STRATEGIES FOR NATIONAL BOOK DEVELOPMENT IN ANGLOPHONE AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF KENYA AND NIGERIA

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Abstract

This research report explores book development strategies in Africa and the impact they have on book development. It uses Kenya and Nigeria as case studies. These case studies investigate themes pertinent to book development like reading promotions, book development associations, copyright etc.

This study depicts that the basic problem under developed countries, particularly in the African book industry, stems from the fact that publishing is dominated by textbook publishing. The dominance of textbook publishing makes it difficult for books to extend towards incorporating general books so that the development of literacy, the reading habit and sustainability of the African book industry occurs.

The study demonstrates that the majority of the African book industry is still suffering from neo-colonialism due to the heavy dependency on foreign publishers for their expertise in the publishing area and imported books. This dependency has to decrease and stakeholders in the publishing industry need to recognize that the African book industry will prosper, if key actors in the publishing industry work together instead of competing against one another. The creation of a national book policy and a national book council is recommended as the main book
development strategy which will ensure an efficient and productive book industry. In conclusion, some recommendations are extracted and these are related to Swaziland where I work in the publishing industry.
Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is submitted for the degree of Master of Arts (Publishing Studies) at the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other university.

__________________
Gciniwe Nsibande

______ Day of June, 2006
Dedication

To Sifiso Nsibande and our sons Siyabonga and Andzile. BoGoje, Mdlanyoka, I thank you for your continued love, prayers and support throughout my studies.
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List of Acronyms

API       African Publishing Institute
APNET     African Publishers Network
CPCSP     Council for the Promotion of Children Science Publications
KPA       Kenya Publishers Association
WAK       Writers Association of Kenya
TBC       Text Book Centre
KNLS      Kenya National Library Services
EAEP      East African Educational Programme
UNESCO    United Nations Educational and Scientific Cultural Organization
PASA      Publishers Association of South Africa
EALB      East African Literature Bureau
JKF       Jomo Kenyatta Foundation
EAPH      East African Publishing House
WBD       World Book Day
NPA       Nigerian Publishers Association
NBF       Nigeria Book Foundation
NCC       National Curriculum Centre
NBDC      National Book Development Council
CLAN  The Children’s Literature Association of Nigeria
YRC  Youth Readers Club
NERDC  The Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council
NBDC  National Book Development Council
KSES  Kenya School Equipment Scheme
KIE  Kenya Institute of Education
UNDP  United Nations Development Programme
SADC  Southern African Development Community
WRITA  Women’s Writers of Nigeria
BOLESWA  Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland
SRA  Swaziland Reading Association
IRA  International Reading Association
KBSA  Kenya Booksellers and Stationers Association
OUP  Oxford University Press
WAK  Writers Association of Kenya
NEPR  Network for Promotion of Reading
WDID  World Development Indicators Database
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1. CHAPTER 1

1.1. Introduction:

This section of the study presents the background to the Swaziland book industry environment. In addition, factors which inhibit book development in Swaziland are discussed. Having worked for many years in the Swaziland book industry I have noted the challenges faced by the industry. Hence, I have undertaken this study so that recommendations for book development strategies may be made to the Swaziland Government. I begin with a quotation from Ike (1996:21) who comments:

‘[Granted] Books are the basic tool for education; [however] it is important to recognize the problem that there are not enough books and that sheer awareness of the problem is something to start with. It is in fact, not true that money and technical–expertise, technical–know–how are the major problems. They are not. The major problems are awareness and being able to do something, not just having money and the technical know–how.’

The above quotation captures the essence of this research report which argues for the importance of book development, literacy and how creating awareness of the book sector as part of national development process may eventually influence positively the diversification and expansion of the industry through the creation of national book development strategies. To carry out the study, I investigated what two Anglophone countries, Kenya and Nigeria, have done and continue to do
to ensure significant expansion in their respective book development industries

1.1.1. Book Development in Swaziland Context

Books are an integral key to development in that amongst other things, they are the key to education, which empowers one with knowledge and thus facilitates the alleviation of poverty. Swaziland is one of the countries in Africa which is affected strongly by poverty. Many people tend to expect government to render assistance. However, what is often overlooked is the fact that alternative solutions to conquer poverty may be sought in books by reading on how other countries have managed to improve the livelihood of their people, hence the exploration into Kenya and Nigeria’s book industries. In addition, literacy and the desire to read are generally believed to be a basic ingredient for development.

Currently, in Swaziland, like in the majority of African countries, publishing focuses primarily on textbook production. The National Curriculum Centre (NCC), which is a government department that develops textbooks for both primary and secondary schools, works in partnership with a multinational publishing house, Macmillan BOLESWA, to publish the textbooks. It was in 1979, that Macmillan BOLESWA entered into a ten–year renewable contract with the government which
was renewed for another ten years in 1988 to date. Later, in 2000 the government proceeded to introduce the development of school textbooks for secondary level as well. The main concern is that the market is predominantly education based. Q. Matse, citing M. Mavuso (2004:3) comments that ‘This has led to the schools textbook market to be exclusively given to Macmillan, a situation not conducive to the publishing development of local publishers.’ Needless to say, the fact that schoolbook publishing is exclusively given to Macmillan has a negative effect on the publishing environment in Swaziland because book development becomes restricted to textbook publishing, without extending into locally written general literature, which can be read for pleasure.

In addition, to fully comprehend the status of Swaziland’s publishing environment, the political, economic, social and technological factors must be highlighted. It appears there is no political will to support book development in Swaziland. The upcoming quotation confirms my assertion that Swaziland politics plays a low profile in book development. Matse (2004:2) comments:

‘The major handicap in the development of the book industry in Swaziland may be attributed to the use of outdated legislation and lack of pertinent pieces of legislation which affect the book industry. The Copyright Act (No 36 of 1912) is not enforced and is outdated. The non-enforcement of this legislation is responsible for the large scale of illegal photocopying of books being done in the country.’
The focus of this thesis is national book strategies which need to be implemented in order to see the expansion of the Swaziland book industry beyond textbook publishing towards the production of a variety of reading material. Another indicator for lack of support to the Swaziland book industry is that from an economic perspective developments in South Africa have a huge influence on Swaziland’s economy. For instance, the relatively small Swaziland population cannot sustain a viable book publishing market as Q. Matse citing F. Townsend (2004:4) observes that in Swaziland ‘booksellers have a limited market, as the population is only one million people.’ This automatically means the small market restricts both the variety of books produced and number of books sold.

Furthermore, not to be overlooked is the fact that a large majority of Swazi live and retire to the rural hinterland where hardly any book outlets exist, yet rural people require books as well in order to become fully literate and develop the reading habit. Mavuso (2005:1) notes that:

‘71% of the population lives in rural areas. The market is predominantly education based. The close proximity to South African bookshops has a negative impact on the country’s booksellers. The high rate of unemployment rate further reduces the chances of the industry to thrive.’

The scenario presented in the above quotation explicitly shows that the book industry in Swaziland is stagnant. The quote also confirms the three points mentioned thus far with regards to Swaziland firstly, being mostly
rural, secondly, South Africa’s great influence on the Swazi economy and book industry and lastly the high percentage of unemployment in Swaziland which means that books are not bought in quantity due to lack of finances. Yet, having an industry which will cater for interests outside the education arena would be desirable, so that there are opportunities for authors from all walks of life to write and create diversity in locally produced reading materials. In addition, the creation of local materials would also mean less reliance on foreign donors who donate books which are difficult to relate to because they are often not relevant to the immediate environment. Book development strategies need to be pursued more actively in order to create the diversity of books produced thus expanding the book market. With specific reference to the education sector, it is hoped that incorporation of a more culturally relevant content will enable rural learners to relate better to and identify with the reading material and simultaneously allow urban learners to stay in touch with their culture.

The perception of the literacy rate in Swaziland is high. According to the World Development Indicators Database (WDID) (2006:1) ‘Swaziland’s adult literacy rate in 2004 is seventy nine point six.’ This figure tallies with UNESCO (1998) figures cited in the WDID (2006:2) which stipulates that ‘the literary level in Swaziland is eighty per cent. Adult literacy rate in this instance refers to the percentage of people, 15 and above who can,
with understanding, read and write a short simple statement on their everyday life.’ It should be pointed out however, that this apparently high literacy rate is restricted to functional levels, which fall short of required levels for book readership. The fact that Swaziland’s oral traditions still predominate, means the reading culture is far from being developed sufficiently.

Having mentioned the definition of what literacy means in the Swaziland context and despite the misleading eighty percent literacy level, one is not surprised why in reality the literacy level is dismal. For example, Swaziland has a new constitution which very few ordinary citizens have read. In fact, even the constitution does not prioritise education. To become a Member of Parliament, for instance, you simply need to be an eighteen year-old Swazi Citizen. The level of literacy or illiteracy is not considered at all.

Therefore, the main recommendation made in this research report is to advocate for diversity in the reading materials produced which will assist in maintaining the existing readership by motivating the current readers to read beyond textbooks towards general books. In this way the ‘reading habit’ (which refers to the buying and reading of books) which is weak in Africa, with a few exceptions will strengthen. With book development strategies being applied and books which incorporate culturally relevant
text being produced; hopefully the number of books bought will increase as will general readership.

Further exploration of the status of the Swaziland publishing environment is an achievement in the technological advancement in the printing industry in Swaziland. Mavuso (2005:3) confirms that ‘A Printers association has been formed quite recently and is strengthening itself and its membership.’ One of the major printers was established in 1969 and is named Apollo Printers. The second one was born in 1981 and is called Jubilee Printers. Both use digital prepress. A third large scale printer is called Webster Print. Webster Print does a large quantity of printing jobs for the Government. However, the limited number of printers limits the Swaziland production of books, which becomes restricted to urban people. It then appears as if the focus is on printing for urbanized who are assumed to be the most literate, thus marginalizing the rural people. The marginalizing of the rural people has a negative implication for national book development.

In light of the challenges highlighted which are faced by the Swaziland book industry, I feel it is imperative to discuss a noteworthy event related to the book industry which occurred in Swaziland as recently as August, 2005. The event was the International Reading Association’s (IRA) biennial Pan-African Reading for All Conference which was hosted by the
Swaziland Reading Association (SRA). The main aims of the SRA are articulated in an article by an anonymous writer (1999:13) ‘Mission of the Swaziland Reading Association’ as follows:

‘to alert the nation about the lack of reading material for children in the local bookshops; to sensitize writers to produce material addressing concerns of the readers; and to create a bond between writers and the readers through discussion of available reading material and lastly to provide an opportunity to readers to interact with writers of interest to them.’

His Majesty King Mswati III graced this particular conference with his presence during the opening. This was a significant sign, that the King and the government finally recognize the importance of reading, which automatically encompasses books. In fact, at the end of the conference the government of Swaziland pledged a plot of land toward the creation of a literacy resource centre which should start operating from the beginning of 2007. It will serve the literacy needs (e.g. conducting research, training, disseminating information, supporting literacy activities etc.) of Southern Africa. At this juncture producing a research report on this particular topic pertaining to book development strategies is opportune, because ideas are required to move forward in order to promote both the book industry and reading habit simultaneously.
1.2. Outline of Research Report

The research report is divided into five chapters. The first chapter of the research report presents the introduction, background information, the study focus/problem, rationale and aim of the study. In chapter two, I explore and debate the general literature on book development strategies in Africa. In addition, I then describe the research methodology used for this study and identify the limitations of the study. In the third and fourth chapters respectively, I describe and analyze the two case studies, Kenya and Nigeria. In each case study I investigate, examine and analyze existing book development strategies which both Anglophone countries have used. Finally, in chapter five, I draw together and summarize the key findings which emerge from the analyses and recommend further research in book development strategies to be applied particularly with regards to the Swaziland context.

1.3. Study Focus/problem

This research report seeks to create awareness on national book development strategies which will expand, diversify and sustain the African book industries. The first problem I encountered is that from my long involvement with publishing in Swaziland, I became aware that currently there is virtually no information on book development in Swaziland. Thus, my interest in the matter arises from this very
awareness. The second problem stems from the lack of diversity of books. As mentioned in the opening quotation, undoubtedly, books are the foundation for education, but it should be noted that there is a severe shortage of general books, particularly outside the education sector and the recognition of the problem is something to start with. Thus, my main argument is that admittedly textbook publishing is the backbone of African publishing but I would like to see general books being incorporated so that there is diversification and expansion beyond the education sector. Lastly, another challenge is the lack of national book development strategies. To address this problem, this thesis focuses on specific book development strategies which incorporate all the problems cited because it is book development strategies which need to be created and incorporated in order to achieve a rich and diverse book environment.

1.4. Rationale and Aim

First and foremost, this study will contribute to the academic knowledge as well as become a resource for stakeholders in the book industry. However, the main objective for this thesis is to seek cognizance of methods in which the book industry can be expanded beyond the educational sector and to ascertain whether the creation of a national book policy and the formation of national book councils as main
strategies can assist to fast track the process of expansion of the book industry in developing countries, particularly Swaziland. My looking at the two Anglophone countries namely Kenya and Nigeria will enable me to look at the activities embarked on, which have contributed to the thriving book industries of Kenya and Nigeria, each of which are well on their way to establishing an official national book policy and which I would like to recommend for the Swaziland Government.

1.5. **Main Research Question**

a) What national book development strategies are currently in place in Anglophone Africa and to what extent have they been effective in the development of the book industry in these countries?

1.5.1. **Sub-Research Questions**

a) What is book development and what does it entail?

b) Do national book development strategies promote a national reading culture of reading in Anglophone Africa and if so how?

c) In what ways can Swaziland benefit from these experiences?
The main ideas presented and which are addressed in this thesis are the establishment of a national book policy and national book council in order to harmonize publishing activities undertaken by the various book industry sectors so that a viable book industry is created. From reviewing Swaziland’s publishing environment the book industry faces several challenges which are firstly, lack of support of the Swaziland book industry. Secondly, Swaziland’s small population which results in a limited market for books sold. Thirdly, the fact that most Swazi reside in the rural area which lack book outlets, thus preventing accessibility to books. Lastly, the monopoly of Macmillan BOLESWA being the only publishing house which is also in partnership with the Swaziland Government, thus restricting publishing to textbook publishing instead of extending towards incorporating general books in order for literacy and the ‘reading habit’ to improve.
2. CHAPTER 2

2.1. Literature Review

2.1.1. Overview: Book Development Strategies in Africa

This chapter comprises of what various scholars have written pertaining national book development strategies in Africa, hence it is literature review. The chapter also discusses the research methodology applied when collecting data for this study. As a starting point I quote, Gaston-Pierre (2002:5) who comments:

'We propose research and the further investment of time and energy in two areas which seem of vital importance, including: 1) the strengths and weaknesses of national book policies. 2) A campaign of support for the development of a culture of reading.'

