

## 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 2000-01<sup>1</sup>. 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 ESAF<sup>2</sup> (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

<sup>1</sup>See Appendices 3A-3C: Vital economic indicators

<sup>2</sup>Ghana 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 policy<sup>3</sup> 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

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<sup>3</sup>Ministry 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 2001<sup>4</sup>. 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)<sup>5</sup>.

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

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

<sup>5</sup>Daniel, 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), Ampadu<sup>6</sup> (1972), and Nukpezah<sup>7</sup> (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 IASP<sup>8</sup> (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

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<sup>6 & 7</sup>Cited from Zell & Lomer' 1996 annotated bibliography on African Publishing.

<sup>8</sup>This 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](http://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 GDP<sup>9</sup> 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

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<sup>9</sup>Kenya 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 Scheme<sup>10</sup> 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

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<sup>10</sup>Kenya'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 200<sup>11</sup> 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 libraries<sup>12</sup>. 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

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<sup>11</sup> & <sup>12</sup> 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 missionaries<sup>13</sup>. 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

<sup>13</sup>Owako, 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 4000<sup>14</sup> (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.

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<sup>14</sup>Computed 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 potential<sup>15</sup>. 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

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<sup>15</sup>Nigeria 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**

Nigeria<sup>16</sup> 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

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<sup>16</sup>Alele, 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 1999<sup>17</sup>.

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

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<sup>17</sup>Personal communication from Louise Gain, National Manager, Publishers' Association of South Africa (PASA) e-mail: [louise@publishsa.co.za](mailto: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 universities<sup>18</sup>, serving almost 366,000 students in 1995<sup>19</sup>

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<sup>18</sup>Mergers of Technikons and Universities will reduce numbers. "ECape academics concerned about mergers" [http://aclub.sabinet.co.za/news\\_art13.html](http://aclub.sabinet.co.za/news_art13.html) [Accessed 27 February 2003]

<sup>19</sup>Grobbelaar, 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 art<sup>20</sup>.

Unisa Press has been publishing since 1957<sup>21</sup>. 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'.<sup>22</sup> 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.

<sup>20</sup>University of the Witwaterstrand at [www.wits.ac.za/depts/wcs/resources.html](http://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.

<sup>21</sup>University of South Africa at: [www.unisa.ac.za/dept/press/](http://www.unisa.ac.za/dept/press/) [Accessed 13 April 2002]

<sup>22</sup>University of Cape Town at : [www.uct.ac.za/org/uctpress/about/content.html](http://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 GDP<sup>23</sup> 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

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<sup>23</sup>Zimbabwe 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 percent<sup>24</sup> 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

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<sup>24</sup>Appendix 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 2000<sup>25</sup>. 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 Publications<sup>26</sup>.

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

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

<sup>26</sup>University 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.