those associated with a more traditional print journal. Other pertinent issues regarding a complete switch over to electronic publishing are quality, user demand, the refereeing process, archiving and copyright, none of which has been addressed.

Armstrong & Lonsdale (1998) investigated the incidence and nature of the publishing of electronic scholarly monographs and textbooks in the UK and North

America. Among publishers active in the field of electronic publishing in the UK were Routledge, Cambridge University Press, John Wiley, and Chadwyck-Healey; and there are in excess of fourteen North American university presses active in the field. Blackwell Science is also very active in this area. Despite the seemingly obvious advantages of web publishing there are inherent misgivings about the value of the web monograph. It has been argued that peer review and editorial processes clearly add authority but that would be lacking from self-published monographs. Furthermore the general worries with regard to the impermanence and instability of the monograph have yet to be addressed.

The report cautioned that in some areas of the world electronic publishing may simply equate to no publishing as power, telecommunications or computing infrastructure are not sufficiently advanced. Even in technologically advanced countries, the non-academic user who must rely on a dial-up connection is disadvantaged in very real terms if lengthy monographs are web published, as there will be a telecommunications charge over and above the cost of the book. Another issue that appears to have a significant bearing on the direction in which the publishing of electronic monographs is moving is the belief that the demands from within academe are best served by the journal article and not the traditional monograph. The publishing of 'rough drafts' of contributions online for feedback, and the publishing of research associated with a monograph before the book gets completed point to a new development in publishing. It has been suggested that something between a journal article and a book will replace the electronic monograph.

Faced with the threat of 'disintermediation' in this new environment of computer and communication technologies, scholarly publishers are beginning to wake up to the vital need to explain better exactly what it is they contribute to the process of scholarly communication. At a conference on the 'Specialized scholarly monograph in crises' in 1997 there was a call by the University of Texas Dean of Graduate Studies, Dr.Sullivan for university presses to show the value they add

to the publication process. In direct response, Thatcher (1999) in an article 'The value-added in editorial acquisitions' rose to the defense of publishers. He showed the contributions of acquiring editors and the editorial boards which together manage the peer review process—that which most crucially distinguishes scholarly publishing from all other kinds of publishing.

2.2 University press publishing

The modern university press was essentially developed in the English-speaking world, first at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge in England and, centuries later, in the United States and the nations of the British Commonwealth. Beginning with Oxford in 1478, university press publishing has come into its own in the past two centuries, particularly in the United States where at least one hundred university presses now operate as an Association of American University Presses. The AAUP, which was established in 1937 by twelve presses had 111 members (including six international non-American) in 1994 but now boasts of 121 members (Meyer, 1995:358; AAUP³). In the last quarter of the nineteenth century, following European examples, graduate schools of arts and sciences emerged one after the other across North America. Older colleges and universities upgraded their curricula, and new universities sprang up with graduate instruction and research as their primary purpose.

Far-sighted leaders such as Daniel Coit Gilman and William Rainey Harper, respectively the first presidents of the Johns Hopkins University and the University of Chicago, perceived that teaching and research were not enough but that the findings of the investigations must be made available both to others engaged in similar pursuits and to an interested public. Since most commercial publishers were loath to publish books comprehensible only to the highly educated reader, the solution lay in the university press.

³Home page at www.aaupnet.com. Accessed on 14 June, 2001

The first American university press opened at Cornell in 1869 but was discontinued in 1884 and re-established in 1930. The Johns Hopkins University Press started publishing scholarly journals in 1878, added books some years later and thus becomes the oldest continuing press. Presses were established at Chicago (1891), California and Columbia (1893), and after the turn of the century, at Toronto, Princeton, Yale, Harvard, and other centres of higher education (Seybold, 1992). These publishing outlets were meant to disseminate the results of scholarly research, which were produced from the newly introduced graduate programmes. The American university press emerged at a time when American higher education was declaring its independence from European models with emphasis on graduate study and research. In a sense the university press was part of America's effort to declare intellectual independence in the late nineteenth century.

Parsons (1987) gave an account of the slow and erratic growth of the university press movement in the US in the late 1800s and early 1900s, and their expansion in the 1920s and 1930s. He recorded the attack on the press in 1943 by the President of Harvard University who viewed it as a business enterprise with no academic virtue and wanted to dispose of it. But for the defence put up by Professor Perry of the same university, the press would have folded up. This gives a picture of the threat to the existence of university presses at the time, as they remained an insignificant part of American publishing till after World War II. In particular the period between the 1950s and the 1960s saw their expansion with help from foundation funding and government-supported library programmes, a growth that abated in the inflation years of the 1970s, but was renewed in the 1980s.

University presses have developed on the European continent since World War II, in particular Scandinavia has been active in scholarly publishing. Presses were established in Russia, Latin America, and Asia from around the mid-1940s. In 1970, during the International Book Year, publishers from thirteen countries

established the International Association of Scholarly Publishers, which currently has 260 members (Meyer, 1995:359). University presses were established in Africa starting in the mid 1950s as a post colonial process of self reliance by the newly independent countries, the only exception was in South Africa where university publishing started in the 1922.

2.3 Inside the press house

2.3.1 Administration/Management

To a large extent the management of a publishing house is like any other business, and many of the rules and practices that apply to other businesses apply equally to publishing. One has, for example, similar problems of capital investment, control of inventories, cash flow, credit, personnel, etc. Yet in many ways publishing is different, first because of its cultural aspects. Publishers for most part are very conscious of the cultural role of books of all kinds, and often their decisions are based as much on literary or other cultural aspects as on business judgement.

Secondly, each new book (or integrated series of books) is a new venture or project altogether. In a sense it is a new business involving many of the same but also different considerations from the business as a whole. A publisher produces a list of books, each of which must be nurtured, considered for publication, contracted for, edited, designed, manufactured, and sold. Each book is unique and has many individual characteristics that affect its progress at every stage during its manufacture.

I shall borrow the terms **macropublishing** and **micropublishing** from Bailey (1990:62), which I find very appropriate even though he found them rather awkward. He explained that these words respectively 'exhibit a suggestive parallel with the well-established terms macro-economics (involving the entire economy) and micro-economics (involving only a particular market within the economy).' He defined macropublishing to include all those aspects which

involve the publishing house and its list as a whole, and micropublishing as those considerations that involve decisions about an individual book. Every publishing house must engage in both macro and micropublishing, and one of the Publisher's main tasks is to co-ordinate these two closely related activities. This is for the simple reason that individually successful publishing ventures (micropublishing) usually require a well-organized and skilfully managed macro publishing activity. (A partial list of details of the two is given in *Table 2.1* below).

Table 2.1: Macropublishing and Micropublishing compared

Macropublishing	Micropublishing
Editorial policy	Editorial decisions on manuscripts
House editorial style	Copyediting
House design style or policy	Design of individual books
Control of production cost and quality	Arrangements to manufacture a book
Marketing budget and policy	Marketing plan of a book
Analysis and projection of sales of the list	Sales background or projection for a book
Pricing policy	Price of a book
Inventory policy	Print order for a book
Personnel policy and management	Royalty rate
Organization (including work flow)	Publication plan of a book
Discount structure	Discount category
Copyright and rights	Subsidiary rights (eg book-club possibilities)
Budgeting and financial management	Budget control for a book/project

Source: Bailey, 1990:63

With a few exceptions (the chance privately published book that becomes a bestseller), each title builds on the successes of the others and is produced and distributed more efficiently as part of a planned list and with the benefit of the attention of a variety of specialists. It is evident from the table (below) that macropublishing is mainly the responsibility of the top management, and it

provides the total framework for the micropublishing activities of the press house. Essentially, there is no inherent conflict between the two, though micropublishing decisions will be affected by macropublishing considerations, since the former must fit within the broader macropublishing framework.

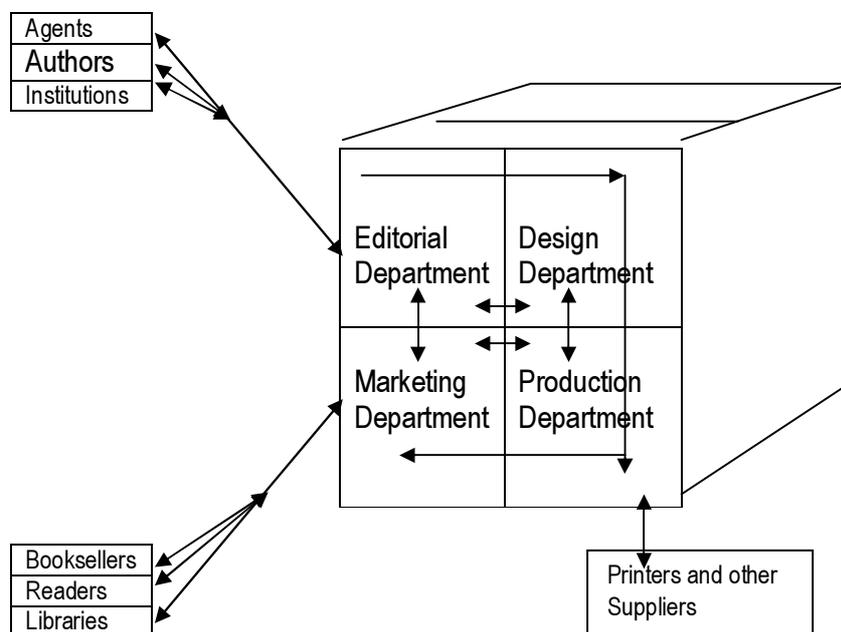
In macropublishing, there is cash flow, inventory flow, investment in operating costs (overhead), and the rate of output in the new titles and imprints, all adding up to the control of investment in its many parts, including investment in personnel. In micropublishing, there is the flow of an individual book through the editorial, design, production, and marketing stages. Functionally, a publishing house is organized along the micropublishing activities performed to transform a manuscript (or typescript) into a finished product—a book or journal issue. Following the normal flow of work, a press house may have editorial, design and production, and marketing departments.

Management and accounting are two other departments that do not belong to the normal sequence of work in the press house but have exacting influence on what goes on in all the various departments. The management department belongs to the director of the house (the Publisher), who co-ordinates all work in the house together with the heads of the various departments. Management directs and controls the overall activity (macropublishing) of the house both internally and with respect to its external environment. It sets directions, goals and policies, and concerns itself with internal co-ordination. The accounting department keeps records of income and expenditure, providing management with background information and future projections on the basis of which management can make decisions. In some cases, this department also processes orders, collects bills, controls credit, shipping and warehousing operations. The interrelationship between the various departments of the press house is represented in *Figure 2A*.

A primary task of publishing management is to control change by making a variety of large and small decisions, constantly adjusting action in the light of

short and long-term experience in relation to conscious goals. In terms of more specific short-term decisions, the ultimate goal of the press house may be to publish a certain number of new books this year, to maintain inventories at a certain level, to achieve a certain level of sales performance, or to publish certain individual books or types of books. Decisions on the acceptance of manuscripts are made periodically during the year in relation to an overall yearly budget of acceptance, and major decisions on advertising budgets may be made twice a year. Numerous detailed decisions must be made about each individual book (micropublishing): on acceptance and contract terms, editorial problems, format, price, quantity to print, marketing strategy, etc. All the detailed decisions regarding individual books merge to constitute the total publishing result, the life of the publishing house, so the overall publishing decisions (macropublishing) must provide the context in which the individual decisions are made.

Figure 2A: The schematic diagram of departments in the publishing house



Source: Adapted from Bailey, 1990:44

Management decisions should take cognizance of the **external environment** of the publishing house and the **internal organization** of its operating and managerial functions. In exercising his/her administrative duties as press director, the Publisher must be sensitive to the external environment, which is made up of authors, agents, institutions, booksellers, wholesalers, libraries, readers, printers, binders, and banks as well as competitors. Libraries in particular constitute a key market, especially for scholarly books, without which it would be virtually impossible to publish scholarly books. In the US, well over half of the books published by university presses are sold to libraries, and some observers estimate that the proportion could be as high as eighty percent (Altbach, 1976b:6). In a Third World country like India, library sales of scholarly books are about eighty to ninety percent.

In the main, and as far as the core business of the press house is concerned, the author is the most essential external contact. The Publisher will be sensitive to competition from other publishing houses and in the book market, and must be aware of new ideas and trends (especially technology) that may affect the book industry. The scholarly press house must cope with the complexity of creative and scholarly networks by such means as discovering new talents, pioneering fresh fields, judging the quality and saleability of manuscripts, arranging for editing, and working out relationships with individual authors.

In the 'distant' environment, the publisher is also very much affected by broader social conditions. The nature of the educational system, the condition of libraries and other book purchasing institutions, the rate of literacy in the population, and the accessibility of alternative media all influence publishing. The publishing firm is bound by physical constraints of production and distribution, for example labour and transportation, availability of outlets, printing presses and the cost of paper. In fact, the general social, economic, and political conditions of a country, as well as those on the international scene affect the publisher.

The Publisher must also be sensitive to government rules, regulations, and laws. The coordinating role of the Publisher in his/her capacity as director who is mindful of all the internal intricacies of the house without losing touch with the essential external factors is very vital. In the internal organization of the house, he/she must integrate all the various departments into a working unit, a fact emphasized by Bailey (1990:43):

A successful publishing house is not an assemblage of independent, disconnected departments: it is a structure with many doors, some opening in, others out. If some of the doors are locked, the house will not function harmoniously or well.

The Publisher's office is the centre of decision and policy-making. No work actually flows through this office, yet it comes to the office for approval or is carried out on the basis of policies and procedures approved by the office. The Publisher's experience, judgement and knowledge are applied to the programme as a whole or to specific areas as appropriate or as needed, always with the overall goals of the publishing house in mind. In some cases such as university publishing, the Publisher reports to a superior body—a board of directors or a faculty committee, and ultimately to the university authorities.

The administrative relationship between a university press and its parent university, indicates a structural relationship with the parent body, be it semi - autonomous, wholly owned by the university, or a purely commercial entity. Azzam (1995:77) indicated that there are university presses which form business units and are structurally autonomous but functionally owned by their respective institutions. They carry out institutional duties and have to pay taxes as ordinary businesses. She cited the case at the University of Indonesia where only the director and manager are government employees. The Press does not receive any funding from government, and its main asset has been the good name of the university. In Indonesia's six premier university presses, all founded between 1969 and 1971, the press directors report directly to the rector of the parent university. In discussing the parent/press relationship, Azzam (1995:169) stated that in general the typical university press in Malaysia is a unit under the chancellery office and is managed by a publications officer directly responsible to

the vice-chancellor and the chair of the publications committee. This committee approves all publications and draws its members from faculty deans, directors of the institutes and centres, the senate, chief librarian, the bursar, and the publications officer who is the secretary.

The view of Thatcher (1994:230) is that almost all university presses function as departments of their universities, with the director reporting to the dean of the graduate school, a vice president for academic affairs, or the provost. The exact positioning of the press within the university's overall bureaucratic structure can have some effect on how it operates. In addition to the business considerations involved (costs of entry into a market, level of competition to be expected, etc), a university press is faced with interpreting its obligations to its parent university by making decisions about where to concentrate its editorial efforts. Therefore deciding what to publish is more complicated in some ways for a university press than a commercial publisher. All presses to some degree feel a responsibility to reflect the strengths of their universities' faculty, but how far they go in making their list a mirror of their university differs considerably from press to press.

2.3.2 Acquisitions and editorial work

The editorial department, in its constant dealings with authors, represents the whole publishing house to the author. The author is interested in what his/her book will look like after a manuscript has been accepted, how quickly it will be produced, what advertising and sales effort will be made, and what payment he/she will receive. But first, the acceptability of the manuscript must be determined, and this is the prime responsibility of the editorial department. Editors read and write reports on them, recommending acceptance, revision, or rejection. Hundreds and often thousands of manuscripts come into the publishing house each year, and every one must be dealt with in this way. The judgement of the editorial department is based on the overall purposes, goals and abilities of the house. A technical publisher, for instance will not take on a cookery book

even though it might look profitable; such a book would not be consistent with his/her reader-author public.

At the same time that the editorial department is deciding on which manuscripts should be accepted, it is also seeking authors and trying to persuade them to accept the publisher. Editors write to potential authors and travel to talk to authors and agents. They read newspapers, magazines and professional journals in their fields of interest, watching to see who is writing on what subjects and what ideas and subjects are currently in the public eye. They talk to specialists of various kinds, get recommendations for subjects and authors, think up projects and seek authors to carry them out. Lastly, they keep in touch with authors whose works have been previously published by the house, inquiring what they will be writing next, encouraging, criticizing and suggesting.

The term 'acquiring editor' and other labels such as 'commissioning', 'soliciting', 'procuring' and 'sponsoring' are used to designate that special type of editorial work which is devoted to finding books to publish as against copyediting a manuscript. Thatcher (1994) preferred to use 'sponsoring editor', which has the advantage of directing attention to the important roles of overseer, cheerleader, and liaison that an editor performs. He quoted the editor-in-chief of Plum Press as saying: 'The sponsoring editor has the broadest, most general responsibility for each book, from the time it is signed to the time that it is declared out of print' (Thatcher, 1994:211). For example, it is the editor who establishes the overall schedule within which the particular schedules for production, publicity and sales must be organized. In his view the highest accomplishment of any sponsoring editor is the development of a group of books that relate to each other in an intellectually coherent way such that they form a whole, a list that is greater than the sum of the individual parts.

Apart from building a list, other aspects of the work of the editor involve the editor as a hunter, selector, shaper, linker, stimulator, shepherd, promoter, ally, and

reticulator (Thatcher, 1994:214). These various roles have become necessary for several reasons, including stiff competition between university presses and commercial publishers who have scholarly programmes. It is common for press editors to engage in aggressive acquiring behaviour, involving frequent travel to conventions and college campuses to track down and capture the always scarce quarry of first-rate authors. As selector, for instance, the editor plays the gatekeeping function that university presses carry out in identifying what most deserves to be widely disseminated and in legitimating its status as a genuine advance in scholarly knowledge.

Describing the work of editors, Appel (1994) said manuscripts arrived at their offices because they had been pursuing them or because the authors had written or called on their own. The job of the editor is to obtain outside reports on the most promising manuscripts, to return as soon as possible the manuscripts that do not seem appropriate for their list, and to move into production in a timely manner those works that have been accepted for publication. Sponsoring a manuscript is a way editors feel they can have an influence on their world, make a difference, a way not only of facilitating the dissemination of scholarship by others but also of helping to define the direction that scholarship takes.

Parsons' 1987 study of the selection process in university presses showed that the largest percentage of manuscripts were actively acquired by editors who go to scholarly conventions, browse academic journals, visit campuses, and solicit manuscripts by writing to prospective authors. Thus it is not unusual to find that the publisher has a clear idea not only of the subject of the book that is to be written, but also of its general tone and orientation. In such cases the synopsis becomes much more of a joint endeavour between the editor and the author. Furthermore, there is often some measure of collaboration during the writing process itself, so that the publisher may assure himself or herself that what is being written accords with his/her own notions of what is needed, so that the author may be sure he/she is writing what is wanted.

The task of the editor can be defined very simply: to select and prepare texts for publication, but editorial training is another matter. Unlike most specialists in book production, the editor undergoes no formal training for his work. He/she is almost invariably trained on the job informally. One of the most common tasks performed by the neophyte editor is sifting the mass of manuscripts that arrive at a publishing house each day. The new editor is also frequently expected to do some copy editing, that is, preparing accepted texts for the printer by correcting grammar, spelling, diction and the like, and seeing that the text conforms to standard house style. This may also include desk editing, a stage between copy editing and commissioning, or supervising the progress of books from manuscript to bound copies and working closely with the production/design department, and giving information to marketing and sales staff. At times he/she may be encouraged to entertain one of the house's less important authors or to seek out potentially saleable unpublished manuscripts. After several years of this type of work, the new editor will become—provided the apprenticeship period has been satisfactory—a full-fledged editor, responsible for building and maintaining his/her own list of authors in assigned subjects.

As editor of the *Cambridge Law Bulletin*, Cohen (1994:140) said many, perhaps most of the manuscripts are invited, a feature which distinguished the *Bulletin* from other journals. 'When a criminal law procedure topic is 'hot' due to legislative developments (sentencing guidelines, for example) or because of important judicial developments (restriction on appeals from death row, for example) then I will search my inventory of potential authors and invite an article on a proposed topic'. Other manuscripts are received unsolicited from authors previously published or unknown to us. In all cases, every manuscript is read with the question: 'is there more reason than not to characterize this manuscript as publishable or unpublishable?'

Some manuscripts are rejected simply because the topic is not suitable for the *Bulletin*, or while it may be suitable, it is in an area where the *Bulletin* already has published material, or has in the pipeline, similar material. Other unsolicited manuscripts are rejected because the material is so clearly not well done—poorly written, little evidence of requisite research, poorly analyzed, and the like. Where a manuscript has been solicited, the presumption is that the work is publishable, even though there have been occasions where such a manuscript had to be rejected. In addition to providing form and content to the journal and soliciting, accepting and rejecting articles, the editor also performs what he called ‘soft editing’.

By this he meant marking up the script by substituting one word for another, some sentence revision, and the like. As a matter of policy, the *Bulletin* does not encourage the multiple submission of manuscripts, but does not disqualify any author who does so. However, failure on the part of the author to disclose multiple submission borders on an unethical practice, especially when disclosure comes at the point of publication of the article by the *Bulletin*. In the words of the editor ‘it leaves a bad taste...that I am likely to remember should the same author seek to publish with us in the future’ (Cohen, 1994:143). It is the strong belief of the editor that any prospective author should know something about the journal in which he or she seeks publication.

Until the mid 1940s, it was customary for much manuscript reading and selection to be done not by full-time employees, but by established writers, academics and men of letters who were paid on a retainer or a piecework basis. Literary agents, now called authors’ agents, who have in fact been operating in one form or the other since the early years of the twentieth century are back with increased activities. Increasingly they see their task as involving not merely placing completed works or even fully thought out synopses, but also matching the ideas of their authors to the desires of the publishers with whom they come into contact.

2.3.2.1 Gatekeeping function of the press

Parsons (1987) traced the origins of the term 'gatekeeper' to sociologist Kurt Levin beginning in 1947, White in 1950, and Westley & MacLean in 1957. All three brought it into their conceptual model of communications research. He added that all social organizations depend to some extent on the use and control of knowledge, making gatekeeping a form of knowledge control. Placing this in the context of publishing, book publishers engage in a form of knowledge control as they decide on which manuscripts to select and which to reject. If publishers did not have the right of selection, they would be reduced to clerks, publishing all that entered the gates. Neavill (1976:50) posited:

It is crucial to the dissemination of knowledge that all manuscripts submitted to publishers should not be accepted. If all manuscripts were assured of publication, the channels of dissemination would be glutted with works possessing neither intrinsic merit nor commercial potential, and works for which an audience did exist would sink beneath their weight...It is of course, also crucial to the dissemination of knowledge that works which merit publication on the basis of their content not be rejected. The criteria upon which publishers base their decisions at the stage of assessment are clearly of great importance and interest.

There are hundreds of publishers and new ones are constantly being added but no two of these have identical sets of criteria for assessing manuscripts. Some eagerly accept anything that seems likely to earn a profit. But in most cases, commercial and more especially scholarly publishers, maintain high standards of quality and reject any manuscript, regardless of its commercial potentials, that fails to meet them. To this end nearly all publishers specialize to some extent⁴, and most reject manuscripts that fall outside the range and type of works associated with their imprint, no matter how good or well-suited to the lists of other publishers they may be. The diversity of publishers in itself greatly enhances the chances of a worthwhile manuscript finding a publisher.

The manuscript selection process, ideally based on quality of intellect and importance of topic, is perhaps the key to making the university press system workable. In praise of the standards existing in university publishing August

⁴This is termed List building. See Section 2.3.2.3.

Fruge of the University of California Press wrote that all scholarly publishers have performed a social and cultural role by choosing the best and most useful, (a fraction), from the great mass of written manuscripts, and those proposed to be written. He asserted that a key aspect to understanding the gatekeeping process in publishing is to recognize that the demand for editorial time far exceeds its supply. As a result, a priority rule is needed to bring supply and demand into a workable equilibrium. Publishers, it is to be remembered, are not passive gatekeepers, content merely to pass judgement on manuscripts as they are submitted.

Rowson (1994:203) gave guidelines to the editor's intellectual gatekeeping functions: 'stay on top of developments by keeping abreast of major trends in public thinking, new cultural developments, and basic issues of policy.' According to him, reading the *New York Times* and the local paper published in the community is for background purposes but also makes it possible to know or come across scholars in your field of specialization. Another way to keep abreast of new intellectual trends and who is leading them is to join their societies, peruse their journals, and attend their meetings. It is possible to start building an acquisitions network with your editorial board and your faculty. From outside the campus community, one could establish a board of visitors composed of leading intellectual and publishing figures. Finally, it is beneficial to meet your public by personally attending academic and professional meetings where your books and journals are being exhibited. It is possible to learn of audience reaction to what you have published. Even more important is to listen to what the visiting scholars have to say about new work in their respective fields, which often leads to new authors.

2.3.2.2 Editorial Boards

All manuscripts that are published require the approval of a faculty board, appointed by the university administration. The faculty panel charged with approving manuscripts sits on a key bridge between acquisition and publication.

Editors may have a manuscript that they like and one that outside readers praise as a contribution to scholarship, but the ultimate decision to publish at university presses rests in the hands of a group of faculty members. This committee, (variously called Board of Syndics, Publications Committee, Board of Trustees, or Editorial Board), usually plays no role in the publishing process until at the very end. Rather than consider an author's prestige or a manuscript's sales potential, they judge only its contribution to scholarship. 'The editorial committee's function is to control The Imprint—to approve the manuscripts that ultimately will bear the university's imprint. Only upon formal committee action can any book appear bearing the name of the university press that is publishing it' (Parsons, 1989:238). The editorial committee is a group normally ranging in number from seven to fifteen, representing major areas of study within the parent university. The composition is diverse, and may consist exclusively of faculty members or a mixture of faculty members and administrators. Members may be appointed for rotating terms, usually ranging between two to five years, with or without thought of the press's list-building areas.

If a manuscript makes it to the editorial committee stage, its chances of publication are exceptionally good. A survey of fifty-one university presses by Parsons (1989:239) revealed that fewer than one in twenty manuscripts presented for approval to editorial committees ultimately are denied The Imprint. It ought to be noted, though, that editorial committees at some university presses have evolved into powerful boards while others basically serve to approve the editors' choices. The latter is what one acquisitions editor called 'pussycat' because it routinely approved all editorial suggestions. Editors develop a loyalty to the manuscripts they choose to sponsor and once they have obtained positive outside reviews from the scholar's peers, they expect the editorial committee to say 'yes'. If the manuscript is threatened in an editorial committee discussion, then the editor often becomes a crusader.

The relationship between editors and the editorial committees, then, at times is one of camaraderie and at other times can be adversarial. A potential for strain exists because editorial committee members rely completely on editors to bring manuscripts to the publishing house. Yet editorial committees have the power, and occasionally use it, to reject a work after an editor may have spent months acquiring the manuscript, obtaining positive outside reviews, and working with the author to make the necessary revisions. As Bartlett Giamatti, once a member of the Yale University Press publications committee wrote:

I believe a university press is intellectually healthy when a spirit of affectionate antagonism exists between the editorial committee and the house editors ... Editors, after all, control the process in a fundamental way; they decide what will and will not enter the system. Editors are also charged with soliciting readers' reports, encouraging projects, dealing with authors. Editors create the agenda for the editorial committee in every sense (cited in Parsons, 1989:240).

Speaking on the role of the editorial board, Edward Tripp, editor of the Yale University Press objected to the use of the term 'affectionate antagonism' with the response:

It is true that the role of a final arbiter can be crucial, if not necessarily central, to the successful operation of any process of selection. But a faculty editorial committee holds only one of the many keys with which a press tries to lock out mediocrity and lock in quality. That this is the last key to be turned lends the acts of the committee an impressive finality—but their effectiveness depends on what has already happened beforehand. The problem is that the committee, unlike the editors, has not been hanging around the barn. When it finally locks the door, how can it be sure the horse is still inside? (cited in Parsons, 1989:240).

Tripp said that editors are human and thus may suffer from blind spots, too great an empathy with authors, and unreasoned dislikes that may cloud their judgement. At such moments, unworthy manuscripts may storm their defences or good ones slip away. In the latter case, the committee will never hear of them. In the former there is, theoretically a second line of defence. He maintained that as much quality as the committee will see has already been identified or it would not be seeing it.

The committee's role is, in fact, to identify the absence of quality and to pluck the remaining weeds out of the bouquet that editors bring to each meeting. Tripp sees the committee's act as purely negative 'in that if the committee did not exist,

the best manuscripts chosen by the editors would be published anyhow—along with some less good ones'. These sentiments were shared by Mann (1978) when he asserted that whether in a university press or a commercial house the decision to advise publication rests with the editors in the first place. Editors are not likely to waste the time of the board or committee with long lists of ideas or manuscripts that they have rejected out of hand. And so far as the projects that they support are concerned their colleagues expect them to be realistic about the books obtaining a readership and a market.

Depending on the size of the press and the activist nature of the committee, editorial committee meetings range from once each month to only three times a year. Small presses encourage editorial committee members to read at least parts of all manuscripts under consideration. At the middle-sized presses, that procedure is all but impossible because so many manuscripts are considered. At the larger presses, which publish an average of one new title per work day, the editorial committee cannot even divide the work load. The editors who acquired the works therefore present the projects under consideration. No matter who makes the presentation, all editorial committee members have in hand a copy of the dossier on each manuscript consisting of readers' reports, author's responses, sometimes part of all of the manuscript itself, which they may or may not have waded through in preparation for the meeting. During the meeting, the editor or committee member makes a report and brings a recommendation to publish or not publish. If the outside readers are strongly positive and the editorial committee member is enthusiastic, a positive vote is likely to follow. If questions are raised at any stage, it may prompt lengthy discussion, possibly leading to rejection or a vote to delay consideration pending author revisions.

After the manuscript has been accepted and a contract signed on terms that are accepted by both the author and the house, the next stage in the work-flow is the *real* editing of the manuscript. Copy editors go over the manuscript carefully for style and content, try to think of the book as a finished work making its way into

the world, and worry about everything from the title page to the colophon. They consider the question of illustrations and diagrams, examine the organization of the book and consider alternatives, mark sections of the manuscript, and make notes that will later be shared with the author. There will then be a session or sessions with the author, after which the author may be asked to revise the manuscript.

The copy editor most probably is not an expert in the subject of the manuscript but Neavill (1976:51) gave these as some qualities: 'He/she should be an intelligent and careful reader, an expert in the mechanics of writing and a connoisseur of style, a helpful and sensitive critic, and an interpreter of the author's work to the designer and the printer'. Usually, if the copy editor is different from the acquisitions editor, the two work closely together on any problems that may arise. At the very least, the copy editor will see the manuscript through production, checking proofs and answering queries of the printer and of the author. He/she also works closely with the designer, and in some cases a designer is assigned to a book at the same time as the copy editor so that design questions can be settled as they come up.

2.3.2.3 List building

List building is the part of the editorial decision that guides the selection and evaluation of manuscripts as well as marketing the book. In general, organization for editorial purposes within scholarly houses is along specialist lines, as it is important that editors should be well informed as to what is happening in the various disciplines that they cover. However, most firms, whilst employing specialist directors, also have higher level co-ordinating editors, who may be titled editorial directors, even publishers, and whose task it is to oversee broad areas of publishing. Whilst such organization may seem obviously desirable to the academic author, it may not be quite apparent to him/her that publishing is a very complicated business enterprise from which the editors are by no means divorced.

In some firms the editors hold a responsibility for the sales of the books which they sponsor, and in no firm do editors operate without careful financial plans. It is therefore an important editorial decision, especially in monograph publishing, to ensure that a balance is kept between particular academic subjects from year to year and that the publishing programme contains a judicious mixture of what might be expected to be fast and slow sellers. It is also important to keep an eye on what may be referred to as the 'branches' and the 'twigs' of subjects, so that too many young twigs are not allowed to grow on an insubstantial branch (BLB, 1976:20).

Pointing to the authors' common preference to publish with presses that have a history of producing titles in related fields, Mitchner (2000) argued that editorial experience with particular disciplines is important. Similarly, production and marketing departments need to be familiar with certain kinds of books, their formats, and their markets in order to create and sell the press's titles with confidence and some degree of success. He posed several questions like: Why don't we just publish 'good' books, saleable books, when and where we find them?; is a list the same thing for every press?; why must lists matter?; and what does a list look like to an author, an editor, a production department, a marketing director, an external review committee? For the young academic it is:

Tell me about the other books you are publishing that are related to mine, or what other books have you published in this field? Do you have a series in this area? And then there is: My adviser tells me that I ought to publish with such-and-such press because they are very strong in this discipline (Mitchner, 2000:63).

Lists are brand names, registrations of trademark, and other commodities in a label-obsessed culture. They matter to pre-press departments that have never handled a genre of books before so that decisions are made with caution and guided by past established practices, to the marketing department that is trying to stay within budget, and faculty committee members who will want to know how well a new signing will 'fit the list'. Similarly, lists are essential to the editor who needs to develop a dependable network of conscientious readers able to comment not only on the quality of a particular manuscript but also on the 'fit'

between it and their institutional identities. If the match is a bad one or the review negative, an editor in turning down a manuscript can be helpful to an author by recommending presses that are known for their books in that area. Mitchner (2000:66) admonished that whether we like it or not our presses are identified with something. Some publishers are even known for their ineptitude, their rude treatment of authors, their lack of identity, as in 'I don't want to sign with them, their list is all over the place'. It would be wise to remember the necessity of keeping our lists, our identities, our missions defined in a certain way for this can be an essential survival technique.

'The acquisition of manuscripts is the heart of publishing', stated Parsons (1991:45). The other publishing functions—copy editing, book design, marketing, and distribution—could be delegated on a contractual basis, but the one function that cannot be delegated is the decision of what to publish. The first step in the manuscript acquisition process at university presses is the determination of the publishing agenda. Today, few presses can successfully publish books in all disciplines. Instead, most scholarly publishers specialize in selected subject areas as aid to both the editorial and marketing functions. Because of the increasing fractionalization of knowledge, no editor can be at the forefront in all disciplines. By concentrating on limited areas, an editor can better develop expertise in selected areas and thereby become more effective in cultivating and nurturing personal acquaintance with scholars in those disciplines. The editor can, at least superficially, stay abreast of the literature in the selected areas and attend annual meetings of relevant societies.

Another advantage of specialization is that editors can deal summarily with unsolicited manuscripts that fall outside the publishing agenda; this can be a big time-saver. By defining its publishing territory, a press can develop a reputation as a specialist in certain disciplines and thereby achieve the visibility needed to attract the best authors in those disciplines. Specialization by university presses also has marketing advantages. It is more productive and cost efficient to

promote a group of books focused on relatively few areas than a list that is randomly assembled, and consisting largely of 'orphans'—books published without other new titles or a backlist to compliment them. From the marketing point of view then, it is crucial to have a frontlist of new titles sufficiently related to the backlist so that both groups can be promoted together. Publishing a book that bears little relation to the press's list, no matter how worthy that book might be, would force a press to expend an inordinately large percentage of its marketing budget to reach an entirely new audience.