While the main focus of this research report has been national book development strategies, the areas mentioned in the above quotation are central and have been addressed in the study. Book development strategies have been defined, the aim of book development, literacy as a book development strategy and suggested sub-policies which are subsidiary strategies for book development have also been discussed in this section. In addition, I discussed book development strategies such as
a national book policy and national book councils, which are recommended as main book development strategies which ensure that national book development in Africa expands sufficiently and is sustained.

Even though there was some scholarship on book development, it tended to be scattered across several different domains, for example research on libraries and investigations of literacy and reading. Also, worth mentioning is the fact that research on publishing in Africa is limited. There are not many tertiary publishing programmes on the continent and the amount of serious research is hence limited. Yet, Altbach and Rathgeber (1980:55) correctly state ‘publishing is a highly important function in any society and without publishing there can be little dissemination and diffusion of knowledge.’

However, there existed some useful references which were publications such as a book titled ‘Publishing and Book Trade in Kenya.’ written by Ruth Makotsi and Lily Nyariki, who conducted a study and shared their findings on the Kenyan book trade. Another source is a publication named ‘Access to Information, Indaba 97’ written and published by numerous participants in the 1997 Zimbabwe International Book Fair Trust. A third rich resource is titled ‘Culture & the Book Industry in Nigeria’ by Sule Bello & Abdullah Augi. I also found useful a wealth of
information which has several articles written by various scholars and experienced personnel in the African book industry such as Victor Nwankwo, Henry Chakava, Ruth Makotsi and Lily Nyariki and Chukwuemeka, Ike which is contained in the journals named, *African Publishing Review*.

Publishing is crucial to foster the national development of a country through the knowledge disseminated which enables people to become enlightened. Throughout the world there is current emphasis on the knowledge based economy. One, important source I drew on extensively is the work of Brian Wafawarowa, Chairman of South African Publishers Association (PASA) and South Africa’s representative to the African Publishers Network (APNET) who has written several articles in various academic journals such as the *African Publishing Review* the *Cape Librarian* and *Meta–Info Bulletin* journals.

In a bid to promote a knowledge based economy, Wafawarowa advocates for national book policies to be created, so that they act as the key co-ordination link between the various book industry sectors. Wafawarowa argues that in order for policies to operate smoothly the government has to remain neutral so as to support the whole publishing industry without bias. Wafawarowa (2001:10) further argues ‘for more inclusive processes of national book policy formulation, the development of these book policies into national book laws and the implementation of these book
policies and laws through national book development councils.’ Drawing on this body of work outlined above, the literature review highlights key issues pertaining to national book development strategies in the African publishing industry. However, understanding what book development is, is necessary before delving into the views held by the various scholars.

2.1.2. Book Development

2.1.2.1. Definition of Book Development

In all the books, articles, newspapers, journals, etc. reviewed, regarding book development, the literature has no clear-cut definition of the term ‘book development.’ In order to come up with a definition of ‘book development’, in this thesis, book development was construed as referring to the promotion of institutions that fostered book production and consumption. Some of the relevant questions that arose from such a definition included for what purpose the books are being created? What determines the need? Who is the target market or who is the target population/readership? Are the books developed, textbooks, general books such as fiction, non-fiction for children, adults, etc? The question of who the author(s) is/are also arises? Where do the authors do the writing and what guidelines are already in place for the authors? Equally pertinent was the question of publishing and the relationship that existed between publishers and the state requirements for book production and
consumption in general. Also not overlooked was the question of language. For instance, what language is used in the materials and why? A more comprehensive definition for ‘book development’ reflects my personal understanding. According to (G. Nsibande, personal opinion, September 19, 2006) therefore:

‘Book development is not merely a process but a business which unites the various stakeholders which are the key role players in the book industry, who contribute to the book development process, such as authors, booksellers, publishers, printers, libraries and readers. Individual stakeholders have specific roles to play and cannot operate in isolation. In other words each stakeholder serves their individual purpose, but they all contribute collectively to the creation, development and production of books.’

To validate the above insight, Nwankwo (1994:3) comments:

‘APNET takes the holistic view of book industries. Seen as a ‘Book chain’ where one process relies on the efficiency of another in one complete and integrated system, it follows that the system as a whole and each of its components must function for book development to take place.’

In order to witness that the book industry operates smoothly between the different key players, book development strategies need to be employed. Therefore, the word ‘strategies' and the context in which it has been used will also be explained. According to the Macmillan dictionary (2002:1417) the word ‘strategy’ means ‘a plan or method for achieving something, especially over a long period of time.’ In this thesis, the word ‘strategy’
specifically refers to planning how and which methods can be applied for developing reading materials which are specifically in book form.

Having defined both the phrase ‘book development’ and the word ‘strategies’, I explained what book development was and what it intended to achieve. I also explained what strategies meant in the book development context and thereafter discussed the main book development strategies which were recommended in order for book development to grow and become sustainable.

2.1.2.2. The Aim of Book Development

The question, what is the aim of book development arose. In response, one aim emerged from the mission statement made at the Indaba 97, conference which is attached to the Zimbabwe Book Fair. It stated that book development aimed (ZIBF 1997:36) ‘to facilitate and promote growth of a sustainable and thriving book industry, together with corresponding widespread authorship and readership as a means of enhancing personal, social, cultural, educational and national development.’

In order for the aim to be achieved the main problem with book development being limited to textbook publishing has to be overcome before the book development strategies can have the desired positive
impact of expanding towards general books as well. The literature reviewed on national book development, such as an article, by Wafawarowa titled ‘Book Policies & Book Development in Africa’ and a book written by Makotsi and Nyariki called ‘Publishing and Book Trade Kenya’ indicates that books were not a priority area in the majority of African countries. The importance of book development and the fact that initially African countries never prioritized books, could explain why book development is not thriving in Africa. At the initial stages of development in Africa, more emphasis was placed on infrastructure, rather than books. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:12) comment ‘As was the case in the rest of the Third World countries, early development in Africa gave virtually no attention to the provision of books. Emphasis was placed on infrastructural development …’

Furthermore, in support of the focus problem stated in chapter one which stipulates the restriction of publishing to textbooks without extending towards general books, it became evident that in the African book industry even when emphasis was placed on book development, there was a problem of an imbalance between educational books which were being produced to a point whereby they clearly outnumbered the publishing of general books. Wafawarowa (2001:11) comments that:

‘national book development in Africa tends to cater predominantly for textbooks acquisition because Africa is dominated by school text book publishing … while
the role of the textbook market in sustaining an ailing book sector on the continent should be acknowledged, it is true that sustainable book development lies beyond textbooks. It is also true that concentration on textbooks in schools has happened at the expense of general book development’

In agreement with the above statement Ike (1996:21) observes that ‘Development of books should not be limited or restricted to educational books only but should expand to general books as well, which tends to suffer from neglect, due to the imbalance favouring development of textbooks.’ Nevertheless, having defined book development strategies and explained the aim of book development and how textbooks dominate the African book industry, I then focused on literacy, as it was my main justification for arguing for the African book industry to diversify and expand away from schoolbooks towards general books.

2.1.2.3. Literacy

Another key theme discussed in the literature in relation to book development strategies was literacy. Literacy was one of the book development strategies seen as an integral part of establishing, expanding and sustaining the book sector. As noted when defining book development above, in this thesis the term ‘book chain’ links the various book sectors which results in books being produced and enabling literacy. Omjuwuwa (1993:85) defines ‘book chain’ as:

‘[Book chain] is used to recognize the essential linkages that exist between different activities which take place in the process of book development. These
processes are: literary creation, publishing, printing and finishing, distribution, booksellers, libraries and readers themselves. Due to the fact that the output of one is essentially the input of another, there is need to maintain harmony between the different processes/sectors.’

In agreement with the above definition is Reece (1995:20) whose comment reads:

‘… ‘book chain’ linking factors involved in a book industry from writers, printers, paper manufacturers, publishers, booksellers and librarians to the readers themselves. The concept of ‘book development’, as one which encompassed all the links in the book chain was born.’

As an essential network in the book development industry the strategies I discussed touched on all the above mentioned processes involved in the ‘book chain’. However, within the scope of this thesis, it was not possible to address all of these factors. Thus, I consequently focused on questions of literacy (meaning reading) and the formation of a national book policy and national book councils. The reason I chose to focus on literacy and national book policies and councils was because reading is a neglected area in Swaziland, which needs to be strengthened in order for the ‘reading habit’ to increase. Achieving an increased readership level can be done with the creation of a national book policy and national book councils, which would include how to go about promoting reading and making books accessible and affordable to all. I argue in this thesis that a ready, diverse functionally literate readership is needed to create a market and steady demand for books. In this regard, therefore, book
development and literacy are inseparable. Waruingi (1996:54) correctly notes that:

‘A book trade can succeed only if there is a joint effort between publishers, booksellers and civil society at large. It is in the interest of any country to develop a reading culture and, for our part as publishers and booksellers; we perceive a literate society simply as a market for our products – the book.’

Further evidence supporting literacy as key in any society is presented by Gaston–Pierre (2002:5) who observes:

‘If African governments intend to participate in any global issues discussions, in order for an acceptable and sustainable level of development to occur, the literacy level needs to increase … The luxury of communication through the written word is still a privilege for a small minority of many African people. Such a situation excludes more than half of the population of many African countries from participation in government–led development efforts. A culture of reading can only be achieved in a literate environment with the objective of preparing for a literate future’.

Chakava (1996:11) concurs and says ‘more than one half of the continent is illiterate, and our new policy must include a programme for the eradication of illiteracy on the continent.’ If the advice concerning the eradication of illiteracy is taken seriously, it would automatically provide a stable and much expanded market for books. This growth in market would mean the sustainability of the book industry in Africa.
2.1.2.4. The Perception of Books in the African Book Industry

As stated at the beginning of this research report, the problem this study is addressing is that in Africa, book development focuses primarily on education because that is how books were introduced to Africans by the missionaries and thereafter by the commercial publishers. Yet, what needs to be acknowledged is that books encompass many aspects in order to diversify, expand and become sustainable. To highlight the importance of the various aspects books incorporate, Ike (1996:21) says:

‘Books are indispensable to the national education system and are known as vehicles of preserving and transmitting knowledge. Books also preserve and transmit culture ... books do not thrive in a vacuum. The success of the book industry in any country is closely tied to the overall level of social and economic development; the level of literacy, the reading culture of the people, the level of poverty, the availability and efficiency of public utilities, the availability of essential data and materials for book production and the political culture.’

Due to the fact that in Africa books are mainly provided for education (as is the norm in the majority of African countries) this situation needs to alter to a point whereby a wide range of books are produced for the sake of diversity and expansion in the African book industry. Evidence of the fact that textbooks dominate the book industry is stated by Wafawarowa (2001:10) who notes that ‘ ... up to ninety five percent of the books produced in Africa are education books compared to up to thirty five percent in the developed countries.’ This indicates that there is definitely a lack of general books and as such it has been argued that the book
industry in Africa cannot thrive because the reading habit is weak. Further, evidence is again presented by Wafawarowa (2001:10) who comments that ‘in the majority of countries, less than five percent of the African populations are active readers compared to the average of more than ten percent in the developing world’.

However, the figures presented by Wafawarowa above should not be interpreted to mean that readers in Africa do not exist. Despite the common reference that Africans do not generally read, text to be read is everywhere and should not only be linked to the printed text in a book form. Text is on signs, posters, in letters; receipts etc. and they are read all the time. The continent-wide contribution of environmental print should be taken full advantage of in the quest for a sustained reading culture to in turn promote a flourishing book development industry.

Besides textbooks, another popular literature which is read widely in Africa is religious material. Naturally, if more general books are published there has to be a target market to consume these books. Therefore, the challenge is to maintain and extend the existing readership figures to other literary genres. According to Altbach (1996:54) ‘Africa’s small book market can be attributed to the fact that in most African countries the market for books is tiny even with improvements in literacy rates.’ This is true of most African countries. In Swaziland, for instance, the main factor
which contributes to the small markets is the limited purchasing power due to the fact that priority is given to food and health while books are considered a luxury. This is because high levels of poverty make basic foodstuffs everyone's realistic immediate concern. For example, according to WDID (2006:4, citing UNDP, 2005) ‘sixty-nine percent Swazi’s are known to live below the poverty datum line of E128 per month.’

An added damper which negatively affects the book industry is the underdeveloped reading habit and the low substantive literacy rates. Thus, creating a new market of readers will take time because the reading habit in Africa is low, but as earlier stated, by no means non-existent. However, the fact that the majority of current readers do so mostly for academic reasons and after studying do not read books for pleasure, suggests that these educated groups should be the first target market. The challenge of getting those who are educated to continue reading after leaving the classroom would entail producing diverse and interesting material to entice the existing readers to want to buy and read more general books. Perhaps a first step is to conduct a situation analysis to ascertain if and what different categories of people read, when, for what purpose, as well as what they’d like to read in addition to what they read currently.
2.1.2.5. Importation and Exportation of Books in the Africa.

An added challenge regarding book development is spelled out by Wafawarowa (2000:15) who states that:

‘National spending on books is going down rapidly and dependence on donors is increasing at an alarmingly rapid rate. Secondly, the African continent consumes more than twelve percent of the world’s total output of books but it contributes less than three percent of all books read in the world.’

Possible justification as to why Africa fails to contribute more significantly to the global output of books is highlighted by Matse (2004:13, citing Makotsi, 2000) who comments:

‘Africa imports an average of seventy percent of her book needs and exports less than five percent. Publishing accounts for less than three percent of the continent’s economic activity. This is because African governments have never taken publishing for a business venture but a vehicle for producing schools textbooks.’

Matse (2004:14, citing P.G. Altbach, 1980 and Makotsi, 2000) further notes that:

‘in Third World countries there is a negative balance between exports and imports and that in many Third World countries, book development remains under the control of publishers from the industrialized countries and in many nations it is not even commercially viable.’

As mentioned in chapter one, there is an imbalance between exports and imports of books in Africa and this is accurate for Swaziland. What
happens is that the schools textbook business is in the hands of Macmillan BOLESWA which operates its head offices from Swaziland. The school book publishing assists Macmillan BOLESWA to keep the business running through producing large print runs for books which are published for many different countries (e.g. Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland) simultaneously. Macmillan BOLESWA has more financial muscle so they can afford to run large print runs to service the BOLESWA countries. Needless to say the smaller local publishers cannot compete because they can only afford to print for a limited market due to financial constraints. Furthermore as Macmillan holds a renewable contract with the government it goes to illustrate that African governments are responsible for giving business to multinationals at the expense of local publishers. Therefore, support and promotion of the African book industry is crucial in order to witness the desired diversity and expansion of the African book industry, so there is less reliance on both donor and imported books. Adams (2000:7) states:

‘Books written in Africa for Africa should be readily available and should have the same travelling capacity in other markets as imported books. Sales and marketing people should be working towards convincing governments to introduce tax breaks on the import and export of books and book related materials.’

The book development strategies presented in this thesis can act as a guide for stakeholders in the book industry to join hands and work
towards creating a rich, diverse book environment. Therefore, some of the main book development strategies suggested by various scholars are presented in the following section.

2.1.2.6. National Book Policy

The strategies I reviewed were the formation of a national book policy and national book councils (still to be discussed). These strategies have been chosen because they are interlinked and are the main avenues which will assist to create the envisaged diversification, expansion and sustainability of the book industry. Wafawarowa (2000:15) notes ‘… Many countries have existing national book policies whose impact on the general book sector has not been phenomenal.’ Despite the fact that national book policies have not been significantly effective in the book industry, they should not be disregarded completely. I say this because if a good policy is created it can assist to coordinate the book development industry effectively and efficiently to a point whereby the desired diversity and sustainability is experienced. Wafawarowa’s (2001:13) describes a national book policy’s aim as follows:

‘... a national book policy is the only tool that can ensure desired book development in a country and the various parts of the sectors, no matter how divergent their interests may be, are able to pursue the common and most important goal of enhancing access to books.’
The above quotation illustrated to me why I could regard a national book policy as a strategy. A ‘policy’ is a guide for people to perform duties. At the Indaba 1997 held in Zimbabwe (ZIBF 1997:55) the word ‘policy’ was defined as ‘involving and setting out of ideas as well as the proposed implementation of such ideas. It expresses intent, to which end it is made up of strategies towards the achievement of that goal’. In the various definitions of the aim of a national book policy, two scholars Nwankwo and Cory as well as UNESCO share the basic concept with regards to the aim of a national book policy. Nwankwo (1992:154) explains ‘the main object of a national book policy is to ensure that book provision is sustainable and that books are both available and affordable.’ Gaston-Pierre (2002:5) describes the principle objective of a national book policy as ‘to make books more accessible to readers at all levels of society.’ The purpose of a national book policy provided by Wafawarowa (2001:5, citing UNESCO 1997) is that ‘... the role of a national book policy is to ensure that access to books is made easier for all. To achieve this, it must reckon with the complex chain of cultural, industrial and commercial relationships linking author and reader.’

Thus it was safe to conclude that a national book policy could be considered as a strategy because it aims to co-ordinate publishing activities and provide the African publisher with control of the book development industry. After all, a national book policy deals with issues
like ownership, manpower, capital, distribution, marketing and promotion of books and reading. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:3) describe the need for a national book policy in the following terms:

‘... to guide all the concerned players, so that books become an effective instrument of education, social growth and useful communication at national and international levels.....It should entail a coherent set of regulations and indicators governing the creation, production, distribution and promotion and reading among all Kenyans. Also, an ideal national policy for book development should be envisaged as a vital part of the national information policy.’

As noted the various sectors in the book industry are numerous and require coordination in order to see progress in the book development process. What is also important is that a national book policy must be adapted to suit the immediate environment. Wafawarowa (2001:10) mentions that:

‘There is no doubt that the African book sector needs national book policies to coordinate and legislate book development. Perhaps what we should talk about is what ’type’ of book policies is required. The type of policies created has to be suitable in terms of context in the various African countries and their environments in order for the policies to make a positive impact. The type of policies required is an important aspect to consider when creating book policies, because the policies have to suit the environment, meaning the country as a whole, which is controlled or led by the government.’

2.1.2.7. Role of the Government

It was at this juncture that it became imperative that the role of the government be clearly understood. Government cannot be disregarded
because it is usually the key to various industries (book industry included) in terms of influence and finance. Unfortunately, sometimes, government’s involvement means creating counterproductive monopolies in the publishing industry (as is the case in Swaziland, with the Macmillan, government partnership). As (B. Wafawarowa, personal communication, April 21, 2006) points out during our interview ‘the government’s role should be to facilitate rather than control.’ In addition the government is advised to value the publishers’ input in the book industry. Bodunde (1994:7) says:

‘Government should regard publishers as partners in the education process, not as mere contractors or jobbers to be exploited. If publishers know the syllabus and are part of its development they can produce relevant, creative and competitive books ahead of time.’

In an article, Wafawarowa (2001:10) confirms what he verbalized above in our interview regarding the role government should play in the following quotation:

‘The role of the government here should not be to control but to facilitate and enable. The role should be ensuring that the country gets good returns on book development for the incentives that it gives to the private sector for book development.’

In a way, African governments are correctly being challenged to rise up against multinational domination. In support of this view, Chakava (1996:9) comments that:
‘An indigenous Book scheme will not be attainable for Africa due to the fact that they are dominated by foreign publishers ... African governments themselves must take the lead. A step would be the formulation of national publishing or book policies. Many African countries do not have these policies and this has made it difficult for their publishing industries to work in tandem with the government.’

The promotion of indigenous publishing as a positive contributor to the African book industry is noted by Nwankwo (1994:3) who observes:

‘It is no secret that APNET sees the future of African book provision in the hands of the indigenous African Publisher. In this, there is no hostility to the multinational publisher. It is simply a realization that ultimately, a book industry is a strategic national industry. Information is the dynamo of development. Indigenous publishing is that much more sensitive to the needs and aspirations of nation building and this is natural.’

Undoubtedly, a good government policy should seek to empower the African publisher to take charge of the book industry. This would enable the African Publisher to tackle key issues which have been highlighted previously such as ownership, personnel, capital, manufacturing, distribution and marketing.

2.1.2.8. National Participation

Not to be overlooked is the fact that the responsibility of building a sustainable book sector does not belong to one particular sector, but is achievable through a joint effort at national level. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:3) comment ‘the task of developing a National Book Policy may not be a simple one; it involves behaviour and attitude change as well as
cultivating interest in books, where none may have existed.’ The behaviour and attitude change mentioned by Makotsi and Nyariki needs to encompass the leadership in government (Ministers, Parliamentarians, etc.) and the people involved in the book industry such as the publishers, booksellers, librarians printers, readers etc to the urban and the rural masses. Bamhare (1997:24) comments that:

‘... book policy, capable of representing all the major stakeholders of the book industry the state, the publishers, writers, educational institutions, libraries and the reading public ... a national book policy is necessary as a base in any developing country and it requires a joint effort. The nation as a whole, from the leadership to the man on the rural street, whether rich or poor, must have an input in the book development policies, as books affect everyone.’

National participation can also be regarded as an extension of a national book policy strategy. I say this because a national book policy needs to begin with national recognition of the role of the book in long–term development from leadership positions down to the grass root level. This means, that a product such as a book which is both cultural and economic cannot be left to be regulated by market laws alone. Wafaworawa (2001:7) observes that:

‘most of the problems experienced today need top level intervention by government departments that includes education, trade and industry, arts, culture and technology, finance, post telecommunications etc; the private sector that includes readers, libraries, publishers, booksellers, printers, etc. Under the auspices of Zimbabwe Book Development Council, a book sector workshop for parliamentarians was held during the past year ... members of parliament are
being shown or quoted, on an almost daily basis, encouraging and promoting literacy and reading in their constituencies.’

The involvement of Parliamentarians is commended because it enables people in the various constituencies to get an opportunity to learn more about books via their elected parliamentarians. Thus, those without books, such as the often marginalized poor, rural folk as well as the urban masses may end up as interested readers and consumers of books.

As indicated in my aim, the main objective is to provide information on book development which will assist in the creation of book development strategies which can be applied to see the growth and sustainability of the book industry. In attempting to address the issue of book development strategies, I also used a list of sub-policies outlined by Wafawarowa (2001:12) which are essential and pertinent to the majority of African countries, as the base towards consolidating my information.

2.1.2.9. Sub-Policies as Subsidiary Strategies for Book Development

Wafawarowa puts forth suggested sub-policies which can be used as a base for promoting the publishing sector in any African country. The first sub-policy concerns authors. Policies for authors should consider things like international laws on copyright protection and of intellectual property rights. To stop piracy, rapid penalties against piracy must be implemented. Tax incentives on royalties and measures to avoid double
taxation of royalties in the international context should be reviewed. Not to be neglected are how to create reproduction rights organizations and promote reading and literacy as well as, the creation of associations of authors.

A second sub-policy pertains to publishers. Banks and credit facilities should be accessible to publishers and, there should be reduced tax rates on the profits of local publishing. A price control policy must be created whereby there should be preferential assessment of local companies on international financing of publishing programmes. The introduction of International Standard Book Number should be done through the law or specifically a book law if one exists. Furthermore, there should be emphasis on the importance of attending international book fairs which has the advantage of exposing all persons involved in the book industry to new ideas. Also the creation of publishers associations should definitely be encouraged.

A third sub-policy pertains to the printing and production sector which would encompass reviewing access to finance for equipment, ensuring that there is regular training for those in publishing field and taking measures to facilitate the often costly importation of paper and other raw materials. Furthermore the establishment of professional book industry associations must be encouraged so that these associations can fight and
convince the government on book development issues in one voice and embark on activities which enhance the book sector.

A fourth sub-policy to consider is the policy for trade and distribution. In order for the promotion of the book trade to occur, banks should assist bookshops to be established more especially in rural areas which tend to be overlooked. In addition, there should be a fixed price control to protect small bookstores and avoid high profile price slashing. Accessibility to foreign currency should be allowed and the customs procedures on imported books should be simplified so that booksellers do not struggle over comprehending how they should operate when dealing with buying and selling books. Book promotions is often neglected due to the cost implication must be encouraged. Recommended channels of ensuring books are publicized could be done via state television and radio. Book publicity would encourage exportation of books, training and attendance of book fairs, which assists in permitting a free flow of cultural information.

As mentioned previously, all the sub-policies mentioned thus far are interrelated as part of the book industry sector. In addition, each sub-policy mentioned is inevitably linked to reading, which I highlighted as part of this thesis’s research question. Omojuwa (1993:82) notes ‘Promoting the book industry is meaningful only if it goes hand-in-hand
with a literacy reading promotion campaign.’ Therefore, when looking at the promotion of reading, it must be recognized that readers have different tastes and interests in reading materials. This is an important fact to remember by authors when developing their manuscripts. Gaston-Pierre (2002:6) declares ‘the interests of potential readers seem to be the key to sustainable development of the reading culture.’

When drafting a sub-policy on reading there are pertinent areas which must not be overlooked. Special attention should be paid to the encouragement of reading so as to introduce people to reading and avoid having them fall into functional illiteracy. Just as important is budgeting for the establishment of libraries and library services because this will organize and strengthen the national library as a resource of national bibliographical data and heritage. Legal deposits (meaning a copy of each title which has been published) must be enforced as a requirement because it would ensure that each title is submitted to the national library and registered. In addition, training for librarians and conducting reading campaigns is also crucial if promotion of reading is to succeed.

Reading is important because amongst many other reasons, such as HIV/AIDS, the publications discussing the pandemic have been high because HIV/AIDS is a leading subject in books which are published globally. UNDP report (2004:4) and an article titled 'Infidelity' (2006, June
3) In *The Swazi Weekend Observer*, p.26 both reveal that ‘Swaziland currently has the world’s worst HIV prevalence rate at 42.6%.’ Unfortunately, it is through the lack of knowledge that people are dying. If people read about the disease they would be able to deduce the impact of the disease.

Good governance is another advantage of reading as Gaston–Pierre (2002:6) endorses the importance of reading by stating that:

‘... A culture of reading also facilitates better dialogue between peoples, while creating the channels for a more continuous and harmonious dialogue between governments and their citizens ... In the long term, a culture of reading will contribute in a significant way to the process of democratization, to the emergence of a responsible civil society and the promotion of good governance.’

In agreement with Gaston–Pierre, I too see that reading could create a weapon against many political ills. Social imbalances can be eliminated by reading because whether rich or poor, high or low class, reading is for everyone. However, it is one thing discussing strategies for book development, but it is also necessary to consider ways which will ensure that the strategies are successful.
2.1.3. Advantages and Disadvantages of a National Book Policy

2.1.3.1. Disadvantages of a National Book Policy

(B.Wafawarowa, personal communication, April 21, 2006) When interviewed as to what caused the difficulty with a national book policy being formulated and implemented responded by saying:

‘The most critical problem is that you are dealing with role players whose sector specific interests are antagonistic. For example book retailers and publishers fight all the time over discounts and exclusive rights to distribute, while the position of the government is compromised by the fact that they are both policy makers and consumers of books and the education sector. Publishers fight all the time about intellectual property rights. To formulate a good policy you need all these groups to move away from their tiny little corners to the centre for the broader, long-term and sustainable good of the book sector.’

Also worth mentioning is the difficulty of overcoming the history and tradition which encourages Africans in the book industry to rely on former colonial masters in the West for advice, instead of asking for assistance from one another. Basically, Africans show a lack of confidence in African publishers. This lack of confidence in African publishers is demonstrated in the fact that when assistance is required, consultants are sought from abroad. Bamhare (1997:26) comments that:

‘Not much can be achieved unless there are strong and responsible national institutions, voluntary and non governmental agencies and a private book industry to take advantage of the positive environment created and that the various stakeholders should work as partners—not competitors.’
In my opinion I do not fault Bamhare’s view that stakeholders should work as a united force and not compete with each other. I say this because, it is common to find that when stakeholders meet to discuss book issues, the tendency is to represent individual interests and not work towards a common goal. As Wafawarowa suggests, it is working as a united force (both between stakeholders in the industry and regionally) which will enable the African book industry to compete meaningfully in the international market. Nwankwo (1994:3) notes;

‘The lack of coordination and the failure to share experiences has been our shortcoming and it has held back our development. However, gradually through APNET, this is changing. It is APNET’s policy that the book development process must be coordinated within and across national boundaries and that Africans must develop solutions and strategies by freely sharing information, experience and analytical tools that have been developed. In brief, we must stop reinventing the wheel and duplicating each and every country. Gains made in one country must be made available quickly elsewhere.’