University presses typically determine their areas of specialization on the basis of four considerations: the publishing heritage of the press, the evident strengths of the parent university, the sales potentials of various fields of inquiry, and the scholarly interests of the editors themselves. It is known for a fact that university presses (at least in the US) publish primarily in the humanities and the social sciences with a lesser publishing focus on the natural sciences (Day, 1991; Parsons, 1991; Thatcher, 1993). It is generally true that a university press's list will be strong in many of the same areas in which its parent university's faculty is strong. But the pressures of succeeding as business enterprise as well as the attractions of exciting new intellectual developments will tend to make correspondence between the two uneven. The investment that a press has already made in building a list in a particular field is a major determinant of editorial decision. Thatcher (1994:235) quoted Powell as having said that 'when editors are in the process of signing books, the list that is already in print will impose its own logic on them, in both obvious and imperceptible ways'.

2.3.2.4 Author-editor relations

The editor and the copy editor are supposed to help the author make his/her manuscript more readable and attractive to prospective readers. This is bound to create tension as some authors often feel that editors sacrifice the finer points of scholarship or refinement of style to sales appeal. Editors on the other hand, tend to think that authors are idiosyncratic and esoteric in their style and manner of

presentation, and that they exclude themselves from effective communication with all but a very small fraction of the prospective reading public. Many a battle in the editorial office is fought over saleability versus scholarship or artistic merit, and communication versus precision. The decision to publish or not to publish a book may have a major impact on the subsequent career of an author. Coser (1976:22) commented:

Many scholarly authors, for example, are fairly young persons still in the process of establishing their academic careers. For them, the publication of a book may make the difference between moving up the academic ladder and receiving tenure; and moving to a less desirable or prestigious department. In such cases the decision of an editor to accept or reject a book, or to reshape it, may have considerable consequences. The editor of the Columbia University Press, for example, may in some instances have as much influence on a tenure decision as the judgement of the author's academic superiors and peers.

Authors frequently grumble about the changes which editors urge them to make, yet most authors expect and desire editorial assistance from their publishers and justifiably feel cheated if they fail to get it. It is a rare manuscript that the attention of an intelligent editor cannot improve. The editor is deeply involved with the work and brings a fresh perspective to it. Faults which remain hidden to the author may be apparent to the editor, and problems which the author has been unable to resolve may yield to another point of view. Sometimes editors have worked closely with authors, helping them to shape difficult manuscripts into publishable form. Neavill (1976:49) asserted that 'many authors need the advice, prodding, and encouragement the editor provides. This nurturing of authors is no small part of the publisher's contribution to the production of knowledge'.

Mann (1978:14), quoting Altbach, said 'although publishers mediate between those who create knowledge and the intended public, publishing is usually ignored by the intellectual community and little is known about even the most basic facts of the book trade.' Academics rarely have very much knowledge of how publishing works. Some aspiring authors do not know even basic facts such as low print runs resulting in high unit costs and are unable to understand why two books of similar length may be priced differently. There are indications that contributors of journal articles often do not study the particular interests and style

of a journal enough before submission. The need to choose the right journal and try to get the article in the right form and length is often overlooked.

The need for editors to understand their authors was brought out in comments by authors about the many points of detail, which must be dealt with when a book is to be published. Experienced authors, especially scientists, clearly appreciated the great attention to detail that was required of them and of the desk or copy editors. Figures, tables, diagrams, maps, references, indexes and proofs could all easily become points for disagreement and the authors greatly appreciated having a 'personal' editor to whom they could turn if they felt things were not going well. There are numerous possibilities for misunderstandings, disagreements and conflict in relationships, which arise over such personal matters as the writing and publishing of books. 'The more each side understands the others' aims and problems the greater is the likelihood of reaching a compromise when difficulties arise', concluded Mann (1978:69).

Mann suggested that it would be useful if a body, or perhaps two bodies such as The Association of University Teachers and the Publishers' Association together, could bring out a 'plain man's guide' to agreements, which would benefit both sides. The booklet might include useful hints to authors on what to avoid if they wish to publish their manuscripts. He added that if authors could be told, very simply, some of the business problems and administrative difficulties which particularly beset publishers, they would be more inclined to exercise a responsible attitude to the publishers. Further, it would be a very good thing for academic departments to invite an editor to meet the staff and postgraduates informally and to talk to them about how to get published. The 'New Deal' between African writers and publishers fits this proposal.

The Nigerian writer Onwuchekwa Jemie writing in the respected *Guardian* (Lagos) newspaper in 1987 (Zell, 1999) lumped all publishers together as mostly liars and cheats. Since that time there have been unsavoury remarks by African

writers critical of their publishers, calling them incompetent, crooks, or the well-worn author pronouncement 'my publisher is hopeless'. African writers generally do not seem to hold their publishers in high esteem. For many their expectations have not been fulfilled, and others feel they have been let down by sometimes unacceptable poor production quality of their books. While there are exceptionally good African publishers, the standing of some of their colleagues needs to be criticized. It probably also contributes to the fact that there are still too many African writers and scholars who continue to publish outside Africa, or place their work with some of the multinationals.

Zell (1999) suggested that the solution lay in a dialogue between writers and publishers. The Dag Hammarskjold Foundation and the African Books Collective fulfilled this in February 1998 in Arusha⁵, Tanzania, at the 'African Writers-Publishers' Seminar. Termed a 'New Deal' between writers and publishers in Africa, participants looked at publishers' and writers' expectations from each others perspective, contractual issues and writer-publisher relations, African values and African writing. Rowson (1994) advised authors to remember in their dealings with editors and publishers that they have entered a form of partnership in which each party is very important to the other. So while it is their responsibility to place in the publisher's hands all relevant information regarding the potential readership (the market) for their book, it is the publisher's responsibility to translate this into a suitable book price, an economically sound print-run, a decision as to cloth and/or paperback editions, a marketing budget, an attractive design, etc.

Authors must consider publishers as partners, not protagonists. 'Also keep in mind that you (and all authors) are your publisher's most important asset: how your publisher handles your work is obviously of crucial importance to you personally and to your career. Through the medium of scholarship and your

⁶See Appendix 6A for Arusha series of seminars

publisher's appreciation of its significance, you may even become close friends' (Rowson, 1994:207).

Publishing any book entails some negotiations between the author and the publisher. Successful commercial authors can, because of their economic clout, insist on and receive more concessions from publishers than less proven writers. Literary agents exist to represent an author's rights in negotiations with publishers. There are now literally hundreds of literary agents, most of them based in London or New York and very few authors who make their living by writing books do so without the help of an agent. Presumably, the agent might interest a more prestigious publisher, obtain larger advances, obtain higher percentage on royalties and market rights more imaginatively. The relationship between a traditional academic author and a scholarly publisher differs in several ways from other author-publisher relationships. The academic author usually does not expect a large return from royalties, however there are familiar disputes regarding, for example, who decides on the cover design and the title of the book (Clark, 1999; Harnum, 1999).

Harnum after sampling opinion and practices from other university press houses presented the consensus that authors must be clearly informed at the contract stage what their role in cover design is to be. For Clark, what scholarly authors wanted repeatedly came down to two things: speed and marketing. He thought that looking at some of these expectations could help publishers to focus on the increasing need to view attentiveness to authors' expectations as an essential process to be carried out by every member of staff of the press. Keeping authors happy required communication and consensus building in a way that is new to many acquisitions editors.

Jones (1999) discussed the changing relationships between university presses and their authors, pointing out that the changes were geared towards more responsibility to the author. Her findings indicated that between 1980 and 1995,

authors were given more responsibility for providing camera-ready copy, indexing, acquiring permissions, paying reproductions costs, and securing title subsidies. Publishers also try to involve authors in suggesting potential buyers and they give extra support to specialist booksellers who know their markets. Furthermore, the camera-ready copy method requires the author to produce a manuscript neatly typed and set out according to certain rules so that the typed pages themselves can be photographed and the photographic plates used for the production of the book. By this means the author becomes the compositor and the very costly transference of the author's manuscript to a new format is cut out. Some of these burdensome actions may be viewed as cost-cutting measures on the part of the publisher.

2.3.2.5 Peer review

Peer review is an essential responsibility of the scholar for the evaluation of other scholars' work on behalf of the publisher. Rowson (1994:207) said publishers as well as potential authors must rely on the expertise and the goodwill of scholarly colleagues for the execution of this useful, sometimes satisfying, but often difficult task. Considering how valuable a careful, intelligent, and constructively critical review is to the author, he added: 'Most important of all, your effort in reviewing the work of your peers will have made a vital contribution to scholarship and to the all-important process of its dissemination'.

Research into the peer review process started around 1985 reaching its peak in 1994/95 apparently after the formation of Locknet and the institution of the Peer Review Congresses, which started in 1989. The work by van Rooyen (1998) examined the process of peer review in scientific publication by reporting the work of Locknet, an international network for research into the preparation, publication and dissemination of health research. It looked at the objectives of the peer review process, ethical and quality issues raised, and the problems of improving the quality of peer review. It also explored some of the research recently undertaken into peer review. Of particular interest were the International

Congresses on Peer Review in Biomedical Publication held three times in 1989, 1993 and 1997. These congresses sought to stimulate and report research into the peer review process.

Van Rooyen described the editorial process at the British Medical Journal (BMJ), and defined peer review as the process of seeking advice from independent external experts, and a peer reviewed journal as one for which the majority of its published articles have been submitted for review by experts outside the staff of the journal. Placing the process in the overall context of the editorial decision-making, she argued that peer review is about making choices and improving the manuscript before publication, and simplistically, the objective is that good science should be published and bad science rejected for publication. She admitted that the process is strongly subjective as it requires the opinion of experts on the work of others in the same field.

Criticisms levelled against the process are that it is slow (with a turn-around time of between three months and in some cases twelve months), expensive, unreliable because of its subjective element, and open to abuse. Reviewers or editors, for example, favouring prestigious authors can display bias, and clearly the editorial process, which is fair is one which reduces or eliminates as many sources of bias as possible. Among the issues raised to improve upon the process were multiple review to reduce bias, training of reviewers, a system of reward for reviewers, and the provision of some form of guidelines and checklists for reviewers to use when reviewing papers.

Essentially, the peer review process is a quality control mechanism for academic or learned journals and, to a lesser extent, professional or practitioner journals. Evans (1994) provided advice and guidance on the mechanism of the process, stating advantages and disadvantages of the process. Many people are unhappy with peer review and equate it to censorship. They state that there are many instances where an important piece of work has been suppressed because the

established figures within the field have failed to approve the content. This opinion is however in the minority. Another major criticism is that, as far as the author is concerned the conventional peer review process for journals comes a bit late in the day. The research has been done and conclusions drawn therefore trying to build in quality at the end of the process is far too late.

Despite its demerits, the peer review process is central to scholarship and has survived for a number of centuries now (Evans, 1994). Its merits may be listed as allowing an author to claim priority to an idea, validation of author's work, protection from plagiarism, assurance of authenticity, and quality assurance. Together with the International Congresses on Peer Review described by van Rooyen, another effort at improving on the peer review process is through the establishment of PeerNet, an electronically conducted blind review system hosted by the Literati Club of the UK at its website: <http://www.literaticlub.co.uk>. PeerNet aims at harnessing new technology to support the administration of review, improve the speed of the process, expand individual editor's pool of reviewers, and find new authors, reviewers, and subject experts for the reviewing process.

The issue of promotion and tenure is integrally tied up with the formal peer reviewed publication. The way forward calls for neither the lessening of the importance of research in the criteria for promotion and tenure, nor a turning away from peer review as a means of evaluating the quality and importance of individual research achievements. Rather, an alternative means of achieving these ends needs to be found. The most promising ideas involve the separation of certification and dissemination, combined with the increased utilization of electronic publication and the Internet. A partnership between universities and scholarly organizations or learned societies is one real possibility. An additional step would be an explicit agreement among universities and colleges that appropriately managed certifications posted to Web sites would have equal weight with printed publications in promotion and tenure reviews.

2.3.3 Production and design (Reproduction)

Once the publisher has accepted a manuscript, and any changes in its content as agreed upon by the author and editor have been made, the work is ready to be reproduced. Here *work* refers to the creation of the author, and *book* is the particular format or edition in which the work is reproduced. The publisher must decide what kind of book to make from the work, a decision shaped by the nature of the work itself or by the kind of audience the publisher hopes to reach. Sometimes a publisher must choose from a multiplicity of possible audiences and formats. William Morris's Kelmscott *Chaucer* and a paperback edition of the *Canterbury tales*, for instance, are the same work, in radically different formats, aimed wholly at different audiences. With a work like *Robinson Crusoe*, the publisher's options are almost limitless. It must be decided whether the book should appeal to adults or juveniles; produced as an edition for a popular audience or for scholars; or embellished with an introduction, illustrations, or explanatory notes. The publisher can even tamper with the work itself (without copyright infringement), abridging it, simplifying or modernizing its language, or translating it. The publisher's decisions in these matters largely determine how and by whom the work will be consumed.

Most publishers outsource the binding and printing of the book, but it is part of the editor's duty to supervise and control the reproduction of the work. The point at which a designer is first involved with a new book varies. It may occur before or after the author has completed the manuscript, the designer receiving either an edited or unedited copy. By then the book's overall parameters (e.g. format, extent, illustrations, binding, paper) have been planned by the editor and management. In some firms editors personally brief designers while in others meetings are organized, attended by the production team and sometimes the sales staff. The outcome is a production specification, covering the production methods and proof stages to be used, and the time schedule. It is vital for the designer to be given a clear brief by the editor at the outset.

The production department buys composition, paper, printing and binding materials according to specifications it gets from the design department. Few publishers have their own printing plants, and even when they do, the production and printing departments are usually organized separately. The size of the production department will depend mainly on the volume of work as seen in the number of new titles and reprints handled each year. The department must keep track of production schedules and specifications, noting the times at which the various stages of production are due to be completed: manuscript to printer, galleys to editor, galleys to printer, pages to editor, etc. Besides maintaining contact with various printers and binders, designers, editors and authors, the department must maintain an orderly flow of work and quality, at the same time keeping costs down. It must also order paper, cloth and other essential raw materials, at bulk prices where possible.

2.3.4 Sales and promotion

It is universally agreed that book distribution is one of the most difficult problems for publishing, not only in the Third World, but in virtually every country (Altbach, 1998a). The anticipated behaviour of the public is the most crucial element affecting the publisher's decision at the stage of assessment of a manuscript. It is upon this that all economic considerations affecting publication hinge—not only whether to publish a manuscript, but also how many copies to print, what retail prices to set, and the like. It is ultimately the publisher's concept of the audience, whether accurate or inaccurate, that determines the fate of a manuscript offered to him or her.

This is because publishing is in part a sales enterprise so most publishers pay considerable attention to the publicity and distribution of their books and selling in the publishing world is often of a fairly genteel nature, with return on investment coming after several years. Advertisements in appropriate newspapers and journals and direct mail campaigns are means of making information about books available. Specialized books are advertised in academic journals as publishers

try to have their books reviewed in appropriate media, believing that independent reviews help sell books. All these efforts assume the existence of journals, mail lists, book reviews, book trade publications and other media. Most industrialized nations are endowed with the basic book trade publicity mechanisms, but the situation in third world nations is much less favourable.

The marketing department, like the editorial department, is in direct contact with the external environment of the house. Its job is to get books to readers, and it must know who and where the potential readers are, and how they can be reached. Most books, however go through wholesalers, bookstores and libraries. Only a few publishers sell directly to the ultimate readers, and it is the duty of the marketing department to inform potential readers about each new book using all the various advertising techniques. Some tried and tested techniques are: space advertising in newspapers, magazines, and specialized journals; direct mail advertising to appropriate mailing lists; exhibition at appropriate specialized or public meetings; or for a very general title, TV and radio advertising. Publicity of various kinds may include news releases, author interviews, and advance information sent through trade publications. The department must have a sales force who makes regular visits to wholesalers, bookstores and libraries. Furthermore, review copies may be sent in advance of the publication date to influential media and individuals.

Azzam (1995:9) quoted the Institute of Marketing definition of marketing as a management process 'responsible for identifying (market research), anticipating (planning and forecasting), and satisfying customer's requirements profitably (developing products, price structures, communications campaigns and distribution systems)'. Although profit is predominant in any business setup, and in publishing in particular, the same cannot be said of scholarly publishing, especially university presses. Here, the social profit (return on social investment—that is knowledge) is paramount. The potential readership for each book must be considered and advertising, sales and promotion programme

developed especially for it, working within the limits of a predetermined budget. The adjustment of this budget is usually based on the experience of the marketing manager or the Publisher. Feedback from the marketing department is very important as a source of management information for the entire house. Strangely enough, this is often neglected or even resented by management.

Marketing recognizes a direct relationship between all aspects of the publishing house in the form of attitudes, behaviour and business activities, the delivery of customer-related values, the generation of sales revenues, and the achievement of business objectives. While the adoption of a marketing approach to business development may not guarantee success, failure to do so could lead to eventual business collapse. In publishing, like any other business, marketing has to be the driving force. An excellent example of the effect of marketing is the sales history of the bestseller, Richard Adam's *Watership Down*, a fantasy concerning rabbits. It was written and first published in England as a book for juveniles, where it won the leading British award for children's books. It was acquired for American publication by the children's book editor at Macmillan. Then within the publishing house it was decided that the work could appeal to the kind of adult audience that responded to J. R. R. Tolkien's *Lord of the Rings*. It was published and issued in the US as an adult book, while appearing simultaneously on Macmillan's children's list. As an adult book it became the second best-selling novel in 1974.

In a rather thought-provoking article on market-led approach to publishing, Grace (2001, 60-61) insisted on the essence of this approach:

It makes sense for editors and publishers to ask themselves not 'What can I produce? But what do customers want to buy now and what will they want to buy in the future?'... Marketing takes a much broader view (than selling and promotion) and means planning ahead for a profitable future, looking at what customers want now and are likely to want in the future, then providing an appropriate product, promoting it, and ultimately exchanging the product for profit (selling).

A marketing plan is essential for a market-led approach. This should contain objectives that are specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time bound. For example a publisher may set an objective to increase journal subscriptions

by ten percent by the end of the year, or improve the journal's impact factor by a set point. The plan should include market research (such as readership or author survey); the methods of promotion (direct mail, advertising, etc); the financial implications of any marketing activity, including costs and anticipated returns; and a PEST analysis. The PEST analysis is explained as a marketing model that helps the publisher to anticipate changes (political, economic, social, and technological) in the future environment.

Even though Grace's article focused on journal publication, the implication of the market-led approach is applicable to all genres of publishing, especially university publishing whose products are difficult to reach the target audience. Admittedly, the audience for scholarly books is clear and well defined but the market for these books is split between the many specializations found in academe. Scholars tend to specialize in more and more narrow topics, and scholarly books are increasingly written for more limited audiences. The views expressed concerning the mobilization of all staff in the marketing of the product is also shared by Azzam (1995:12), who submitted:

The publisher has to be market oriented, producing what the readers want and not just selling what it has produced. The opinions of the marketing department are usually not taken into consideration when making the initial decision to publish. The design, content and the appearance of the book will affect its sale. Therefore, marketing starts even before the title has been commissioned or received by the publisher; in other words—from inception to completion.

This fact is also amplified by Baum (1995:3) when he said that 'publishing is about seeing a market in a manuscript and betting on it'

Success in marketing is dependent on the willingness of publishers to understand the environment within which they operate, to carry out necessary ground work, learning from past experiences, and understanding consumer behaviour. In other words, a proper management of marketing activities must deal with two broad sets of variables: those relating to the marketing mix and those that make up the marketing environment. After acquiring and editing a manuscript and producing the book, the publisher's work is incomplete without making it known to potential readers. In the case of scholarly books with

identifiable readers but small markets, a publisher's success depends very much on their ability to acquire potentially saleable titles and to market them creatively and effectively within limited budgets.

In a very comprehensive treatment of the marketing of scholarly materials, Azzam (1995) presented the 'marketing mix' in publishing, identifying two variables, which affect the marketing activities of a press house as those relating to the internal market system and those relating to the marketing environment. The marketing mix consists of the four major components of **product, place/distribution, promotion, and price**. Marketing mix variables are to some extent controllable. These factors are affected in many ways and to varying degrees by the marketing environment variables over which the firm has little or no control.

Except in a few cases, customers are usually interested in the product (book) not who publishes it. It is the author who becomes the brand in their own right, and sometimes it is the look of the imprint that customers remember. Without doubt most scholarly publications are rich in content and customers will look for their readability. Publishers, especially of the developing world, should also be mindful of already established products (of book imports) from the developed world. In any case publishers must know their target customers and understand their needs and expectations and be able to satisfy them.

Under place/distribution, Azzam stressed such key factors as accuracy in orders fulfilment, speed, reliability and economy in dispatch, and the physical protection of the products. Failure in any one of these could lead to lost sales, diminished retail display, increased costs and the loss of confidence by both booksellers and readers. Distribution of books, is therefore, an integral part of the marketing activities in the publishing industry, although its implementation is rather problematic, especially in developing countries where lack of infrastructure makes it difficult. The effectiveness of distribution within the actual market area is

determined by the existence of book distribution agencies. These include bookstores, book departments in general purpose stores, bookstalls in mass market outlets, and book clubs.

Publishers can also distribute books to geographically dispersed consumers by direct mail or by hiring book agents who contact potential consumers in person. Direct mail is suited to the distribution of a limited range of books and has been used effectively by university presses and publishers of professional books to distribute highly specialized books to specific, clearly definable audiences. Another important aspect of distribution is by sending book review copies to potential consumers and those reviewing media most likely to be seen by the book's potential audience. Finally, the publisher can facilitate distribution by issuing some books in series. One of the inherent problems of publishing is that each title normally constitutes a separate product that must be produced and marketed on its own. This problem is somehow reduced when a title is published in a series. Inclusion in a series helps tag a book that might otherwise be lost in a sea of individual titles and gives it a slight headstart in gaining the attention of potential buyers.

Promotion is used to inform, increase public awareness, and educate consumers with the ultimate objective of generating increased profit. The four traditional methods of promotion are advertising, personal selling, publicity and public relations, and sales promotion. For scholarly publishers, direct mail is considered the most powerful marketing tool, yet choosing the right combination makes all the difference. Azzam (1995) highlighted the role played by lecturers who as the main target markets and prospective writers, also influence sales by determining which book is on their students' reading lists.

Price⁶ relates directly to the generation of revenue and therefore affects the profit equation in several ways, including buyer's perception and competition in the

⁶See Publishing economics in Appendix 2A

market. A continuous evaluation of pricing decision is an important feedback for future marketing decisions. Scholarly publishers always hold the view that publications should be as inexpensive as possible to ensure wider circulation. This could lead to serious problems if estimates are exaggerated. There are two ways of looking at book publishing costs. The first is by merely looking at what is done in the various operations: editorial, physical manufacture, and marketing and distribution. Editorial costs cover payment to author and salaries or fees for illustrator, editor, translator, designer, and others. Physical manufacturing costs include payment to printer, sales representatives, order clerks, shippers, advertisers, and promoters and the cost of raw materials such as paper, ink, glue, thread, cloth, etc., are put together as marketing and distribution costs.

The second method is a more useful way of analyzing the factors that influence the cost of a book and therefore determine the size of the publisher's profit. The publisher uses this method to determine how many copies of a book should be printed, at what selling price, and what rate of author royalty can be paid. Under this second method, publishing costs may be conveniently separated into: automatically varying costs, which include authors' royalty usually based on the number of copies sold, payments for printing, binding, raw materials, storage and shipping; and unvarying costs made up of editorial preparation and composition, and overhead costs including administration, accounting, taxes and rent. Publishers base their income on selling price, number of copies sold, discount to booksellers, and incidental costs of marketing. As a general rule, the selling price of a book is obtained by multiplying the manufacturing cost by a factor of between 3 and 6 (Smith, 1998:35).

In the hypothetical case of an edition of 5,000 copies of a book selling at $\Sigma 3$ (where Σ is a general monetary unit) with 100 copies damaged or given away free, and average discounts calculated at 25%, incidental selling costs at 3%, the net sales income is calculated as below:

Selling price for 4,900 copies @ $\Sigma 3$	$\Sigma 14,700$
---	-----------------

Less average 25% discount	Σ 3,675
Total paid by purchasers	Σ 11,025
Less incidental selling costs, 3% of sales	Σ 330
Net sales income	Σ 10,695

Putting costs against income, it is a general principle that copy costs decline as quantities increase, the basic fact which is illustrated in *Table 2.2*

Table 2.2: Cost of producing books (in Σ)

	1,000-copy edition	5,000-copy edition	10,000-copy edition
Composition (typesetting)	237.00	237.00	237.00
Presswork and binding	121.00	40.00	746.00
Paper	103.00	500.00	1,000.00
Total	461.00	1,137.00	1,983.00
Cost per copy	0.46	.0.23	0.20

Table 2.3: Selling price and sales income (in Σ)

	1,000-copy edition	5,000-copy edition	10,000-copy edition
Production cost per copy (from Table 1)	0.46	0.23	0.20
Selling price	1.50	0.80	0.75
Average sales income per copy (70% of selling price)	1.05	0.56	0.53
Number of copies available for sale (5% of edition copies)	950	4,900	9,850
Total sales income	998	2,744	5,220
Relative cost (based on 1000-copy edition)	1	2.5	4.5
Relative profit (based on 1000-copy edition)	1	7.5	18

The relationship of cost to profit in editions of different sizes is a key point because for the 5,000-copy edition the cost is 2.5 times the cost of the 1000-copy edition, but the profit would be 7.5 times if all copies were sold. For the 10,000-copy edition the cost is 4.5 times but the profit is 18 times! (These are as shown in *Table 2.3*).

The cost of production is only one part of the publisher's cost and income has to be calculated to consider the profit or loss on a book. On the assumption that a publisher applies a factor of 3.5 of the manufacturing cost to obtain the unit selling price of a book, an average income sales after discounts to booksellers is 70% of the selling price, and allowing 5% of copies for damage and promotion; the publisher's full cost may be put together as in *Table 2.4*.

Table 2.4: Full publishing cost (in Σ)

	1,000-copy edition	5,000-copy edition	10,000-copy edition
Selling price	1.50	0.80	0.75
Number of copies to sell	950	4,900	9,850
Production cost (from table 1)	461	1,137	1,983
Author's royalty (10% selling price)	142	392	831
Advertising (estimated)	100	200	300
Overhead (25% of net sales income in table 2)	250	686	1,305
Full publishing cost	953	2,415	4,418

A method that publishers use when deciding printing quantities and selling prices is that of calculating what is called the break-even-point. This is the number of copies that will have to be sold in order to recover manufacturing costs. The caution is that the break-even-point does not include the exact overhead costs and so should be taken as a rough estimate. To arrive at the break-even-point, the publisher first calculates what margin per copy will be left for meeting

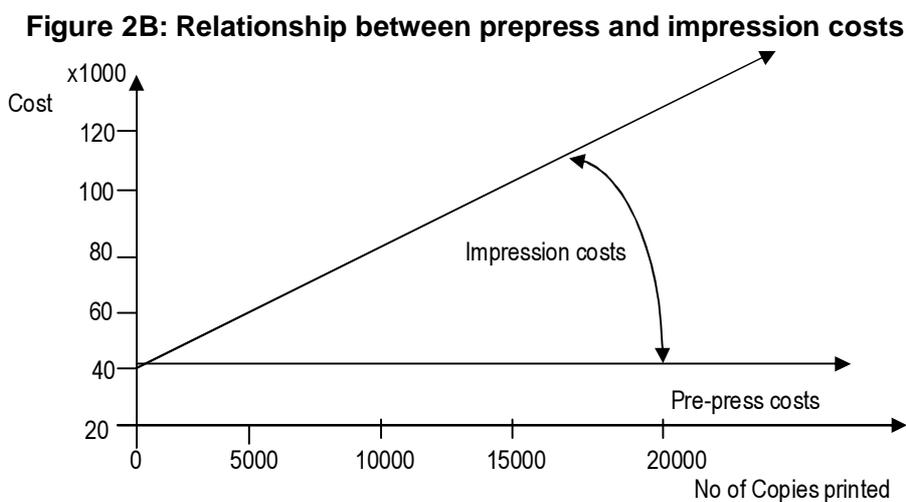
production costs after paying other expenses. That margin figure is then divided by the total production cost. Using the 5000-copy edition as an example:

Selling price of book	$\Sigma 0.80$
Less average discount estimated at 30%	<u>$\Sigma 0.24$</u>
Net sales income per copy	$\Sigma 0.56$
Less (per copy)	
Author royalty (10% selling price)	$\Sigma 0.08$
Overhead (25% net sales income)	$\Sigma 0.14$
Advertising	<u>$\Sigma 0.05$</u>
	$\Sigma 0.27$
Margin per copy for paying for production ($\Sigma 0.56 - \Sigma 0.27$)	$\Sigma 0.29$

Break-even-point: $\Sigma 1,137 / \Sigma 0.29 = 3,921$ copies.

Thus if the book is published in a 5,000-copy edition at a selling price of $\Sigma 0.80$ and with all other conditions as given, the publisher could recover the manufacturing cost by selling 3,921 copies.

Publishing costs can most usefully be divided into the two broad areas of pre-publication and post-publication, what Montagnes (1998) called pre-press and impression costs respectively. These are the costs related directly to the production of an individual title, from the decision to proceed until the arrival of finished books in the warehouse. Direct costs are in contrast to overhead costs which, represent the cost of carrying out operations and include salaries, benefits, rent of office and warehouse space, telephone and electricity, equipment, administrative and accounting operations. Pre-press or pre-publication costs must be paid no matter how many copies are printed and normally should not have to be paid again if the publication is to be reprinted, provided there are no changes in the text or illustrations. Impression or post-



Source: Montagnes, 1998 (not to scale)

publication costs are direct costs that vary with the number of copies printed and are made up of paper, press time and finishing (binding). The relation between the two direct costs is shown in *Figure 2B*. In the graph, the total cost of printing 5,000 copies is $\Sigma 60,000$ at a unit cost of $\Sigma 12$. At 15,000 copies, the total is $\Sigma 100,000$ bringing the unit cost is down to $\Sigma 6.67$

The corollary of this cost structure is that, while the total cost rises with the number of copies printed, the cost per copy decreases as the print run increases. Pre-publication expenditures cover context acquisition, editing, design and illustration, manufacturing and initial marketing and selling costs. Post-publication costs include author royalties, distribution and order fulfillment, after launch marketing and selling costs. A model of publishing project economics is provided in Appendix 2A (Follett, 1995:88).

Parsons (1991) admitted that because sales are an indication of the vitality in scholarly areas, university presses look at sales figures when determining the rise and fall of subject areas. A book that makes little contribution to knowledge usually will not sell, and a book that does not sell will be unable to fulfil its purpose of satisfying intellectual hunger. Income, whether from the sale of volumes or rights, can be generated only by successful marketing, and the right

products to market can be identified only by accurate market research. Yet these are areas of particular difficulty for publishers. Quite simply, the huge numbers of diverse titles make practices that are common in other consumer goods industries virtually impossible in book publishing.

The book trade carries out very little large-scale quantitative research, except Reader's Digest and Time-Life, to mention just two, who do extensive research on major new projects. However, for the most part publishers rely on the evidence of their own and their competitor's sales figures with similar products. Scholarly and educational publishers rely on the views of specialist readers, while children's fiction publishers use panels of school children, and qualitative research using discussion groups of parents are used for children's reference books. In general, most titles rely heavily on the publisher's 'nose', and the market is reached by publishing the book, not by research into customer attitudes and preferences.

At four to five percent or at best ten percent of net revenue, the promotional budget for many books is just inadequate. With such small expenditure and such a diversity of titles, the focus of publishers' efforts with consumer books is directed to the book trade by persuading booksellers to subscribe and display, hence the trade catalogues, advertisements in the trade press, point of sale materials and quantity discounts. Media tie-ins are not an absolute guarantee of a book's success, but they do provide a level of promotional exposure for author and title beyond any publisher's pocket, and the success of filmed and televised fiction and non-fiction series bears witness to this. There is very little direct television advertising for books, though they do enjoy the knock-on effect from newspaper advertisements for serialisations.

By far the largest expenditure on consumer advertising for books is made by the book clubs—also with a knock-on effect for the trade sales of current bestsellers and stock titles. Outdoor advertising on billboards and bus shelters has been used effectively with some types of books, for instance road atlases. Direct mail

promotion is used at one extreme for very big illustrated reference books, notably from Reader's Digest, and at the other end for books aimed at identifiable special interest groups, business books being a particularly good example. Some of the heaviest promotional expenditures are made by educational and scholarly publishers, who know that they have to get their materials into the hands of decision making teachers and lecturers. To this end they will undertake very heavy direct mailing, the distribution of free or inspection copies and the direct representation of their products in schools and at exhibitions and conferences.

A current feature among university publishers is the use of the Internet to market scholarly books and journals. Scholarly publishers have always been able to target their potential market accurately, but the traditional sales and marketing mix of mailing, reviews in specialist journals, conference attendance and trade sales forces, not to mention trade discounts—has been under pressure as sales have remained static. Now for the first time cost-effective database marketing is within the publisher's reach, enabling it to build up a more detailed profile of the academics who control library purchases, and reach them more effectively than before through bought-in lists. Although subject catalogues are still being printed and mailed, electronic marketing will play a growing role, providing far more information on each title, including sample chapters, for example, than the printed catalogue can provide. There is more active promotion through closely targeted e-mail newsletters, which are gradually replacing the expensive flyer for announcing new small groups of titles or series.

According to recent statistics from the Books & the Consumer Survey, conducted by Book Marketing Ltd., consumers spent an estimated £2.04bn on books in 2000, an increase of six percent on 1999⁷. But there was evidence of a move away from high street retailers, with the growth driven by direct purchasing, most notably over the Internet. The survey indicated that consumers bought an estimated 13million books via the Internet in 2000, worth more than £100m or four percent of the overall market. A similar survey by the German book retailers'

association reported on Cnet that in 2000, German online booksellers saw sales rise to DM378m (£117m) from DM165m (£51m). The number of German companies that sold books online rose 71% to 2,149. About 20% of them said their online activities were profitable. This more direct grip on the market could compensate for the virtual exclusion of scholarly books from booksellers' shelves, and make publishers hold or even cut trade discounts to an acceptable level, despite the current pressure from powerful chains and library suppliers to increase them.

Summary

The chapter presented issues in contemporary scholarship involving the academic author as the originator of ideas, and the scholarly publishing process as a quality control mechanism overseen by the publisher; making the university press serve a prominent gatekeeping role in the scholarly communication process. At the centre of the academic reward systems is the maxim 'publish or perish', which is wide spread in all scholarly communities. The academic journal and scholarly monograph are the products of scholarly research meant to record knowledge and ideas and inform scholars. It recorded the concerns about quality in scholarship seen in the number of published titles, their rising costs, and the peer review process. The potentials of ICT in the form of electronic publishing, lower production costs, and print on demand were highlighted. It reviewed the internal processes of university press publishing covering administration, acquisitions and editorial (editorial board, gatekeeping functions, list building, author-publisher relations, and the peer review process), production and design, and marketing/promotion and distribution.