Added constraints which prevent book policies from being created and implemented in Africa are often similar. These problems stem from poor communication within the African continent. In summary, from what has been discussed thus far, one can deduce that the main problem with book policies is that they are predominantly focused on textbook publishing, thus limiting the diversity of the material published. Other significant challenges are the language and cultural barriers which are numerous and the poor communication systems e.g. transport
telephones etc within African countries and even between the regions. Again, not to be overlooked is the lack of unity amongst book sectors, in terms of working towards the same goal, which proves to be a hindrance, because the relevant stakeholders tend to want to fight for their own sector without realizing that the different sectors are linking and have to work together, in order to see progress in the book industry.

2.1.3.2. How to ensure the success of a National Book Policy as a Strategy for Book Development

In order to ensure that the creation of national book policies succeeds to become the key to coordinating the publishing activities, Wafawarowa (2001:10) further suggests the need for regional collaboration and exploitation of common cultural heritage and languages.’ A similar view is articulated by Waruingi (1995:8) who comments ‘A book trade can succeed only if there is joint effort between publishers, booksellers and civil society at large.’ Similarly, Wafawarowa (2000:14) further comments:

‘... with globalisation and the digital era book policies which are inward looking and not coordinated at regional level, will not achieve much. The most successful book nations at the moment including the UK, USA, German and Latin American States derive success from their exploitation of common heritages and languages at regional level. This has given them the leverage they need to influence at international level and champion their interests at global level. A combination of effective national book policies and sound regional book policies through regional economic forums is probably the way that will ensure sustainable book development and ensure Africa’s competitiveness on the world book sector.’
A contrary view to advocating for the creation of a national book policy is that a book policy could hamper progress in the book industry by being stringent, thus stunting the creativeness and progress of book development. Yet, what is critical is whether the policy is of quality. When speaking to (B. Wafawarowa, personal Communication, April 21, 2006) he described a good policy as:

‘Expanding to include inter coordination. A good policy is one which considers the book industry as a combined entity and provides guidelines on generally accepted principles. A bad policy is one which is authoritative and prescriptive in that it concentrates on specific sectors and neglects other sectors at the expense of others. Good well coordinated policies should be able to improve the book sector significantly and make the publishing activities more efficient. After all, national book policies are not meant to be a set of rules, but best practice options which are meant to enhance and not necessarily police the industry. Ideally, policies should allow the creation of partnerships between government and the private sector and encouraging them to work together.’

As indicated in the above viewpoint, it is advisable that government should remain an enabling partner and not get involved in publishing directly. When asked about government’s role in the book industry, (B. Wafawarowa, personal Communication, April 21, 2006) replied ‘government is an enabling partner and neutral coordinator of synergy between various sub-sectors. It is also certainly a disburser of resources.’ In terms of ownership in the industry, a suggestion voiced is that foreign publishers and government parastatals should be restricted in their operations in the African market. The restrictions would ensure that the
African book industry progressed by getting multinationals to enter into partnerships with local publishers so that their publishing skills could be learnt by the local (African) people as well. Chakava (1996:9) illustrates this point by discussing how:

‘Two African countries with the most successful local industries Zimbabwe and Nigeria, had introduced a legal requirement to this effect. Unless foreign publishers are forced to invest part of their capital and expertise locally, they will continue to exploit our markets from the metropolis and we will continue to be consumers rather than creators of books.’

Another suggestion put forth is that the state must dismantle all its publishing monopolies. Justification for this would be based on the fact that publishing produces different type of books and each is unique and needs to be handled differently. Lastly, it is felt that if parastatals were dissolved there would be no monopolies and no government subsidies to distort the market realities. Chakava (1996:10) points out that ‘A government without parastatal’s to fall back on would find it necessary to work more closely with the industry on future donor schemes involving the World Bank and other leading agencies.’

2.1.3.3. Training

In order for publishing to succeed, manpower is crucial. Trained managers, editors, artist, designers etc are necessary. A problem which seems to come up, as far as trained personnel are concerned is that
individuals trained in the industry end up being employed outside the industry due to the fact that job opportunities in the publishing industry are limited in what is a small industry. In addition, financing is usually difficult due to the fact that publishing is regarded as a risky business which makes potential financers reluctant to invest in it. Nevertheless, in an effort to address this particular problem of trained personnel APNET through the African Publishing Institute, embarked on regional and Africa-wide training programmes. Chakava (1996:10) notes ‘It is therefore unlikely that there will be a shortage of trained manpower, seeing the range of courses.’

2.1.3.4. Advantages of a National Book Development Policy as a Strategy

On the other hand, the commendable aspects of a national book policy and motivation as to why it should be encouraged is because the most important role of a book policy as noted previously is to ensure that there is a healthy balance between various sectors of the book trade through the coordination of the numerous sectors. (B. Wafawarowa, personal communication, April 21, 2006): emphasizes in the interview conducted that:

‘The most critical purpose of national book policies is to ensure that all the elements of the book sector, including government departments, readers, bookshops, publishers etc are co-coordinated and synchronized to enhance the holistic development of the book industry. For example, if you need to develop a viable local book sector you cannot have a national treasury that does not pay
publishers in time. That will take the most vulnerable publishers out of business. In this example you can immediately see a less obvious but a string connection between the Ministry of Finance as an arm of government and the publishers, because they have to run the business and lack of payment will result in them shutting down.

A similar view is again presented by Wafawarowa (2000:16) who reports that:

‘Research done by UNESCO in 1997 clearly indicated that a national book policy is the only tool that can ensure desired book development in a country and that the various parts of sectors no matter how divergent their interests may be, are able to pursue the common and most important goal of enhancing access to books.’

Another viewpoint which agrees with the above mentioned opinion is reflected in an article by George (1999:8) which reads:

‘There is great significance in encouraging the development of national book policies. On an idealistic level, such policies will ultimately assist in improving a nation’s literacy, educating its children and citizenry, preserving its culture and traditions, and in documenting its history and vision of itself for itself and the wider world. Indeed there is virtually no sector of importance in any country’s operation and experience which is not touched by the availability of print documentation in the form of books.’

As mentioned in the above-mentioned quotation a national book policy will assist in literacy and preserving cultural heritage in print form. Thus, my argument that the African book industry needs to be growing beyond textbook publishing towards incorporating general books for the
sustainability through the creation and implementation of either a national book policy or national book council (still to be discussed) in order to witness the success of the African book industry becomes more apparent. Furthermore, the creation of the book policy or book council would assist in the expansion of the book industry by ensuring that stakeholders in the publishing industry worked as a united force and not in isolation from and against each other. As long as the book policy is a good one, the African book industry will be fruitful. (B. Wafawarowa, personal communication, April 21, 2006) during the interview clarified what effect a good, well coordinated policy should have on any book industry:

‘Book policies should be able to improve the book sector significantly. Expanding the book policies to include intersectoral coordination as a vital component of a good book policy will go a long way in this regard. A good book policy is one which looks at the sector as a holistic entity and provides guidelines on generally accepted principles. A bad one is a prescriptive one that looks at book development from one or two sectors at the expense of other sectors.’

In a different article, Wafawarowa (2000:16) emphasizes ‘A combination of effective national book policies and sound regional book policies through regional economic forums is probably the way that will ensure sustainable book development and ensure Africa’s competitiveness on the world book sector.’

Having discussed the national book policies as a major book development strategy, I shall proceed to review what literature says about
national book development councils which can also be regarded as a book development strategy.

2.1.4. Creating National Book Development Councils

Book Development Councils are interlinked with national book policies in that like national book policies, the book councils are also expected to oversee and coordinate the activities within the publishing sector, of which includes creating a national book policy. However, I will treat book councils as a strategy on its own, because some countries opt to have both or either a national book council, rather than a national book policy. Nonetheless, the creation of book development councils is a significant step in the development of the African publishing industry. The idea of creating book development councils occurred at the convening of the UNESCO Regional Meeting for Book Development held in Accra, Ghana, in 1968. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:16) say ‘UNESCO assisted in setting up the first book development council on the continent. This was the Ghana Book Development Council established in 1977.’

The main theme which has dominated the literature on book development is that a book council needs to be established before a national book policy can be adopted. From the reviewing of literature, the general opinion regarding the role of the National Book Development
Council’s (NBDC’s) is to coordinate, create, implement and monitor a national book policy. Nyariki and Makotsi (1995:11) say that ‘this view was echoed by 109 of the 111 policy makers interviewed … such a body would co-ordinate the activities of the industry.’ In addition, NBDC’s were established to perform the role of a national book policy where none exists and to implement a national book policy where one does exist. (B. Wafawarowa, personal communication, April, 21 2006) laments that:

‘Most national book policies or attempts at creating them simply get filed and forgotten once the committees responsible for putting them together have finished their work … A more inclusive process of national book formulation is required in the development of book policies. To avoid a situation whereby national policies are shelved and for implementation, continuity and further development, a National Book Development Book Council is required. The national book council also has the responsibility of coordinating on going dialogue between public and the private sector on book development matters and follow up on people charged with certain responsibilities in various government departments and the private sector.’

Another view describing the role of NBDC’s is put forth by Reece (1995:21) who describe the role of National Book Development Councils as ‘ to operate and advise, specifically that it should provide a national focal point which might serve as a clearing house on publishing policy and a centre where production and distribution problems could be kept under continuing study.’
Key players who should form part of the book development council should include authors, the publishers, distributors and booksellers, printers, readers and libraries. Once these groups have united, the objectives of the book councils have to be discussed and agreed upon. In agreement with the above-mentioned description of a national book councils role Wafawarowa (2001:5) outlines the NBDC’s duties:

‘The main objectives being the development of literacy; establishment of an appropriate legal framework for protection of copyright; fiscal credit for the various commercial sectors; facilitation of nationwide libraries; training for professionals in the sector ... the national book council has the responsibility of coordinating ongoing dialogue between the public and the private sector on book development matters and following up on people charged with certain responsibilities in various government departments and private sector.'

To a certain extent there has been some disagreement on the necessity of the NBCD’s. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:3) say ‘although there is consensus that a book development council – which should develop and implement a book policy, is mandatory, not all publishers agree with this view ‘

Much as the focus of this thesis is on national book development strategies, literacy is a crucial aspect which cannot be separated from book development. George (1999:8) says ‘... important is the recognition that a national book policy promotes the provision of books to assist literacy which has to be developed in a multi–approach ... the players
have to be partners in the policy development process from the onset.’ Similarly, Waruingi (1995:8) advises ‘It is in the interest of any country to develop a reading culture and, for our part as publishers and booksellers; we perceive a literate society simply as a market for our products – the book.’ After all, book development strategies can only become functional in a literate society. Therefore, eradicating literacy must be prioritized and achieved with much vigour and commitment from the government, stakeholders and the masses, so that when literacy levels have increased, books will be readily available and accessible as UNESCO and other scholars have highlighted is the main aim of a national book policy. Therefore, I firmly support the notion articulated in Swaziland Reading Association Report (2005:3) report which says ‘For reading is both a means and an end to education; therefore, it should be one of the main outcomes of schooling and should continue in adult life well beyond the school.’

The African book industry’s main challenges which have been discussed in this chapter, as preventing significant progress beyond textbook publishing is accurately and eloquently summarised by Makotsi (1998:1) as follows:

‘Most African countries do not have national book policies. Their publishing industries do not therefore benefit from any tax exemptions, preferential rates on postal services, or credit facilities. Publishers continue to operate in suppressive environments characterised by poor infrastructures, low literacy
levels and poor reading habits, constraining educational systems that do not encourage publishing in certain areas, monopoly by either the state publishers or multinational companies and high book production costs.’

A possible solution for the SADC countries which could be copied by other African book industries, regarding high tax costs on imported books is suggested by Matse (2004:16):

‘The Florence Agreement of 1943 on the importation of educational, Scientific and cultural materials is a protocol SADC countries should consider signing. Its main purposes are to make it easier for importation of educational, scientific and cultural materials including book. The provisions of the agreement are to reduce tariffs, taxes, currency and trade obstacles.’

2.1.5. Copyright

Copyright law is an important part of any book industry because it is the right of the author to prevent use of his/her work without permission from them. Seeber (1998) defines copyright as follows:

‘... the right of creators to prevent unauthorized use of their intellectual property ... copyright actually protects creators interests by allowing them the sole right to control and to profit financially from their intellectual labours ... in this context copyright has been called the legal recognition of moral, cultural and economic importance of the printed word and image.’

However, it is common to find that copyright is infringed repeatedly and is not taken seriously by offenders because the penalty for infringing copyright is rarely followed up or enforced diligently. For instance,
teachers photocopy and use reading material all the time without seeking permission or acknowledging that the work they use is not originally theirs. Yet, infringement of copyright affects negatively the book industry in that, the more that is copied means only a few books are sold and the books become very expensive. Therefore, copyright needs to be addressed more seriously and the laws enforced more aggressively. On the other hand, justification for infringing copyright has been blamed on sheer ignorance. Therefore, educating personnel in the publishing world and the public at large assists towards raising awareness on copyright, the responsibility of fighting against infringement of copyright and the consequences of infringement. Nwankwo (1995:10) comments ‘Mount a persistent enlightenment programme to widen and deepen copyright knowledge in the society …’ Having reviewed the literature, I will now proceed to present the research methodology utilized when conducting this research.

2.2. Research Methodology

2.2.1. Overview

As indicated in the literature review, this study drew together scholarship on book development strategies in Anglophone Africa. Since the longer term objective of this research report is to apply the information to Swaziland, I therefore looked for countries similar to Swaziland. South
Africa’s powerful economic status precluded it as an appropriate point of comparison. Botswana and Lesotho and to a certain extent Zimbabwe or Malawi would have normally been considered appropriate points of comparison. However, there is little data on their publishing sectors. Within Anglophone Africa, Nigeria and Kenya both have reasonably strong publishing sectors and there is also some information available on these. The two countries are of course much larger than Swaziland. However, given the availability of data in this highly understudied field these two countries were selected as case studies.

The categories used to organize the information in the case studies are the framework of policies and sub-policies applicable to the various sectors involved in book development as set out by Wafawarowa. These sub-policies cover the following; policies for authors, publishers, printing and production, trade and distribution and reading. In compiling information in these areas, this research project draws mainly on secondary sources.

2.2.2. Methodology:

In pursuing this research I relied on a qualitative comparative case study approach. A qualitative approach is non-statistical. The qualitative approach was used because this research does not rely on measurement
or statistics. The qualitative approach is analytically descriptive. It is interpretative as opposed to based on measurement. In part, this method was dictated by the lack of statistical data on African publishing.