⁷Bookseller's twice weekly Bulletin of 8th and 24 May 2001 available at www.thebookseller.com

CHAPTER 3

The context of university publishing in five African countries

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the university press history of five sub-Saharan Africa countries—Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa and Zimbabwe. A focus on scholarly publishing locates university publishing in its proper cultural and economic environment and provides the framework, context and background for the rest of the study. The economic climate in each country is given in order to provide meaning to the level of their publishing activities and explain the problems facing them. This is for the simple reason that the slow development of Africa's publishing industry has been largely attributed to the continent's stunted economy. Makotsi (2000:17) observed that 'where the economy of particular countries has improved, publishing has often been strengthened alongside other sectors.' Citing the case of Zambia in 1987, Williams (1993:78) echoed this point by noting that:

The Zambian economy has, unfortunately continued in its decline. The National Book Development Council has never become functional and the state of publishing in the country—a decade or so later—is undoubtedly now at a much lower ebb than it was in 1977. The depressed state of the national economy is a major factor contributing to the dismal state of publishing in Zambia in the mid eighties.

The economics of publishing involves much more than the cost of producing a book in a particular country. Rates of literacy, reading habits of the population, government policy toward the book industry, copyright regulations, the nature of libraries, and the size of the book market are all part of the economic equation. The cause-effect relationship between the current economic crisis facing the African continent as a whole and the consequent poor performance of the book publishing sector described some ten years ago by Altbach is pertinent:

The economic crisis of the 1980s has affected every aspect of African society and has been especially difficult for those segments of the economy that are dependent on imports, such as book publishing. The combination of low prices on the world market for African exports, the international debt crisis, political instability, overpopulation, and

mismanagement has been an extraordinarily powerful one. World Bank statistics indicate that most sub-Saharan African countries have regressed in terms of per capita income and spending for education and related areas. Economic problems have restricted government spending for textbooks and this has harmed the book industry. Restrictions on imports have meant that paper and other materials needed for publishing are in short supply and very expensive or simply unavailable. The inability to import books and journals has meant that the universities no longer have access to the world's knowledge. In short, the economic crisis has affected all elements of publishing in Africa. It is at the root of most of the other difficulties discussed here. Without an improvement in the basic economic situation, it is unlikely that African publishing will fully regain its initiative—and the current world economic situation does not look promising for Africa (Altbach 1998a:178-179).

For most of Africa the situation remains the same if not worse and, this sets the scene for a country-by-country description of the publishing industry with highlights on scholarly publishing. In his article on periodical subscription in Ghanaian university libraries Arkaifie (1997) indicated how academic journal subscription is inextricably linked to the economic fortunes of the country. Taking one of the three premier universities, he pointed out that while in 1975 it had a subscription list of some 1400 titles, in 1987 its list was about 450, thanks to a Government rescue project under the Educational Sector Adjustment Credit with funding from the World Bank. He posed the question of sustainability of the supply of books and journals after the expiry of the programme, noting that over 95% of these came from overseas sources.

It is true that between the 1970s and 1990s Africa witnessed growth in its publishing industry, despite numerous constraints, the major one being the deepening economic recession resulting in chronic foreign exchange restrictions. Zell (1995:366) summed up the effect of this situation on education:

...foreign exchange is so scarce that many university and public libraries in Africa have been unable to purchase new books over the past ten years, much less maintain their serials collections, and the majority of them depend on book donations from abroad.

Set against these odds is the fact that indigenous publishing does not have roots in Africa, and circumstances during the colonial era and its aftermath did not favour it. During the colonial era books were imported from the colonising power, and there was very little effort to produce them locally. Indeed, some colonisers, notably the French, felt that producing and exporting books to the colonies was

the best policy. Book exports not only ensured that the ideas made available to the colonised were acceptable to the colonisers, but also provided a small advantage to the metropolitan publishers. Where local publishers existed they were often branches of large firms from the administering country. In some countries there was a small publishing base that was implanted by Christian missionaries. This view was expressed thus:

In no sub-Saharan nation, with the exception of South Africa, was there a functioning book industry at the time of independence. The only partial exceptions to this generalization are Kenya and Nigeria (Altbach, 1996a:27).

The history of publishing in these countries makes only brief mention of university publishing for the apparent reason that this kind of publishing captures nobody's attention; neither the government nor the private sector. This may not be intentional since government's preoccupation is to the mass of basic school children to the neglect of the relatively few professors and their students considered to be living in an ivory tower. The commercial publisher on the other hand is out for profit and will turn a blind eye to this sector for obvious reasons. In many respects, developing country universities find themselves in a situation similar to that of their American counterparts at the close of the nineteenth century. Many of them are moving quickly towards emphasis on graduate training and research in the growing realization that the production of indigenous research and analysis is important for the overall development and the reduction of the dependency imposed by their colonial pasts.

With the exception of universities established in Cairo (1862 in Egypt), Fourah Bay (1827 in Sierra Leone), Liberia (1862), and Omdurman (1912 in Sudan), most African universities were founded around independence in the mid-1960s. The new universities became a constituent part of the new institutions that were created to satisfy the aspirations of the new nations. Identified among the tasks of the new universities were the training of future leaders of thought in the professions, commerce and industry. Additionally, they were to train a highly educated cadre of persons who would give leadership by passing on their

education through formal and informal means. Simultaneous with the training of high-level human resources, was the need to prepare a number of social and economic research studies to serve as guidelines to the political leaders who were spearheading the reconstruction of institutions inherited from both the traditional and colonial eras.

Institutes of Education were established to research the curricula at pre-university levels. Similarly, Institutes of Adult Education were expected to run extramural courses for continuous ideological and civic education. On the basis of these 'Africanist' assignments, university lecturers began to rewrite their lecture notes. The major handicap was that the only available sources (except for the natural sciences) had been written from quite different premises, that is, for the education of Europeans according to the needs of their own societies. Therefore new textbooks had to be written; but first, the new ideas had to be tried out in higher degree theses or in journals that were not available locally. Under proper guidance and given the right opportunities and facilities, field studies were commenced on many topics for which there were no published material. Gradually, research data began to grow in size and substance, while a need for the widest possible dissemination of the new theories and research studies was felt.

Despite the expressed need for publishing the output of African research and ideas there was a dearth of publishing outlets in Africa, as the infrastructure was not laid at independence. The only publishers, mostly foreign multinationals, were not interested in this genre of publishing because of their low profit potentials. As pointed out earlier (in sections 1.1.1 and 1.2.1 of Chapter 1), the 'mainstream' publishers of the North were not interested in publishing materials relating to African issues, yet African scholars had to present a native view on subjects pertaining to the continent. Besides, there was bias in reporting and indexing research from the developing world, a situation which persists even till today. For

these reasons African university presses came to be established, modeled after their European counterparts just as were their universities.

3.2 Country reports

3.2.1 Social, political and economic climate in Ghana

Well endowed with natural resources, Ghana has twice the per capita output of the poorer countries in West Africa. Even so, Ghana remains heavily dependent on international financial and technical assistance. Gold, timber, and cocoa production are major sources of foreign exchange. The domestic economy continues to revolve around subsistence agriculture, which accounts for 40% of GDP and employs 60% of the work force, mainly small landholders. In 1995-97, Ghana made mixed progress under a three-year structural adjustment program in co-operation with the IMF. On the negative side, public sector wage increases and regional peacekeeping commitments led to continued inflationary deficit financing, depreciation of the Cedi, and rising public discontent with Ghana's austerity measures. A rebound in gold prices is likely to push growth over 5% in 2000-01¹. There is a cycle of unbalanced development in all sectors of the economy which point to the negative effects of political instability the country experienced between 1966 and 1992, and over dependence on one primary commodity—cocoa.

Despite drought-related power shortages, Ghana succeeded in maintaining broadly on track its economic programme for 1998, which was supported by the IMF under a three-year ESAF² (Enhanced Structural Adjustment Fund) arrangement. All quantitative performance criteria and benchmarks for June 1998 were observed. Real GDP growth for 1998 was forecast at 4.5 percent—somewhat below the 5.6 percent target but stronger than feared at the onset of the energy crisis. The inflation rate, which was twenty-one percent at end-1997, increased in

¹See Appendices 3A-3C: Vital economic indicators

²Ghana Economic Development & Indicators: 12 January 1999. Provided by newafrica.com - The recent Ghana economic development and performance is mainly obtained from the IMF's Public Information Notice (PIN) No. 99/2.

March and April as a result of drought, but thereafter resumed its declining trend, falling to about seventeen percent in September. The Cedi remained relatively stable, depreciating by three percent from January to September 1998. Ghana's external payments position is improving, but remains vulnerable. During 1998, the net foreign assets (NFA) of the Bank of Ghana were consistently above the program target. Also, the current account deficit (including official transfers) was estimated to decline to 6 percent of GDP bolstered by gains in the terms of trade. Export receipts were projected to rise by about 17 percent, reflecting mainly a recovery in cocoa exports. To ensure that the external debt remained sustainable, the government will not borrow or guarantee borrowing externally on nonconcessional terms.

3.2.2 Publishing history of Ghana

The origin of the book as we know it in Ghana today may be traced to European missionaries and traders who came to the then Gold Coast in the fifteenth century. Thus the history of book development and publishing in Ghana overlaps the history of Christianity and the introduction of formal schooling in what became known as the 'Castle schools' in Ghana. Early publishing activity started with the Basel and Methodist missionaries, and the Government printer, which was established in 1886. These made landmark contributions by publishing for example Christaller's *Grammar and Dictionary of Asante and Fante language* in 1875, Cardinal's *Bibliography on the Gold Coast* in 1932, and Reindorf's *History of the Gold Coast* in 1950. The missionary presses published mainly religious literature and education books, whilst the Government printer published official documents. These dominated the publishing scene until the establishment of the Ghana Publishing Corporation in 1965.

Writing on the Ghana Publishing Corporation (GPC), Brown (1975:114) argued that 'the picture in Ghana before 1965 showed an entire absence of indigenous publishing houses, absence of foreign-owned publishing houses and a heavy dependence on the importation of books and educational materials'. The

cumulative effect of the 1951 Accelerated Development Plan of Education and the 1961 Government Free Textbook Scheme was publishing responsibilities, which could not be carried out by the missionary presses and the Government printer. Hence the GPC was established with the objective of publishing educational and scholarly works, while promoting and interpreting Ghanaian culture. It is reputed to be one of the largest state publishing enterprises in Africa, comprising publishing, printing, and distribution divisions. By 1973 it had published 119 titles out of the 298 manuscripts it received since 1968.

Through co-operative publishing arrangements with foreign publishing firms like Oxford University Press, Evans Brothers, Longman, and Macmillan, the GPC bought copyright to reprint certain textbooks for the Ghanaian market. While some commentators see the arrival of the GPC on the publishing scene as stifling the local publishing industry, Cabutey-Adodoadji (1984:141) saw it as of great and many benefits and said 'it opened up avenues for indigenous publishers through training opportunities and contacts with foreign publishing companies.' Brown (1975) however, admitted that most agreements with foreign companies were skewed in favour of the latter and the local press house was always worse off.

Part of Ghana's publishing history includes the government free textbook scheme introduced in 1961 with the good intention of supplying every school-going child with the basic textbooks they needed. This policy however, eroded any book-buying culture that was left with Ghanaians after independence (Dekutsey, 1993; Offei, 1997). One concomitant result was the near collapse of bookshops because textbooks, which were distributed free by government, were the main stay of booksellers. A unit of the Ministry of Education, the Bureau of Ghana Languages, is responsible for the promotion and development of literature in Ghanaian languages. It has been involved in translations and standardization of the written form of the various Ghanaian languages and has succeeded at

publishing various translations of texts for the ordinary level examination, novels and folktales from the English language.

The development of human resources is essential for the development of any industry, particularly in the setting of the book industry in Africa. This need has been stressed in several seminars and conferences most notably the 1968 Accra and 1973 Ife conferences. After its establishment in 1975, the Ghana Book Development Council co-sponsored two in-service training courses for book personnel in 1978. Prompted by the success of the courses, the BDC requested the University of Science and Technology to mount a B.A. degree course in Book Industry. With Unesco funding and advice, the programme started in October 1984 at the University of Science and Technology, Kumasi. Hasan (1993) gave details of its origin and commended its progress after its first eight years of existence.

The Ghana Book Publishers Association (GBPA) founded in 1978 was strengthened in 1991 with institutional support from CODE (the Canadian Organization for Development through Education), raising its membership to fifty-six. Among its successes are the negotiated waiver of fifteen percent sales tax on imported printing goods and its members' participation in a World Bank funded programme of the Non-Formal Education Division of the Ministry of Education for the publication of post-literacy materials in fifteen local languages. It has also negotiated the printing of about forty titles of senior secondary school textbooks and the purchase of books by The Ghana Book Trust, (a Canadian government funded agency), from its registered members.

The continued involvement of the Curriculum Research and Development Division of the Ministry of Education in the writing of school textbooks has been a bone of contention between the GBPA and the Ministry. The GBPA believes that the Ministry should concern itself only with writing syllabuses, and leave the writing and production of books in the hands of publishing professionals. The

simple reason is that government involvement in book publishing stifles the local publishing industry. The new policy³ of the Ministry announced in December 2001 has sought to put an end to this. The country does not have an official book policy, even though the Book Development Council (established in 1975) and the local publishers' association are reviving attempts to establish one.

Most, if not all, of the local publishing houses evolved around seasoned author-publishers and former personnel of multinational publishing firms. Among them were Anowuo and Moxon, which folded up after a brief success. Well-established local firms include Afram, Sedco, Halco's Educational Press, Adwinsa, and Illen which have all been in business for more than fifteen years. There is strong author-publisher activity whose contribution cannot go unrecognized. This category of publishers writes to satisfy different sections of the reading public including creative and literary interests, subject-oriented works, and 'achievement' works.

The achievement works (or cram books) come mainly from teachers who are anxious to write textbooks or supplementary material for the General Certificate of Education. Although these works have encouraged rote learning they represent revision work in response to adverse reports of student performance in the examinations. In most cases the authors are themselves subject teachers and examiners and are not registered as business concerns. Consequently their works are elusive as they disregard existing deposit laws. The vital point is that talents abound and are waiting to be tapped and nurtured into future authors.

Finance is identified as one of the greatest problems of the local publisher since neither the government nor the banking system sees publishing as an economic activity. High interest rates on loans deny publishers any credit facilities.

Production, marketing and training may be added to the problems facing the

³Ministry of Education ceases to be its own publisher at <http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomepage/> Visited 17 December 2001

industry. Despite this seemingly long list of obstacles the local publisher survives, because local publishing capacity in terms of trained personnel, and raw materials are being addressed as publishing houses are acquiring desktop publishing facilities for in-house typesetting.

3.2.3 Tertiary education and university publishing

The history of university education in the Gold Coast, now Ghana, is a history of education commissions beginning with the Asquith Commission appointed by the Government of the UK in August 1943. It was to consider the principles which should guide the promotion of higher education, learning and research and the development of universities in the colonies. It also explored means whereby universities and other appropriate bodies in the UK might be able to co-operate with institutions of higher education in the colonies in order to give effect to these principles. The Commission identified centres around the colonies already engaged in university-type programmes of study including Achimota College (established in 1924).

According to the Commission's report of 3 May 1945, students were accepted in the College for courses leading to the University of London examinations in Intermediate Arts, Science, and Engineering, BSc (Engineering), and Intermediate Science (Economics). The Commission recommended the setting up of universities in areas without them with the immediate objective of producing men and women for public service and leadership. The Eliot Commission appointed by the Secretary of the Colonies in June 1943 to report on the organization and facilities of the existing centres of higher education in British West Africa, recommended in June 1943 that university colleges be set up in Nigeria and the Gold Coast. A minority report however recommended only one university for the whole of British West Africa to be established in Nigeria. The people of the Gold Coast however, made it known that they did not only desire a university of their own, but would contribute funds towards such development.

By an ordinance dated 11 August 1948, the University College of the Gold Coast was established under a scheme of special relationship with the University of London. It became a full-fledged university by an act of parliament of 1961 and changed its name to University of Ghana. An international commission on higher education, appointed in 1960 by the government of the first Republic recommended the College of Technology, established in Kumasi in 1951, to be converted into the University of Science & Technology (now Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology). The university was formally launched in 1961. A further recommendation was for a new University College of Cape Coast for training science teachers, which was established in 1962 in special affiliation with the University of Ghana. It became autonomous in 1971 as the University of Cape Coast.

An educational reform programme initiated in September 1987 made far-reaching recommendations on the higher education system in the country. The reforms sought to bring all post-secondary education, including polytechnics and universities, under the umbrella of tertiary education; to diversify the curriculum to provide more especially for science, technology and vocational education; and provide for movement across institutions and continuity from one to another. Distance education programmes featured prominently in the plans for greater accessibility of higher education to the population. The University for Development Studies was established in May 1992 at Tamale, as the first multi-campus university spanning the four northern administrative regions of the country. Its primary mission is to find solutions to the deprivations and environmental problems of the catchment areas. Further access to university education has been through the University College of Education at Winneba, which took its first batch of students in 1993.

All higher education institutions are under the National Council for Tertiary Education, which forms an Advisory and Coordinating Body at the national level. The Council is under the Minister of Education. Each higher institution has its

own Council and its Academic Board or their equivalents. Polytechnics have been established in each of the ten administrative regions of the country and are now in the process of being upgraded to offer university-level courses. Teacher training colleges are being upgraded into tertiary institutions. Currently there are four private universities in operation in the country, the most prominent being the Valley View University of the Seventh Day Adventist Church. Other church organizations like the Methodist, Presbyterian and Catholic have serious plans to establish universities. The Islamic University was established with the intake of the first batch of fifty students in September 2001⁴. Ghana's five public universities have a total student population of close to 27,000 and a teaching staff that totals almost 2000 (ACU Yearbook, 1998)⁵.

Government's view is that 3.8 percent of GDP and thirty seven percent of the national recurrent budget represent the limit of public spending on education. As far as higher education is concerned, not more and more universities, but rather post-secondary institutions (including polytechnics, teacher training colleges) are now to be brought into the fold of tertiary education, while distance education programmes are to be offered to reduce the pressure on the universities. While funding underlies the problems facing the universities, the government is of the view that the universities must try to be self-sufficient. The Universities Rationalization Committee (URC) urges the appointment of a business manager as one of the principal officers of each university, to run those aspects of the university's business that lend themselves to commerce. Responding to such prompting, the universities are engaged in income-generating activities of one kind or another.

The 1996 total enrolments in the polytechnics stood at 12,000. Programmes offered lead to the equivalent of the UK's Higher National Diploma (HND), on the basis of which the possibility for transfer to university for a degree course is one

⁴Ghana HomePage at <http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomepage/> Visited 16 September 2001.

⁵Daniel, GF. The universities of Ghana. In: ACU Yearbook (1998), pp 649-656.

of the advantages canvassed for bringing all post-secondary institutions under one umbrella. The URC also envisaged a regional college of applied arts and sciences for each of the ten administrative regions, comprising post-secondary institutions offering training in health-care delivery, teaching and agriculture, as yet one more strand of higher education. While the necessary steps to transform the polytechnics to their new role have been taken, movement on the regional colleges has been slow. All the institution types seen as belonging to higher education are, however, represented at the National Council for Tertiary Education.

It is significant, however that the country's population has almost tripled since attainment of national sovereignty in March 1957, and is now estimated to be about seventeen million including, as noted by the URC, seven percent of the relevant age-group in secondary schools. The junior secondary/senior secondary school programmes began in 1998, with still more of the age group 6-15 receiving basic education. It is certain, therefore, that the demand for university places will increase rather than decrease. How to come by the additional resources to enable the universities cope with the pressure of numbers consistent with the maintenance of high standards of instructions is a major issue of higher education.

Parenthetically, owing to conditions of employment that have ceased to be attractive, staff recruitment and retention have proved especially difficult in the last two decades. While those trained abroad on the universities' staff development programmes are not anxious to return home, there are hardly any locally trained PhDs to be appointed. Of staff on the ground, the professors among them are past fifty and close to retirement. A contract appointment up to sixty-five for those still active in research is seen as one of the ways of ensuring a viable programme of graduate studies, from which future PhDs trained by an ageing faculty may be recruited for the universities. A further possibility is for the retiring age of academic staff to be extended from 60 to 65, though this would

require an amendment to the constitution of the Fourth Republic.

Alemna (1982), Ampadu⁶ (1972), and Nukpezah⁷ (1993), who highlighted constraints like lack of raw material, finance, marketing, labour and market size, have covered the literature on scholarly publishing in Ghana. In a more recent article, Ganu (1999) described scholarly publishing in Ghana as still at an embryonic stage. Highlights of his article were the challenges facing the industry, the seven other publishers engaged in this sector of publishing, features of scholarly books and journals, and the role of the Ghana Universities Press. Among the 'serious' scholarly publishers are Ghana Publishing Corporation, Sedco, Woeli, Freedom, Sankofa, and Asempa. By IASP⁸ (1996) definition, these firms should 'publish at least two scholarly books each year and have not fewer than five titles in print at any time'.

The quality of work by these presses is shown by the honours they have won for the country. *Criminal Procedure in Ghana* (1982) by Justice A.N.E. Amisah published by Sedco won the Noma Award for Publishing in Africa in 1983, Halco's Educational Press had won it in 1981, and Professor Adu Boahen's book *Mfantsipim and the Making of Ghana; a Centenary History 1876-1976* (published by Sankofa) won it in 1997. *The Principles of Surgery including Pathology in the Tropics* (1986), by E. A. Badoe et al. published by the GPC won an honorable mention at the 1987 Noma Award ceremony.

The book development and publishing scene was covered comprehensively by Cabutey-Adodoadji (1984). He stated that the Ghana Universities Press (GUP) was established as a consortium for the three premier universities of Cape Coast, Ghana, and Science and Technology, and identified the problems of the Press as administrative, (in relation with its parent organizations) and under-capitalization

^{6 & 7}Cited from Zell & Lomer' 1996 annotated bibliography on African Publishing.

⁸This standard is low compared with membership requirements of the AAUP which requires 5 or more a year for at least two preceding years. (Sources: Parson, 1987:16; AAUP homepage at www.aaupnet.com)

of funds. It however had the three premier university bookshops as market outlets. The GUP was established in 1962 after the acceptance of the recommendations of the Report of the Commission on University Education in Ghana 1960-1961. The recommendations noted that:

We were impressed with the importance, for the development of university education in Ghana, of the production of new literature, both textbooks and works of scholarship, to consolidate recent advances in African studies, to make available the results of scientific research, and to re-interpret established fields of study. The setting up of a University Press would be a means of encouraging local writers and accelerating the production of books. It should also be possible, through the University Press, to subsidize important publications which cannot be produced on economic basis. (Cited in Ganu, p. 115).

Its objective was to publish scholarly works from the universities and the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research. The first major opportunity for staff development was the attachment of its editor to the Oxford University Press in 1963. In 1964 the GUP published its first title *Local Government in Ghana* by J. K. Nsarkoh. The challenges included manuscript acquisition from local academics, because of the predominance of expatriate staff; assessors who were difficult to come by, and technical work relating to copy-editing. These constraints notwithstanding, within two years of its establishment it had published eighty-five titles.

Challenges that persist till today are shortage of assessors (because university lecturers find the honorarium paid by the GUP too meagre); seasoned freelance proofreaders; and funding which was identified as the greatest constraint. Ganu (1999:118) reported that 'the government continues to subsidize scholarly publications by providing subvention to cover staff salaries and a limited range of operational expenses.' Book printing is just developing and there are very few printing houses with the result that quality is compromised. Book marketing is a serious challenge. In order to increase the market share of its products the GUP with other African publishers founded the African Books Collective (ABC) in 1990. This has opened European and North American markets to GUP publications. Other measures for marketing are a comprehensive listing in various publishing directories and reviews, and occasional assessment of the market potential of a work by listing it as a forth-coming publication. On the local market, the university

bookshops of the three premier universities at Legon, Kumasi and Cape Coast continue to serve as the main distribution outlets.

3.2.4 The social, political and economic climate in Kenya

Kenya is well placed to serve as an engine of growth in East Africa, but its economy is stagnating because of poor management and uneven commitment to reform. In 1993, the government implemented a programme of economic liberalization and reform that included the removal of import licensing, price controls, and foreign exchange controls. With the support of the World Bank, IMF, and other donors, the reforms led to a brief turnaround in economic performance following a period of negative growth in the early 1990s. Kenya's real GDP⁹ grew 5% in 1995, 4.6% in 1996, and 2.3% in 1997 while inflation remained under control, however growth slowed in 1997-99. Political violence damaged the tourist industry, and Kenya's Enhanced Structural Adjustment Program lapsed due to the government's failure to maintain reform or address public sector corruption. A new economic team was put in place in 1999 to revitalize the reform effort, strengthen the civil service, and curb corruption, but wary donors continue to question the government's commitment to sound economic policy.

Long-term barriers to development include electricity shortages, the government's continued and inefficient dominance of key sectors, endemic corruption, and the country's high population growth rate. With the population increasing by 2.6% per annum, the slowdown in economic growth in 1997 implied that no gains were made in the fight against the problems of poverty and unemployment that continue to confront the country. Economic recovery was forecast to begin after the second half of 1998. The recovery hinges on increased exports to the emerging regional markets, such as the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) and the East African Co-operation. Performance in the financial sector will also be boosted, in the medium term, by

⁹Kenya Economic Information & Indicators: June 1999. Provided by newafrica.com

the on-going measures to increase the market share of manufactured products imported from Africa, the United States and the European union.

3.2.5 Publishing history of Kenya

Although explorers, slave traders, and missionaries must have brought the book to Kenya centuries ago, local publishing began in 1894, when the Church Missionary Society issued its first book. Other missionary groups such as Evangel, Bible Society, Uzima, and the Baptists who all published mainly religious literature followed it. The first state publisher was the government Printer who was responsible from its initiation in 1899 for the printing of government notices, reports and other materials. For some reason it never ventured into main stream publishing. After World War II, precisely in 1947, the governments of East Africa set up the East African Literature Bureau (EALB) to publish primers and readers in response to demands from war veterans for appropriate reading materials.

The Kenya Literature Bureau (KLB) replaced the EALB in 1979, two years after the break up of the East African Community in 1977 and has since developed into the largest publisher in Kenya. It dealt primarily with mainstream curriculum materials developed at the Kenya Institute of Education. Another state publisher, the Jomo Kenyatta Foundation (JKF) was created in 1965 specifically to publish KIE material. The history of commercial publishing may be traced back to the 1940s when the missions set up a new imprint—Ndia Kuu Press. It was the manager of this press who was appointed to head EALB in 1974. The Kenyan market began to attract foreign commercial interests, starting with Longman who set up an office in 1950 followed by Oxford University Press in 1954. Other foreign publishers like Nelson, Evans, Pitman, and Macmillan joined but did not set up local offices until much later. Heinemann arrived in 1965 one year after independence and in the same year that JKF, East African Publishing House (EAPH) and a host of other indigenous houses were formed.

In 1964, the first Commission of Enquiry into education made wide-ranging recommendations for the improvement of this sector without any mention of books, which are critical to the success of any educational system. Like most developing African countries, Kenya also lost a major opportunity to propose a national book policy to guide this nascent industry until the unified school textbook policy was introduced in 1998 (Muita, 1998). A more comprehensive one covering the book needs of the entire population is however desirable. A National Book Development Council could have provided the strong lobbying but since its formation in 1980 it has remained dormant despite repeated attempts to revive it. To bring the industry to public attention the Publishers' Association must win the sympathy of other professional associations in the book chain and continue to lobby government and other relevant authorities.

Kenya has the largest and most active book industry in East and Central Africa with only a third of the ninety plus registered publishers being active. Their combined output is estimated at 400 new titles per year (Chakava, 1995:385). The country has adequate printing capacity with more than ten printers able to achieve a reasonably good standard of book production. The PanAfrican Paper Mill at Webuye produces sufficient paper to meet the country's book requirements. Furthermore, foreign exchange is available for the importation of essential raw materials for the industry. There are however, outstanding issues on policy that need government attention and action. Prominent among these are: book policy framework, taxation, language, state publishing monopolies, and funding. The Loan Guarantee Scheme¹⁰ of the Dag Hammarskjold Foundation introduced in the late 1980s enabled some publishers to acquire bank loans or overdrafts, thereby eliminating the need for personal securities.

Kenyan publishers prefer publishing textbooks because they know the consumers and how to reach them. Promoting non-textbook materials is known

¹⁰Kenya's Loan Guarantee Scheme. Details in Gerdin, PI (1992) Cultural pride, p48-49; and Appendix 2, pp 421-423. In: *Altbach, PG (ed.) Publishing and development in the Third World.*

to be more difficult with some exceptions mostly in Nairobi, which is relatively better in terms of the number of booksellers and concentration of academic authors and buyers. Bookshops, which might have offered a natural outlet, are unwilling to stock a book unless they have received an order for it. Libraries are very few and their budgets extremely small. In short, the country does not have an adequate infrastructure for the distribution of non textbook materials. Demand for Kenyan books in neighbouring Eastern and Central African countries, as well as in Western and Southern Africa, has been established but this has not been exploited to the full. With over 200¹¹ bookshops, Kenya is relatively better by African standards in terms of distribution outlets.

The role of libraries as buyers of books and as channels for reading promotion has not been actively promoted in most African countries, including Kenya, and often book provision has been entirely left in the hands of funding agencies. Most libraries are under funded, lack stocks, while their personnel are untrained. For example, Kenya with its large literate population of over fifteen million, has only eighteen public libraries¹². Certainly one cannot rule out economic considerations as contributing to, for example, the low reading levels. Many people, in both rural and urban areas are struggling to meet the bare necessities of life—food, shelter, and clothing. Book-buying and reading are very secondary to them. Compared with international standards, literacy levels are low in all African countries; nowhere do they exceed seventy percent.

Countries with high populations have better potential book markets. These include Nigeria with a population of 113 million and a literacy rate of sixty percent, Kenya with a population of twenty-eight million and a literacy rate of sixty nine percent, and South Africa with a population of forty-three million and a literacy rate of sixty-nine percent (Makotsi, 2000:12). In her eight-nation study: *Expanding the Book Trade across Africa*, Makotsi reported that postal costs and delays are worst in Malawi, Zambia, Kenya and Nigeria. For example, it takes

¹¹ & ¹² See Appendix 3A: Vital economic indicators

about three days for an airmail consignment from Kenya to arrive at Uganda or Tanzania, just as long as it takes for a surface mail, and both routes cost the same. Within the East African region, road transport offers the cheapest reliable system of transportation. Formal training in publishing is available through a degree course at Moi University with in-service training supplement coming from the African Publishing Institute of APNET.

3.2.6 Tertiary education and scholarly publishing in Kenya

For nearly three decades after the establishment of colonial rule, the initial effort at providing education to the African population was largely the responsibility of the missionaries¹³. Pre-World War II education in Kenya therefore lacked a focal point on which to build further development until the British government's Asquith commission report of 1945 on higher education and universities. But the Commission dealt with the broad principles rather than with the specifics for each colony. Makerere College in Uganda was elevated to university college status in 1949, in 'special relations' with the University of London, to serve the East African region. Among the major recommendations made by the Willoughby Commission in 1949 was that a technical and commercial institute be founded in Nairobi, initially to provide full-time and part-time courses in 'practical trade skills'. These courses would then lead to higher certificate before eventually preparing students of all races by full-time study for university degrees in engineering and technology, subjects which were not on the curriculum at Makerere College.

The idea of providing technical and commercial training soon assumed an East African dimension through the governments of Kenya, Tanganyika (now Tanzania), and Uganda. At the same time the dawn of independence for the three East African countries brought with it national aspirations. In the field of education this expressed itself in the need for a university college in each of the three countries. The rapid developments in higher education in East Africa at this time led to the appointment of another working party in 1958 under the

¹³Owako, FN The universities of Kenya. In: ACU Yearbook (1998), pp 963-967.

chairmanship of Sir John Lockwood, then vice-chancellor of the University of London. In 1961 the Royal Technical College of East Africa became the second inter-territorial university college institution in East Africa following the committee's recommendation. The College was admitted into the 'special relations' scheme with the University of London that same year.

In June 1963 the University of East Africa was founded with the Royal College, Nairobi, Kenya, Makerere University College in Uganda, and the University College, Dar Es Salaam, Tanganyika, as its constituent colleges. In conformity with the independence aspirations, the Royal College, Nairobi, was renamed University College, Nairobi, in May 1964. As a result of individual country aspirations, and following the recommendation of a working party appointed by the East African community in 1968, the need for separate growth of the constituent colleges was examined and the University of East Africa was dissolved on 30 June 1970. For Kenya, the University College, Nairobi, was transformed into the University of Nairobi by an act of parliament in 1970.

Following the January 1981 recommendation of the Mackay Committee, a second university, later named Moi University, was established at Eldoret some 320 kilometers from Nairobi, by an act of parliament in May 1984. It admitted the first students in October 1984, by transfer of the entire department of forestry from the University of Nairobi. The Kenyatta era is marked by the years between 1963 and 1978, during which there was emphasis on self-sufficiency in high-level personnel needs for Kenya. This led to the introduction of other new disciplines such as agriculture, law, dentistry, pharmacy, etc, which had not been possible to introduce during the Royal Technical College or University of East Africa days. Above all, as part of this emphasis on self-sufficiency, the Kenyatta era saw an increase in student numbers, as well as the systematic introduction of postgraduate studies in a variety of disciplines in the university. Thus today the University of Nairobi boasts of having the largest postgraduate school in eastern

and southern Africa, and one that is attracting a number of students from other parts of Africa.

The need was felt for more universities in Kenya, since by the mid-eighties there were about 10,000 Kenyans studying abroad through private sponsorships. Accordingly in 1985, by an act of parliament, Kenyatta University College, which had been a constituent college of the University of Nairobi since 1972, was elevated to a full university. This was soon followed by the elevation of Egerton College from an agricultural diploma college to a constituent college of the University of Nairobi in 1986, before it was elevated to a full university by an act of parliament in 1987. Later, in 1988, Jomo Kenyatta College of Agriculture and Technology, which had been established as an agricultural and technological college in the late seventies, was also elevated to university college status as a constituent college of Kenyatta University and became a full university by act of parliament in 1994.

In 1990, a record number of 21,000 new students were admitted into the public universities in order to cope with the double intake involving the last batch of the 'A'-level entrants and the first batch of the 8-4-4 system. Maseno University College was established in Western Kenya, as a constituent college to Moi University to absorb the students. One of the greatest achievements of the Nyayo era (starting from 1978) in the field of education is therefore the rapid expansion of the Universities, not only in numbers but in student enrolment as well. Whereas in the 1978-1979 academic year the total enrolment was 7281, at the beginning of the year 1990-91 academic year it had risen to about 40,000 students.

The Commission for Higher Education was established by an act of parliament in 1985, with the broad objective of making provisions for the advancement of university education in Kenya. Its major functions included advising on the establishment of public universities, accreditation of universities, and co-

coordinating the long-term planning and development of university education. Apart from the public universities, there are a number of private institutions which have been operating as universities. Out of the twelve institutions, only five are offering more than one-degree programme. The rest are concentrating exclusively on theological training at degree level. So far only three of these, namely the University of Eastern Africa, Baraton, the Catholic University of Eastern Africa, and Daystar University, have qualified for the award of a charter, and have accordingly been accredited by the Commission for Higher Education as full-fledged private universities.

Following their ten-year period of rapid expansion, the mid-90s form a period of retrospection for the universities, aimed at finding solutions to some of the problems that had arisen during that period. Their aim was to strengthen their academic and financial base to provide quality within the public universities. One of the areas successfully tackled is that of over-enrolment. Although great pressure for university admission continues it has been generally accepted that what Kenya needs most now is graduate quality rather than quantity. This means limiting admissions to match facilities and resources available. Accordingly, over the last few years, admission into the public universities has been pegged from the all-time high of 21,000 students in 1990-91, to 8500 – 8700 per year.