Using a comparative method, this study seeks to compare and contrast these studies with a view to highlighting those elements that have been successful in the book development endeavours of the two countries. I applied the case study approach for the investigation of the research questions. Merriam (1998:232) states that ‘a case study... is a detailed examination of one setting, one single subject, one depository of documents, or some particular event. Case studies provide experience from other people's actions to the reader.’ Three advantages for conveying the experience of a case study to the reader are further outlined by Merriam (1998:232) as follows:

‘These advantages include accessibility for the reader to the experiences of the individuals in their original settings, and to areas the reader has never been. The case study also offers the reader to see through the researchers eye’s and the last one is that case study decreases defensiveness, which means people get to learn from a case study, perhaps more willingly than from actual experience.’

Also, case studies do not seek to provide universal, generalizable findings. Instead they offer to throw up new tendencies and ideas that may be followed up by other researchers. Given that there is relatively little reliable research available on publishing in Africa, a case study approach was appropriate.
The data collected in this thesis was primarily derived from secondary sources. As I based the bulk of my argument on Brian Wafawarowa’s theories regarding book development in Africa, I conducted an interview with him to seek clarifications on his stance which advocates for the creation of a national book policy so that the efficiency of the African book industry improves. Unfortunately due to his busy schedule I failed to meet him face to face. After much correspondence via the e-mail and telephone we opted to use the e-mail to undertake the interview.

My research was library based and was supplemented by the interview with Wafawarowa. Thus, I used the document analysis and desk research as methods to triangulate the data from the telephone interview. Triangulation, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:99) is:

‘Multiple sources of data are collected with the hope that they will all converge to support a particular hypothesis or theory. This approach is especially common in qualitative research … A case study researcher often begins to analyse the data during the data collection process … ultimately the researcher must look for convergence (triangulation) of the data. Many pieces of information must all point to the same conclusion.’

2.3. Limitations of this study:

Accessing current information on the book industries in both case study countries was difficult. Through this research I discovered that as
mentioned by the scholars who have written about the African book industry, poor communication links in Africa are indeed a reality. My experience when trying to access information from the case study countries was that e-mails were either not replied or they bounced back. Phone calls comprised barely audible voices which made holding a conversation impossible, due to the crackling over the lines. Needless to say this slowed down my progress quite significantly. A second limitation as indicated above is that I used a case study approach. The findings presented here are hence not generalizable but are intended to highlight significant trends.

This literature review identified key issues pertaining this study. Wafawarowa, Makotsi, Nyariki, Ike and the numerous other scholars outline main issues in the African book industry. Discussions on issues such as the eradication of illiteracy are raised because it causes poverty as well as lack of knowledge which in turn hinders development. From the literature review there is recognition of the fact that adhering to the copyright law is beneficial in order for the book industry to progress and that a reading society can be moulded and motivated by producing more supplementary reading books besides schoolbooks. Furthermore, awareness of the book industry being an important part of national development is highlighted. The main observation made was that countries which want to form a national book council to coordinate,
create and implement a national book policy should be encouraged to do so because the existence of both or either the book council or national book policy will ensure that any book industry is efficient thus making books both accessible and affordable.
3. CHAPTER 3: The Kenya Case Study

3.1. Introduction

The objective of this research report, as earlier noted, was mainly to explore the creation of national book strategies so as to promote book development in Africa. Kenya was one of the two case studies reviewed. Kenya was selected because she has a relatively well developed book industry and has made significant progress towards implementing book development strategies. At this point I see fit to define the word ‘success’ because the general word used when referring to Kenya’s book industry is that it has been ‘successful’ in comparison to other African countries. Kenya’s ‘success’ is witnessed in the number of renowned internationally recognized authors and titles produced from the likes of Ngugi wa Thiong O who wrote titles such as ‘Weep not Child’, ‘The River Between’ and ‘A Grain of Wheat.’ An indication of Kenya’s thriving book industry is highlighted by Makotsi and Nyariki’s (1997:5) who comment that ‘Kenya has performed better in publishing development than most other African countries … Compared to other countries in East and Central Africa, Kenya has the most active book industry.’
As a starting point to discussing and describing the Kenyan book industry, I begin by discussing the historical data of the Kenyan book industry so as to give a clear overview of her publishing industry.

### 3.2. Historical Background to the Kenyan Publishing Industry

Kenya’s population was estimated at twenty seven million in 1993. Shibanda (1993:1) states ‘Kenya’s projected population figures are 27, 2 million for 1993.’ However, it was during the period before 1930 that Christian missionaries established printing presses to support religious reading materials and this marked the beginning of publishing in Kenya. A mission press which existed was the Church Missionary Society which printed the first Kenyan book in 1894. The intention of the Church Missionary Society was to translate the bible and hymn into African vernacular. Thereafter, the government printer was established in 1899 and their focus was on printing articles such as government notices, reports etc. The late 1930’s early 40’s witnessed the missionaries uniting with a local educational publishing firm called Ndia Kuu Press. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:25) explain that Most literature published by this press was meant to cater for the increasing demand for quality education by Africans.’ After World War II (1947), there were small presses which provided a different type of education from that offered by the
missionaries to the Kenyan people. These small presses were run by Kenyan nationalists such as Henry Muoria and later Gakaara Wanjau, who specialized in publishing political pamphlets, handbills etc. After the Ndia Kuu Press was established in 1947, the East African Literature Bureau (EALB) was set up in 1948 to publish educational and literature materials as well as to develop materials in local languages so as to provide reading material for the increasing numbers of the literate Kenyans. Chakava (1992:119) explains that ‘At the time of independence, there were only three major publishers on the scene. The first, East African Literature Bureau (EALB) was begun in response to demand from the emerging African readership for relevant home-grown reading materials in 1948.’ It was also during this period that multinational companies entered the Kenyan publishing scenario around 1947 and they had a monopoly on publishing activities in Kenya. Longman who had already been publishing for the Kenyan market from London appointed a resident representative in 1950. Oxford University Press (OUP) arrived two years later in 1952. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:26) explain that:

‘Longman Green entered the publishing scene in Kenya in 1950, followed by Oxford University Press in 1952. They were later followed by Thomas Nelson, Evans Brothers and in 1965, by Heinemann. This trend was a result of the increased interest for quality education by Africans. In 1963, when Kenya attained independence, Longman and Oxford University Press, the pioneering multinationals, set up local branches and began full operations....other companies which did not specialize in textbooks but published general books set up distribution agencies. These included Collins and McGraw Hill which
acted as agents for other publishers bringing the total number of multinationals represented in the Kenya Market to about 90 by mid-1970's.'

Altbach (1992:122) confirms that the number of multinationals established was significant and notes that 'Other British publishers who neither had branches nor representatives in Kenya offered agencies to those who were already there, so that by 1968, close to 80 British publishers had some form of presence in Kenya.' What is noteworthy about Longman and OUP is that initially they did not publish locally. Instead, their main goal was to secure locally produced quality manuscripts and forward them to London for publishing.

At the time of Kenyan independence in 1963, there was no privately owned local publishing house, nor a national one. However, this position changed with the help of Charles Richards. Richards played a significant role in the Kenyan publishing industry from the on set because he was an experienced missionary who also dabbled in both printing and publishing. Richards assisted in the publishing for the Church Missionary Society in the 1930s and he was also the driving force behind the establishment of the Ndia Kuu Press (first Kenyan commercial publisher in the 1940’s). Richards had managed the EALB from its inception up to 1963, when he resigned and took up the job offer to manage the newly locally incorporated branch of Oxford University Press. Charles Richards was also responsible for inviting commercial publishers (e.g. Longman
and OUP) whom he assisted by supplying with readily available textbooks from Richards former colleagues from EALB. J.W Chege is quoted by Chakava (1992:120) questioned Richards actions of providing ready made textbooks for commercial publishers and comments:

‘but we should have thought that if Richards believed in commercial publishing, he would have crowned his exemplary service to publishing in Kenya by spearheading, at independence, the establishment of a locally owned commercial firm…the reasoning behind Richards policy of developing texts and then handing them over to foreign publishers [is questionable] … by doing this the bureau was preparing the ground for the entrenchment of foreign publishers, particularly Longman, OUP, Macmillan and Nelson.’

One has to wonder if Richards genuinely intended to contribute to the growth of the Kenyan book industry or merely wanted to let foreign publishers take over the industry completely. I say this because the only result of Richards’s actions permitted multinationals to gain a strong foothold in the Kenyan book industry in the post independence years. Chakava (1992:119) also questions Richards’ intentions and says:

‘Richards argued consistently that it was his wish right from the beginning to support the growth of vibrant local publishing industry in Kenya. For example, instead of installing printing facilities at EALB, he encouraged commercial printers to print for him. On the publishing side he invited British publishers to open branches in Kenya, offering to pass over to them for exploitation any viable titles developed at the bureau.’

I then looked at developments in the Kenyan book industry after independence was gained in 1963.
3.2.1. Post-Independence

After 1963, the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) was set up and combined with the Curriculum Development Centre in 1964. It was two years after independence in 1965 that the first indigenous publishing firm, named the East African Publishing House (EAPH) was set up. Also in 1965, the Kenyan government formed the Jomo Kenyatta Foundation (JKF) which was to incorporate and work with the East African Literature Bureau on its publishing programmes. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:26) justify the establishment of the JKF as ‘the Kenyan government realized that catering for the reading needs of the Kenyans was crucial.’ Another reason behind JKF’s formation is put forth by Chakava (1992:121) who states that ‘The government then created the Jomo Kenyatta Foundation in 1965, to work with the KIE who would publish these materials and use whatever profits it made in the award of scholarships to needy children.’

Due to misunderstandings related to job duties which ended up being duplicated and caused confusion, the EAPH and JKF parted ways. Needless to say this split negatively affected the coordination of publishing activities in Kenya. The two parastatal’s (EAPH and JKF) worked separately but still dominated the publishing industry. Nevertheless, 1965 proceeded to be a fruitful year for Kenyan Publishing. Despite EAPH and JKF having an upper hand in the Kenyan book industry, other new publishers came into the scene such as Equatorial Publishers which was a
private indigenous publishing company set up in 1965. To name a few others there was Comb Books, Mowa Publishers, The Njogu Gitene Press, Trans Africa, Shiriko Publishers and others. It was during the same year (1965) that two prominent multinational publishers, Longman and Heinemann set up more permanent branches. Macmillan then registered itself in 1971.

Some of the indigenous publishers concentrated on publishing for children and adult literacy learners in English and Kiswahili. Indigenous publishers like Phoenix, Foundation Books, Central Arts Promotion and Focus Publishers, Guru Publishers etc. increased their efforts to publish children’s books and also began to seek outside support, as well as pressurizing government to recognize their contribution to the country’s educational and national development. In the end some of the publishers were reported to be performing impressively, but others shut down due to insufficient finances and mismanagement. Nevertheless, despite that damper, Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:27) note ‘The number of publishing houses has increased by about 60 percent during the last two decades bringing the number to 72. Ninety per cent of these publishers are indigenous.’ In addition, a significant development which took place in Kenya is that two former multinational publishers, East African Educational Publishers (EAEP) and Longhorn which were formerly local branches of Heinemann and Longman respectively became indigenized.
This meant that the EAEP and Longhorn sold some or the bulk of their shares to local publishers. Indigenization of publishing houses allowed local publishers to run the publishing houses themselves or at least have a hand in the operations the publishing houses. On the other hand foreign houses like Macmillan, Oxford University Press, Evans, Nelson were allowed by the Kenyan government to own influential and prominent positions such as Directors or shareholders in the Kenyan book business without any local participation. As far as the Kenyan government was concerned, so long as the foreign publishers continued to supply the necessary text books, they were left alone. This lasser faire attitude lead to Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:27) commenting that:

‘As a result, they repatriated all profits to their home countries and did not bother to develop the industry to suit the needs of Kenyans on a long-term basis: they were content to have Kenya as a ready market for their home-developed titles.’

The Managing Director of EAEP, Chakava discourages multinationals being given the platform to run their own show. Instead he encourages multinationals to partner with local publishers and transfer their expertise to them. Chakava (1996: 28) comments:

‘EAEP is not a typical case. Commercial publishing is, in the eyes of many Kenyans, still synonymous with foreign multinational publishers……it offers a model, not only for Kenya, but for other countries, provided foreign publishers are willing, albeit under pressure to indigenize their operations.’
Consequently, during the first five years of Kenya’s independence there were government printers. The government printers focused on printing government notices, religious presses whose main objective was to translate both the Bible and the hymn book. The types of publishers which existed are: One, the state or parastatal’s publishers such as EAPH; Two, private commercial publishers like Equatorial and lastly, the then (before becoming indigenized) foreign publishers, such as Longman, Heinemann as well as OUP which still had a huge influence. Focus now turns to the development of publishing in Kenya.

3.2.2. Development of Publishing in Kenya

As much as indigenization of the publishing industry is promoted it is not the solution to boosting the book industry in any country and Kenya is no exception. The general trend in Africa is that the bulk of the publishing programmes are textbook oriented, and this leaves other areas of information and knowledge to be catered for by foreign publishers. Nevertheless it has been noted by Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:16) that ‘More indigenous publishing houses began to sprout, especially in Nigeria and Kenya, after the Accra book development meeting, Ghana, in 1968.’ In Kenya the publishing industry was fairly active in the 1970s. As mentioned previously, during the 70s, Kenya’s publishing industry was very textbook oriented and foreign controlled because the indigenous firms who had no strong financial base could not compete at
par with the multinationals who had established a monopoly over the Kenyan market. Chakava (1992:123) observes:

‘By 1970, Kenya had been independent for seven years and the publishing industry was largely in the hands of foreign publishers... the profitable textbook market, which at the time represented over 80% of the value of the total book market was in the hands of foreign publishers.’

In agreement with Chakava (1992:23) above, Shibanda (1993:1) and Chakava (1993:9) says that ‘... in every 50 titles, less than 10 percent are local imprints ... Nigeria and Kenya, for example, at independence, had a thriving publishing industry largely in the hands of local branches of multinational firms ... ’ To overcome this dominance of multinationals, the first thing the government did was to establish the Kenya School Equipment Scheme (KSES). They purchased books centrally and distributed them to Kenya’s Primary schools. The Ministry of Education then compiled a list of recommended books to be bought by the KSES. However, since the local publishers (KIE and JKF) had not yet published all the books required for primary schools, the Ministry had no alternative but to include textbooks from foreign publishers as well. When reading about the multinational domination in the Kenyan book industry and the heavy dependency on imported books, it makes me agree with Wafawarowa, who in my literature review highlights the fact the African book industry still relies heavily on imported books. I feel that at the moment the creation of diverse reading material is stunted because the
African Book industry depends on imported books which kill the desire to create local books. Chakava (1992:124) comments:

'The period between 1970 and 1977 was an active period for Kenyan publishing and the most competitive. The JKF monopoly was not a complete success story because they lacked the entire school book required. Inevitably, KSES got the necessary reading materials from commercial publishers of multinational publishers. Indigenous publishers managed to get several single titles onto the list government required.'

The government’s objective was to protect the primary school market as a monopoly for JKF, so that government bought the majority of popular titles from JKF. This meant that the heavy reliance on the multinationals books of primary school books decreased. The second response to the foreign dominance came from the local entrepreneurs who entered the publishing business scenario. For instance, Fred Ojoendia, the production man at EAPH resigned and set up Foundation Books in 1974. David Maillu, a graphic artist and illustrator, established Comb Books in 1972 with the main intention of publishing his own novels. Njogu Gitene of Njogu Gitene Publications published children’s books. When I read about how the government wanted to protect the primary school market, I then agree with Wafawarowa when he says that the government should remain a neutral party so that they support all the publishing sectors without bias.
Nonetheless, despite the generally prosperous period in the Kenyan book industry during the 1970s the atmosphere was not jubilant. Instead, Chakava (1992:124) comments that:

‘this period was characterized by doubt, mutual suspicion and intrigue among the parties involved and it was this situation that led to the formation of important professional associations in 1971. These were The Kenyan Publishers Association and the Kenyan African Booksellers and Stationers Association, so as to involve all the nationalities involved in the book trade.’

What is unfortunate is that, people joined associations such as the Kenyan Publishers Association mainly to protect their own interests rather than to deal with problems which hindered progress in the Kenyan book industry. Five years later indigenous publishers had pulled out of the Kenya Publishing Association, while the Kenya African Booksellers Association was finding it difficult to continue without the support of its more affluent Asian partners who provided financial and business support. Thus, the period of prosperity ended in 1977. Chakava (1992:125) explains:

‘with the closure of the border between Kenya and Tanzania, Kenya Publishing was no longer able to export to Tanzania, Zambia and Malawi ... Kenya lost a bulk of export trade which at its peak averaged 25 to 30 percent of their turnover. Secondly, the home market stagnated largely as a result of the uncertainty surrounding Daniel Arap Moi’s succession to the presidency upon Kenyatta’s death in 1978. A coup attempt on President Moi’s new government did not help matters.’
An anonymous writer (1992:9) in a ‘Country Report’ concurs:

‘Kenya has one of the most developed publishing industries in East and Central Africa. The industry reached its peak with a high output of new titles and export turnover almost equivalent to that of imported raw materials. The growth in its exports was however, halted in 1977 when Tanzania closed its border with Kenya, making it impossible for Kenya to export not only to Tanzania but also to regular markets to the South, especially Zambia and Malawi.’

The reaction to the bleak atmosphere, which ended the prosperity of the Kenyan book industry varied. Chakava (1992:125) notes:

‘Longman publishing house reacted by selling forty percent of its equity to local people. Oxford University Press and Longman who followed OUP declared some staff redundant and cutting down on their publishing programs. The smaller foreign publishers, e.g. Collins, Pitman, Cambridge University Press, Nelsons and Evans, either closed down completely or pulled out and left their businesses in hands of local commission grants.’

The government continued to support publishers such as EAPH, Kenya Literature Bureau (KLB), and the company that Kenyan government had set up in 1979 to replace the former EALB and the JKF but these publishing houses were all inactive since they hardly produced any titles during this critical period. Nonetheless, it was indigenous publishers that took the worst knock. For instance, Trans Africa went bankrupt; Comb Books, Foundation Books and others stopped publishing and with no backlists to fall back on went out of business. EAPH was declared bankrupt in 1987. In light of the collapse of what at some point appeared to be a lucrative business, Kenyan book industry had to look for solutions
which would get them out of the slump and reactivate the Kenyan book industry. It was at this point that particular attention was shifted to autonomous indigenous publishing.

The development of autonomous indigenous publishing is an important cultural objective and yet the difficulty of accessing capital to run the publishing business was the greatest obstacle to the development of autonomous indigenous publishing in Kenya. Publishing is considered to be a unique and risky business. Thus, it is due to this risk factor that banks are often reluctant to finance publishing ventures. Inevitably, this meant that publishing projects did not have substantial finance to sustain them. In Kenya in order to address the question of lack of capital for developing indigenous publishing, a seminar was convened by the Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation to address the lack of autonomous publishing houses in Africa. Many foreign donors preferred to direct their financial support through governments, hence enabling such governments to strengthen the government’s monopoly over publishing.

Again this makes me concur with Wafawarowa’s assertion quoted in chapter 2, during the interview, that government should be the central coordinator between the publishing sectors to ensure synergy between publishing activities. In order to support and promote indigenous publishing the DHF held a seminar on the Development of Autonomous
Publishing Capacity in Africa, which aimed at supporting and promoting autonomous indigenous publishing. The Foundation proposed to start a loan guarantee scheme which used Kenya as the pilot country for providing financial assistance be given to African publishers. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:18) explain the DHF scheme as primarily:

‘To make loans accessible to private indigenous publishers for purposes of starting or strengthening their companies or buying out the multinationals ... Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation objective is to make it easier for indigenous publishers to secure adequate financing for their publishing programmes and provide them with training and professional advice.’

Another reason for initiating the DHF scheme has been raised by Chakava (1993:10) who comments that ‘Dag Hammerskjold Foundation launched a loan guarantee scheme for indigenous publishing in Kenya with the prime aim of showing local banks that publishing is and can be profitable in the long run if it is properly capitalized and managed.’ Nonetheless, the results of the DHF loan scheme were that by November, 1990, eight unnamed local publishers had benefited from the scheme. Also the number of indigenous publishing houses had increased to eleven by 1997 and their publishing programmes expanded. A significant impact the scheme had on the Kenyan indigenous publisher is that they were able to secure funds. For example one of the beneficiaries of the scheme bought shares in a multinational company and became a major shareholder. This particular company gradually became fully indigenized. Another beneficiary increased the number of children’s
titles. The success of the DHF scheme is described by Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:103) who comment that the biggest positive impact the scheme has had on the Kenyan indigenous publisher is that it enabled access to funds which would not otherwise have been obtainable without collateral.’ I commend the government’s approval of the DHF’s initiatives because its aim was to empower autonomous indigenous publishers which are an example of a conducive book development framework in the absence of a national book policy.

The downside of the scheme is that out of those publishing houses which received the loan, some could not pay back the loan. Although the objective of the scheme was appreciated, the nine beneficiaries of this scheme expressed their difficulty with which they were repaying the loans due to the slow sales of their books. This goes to show that Wafawarowa is correct to suggest in the sub-policies outlined in the literature review that banks should have special loans and flexible repayment terms for publishers, so that they can run profitable and sustainable businesses. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:103) note ‘Out of the total eleven loanees, two have defaulted while two others are on special repayment scheme. . . . the interest rates charges by the banks are still high.’ On another note, I will now look at the question of language in Kenya because it features as a challenge to her publishing.
3.2.3. Language

Kenya is one of the African countries where numerous ethnic languages are spoken within the same country. Publishing in all the languages would not be viable. I say this because, publishing in indigenous language can limit the consumers (audience) and it would not be cost effective. The reason it would not be cost effective is because a specific number of prints, usually means a small print run which is costly and publishing them does not necessarily guarantee hundred percent sales. Thus, clear language policies need to be implemented which is by no means an easy task. In addition there are underlying problems that influence the book industry in Kenya. Shibanda (1993:1) observe that:

‘Some of these problems include high illiteracy levels and the lack of reading habits. Furthermore there are over forty languages in the country and 80% of the Kenyans are rural based and engaged mainly in agriculture. The income generated monthly is inadequate for the basic necessities and books are regarded as luxury items.’

In 1963, after Kenya gained her independence, the Kenyan government was determined to increase her literacy levels. The government then mostly allocated funds to the curriculum development unit, which had books written by panels of authors, got them printed and distributed them to schools. As mentioned in chapter two, literacy is an integral part of book development in that literacy requires books in order for book development to occur in the first place. Therefore, the importance of
literacy cannot be over emphasized enough. The book development strategies recommended are suggested as a method of strengthening the reading habit once literacy has been achieved. Consequently, because printing is necessary in order for books to be produced, I will proceed to review how the printing sector faired in the Kenyan book industry.

3.2.4. Printing

Printing machinery is generally expensive. The majority of African countries do impose heavy taxes on printing machinery and raw materials. However, Kenya is quoted as one of the countries which have sufficient printing capacity within their private and public sectors. Chakava (1993:10) says ‘Kenya for example has excess capacity which should be able to export to neighbouring countries ... Kenya should have a policy whereby Kenya imports machinery and raw materials with a view to carrying out all the printing within Africa.’ Furthermore, Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:105) note:

‘Kenya has numerous high quality printing firms well spread out throughout the country. Printing is however still expensive. In particular, the paper manufactured locally is more expensive than the imported paper. This reality has been a big hindrance to efforts to reduce book prices and thus make them more accessible to the majority of Kenyans ... It is gratifying, however to note that most of the materials required for book production (including computers), have been zero-rated and printers therefore do not need to add charges on the cost of printing. This exemption, which has been gazetted, heralds good news with regard to book prices. One printer in Nairobi noted that due to most of the materials being zero-rated, book prices in this country should go down at least 20 per cent.’
As discussed under Wafawarowa’s sub-policies on printing, the regulation of printing costs would assist the end cost of the book. In addition, in view of the fact that Kenya’s printing facilities has been rated as of high quality, if Kenya printed for other African countries within the region, it would be the start to Wafawarowa’s suggestion that regions should work in collaboration so that the African book industry strives. However, without training of the personnel who will produce the books, the time and capital invested in the book industry would be spent in vain. The result would be poor quality books being produced. Thus, to avoid the production of shoddy books, training is crucial. Therefore, it is for this reason I now shift my attention to the training aspect in the Kenyan book sector.

3.2.5. Training

Producing books required skills and each book was unique and required commitment to detail. As Irura (1993:8) notes that government did not consider that human resources are the most crucial constituent in publishing and viable publishing cannot be implemented by unqualified people. As a result shoddy books rolled off the presses.’ Consequently the lack of publishing skills resulted in the low quality of the books produced. Another weakness observed was that, most publishers neglected to conduct market research to ascertain the needs of the target
market, thus they ended up producing books of no interest to readers. As pointed out in my literature review, it is important that research has to be conducted by authors and those working with books so that reader’s tastes are ascertained. Training for authors and raising the awareness of how researching about the needs of the target market should be a priority.

Nevertheless, in Kenya to address the lack of expertise and training, various training initiatives were instituted. The Moi University, under the Faculty of Information Science, since 1986 offers a B.Sc degree, with a module in publishing and book trade. Kenya Polytechnic also trains proof-readers, editorial assistants, printers and other auxiliary staff of the industry. Kenyatta University offers a Masters degree in Information Sciences with a compulsory publishing and book trade course. Lastly, local publishing associations such as the Kenya and Publishers Association and the Writers Association of Kenya try to organize seminars and workshops where professionals in publishing brainstorm different ideas. Undoubtedly, the progress which Kenya has made with regards to the recognition of publishing and the need to train specialists in the area is a clear indication that books and publishing are considered important in Kenya. The Kenyan publishing industry was faced with some loopholes which had to be addressed before significant progress could be witnessed.
3.3. Problems in the Kenyan Book Industry

Problems in the Kenyan book Industry include, firstly, authorship which also faced problems of lack of training. Nyariki and Makotsi (1994:2) note that ‘out of the authors interviewed, 72 are not trained. As a result most of their manuscripts were rejected’. In addition, as mentioned previously, authors failed to ascertain the needs of their target readers which meant that the books produced were not bought due to the fact that the books did not appeal to the consumers. Makotsi and Nyariki (1995:10) say ‘authors complained about low royalties and suggested an increase from ten percent to twenty five. Their argument being they are the initiators of the ideas and should be the ones who benefit from the material produced’. This resulted in the authors becoming demoralized because of what they felt they were unfairly treated by the contracts publishers drew up. As a solution the Writers Association of Kenya (WAK) was established and assumed responsibility for training authors and advising them on all matters pertaining to writing and publishing. Unfortunately, most authors were not members of the writers association because they had never heard of it, which indicates that the marketing of the association was weak. The protection of author’s rights cannot be stressed enough. The literature review does touch on the importance of the authors rights being protected. Training authors on intellectual property and copyright laws has to begin with the authors. The marketing of the various book development associations has to improve, so as to entice authors to join
the associations and benefit from the training session offered. Having discussed the training aspect, I will move on to looking at reading campaigns, which are central for meaningful book development in any given society.

3.4. Reading Campaigns

3.4.1. Reading Promotions

It is common to hear it being said that in Africa, reading outside the classroom is limited because after obtaining the qualifications reading for pleasure does not occur. Chakava (1996:67) states:

‘Promotion of reading and books in Kenya is thus threatened by lack of interest due to people’s traditional culture, inadequacies of local languages, lack of publishing capital, lack of modern book production technology resulting in low quality and unattractive books and lack of leisure time due to overloaded educational system.’

However, the picture may not be as gloomy as Chakava indicates. In a study conducted by Nyariki and Makotsi (1995:11) note, ‘around 74% of our interviewees agreed that Kenyans had realized the importance of books. A majority of 39% consumers buy books because of their love for reading....’ However, the major problem with book consumption is poverty. Nyariki and Makotsi (1995:11) continue to observe that:
‘Of those interviewed, 90% complained of lack of money due to the prevailing poor economy and viewed the increase of libraries as the solution to this problem. The few libraries which do exist are under–stocked with outdated titles, not to mention the fact that most are manned by untrained, therefore unprofessional staff.’

As mentioned in chapter one, I feel that books can, to a certain extent alleviate poverty. After all, an educated nation is a knowledgeable one. If the knowledge is applied correctly the economy can improve, thus making books both affordable and accessible through a national book policy which would ensure the efficient running on the book industry.

In 1993 the issue of promoting reading surfaced in various book forums in Kenya. To promote and nurture a reading culture, UNESCO helped organize a Campaign for Africa ‘Reading for all’, whose objective was to sensitize Kenyans to book development and promote reading. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:50) explain;

‘Promoting reading began featuring at various book forums in Kenya. It was previously referred to as “eradication of illiteracy”. Learning to read and write was propagandized as the only way to free oneself from the bondage of overpopulation, unemployment, hunger and poverty.’