This policy was to continue until some of the buildings that the government embarked on during the double intake period were completed. Along with the financial reforms, the rationalization of academic programmes is receiving attention in the public universities. A study is being undertaken to find out how academic programmes duplicated in nearly all the public universities during the double-intake period, and those leading to overproduction of graduates in certain disciplines, can best be rationalized. While reforms are going on in the public universities, interest continues to be shown in the private universities. Amongst those already accredited by the Commission, plans are underway to diversify academic programmes.

Apart from the universities, there are a number of post-secondary institutions offering training at the diploma and certificate levels. In the field of teacher training these include six diploma colleges for the training of non-graduate secondary teachers, and twenty teacher-training colleges for primary school teachers. The three national polytechnics of Kenya, Mombasa, and Eldoret offer technical education by training middle-level technical personnel for ordinary and higher diplomas. At the slightly lower levels are eighteen institutes of technology (formerly Harambee colleges of technology) and seventeen technical training institutes (formerly technical secondary schools) that offer craft courses and a few diploma programmes in the technical and commercial fields. In addition to these, a number of government ministries also provide three-year professional training at the diploma level for the requirements of middle-level personnel.

It was estimated in 1991 that Kenya's four universities had a total enrollment of over 40,000, technical colleges had 20,000, while teacher training colleges had 35,000 (Chakava, 1992:136). Kenya's nine universities (including a university college) have an estimated student population of over forty-six thousand and a teaching staff numbering over 4000¹⁴ (in year 2000). The 1969 census placed the illiteracy rate at seventy-three percent. Largely as the result of the formal education restructuring, this figure came down to fifty-one percent by 1979 (Chakava; 1995:392). The majority of academic and technical books used at these institutions are still largely imported, mostly from Britain and India. In the past, it had been considered unviable to publish for this market because the numbers were so few.

Of the four public universities, Nairobi, Moi, Kenyatta, and Egerton, only Nairobi has a university press. It was set up in 1984 with a sizable grant from the British American Tobacco (BAT). Up to 1991 it had published only one title; a sign that all was not well within its management.

¹⁴Computed from World of Learning 2000. London: Europa Publications, 2001. pp.996-999.

Most of the country's journals were launched between 1965 and 1975 during which the journal-publishing situation in the country was enviable. *The East African Journal* started by the East African Institute of Social and Cultural affairs was among the early ones and was a major forum for academic discussion of burning issues of the day. *East African Economic Review*, *Zuka*, and *Azania* were started by EALB and, in line with its policy, handed over to Oxford University Press for commercial exploitation, who eventually discontinued them because they were no longer viable. By the mid-1970s, there were close to thirty academic journals published mostly by the EALB and EAPH. Nearly all these journals stopped in 1977 when the bureau folded up and the local publishing industry started experiencing problems. The death of EAPH in 1987 put the final nail in the coffin of journal publishing in Kenya.

Now that the KBL is profitable, perhaps it should give some thought to reviving some of these journals to facilitate the much-needed academic exchange of ideas. Credit must be given to Gideon S. Were Press for initiating and continuing to publish two journals, the *Journal of Eastern African Research and Development* and the *Trans-African Journal of History*, even in these difficult times. The newly launched *Innovation and Discovery*, by Academic Science Publishers, will fill a gap long felt by all scientists in Africa, who hitherto had no forum for exchanging their new ideas and discoveries. Furthermore, the University of Nairobi Press was revitalized and had produced nearly twenty new titles in the early 1990s. From the response to the questionnaire, however, the press has not been able to sustain any one of these titles (See Section 5.2.3.3, and Appendix 5A).

Two new publishers, Academy Science Publishers and African Centre for Technology Studies have started publishing top-level scholarly materials. Moi and Kenyatta Universities are preparing to establish their own press houses. The larger commercial publishers, such as Longman, East African Educational Publishers, and Oxford University Press appear likely to step up their tertiary

publishing programmes because of the sudden expansion of university education. In terms of formal education for the industry, Moi University offers a full-time three-year degree course in publishing. The University of Nairobi offers a postgraduate diploma course for writers and proofreaders and the Kenya Polytechnic offers publishing-related courses for printing apprentices and proofreaders.

3.2.7 Social, political and economic climate in Nigeria

Nigeria has enormous economic potential¹⁵. It has a vibrant private sector, highly motivated entrepreneurs, vast and fertile agricultural land, and a large domestic market. It is the seventh-largest oil exporter in the world (2 million barrels per day) and is richly endowed with other natural resources as well. Yet Nigeria's economic and social development remains far below even the minimum expectations of the population. Per capita income amounted to only US\$240 in 1997, substantially below the level at the time of independence in real terms. Equally disturbing is the country's social indicators that have slipped to well below the average for developing countries: half the population lives in absolute poverty, life expectancy is only 52 years, and the infant mortality rate is as high as 84 per 1,000 live births. Mismanagement of resources, over regulation of the economy, and, until recently, price and exchange rate distortions, have been at the root of Nigeria's economic malaise.

In recent years, some progress was made in stabilizing the economy, introducing greater competition, and strengthening the financial system. Inflation was brought down from 77 per cent in 1994 to 10 percent in 1997 and the exchange rate has remained stable. Exchange controls on current international transactions have been almost fully eliminated, interest rates have been deregulated, and restrictions on competition and private sector participation have been removed in most sectors of the economy. A number of measures have also been taken to

¹⁵Nigeria Economic Development & Indicators: 22 February 1999. Provided by newafrica.com from a Memorandum of Economic Policies between the government of Nigeria and the IMF.

address financial sector distress, including raising the minimum paid-up capital requirement, liquidating insolvent banks, improving loan recovery, and imposing sanctions for financial malpractice.

The oil-rich Nigerian economy, long hobbled by political instability, corruption, and poor macroeconomic management, is undergoing substantial economic reform under the new civilian administration. Nigeria's former military rulers failed to diversify the economy away from over-dependence on the capital-intensive oil sector, which provides 20% of GDP, 95% of foreign exchange earnings, and about 65% of budgetary revenues. The largely subsistence agricultural sector has not kept up with rapid population growth, and Nigeria, once a large net exporter of food, now must import food. In 2000, Nigeria is likely to receive a debt-restructuring deal with the Paris Club and a \$1 billion loan from the IMF, both contingent on economic reforms. Increased foreign investment combined with high world oil prices should push growth to over 5% in 2000-01 (Theodora, 2001).

3.2.8 Publishing history of Nigeria

As a former British colony, the influence of British and European missionaries is reflected in the political, economic and educational history of Nigeria. The Wesleyan Methodist Mission at Badagary in the present Lagos State established the first school in Nigeria in 1842. The missionaries initially emphasized primary education and later on expanded this into secondary education. At that pioneering stage, they did not encourage the local production of textbooks, thus laying the foundation for the low levels of local textbook production today. Missionaries first introduced printing in the nineteenth century at places like Calabar, Ibadan and Lagos. Almost all locally published books and booklets used in schools and churches in the late 19th and early 20th centuries are credited to missionaries and the colonial government. Notable commercial publishing houses before 1950 included the Oxford University Press set up in 1949 at Ibadan to stock the publications of its parent body and those of other British

publishers. By the mid-1960s, publishing was mainly by companies like Evans, Longmans, Macmillan, and Thomas Nelson.

After a period of tutelage, the British publishing houses began to appoint Nigerians as administrators in the 1970s. This encouraged the growth of local expertise and the establishment of local publishing houses like Fourth Dimension, Ethiope, Oniboje, Northern Nigerian, Nwamife, and Ibadan University Press. About 200 publishers were known to have been registered between 1974 and 1975 (Enyia, 1991: 203). The 1980 Unesco statistical yearbook showed that Nigeria's publishing output of 1175 titles in 1978 was second to Egypt's 1472 in the preceding year, and by 1989 the official titles output by Nigeria was put at 2040 (Enyia:204). A national book policy was established in 1988 with recommendations for a national book commission that would ensure the publication of books of wider interest. There were a number of seminars, workshops, conferences, special interest groups, and task forces established or convened at the instance of government or international agencies interested in publishing and willing to do something about the book crisis.

Professor Asein, a former Book Consultant to the Federal Government of Nigeria, produced a list of ten such meetings in a space of about 20 years between 1960 and 1981. Conspicuously absent from Asein's list, said Adesanoye, 'were two very prominent meetings: the 1973 Ife Conference on Publishing and Book Development and the 1983 First Nigerian National Congress on Books held in Lagos' (Adesanoye, 1995b:155). The Ife Conference produced the book *Publishing in Africa in the Seventies* edited by Oluwasanmi, McLean and Zell, published in 1973 by the University of Ife. It is reputed as one of the most dynamic conferences on publishing ever held on African soil. In the view of Adesanoye, (1995b:156) 'So comprehensive and insightful were the recommendations of the two meetings that no government needs to go anywhere to learn how to move the Nigerian book industry along the path of growth, provided there is this one thing—commitment.'

Nigeria has one of the largest commercial publishing industries in sub Sahara Africa, beside South Africa (Nwankwo, 1995) with all publishing skills available and well developed, but economic hardship has caused contraction and layoffs. Overall, Nigeria is endowed with authorship skills and resources at all levels. The major hindrances are lack of investment finance, reliable markets, and good up-to date libraries. The high cost of input materials is also a source of worry as most of the raw materials required for the industry have to be imported. The pool of skilled personnel has declined because trained staff leave publishing for more lucrative areas of endeavour. But the country has a comparatively well-developed publishing training facilities that if properly articulated, should serve to enhance training in the book industry.

At the university level Abia State, Ibadan, Bayero, Ahmadu Bello and Maiduguri offer B.A/B.S and Ph.D. programmes in library science with courses in publishing training. The universities of Nigeria, Lagos, Enugu State, Abia, and Namdi Azikiwe also offer courses in mass communication that provide training in book and newspaper proof-reading, editing, graphics, and production. Polytechnics such as Oko in Anambra State, Nekede in Imo State and Kaduna in Kaduna State and Colleges of Education at Eha-Amufu and Kano have programmes in library studies, mass communication and printing technology aimed at preparing students for the book industry and allied trades. Cross River State Polytechnic offers courses in paper technology.

On-the-job training in editorial functions and production has continued in various publishing houses, notably Ilesanmi Press in Akure which offers a five-year course in compugraphy, graphic arts, printing technology and binding to primary school leavers. The Fourth Dimension Publishing of Enugu conducts regular in-service training in desktop publishing. The NPA, the Association of West African Book Editors and the Association of Nigerian Authors organize short hands-on programmes in various aspects of book publishing. State government presses at

Owerri, Enugu and Kaduna offer other forms of training including a three-year in-service training in proofreading. Private computer schools offer training in desktop publishing and can be found in all major cities, especially Enugu, Port Harcourt, Kaduna and Lagos. The Yaba Polytechnic, with Unesco funding, has planned the first home-bred publishing programme to provide general training that leads to the award of the Higher National Diploma in book publishing.

Nigerian publishing could be mentioned as having made good strides on the African continent despite setbacks recorded in the mid 1980s as a result of a weak economy. It is counted among countries such as Australia, Canada, India, Singapore, Israel and Mexico 'which have built substantial publishing industries from small beginnings' (Graham, 1992:30). Gerdin (1992) reported that by 1963 the Nigerian branch of Oxford University Press was able to handle the whole publication process of locally written books and publish its own titles under its imprint. Further the vitality of Nigerian publishing is seen in the award winners of the Noma Award for publishing in Africa. Giving an analysis of African book production in the 1980s, Rathgeber (1999:79) cited 'Nigeria as easily the continent's leader'.

3.2.9 Tertiary education and university publishing in Nigeria

Nigeria¹⁶ has thirty-seven universities (including a military university) with a student population of over 228,000 serving an estimated national population of 113 million. Of these universities, twelve are state founded, funded and owned, and three are agricultural universities supported by the ministry of agriculture. The University College, Ibadan was established in 1948 in a 'special relationship' with the University of London, attaining full university status in 1962. In 1959 a commission on post-school certificate and higher education in Nigeria was set up under the chairmanship of Sir Eric Ashby, and the 1960s saw the establishment of the 'Ashby universities' as regional universities in the then three regions of Nigeria. In the east, the University of Nigeria at Nsukka (1960), in the west, the

¹⁶Alele, WG The universities in Nigeria. *In: ACU Yearbook (1998)*, pp 1118-1122.

University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University) (1961), and Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria in the north (1962). The University of Lagos was established at Akoka Lagos in 1962, and the University of Benin was founded in 1970 originally as the Midwest Institute of Science and Technology.

These six constitute Nigeria's first-generation universities, which between 1960 and 1975 were further expanded during the oil boom era, though the development of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka was disrupted in the late 60s by the 30-month civil war. The creation of new states in Nigeria led to demands for more universities and the founding of seven new universities in 1975. This second generation of Universities are Jos, Calabar, Kano, Maiduguri, Sokoto, Ilorin and Port Harcourt (three being founded as university colleges, later becoming full universities). In the same year, the federal government also took over the funding of the regional universities. Healthy funding encouraged vast expansion, especially in student enrolment and in new disciplines. New areas in the humanities, pure and applied sciences, and especially professional courses, as well as in the arts, social sciences, and physical and biological sciences, multiplied, resulting in some duplication.

The National Universities Commission (NUC) was established in 1962 following the recommendation of the Ashby commission. Between 1968 and 1974 its role was purely advisory but by Decree No. 1 of 1974, it was reconstituted into a statutory body with broad functions that enabled it to co-ordinate the activities of the universities, suggest broad areas of orderly development, help maintain high academic standards, and serve as the official avenue for the federal government's financing of the universities. Despite the decrease in the funding level, the 1980s witnessed the establishment of seven more universities by the federal government. This third generation universities at Bauchi, Owerri, Minna, Akure, Yola, Makurdi, and Abeokuta were capital-intensive specialized institutions yet fund allocation declined, irrespective of the increase in number of universities, student population, and the decline in the real value of the Naira.

The foundation of the first Nigerian indigenous scholarly publishing house was laid in 1949, initially as part of the University College Library, to provide printing services to the University. The Ibadan University Press was established in 1952 and it became a full-fledged publishing house in 1955 when the University Senate set up the Publications Committee to control its imprint. Many of the fairly old universities including Ahmadu Bello, Jos, Lagos, Maiduguri, Obafemi Awolowo (formerly Ife), Nigeria, and Port-Harcourt have established their own presses. Although its basic function is academic, a typical Nigerian university press is an integral part of its parent university, organizationally attached to the administration. Presses like those at Universities of Port-Harcourt, Obafemi Awolowo, and Ahmadu Bello may be incorporated though they have not been able to function fully as limited liability companies as they depend upon subsidies or foundation support to survive. Such presses appear caught between fulfilling their primary responsibility of promoting scholarship and research, and going fully public and commercial as profit-making organizations. The leading press houses in terms of title output are Ibadan (established in 1952), Lagos and Ife (both established in 1980), and Maiduguri (established in 1988) (Ike, 1998).

As a result of the down-turn in the economic fortunes of the country and the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Program in July 1986, flight of capital resulted in a drop of the exchange rate of the Naira by as much as fifty percent. In 1985, one American dollar exchanged for 0.70 Nigerian Naira (Adesanoye, 1995b:158). Fifteen years later in 2000, the official exchange rate is one dollar for one hundred Naira. The impact of this on paper and other raw materials for the publishing industry was, and still remains disastrous. Presenting some figures relating to the cost for certain printing materials, Adesanoye (1995b:160) gave several examples among them:

A 20x30 bond paper, 60 gsm, sold for N225 in 1992. In 1993 the same ream, same grammage, same size sold for N315. In 1994, today the identical material goes for N1,700.

As further proof of the economic squeeze on the universities he provided funding figures for the six-year period, 1987 to 1992, which shows a steady decline from

2.26 % of the total national budget to 1.45%. Paradoxically this was in the face of increasing student population from 147,799 to 290,610 during the same period (Adesanoye, 1995a:78).

Not unexpectedly, the campus presses can only receive scant attention from university administrators who are responsible for allocating the funds. Adesanoye thus identified funding as the major problem facing university publishers, conceding that African scholarly presses will continue to receive less and less funding and called for cooperation among scholarly publishers in Africa. The tertiary and higher educational institutions experience acute book and journal shortages and scarcity, both at the individual student and at the library acquisition levels. The Book Sector Study in 1990 (Nwankwo, 1995:400) pointed out that 'production costs have increased by 700 percent in the last five years, but prices have increased by only 450 percent over the same period'.

The gloomy picture over all economic activities, and especially scholarly publishing, was the theme of the article *Scholarly publishing in Nigeria: a dilemma* by Bankole (1993). A combination of factors, including the economy, political instability and downright interference in the administration of the universities by government agencies such as the Ministry of Education and the National Universities Commission do not, in his view, create the right atmosphere for scholarship. All this coupled with the six months strike by university teachers over pay in 1993 meant a real set back to scholarly publishing since there was no research and no funding for the press houses during the period. One concomitant outcome was the premature death of the Scholarly Publishing Association of Nigeria, founded in 1988.

3.2.10 Social, political and economic environment in South Africa

The Republic of South Africa is the Southern-most country in Africa and occupies the larger part of Africa south of the Tropic of Capricorn. In 1994 South Africa gained political independence from the apartheid government and with that, the

subsequent normalization of the country's external relations with the rest of the world. South Africa's economy is based largely on abundant mineral and energy resources. Mining forms the basis for much of the manufacturing industry, and gold and diamonds dominate the export industry. Numerous river dams have been built to provide water for irrigation, industrial and domestic use. South Africa is a middle-income, developing country with well-developed financial, legal, communications, energy, and transport sectors, and a stock exchange that ranks among the ten largest in the world. It has a modern infrastructure supporting an efficient distribution of goods to major urban centers throughout the region.

However, growth has not been strong enough to cut into the thirty percent unemployment, and daunting economic problems remain from the apartheid era, especially the problems of poverty, income disparity, and lack of economic empowerment among the disadvantaged groups. Other problems are crime, corruption, and HIV/AIDS. At the start of 2000, President Mbeki vowed to promote economic growth and foreign investment by relaxing restrictive labour laws, stepping up the pace of privatization, and cutting unneeded government spending. His policies face strong opposition from organized labour. Further economic growth now rests on the government's goals of increasing overall living conditions, cutting unemployment and promoting exports. Through its macro-economic policies, the South African government has shown its commitment to privatization, free trade and a favourable investment situation. Despite the government's intentions to boost exports through its GEAR (Growth, Employment and Redistribution) policy, the majority of companies exported less in the first quarter of 1999 than in the same period in 1998. Total exports for 1999 had however increased R17bn on the previous year (Mbendi, 2001).

3.2.11 Publishing history of South Africa

From the earliest days, the Cape Colony was dependent on Europe for most of its books and other printed material. In 1795, however, Johan Ritter was appointed by the Dutch colonial officials to establish a press in Cape Town. After

the British occupation in 1806 and the influx of British settlers, the first signs of a free press emerged. The first fully independent newspaper was the South African Commercial Advertiser, launched by the printer George Greig in 1824 and edited by Thomas Pringle and John Fairbairn. By 1842, Cape Town had nine presses, seven newspapers, and six bookshops. The first full-fledged publishing house was started in 1853, by Jan Carel Juta, and is still in existence.

A missionary press for evangelization was first established in 1823, in Ciskei, at what later became known as Lovedale. Throughout this period and subsequently, the mission presses contributed significantly to the African-language scene by publishing writers of serious literature in African languages. They published writers like Thomas Mofolo (in Sesotho), S.E.K. Mqhayi, J. J. R. Jolebe and A.C. Jordan (in Xhosa) and B. W. Vilakazi and R. R.R. Dhlomom (in Zulu). It was the establishment of newspapers, rather than the printing of books, that attracted large numbers of black readers. Umshumayeli Wendaba (Publisher of the News) was started in Lovedale in 1837, Ikwezi (Morning Star) in 1844, and John Tengo Jabavu's Imvo Zabantsundu (African Opinion) in 1884, which was the first newspaper for blacks and managed by a black person. The end of the nineteenth century saw the beginnings not only of black resistance to white domination, but also of the challenge of the independent black presses to the missionary and colonial presses.

By 1910, the date of the formation of the Union of South Africa, a number of book publishing houses, founded on indigenous or imported British capital, were flourishing. Apart from Juta, Thomas Maskew Miller had founded a major publishing house in 1893, which in 1919 published the first Afrikaans readers, followed in 1923 by the first Afrikaans grammar. The Central News Agency (CNA) founded in 1896 and later to become the largest network of bookshops, published its first book in 1902. Toward the end of the Second World War there began a new flurry of book publishing activity. Publishers like Doward B. Timmins, T. V. Bulpin and Benjamin Bennett survived by selling large quantities

of their books. Timmins' first book, *The Road to Avalon* (1944), is said to have sold over 40,000 copies. A. A. Balkema, who had been prominent in the underground press in Holland during the war, arrived to begin producing the first books on art, architecture, social history, and Africana, which bore comparisons, in terms of design and typography, with those from Europe.

Another Dutch immigrant, C. Struik (the father of three sons who later became publishers) arrived to open a bookshop and to publish mainly Africana reprints. The first real stirrings of systematic oppositional publishing began with Julian Rollnick's African Bookman in 1943, five years before the triumph of apartheid at the polls. During the four years of its existence, Bookman published authors like Julius Lewin, Eddie Roux, Govan Mbeki, and Ezekiel Mphahlele. The notable educational publishers, then mainly for white schools, were Oxford University Press who in 1946 established a local division in Cape Town and, Longman Green founded in South Africa as well as in Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe). Others were Juta, Maskew Miller, Shuter and Shooter, J. L. Van Shaick, and Nasionale Pers. At this time most of the leading British publishers had offices or agents for distribution in South Africa, including Heinemann and Cassell, Collins, Penguin, Allen and Unwin, Macmillan, Purnell, and Hodder and Stoughton, among others, and later McGraw-Hill from the United States.

The 1948 election defeat of Field Marshal J. C. Smuts' United Party by Dr. D. F. Malan's National Party saw the beginnings of Afrikaner preference and of massive oppression of blacks. With the advent of the twin concepts of Christian national education and Bantu education, mission-controlled schools virtually disappeared and publishing for African schools came to be dominated by new regulatory committees. As a result, Afrikaner publishers Perkor and Nasionale Pers succeeded Oxford and Longman as the leading publishers for African primary schools. Three major professional organizations were formed, representing the South African book trade: the South African Publishers Association (SAPA), mainly for local publishers; the Overseas Publishers'

Representatives Association, which later became the International Book Distributors Association (IBDA), mainly for importers, and the Associated Booksellers of South Africa (ABSA). In 1992, SAPA, IBDA and IPASA (the Independent Publishers' Association of South Africa) amalgamated to form the Publishers' Association of South Africa (PASA). The Associated Booksellers of South Africa (ABSA) became SABA (South African Booksellers Association) in about 1999¹⁷.

With the collapse of the 'defiance campaign' and the establishment of the republic, the 1960s became known as 'the decade of black silence'. The Publications and Entertainment Act of 1963, succeeded by the Publications Act of 1974, empowered the government to ban books. The Suppression of Communism Act of 1966 prohibited certain listed individuals (regarded as dangerous to the state) from being quoted. If found guilty a publisher was liable to a heavy fine, imprisonment, or both. Writers like Dan Jacobson, Daphne Rooke, Anthony Delius, Jack Cope, and many others traveled overseas in self-imposed exile. The censors during the 1960s and 1970s were responsible for the 'unbridgeable gap' in the South African literature because so many contemporary works of quality were banned. Twenty years later when they were unbanned those works including many literary journals such as *Contrast* (now *New Contrast*), *Standpunte*, and *New Coin* had lost much of their urge and immediacy, hence the 'unbridgeable gap'. A feature of this period was expatriate literature by writers who were attempting to escape political or cultural frustrations or restrictions through initially publishing outside South Africa. From these dark times emerged four more oppositional publishers: David Philip, Ravan Press, Ad. Donker, and Skotaville.

With the exception of Ad. Donker, the remaining three can justifiably claim to be the leading indigenous publishers of significant books in South Africa. Their

¹⁷Personal communication from Louise Gain, National Manager, Publishers' Association of South Africa (PASA) e-mail: louise@publishsa.co.za on Tuesday, 9 April, 2002

authors have won many prizes in South Africa and internationally, reflecting the range and quality of books published. In the last few years, for example, authors of the three publishers have won prizes, sometimes on more than one occasion. The prize list included the CNA Literary Award, The *Sunday Times* Alan Paton Prize, the Olive Schreiner Prize for Poetry, the Olive Schreiner Prize for Fiction, and the Bard Award for Zulu Language and Literature. Others were the Natal Society Prize for Literature, the Jerusalem Peace Prize, the Nobel Peace Prize (Archbishop Desmond Tutu), the Nobel Prize for Literature (Nadine Godimer), the Booker Prize, and the Noma Award for Publishing in Africa (three times).

3.2.12 Tertiary education and scholarly publishing in South Africa

Higher education came to South Africa during the nineteenth century, though many of the original universities were colleges which initially offered only secondary education. The oldest of these were South African College (now University of Cape Town) founded in 1829, Andrews College (Rhodes University) and Grey College (University of the Orange Free State) both founded in 1855, and Stellenbosch Gymnasium, founded in 1866. The last named was subsequently known as Victoria College, and is now the University of Stellenbosch. The University of the Witwatersrand and the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education were also established in the nineteenth century. The former started as the South African School of Mines in Kimberly in 1896, later to move to Johannesburg. The latter started in 1869 as a theological school for the Reformed Church (Afrikaans) in Burgersdorp, Cape Colony, before moving to Potchefstroom in the then South African Republic.

The original colleges prepared students for examinations in arts and science, conducted since 1858 by the board of Public Examiners. This board was incorporated into the University of Cape of Good Hope, when it was founded in 1873 to become an examination and degree-awarding institution of which all existing colleges at the time became constituent members. These constituent colleges offered tuition but did not conduct examinations. They were joined by

Natal University College in 1909 and Transvaal University College, which subsequently became the University of Pretoria in 1910. The next major event on the universities' calendar was the passing of the Universities Act in 1916. According to this act the University of Cape Town and the University of Stellenbosch became autonomous institutions responsible for their own academic standards including the conduct of their own examinations.

The third university was the University of South Africa (in Pretoria) in which was incorporated the University of Cape of Good Hope. Again in 1916, the University College of Fort Hare was founded near Alice in the Eastern Cape. This was the first institution to provide university education exclusively to African students. It was a college of the University of South Africa before it linked up with Rhodes University in 1951. The years 1916 to 1952 saw all the constituent colleges, with the exception of Fort Hare, becoming independent universities as one by one their private acts were passed. The University of South Africa already provided tuition through the medium of correspondence to students who prepared for their examinations without attending any of the constituent colleges and became a distance education university. Thus in 1952 there were eight residential universities serving predominantly white students, one university college serving black students and one distance education university serving all students.

Of the eight predominantly white universities four taught in English (Cape Town, Witwatersrand, Natal and Rhodes) and four in Afrikaans (Stellenbosch, Pretoria, Orange Free State and Potchefstroom). These eight universities were subsequently joined by the University of Port Elizabeth (a bilingual university) in 1964, and in 1966 by Rand Afrikaans University, an Afrikaans-medium institution in Johannesburg. The relatively small University College of Fort Hare was the only residential institution that had a significant number of black students. This changed in 1960 with the establishment of university colleges for African students near Pietersburg in what is now the Northern province and Empangeni in Zululand, now Kwazulu-Natal. The University College of the Western Cape was

also founded in 1960 to serve the coloured population, and in the following year the University College of Durban was founded for South Africans of Indian origin. Three of these colleges and Fort Hare attained their independence in 1970 and the University of Durban-Westville in the following year.

The Medical University of Southern Africa near Pretoria was established in 1976 as the institution intended to train black medical professionals. The last institution that was founded to serve the African population was Vista University, in 1982. Its head office is in Pretoria but it has seven campuses in different African urban communities scattered through the country. It also has a strong distance education branch, mostly involved in teacher upgrading. The last chapter to date in the development of the South African University system came as the national states or so called 'homelands' received independence from the government of the day. Each state established its own university. Thus the University of Bophuthatswana (which changed its name to the University of North-West) was established in Mmabatho in the present North-West province in 1980, the University of Transkei in Umatata (Eastern Cape) in 1977, and the University of Venda in Thohoyandou presently in the Northern province in 1982. The former Ciskei already had the University of Port Hare within its boundaries.

The most important acts which at present govern the relationship between the government and the universities are the Universities Act of 1955, the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council Act of 1983, and the National Policy for General Education Affairs Act of 1984. According to the latter two acts the minister of education is responsible for policy, and among others, the establishment, development and extension of universities and technikons. A recent government Green Paper foresees the replacement of the Advisory Council for Universities and Technikons (AUT), by a council on Higher Education, which will be much more representative of stakeholders in higher education. University income in general derives from two main sources, viz, government

subsidies and student fees. Donations and income from investment form the other two important income categories.

The higher education system consists of state universities, a technikon sector and a college sector. The Higher Education Act (December 1997) provides for the appointment of a Registrar of Private Higher Education Institutions and a number of private institutions are in the process of registering in terms of these provisions. Technikons and universities as autonomous institutions are subsidized by the Ministry of Education, and provide training at the post senior certificate level. Technikons provide vocationally-oriented education and training in a large variety of disciplines and their courses lead to National Diplomas and Certificates, and as from 1995 to degrees with a minimum duration of 4 years. The Certification Council for Technikons (SERTEC) is responsible for conferring technikon Diplomas. The Higher Education Act stipulates that higher education at universities, technikons and colleges comes directly under the responsibility of the national government, whilst further education colleges report to the nine provincial governments.

It has recently been planned to reduce the number of colleges of education and to incorporate them in the higher education system. In most cases they will be linked to universities and technical institutes. The majority of colleges are teachers' training colleges, although there are also other types of specialist colleges like nursing colleges, agricultural colleges, and others. In 1995 the distribution of enrolled students between the universities, technikons and teachers' training colleges was fifty-eight per cent, twenty per cent and fifteen per cent respectively. South Africa has twenty-one universities¹⁸, serving almost 366,000 students in 1995¹⁹

¹⁸Mergers of Technikons and Universities will reduce numbers. "ECape academics concerned about mergers" http://aclub.sabinet.co.za/news_art13.html [Accessed 27 February 2003]

¹⁹Grobbelaar, JW & Brink, JA The universities in South Africa. *In*: ACU Yearbook (1998) pp 1292-1296.

Although their main concern is the advancement of scholarship and research, the university presses of the Witwaterstrand and Natal have contributed significantly to oppositional publishing, as have many university institutes such as the South African Institute for Race Relations, which began publishing books in the 1960s. The leading scholarly publishers by 1990 were Oxford University Press, Lexicon, (previously McGraw-Hill), Van Schaik (which became a subsidiary of Nasionale Pers), Buttersworths, Juta, David Philip, and Ravan press. The leading university presses are Witwaterstrand, Natal, the University of South Africa (Unisa), and Cape Town. Witwaterstrand is the oldest and largest university press in Africa. Established in 1922, it publishes on average 16 titles per year, has 159 titles in print, and a list ranging from the purely scholarly to the intelligently popular, encompassing history, theatre, physical anthropology, business studies and art²⁰.

Unisa Press has been publishing since 1957²¹. It publishes mainly textbooks, readers, journals and works of general scholarly interest. Its journals are in the areas of Communication science, education, political science, development administration, music, law, art and fine arts, English studies, information science and psychology. Most of its journals are provided online. The University of Cape town Press was established in 1993. The Press is now owned by a commercial publisher, Juta & Co, a 'unique combination of academic and commercial interest [which] represents a consolidation of academic excellence and integrity with sound business and commercial direction and resourcing'.²² To date the Press has published mainly in the social sciences and humanities, in history, archaeology, literary studies, cultural studies and religion. It is currently developing its list of natural science, medical and development studies.

²⁰University of the Witwaterstrand at www.wits.ac.za/depts/wcs/resources.html [Accessed 13 April 2002]; PASA website at <http://publishsa.co.za> [Accessed 20 April 2002]; and Publishers: a directory. *In: Gibbs, J & Mapanje, J (eds.) African writers' handbook*. Oxford: African Books Collective, pp 225-244.

²¹University of South Africa at: www.unisa.ac.za/dept/press/ [Accessed 13 April 2002]

²²University of Cape Town at : www.uct.ac.za/org/uctpress/about/content.html [Accessed 13 April 2002]

3.2.13 Social, political and economic environment in Zimbabwe

The government of Zimbabwe faces a wide variety of difficult economic problems as it struggles to consolidate earlier progress in developing a market-oriented economy. Its involvement in the war in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, for example, has already drained hundreds of millions of dollars from the economy. Badly needed support from the IMF suffers delays in part because of the country's failure to meet budgetary goals. Inflation rose from an annual rate of 32% in 1998 to 59% in 1999. AIDS is steadily weakening the economy because Zimbabwe has the highest rate of infection in the world. Per capita GDP, which is twice the average of the poorer sub-Saharan nations, will increase little if any in the near-term, and Zimbabwe will suffer continued frustrations in developing its agricultural and mineral resources.

Projected growth in real GDP²³ was 1.2% in 1999, which reflected a significant downward revision from previous expectations because of lower output in the mining and manufacturing sectors. The government's inflation target for end-1999 was 30%, which was to be achieved by containing money-supply growth. The exchange rate was allowed to respond freely to market forces in order to meet international reserve targets. A tight fiscal stance is also expected to support the inflation-fighting effort, although higher than previously envisioned interest rates have required an upward revision in the target for the overall fiscal deficit. Currency depreciation and increases in basic food prices since the early 1990s have had a significant adverse impact on real incomes and employment. Broad-based growth and price stability are therefore critical to poverty alleviation.

Improvements in civil service efficiency, and measures to foster private sector development are important goals. Macroeconomic stabilization, preserving recent gains in international competitiveness, strong commitment to fiscal consolidation, and the restoration of public confidence represent Zimbabwe's immediate challenges. Sustaining the implementation of economic reforms will be important

²³Zimbabwe Economic Development & Indicators 2 August 1999. Provided by newafrica.com - obtained from the IMF's Public Information Notice (PIN) No. 99/36.

for securing external financial support from official bilateral and multilateral sources, and will require the authorities to develop a broader social consensus for the reform effort. Surely, recent political events, demonstrated by land seizure and the breakdown of law and order, affect the economy and the publishing industry.

3.2.14 Publishing history of Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe with an estimated population of approximately 9.3 million, has a primary school enrolment of well above two million and a secondary school enrolment of more than half a million. School enrolment at all levels increased dramatically after independence in 1980, creating a desperate need for educational materials. Transnational publishers in the country's textbook market are Longman Zimbabwe, College Press (jointly owned by Macmillan and a local firm), and Academic Press. Longman and College Press account for between eighty and ninety percent of the country's publishing output but publish mainly school textbooks. Zimbabwe Publishing House (ZPH) was established after independence and quickly became a major local publisher. It is credited with co-organizing the first Zimbabwe International Book Fair with the Ministry of Information (Rathgeber, 1992:88) in 1983. Two other important local publishers are Mambo Press owned by the Catholic Church, and Academic Press which operated as a British publisher's representative until 1985.