The Kenyan Publishers Associations has also been involved in promoting, developing and encouraging writing, production and distribution of books in Kenya. Numerous other bodies which aimed at promoting reading and reading activities were formed as well. These included the Writers Association of Kenya, the Council for the Promotion of Children’s
Science publication in Africa (CHISCI), the Joy of Reading Campaign (JORC) and the National Children’s Reading Programme (CHIRP). The associations which were formed to address reading promotions in Kenya are numerous, which is indeed commendable. What is even more impressive is the fact that Kenya went to great lengths to incorporate children books in the reading promotions. Thus, I will now discuss the reading promotions geared specifically towards children.

3.4.2. Reading Promotion for Children

The children’s tent was initiated because it was observed that during the fair, children would peruse through books with enthusiasm but where disappointed because the books were too expensive to buy. At the 1994 Pan African Children’s Book Fair a children’s library was established as part of the Book Fair. The books used were from CHISCI’s collection of children’s books and from donations sought from various Kenyan publishers. During the book fair, it was again noted that the corner library was perpetually filled to capacity each day. Seeing the success of the library corner, allowing children to read as part of the book fair activities was then incorporated. Bugembe (1996:1) explains that:

‘At the 1994 Pan–African Children’s Book Fair, the Marandora Children’s Library was set up as part of the book fair. The books used in the library were from CHISCI’s own modest collection of children’s books and from donations solicited from Kenyan Publishers. The enthusiasm from the children overwhelmed us, and
the little corner that was the library was filled to capacity every day. Encouraged by this response, we then decided that a facility to allow children to read should be part of the book fair ... the children’s reading tent was an innovative idea being experimented with by the Council for the promotion of Children’s Science Publications in Africa (CHISCI).

The interest in books demonstrated by the children is a clear indication that getting children to read at a young age will result in them acquiring the reading habit into adulthood. In my view, even if book are unaffordable alternative places to gain access to books must be set up like the children’s tent at the book fair in Kenya. Another significant place to obtain reading materials is libraries.

3.4.3. Libraries

The Kenyan government recognized the fact that delivering reading materials to the people could not be achieved simply by training authors and the various sectors involved in the publishing world. Therefore, in order to make books available to all Kenyans the government reckoned that this could be achieved by developing an efficient library system. Thus, the government continued supporting the Kenyan National Library Services. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:54) comment that ‘the Kenya National Library Services (KNLS) Board Act (Cap 225, Laws of Kenya) was created to promote the establishment of public libraries.’ The KNLS has established 16 fully fledged libraries around Kenya. The KNLS also supports two reading centres in Karatina and Laikipia. Reading centres
are resource centres whereby research, training, writing and other reading related activities can be conducted. Whereby a library serves as place to read study and borrow books from. In addition, the Nairobi City Council also runs a public library in Nairobi which has also not developed meaningfully due to the inability of purchasing any titles regularly due to financial constraints. Nevertheless, the KNLS provides free service for its users but the Nairobi City Council libraries charge for their services. Unfortunately, the main challenge encountered by the Kenyan libraries is their failure to keep up with the rate of development of the number of districts in Kenya. This automatically means that the majority of Kenyans (especially the rural based) are deprived of an opportunity to be exposed to libraries. Makotsi (1996:15) attributes the failure of the KNLS to service a bulk of the Kenyans, due to ‘mismanagement of public’s funds and the Ministry charged with the management of the KNLS has not supported it by providing adequate funds fro development ad purchase of books.’

In an effort to support libraries by training the librarians the East African Educational Programme (EAEP) launched a national library programme whose objective is to assist schools to develop their own libraries by providing them with books at sale prices, training the teachers in librarianship and assisting in the formation of these libraries. Further illustration of the Kenyan governments support of literacy, is the fact that the Kenyan government has removed the restrictions on the number of
books that school libraries can buy per subject. This means that as long as schools can afford the titles they have free reign to purchase as many as they want. I note that the EAEP’s willingness to train librarian’s ties in with Wafawarowa’s assertion under his reading sub-policy which includes training of librarians as crucial to book development and raising the literacy levels and strengthening the reading habit concurrently.

Another significant area linked to libraries but which is often overlooked is the recording of all published works. According to Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:45) ‘Bibliographic control is a process whereby an agency is set up, within the government to ensure a systematic recording of all books and other publications published within and outside its borders, about the country.’ Unfortunately, the bibliographic control in Kenya which is the responsibility of the Kenya National Library is unreliable due to lack of expertise and insufficient funds to operate the bibliographic control effectively. Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:107) state ‘many publishers have not adhered to regulations stipulated by the Books and Newspapers Act (Cap 225, Laws of Kenya) governing bibliographic control.’ Despite the Kenyan government’s support of the libraries, Kenya needs to create a book policy which will incorporate general books. Currently there only exists a textbook policy which was established in 1998, by the Ministry of Education jointly with the Human Resource Development Department.
Therefore, I will now proceed to focus the issue of the book policy in Kenya.

3.5. National Book Policy in Kenya

What is unfortunate is that Kenya has neither a comprehensive information nor book policy. Contrary to Wafawarowa’s (2001:11) statement that ‘Kenya has since developed a fully fledged national book policy.’ Shibanda (1993:4) differs by saying ‘Kenya does not yet have a clearly enunciated policy on book development. However, the country’s laws regarding copyright and trade in books indicate the importance which books are given …’ An anonymous writer (1999:5) in an article titled ‘Governments and National Book Development Policies’ explains ‘… Over the years a good understanding has existed among the larger actors in the book industry, in spite of the lack of a formal national book policy.’ The Kenya Publishers Association (KPA) has not been able to liaise with government regarding the development of the book industry and a book policy which would ensure that all book industry problems are highlighted because their influence has not been convincing enough as yet. I agree that a book policy would make the African book industry more efficient by guiding all stakeholders and actors, so they are clear on their various roles. Makotsi and Nyariki, (1997:33) clearly stipulate that ‘their survey deduced that the division between publishers and book
sellers in Kenya resulted from the lack of a clear book policy.’ In Kenya, the suggestion put forth has been that it is the book development council which would create the national book policy as well as perform various other duties. According to Nyariki and Makotsi (1997:38) ‘Kenya registered its Book Development Council in 1980.’ On the other hand Reece (1995:21) stipulates that ‘the Kenyan Book Development Council was established in 1982.’ Makotsi and Nyariki (1997:38) outline the book council’s function as:

‘A book development council would oversee the development of the publishing industry and ensure that school and public libraries, book distribution centres and bookshops are set up all over the country. Such a body would have to be instituted by publishers and booksellers, as well as relevant actors, while receiving maximum support from government.’

What is described by Makotsi and Nyariki again tallies with Wafawarowa’s theory that government should remain neutral and be there for any sector in the book industry. Furthermore, the scholars comment on a book council’s role is that of overseeing the development of the publishing activities as well as creating and implementing a national book policy. This makes me reinforce my stance that in agreement with Wafawarowa’s theory both a book council and national book policy would be ideal book development strategies to witness an expanding, efficient and sustainable book industry. One cannot disregard the marketing and
distribution of books is a commodity in Kenya because they are key to the success of the industry. So I will now pay attention to this area.

3.6. Book Marketing and Distribution in Kenya

In 1994 a study conducted by Nyariki and Makotsi (1995:10) found that;

‘There are 72 major publishers in Kenya who publish close to 350 titles a year. There are about 600 active bookshops spread throughout the country with five major distributors. More encouraging is the fact that Kenyan publishers are continuously seeking to improve the performance of the industry. This can be evidenced in the various lobby groups that have been set up within the last few years, the numerous forums, seminars and workshops.’

Indeed the picture painted by the study conducted in 1994 is rosy in that six hundred bookshops were reported to be in existence. However, a contradiction in the number of bookshops is noted because an anonymous commentator (1993:4) in an article titled ‘Review of the Publishing and Book Trade in Kenya’ says ‘between 1993 up to 1996, the Kenyan Booksellers and Stationers Associations recorded approximately 400 bookshops within the country.’ There were generally some weaknesses noted in these bookshops and the first problem was that fact that the book shops had a tendency of stocking books seasonally. The books were supplied for at the beginning of the school year and gradually fade until the Christmas season. Thus, bookselling in Kenya has become
a seasonal business, lasting from December to March. Kenyan bookshops also had to deal with a problem of dead stock which is caused by dumping of rejected books as a result of misprints, inappropriate publishing choices, sudden price adjustments, stocking of expensive imported books, stocking of outdated titles, lack of trained personnel and of adequate marketing and promotion of the books. Currently, booksellers in Kenya do not spend money on promotion. Instead they rely on the limited number of customers to trickle in to their shops. Consequently, this results in their businesses not being sustainable. As is the case in Swaziland, as an alternative means of sustaining the business the bookshops also sell stationary and hardware. A second problem stemmed from the booksellers lack of book trade knowledge. This resulted in sales being slow and the businesses being run in an unprofessional manner.

To address these issues there exists the Kenyan Booksellers and Stationers Association (KBSA). Nyarike (2000:9) states ‘the Kenya Booksellers and Stationers was established in 1960.’ conducted seminars regularly with the aim of educating members on book trade, and this is definitely a positive gesture. I think it is commendable that the associations such as the Booksellers and Stationers Association did not disregard these problems, but ran workshops in order to educate the problematic issues faced by the Kenyan book trade.
An added hindrance to the distribution of books stems from the fact that many African publishers concentrated in urban centres. Booksellers complained that they are unable to get their books to where potential customers could see the books. In addition, due to the inadequate road and rail transportation the bookshops and libraries are limited in numbers and tend to feature predominantly in the urban area and yet a large percentage of Kenyans reside in the rural area. Nyariki and Makotsi (1995:11) comments:

‘The Kenyan publishers were expected to venture into the rural areas, but the market in these areas were restricted due poor infrastructure, high transport costs, low levels of literacy and low purchasing power due to the poor economic situation in the country. Again these problems can only be solved through capital injection.’

Bookshops also complained that since the majority of distributors are based in Nairobi they incur high transport costs which results in them making insignificant profit. As a solution some bookshops resorted to high mark-ups on prices in order to absorb some of these costs. This led to the books moving even more slowly. Wafawarowa, in his sub-policies correctly advises that this trend of marking up prices could be controlled if fixed price control was enforced when creating a national book policy. Inevitably, the Kenya Booksellers and Stationers Association were accused of not serving the members interests. Nyariki and Makotsi (1995:10) observe:
‘Booksellers complained that the profit was made due to various problems booksellers encountered such as books not selling rapidly and the high transport costs incurred to transport books from Nairobi ... the 86: of booksellers interviewed who are not members cited inefficiency as its major handicap.’

Another problem which emanates is the fact that private publishers tend to be disadvantaged because the government monopolizes the textbook market which is the only stable market. Due to the state directive which instructed that schools should only buy textbooks published by state publishers meant sales did not improve. Between the late 1970’s and the early 1980’s the Kenyan government monopolized the book industry by becoming the sole distributor of primary school textbooks. Then suddenly the Kenyan government discontinued this practice and by the end of 1997 the number of booksellers increased, thus book distribution improved. At the end of the day all the Kenyan book issues discussed have to be regulated by the book laws, one of which is the copyright act. I will proceed to review the Kenyan copyright Act and assess whether Wording’s comment is accurate.

3.7. Copyright

The first Kenyan Copyright Act was enacted in 1966. It was in 2001, after much consultation amongst governments and the various stakeholders in the Kenyan book industry that a new copyright act was passed and
enforced in February 2003. The Kenyan copyright act is summarized in an article written by an anonymous writer (2004:4) ‘Copyright Act 2001: A New Era for Copyright Protection in Kenya’ explains:

‘The copyright act provides for the establishment of the Kenya Copyright Board. The Board is in charge of the administration of all matters concerning copyright and related rights in Kenya. The Board took over duties of the copyright office. The main purpose of the board is to ensure that centralized public bodies will coordinate the overall administration and enforcement of the copyright and related rights in Kenya.’

The Kenyan copyright office had to be replaced because it was felt that it was inefficient in dealing with enforcing the copyright law. This inefficiency could be attributed to the shortage of personnel and, the lack of specific guidelines under the previous act explaining how the administration of copyright and related rights in Kenya should be implemented. Microsoft West East Central Africa Journalists (2005:1) quotes the Attorney General, Hon. Amos Wako as saying:

‘I am pleased to announce that the Copyright Board will no longer be tied directly into the attorney general’s office. This will give the Board more autonomy to hire its own inspectors and create a prosecution team that is well trained in intellectual property and copyright matters.’

The above quotation indicates that a significant change in the way the copyright board operated by being removed from being directly under the attorney general’s office. Therefore, I will briefly review the structure of the copyright board.
3.7.1. **Structure of the Copyright Board**

The board consists of a maximum of twenty persons nominated by the various copyright organizations in the country, government officials and copyright experts. The nominees from the private sector have to be nominated by their respective organizations, which need to be representative of their sector. Nominees had to be chosen by organization because this allows all the stakeholders in the industry to be involved in the administration and enforcement of their rights. A significant duty of the Kenya Copyright Board is also to appoint inspectors to ensure the correct administration and enforcement of copyright and related rights in Kenya. An anonymous author (2004:10) *‘The Copyright Act 2001: A New Era for Copyright Protection in Kenya’* explains that:

> ‘These inspectors have the power to enter into premises and search them, in case there is reasonable ground to believe that the premises are being used for purposes in the contravention of the Copyright Act. Section 42 grants the police and inspectors the power to arrest any person who is reasonably suspected of violating the provisions of this act.’

I note that the sub-policy for authors as mentioned by Wafawarowa addresses the protection of author’s intellectual property through a copyright act. A noteworthy deed occurred as recently as in March, 2005 whereby an article by an undisclosed writer from Microsoft West East Central Africa Journalists (2005:1) reported that:
‘The Kenya Copyright Board convened a workshop for the law enforcement authorities to highlight the negative economic impact of piracy, counterfeiting and copyright infringement in Kenya, as well as new efforts to fight these crimes. The workshop which was supported by Microsoft East Africa was targeted at officers from the Police Department, Kenya Revenue Authority Customs Department, the Department of Weights and Measures in the Ministry of Trade, Kenya Intellectual Property Institute and the Kenya Bureau of Standards.’

The report is commendable because even workshops were held so as to raise the awareness to the copyright related organizations. Emphasis was put on the importance of not infringing copyright because it is a serious offence which can result in serious legal implications.