The later half of the 1980s, saw a dramatic increase in small-scale indigenous publishing. In 1983 ZPH was the only indigenous publishing house, but by 1991 there were twenty-four, among them Baobab (now a division of Academic Books) which was established in 1988 by the Mass Media Trust. Their combined output in the non-educational context has outstripped the production of the transnational publishers. Government policy requires that imported books selling in excess of 5000 copies must be reprinted locally. Hence most of the country's major publishers include numerous reprints on their lists. Unquestionably the biggest problem for all noneducational publishers is the lack of a sizable domestic market. Perhaps the most innovative publishing venture is the Community

Publishing programme of the Ministry of Community Development and Cooperatives. Established in 1986, the objective is to produce books by and for rural dwellers. Unfortunately, the programme has produced only two books, one on community development and the other on rural enterprises.

The country's literacy rate is put at sixty-six percent²⁴ and 'It is estimated that eighty percent of Zimbabweans are physically excluded from books since they lack access to bookshops or libraries and mail order systems do not exist' (Brickhill, cited in Chakava 1992:88). The majority of bookshops are located in Harare, where approximately ten percent of the population lives. The Zimbabwe Publishers' Association (ZPA) estimates that if only one percent of the population in the high-density areas spent an average of \$40 annually on books that would constitute a sizable domestic market. The ZPA was established in 1984 by the major transnationals operating in Zimbabwe to coordinate educational publishing and by 1990 it had grown from an initial membership of six to seventeen. In June 1990, for the first time, the entire slate of new executive was independent (local) publishers, a strong indication of the growth of local publishers.

3.2.15 Tertiary education and university publishing in Zimbabwe

Tertiary education in Zimbabwe is about seventy-five years old having started with the Polytechnics of Bulawayo and Harare which were both founded in 1927. The country has five universities, including an open university, two polytechnics and a number of technical colleges. The University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland founded in 1955 was established as the University of Rhodesia in 1971, and became known as the University of Zimbabwe after independence in 1980. Following the presidential appointment, in June 1988, of a commission of inquiry into the establishment of a second university, the National University of Science and Technology, Bulawayo, was established in December 1990. The first student intake was in April 1991 into three faculties of applied science, commerce and industrial technology. The Africa University located in Mutare was

²⁴Appendix 3A: Vital economic indicators

established in 1992 as a church-related private institution of higher learning at the request of the African Central Conference of the United Methodist Church worldwide. The fourth public university, Solisi located in Bulawayo, was established in 1994. The Zimbabwe Open University was established in 1999.

The combined student population of the tertiary institutions is estimated at forty-two thousand with a teaching staff strength of about 2000²⁵. Although several Zimbabwean firms occasionally have published scholarly work, often with foreign publishers, there is not a sustained history of scholarly publishing in the country. The market is too small to be attractive to larger academic publishers, and smaller local publishers are unable to survive with scholarly books as the sole focus of their lists. For this reason, publishers must often turn down interesting and worthwhile manuscripts, especially from young researchers. The University of Zimbabwe does not have an official university press, but it established a publications office in 1972 and since the mid-1980s has published between three and five titles annually under the imprint of University of Zimbabwe Publications²⁶.

It currently has close to seventy titles in print covering mostly agriculture, science, politics, medical sciences, social sciences and economics. Also since 1969, the University publishes a high quality journal: *Zambesia: The Journal of Humanities*, one of the few African academic journals that have managed to sustain publication for more than twenty years. Its focus is Zimbabwe and the surrounding region but special articles of a more general interest are also published. Two other journals published are *The Central African Journal of Medicine*, a refereed monthly journal, and the biannual *Journal of Applied Science in Southern Africa*, first published in June 1995. Academic Press now publishes licensed reprints from the UK, mostly tertiary-level books. College

²⁵Computed from World of Learning 2000. London: Europa Publications, 2001. pp.996-999.

²⁶University of Zimbabwe Press web site : <http://www.uz.ac.zw/publications/> [Accessed 09 March 2002]

Press has a list which includes primary, secondary, teachers' training, higher education and general books.

Summary

This chapter brought together the history of tertiary education, universities, and publishing with particular emphasis on scholarly publishing in Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa, and Zimbabwe. The socio-economic conditions of the countries were given in order to situate the university press in its proper African context, and provide a basis for the purpose and objectives of the study. The premise was that the fortunes of a viable publishing industry are inextricably tied to the economic situation of each country.

With the exception of South Africa (in 1922) and Nigeria (in 1955), university publishing in the other four countries started in the 1960s after the establishment of universities in those countries. The socio-economic climate in each of the countries has not seen much growth and this has affected the provision of appropriate publishing infrastructure. Even though university enrolments increased in the post independent era, there were no serious efforts made for local textbook production. Imported reading materials continue to be purchased with hard currency to the detriment of the local publishing industry.

The chapter laid out the structure of higher education in each country, which consisted of tertiary colleges, polytechnics (technikons in South Africa), and universities.

CHAPTER 4

Research design and methodology

4.1 Theoretical framework

4.1.1 Introduction

Every type of empirical research has implicit, if not explicit, research design. In the most elementary sense, the design is a logical sequence that connects empirical data to a study's initial research questions and ultimately, to its conclusions. In a sense the research design is a blueprint of research, dealing with at least four problems: what questions to study, what data are relevant, what data to collect, and how to analyze the results (Yin, 1994). It is much more than a work plan because the main purpose is to help to avoid the situation in which the evidence does not address the initial research questions. Hence the research design deals with a logical problem and not a logistical problem, and also specifies how the investigator will address the two critical issues of representation and legitimization.

Furthermore, a research design describes a flexible set of guidelines that connects theoretical paradigms to strategies of inquiry and methods for collecting empirical material. It situates researchers in the empirical world and connects them to specific sites, persons, groups, institutions, and bodies of relevant interpretive material, including documents and archives. This chapter covers the methods of the study. In the main, it deals with data collection and covers how data is derived from primary and secondary sources. The chapter also details the approach used and conditions under which the various stages of investigations were carried out, development of initial contacts, pilot survey, and design of main research instrument (questionnaire), which were used to collect the primary data. It further indicates how issues of validity and reliability were addressed through triangulation.

4.1.2 Case study as a qualitative research

The qualitative approach to research is typically used to answer questions about the nature of phenomena with the purpose of describing and understanding them from the participants' point of view. Creswell (cited in Leedy, 1997:104) defined a quantitative study as 'an inquiry into social or human problems, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analyzed with statistical procedures in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the theory hold true'. In contrast, he defined a qualitative study as 'inquiry process of understanding a social or human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants, and conducted in a natural setting'. Denzin & Smith (1998:3) added that: 'Qualitative research is multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter'. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

As a form of qualitative research, case studies are defined by interest in individual cases, not by methods of inquiry used. They draw attention to the question of what specifically can be learned from the cases. Case studies are used when the researcher intends to support his/her argument by an in-depth analysis of a person, a group of persons, an organization or a particular project. The case study approach is not limited in value; rather, it provides an in-depth analysis of a specific problem. Naoum (1998), and Gall, Borg, & Gall (cited in Leedy, 1997) classified case study design into three groups. The Gallo and Horton study (1994), (cited in Box 4A, below) illustrates a descriptive case study, Kos's (1991) research provides an example of an explanatory case study, and an evaluative case study is illustrated by Butler's (1995) work.

Yin (2003) identified at least six kinds of case studies based on a 2x3 matrix. First, case study research can be based on *single-* or *multiple-case* studies; second, whether single or multiple, the case study can be *exploratory* (what

Leedy cites as evaluative), *descriptive*, or *explanatory* (causal). A single case study focuses on a single case only, while a multiple case study may include two or more cases in the same study. An exploratory case study (whether single or multiple) is aimed at defining the questions and hypotheses of a subsequent study (not necessarily a case study) or at determining the feasibility of the desired research procedures. A descriptive case study presents a complete description ('tell it as it is') of a phenomenon within its context. An explanatory case study presents data bearing on cause-effect relationships, explaining how events happened.

Box 4A: Case study types

- 1 The purpose of this study was to examine and describe the personal and educational interactions of a group of high school teachers who had direct and unrestricted access to the Internet from their classroom desktop computers (Gallo & Horton, 1994:17). [**Descriptive case study**]
- 2 This multiple case study explored the perception of four reading-disabled middle school students for the purpose of uncovering factors that may have prevented these students from progressing in their reading development (Kos, 1991:875). [**Explanatory case study**]
- 3 The research described here investigated the effectiveness of an intervention model designed to promote self-regulated and strategic learning. This study comprised six parallel case studies (Butler, 1995:170) [**Evaluative case study**]

Source: Leedy, 1997:157

Almost any phenomenon can be examined by means of the case study method. Whereas some researchers focus on the study of one case because of its unique or exceptional qualities, other researchers study multiple cases to make comparisons, build theory, and propose generalizations. For example, a researcher can conduct an intensive study of one high school teacher's use of literacy activities to teach chemistry; another can compare the cases of four teachers involved in an innovative staff development program to examine the program's impact. In both of these examples, the researchers defined their 'cases' in terms of people. In contrast, a third researcher may define each of three junior high schools studied as a case. Others have defined cases in terms

of entire programs, organizations, or communities. Each of these studies is an in-depth study of the phenomenon of each 'case' in its natural context and including the point of view of the participants.

The logic underlying a multiple case study is that each case must be carefully selected so that it either (a) predicts similar results (literal replication) or (b) produces contrasting results but for predictable reasons (a theoretical replication). Sometimes called a collective case study or 'multi-site qualitative research' by Herriott & Firestone (cited in Stake, 1998:105), a multiple case study may have a distinct advantage as evidence from the 'cases' is often considered more compelling. This study combines all three case study types as it investigates how effective the presses have been in terms of what they have been set up to do—publish scholarly works; and examine and describe their policies and programmes amid the challenges they face as developing country presses. It is explanatory as it revealed factors besides what are already known to stifle growth in African publishing industry.

4.1.3 Validity and reliability issues

It is the view of Yin (1994), Janesick (1998) and Donmoyer (cited in Janesick, 1998) that a fatal flaw in doing case studies is to conceive of statistical generalization as a method of generalizing the results of the case. This is because cases are not 'sampling units' and should not be chosen for this reason. Under these circumstances, the method of generalization is 'analytic generalization' in which a previously developed theory or observation is used as a template with which to compare empirical results of the case study. As the nature of the case study focuses on one aspect of a problem, the conclusion drawn will not be generalized but rather related to one particular event.

Triangulation, used in all types of qualitative research, refers to the process of using multiple data collection methods, data sources, analysis, or theories to check the validity of the findings. Denzin (cited in Janesick, 1998:46) identified

four basic types including data triangulation, which is the use of a variety of data sources in a study. Qualitative research is inherently multi-method in focus (Denzin & Smith, 1998) and the use of multiple methods, or triangulation, reflects an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question. To them, triangulation is not a tool or a strategy of validation, but an alternative to validation. The combination of multiple methods, empirical materials, perspectives and observation in a study is best understood, then, as a strategy that adds rigor, breadth, and depth to any investigation.

Through the process of triangulation, any finding or conclusion is likely to be much more convincing and accurate if it is based on several different sources of information, following a corroboratory mode. This research is a multi-site case study of the operating policies and practices of African university press publishing and was meant to gather evidence relating to the peculiar challenges of this genre of publishing from six presses located in five sub-Saharan African countries. It borrowed heavily from the methods of case study research.

4.2 Research instruments

The study adopted the data triangulation technique by using a combination of data sources with the effect that the strengths and weaknesses in each source are compensated when used together. The aim was to improve the validity of the findings. The literature is full of examples of this approach as seen by Caraway (1995), Jones (1998), Lekau (1998), and Parsons (1987). Caraway used a survey questionnaire followed by on-site personal interviews with university press directors and press staff members. Parsons, for example, relied on several methodological tools including on-site study of a single university press, in-person interviews with directors and acquisitions editors, and a survey of the leading university presses in Texas. Jones used a diversity of methods including a survey questionnaire and a series of semi-structured interviews to allow for triangulation. In addition to questionnaires and interviews as main instruments,

Lekau supplemented these methods with documentary analysis and informal observation.

4.2.1 Data sources

Data collection for case studies can rely on many sources of evidence including documents, archival materials, interviews, direct observation, participant-observation, and physical artifacts. No single source has complete advantage over all the others. In fact, the various sources are highly complementary, and a good case study will therefore want to use as many sources as possible. For case studies, the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources, in verifying the correct spellings and titles or names of organizations, and in drawing inferences about the nature of the organization. Participant observation and physical artifacts, as two other sources of evidence, have no potential relevance to the present study.

The method adopted for this study involved extended on-site visits to the three presses in Accra, Harare, and Pretoria, and in-person interviews with directors of these presses, followed by a mail survey. The three presses in Cape Town, Lusaka, and Nairobi were covered by mail survey only using the same set of questionnaire. Primary data were obtained from the preliminary and main questionnaires, and on-site visits, interviews and observations at the presses. Administrative documents (proposals, progress reports, and other internal documents) and records (such as organizational charts and budgets) of the presses and their parent institutions were used to supplement these sources.

Interview and observations following the questionnaire were used to clarify and fill in possible gaps in the completed questionnaire. For primary data the combination of methods ensured thorough coverage in as far as resources could go. Secondary data covered library research for relevant literature from all possible sources and formats, including journal articles, books, theses, the

Internet and expert contacts. The pilot survey was necessary for adequate questionnaire coverage, and to ensure clarity of the questions.

4.2.2 Development of the survey instrument

Press-specific policy issues like mission statement, structure and main departments, list building (areas of specialization), staffing, co-publication, rights, funding and unique information about each press were included under Administration. The rest of the questions followed the flow of work in a press house: starting from the Editorial Department (acquisition, copy editing), to Production (design, illustrations, production), followed by the Marketing Department (promotion, advertising, distribution, and warehousing). The set of questions under 'General' solicited views on a range of general policy and practical publishing-related issues.

Questions relating to acquisition and selection processes, editorial procedures, author/press relationships, and role of the editorial board were covered under the section on Acquisitions/Editorial. Funding levels, marketing strategies, information on sales figures, royalties, promotional methods, warehousing and distribution came under the section on Marketing. The section on Production brought together questions on design, subject areas, publishing outputs and scholarly journals. Open-ended questions were included to solicit views, opinions and comments on funding, marketing, application of new technologies, and trends in the scholarly publishing.

4.2.3 The choice of the cases

Publishing in Sub-Saharan African universities started with the University of Ibadan Press in 1955, a confirmation that Nigeria has one of the most successful book publishing industries in black Africa. South Africa, after a change in the political process in 1994, joins Zimbabwe, Kenya, Ghana, and Zambia as countries that have strong publishing culture (Zell, 1992; Teferra, 1998; Altbach, 1998a). Of the ten African country-members of the International Publishers

Association represented by their national publishers associations, all the countries except Zambia, are listed together with Egypt, Morocco, Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda. This is a further indication that these countries are among those with the most vibrant publishing activities on the continent (IPA, 1998).

One press was selected from each of the countries, except South Africa from which two were selected because it is rated as having the largest economy among the five countries and also because of its proximity to Botswana where I live and work. This was economical in terms of time and money. In alphabetical order of their locations the Presses are: (Accra) the Ghana Universities Press, (Cape Town) University of Cape Town Press, (Harare) the University of Zimbabwe Press, (Lusaka) University of Zambia Press, (Nairobi) University of Nairobi Press, and (Pretoria) University of South Africa Press. The Presses' current status were confirmed through the results of a preliminary questionnaire¹, which indicated that all six have active publishing programmes but they all do not have printing facilities.

A university press need not own a printing house because printing is a separate industry that has become highly technological. The 1979 report of the National Enquiry into Scholarly Communication in the United States revealed that while in 1948 only eleven out of thirty-five university presses in the United States had their own printers, in 1968 eight out of sixty-nine and in 1978 one out of every ten did so. The trend is the same in England and other European countries. However, even if a university owns a printing house, it need not be part of its publishing house (Agoulu & Agoulu, 1998:124).

4.2.4 Preliminary questionnaire

This was sent to six presses asking for their staff strengths, founding dates, ownership of printing press, and annual publications output over the 5-year

¹See Appendix 4B

period –1995 to 1999. The purpose was to find out how viable each of the press houses was and to establish that they are not dormant. Four of the presses that had e-mail facility were sent the questionnaire by email. The questionnaire was sent to the remaining two by post together with international return postal slips and self-addressed envelopes. All were dispatched in May 2000 and within a week two had been returned by email. After about a month a reminder was sent by e-mail to the two other presses.

Follow ups were made to the Unisa and the University of Ibadan Presses by posting the questionnaire with return postage slips and self-addressed envelopes. By July 2000 two of the presses had responded bringing the total to four. The fifth was returned in December 2000 leaving the last which did not respond even after several reminders including two sent with enclosed postage return and self-addressed envelope. The University Presses of Maiduguri and Ahmadu Bello (Zaria), both in Nigeria were identified as substitutes but they responded to the preliminary questionnaire only. The University of Zambia Press, which had been revitalized in 1996 (Kasankha, 1997), came in as the eighth press.

4.2.5 Pre-testing the Survey Instrument and pilot survey

A lecturer in publishing studies at the Department of Information Studies, University of Pretoria checked the questionnaire for its general content, content validity and thoroughness. Her noteworthy advice and comments were incorporated in the final survey instrument. My Advisors further checked the instrument before it was finally administered. The pilot instrument was reviewed by two prominent publishers², both with over fifteen years experience and who are directors of their own local publishing companies. The questionnaire was pre-tested and piloted to ensure that the questions were unambiguous and answerable. The final preparation for data collection was the conduct of a pilot

²Personal communications from Chief Victor Nwankwo of Fourth Dimension Publishing, Enugu, Nigeria; and Mr. Woeli A. Dekutsey of Woeli Publishing Services, Accra, Ghana.

study, which was chosen for reasons such as geographical convenience and similarity to the real cases.

The pilot helped to refine the data collection plans with respect to both content and the procedures to be followed. It also provided a trial run for the questionnaire, which involved testing the wording of the questions, identifying ambiguous questions, testing the technique that was used to collect the data, measuring the effectiveness of the respondents, etc. Bell (cited in Naoum, 1998:87) described a pilot study as

getting the bugs out of the instrument (questionnaire) so that subjects in your main study will experience no difficulties in completing it and so that you can carry out a preliminary analysis to see whether the wording and format of the questions will present any difficulties when the main data are analyzed.

Bell went further and said; ask your guinea pigs the following questions:

How long did it take you to complete the questionnaire? Were the instructions clear? Were any of the questions unclear or ambiguous? If so, will you say which and why?

Did you object to answering any of the questions? In your opinion, has any major topic been omitted? Was the layout of the questionnaire clear/attractive? Any comments?

To determine clarity of questions, ease of responding, and optimum length of the questionnaire, a scholarly press within the sub region was selected for the pilot case study. This was because it was likely to reflect identical experiences of the presses being studied. The pilot case press house was the Fourth Dimension Publishing³ in Enugu, Nigeria. Even though it is not a university press, it was a good stand-in for the pilot because it publishes scholarly materials; besides none of the selected university presses responded to the pilot survey. The responses to the questions and the various comments were used to improve upon the final survey instrument.

³Chief Victor Nwankwo was brutally murdered in August 2002, two months after the pilot survey.

4.2.6 Administration of main questionnaire

Three of the presses were served with the questionnaire followed by personal on-site visits. Copies of the questionnaire were posted to the remaining presses who were asked to complete and return them. The combined effect was to reduce cost since all the presses could not be visited because of time and money constraints. The advantage in the on-site visits was to cover the lack of qualitative depth to answers obtained through questionnaire by achieving more complete responses and further probing and prompting which were not possible with posted questionnaire. Through the visits and observations, supplemented by interviews with the directors, there was room for discussions and the recording of respondents' opinions and views on their publishing programmes, policies and procedures. Respondents of the main research instrument were the University Presses of Ghana, Cape Town, Harare, Nairobi, Unisa, and Zambia.

Summary

This chapter covered the methods of the study and dealt with data collection and their derivation from primary and secondary sources. The chapter also detailed the approach used and conditions under which the various stages of investigations were carried out from the development of initial contacts, the choice of the cases, preliminary questionnaire, pilot survey, and design and administration of the research instrument (questionnaire). It further indicated how issues of validity and reliability were addressed through the use of several data gathering methods. Use of the multiple case study approach was also justified. The method adopted for this study involved extended on-site visits to the three presses in Accra, Harare, and Pretoria, and in-person interviews with directors of these presses, followed by a mail survey. The three presses in Cape Town Lusaka, and Nairobi were covered by mail survey only using the same set of questionnaire.

CHAPTER 5

Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Results

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and discussion of data gathered from the survey of the six¹ press houses. Responses from all the presses and notes taken during on-site visits to three of them in Accra, Harare and Pretoria were examined, compiled and evaluated to answer the research questions asked at the beginning of the study. As far as possible, data were tabulated and displayed through tables, with the aim of identifying and discerning any patterns that provided the best interpretation of the results of the study.

Details of the survey instrument were given under Section 4.2.2 and a copy of the questionnaire is attached as Appendix 4C. For ease of reference, the presses were numbered 1 through 6 and the numerals were used in the text to refer to specific statements attributed to each of the presses. In that order the presses were: Ghana Universities Press, University of Zimbabwe Press, University of South Africa Press, University of Cape Town Press, University of Zambia Press, and University Press of Nairobi.

5.2 Presentation, Analysis and Discussion

5.2.1 Administration

5.2.1.1 Date of establishment

The question on the dates of establishment of the presses revealed that all the eight² presses were founded between 1957 and 1993 (see *Table 5.5*). This is evidence that university publishing in Africa is a recent phenomenon that started in the post independence era, from the mid 1950s, when African countries won

¹ & ² Six presses responded to the main questionnaire but eight returned the preliminary questionnaire. The results and discussions are based on responses by the six presses, except where stated otherwise.

political independence from colonial rule. Outside South Africa³, university publishing in Sub-Saharan Africa actually started in 1948 at the university of Ibadan, Nigeria. The Immediate event(s) leading to the establishment of the presses got responses like: established as a result of recommendation of a commission of university education; initially to publish academic journals; senate and council decisions to publish research works and scholarly journals.

5.2.1.2 Mission and vision statements

In a study on why corporate organizations fashion mission and vision statements, Bart & Tabone (cited in Joyce & Woods, 2001) stated that a mission statement is a formal expression of an organization's purpose. To them mission statements provide a more focused basis for allocating resources, motivate and inspire employees to achieve a common goal or purpose, and create a balance among the competing interests of different stakeholders. Mission-led organizations are concerned with strategic effectiveness and this means being clear about core activities, main beneficiaries, and key benefits for customers of organizational activities.

Three presses [1,2,3] have written mission statements, even though only 2 and 3 provided copies, while the remaining three do not have such statements. In its mission statement, Press 2 is committed to providing quality publications that contribute to the development of Southern Africa and empower the region's people '...to continually strive to maintain our position as the region's leading publisher of academic and scholarly works—books for empowerment'. The mission statement of press 3 read: 'by publishing outstanding research work, scholarly journals and textbooks of high academic merit for South Africa and the international academic fraternity, ...students and the Southern African community and to market and distribute these products'.

³Witwatersrand University Press of South Africa was founded in 1922. Web site: <http://www.wits.ac.za/wup.html> [Accessed June 2002]

The presses without written mission or vision statement were asked to give any kind of working statement that guides their operations. Their responses included commitment to publishing high quality, competitively priced and relevant publications; revitalizing research, exhibiting high standards of book publishing, and boosting morale by ending dependence on foreign books; maintaining a reputable imprint through quality publications. There is indication that they have clear objectives even though unwritten, and are mindful of the quality of their programmes which are meant to reach clients beyond their national borders, and reduce dependence on book imports.

5.2.1.3 Structure and position of the press in the university

The respondents were asked to select from one of the three structures below:

1. A university department fully integrated into the university like any other teaching faculty;
2. A limited liability company with full autonomy (i.e. independent of day-to-day control by the university administration), and registered as a profit-making private company; and
3. As a trust, with full autonomy, but registered as a non-profit organization.

A university press may be run like any department in the university, implying operating through the usual channels of administration. This may have serious drawbacks for running a press as a result of slow administrative procedures normally associated with this set up. For instance every appointment, including short-term or temporary, will have to go through different committees; and an urgent purchase will require three quotations and be approved by the bursar, sanctioned by the purchase officer and finally signed by the bursar. As a limited liability company, (option 2), the press will have considerable autonomy but would be required to prepare company and tax returns. Such a company may find it difficult to attract donor funding from development agencies. The third option of a charitable trust will have the press operate with much autonomy as enjoyed by a private company, but have administration vested in the 'Trustees'

who will promote the objectives of the press rather than maximize profit. A charitable Trust may obtain donor funding for publishing non-profitable works.

One press [1] is a consortium 'not owned or controlled by any one university' but is a government subvented agency within the university system. This arrangement gives it a status identical to a charitable trust. Three presses [2,3,5] are organized as any other university department. Responding to the issue of delays in such structure, the director of press 3 acknowledged the bureaucracy but said they have a way of working at it to reduce delays to a minimum. Two presses [4,6] are registered as non-profit organizations with the structure of a limited liability company, with 4 having a special relationship with a well-established commercial publisher.

The structure adopted by a particular press dictates the reporting line of the director in the overall organizational set up of the university, and vice versa. This arrangement in turn provides a basis for one to assess the importance the parent university attaches to publishing as one of the functions of a university, apart from teaching and research. The view of Thatcher (1994) is that almost all university presses function as departments of their universities, with the director reporting to the dean of the graduate school, a vice president for academic affairs, or the provost. The exact positioning of the press within the university's overall bureaucratic structure can have some effect on how it operates.

In one case [1] the director reports to the press board which is not affiliated to any university, and in three cases [2,5,6] the directors report to Pro Vice Chancellor (Administration) or Deputy Vice Chancellor. The director of Press 3 reports to the Executive Director, Print and Study Materials. The press director for press 4 reports to the management of the commercial publisher that owns the press.

5.2.1.4 Background of press director

According to Levin (cited in Caraway, 1995:57), future managers in publishing will need 'multi-disciplinary backgrounds with experience across the marketing, editorial, finance, and production sectors of the profession'. All of the presses in the study have a full-time director who is responsible for planning and coordinating the overall publishing activities of the press. The background of a director is considered a strategic but intangible asset because it could bring experience, judgment, relationships and insights to the press by helping to interpret the environment correctly and thus lead to a strategic positive change.

The qualifications of press directors varied but included a bachelor's [4], a post-graduate diploma [6], a master's degree [2,5] and a doctoral degree [1,3]. The subject backgrounds of the directors also varied and covered Sociology [1], Educational Administration [2], Management [3], Communications for Development [5], and Mass Communication [6]. One press director [4] did not supply the answer to this question. It is known for a fact that often a press's list is determined or influenced by the subject background or interest of the editor or director. This could not be deduced from the survey because their mission statements made no mention of their 'lists', neither was it stated in the answer to the question on subject specialization. This apparent oversight will be discussed further under list building/press list, Section 5.2.2.4.

Years of experience as press director range between 0-3 years [4], 4-6 years [2,5,6], 7-9 years [1], and over 10 years [3]. As a result of their long and wide range of publishing experience, most directors served or are serving on publications boards (of local universities); university publications committee; national antipiracy committee on literacy and software; board of copyright society; local book publishers association, national book development council, and on graduation committees. One press director [3] has declined to serve on any external (national) committee because of heavy internal schedules on university management council, senate, and university executive committees.

The director for press 6 answered 'none' but serves as secretary to the board of directors and the editorial committee of the press. This question was not applicable to the director of press 4 who answered by indicating 'not applicable'.

5.2.1.5 The main departments of the press house

Functionally, a publishing house is organized along the micropublishing activities performed to transform a manuscript (in modern day sense a typescript) into a finished product—a book or journal issue. Following the normal flow of work, the departments of the house deal with editorial, design, production, and marketing and distribution. Management and accounting are two other functions outside the proper sequence of work in the press house but which have exacting influence on what goes on in all the various departments. The main departments of the presses covered by the study happen to be a combination of all these.

Press 1 listed three departments of Finance & Administration, Editorial & Production, and Marketing & Business Development; press 2 has three departments of General Administration, Editorial, and Production & Marketing; and press 3 has two main divisions of: Publishing (editorial, production and printing up to delivery) and Business (all financial matters). The main departments of press 4 were given as Publishing, Production, Sales and Marketing, and Administration. The four departments within press 5 are: Administration, Manuscript editorial and design, Marketing and sales, and Journals. The main departments of Press 6 are Editorial, Production, and Marketing.

5.2.1.6 Issues on staffing

Putting the employees into the various work units of Editorial (18), Production (and design) (22), Sales/Promotion (23), Administration (20), and Other (16), a total work force of 99 is employed by the six presses. This gives an average of 16.5 full-time equivalent staff for each house. The individual presses have between 8 and 31 employees, distributed from 1 to 6 respectively as 16, 8, 31,

18, 16, and 10. The largest press in terms of number of employees has 33 establishments for full-time equivalent staff, currently employs 31, but does not hope to fill the two vacant positions as a cost cutting measure.

Table 5.1: Full time equivalent employees

Work Unit	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6	Total/Work Unit
Editorial	2	2	3	3	6	2	18
Production	3	2	10	3	-	4	22
Sales	4	1	12	5	1	-	23
Administration	6	3	6	2	3	-	20
Other	1	-	-	6	6	4	16
Press Total	16	8	31	18	16	10	[99]

University presses are known to operate with the barest minimum of staff as a result of low funding levels. For this reason also, staff are required to be multi-skilled and be able to perform several different functions. All press directors reported that they performed one or more additional functions such as acquisitions, editorial, production, marketing, and consultancy outside their core duties as administrators. Also, Jones (1998) reported that for lack of funds to hire new staff, press directors performed copy-editing, and in some instances the book design functions for all books. To make up for staff shortages, all the presses in the survey reported relying on the services of freelancers for copy-editing, typesetting, and production.

5.2.1.7 Written and unwritten policy documents

Policies normally provide the framework that guides the plans and operations of firms and organizations. All the presses, except one [5], have written policy documents on Contract, royalties and copyright; three [1,4,5] have it on editing and house style, two [1,3] have it on Guidelines for authors. Only one [4] reported having written policies on Design and production, List building, and Marketing/sales and promotion. Two [4,5] have written policies on Editorial processes.

Press 1 reported having unwritten policies which are made for the various departments from time to time by the press board. For press 6, there is an editorial committee to guide publishing decisions and a board of directors for overall policy. Press 3 stated that 'We have a set of working procedures in place, which is followed by the person(s) responsible for the particular task'. These might refer to procedure manuals, which for all intents and purposes ought to be documented. This director who happens to be one of the presses visited however admitted the need to write down manuals for all operations, even though there are regular in-house inductions for all new staff of the press. Press 5 holds copyright of its publications, and royalties and contracts are negotiable.

5.2.1.8 Sources of funding

Without any shade of doubt, funding is very much a source of concern for every publisher. Unlike most businesses, publishing involves a heavy initial investment for each project, with a long gestation period until a backlist has been built up. The funding situation for non-profit publishers like the university press is even more desperate as they have to publish works which do not have any profit potential at all. This requires them to depend on subsidies and foundation moneys for most, if not all of their operations. The presses were made to respond to what their main funding sources are. Their responses included subsidy from parent university [2,3,5,6], local and export sales [1,2,3,5,6], publishing services for other presses [3], sponsored publications [6], and government subvention [1]. Press 4 owned by a commercial entity derives its funding from that publisher. One press [5] listed consultancy and editorial jobs, commercial telephone facility to the university community, and photocopying and typesetting as additional sources of revenue.

The major funding sources as approximate percentages of their total monthly budget presented press by press were given as:

[1] local sales 40%; government subvention 40%; others (editorial, typesetting, sponsors) 20%

[2] local sales 70%; export sales 25%; subsidy 5%

[3] parent university 80%; sales (mainly local) 20%

[4] parent is university/commercial publisher (no figures given)

[5] commercial telephone facility, and photocopying and typesetting (nearly 100%)

[6] university subsidy, sale of publications, and sponsored publications (no figures were given)

None of the presses mentioned sources like book clubs, endowment, alumni, and subsidiary rights, sources which are increasingly being used by European and American university presses to supplement their budgets. Due to the double effect of low funding and library budget cuts, American and European publishers have learnt the art of fundraising and this tactic needs to be employed by their African counterparts.

Other forms of institutional support cover salaries [2,3,5,6], warehousing [2,3,5,6], utilities (water, phone, etc) [1,2,3,5,6], and rent [1,2,3,6]. Press 6 stated transport as additional form of institutional support. One press [4] receives no form of institutional support as the commercial publisher pays all staff salaries, rent, utilities, warehousing and other costs. Three presses [1,2,3] responded that in real terms institutional support has decreased, or remained static over the fifteen-year period (1986-2000). Two presses [5,6] responded that this support has increased while one press [4] did not answer this question. Thus with the majority of the presses, the trend is a slow down on funding support. This is also an indication of the funding squeeze transferred to university publishing by the parent institutions who themselves have suffered from government budget cuts. The situation is a reflection of the industry's dependence on the economies of the countries.

In terms of funding and sustainable support, universities' expectation on the self-sufficiency of the presses was clearly without doubt. The answers were

emphatically 'Yes' to the question: does the university expect the press to be self-sufficient? According to the director of press 1, 'government expects it to be self sufficient in 2003'; and for press 2 'the new five-year development plan instructs that the press should be self-sufficient'. Press 6 said 'currently we are in the process of ...going into non-academic publishing with the hope of making profit which will enable [us] to continue publishing academic [materials]'. It is implicit in the case of press 4, which is owned by a commercial publisher that the university could not support its operations and hence the special arrangement with the commercial publisher. Only one press [5] does not seem to have the pressure to generate funding for its programmes. The press director said the university has committed itself to fund fully the publication of officially adopted books and journals. There were no comments from press 4.

5.2.2 Acquisition/Editorial

5.2.2.1 Manuscript acquisition and selection

While many of the functions of the press such as editing, design, marketing, and distribution can be contracted outside the press, the decision of what to publish cannot be delegated. Parsons (1987) described the acquisition of manuscripts as the 'heart of publishing'. He gave five methods of manuscript acquisition as unsolicited (over the transom), editor-initiated, author-initiated, query, and prior association of the author and editor.

None of the presses has a formal written policy on manuscript acquisition. The director of press 1 stated that the press acquires manuscripts over the transom only but did not give the proportion of that source nor how much of it gets published. Presumably this press may not have an acquisitions editor. The truth could be that the press did not want to give away what could be termed its 'trade secret' in terms of how it acquires manuscripts. In Caraway's 1995 study of nine Texas university presses, most of them answered the question on acquisition in general terms because of the importance and competitive nature of the acquisition process. In fact three press directors refused to answer that question.

Press 2 acquires manuscripts through the acquisitions editor, the academic grape vine, referrals from other presses, and over the 'transom'. This press acquires most (70%) of its manuscripts from the academic grape vine and is able to publish 80% of this source. For this press, the main method the acquisition editor uses to bring in manuscripts is by approaching writers of subject areas through their departments.

For press 3, manuscript acquisition is through the academic grapevine (30%), referrals (20%), acquisition editors, and unsolicited as a result of the 'stature of the parent university'. The last two modes constitute 50% of the source of manuscripts. The director confessed that it was difficult to determine the approximate percentage of what gets published from each source, but estimated the respective proportions as 30:20:50. For this press the acquisitions editor identifies potential authors and follows them up with proposals. The main authors of this house are faculty of the university, scholars from Africa, and scholars from outside Africa. There is a lucrative profit sharing contract that attracts the university's academics to publish with the press.

Press 4 acquires manuscripts through the acquisitions editor who accounts for (80%) of the manuscripts, the academic grape vine (10%), and through referrals from other presses (10%). For this press, the main method the acquisition editor uses to bring in manuscripts is through commissioning. The press is able to publish 70%, 5%, and 2% respectively of those sources, which makes the acquisitions editor the main source of published works by the press.

The mode of manuscript acquisition by Press 5 is through the academic grapevine (50%) and by soliciting manuscripts from prospective authors (50%). Approximately 70% of the acquisitions from the former source and about 90% of the latter get published. Like Presses 1 and 6, this press does not have an acquisitions editor. Press 6 acquires manuscripts through the academic grape vine and referrals, but did not state the proportion of either source.

Table 5.2: Percentage of each category of authors that get published

	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
A	35	90	*	50	80	*
B	30	5	*	40	-	*
C	10	2	*	5	20	*
D	5	3	*	5	-	-
E	20	-	*	-	-	-

Legend: A- faculty of the university; B- faculty within the country; C- scholars from Africa; D- scholars from outside Africa; E-'other'. * figures not provided.

The main authors of four presses [1,2,4,6] are faculty of the university and faculty of other universities in the country. These two author-groups account for 35% and 30% for press 1, 90% and 5% for the second, and 50% and 40% respectively for press 4 as displayed in *Table 5.2*. Scholars from Africa form the third source of authorship for Press 6. For press 5, faculty of the university and scholars from Africa account for 80% and 20% respectively of published authors. Presses 3 and 6 did not provide approximate percentage figures for its author groups.

5.2.2.2 Editorial board and related issues

An editorial board is established to assist with the publishing decisions of the press and is unique to university presses. This is the committee charged with certifying the scholarly quality of books and journals that carry the imprint of the university. According to the survey, the size and composition of the board vary from one press to the other. One press [5] reported the smallest size of 2-5 members with faculty only and honorary members from faculty outside the country. Two other presses [1,6] reported a size of 6 to 9 members, with the board of press 1 composed of faculty and members from outside the university, and that of the other made up of faculty only. One press [4] reported a size of 10-13, and two others [2,3] reported the largest size of more than fourteen members. The boards of the last three [2,3,4] are composed of faculty only, or a combination of faculty and other staff of the university, without outside members.

For board membership, opinion is split over the merits and demerits of selecting individuals based on their knowledge and/or expertise in the subject or on departmental representation. In terms of faculty-by-faculty representation, the presses with large board sizes have representation from all faculties. This might account for their large sizes. One press [6] with board size of 6-9 has one representative from each of the six colleges, while the other two [1,5] with small board sizes (between 2-5, and 6-9) do not have representation from all faculties. The number of editorial meetings per annum varies from 3 to 5. Three of the presses [1,4,6] meet quarterly, which seems to be the norm. The director of press 5 reported that there are at least six permanent boards depending on the kind of publication, and ad-hoc boards are formed with different publications having different editorial boards. Each board decides how often it meets depending on the workload. The boards of presses 2 and 3 respectively meet 3 times and 5 times annually.

The functions of the editorial board according to the survey are to accept manuscripts and formulate overall management policy; recommend the publication of manuscripts and approve policy decision; to make sure that the books published by the press are of a certain acceptable academic standard; formulate editorial policies and approve manuscripts for publication; vetting and scrutinizing all manuscripts before seeking for peer review. All these various functions point to the mission of the board as one that chooses manuscripts that ultimately get published, and appropriately bear the imprint of the university. The presses responded that the final decision to publish any title rests with the board.

On the specific role of the director on the board, the presses' comments included provision of direction and advise; ex-officio member; leads the presentation on manuscripts [of reviewers reports, author's responses, etc]; secretary to the senate publications committee. The presses reported that all manuscripts are reviewed by a minimum of two academic peers in the appropriate discipline or by outside reviewers selected locally or from abroad.

5.2.2.3 Author-publisher relations and copyright registration

All the presses, except one [5], have a standard written contract with the title similar to 'Memorandum of agreement' for authors, which is identical to the finding of Caraway. This could be an indication of the paramount position authors occupy in the eyes of the publisher, and the resolve by African publishers to improve upon their image with authors following the 1998 Arusha III seminar on African writer-publisher relations. Each contract follows a similar format and contains sections under each party's responsibilities, copyright, editing, production, publication of the work, royalties, author's copies, remaindering, adaptations and new editions, cancellation of agreements, and arbitration. Areas of interest that vary from one press to another are royalties and copyright, which are always negotiated between author and publisher.

On copyright, one press [2] records that it is in the name of the author, while three [1,3,5] have it in the name of the press or the university. One of the three stated that the University holds copyright, and royalties and contracts are negotiated. This information was not available from presses 4 and 6. Assignment of the copyright of a work to the publisher stems from economic realities, because the availability of additional copies (or copies produced at a lower cost) could reduce the publisher's initial investment on the project. Copyright law protects the publisher's investment and competitive position by prohibiting copying, but allows *fair use*, a concept that allows some limited number of copying by end users and libraries. Admittedly, fair use is an issue of concern to print publishers because the enforcement of this provision is difficult.

5.2.2.4 Subject areas of specialization (list building)

It is the view of Parsons (1987) that university presses typically determine their areas of subject specialization on the basis of the publishing heritage or tradition, the evident strengths of the parent university, the sales potential of various fields of inquiry, and the scholarly interests of the editors. Davies (1995:119) has this to say:

Focus is important: who will these books be aimed at and what purpose will they serve? A list that is an assortment of books that seem to bear no relation to each other is going to be difficult to market. Successful marketing in publishing is built around the principle of having a ‘family’ of books which can be promoted and sold across the board to a fairly coherent readership. If the list is fragmented, the marketing department has to start from scratch for every book. This is inefficient and also gives mixed messages to the marketplace—authors, readers, agents and booksellers.

Johns Hopkins University Press is known for its publications in the medical area, Columbia University Press for its publication in the reference area, and the University of Chicago Press and MIT Press for their journals. MIT concentrates in the sciences with a strong focus on cognitive science, neuroscience, computer science and artificial intelligence. In fact one press [3] said it publishes all subjects ‘under the sun’, including ‘a large number of disciplines from African Studies and Architecture, the Classics and Economics, to Personal Finance and Physiology’. Another [4] has published mainly in the social sciences and humanities: in history, archaeology, literary studies, cultural studies and religion. It is currently developing its list of natural science, medical and development studies titles.

Table 5.3: Proportion of three largest subject areas

Subject area	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
Highest	45	65	45	55	-	-
Second highest	35	25	40	45	-	-
Third highest	20	10	15	35	-	-
Total %	100	100	100	135*	-	-

Legend: - Not answered, no figures provided; * figures add up to > 100%

The proportions of the largest subject areas of the presses range between 45 to 65% of their publishing outputs, and are tabulated in the table above (*Table 5.3*). Talking about niche publishing, these are the strong areas where the presses are supposed to concentrate their efforts.

The mission and vision statements of the presses in the survey were silent on this aspect of ‘determining a publishing agenda’ and as a result their lists cover

very broad subject areas including engineering and technology. This may be interpreted to mean their lists are not focused, a factor that could partially explain the difficulty they face in marketing their books. Most of the presses in the study publish in the Social Science and Humanities, even though one press [3] has an impressive list on Art and Architecture. This was the observation by Thatcher (1993) that most university presses in the US publish in the 'soft' sciences. University presses with the exception of a few of the larger presses like Princeton and Cambridge, do not do much publishing in science at all, and even those few primarily publish monographs not journals. Only 20% of the journals published by university presses are in the scientific fields.

5.2.2.5 Publishing categories

Paraphrasing the responses to the question on the future funding of Texas university presses, Parsons (1995:115) wrote:

Trade publishing will be of importance in Texas, as well as other states, so long as the level of underwriting from the parent institutions necessitates the generation of a large percentage of the press budget from sales revenue. The press must produce enough popular books that will advance hardcore scholarly disciplines. It is essential in order for presses to survive that they continue to move away from the old scholarly model and broaden their publishing lists with titles that have trade appeal.

Table 5.4: Publishing categories of the presses

Publishing category	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
Research monograph	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	x
Undergraduate textbook	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓
School textbook	✓	x	✓	x	x	x
Professional book	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x
Trade book	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x
Research journal	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	x
Reference work	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x
Children book	x	x	x	x	x	x

Legend: ✓ Category published by press; x not published by the press

The presses gave the categories which they publish as research monographs, undergraduate texts, school textbooks, professional books, trade books, reference works and research journals. *Table 5.4* gives the summary of

categories published by each press. Five of the presses publish undergraduate textbooks [1,2,3,4,6] and professional books [1-5], four of them publish research monographs [1,2,3,5], trade books [1-4], and research journals [1,2,3,5]. Three presses [1-3] publish reference works, and two [1,3] publish school textbooks. One press [6] publishes undergraduate textbooks only. None of them publishes children books.

Giving reasons for publishing 'non scholarly' works, one press [1] stated that it is in the process of being fully commercialized; another [5] said 'to try and capture a portion of the profitable market'; and a third [6] replied 'we are currently diversifying to school books for income generation'. This seems to be the trend worldwide if university publishing has to survive. For press 3, the decision to publish non scholarly works derives from the 'academic merit and/or public interest' intrinsic in a particular manuscript. The director of this press stated that academic standard of a work takes preference in deciding to publish any work, not profit-making only. For two presses [1,3], the proportions of non-scholarly publishing are significant and fall between 25-39%. Press 5 indicated a proportion of less than 25%, while press 6 did not provide any figure. Two presses [2,4] did not respond to this question.

5.2.3 Production

5.2.3.1 Founding dates and publication figures

The presses were asked in the preliminary questionnaire to provide their founding dates and figures for new titles they published for the five-year period 1995-2000. Their responses are tabulated below in *Table 5.5*. The largest press [3] in terms of annual average number of titles over the 5-year period produced 68.8 titles, followed by press 4 with an average of 8.2. The first has a publishing programme that is about eight times its closest press. Both presses are located in South Africa, giving credence to the fact that this country is far ahead of the rest in Sub-Saharan Africa in terms of development of its publishing industry. The

third and fourth presses [6,2] have average annual titles of 7.6 and 7.2 respectively.

Table 5.5: Average annual new titles for 1995-1999

Press/Date Founded	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	Average for 1995-1999
1 (1962)	1	3	3	3	2	na	12/5 = 2.4
2 (1969)	5	11	9	8	3	na	36/5 = 7.2
3 (1957)	69	83	89	56	47	na	344/5 = 68.8
4 (1993)	Nil	nil-	14	12	15	na	41/5 = 8.2
5 (1978)*	Nil	Nil	Nil	nil	1	1	1/5 = .20
6 (1962)	3	15	9	4	7	na	38/5 = 7.6
7 (1988)	1	3	1	1	nil	2	6/5 = 1.2
8 (1973)	Nil	Nil	7	3	3	1	13/5 = 2.6

Legend: na =Not available, these presses were asked in early 2000 to give figures for 1995-1999 only; *estimated

In terms of regional distribution the first, four presses [2,3,4,5] are located in the Southern African sub region, one [6] in Central Africa, and three [1,7,8] are located in West Africa. The University presses of Ahmadu Bello and Maiduguri both in Nigeria came in as last minute substitutes for my initial choice from one of Ibadan, Ife, and Lagos who all declined to take part in the study. These three were considered to have larger publishing programmes than the two that were surveyed. The University of Zambia Press also agreed to join the survey at the initial stages of the fieldwork.

The three most important publishing categories by the presses are tabulated in *Table 5.6*. For the majority (4 out of 6) of the presses [1,2,4,6], the most important publishing category is undergraduate textbooks. This sounds logical for two reasons—economic and service. The large size of student population compared to academics makes this category economically attractive. Secondly, the need to publish materials adapted with careful explanation of concepts to the students' environment or to suit their inadequate backgrounds is being met. This is a perceived need because most undergraduate textbooks are imported and

may not be suitable for the African student. *Table 5.7* displays press runs for the three most important publishing categories.

Table 5.6: Most important publishing categories in terms of title output

Press number	Most important category	2nd most important	3rd most important
1	Undergraduate textbooks	General	Research monographs
2	Undergraduate textbooks	Professional books	Research journals
3	Research monographs	Research journals	Undergraduate books
4	Undergraduate textbooks	Professional books	Trade books
5	Research monographs	Research journals	Professional books
6	Undergraduate textbooks	-	-

Table 5.7: Press run for three most important categories

Average press run	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
Most important	1000 (45%)	300 (50%)	3000*	1500*	-	1000
Second most important	1000 (35%)	300 (20%)	1000*	1500*	-	-
Third most important	1000 (20%)	300 (30%)	500*	1500*	-	-

Legend: approximate percentage to total publishing output is given in brackets
* percentage figures not provided; - figure not provided

Undergraduate textbooks published by the presses in the survey account for the bulk of the print runs possibly because of the relatively higher student numbers. This category has an average press run of 1,360 for the five presses [1,2,3,4,6] that provided figures. The overall low print runs of these categories underscore Bgoya's (1999) call for increased cooperation among universities by offering common courses, a point made by Currey (1999) when he said university books can be developed and used throughout the continent of Africa.

Combining the results obtained from *Tables 5.6 and 5.7* it may be argued that the three most important publishing categories of undergraduate textbooks, research monographs and professional books are produced in press runs of between 300

and 3000. For the research monograph, a sale of 400 to 500 copies in some subjects is as much as can be hoped for in the US, as expressed by Wratten (1999) and supported by empirical research by Jones (1998). Experts claim these low sales have been worsened by the ease of photocopying and the increased use of interlibrary loans by university libraries.

5.2.3.2 Publications and sales figures

In order to obtain the publication history of the presses, they were asked to provide details of the number of titles produced since their establishment (to 2000), titles in print, and titles reprinted to satisfy demand. A summary of the figures is provided in *Table 5.8* (below). The founding dates of the presses span the period 1957-1993. The oldest press [3] in the time span is about 45 years old (up to 2002) and has produced 6000 titles, but did not provide the figure for its titles in print. By simple calculation, it publishes an average of about 130 books per annum. In increasing order, the remaining presses [6,1,2,4] publish an average of 2.7, 7, 9, and 11 books per annum, with number of titles in print standing at 5, 170, 100, and 5 respectively. Titles reprinted to supply demand were between 5 and 40, with one press [3] having printed about 21 titles for 2001 alone. Press 6 did not provide a figure for this.

Table 5.8: Publication figures

	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
Titles produced	280	300+	6000	100	na	50
Titles in print	170	100+	na	5	10	5
Titles reprinted	Over 30	40	About 21 (for 2001)	5	3	-
Date founded	1962	1969	1957	1993	1978*	1984
Average annual titles	7 (280÷40)	9.1 (300÷33)	133.3 (6000÷45)	11.1 (100÷9)	-	2.7 (50÷18)

Legend: na- not provided by the press; *estimated

Pulling together indicators from *Tables 5.5* and *5.8*, Appendices 1B, 3A and 3C and staff/students populations from Chapter 3 created *Table 5.9*.

Table 5.9: Social indicators

A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Press/country	Staffing	Av annual output	University staff & students	Country population (million)	National publications output	Exchange rate per US\$ (2000)
1/Ghana	16	7	30,000 (1998)	19	na	5,300
2/Zimbabwe	8	9.1	42,000 (2000)	11	na	43
3/S. Africa	31	133.3	366,000 (1995)	43	5418 (1995)	6.9
4/S. Africa	18	11.1	366,000 (1995)	43	na	6.9
5/Zambia	16	Na	Na	10	na	3,110
6/Kenya	10	2.7	40,000 (2000)	29	na	76

Legend: na- not available

Publications output data (column F) from *Table 5.9* give a stunning picture of unavailable publishing statistics in the selected countries. With the exception of South Africa, which published 5418 titles in 1995, the rest do not have data on their publishing output. This could be considered a serious defect since any national educational planning would require such data, which also form the basis for any meaningful book sector study.

For a country the size of Ghana with an estimated university student population of 30,000 (1998), the annual average output of 7 titles is woefully inadequate noting that the press is the only one of its kind in the country. With a staff strength of 16, the average title per person is just under 0.5 per annum. Press 1 looks overstaffed and may need to restructure, cut down on staff and possibly reduce production costs. At ₵5,300 to one US dollar, the prices of imported raw materials could contribute to an unaffordable price for the final product. In relative terms press 2 with a staff of 8 and average annual titles of 9.1 is publishing 1.14 titles per person annually, that is more than twice that for press 1. Going by the exchange rate of Z\$43 per the US dollar, Press 2 which is located in Zimbabwe operates in one of the most challenging economic situations on the continent.

Press 3 with 31 staff publishes 133.3 titles annually, has a title output per person of 4.3 and therefore is the most productive in terms of title output per staff. For press 4, the number of titles per staff is .62. In terms of endowment, the two presses are located in South Africa which has a relatively better economy as seen from the exchange rate of R6.9 to the US dollar. In fact, publishing infrastructure in the country is relatively better than the other four countries as outlined in Chapter 3. Press 6, located in Kenya, has the lowest annual number of titles per staff calculated at .27. The state of scholarly publishing in Kenya which was the envy of many countries in the 1970s is reported to have declined since the early 1980s and has not recovered despite attempts to revive it. The figure for annual output per staff member could not be calculated for press 5 because it did not provide its annual title output.

The populations of Zimbabwe and Zambia are respectively 11 million and 10 million. The three other countries Ghana, Kenya, and South Africa with populations close to or above 20 million have the critical mass of numbers required to support a publishing industry. The rider here is that literacy rates should be increased to provide and extend the present book markets. For the university publisher the current expansions in university education across the continent provide room for optimism. Appropriate steps must be taken to target the undergraduate market.

Press directors were asked to provide information on the proportion of their annual output they are able to sell and indicate the trend over the fifteen-year period (1986-2000). The responses, displayed in *Table 5.10*, show that the presses are able to sell between 20-65% of their production. The least [5] in terms of the proportion sold is able to sell just a fifth of its production, however together with the rest it said the trend in sales has increased over the years. For press 4, the average proportion of output sold annually was 40%. This press said that sale figures, which increased during the period 1986-1990, have decreased over the ten-year period starting from 1991 till 2000. The figure for Press 3 was rejected because it is not realistic to have a percentage greater than 100.

Table 5.10: Annual sales and trend

	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
Av annual sales (%)	25	65	112*	40	20	65
1996-2000	↑	↑	↑	↓	↑	↓
1991-1995	↑	↑	↑	↓	↔	-
1986-1990	↑	↑	↑	↑	↓	-

Legend: ↑ increasing; ↓ decreasing; ↔ static; - (no figure); * - rejected

Annual sales are usually influenced by several factors including titles produced, areas in which publishing happens, the types of titles, the target market, and the state of the national economy. The rising sales figures for presses 1-3 may be a reflection of increased undergraduate textbook publishing which has been the focus of much publishing by the presses (as reported in *Table 2:10*). Press 4, located in South Africa showed a decrease in sales between 1991 and 2000, even though it reported an increase in sales between 1986 and 1990. The university and a commercial publisher (Juta & Co)⁴ jointly own the press, an arrangement in which the commercial publisher picks up all the funding needs of the university press. It is expected that sales will pick up under this new partnership.

Press 6 showed decreasing sales between 1996 and 2000, but did not indicate the trend in the previous two five-year periods. Even though the Kenyan economy reportedly picked up after World Bank and IMF-led reforms in 1995, the gains did not show any positive effect on the publishing sector. The economic growth was brief and could not be sustained after 1999 (see Section 3.2.4). Zambia is one country that shows strong correlation between the economy and publishing (Williams, 1993). Over the three five-year periods, the fortunes of the press kept changing from a decrease to being static and then an increase, possibly as a result of the fluctuations in the economy.

⁴For the first time in its history, the University of Cape Town Press, a JUTA subsidiary, managed by JUTA Academic, was able to make an extraordinary 55% turnaround in its operating profits. (Juta Annual Report, 2002)

5.2.3.3 Academic journals published

Four of the presses [1,2,3,5] in the survey reported publishing academic journals as part of their publishing programmes. One press [2] publishes three journals, one of which was established in 1969 and the other in 1995; no date was given for the third one. Another [1] publishes one title only, and a third [3] publishes 14 titles. Another [5] publishes six titles most of which were revitalized in 1996 with a commitment by the university to provide funding. All together the presses publish a total of 24 journals.

The subject areas covered between them are education, applied science, and medicine. Other subjects are social research, humanities, science and technology. The press [3] with the largest journals programme publishes in development and policy studies, music, law, media studies, fine art, education, history and related issues, library and information science, political science and public administration, psychology, English studies, Semitics, and Latin American studies. Two presses [4,6] do not have any journal publishing programmes. The journal list is given in Appendix 5A.

Hussein & Priestly (2002), presenting an overview of the current status of scholarly journals in Africa, pointed out that journal publishing in Africa started in South Africa in 1884 with the *South African Law Journal*, and showed a dramatic rise from the 1980s onwards. This is in spite of the many that have 'closed shop' over the past few years. The most comprehensive data on current African scholarly journals is recorded in the *African Journals* database, maintained by INASP at <http://www.inasp.info> with a record of over 320 titles. Six other sources including *Bioline*, African Academy of Sciences, and Electronic African Bookworm, provide information on African journals with considerable overlaps. A conservative estimate of the total number of current journals is put at between 400 and 500 covering a few that are not listed in these sources.

5.2.3.4 Computerized operations

The presses were asked to state which of their operations have been computerized. This is because of the many advantages the introduction of ICT has in the work of a press house. Jones (1998) identified the introduction of ICT as one of the five strategies that were adopted by US university publishers as a result of changes in their environment (reduction in the demand of scholarly monographs, reduction of university subsidies, and technology). The remaining strategies were changes in the treatment of authors, editorial policy, staff levels and use of outsourcing, and approach to sources of funds.

During on-site visits to three of the presses [1,2,3] (in Accra, Harare, and Pretoria), I found that two of them have Apple Macs, which they described as more robust, reliable and functionally superior to the PC, especially in their production departments. The director of press 2 admitted that the Mac is about four times the cost of a PC but it is worth having, especially with publishing software such as PageMaker™, QuarkXpress™ and Corel Draw™. The third press [3] has deliberately selected the PC environment because of network compatibility with the rest of the campus. This press claims that there is merit in either choice because of staff training and maintenance costs. All three presses use the computer for manuscript editing and production.

All six presses reported having computerized some aspects of their operations. Functions that have been computerized include accounting [2,3,4], mailing lists [2,3,4], stock inventory [2,3,4], manuscript editing [1,2,5,6], order processing [3,4], and production [1,2,3,4]. Three presses [2,3,6] have web sites which host their online catalogues. One of the presses [3] does publish electronic products in the form of CDs. This press publishes its journals in print as well as on the web. Electronic products form up to 25% of its total production and may increase to between 26-50% in the next five years. The five other presses do not publish electronic products.

5.2.3.5 Cooperation or partnership arrangements

While investigating the possibility of setting up an SADC (Southern African Development Community) sub-regional university press, Walter Bgoya (1999) observed that for as long as the universities in the sub-region did not have common and compulsory courses based on an SADC curriculum, there was very little chance that books published in one country would find markets in other countries. He elaborated that if universities in the region offered common courses in subjects of common interest, it would be natural for authors, publishers, and book distributors to think more in terms of the region than focusing only on their own countries. It could be argued that publishing for university and tertiary levels would benefit by the large numbers of users.

The question is how likely are common syllabi in the mix of such big cultural differences among countries on the continent? It is very likely, especially in subjects like mathematics, science and history, that common syllabi could be developed through cooperation among educational experts and policy makers. Bgoya (1999:67) argues strongly that:

One way that Africa can begin to find its own identity, which I take to be a precondition for development, is first to educate its young in the histories, geographies, and cultures of its peoples...Africa-centered education would demand curricula which ensure that students in every African region learn about African regions [just as] American universities make the study of Western civilization a compulsory course for all students...

Taking history as an example, James Currey (Currey, 1999:223) 'has just completed its most ambitious co-publishing project, the eight paperback volumes of the abridged Unesco *General History of Africa*'. The work was produced under the editorship of African historians, including A. Adu Boahen, BA Ogot, JE Ade Ajayi, J Ki-Zerbo, and Ali A. Mazrui. Such large-scale cooperation is not beyond the means of other subject experts on the continent.

On the issue of cultural differences among African countries, it must be noted that since the 1950s, Africa has used imported study materials at all levels of education, most of them without content adaptations. A continent-wide syllabus or reading material would certainly have much more appeal to students than the

current imported brands. Bgoya (63) asserts further that in the absence of a national educational philosophy, where there is no difference in form and content between colonial and post-colonial education, there would obviously be no impetus for curricular reform and/or development of new textbooks.

At present, the number of university students in each country are too small when disaggregated by different disciplines and therefore cannot provide a large enough internal market. Some of the benefits of cooperation entail sharing of print runs, licensing, adaptations, and sharing in origination costs. Two presses [2,5] reported co-publishing arrangements with James Currey⁵, a UK-based commercial house, one of them since 1990 and the other since 1995, while two others [1,6] did not have any form of cooperation with any press at all, while One press [4] has established co-publishing arrangements with a number of overseas publishers, notably Pluto Press, Macmillan, Routledge, Ohio University Press, International Development and Research Centre (of Canada), and University of Virginia Press. It has local partnership with Zed Books of South Africa. Press 2 has a publishing arrangement since 1997 with Wits University Press, which is located in the sub-region. *Table 5.11* is a display of the various partnerships.

Table 5.11: Co-publishing partners

Press number	Partnerships	Date of partnership
1	Nil	-
2	James Currey, Wits university	1990; 1997
3	Local & foreign; SA History Online	1980; 2001
4	Zed Books; Ohio UP; Virginia UP	(no dates given)
5	Unesco/James Currey; Int Academic Publishers	1995; 2002.
6	Nil	-

According to James Currey (1999), co-publishing is one of the most cost-effective ways of substantially increasing a book's circulation in Africa. He recommends that school titles should be developed for the curricula and teaching needs of individual countries, while university books can be developed and used

⁵James Currey Publishers specializes in the publication of scholarly paperbacks on Africa. They have completed an eight-volume paperback abridged Unesco *General History of Africa*.

throughout the continent and across the academic world. Press 3 reported having various partnerships, since 1980, with both foreign and local publishers. It's most recent partnership, which began in 2001, is with South African History Online. There are co-publishing arrangements between Press 5 and the International Academic Publishers of the US. This press is one of the two that has co-publishing arrangements with James Currey.

5.2.3.6 Publishing prize(s)

An indication of excellence in publishing programmes is given when a press is awarded a prize. In Africa the coveted prizes are Noma, instituted some 23 years ago and the Caine, which was launched in 1999. The 23rd Noma Award (for 2002) has been won by a reference work on the history of the Arabic novel. Published by The American University Press in Cairo, this is the first time that a university press has received the award. The Commonwealth Writers Prize and The Booker Prize for Fiction are open to other citizens of the Commonwealth, including Africa.

The directors were asked to list the prizes that they have won as a result of the quality of their works. Press 1 has won Best Publisher 1988 (Ghana Book Award); and Excellence in Scholarly Publishing (Ghana International Book Fair), Nov 1998. Press 2 has won Best Non Fiction Academic, 1998, 1999, and 2001; and second prize (non fiction academic), 2000. Among the prizes list of press 3 were Academy Prize for Original Research for author, J. Visagie, for his book *Voortrekkeerstamouers*, 2001; short listed for the *Sunday Times* Allan Paton Literary Award for Non-Fiction: '*From boys to gentlemen*' by Robert Morrel, 2002. Press 6 recently won the Award of Recognition, 2002 in the Africa Best Books of the 20th Century competition (see Appendix 5B). Two presses [4,5] responded that they have not won any publishing prizes.

5.2.4 Marketing

5.2.4.1 Publishing categories and revenue generation

Caraway (1995) established that with the exception of one press, parent universities in Texas (US) fall short of the recommended financial support necessary for their affiliated presses to operate within their prescribed mission statement of publishing predominantly scholarly works. They had to depend on revenues derived from trade sales to offset production costs, as well as for much of their personnel and operating expenses. As AUPs strive to cope with inadequate subsidies, they similarly have to supplement their incomes from other sources, including publishing non-scholarly works.

Table 5.12 gives a summary of the three most important publishing categories which generate additional revenue for the presses. Besides undergraduate texts and research monographs as the most important categories, general, professional, and trade publications bring additional income to the presses. Presses 2 and 4 derive between 45-54% of their income from professional books and 35-44%

Table 5.12: Most important publishing categories in terms of revenue

Presses	Most important category	2nd most important	3rd most important
1	Undergraduate textbooks (35-44%)	General (35-44%)	Research monographs (< 25%)
2	Undergraduate textbooks (55-64%)	Professional books (45-54%)	Trade books (35-44)
3	Research monographs (45-54%)	Undergraduate textbooks (45-54%)	'mixed bag' (< 25%)
4	Undergraduate textbooks (55-64%)	Professional books (45-54%)	Trade books (35-44)
5	Research monographs*	Research journals*	'Other'*
6	Undergraduate textbooks (65% and over)	-	-

Legend: percentage income from each category is given in brackets; *- did not provide figures; 'mixed bag' is made of photography, poetry, and coffee-table books.

from trade books, which are quite significant in terms of the income generated to support their programmes. The 'general' publications list of Press 1 constitutes 35-44% of their income. Publishing the right mix of scholarly books versus trade

and general publications will continue to be a challenge to the presses as they strive to meet their obligation of providing publishing outlets for African research.

5.2.4.2 Royalties, marketing, distribution, and sales

Royalties and advances to authors are sensitive areas as far as author-publisher relations go. While authors are required to bear greater financial responsibility for the production of their books, their reward appears in the form of royalties on greater percentage of their books, even though in most cases royalties are not paid on first copies sold. Not unexpectedly, all the presses reported that they pay author royalties. An indication of the attention paid by the publishers to the authors is given in the contract document 'Memorandum of Agreement'. This document is couched in legal language and has detailed sections on author responsibilities and expectations.

Only one press [1] pays royalty rates in the range of 6-10%, two [2,4] pay within 11-15%; and three others [3,5,6] pay 16% and above. The last two ranges are rather high compared to the standard royalty rates offered by both academic and commercial presses in Europe and UK. These start at 10% on first 5,000 copies,

Table 5.13: Royalty rates

Royalty rates	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
0-5%						
6-10%	✓					
11-15%		✓		✓		
Over 16%			✓		✓	✓

12.5% on next 5,000, and 15% thereafter, for hardcover editions; and 5 or 6 % for each paperback. According to the director of press 3, the high royalty is attractive to authors and effectively draws more potential authors to the press. Three presses [3,4,5] pay royalty rates on net price only, one [2] pays on list price only, while one [1] pays royalties on both net sales and list price. Press 6 did not answer this question. In general, variations are not unexpected especially in the case of multiple submission of a manuscript to more than one publisher. In

some cases, the reputation of the author and the level of sales expected from the book may combine to push up the royalty rate. None of the presses offers royalties on a sliding scale.

In their responses to the marketing plans that they tend to use most, the majority of them (4 out of 6) [2,3,4,5] gave direct sales as the most popular means of selling their works, followed by review copies by presses 2, 3 and 4. The third place on their marketing plans is shared by scholarly journal adverts, and conferences and conventions. *Table 5.14* gives the rank order by each of the presses.

Table 5.14: Rank order of marketing plans from 1 (most popular) to 7 (least popular);

Rank	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
1	OT *	DS	DS	DS	DS	OS
2	NA	RC	RC	RC	JA	CC
3	JA	JA	CC	CC	-	-
4	OS	OS	JA	NA	-	-
5	RC	CC	OS	-	-	-
6	CC	NA	NA	-	-	-
7	DS	-	-	-	-	-

Legend: NA-Newspaper & magazine adverts; JA- Scholarly journals advert; DS- Direct sale; OS- Overseas sales; RC- Review copies; CC- Conferences & conventions CC; OT*- Other (inspection copies)

Distribution has always remained a challenge to publishers, more especially university publishers in Africa because of inadequate outlets, most of which are located in the urban centres where a small majority of the population lives. In order to find out which distribution channels are used and to what extent, the presses were asked to select and rank their major sales outlet. All six presses gave the bookseller as their major distribution channel followed by personal selling. The bookseller accounts for between 70-90% of all sales made by the presses and is thus the single most important distribution channel. The details are summarized in *Table 5.15*.

Table 5.15: Press distribution channels

Distribution channels	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
Bookseller	✓ (70%)	✓ (75%)	✓ (90%)	✓ (80%)	✓	✓
Personal selling (sales rep)	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-
Independent remuneration	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wholesale/distributor	-	✓	-	✓	-	-
Other	ABC (25%)	ABC (25%)	-	-	-	-

Legend: Proportion sales given in brackets

5.2.4.3 Membership and benefits of ABC

Established in 1989, the African Books Collective (ABC) is a donor-supported initiative of African publishers aimed at marketing and distributing books of member publishers in Europe and North America. Two of the presses [1,2] are members of ABC and both estimated the volume of sales through this outlet to be 25% of their annual sales. Stating the benefits of joining ABC, they reported foreign bulk remittance, wider circulation, and help in the distribution of books in the North. Press 3 is not a member but is still considering whether to join. Asked whether she sees membership as desirable, the director responded in the affirmative but would expect joint benefits, including international exposure or visibility for wider audience, skills exchange, and outsourcing skills of staff.

Press 4 did not answer this question, neither did it indicate whether or not it saw membership as desirable. Press 5 is not a member of ABC but said it has benefited from book donations in the area of publishing. This press could not tell whether or not membership would be desirable, but may need convincing before taking membership. Press 6 did not answer the questions on membership of ABC.

A proposal some ten years ago by Zell (1992) to have ABC represented in North America has been initiated by an agreement signed between ABC and the

Michigan State University Press at the Arusha IV Seminar held in Zanzibar in July 2002. Starting from January 2003, ABC books will be exclusively marketed and distributed in North America by MSUP. This agreement is seen as very important as it opens up new opportunities for African books in that market.

As part of the distribution link, most publishers establish their own sales outlets. This is a common feature of most university presses in Europe and America, the models that were borrowed for African university publishing. Out of the six presses, four [1,3,4,5] own bookstores with sales ranging from as low as 5% to as high as 80%. In between these extremes are two presses with own bookstore sales of between 20-30%. Ownership of this distribution channel is quite significant for presses 3, 4 and 5. Campus bookstores account for between 25 and 60% of sales for the presses in the survey. One press [4] has its own outlet serve as the campus bookstore, giving it up to 80% of its total sales. *Table 5.16* gives the sales figures.

Table 5.16: Sales through campus and own bookstores

	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
Own a bookstore	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Press bookstore sales (%)	5%	Na	20-30%	80%	30%	Na
Campus bookstore sales (%)	40%	50%	25%	(same as press bookstore)	60%	(major outlet)

Legend: Na-not applicable

5.2.4.4 Press web site and main purpose of the site

The question on press web site and its main purpose provided an indication of the adoption of technology in their marketing efforts. Four of them [2,3,4,6] have created web sites and maintain online catalogues of their publications. The main purpose of the web sites, according to them are to reach potential book buyers and potential authors, provide a service to customers, and to market the press and its publications. A home page on the Internet can introduce a company's

profile and range of products to customers across the continent where it is difficult to traverse, it however has to be captivating, and its message must be very clear. One of the four presses said it needed to regularly revamp its web site to make it more attractive. The remaining two presses [1,5] do not have Internet presence.

5.2.4.5 Target markets

The directors' responses to their target markets are tabulated in *Table 5.17*. Students, scholars, and libraries are the main target markets of the presses. This is not unexpected since the main publishing categories are undergraduate textbooks, research journals, and monographs as indicated in *Table 5.6* on page 163. The presses were asked to indicate whether they sell directly to their university libraries and also give the volume of trade over the fifteen-year period 1986-2000.

Table 5.17: Target market in rank order from 1 (highest) to 7 (lowest)

Rank	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
1	Students	Public	Libraries	Students	Libraries	Students
2	Scholars	Scholars	Students	Scholars	Scholars	Scholars
3	Public	Students	Scholars	Public	Foreign	Libraries
4	Foreign	Libraries	-	Libraries	Students	Public
5	Libraries	Foreign	-	Business	Public	Foreign
6	-	Business	-	Foreign	Business	Business
7	-	-	-	-	-	-

With the exception of press 2, which gave undergraduate textbooks as its most important category in terms of revenue but ranked the general public as its topmost market, data on the most important publishing category (from *table 5:10*) correlate with that from *Table 5:17*. Presses 1, 4, and 5 have students as their topmost target market, which agrees with their most important publishing category of undergraduate textbooks. Similarly, presses 3 and 6, which ranked libraries as their topmost target market reported research monographs as their most important publishing category as far as revenue is concerned.

The second and third most important publishing categories from *Table 5:10* do not agree with the target markets presented in *Table 5:17*. For example, five presses [1,2,4,5,6] ranked scholars as their second most important target market but they gave their second most important publishing categories as general, professional books, and research journals (press 6 did not state its second publishing category). They were all expected to have ranked second the research monograph and/or scholarly journal. It may well be that their target markets did not bring in the expected revenues. This calls for a critical look at their market strategies and strenuous efforts at market research to help target the appropriate segments of the market.

It was noted that three presses [2,3,6] make direct sales to their libraries, selling less than 1000 copies. The other three [1,4,5] do not have any such arrangement. Apart from book sales to the library, three of the presses [1,2,4] do not have any other areas of cooperation with the academic librarian. However one [3] reported on electronic publishing and archiving of materials as cooperative activities with the library. Two directors [5,6] responded that the academic librarian sits on the senate publications committee or the editorial board. In fact, press 6 is located in the library building.

On the convergence of services between academic libraries, computing services and university presses, the trend is one of overlap of the various roles made possible by information technology. In some institutions, the administration of the library and the computer centre has been combined, leaving the university press on the margin. Developments in electronic publishing, in particular electronic theses and dissertation projects, and on demand publishing require much closer and greater cooperation among the three in order to provide seamless services to the campus community. This is a grey area that needs to be investigated.

5.2.5 Views by press directors on some aspects of their work

In order to allow the directors to express their views on aspects of their work, a set of open-ended questions were asked under 'general'. These questions sought to identify their campus allies, most pressing problems and remedial measures taken to reduce their effects, what they think about author-publisher relations, and the extension of their lists to include educational and trade publishing. Their views were also sought on benefits to their parent institutions as a result of their existence, developments in national and international publishing that pose threats to their programmes, co-publishing and photocopying, a unique model of an African university press, and the future of African university publishing.

5.2.5.1 Campus allies of the Press

Often times the work of the press suffers as a result of lack of support from the campus community. A question was asked to find out who among the campus community appreciates the role of the press and understands their problems. One press director [4] had wondered why academics in particular pay lip service to their presses while success in academic life depends so much on publishing. The adage 'publish or perish' is so popular and puts emphasis on publishing, not researching. For any press director, creating campus alliances is essential for the simple purpose of lobbying the campus community to support the work of the press, especially with funding, basic publishing infrastructure, and patronage. Jones (1998) called this 'rapport' with the university.

As one director [4] in the survey put it bluntly, 'academics generally do not understand publishing'. Not unexpectedly this director did not mention or seem to have any form of alliance with the campus community. In complete contrast, one director [6] said most academics appreciate their effort. Five of the presses [1,2,3,5,6] identified various forms of cooperation between the press and the campus community. Alliances exist with the library, computer center, the office of the deputy vice chancellor (administration), faculty who are authors, and publications committee. The kinds of alliances involved cooperation in

manuscript assessment and research, prescribing and buying books and journals for library exchange programme, maintaining library web site, and obtaining continued funding. Press 5 identified the superior officer as the campus ally and stated that the alliance with this office is supervisory, while press 6 said the alliances are mostly for their (faculty) academic advancement.

5.2.5.2 Challenges and remedial strategies/measures adopted

Press directors were asked to rank order the challenges facing each of them from a list of marketing, funding, distribution, staffing, and 'other'. Two [2,5] out of the six houses ranked funding as the number one challenge while two [3,6] ranked distribution as their major challenge. Press 4 identified marketing as its major problem, and for press 1 both marketing and funding were its most pressing problem. Asked what remedial strategies they are adopting to cope with inadequate funding, they replied that they raise revenue from other sources, 'e.g. income generating activities such as originating films for commercial businesses'; publishing anything that has high market demand, such as textbooks, bestsellers and other school materials, besides consultancies and seminars in publishing; diversification of publications and format of publishing. As a remedial measure for funding, press 4 has forged an alliance with a commercial publisher who takes care of its funding needs. Press 3 stated that it does not have any problem with funding.

Table 5.18: Challenges in rank order from 1 (most serious) to 5 (least serious)

Rank	Press 1	Press 2	Press 3	Press 4	Press 5	Press 6
1	MA/FU	FU	DI	MA	FU	DI
2	DI/ST	MA	MA	DI	MA	ST
3	-	DI	-	FU	DI	FU
4	-	ST	--	ST	OT	MA
5	-		-		ST	
Other	Press 1: office and staff accommodation, inadequate support from government, slow response of assessors Press 2: lack of warehouse space Press 3: pending managerial changes Press 5: equipment, campus bureaucracy, apathy, etc					

Legend: MA- Marketing; FU- Funding; DI- Distribution; ST- Staffing; OT- Other

Press 1 lumped distribution, staffing and 'other' together as the second most pressing problem. For this press, lack of support from government, slow response from assessors, and office and staff accommodation are the other problems. Press 2 ranked marketing, distribution, and staffing respectively as the second, third and fourth, adding 'lack of warehousing space' as its other problem. For press 3, marketing is the second most pressing problem. Funding is not a problem for this press which said it has a good reserve of funds and makes cost-effective use of them. This press has to generate its own income, uses its own resources to publish, and does not receive funds from the University, beginning from 1989. Staffing too does not seem to be a problem for this press.

Like press 1, the fourth press ranked marketing as the most serious problem. Distribution is the second most important followed by funding and staffing in that order. Press 5 ranked marketing as the second, distribution as the third, 'other' as the fourth, and staffing as the fifth. This press identified equipment, campus bureaucracy, and apathy were lumped together as the fourth most important challenge. Press 6 ranked staffing as its second most pressing challenge followed by funding, and marketing in that order. Even though funding comes third, this press stated that '...our survival entails publishing non-academic material' and stated strategic planning as its 'other' problem. The responses are summarized in *Table 5.18*.

On measures adopted to cope with the problem of marketing, press 1 reported an increase in publicity through handbills and participation in local and international book fairs, while press 2 initiated personal visits to intended markets. Press 3 stated that the marketer gets assistance from more experienced editorial and management staff to accurately identify markets and focus efforts on specific products. Press 4 stated that it uses publishers in its marketing drives. Press 5 is exploring the possibility of creating a website to supplement catalogues and direct sales, and press 6 has hired a marketing

person to set up a marketing, sales and warehousing section. The problems of marketing appear to be low sales and poor promotion.

For remedial measures on distribution, press 1 has acquired a new vehicle and press 2 has entered into a sale/return agreement with one of the largest distributors in its country. Press 3 is redesigning its electronic business system (with country-wide information, etc) to assist staff in identifying distribution problems. As a measure to improve distribution, Press 4 has had to involve more bookshops in its operations. Apparently overwhelmed by the challenges posed by distribution, press 6 simply responded 'lacking capacity to distribute'. This is one case where cooperation among AUPs becomes absolutely essential. This press listed strategic planning as 'other' measures adopted to cope with these challenges. The measures adopted to rectify the staffing situation include recruiting and upgrading skill of staff, and sourcing out work, e.g. copy/technical editing. One press reported having no real problems with staffing, but was expecting managerial changes that may cause a directional change in the press's operations.

Press 5 has entered into agreements with various booksellers across the country and distributes to them. The press is looking at the possibility of reducing the number of journals and/or the number of annual issues it publishes. When the press launched all six titles in 1996, the view of some critics was that journal management is a highly specialist task which cannot be effectively started with that many titles, rather they should be introduced to satisfy demand, or preceded by a market survey. The seriousness of this problem was stressed by the press, which identified competition with other well established journals as a source of worry, adding that mistrust by overseas readers has resulted in low subscription. In his article on revitalization of publishing by the press, Kasankha (1997) acknowledged that it is extremely difficult to win the confidence of readers since most of Africa's best writers prefer to send their work to overseas journals. Staffing is not a problem for this press.

These remedial measures compare favourably with what Jones (1998) reported on US press houses, as she indicated that the motivation for all these strategies was for 'survival; trying to find ways to increase income and decrease expenses'. What was not explicit in the case of the African university presses covered by the study was the change in editorial policy. In the study by Jones, changes in US presses editorial policy included dropping low performance editorial areas and keeping only the good editorials areas, staying scholarly but moving into regional titles, and expanding into more profitable areas. This change in editorial focus is reported by one of the presses [1] surveyed whose list includes school textbooks. Giving reasons for this decision the director said the press 'is in the process of being fully commercialized' and this non-scholarly category accounts for 25-39% of its total publishing programme.

Two presses [2,4] reported that they rely on outsourcing, which is more economical than hiring staff but the negative side effect is that the presses may not be able to build on the in-house expertise of its staff. The concomitant effect is the loss of core competencies that may be useful in future competitive environments. Again Jones reported that almost one-half of the 29 university presses that depended on university support were feeling pressurized to become self-sufficient.

One major observation is that there appears to be little or no competition or cooperation among the presses studied. Competition may arise when two or more publishers chase one manuscript or pay a larger advance to capture a well known writer. It could be termed a waste of resources since in the end only one publisher can possibly get the manuscript. On the positive side, competition may force a press to publish good books that would sell enough copies to support itself in the climate of low subsidies. The national nature of the presses studied together with their small markets could explain the lack of cooperation and competition. However, as most of them are being forced to be self-sufficient there

is need for them to rethink and take appropriate steps for survival, which may lie in cooperation with other presses.

On problems of publishing scholarly works, Chester Kerr said 'it is the most foolhardy branch of book publishing: we publish the smallest editions at the greatest cost and on these we place the highest price and then we try to market them to the people who can least afford them. This is madness' (Caraway, 1995:8). This madness coupled with reduced private funding and cuts in library budgets is what has led university publishers to expand their publishing lists into more 'profitable' areas while still trying to maintain their emphasis on scholarly works.

5.2.5.3 Indirect challenges

The set of questions on benefits to the university, threats to the publishing programmes of the press, co-publishing arrangements, photocopying and copyright, an African model of a university press, the promotion of African scholarship, and author-publisher relationship were put together as 'indirect challenges' which face the presses. Responses were solicited to gauge the views of the press directors on these issues.

5.2.5.3.1 Benefits the university derives from the press

Each press was asked to state what benefits the university derives from its existence. In unison they all responded that their universities gain visibility through their publishing programmes. Furthermore, two [2,6] reported that they provide publishing avenues for staff of the universities, avenues which are not possible with commercial publishers. Other benefits identified were prestige, the promotion and dissemination of quality research, the compilation of readers and licensed books, publishing affordable books for students, as well as marketing the university (same as visibility). In addition one press [5] pointed out that it has revived the level of academic publishing and reduced over-reliance on foreign publishers.

5.2.5.3.2 Threats from the national publishing infrastructure

This question intended to get responses on the PEST (political, economic, social and technological) environment within which each press operates, and the effects, if any, on the presses. There is ample evidence that a strong correlation exists between the economic fortunes of a country and the publishing industry. 'African university presses have not fared so well because the universities themselves were badly hit by the economic down-turns that started in the 1970s and have continued till today' (Anon, 2002). Two presses [1,6] could not identify any such threat but the rest mentioned the high cost of inputs, lack of foreign exchange to acquire essential inputs, cost factors in the printing environment, and postal costs.

Respectively, presses 1 and 6 are located in Ghana and Zambia, two countries that cannot be said to be cushioned from the economic hardships experienced by the rest of the countries covered in the study. It is hard to explain their response but perhaps they could not think of the possible answers. During discussions, the director of press 2 (one of the presses I visited) blamed the prohibitive costs of raw materials on the economic climate. He quipped that the parallel markets of foreign exchange made things extremely difficult because all purchases are done using the 'black market' rate, which is about 100 times the official bank rate of exchange. As a consequence, publishing books at affordable prices is a real challenge and a dilemma because to remain in business, you need to buy things at unofficial market rate, yet sell it at the official market rate.

Self-publishing was identified as one of the threats to the local publishing industry. My suspicion is that press 4 believes it is losing potential authors because they would like to 'do it themselves'. Norton (1999) argued that most authors will start to find a publisher for their manuscript but this is not always possible, and may not even be the best option. Citing instances of poor marketing and distribution by publishers, the imposition of unacceptable conditions by the publisher, and non interest in a particular manuscript by

publishers, he suggested self-publishing and vanity publishing as the only two options left for the writer. It may be argued further that the mistrust of African publishers by their writers gives cause for the latter to want to go it alone.

Self-publishing is manifested in educational publishing in such countries as Ghana and Nigeria, where teachers are known to publish revision notes and other 'cram books' aimed at secondary school students. These authors adopt very aggressive promotion methods to sell their books and this appears to be a weak point of the African university press. Self-publishing however permeates all genres of publishing, including scholarly publishing. The introduction of low-cost computers equipped with software applications that produce acceptable typesetting quality has changed contract negotiations between authors and their publishers. Authors are able to demand a return on their investment through contract negotiations with publishers, or enter the publishing field and engage in self-publishing.

Other major threats to the programmes of the AUPs, according to press 5, are the poor reading culture of the population, low literacy levels and absence of book development policies. These issues defy solution if tackled independently without a holistic view of their impact on the publishing industry of each country on the entire continent. Somehow they are seriously interlinked and like the chicken and egg situation, one cannot be tackled without the other two. The solution lies beyond the means of the publisher. Rather, African governments must take bold initiatives to reduce illiteracy, develop and encourage reading, and formulate policies that will support and nurture viable publishing industries across the continent. Publishers have a vital role to play through creating the awareness, advocating, lobbying and advising their governments for this to happen.

5.2.5.3.3 Threats from the international publishing scene

The presses surveyed reported that their programmes are under threat because of electronic publishing and e-commerce, high cost of scholarly publications, and the proliferation of imported books. One press called this the North's monopoly of the market. There is also the tendency by local scholars to trust foreign publishers more than their African counterparts. On this last issue, the question of credibility of local publishers needs to be highlighted. Much as African authors are encouraged to publish their works locally, there is the mistrust that the works may not be as visible if not published in the North. The onus is on African publishers to disprove this and win the confidence of the African writer.

Electronic publishing may be considered the most serious threat to the presses. In fact three of the presses [1,4,5] gave electronic publishing as a threat to their programmes. Electronic publishing provides the most current technologies for origination and print production. Desktop publishing has revolutionized the book production process by making editing, formatting, provision of diagrams and illustrations possible with the computer. Presenting the benefits of Internet access, Zell (2001), listed visibility, niche marketing, partners for co-publishing, self training in various publishing skills, and a general resource of information on dictionaries, thesauri, style guides and many other tools for the professional editor.

Online publishing and e-commerce for publishers are not sufficiently mature even in countries of the North. Looking at the advantages of the e-book, the prospect of selling a million copies within a very short time looks great but even here the sales may not be absolutely certain. The harsh realities of Internet publishing and the very nature of the technology tend to make people think that most things should be free on the Internet. It is by all means a new publishing model that seeks to end the inequalities of information access entrenched by traditional publishing models. ComPress, the first digital publisher in South Africa to sell e-

books sees online publishing as a means of opening up publishing to the masses. Like the bold decision of adopting POD technology by Fourth Dimension Publishing company of Nigeria, publishers in Africa must strive to introduce new technologies into their operations.

These advantages come up against copyright and archiving issues which remain unresolved, and in Africa the hugely disadvantaged when it comes to books and reading, much less owning a computer and having access to the Internet. While they might be able to develop attractive and relatively sophisticated web sites to market their publications, few African publishers will be able to make a major investment in electronic publishing. The source of worry by the directors could be due to the two factors of inability to invest in this new model because the development costs are high, and the self-publishing opportunities it offers to any one who might have access to a laptop.

In fact the whole of scholarly communication is changing and publishers are being asked what added value they bring into the process. A large and rapidly growing number of individuals, research groups and university departments are their own publishers, thanks to the World Wide Web. The consolation however is that in moving to an electronic publishing environment, academic authors will still require intermediaries, leaving them free to concentrate on research and scholarship. The survivors are those publishers who recognize that they serve scholarship and have a place there so long as they **add value** to the system of scholarly communication, says Law (1995). At the University Press of New England, three editors have PhDs in the fields in which they acquire and can offer content-related as well as editorial advice (UPNE, 2001). In the unforeseeable future, the editorial, production, sales, marketing, promotion, and distribution functions of the publisher would remain vital to scholarship and research only if the publisher takes appropriate steps to remain relevant to the scholarly community.

A combination of factors, mostly the importation of raw materials for the publishing industry, is responsible for the high cost of scholarly publications. The international environment of publishing is controlled by the industrialized nations who determine the prices of products such as computer-based composition equipment and even the price of paper. Scholarly publishing has limited market yet requires quality paper, high editorial, design and production standards, and origination costs that could be anything but too high for a poorly resourced press.

The proliferation of imported books and the near monopoly of the market by foreign multinational firms are without doubt a serious issue whose solution lies beyond the publishers. African academics and their students depend to a very large extent on imported books and journals. This figure can be as high as 90% in some cases. There are a number of international bodies as well as agencies, foundations and private organizations that have invested money and time with the sole aim of strengthening local publishing and assisting individuals in developing countries to obtain books. Well meaning as these aid programmes might be, all these efforts result primarily in the spread of new forms of intellectual domination while simultaneously stifling the growth of indigenous authorship and of a true local publishing industry.

Governments are known to enact laws to protect nascent industries, including publishing, as was done in Canada and Australia (Zifcak, 1990; Curtain, 1998). These countries benefited from various government aid and protection, including subsidized printing and tariffs against imported books. One clear sign of support African governments can give to the industry is by introducing similar legislation. The mention of the over used term 'enabling environment' sums up the critical role of government in the development of a sustainable publishing industry on the continent. Government policies on tariffs, duties, and restrictions on imports have significant direct impact on the publishing industry.

High tariffs on paper for example may make it virtually impossible to publish books domestically where locally produced paper is in short supply or unavailable. Marketing and distribution have as much to do with publishing as the policies on imports. This is for the simple reason that the publisher will always pass on high production costs, which include the cost of raw materials, to the consumer. This may have serious consequences on selling the product if it is priced beyond the pocket of the reader. A recent (March 2003) workshop⁶ for local printers in Ghana questioned taxes on imported printing equipment whereas imported books do not attract taxes.

One way most publishers can go to support any government effort is to initiate and reproduce titles published abroad under license from the overseas publisher. As a short-time solution, licensing deals could save a country hard currency in importing books, and at the same time stimulate local book publishing. The initial reluctance of industrial country publishers to sell reprint and translation rights to their counterparts in developing countries has waned; even though there are concerns that student texts adopted in large quantities in an overseas country may significantly reduce profits on the original work. Publishers could co-publish, or co-produce titles if there is commitment on the part of all the partners.

5.2.5.3.4 Views on co-publishing

Co-publishing is one of the most cost-effective ways of substantially increasing a book's circulation in Africa. It is about building up the print run and thereby spreading the heavy origination costs of a book among participating presses and over as many copies as possible. Two or more presses may jointly share in the origination costs, (and the future profits) under terms agreed by them. It is the view of all the presses surveyed that co-publishing arrangements are helpful in the life of a press and they are desirable, 'if done at an equal partner level' added one of the directors. James Currey (2002) openly admits that the success of his scholarly

⁶Book printers question tax policy on imported books. www.ghanaweb.com: Ghana news of Tuesday, 11 March 2003 [Accessed 12 March 2003]

company since 1985 has depended upon co-publishing, specializing in the publication of academic paperbacks on Africa. The model he has developed with African partners is widely admired as being an equitable relationship between publishers and authors. Two of the presses in the survey [2,5] reported co-publishing arrangement with this publisher dating from 1990. Together with Mary Jay, Currey has wondered why there has not been more co-publication among African publishers.

Addressing inter-African cooperation as one the major issues of African publishing, Bgoya (1999) admitted that there are a number of obstacles but he suggested solutions. Joint publishing with the many advantages of sharing of print runs, licensing, adaptations, or origination costs was one such solution. He is convinced that this is possible because of developed publishing industries in such countries as South Africa, Nigeria, Kenya, and Zimbabwe, four out of the five countries covered in the study. In the face of increasing student impoverishment, low academic salaries and declining library budgets, Robert Molteno of Zed Books (South Africa) is reported as having suggested a carefully evaluated approach to co-publication and co-production as a means of sustaining African scholarly publishing.

The forty African publishers who attended the 1995 Bellagio co-sponsored seminar on co-publishing held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia agreed in principle that co-publishing is good and of particular benefit if it takes place among African publishers. It was noted then, almost ten years ago, that there was only very limited collaboration among African publishers in different countries. This shortcoming, according to the seminar participants, should be remedied because co-publishing has the potential of solving problems of small markets, lack of infrastructure, and distribution across borders in Africa. But this situation has not changed much, if at all, as this survey shows. Called networking by Jones (1998), co-publishing, joining a consortium, and selling or buying publishing rights, is practiced increasingly by all categories of US university presses.

5.2.5.3.5 Views on photocopying and copyright as a publisher

A significant lesson that can be learnt with India as an example is that a strong publishing industry can be built only on respect for copyright. The first Asian country to institute strict laws against piracy was Japan in 1953, and today it has the strongest publishing industry on the Asian continent. Most African countries are signatories of the Berne Convention of 1886. Copyright law, as most non-specialists understand it, aims to protect the works of authors and ensure that they are able to enjoy financial benefits from the sale of their works. As printing press piracy diminished in the 1980's, the problem of unauthorized copying of copyrighted works has received greater attention. In both developed and developing countries, the reproduction of copyrighted material without permission or payment is commonplace.

In a recent clamp down in the UK by the Copyright Licensing Agency (CLA), Holman (2002) reported that an illegal book copying operation has been raided and prosecuted in one of the most significant UK anti-piracy strikes of recent years. The CLA brought the action against Photocopier Maintenance and Servicing (PMS), after it discovered systematic copying and selling of textbooks. The CLA obtained a High Court injunction against the shop on 14th November 2002, enforcing the order the following day and seizing more than 500 illegal copies of 100 titles. Medical, legal, marketing and business management titles from Blackwell Publishing, Edward Arnold, Elsevier Science, Springer-Verlag and Oxford University Press were among those impounded.

In Ghana, Offei (1997) reported the case of a printer who had printed and sold a government/local publisher co-published textbook, and the unprofessional manner in which the Ministry of Education handled the case without involving the Ghana Book Publishers Association. The printer ended up paying little penalty for the offence, creating a bad precedence, and encouraging other unscrupulous printers to do the same. On reprography and copyright in Nigeria, Oyinloye (2000) stated that 80% of books in tertiary institutions are imported from

overseas, and factors such as the economic downturn of the country, inflation, and currency devaluation have forced the cost of paper and other printing materials up.

Consequently, the cost of a locally produced book is beyond the pockets of the lecturer and the student. The situation has resulted in unauthorized photocopying of thousands of pages of books without payment to the authors. The Nigerian Copyright Council, like most copyright agencies in Africa, does not act as a national collecting agency to collect royalty rights for the reproduction of copyrighted works. Africa needs national collecting agencies also called reproduction rights organizations to be set up as Kopinpor in Norway, or the Copyright Clearance Center in the US.

In their responses, the surveyed presses expressed strong sentiments against photocopying, calling for stiffer controls and payment of fees to authors and publishers. The various responses included: reprography in universities is detrimental to the publisher and should not be encouraged; strengthen copyright laws with stiffer penalties; copyright laws must be enacted to protect the publisher and authors; photocopying must be monitored and fees paid to publisher and authors; adherence to and full information on all copyright laws and conventions; very serious threat to the survival of the publishing industry as a whole; photocopying must be discouraged as much as possible.

5.2.5.3.6 Views on an African model of a university press

Like their American counterparts, AUPs were founded on the European model of a university press. Opinion was divided over the issue of a unique African model of a university press as one group [3,5] thought that AUPs should remain modelled after their European counterparts on the one hand, and on the other hand another [2,4] believed a unique African model should be created. One director [5] replied 'yes' to an African model, 'but on condition that we respond

appropriately to our circumstances', while one [4] proffered a joint partnership with a commercial publisher.

The director of press 3 lamented that Africans do not read, which presumably is detrimental to the publishing industry because of the small market size. Two presses [1,6] did not answer to this question, but comments from presses [3,5] who do not subscribe to a unique African model included: 'No, basic business principles should determine decisions, that is quality publishing with profit-making in mind' and 'European models are okay and AUPs can do equally well based on these'.

The question sought opinion on whether or not the AUPs should break away from this model in order to carve a different or unique identity in terms of policies, procedures and practices, and structure. Views on issues like publishing only scholarly works and undergraduate texts to the exclusion of all other types of publishing, and the structure in the overall university administration were what needed to be expressed. The responses did not elicit the expected details, most probably because it was not understood, however the scholarly/commercial publisher relation between press 4 and a commercial publisher makes economic sense since the latter takes care of funding—one of the most pressing needs of the scholarly publisher. The scholarly publisher brings into the relationship the high and stringent academic standards required of every scholarly press. This press, not unexpectedly, recommended the commercial/scholarly publisher arrangement as a model that can be adopted by the AUPs.

The Model of the AUP and how it would address the identified problems is presented below:

Perhaps publishers could learn from the library world where consortia formation has sought to solve a lot of problems using the economies of scale. Members of AAUP form only a loose association of presses each of which is autonomous and on its own. What is being proposed is a closely-knit association of presses into consortia along the lines of library consortia. Cooperation among libraries started

mainly with inter-library lending, but the formation of consortia from the early 1980s reaching an all time high in the mid 1990s has been necessitated by economic reasons (Nfila & Darko-Ampem, 2002; Evans, 2002)⁷.

In the simplest terms, a library consortium defines activities engaged in jointly by a group of libraries for the purposes of improving services and/or cutting costs. Library literature has traced the gains in the formation of consortia among libraries as the potential for improving access to the joint collection of participating libraries, stretching limited resources, improving staff competencies, and addressing common needs arising from developments in information technology.

Examples of press consortia are found in the idea of the Ghana universities press and the University Press of New England (UPNE) in the USA. As one of the presses covered in the study, Press 1 in Ghana is in fact a consortium established in 1962 to serve the three premier public universities and the country's scientific research institutes. I had expected an arrangement where the premier universities (and the two new public ones) would allocate a fixed percentage of their budgets to the press. Unfortunately the only relationship with the universities is its location on the campus of the University of Ghana.

The UPNE is an award-winning university press supported by a consortium of schools: Brandeis University, Dartmouth College, Middlebury College, the University of New Hampshire, and Tufts University. Founded in 1970, UPNE is a unique publishing consortium at Dartmouth College, the host institution. UPNE has earned a reputation for excellence in scholarly, instructional, reference, literary and artistic, and general-interest books. Many of these are published cooperatively with one of the member institutions and carry a joint imprint.

⁷*Library Management* devoted its entire issue, Volume 23, nos 4/5, 2002 to this topic.

The press also distributes the titles of seven other presses as well as selected titles of other publishers including the Library of Congress (UPNE, 2001).

The adoption of the consortial model would hopefully create the required critical mass of resources in terms of personnel, equipment, and funding required to make the participating presses viable. Distribution bottlenecks would be straightened through joint efforts and the markets for the published works would be widened. A living example of a pan-African publishing initiative is the Children's Science Publishing in Africa (CHISCI) consortium of African publishers from nine countries established to co-publish science books for children. The consortium includes eight presses from Zambia, Uganda, Kenya, Namibia, Tanzania, Botswana, Ghana, Nigeria, and Zimbabwe. The project is based in Nairobi Kenya and plans to develop co-editions with UK-based Belitha Press. It aims at increasing print runs to make prices affordable to African parents.

The African Network of Scientific and Technological Institutions, (ANSTI) is a body within Unesco that promotes collaboration among African institutions engaged in university level training and research in science and technology. The network is engaged in the publication of university level textbooks and has established the ANSTI/UNESCO engineering science series. Examples of the eleven titles belonging to the series are *Fluid mechanics*, *Strength of materials*, *Fundamentals of electrical engineering*, *Engineering mechanics*, *Engineering thermodynamics*. These textbooks are usually multi-authored and are written by African experts. *Fluid mechanics*⁸ '...is a broad-based textbook for undergraduate Chemical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering and Civil Engineering students. Wherever possible, the author has chosen examples relevant to the African technological and environmental scene'.

⁸From the blurb of Fluid mechanics by Olu Ogboja; <http://www.anst..org/publications> [21 July 2003]

The Science for Africa/Kawi project publishes culturally relevant and popular science books focusing on renewable energy. The project is being implemented in conjunction with the African Publishers Network (APNET). The African Writers Series⁹ was founded in 1962 with Chinua Achebe as Editorial Adviser. For the first twenty years, until the Nigerian foreign exchanges closed in April 1982, it sold eighty per cent of copies in Africa. The 'Orange Series', as it was nicknamed, was a delight for people who wanted to learn about Africa through the imaginations of writers. Together with the Unesco *General History of Africa* textbook, these three projects are very bright spots in African coordinated efforts at publishing to satisfy the book needs on the continent. They show one thing, that is, with political will, proper funding and astute coordination the book situation in Africa could improve.

5.2.5.3.7 Promotion of African scholarship by AUPs

African publishers are accused of being unprofessional by African authors and academics, hence they prefer to publish their works with foreign publishers. This question was aimed at eliciting responses on how this cycle of mistrust could be broken to encourage publishing by Africans for Africa. The responses received included: 'assisting scholars to write; through cooperation among the presses; mentoring programmes, where experienced authors and [the press] provide guidance and incentives for the new generation of authors'.

Press 4 suggested getting more subsidy for publishing from government and business. It is the view of one director [5] that AUPs may be able to promote publishing by Africa for Africa through publishing quality works, which they distribute more efficiently. He ends by saying that 'scholars don't just want to be published but read and quoted as well'.

⁹James Currey, Editor 1967-1984, African Writers Series

5.2.5.3.8 Relationship between African scholars and their publishers

A constructive and cooperative relationship between authors (and the agents and representatives acting for them) and their publishers is vital to successful publishing. In order to eliminate the causes of any dissatisfaction, publishers' associations have codes of practice to regulate and address areas which may lead to avoidable conflict. The Code of Practice of the Publishers Association, London (1997), requires the publishing contract to be clear, unambiguous and comprehensive, and must be honoured in both the letter and the spirit (Anon, 1999a).

Responses to the question on the ideal author-publisher relationship stressed cooperation and partnership. Press 1 simply responded 'cooperative' while press 2 said 'African scholars must be partners with their publishers to contribute towards costs where they can'. Press 3 stressed 'mutual respect for professionalism', adding that publishers should identify and nurture potential authors. Press 4 stated 'mutually symbiotic', and expect African scholars to publish with African presses. There was no comment from presses 5 and 6.

The Arusha III African Writers-Publishers Seminar of 1998 marked a start in the improvement of relations between African authors and publishers. A pre-seminar questionnaire to writer-participants confirmed 'dissatisfaction with the performance of the publisher, particularly in terms of promoting and marketing titles' (Anon, 1999b). All those who had published with overseas publishers found them more efficient and more punctual in honouring royalty payments than African competitors. Arusha III was aimed at drawing up a charter to guide relations between the two professions, similar to the code of practice on publishers' dealings with authors issued by the Publishers Association, London.

5.2.5.3.9 *Should AUPs publish educational and trade books*

To the extent that most of the African publishing market is dominated by school textbook production, which is the most profitable of all publishing types, it is reasonable for the scholarly press to want to get into it. With profits made from textbook publishing, publishers can invest in the production of other works, of fiction, higher education, and general trade books. Opinion on this issue was divided but swayed in the direction of getting the needed profits to support non-profitable but essential publishing by the university press. Press 1 cited such involvement by the OUP and the CUP, stating: 'yes, to generate sales revenue to support scholarly and academic book publishing. Both Oxford and Cambridge are examples'.

This view is shared by three other directors [3,5,6] who said 'yes, within their capacity and depending on available resources', and 'obviously because of market limitations for scholarly publishing', and to be able to sustain the publishing agenda. On the other hand, one press director [4] responded: 'No, you have enough school publishing houses'. This is also the view of press 2 who said 'that niche is oversubscribed to; there is a lot of publishing work for AUPs without encroaching on educational books'.

5.2.5.4. Views on the future of African university publishing

The presses were asked to give their views on the future of African university publishing concerning funding, education and training, electronic publishing, marketing and distribution, and cooperation. They were to bear in mind the peculiar circumstances of Africa marked by high illiteracy, small market size for scholarly publishing, trade barriers, etc. All six responded to the individual questions as best as they could. The responses are presented press by press.

Press no. 1:

This director admitted that funding support from external sources may not be forth-coming. Therefore university presses need to be self-reliant and be more

business-like. Their view on education and training is that few colleges and universities offer publishing programmes in the world. They counsel university presses to continue providing professional training through sandwich courses. Electronic publishing is becoming increasingly important and it would be advisable for AUPs to go into it. The need for cooperation and exchange among AUPs was found logical and ought to be supported and actively pursued at regional and continental levels. This press made it clear that it is undergoing restructuring to become a fully commercial enterprise.

Press no. 2:

In so far as financing is a crucial component to any modern enterprise, scholarly publishing is not different from other categories of publishing. Moreover, scholarly publishing is very demanding from editorial and production angles, requiring highly skilled and experienced subject editors, copy editors, designers and production personnel. Therefore more funding is required and should be provided by the parent universities. This press suggests that to increase funding for publishing, university presses must be cost-centres that must be privatised or commercialised. For the education and training of publishing professionals, this press sees the pivotal role played by the African Publishing Network (APNET) and National Publishing Associations (NPAs) and calls for their active involvement.

The impact of new and improved technologies on publishing has been terrific, especially in origination of text and pictures—the stage at which a manuscript is turned into printable form—and these technologies must be exploited fully. Because the scholars' market in Africa is rather limited, there can be only small print runs of most scholarly publications, in order to reduce cost and wastage. The director of this press advocates the introduction of the digital printing option, i.e. print on demand, into the programmes of AUPs because it allows small editions, manageable outlays of financial capital, high quality printing, and low

inventory and distribution costs, which are most suitable to the African environment.

Digital printing and print-on-demand technology are a reflection of the directions publishing may be heading in the digital information era. This technology provides the ability to determine the right print run for books, often the base of every publishing project. The question has often been asked as to why publishers in developing countries are reluctant to adopt this technology which appears custom-made for them? There are outstanding issues such as the current developmental stages of the technology, the reshaping of the publishing value chain, especially discounts to book retailers, and advances in digital storage and retrieval of information.

This last issue has defied known copyright restrictions even with the development and introduction of electronic copyright management systems. There seems to be a 'wait and see' attitude on the part of African publishers. This press suggests the use of online resources, for example, the creation of web sites to market products of the presses. The opinion of the press is that cooperation should be encouraged through co-publishing arrangements.

Press no. 3:

Funding remains an issue on the agenda of all university publishers. This press argues that 'we can canvass for sponsorship and grants for deserving works, and cross-subsidisation will enable the publishing of academic works for limited target audience 'with funds from bestseller/trade books'. What this press is saying in essence is that scholarly publishing must thrive on donor funding and be subsidised by profits generated from other genres of publishing. The evidence was given of two works on Architecture that were priced differently because one was published using a grant while the press had to bear the total origination costs of the other.

This trend will persist for as long as publishing for academics remain unprofitable but essential to the cultural and political development of Africa. In fact this is not peculiar to Africa, as Jones (1998) and Caraway (1995) reported similar moves by US presses to trade publishing as a result of changes in the publishing environment. Africa is however different as far as inadequate basic publishing infrastructure goes to support a viable industry. This press sees more in-house mentoring programmes and a culture of life-long learning as part of the solution to the education and training of publishing professionals. On the future of university publishing in Africa and electronic publishing, it is the view of this press that some print-based journals will run parallel to online versions but printed form will never disappear.

This corroborates the stand of Nwanko (2002) on the prospects of electronic publishing that the book as we know it will stay with us in Africa for some time to come. Indeed the printed book is not under threat; even downloaded books have to be printed. Concerning marketing and distribution, this house pushes for wider international exposure of African university publishing, but emphasizes more focus in terms of special interest groups. The press did not give its views on continental, sub-regional or national cooperation among university presses. As further comments on its operations, the press indicated that its electronic journals programme is currently being expanded.

Press no 4:

The views of this press on the future funding of AUPs extended the views of the other presses. There is the need for more funding as publishing academic monographs cannot sustain the programmes of university presses. The press identified a lack of publishing experience among personnel in the African publishing industry. It is their opinion that electronic publishing needs to be developed. However, this press listed electronic publishing as a major threat to its programmes. This may sound contradictory, but the logic appears to be sound

in the sense that as a publishing alternative, electronic publishing will cease to be a threat when it is well developed and widely adopted in Africa.

Distribution remains the weakest, most neglected and least understood aspect of African book development. This is the result of the interplay of several factors including arbitrary custom tariffs, poor infrastructure, and over concentration of sales outlets in urban centres. The press calls upon AUPs to see the need to enhance this link. This press did not give its views on continental, sub-regional or national co-operation, neither did it give additional comments on any aspect of its work.

Press no 5

African university publishing will for a long time continue to depend on subsidy since the presses can barely survive on their earnings. The future funding of AUPs, according to this press shall depend very much on subsidy. It is the view of this press that changing technologies and trends in publishing make education and training very vital, and must be pursued continuously. In fact education and training is part of APNET's mission of strengthening African publishing, thereby producing quality books relevant to African social, political, economic and cultural reality.

This press sees marketing and distribution as a big struggle that requires aggressiveness, innovation, and patience. It concludes that 'it is a very frustrating exercise that can make or break the AUPs'. In the opinion of this press cooperation among AUPs may have a role to play in the future growth of African university publishing. But it did not elaborate. As pointed out earlier, African publishers agreed in principle at the 1995 Bellagio co-sponsored seminar on co-publishing that co-operation is good and of particular benefit if it takes place among African publishers.

Press No 6

The press director was emphatic that 'No one is willing to continue funding [and] the challenge is for university presses to make money in other areas, e.g. [by publishing] primary/secondary [school textbooks] to sustain academic [in fact scholarly] publishing' He is thus of the view that the university press must diversify into the more lucrative textbook market. This press fortunately has no problem with recruiting qualified staff from the job market in the country but finds it essential to have well trained personnel. On electronic publishing the press admitted that it is one area that the AUP must seriously start investing in. Marketing and distribution are the most challenging areas for this press and the director indicated that 'they are just trying to address it' without giving details of how it is doing it. This press underscored 'continental cooperation' as the future for African university publishing, adding 'networking is important and can also attract the little funding for various activities'.

5.2.6 Comparison of African and American university press policies

For reasons of comparison, the six common principles of publishing policy developed by the Association of American University Presses (AAUP) were adopted for this study. The policies of the AUPs surveyed were contrasted, with some modifications, to the common principles of the AAUP.

1. Universities establish and maintain presses in order to publish works of scholarship generally recognized as essential to the advancement of learning in both the arts and sciences.

The publishing categories stated by the six presses include both scholarly and non-scholarly works made up of research monographs and journals, professional works, and school textbooks. This mix is not unexpected as some of the presses have had to extend their areas outside scholarly works to ensure their survival. All the presses meet the criterion of publishing works of scholarly nature to support the mission of their parent universities (that is, of creating and advancing knowledge). Publishing the right mix of scholarly books versus trade and general

publications will continue to be a challenge to the presses as they strive to meet their obligation of providing publishing outlets for African research and at the same time struggle to be self-sufficient.

2. The university press director should have the responsibility of conducting press affairs in a manner that brings honour and benefit to the university.

All the press directors are managers in their own right who operate the presses like any other academic department of the university. The study shows that each director meets the standard of conducting press business in an able manner. Out of necessity most of them reported that they assist with duties such as editing, designing or marketing with the aim of cutting down on production and staff costs.

3. A clear and sustained line of authority should extend upwards from the director to the responsible academic officer of the university.

None of the press directors were found to report directly to the Vice Chancellor but there is provision through a high university officer to this office. With the exception of press 4, all the directors report to a deputy vice chancellor or the equivalent in status.

4. Presses must seek editorial advice concerning publishing policy, programs, and final approval of books from a committee of scholars drawn from the faculty.

The study shows that each of the presses has an editorial board or committee made up of faculty of the university only or a composition of faculty and outside members. The boards' responsibilities were found to be wide and varied but in all the cases surveyed it is the board that gives the final approval for a work to bear the imprint of the university.

5. Periodic evaluation of procedures and policies, including accounting and budgeting.

This was not covered in the survey questions but as departments of their respective universities, the presses are subject to the same scrutiny as the various departments and units in the university. With recent cut backs in university funding, which have been passed on to the presses, it is the unscrupulous director who may be unmindful of the harsh economic realities. The study identified a wide and varied range of responsibilities among the editorial boards, which include the revision of policies and procedures, in addition to their main task of certifying the academic merit of the works that come to them.

6. A university sponsoring a press should provide financial support and support in the form of services and facilities for its scholarly publishing arm. They should also subsidize the press for production (printing, binding, etc.) and the accompanying expenses (editing, marketing, designing, accounting, etc.).

The study established that the surveyed universities fail to provide full financial support for their presses to operate within their prescribed mission of publishing predominantly scholarly works. Only one of the presses receives full funding for its production and operating costs. The rest have to depend on revenues derived from the publication of other works and income from publishing services to supplement the dwindling subsidy from the university. However, five of the presses surveyed receive subsidies in the form of rent, utilities, and staff salaries.

Summary

Chapter 5 presented the main findings of responses received from the presses that were surveyed, a summary of which forms Section 6.1 of Chapter 6. In the main, the study established that the policies and practices of African University Presses compare very favourably with those of their American counterparts. Practices might vary from one country to another but if the adoption of policies go very far to guide practices, then the comparable policies of American and African university presses would help the latter to shape their publishing programmes.

The presentation followed the flow of work in the press under the subheadings administration, editorial, production, marketing/promotion, and distribution. The directors expressed their views on aspects of their work through a set of open-ended questions under 'general'. Highlights of the findings are: the presses were founded between 1957 and 1993; the main publishing categories are undergraduate textbooks and research monographs; the presses are able to sell between 20-65% of their production; most of the presses do not appear to have a clearly defined subject focus; none of the presses has a formal written policy on manuscript acquisition. The most popular manuscript acquisition methods from the survey are the academic grapevine and the acquisitions editor.

The size and composition of the editorial boards vary from 2-5 for one press, 6-9 for two presses, 10-13 for another, and over 14 for the remaining two. Five presses responded that the final decision to publish any title rests with the board. Four [2,3,4,5] out of the 6 presses gave direct sales as the most popular means of selling their works, followed by review copies which was cited as the second most important by three presses. For the majority (4 out of 6) of the presses, the most important publishing category in terms of income is undergraduate textbooks. Lack of cooperation among the AUPs and non-specialized areas (no list building) were identified as deficiencies in their operations.

Two presses [2,4] were in favour of a unique African model of university publishing, two [3,5] opposed it, and two [1,6] did not respond to the question. Responses to the question on the ideal author-publisher relationship stressed cooperation and partnership, 'assisting scholars to write; through cooperation among the presses; mentoring programmes; AUPs may be able to promote publishing by Africa for Africa through publishing quality works, which they distribute more efficiently.

Two views were expressed on the issue of publishing non-scholarly works, but it was swayed towards getting the needed profits to support non-profitable but essential publishing by the university press. Coping strategies adopted by the AUPs in the face of harsh environmental conditions include the introduction of ICTs in their operations, treatment of authors, editorial policy on publishing non-scholarly materials, staff levels and use of outsourcing, and approaches to sources of funding.

The study concluded that there is a serious absence of competition and cooperation between the presses surveyed and in general among all university presses within sub-Saharan Africa; there is no aggressive fund raising, for example through alumni, book clubs, foundation money, publishing component of research money, and publishing fund for universities; AUPs do not have press publishing areas or press lists, which define the subject areas in which each press concentrates its publishing; the history and development of the publishing industry is inextricably tied to the economic fortunes of a particular country.

The study recommended a continent-wide consortium of university presses based at the AAU, in Accra, or APNET in Harare (now moved to Abidjan) with sub-regional 'nodes' spread throughout the continent; setting up sub-regional university presses; adoption of POD technology; and developing innovative methods for funding.

CHAPTER 6

Summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations

6.1 Summary of findings

This section summarizes the main research findings of the study. The primary research question is: ***Do African university presses have a distinct character from their American and European counterparts?*** The study sought to provide answers to this basic question by answering the following sub-questions:

1. Who are the selected university presses?

For ease of reference, the presses were numbered from 1 to 6 in the order: Ghana Universities Press (Accra), University of Zimbabwe Press (Harare), University of South Africa Press (Pretoria), University of Cape Town Press (Cape Town), University of Zambia Press (Lusaka), and University Press of Nairobi (Nairobi). The selected university presses are from countries that have the most vibrant publishing industries in the sub-region (Zell, 1992; Teferra, 1998; Altbach, 1998a). Furthermore, out of the ten African country-members of the International Publishers Association represented by their national publishers associations, all but one of the five countries covered in the study are listed together with Egypt, Morocco, Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda (IPA, 1998). The University of Maiduguri Press and Ahmadu Bello University Press (Zaria), both in Nigeria, responded to the preliminary questionnaire only.

2. What led to the establishment of the presses?

The study showed that the presses were founded between 1957 and 1993, (see *Table 5.5*). This is evidence that university publishing in Africa is a recent phenomenon that started after African countries had won political independence from colonial rule. Outside South Africa, university publishing in Sub-Sahara Africa actually started in 1955 with the university of Ibadan, Nigeria. Included in the immediate events leading to the establishment of the presses are:

'established as a result of recommendation of a commission of university education; initially to publish academic journals; senate and council decisions to publish research works and scholarly journals; lack of commercial publishers' interest in scholarly publications'. In general AUPs were founded to provide publishing avenues for researchers of the newly independent African states.

3. What do they publish?

Press 2 in its mission statement said it is committed to providing quality publications that contribute to the development of Southern Africa and empower the region's people...'continually strive to maintain our position as the region's leading publisher of academic and scholarly works---books for empowerment'. The mission statement of press 3 read: 'by publishing outstanding research work, scholarly journals and textbooks of high academic merit for South Africa and the international academic fraternity ...students and the Southern African community and to market and distribute these products'. The presses [4,5,6] without written mission or vision statement responded in various terms that they are committed to publishing high quality, relevant and competitively priced publications; revitalizing research; exhibiting high standards of book publishing; boosting morale by ending dependence on foreign books; and maintaining a reputable imprint through quality publications.

4. What kinds of books do they produce?

The presses publish research monographs, undergraduate texts, school textbooks, professional books, trade books, reference works and research journals. The main publishing categories are undergraduate textbooks and research monographs. *Table 5.4* gives the summary of categories published by each press.

5. Are they actually sold, if so in what quantities? And to whom?

Responses to information on the proportion of the annual output that they are able to sell and the trend over the fifteen-year period, 1986-2000 are displayed in

Table 5.10. The presses are able to sell between 20-65% of their production. The least in terms of the proportion sold is just a fifth of its production, however together with the rest it said the trend in sales has increased over the years. The press with a 40% average annual sales said that sale figures, which increased during the period 1986-1990, have decreased over the ten-year period starting from 1991 till 2000. Students, scholars, and libraries are the main target markets of the presses as presented in *Table 5.17*. This is not unexpected since the main publishing categories are undergraduate textbooks, research journals, and monographs as indicated in *Table 5.6* on page 163.

6. Have they done so successfully over the last fifteen years? If not, why?

Deducing from the paragraph (5) above, not all the presses in the study have been successful at selling the books they publish, because selling below 60% of the books published may not recover production costs. Most of the presses do not appear to have a clearly defined subject focus. This may be interpreted to mean their lists are not focused, a factor that could partially explain the difficulty they face in marketing their books. Successful marketing in publishing is built around the principle of having a 'family' of books which can be promoted and sold across the board to a fairly coherent readership. Furthermore, publishing titles that do not have continent-wide appeal (see ANTSI/Unesco series on engineering science, on page 197) means they can only be sold within their country of origin. The lack of cooperation among university presses also could be a factor because without joint distribution strategies it might be difficult to market the books of one publisher in another country and vice versa.

7. What are the policies on manuscript acquisition, editorial, marketing and distribution, and production?

Manuscript acquisition None of the presses has a formal written policy on manuscript acquisition. The director of press 1 stated that the press acquires manuscripts over the transom only but did not give the proportion of that source nor how much of it gets published. The second press acquires manuscripts

through the acquisitions editor, the academic grapevine, referrals from other presses, and over the 'transom'. This press acquires most (70%) of its manuscripts from the academic grapevine and is able to publish 80% of this source. The acquisitions editor brings in manuscripts mainly by approaching writers of subject areas through their departments.

For Press 3, manuscript acquisition is through the academic grapevine (30%), referrals (20%), acquisition editors, and unsolicited as a result of the 'stature of the parent university'. The last two modes constitute 50% of the source of manuscripts. The approximate percentage of what gets published from each source was put respectively at 30:20:50. For this press the acquisitions editor identifies potential authors and follows them up with proposals. The main authors of this house are faculty of the university, scholars from Africa, and scholars from outside Africa. There is a lucrative profit sharing contract that attracts the university's academics to publish with the press.

Press 4 acquires manuscripts through the acquisitions editor who accounts for 80% of the manuscripts, the academic grapevine (10%), and through referrals from other presses (10%). The acquisitions editor brings in manuscripts through commissioning and the press is able to publish 70%, 5%, and 2% respectively of these sources, which makes the acquisitions editor the main source of published works by the press.

Manuscript acquisition by Press 5 is through the academic grapevine (50%) and by soliciting manuscripts from prospective authors (50%). Approximately 70% of the acquisitions from the former source and about 90% of the latter get published. Like Press 1, this press does not have an acquisitions editor. For Press 6, manuscript acquisition is through the academic grapevine and referrals. The press gave neither estimates of the proportions nor the approximate percentage of what gets published from each of the two sources. The most popular manuscript acquisition methods from the survey are the academic

grapevine and the acquisitions editor. Both sources represent the highest in terms of the proportion of manuscripts that get published by the presses.

Editorial According to the survey, the size and composition of the editorial boards vary from 2-5 for one press, 6-9 for two presses, 10-13 for another, and over 14 for the remaining two. Membership is split between faculty only, faculty and non-university members, and faculty and other university staff. In terms of faculty-by-faculty representation, the presses with large board sizes have representation from all faculties. This might account for their large sizes. The presses with small board sizes (between 2-5, and 6-9) do not have representation from all faculties. The number of editorial meetings per annum varies from 3 to 5, with three of the presses meeting quarterly. The director of press 5 reported that there are at least six permanent boards depending on the kind of publication, and ad-hoc boards are formed with different publications having different editorial boards. Each board decides how often it meets depending on the workload.

The functions of the editorial board according to the survey are 'to accept manuscripts and formulate overall management policy; recommend the publication of manuscripts, approve policy decision; make sure that the books published by the press are of a certain acceptable academic standard; formulate editorial policies and approve manuscripts for publication'. All these functions point to the mission of the board as one that chooses manuscripts that ultimately get published, and appropriately bear the imprint of the university. Five presses responded that the final decision to publish any title rests with the board.

Comments on the specific role of the press director on the board included: 'provide direction and advise; ex-officio member; leads the presentation on manuscripts [of reviewers reports, author's responses, etc]; secretary to the senate publications committee'. The presses reported that all manuscripts are

reviewed by a minimum of two academic peers in the appropriate discipline or by outside reviewers selected locally or from abroad.

Marketing and distribution Four [2,3,4,5] out of the 6 presses gave direct sales as the most popular means of selling their works, followed by review copies which was cited as the second most important by three presses. The third place on their marketing plans is shared by scholarly journal adverts, and conferences and conventions. *Table 5.14* gives the rank order of marketing plans by each of the presses. Two presses [1,2] who are members of ABC stated foreign bulk remittance, wider circulation, and distribution in the North as benefits and that ABC accounts for 25% of their sales. All six identified the bookseller as the single most important distribution channel. Four [1,2,3,4] stated that this channel brings in 70-90% of sales (from *Table 5.15*).

Production For the majority (4 out of 6) of the presses, the most important publishing category is undergraduate textbooks. This sounds logical for two reasons—economic and service. The large size of student population compared to academics makes this category economically attractive. Secondly, the need to publish materials adapted with careful explanation of concepts to the students' environment or to suit their inadequate backgrounds is being met. Combining the results obtained from *Tables 5.6 and 5.7* it could be argued that the most important publishing categories of undergraduate textbooks, research monographs and professional books are published in press runs of between 300 and 3000. The low print runs underscore Bgoya's (1999) call for increased cooperation among universities by offering common courses, a point made by Currey (1999) when he said university books can be developed and used throughout the continent of Africa.

8. What deficiencies exist in their operations?

Lack of cooperation among the AUPs and non-specialized areas (no list building) were identified as deficiencies. Two presses [1,6] did not have any form of

cooperation with any press at all. The remaining four [2,3,4,5] have partnerships with other presses but mainly with presses outside the continent, in particular Europe and America. Inter African press cooperation is very low on the agenda of most of the presses surveyed. On list building, one press said it publishes all subjects 'under the sun', including 'a large number of disciplines from African Studies and Architecture, the Classics and Economics, to Personal Finance and Physiology'.

The mission and vision statements of the presses in the survey were silent on this aspect of 'determining a publishing agenda' and as a result their lists cover very broad subject areas including engineering and technology. This may be interpreted to mean their lists are not focused, a factor that could partially explain the difficulty they face in marketing their books. All six presses publish substantially in the Social Science and Humanities, even though one press has an impressive list on Art and Architecture. Unwritten policies and non-existing manuals on press procedures and operations may lead to loss of corporate knowledge should experienced staff leave the press or resign at short notice.

9. How do these shortcomings help in creating a model of an African university press in the 21st century?

Views on an African model were divided between those who favoured AUPs remaining modelled after their European counterparts on the one hand, and on the other hand those for a unique African model. One director [5] replied 'yes' to an African model, 'but on condition that we respond appropriately to our circumstances', while one [4] proffered a joint partnership with a commercial publisher. The scholarly/commercial publisher relation makes economic sense since the latter takes care of funding—one of the most pressing needs of the scholarly publisher. The scholarly publisher brings into the relationship the high and stringent academic standards required of every scholarly press. This press, not unexpectedly, recommended this arrangement as a model that could be adopted by the AUPs. It is an option that needs a serious review.

Comments from those who do not subscribe to a unique African model included: 'European models are okay and AUPs can do equally well based on these'; and 'No, basic business principles should determine decisions, that is quality publishing with profit-making in mind'. Two presses [2,4] were for the idea, two [3,5] opposed it, and two [1,6] did not respond to the question. The shortcomings (as in 8 above) are lack of cooperation and no list building areas. In the context of their views on an African model, cooperation among AUPs must be seen as fundamental to strengthening their programmes and even to their basic existence. At the editorial level and in terms of structure, the individual university press in Africa must adopt policies that link it to the entire network of presses within its immediate geographical area and also abroad.

Subject specialization must be emphasized, based on the publishing heritage or tradition, the evident strengths of the parent university, the sales potential of various fields of inquiry, or the scholarly interests of the editors. The existing internal structures of each press may be retained but the overall arrangement within the university set up requires modification into a charitable trust. As a trust each press will operate with much autonomy as enjoyed by a private company, but have administration vested in the 'Trustees' who will promote the objectives of the press rather than maximize profit. This structure may attract donor funding for the publication of non-profitable works. In adopting an existing model, however, there is need to consider environmental factors such as adequate staffing, equipment, investment capital, etc that are basic to any sustainable publishing industry.

Serious thought should be given to publishing consortia. What is being proposed is a closely-knit association of presses into consortia along the lines of library consortia. Examples of press consortia are found in the idea of the Ghana universities press and the University Press of New England (UPNE) in the USA. As one of the presses covered in the study, Press 1 in Ghana is in fact a consortium as it was established in 1962 to serve the three premier public

universities and the country's scientific research institutes. The UPNE is an award-winning university press supported by a consortium of five schools. Founded in 1970, UPNE is a unique publishing consortium at Dartmouth College, the host institution.

Together with the Unesco *General History of Africa* textbook there are two other pan-African cooperatives whose programmes have continent-wide appeal. These are the Children's Science Publishing in Africa (CHISCI), a consortium of eight presses from nine African countries that co-publishes science books for children, and the ANSTI/UNESCO engineering science series that publishes undergraduate textbooks for African students.

10. What should be the ideal relationship between African scholars and their publishers?

Responses to the question on the ideal author-publisher relationship stressed cooperation and partnership. Press 1 simply replied 'cooperative' while press 2 said 'African scholars must be partners with their publishers to contribute towards costs where they can'. Press 3 stressed 'mutual respect for professionalism', adding that publishers should identify and nurture potential authors. Press 4 stated 'mutually symbiotic', and expect African scholars to publish with African presses. There were no comments from two of the presses. Five [1,2,3,4,6] out of the six presses have standard written contract documents. On author royalties, one press [1] pays royalties in the range 6-10%, two [2,4] pay within 11-15%, whilst three [3,5,6] pay 16% and above. Three presses [3,4,5] pay royalty rates on net price only.

11. How can they promote African scholarship (on a global basis)?

The responses received included 'assisting scholars to write; through cooperation among the presses; mentoring programmes, where experienced authors and (the press) provide guidance and incentives for the new generation of authors'. In addition the presses suggested getting more subsidy for publishing

from government and business. It is the view of press 5 that AUPs may be able to promote publishing by Africa for Africa through publishing quality works, which they distribute more efficiently. He ends by saying that 'scholars don't just want to be published but read and quoted as well'.

12. Can they do this in ways which, say Oxford University Press cannot?

Two views were expressed on this issue but it was swayed towards getting the needed profits to support non-profitable but essential publishing by the university press. Press 1 cited such involvement by the OUP and the CUP, stating: 'yes, to generate sales revenue to support scholarly and academic book publishing. Both Oxford and Cambridge are examples'. This view is shared by three other directors [3,5,6] who said 'yes, within their capacity and depending on available resources', and 'obviously because of market limitations for scholarly publishing', and to be able to sustain the publishing agenda. On the other hand, two directors [2,4] responded: 'No, you have enough school publishing houses' and 'that niche is oversubscribed to; there is a lot of publishing work for AUPs without encroaching on educational books'. With profits made from textbook publishing, which is the most profitable of all publishing types, AUPs can invest in the production of other works, of fiction, higher education, and general trade books.

The AAU at its 10th General Conference in 2001 underscored the central role that must be played by African universities in helping Africa to find effective solutions to the perennial problems of poverty, hunger and disease through their research and teaching. By implication AUPs need to provide adequate publishing outlets for African scholars by making their works visible for wider collaboration and application across the continent and overseas. With Cambridge and Oxford as notable examples of university presses publishing non-scholarly works, AUPs need not operate on the standards of American or European university presses. Out of necessity AUPs have to adapt some practices to suit their interests and environments, while keeping those that enhance their programmes.

In the African context, a university press must take on the special responsibility of publishing not only scholarly works emanating from the specialized research devoted to the continent but also of promoting a literate culture upon which the foundations of the university as a national institute must ultimately rest. The university press in Africa must relate to the university as a significant channel for the discharge of its functions as an institution with the vocation towards scholarship in general and towards service to the wider society. In the words of Irele (1993:74), 'the university press must be seen as one of the clearest manifestations of the educational and cultural role of the university itself in relation to its particular environment.'

Apart from the scholarly book, there is also need for a determined policy on tertiary level textbooks and its logical extension downwards to the secondary and primary levels of education. Again citing the textbook publishing success of Cambridge and Oxford in Anglophone Africa, the current difficulties of direct importation of study materials from traditional Western sources dictate a similar role for the university press in Africa. Furthermore, AUPs have the responsibility for promoting culture, here understood to include the quality of life and the general consciousness of the larger society. Concern over language policy is also one other reason why the university press in Africa must set its own standards and publish vigorously in the local languages to promote the literatures and cultures on the continent, a point argued forcefully by Irele (1993:76).

6.2 Conclusions

1. The coping strategies adopted by the AUPs in the face of harsh environmental conditions include the introduction of ICTs in their operations. The other strategies were changes in the treatment of authors, editorial policy on publishing non-scholarly materials, staff levels and use of outsourcing, and approaches to sources of funding. In fact this is not peculiar to the presses surveyed, as Jones (1998) and Caraway (1995) reported similar moves by US presses including the

adoption of information technology, aggressive funding policies, outsourcing, and trade publishing as a result of changes in publishing environment.

2. There is a serious absence of competition and cooperation between the presses surveyed and in general among all university presses within sub-Saharan Africa. The good thing about competition is that it may force a press to publish good books that would sell enough copies to support itself in the climate of low subsidies. Press 1 did not have any form of cooperation at all and those that exist are few and limited to overseas publishers. The forty African publishers who attended the 1995 Bellagio co-sponsored seminar on co-publishing held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia agreed in principle that co-publishing is good and of particular benefit if it takes place among African publishers.

It was noted then, almost ten years ago, that there was only very limited collaboration among African publishers in different countries. This shortcoming, according to the seminar participants, should be remedied because co-publishing has the potential of solving problems of small markets, lack of infrastructure, and distribution across national borders in Africa. But this situation has not changed much, if at all, as this survey shows. Called networking by Jones (1998), co-publishing, joining a consortium, and selling or buying publishing rights, is practiced increasingly by all categories of US university presses.

3. There is no aggressive fund raising, for example through alumni, book clubs, foundation money, publishing component of research money, and publishing fund for universities. Yet as the survey showed financial constraint is undoubtedly the most crucial factor that impedes the development of African scholarly publishing.

4. AUPs do not have press publishing areas or press lists, which define the subject areas in which each press concentrates its publishing. Apart from its

implications on marketing, a well-defined list provides a reputation in a field, making it the first choice for prospective authors.

5. Some presses are without mission and vision statements and lack documentation of procedure and policy manuals. Unwritten policies and non-existing manuals on press procedures and operations may lead to loss of corporate knowledge should experienced staff leave the press or resign at short notice.

6. AUPs were founded on European and American models and are therefore operated on their standards. They do not differ much in terms of policies and structure from their Northern counterparts.

7. The history and development of the publishing industry is inextricably tied to the economic fortunes of a particular country, as well as to its social, political and educational development.

6.3 Recommendations

1. Proposed model for an African Consortium of University Presses (A-CUP)

A continent-wide body based at the AAU, in Accra, or APNET in Harare (now moved to Abidjan) and having sub-regional 'nodes' spread throughout the continent would form the basic building block of the A-CUP. It should have representations from the West, Central/Eastern, Southern, and Northern sub-regions (beyond sub-Saharan) to benefit from the rich publishing experience of a country like Egypt. The proposed model is structured at the micro and macro levels to take care of the AUP as a unit within a university and as belonging to a network of publishers on the continent. The premise for this model at the **micro level** is four-fold:

- **Specialization**, which should see the presses rely on outsourcing and using freelance editors, illustrators, and designers, use of literary agents, focused press lists, and project management skills. Each press should carefully select and develop its publishing around specific subject areas based on its strength but bearing in mind the publishing lists of other presses in the network. Areas of subject specialization may be selected on the basis of the publishing heritage or tradition, the evident strengths of the parent university, the sales potential of various fields of inquiry, and the scholarly interests of the editors. Since most AUPs publish in the arts and humanities, special efforts should be made to designate specific presses as centers for the publishing of science and technology. This will be contingent on the prowess of the coordinating agency.
- **Cooperation**, in the form of sharing resources and expertise, clearinghouse to register business needs and ideas, and co-publication to reduce local development and production costs and widen the dissemination of books in Africa. These activities should cover adaptations, translations, co-publishing, co-production, co-distribution, reciprocal distribution, rights sales, bulk purchase of raw materials, capital investment, and long-term joint ventures. Co-publishing arrangements could cover the publication of book series using the relatively small academic community of experts in Africa.
- **ICTs** including electronic mail and facsimile could be at the centre of the press infrastructure for the exchange of information and the transfer documents. The introduction of e-publishing and print-on-demand technologies could be hastened.
- In terms of **structure** each press could operate as a Trust enjoying much autonomy as a private company, but registered as a non-profit organization, and possibly get donor funding for publishing non-profitable works.

At the **macro level**, the success of the model should not be isolated from the economies of African countries, the general infrastructure, and educational policies to sustain it. In that respect, appropriate steps should be taken on:

- **Financial assistance** such as the Dag Hammarskjold Foundation book loan guarantee scheme for indigenous Kenyan publishers, and donor funding for specific projects like the buy-back children's book project supported by CODE of Canada in Tanzania need to be increased. The African Development Bank (ADB) as a regional financial institution could be lobbied to devise a scheme to meet the peculiar needs of the AUP by extending credit at rates of as low as 5 or 6 per cent to the publishing industries. Additional funding source could come in the form of state policy such as buying a given number of every work of fiction, an option that requires a network of libraries in each country.
- the link between **educational**, economic and social development of the society may be achieved through a thoughtful and well-balanced **book policy** apparent in efforts to eradicate illiteracy, in the educational policy and in the development of the library system (Hassan, 1987:95). Appropriate policy framework for the book industry comes in the form of government investment in the educational system, and in particular to book publishing and the development and stocking of libraries, (Davies, 1995:26) because the development of Africa lies in the rehabilitation of education.
- **Setting up sub-regional university presses** Walter Bgoya (1999) cited the investigation into the setting up of an SADC university press for Southern Africa and the little chance of books published in one country finding markets in the sub-region, except where there is a common curriculum. Cooperation and regional integration could be hastened through Ecowas, SADC, etc and by relying on continent-wide institutions, such as the AU, AAU, and ADB. This would essentially break trade barriers between African states, and improve on the distribution of cultural products, including books.

2. Adoption of POD technology

The new technique of digital printing could also advance the course of African publishers as it cuts out the costs of overprinting, unsold stock, warehousing, and transportation. With no less than 85% of African publishers falling in the categories of small to medium enterprises (Nwankwo, 2002), this technology,

which allows print runs of 150-200, is custom made for African publishers. This has far reaching implications on the economics of the publications of low demand titles like scholarly works and most African language books. Essentially, the introduction of print on demand goes a long way to solve the twin problems of marketing/promotion and distribution. The printing of short runs would hopefully reduce over-printing and solve the problems of waste, low sales, warehousing, and extra resources required for promotion and distribution.

3. Develop innovative methods for funding

Donovan (1998) is concerned that money spent obtaining good research findings that are not subsequently published represents money wasted and there is a growing feeling that research project funds could well contain a certain element to help with the costs of publishing research findings. This practice is common in Germany and Scandinavia. Through the allocation of one to two percent of the research grant to information retrieval and publication the money could go toward the purchase of journal subscriptions or other published material related to the topic of the research. Additional methods may include endowments, book clubs and friends of the press.

4. For further research

- a study of the effect of technological developments on university press publishing in Africa.
- a follow up study in 10 years to see how the university presses in Africa are surviving.
- a detailed study of university press consortia and the implications for tertiary education in Africa, preceded by a follow-up seminar on publishing cooperation—Arusha 5—to work out modalities for a comprehensive programme of cooperation between and among AUPs. Organizations to be involved may include ABC, AAU (Accra), APNET (Harare), Bellagio Publishing Network, The Dag Hammarskjold Foundation, and other donor agencies.

As a final note, university publishing in Africa is barely fifty years old (1955-2002) compared to its introduction in the US at Cornell University in 1869, and its origins in the UK with Oxford in 1478. Within this period, almost every African country has established at least one university press, which gives indication of the importance attached to this kind of publishing by African governments. What needs to be done is the consolidation of the presses to provide the essential link between research and publication in the bid to find solutions to the many problems facing the continent. Additionally, the special circumstance of Africa places the AUP in the singular position to offer leadership in the publishing industry through the expansion of its list to include all genres of publishing and thus improve on the quality of life and the general consciousness of the larger society. There are real challenges on the road to sustaining the presses but these must be seen as opportunities, not threats.

APNET will continue to play a leading role in this endeavour but whether or not AUPs will survive in the next 10-15 years will depend largely on their resolve to take bold initiatives based on cooperation and the adoption of new technologies. I am optimistic that this is not insurmountable even though it requires the persistence of publishing personnel. Success will also depend on other factors, the key ones being adequate funding and deliberate efforts by African governments to provide the 'enabling environment' for publishing to thrive. The viability of any national publishing industry is inextricably linked to the literacy level of the population, reading habits, provision of libraries, available publishing infrastructure (such as telecommunications and distribution outlets), and sound government policies.

The research has shown that AUPs do not have distinct characteristics from their American and European counterparts after which they were modeled. In terms of policies, practices, procedures, and structure they are seen to have retained these identities. The circumstances of Africa however differ and are potential

sources for serious review for a unique identity, through adaptation and adoption to suit the special needs of the continent. These recommendations as a matter of course need the active engagement of the publishing industry personnel. A self-conscious book industry (of publishers, binders, printers and sellers) which understands the broad ramifications of their policies, to effectively organize and communicate with government and the public, and provide effective leadership in book development. The creation of a viable consortium requires adequate funding, commitment, and shrewd coordination, together with a set of operating standards. Earlier attempts at cooperation must have failed for lack of these requirements. The options open to AUPs are mergers, consortia formation, or total collapse. Unless the current pressures on the presses for self-sufficiency are removed, press directors have little choice but to forge alliances that would keep them in business.

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