I will now highlight what is entailed in the Kenyan copyright act. Copyright duration like in most countries in Kenya is protected for the life of the author, plus fifty years. In terms of the economic rights the authors have exclusive control of the reproduction of their works, including translation and adaptations of original work in any material form. The initial ownership of copyright belongs to the creator of the work. However, if the work has been created during the course of the author’s employment or the author has been commissioned to create the work, the initial copyright, unless otherwise agreed, remains with the employer respectively, or with the person who has commissioned the work. There also exist the Anton Pillar Orders. This order allows the copyright owner, when he has evidence of an infringement of his copyright to get orders from the court to enter into the premises where the infringement material
is located and to confiscate the same in order to avoid further infringement and to preserve evidence. An unknown writer (2005:9) in an article titled ‘The Copyright Act 2001: A New Era for Copyright Protection in Kenya’ stipulates that:

‘offences under the Copyright Act include the sale and rental of infringing copies, the distribution of the copies, the making of infringing copies for distribution, sale or rental, the commercial reproduction of infringing works, the importation of infringing works and the making or the possession of a device that is known to reproduce infringing material, except in cases where the accused can prove that he acted in good faith. This Act imposes heavy fines for this penalty, such as 10,000 US dollars or a maximum custodial sentence of ten years or both.’

According to International Intellectual Property Alliance (2004:513) who supports the new act:

‘... the 2001 Copyright Act is definitely a step in the right direction. Yet the success of the law can only be seen if it is effectively enforced; a good law without the proper enforcement is of no use to those it seeks to protect. Along with the new law, Kenya needs to have strong mechanisms to fight piracy, a well educated population on matters of copyright and related rights, strong and efficient collective management societies and a functional administrative infrastructure’.

Indeed awareness and complete understanding of the copyright act is of utmost importance because it is the initial step towards decreasing instances whereby copyright has been infringed and legal action has to be taken. Also cases of piracy and illegal photocopying which is a serious impediment to the book industry would be avoided.
What I found significant in the case study of the Kenyan book industry is that multinationals initially infiltrated the Kenyan book industry on a part-time basis and merely appointed resident representatives. Eventually, the multinationals became permanent before becoming indigenized which meant these foreign publishing houses then became local. Localizing the book industry presented local publishers with an opportunity to sharpen their publishing skills and manage the publishing houses themselves. The experience of owning the local publishing houses empowered the stakeholders in the Kenyan book industry, which may explain why the Kenyan book industry has advanced quite significantly, as opposed to the Swaziland book industry, which is basically composed with the Macmillan, government partnership and is limited predominantly to textbooks. Even the books written by local authors, which qualify for general reading ends up being used as prescribed school literature books. Furthermore, Kenya has instigated a number of developments to promote book development.

The developments witnessed in Kenya’s Copyright Decree include the appointment of the copyright board and the inspectors which are an indication of how seriously; the enforcement of copyright issues is taken. The Kenyan copyright act is designed in a way which enables infringement of the act to be dealt with promptly and efficiently. In addition, the reading promotions initiated are numerous and supported by all sectors of society e.g. from Ministries, to other book related
associations or organisations. In Kenya, science books which are often neglected because science books are perceived as difficult and uninteresting are promoted prominently. In addition, the numerous associations which trained authors and those working in the book industry are commendable. The fact that there are courses offered at University level and other tertiary institutions is a clear indication that the book industry in Kenya has progressed and is being taken professionally. The end result will be better understanding of the book industry and quality products being produced.

With regards to marketing and distribution, in Kenya, like in most of Africa and Nigeria the majority is faced with the challenge of lack of capital for distribution and general marketing. Needless, to say this hampers the Kenyan book industry’s progress in that books do not get to the majority of the people. Also due to the lack of marketing, the awareness of book titles is low which means the sales are never significant. In Kenya, the fact that bookshops are established and located in the urban areas is not assisting the expansion of the book industry because automatically the rural folk are cut off from developing an interest in books, and consequently purchasing them. Probably, the reason bookshops are not in the rural areas is because rural life is mostly comprised of agriculture which depending on the season is not always profitable. Also related to marketing is the issue of the various book
industry associations not market themselves adequately, so the target market e.g. authors, readers, bookshops, libraries etc are never informed of their existence or of the opportunities offered by the book industry.
CHAPTER 4: The Nigeria Case Study

4.1. Introduction

Nigeria has a flourishing book industry. I say this because like Kenya, Nigeria has produced well renowned international writers such as Chinua Achebe who has published popular titles, like ‘Anthills of the Savannah’ and ‘Thing’s Fall Apart’ which has ranked as number one globally. Therefore, my using Nigeria as my second case study country, enables me to compare the Nigerian and Kenyan book industries, and comprehend and adapt some of their ideas which will assist in the development of other African book industries, specifically, Swaziland to expand her book industry. Further justification as to why I chose Nigeria as an example of having a thriving book industry is provided by Ike (2004:1) who describes Nigeria’s book publishing industry as having ’vibrant book publishing houses with perhaps the largest number of publishing houses in any African country.’ Ojeniyi (2002:4) notes that ‘Nigeria has the largest commercial publishing in Africa. This is connected with the growth in population and book needs in the country.’ As a starting point of my investigation I will present an overview of the Nigerian book industry.
4.2. Historical Overview of Nigerian Publishing Industry

Nwankwo (1992:151) comments on the size of the Nigerian population as follows:

‘... Nigeria’s projected population of 110 million is twenty five percent of the total African continental population of 412 million ... in 1993, Nigeria had 359,701 primary schools, thus making it the largest primary school system in the continent ... In 1984, Nigeria published 1,836 titles. No other African country came close to producing 1000 books ... With a large population and huge resource base, the prospects for full scale publishing are very good’.

There is however some challenges which hindered the development of the Nigerian book industry. Nwankwo (1992:151) summarized these obstacles as ‘the inhibitive factors of low literacy rate, a variety of mother tongues, and a non indigenous national language and a stiflingly UN caring bureaucracy ...’ Thus, despite what should have been a significantly prosperous book industry, the factors cited above hampered progress in Nigerian publishing.

In Nigeria, western education was introduced into a context of existing educational systems. Nwankwo (1992:152) notes:

‘Though formal education is mistakenly thought to have been introduced in Nigeria by the colonial government, there is abundant evidence of formal training in the professions and crafts long before the advent of colonialism. Western education, with its emphasis on the writing culture came at the instance of the colonial regimes.’
In 1842 the first school in Nigeria was set up by the Wesleyan Methodist Mission. Needless to say other missions followed suit and took the opportunity to establish their own schools throughout Nigeria. Initially, the missionaries focused on primary education, which later progressed to secondary school level. Even though the trend during pre-independence in Africa was that as initiators of schools (education), the missionaries generally produced textbooks, in Nigeria missionaries discouraged the local production of schoolbooks as a business, which inevitably contributed to a limited amount of local textbook production. Nwankwo (1992:152) comments ‘The missionaries’ initially emphasized primary education, which was later expanded to secondary. Being pioneers in the educational enterprise, they did not encourage the local production of textbooks, thus laying a foundation for the low level of local textbook production today.’ meant quality books had to be sought overseas from British multinationals such as Longman, Heinemann, Macmillan, and Nelson who supplied to Nigeria the necessary books and gradually entrenched themselves in the Nigerian book industry. Understandably the foreign publishers were only too happy to oblige the Nigerian book industry by supplying textbooks from their countries of origin because it meant profit would be made in the readily available Nigerian market. Nwankwo (1992:152) explains:

‘Publishing started in Nigeria as an offshoot activity of British publishing, with emphasis on the distribution of British published works. This developed first
into the formation of marketing outposts of foreign publishers and later into local subsidiaries of foreign based publishing companies.’

Bearing the above insight in mind, I will proceed to delve into how multinationals featured in the Nigerian book industry after they had established their local publishing houses in Nigeria and how the governments responded to Nigeria’s book requirements.

4.2.1. The Role of the Nigerian Government in the Publishing Industry and Foreign Publishers/Multinationals

When Nigeria gained her independence in 1960 the Nigerian government controlled primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education. The Nigerian government decided to participate actively in the book industry as it recognised that the book industry is the base for education. Emphasis made by the Nigerian government was that local resources to produce textbooks should be fully utilized and she encouraged the adaptation of foreign materials to be used locally. Lawal–Solarin (1997:10) observes that:

‘The role of the government as it affects the publishing industry in Nigeria so far has not advanced the business of book production, rather it has deterred the steady growth of the publishing industry and its ability to provide affordable textbooks for the growing population of school children in primary and secondary schools, including students in tertiary institutions.’

When the Nigerian government changed the trend formerly applied by the missionaries of discouraging local production of textbooks and instead
wanted to localise the production of textbooks it meant that foreign publishers such as Longman, Macmillan, Evans, Heinemann, University Press and Nelson’s influence in the Nigerian book industry decreased.

4.2.2. Printing

After 1960, the first published materials produced were primarily religious, government publications and textbooks. However, since stakeholders in Nigeria’s book industry were still new at handling their own publishing, the majority of books were imported and printing ended up being small scale. Nwankwo (1992:156) says:

‘Printing is the oldest arm of book publishing in Nigeria ... Seasonal production (of school texts just before the school year, and almanacs, etc, at festivals such as Christmas) dominates Nigerian printing. The production capacity available can service over 50 percent of the total needs of the country.’

If production capacity only services fifty percent of the total needs of the country it means printing was indeed limited. An anonymous commentator (1994:6) ‘Nigeria – Country Report’ observes:

‘there are problems in the capacity of printers to meet the vast and yearly-increasing demand for books in the country ... If all the good printers in this country were to be involved in the printing of these books, they would be kept busy all year round. The fact of the matter is that the Nigerian printers can meet only some 40 per cent of this need. Most printers in Nigeria shy away from book production. It is tedious, it is cumbersome, it is more technically complex, it is less profitable, it takes too much time.’
An additional concern raised is that the Nigerian government who is supposed to be a key supporter of all industries in the country had no policy which would assist the printing sector to operate smoothly. Lawal-Solarin (1997:11) notes:

‘Government has not made the provision and the production of affordable books its prime objective by removing prohibitive tariffs on printing inputs, especially paper which is the most expensive. Out of the three paper mills in Nigeria, only one is producing paper from imported pulp. The quantity of paper is below standard, and more expensive than imported newsprint.

Nonetheless, another printing problem raised by Nwankwo (1992:157) is:

‘There are very few binderies and binding is indisputably the main bottleneck in book production. The few existing are heavily overburdened. Equipment in use was acquired before the devaluation of the naira. Replacement of parts is problematic, and maintenance is anything but routine. The resulting frequent breakdowns cause considerable disruption of delivery schedules, particularly at the peak of high season.’

In light of the picture painted in the above quotation, I note that if Wafawarowa’s suggested sub-policy under printing and production sector was incorporated into a national book policy there may be a better chance of access to finance quality machinery. Also, regular training would guarantee that the printing machines were operated correctly thus making the work less tedious. In addition, I note that even though printing in Nigeria began in a small scale way and had its challenges the printing sector was taken seriously enough for an association to be formed specifically to address the printing needs in Nigeria. The
Association of Nigerian Printers and the Nigerian Booksellers Association were created to both oversee and attend to printers and bookseller’s needs as well as to regulate the selling and buying prices. The fact that the Printing and Booksellers association addressed problems related to printing and book outlets ties in with Wafawarowa’s suggestion expressed in chapter two, under his sub-policy for printing which advises that a national book policy would ensure that issues such as fixed prices would be adhered to.

Furthermore, the problems presented by Nwankwo pertaining to printing in Nigeria’s book industry, make me concur with Wafawarowa’s suggestion which was mentioned in the literature review and advocates that African book industries should work together as a region. For example, in the case study of Kenya it is said that Kenya has impressive printing facilities. Therefore, if book industries worked regionally as Wafawarowa suggests, Kenya could assist Nigeria by printing for her without having to resort to printing overseas which is expensive. Chakava (1993:9) comments ‘Some countries e.g. Kenya … have sufficient printing capacity within their private and public sectors which should be able to export to neighbouring countries.’ However, because African book industries fail to work together, Wafawarowa (2000:15) highlights the fact that ‘it is easier to trade in books with Europe than with neighbouring
countries due to trade tariffs, currency value discrepancies and infrastructural problems.’

4.2.3. Indigenization

In 1978, a significant development occurred in the Nigerian book industry when the Nigerian Enterprises Promotion Decree was effected. Nwankwo (1992:154) explains ‘The indigenization policy of 1973 transferred 60 percent equity ownership of the multinational subsidiaries into local hands and that at least sixty percent equity participation in book publishing must be by Nigerian nationals.’ Further proof of the indigenization of Nigeria’s book industry is raised by Ike (2004:1) who highlights that:

‘The 1978 Nigerian Enterprises Promotion Decree provided that at least 60% equity participation in book publishing must be Nigerian nationals. With effect from that year [1978], book publishing in Nigeria became indigenous, making it unnecessary to distinguish any longer between indigenous and foreign publishing in the country.’

Needless to say the indigenization laws had an effect on the foreign publishers. For instance, the multinationals e.g. OUP, Longman, Heinemann, Evans who had dominated the Nigerian book industry before, after indigenisation laws were introduced only held approximately forty percent equity participation which meant that the production of books was now the responsibility of the African book industry. An encouraging sign which indicates that the Nigerian book industry managed to continue
producing books after the indigenisation of the book industry from multinationals to local publishers is highlighted by, Nwankwo (1992:156) who observes that ‘Nigeria has achieved 100 per cent authorship, at primary school level and at least 80 percent at secondary level. There is a very strong tradition in fiction and drama.’

Having discussed Nigeria’s printing sector and the indigenisation of the Nigerian book industry; I now proceed to review textbook publishing in Nigeria. As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, Nigeria is said to have a low literacy rate which undoubtedly hampers the book industry, as literacy is fed by books. Therefore, in the upcoming section, I will review the Nigerian education system and how literacy is developed.

4.2.4. Textbook Publishing

The Nigerian illiteracy rate is high. Nwankwo (1992:159) comments:

‘Illiteracy is high (73%), readership is low. To compound matters, even among literate Nigerians, the habit of reading for pleasure is minimal. What it all means is that the rate of sale is low and turnover of deployable capital is poor, forcing the publisher to be conservative and cautious in the quantity of books he prints. Low prints runs of course result in higher unit cost.’

The fact that educational policies are strongly influenced by politics means that the textbook demand and distribution affects the development of publishing in Nigeria. Nigeria is divided into regions and
each region pursued their own educational policy. Nwankwo (1992:152) ‘describes how the education system operates in the various regions:

‘In the former Eastern Region most primary and post primary schools were run by Christian religious agencies, so given the fact of the wide spread of Christian religion in the region, it had the largest proportion of school children in education ... The Western region was making good earnings from cocoa, and under the social welfares philosophy of the then premier, the late Obafemi Awolowo who introduced the free primary education scheme in 1955. In the North, the Islamic education was conducted in Arabic and the western education was received with little enthusiasm. The result was that at independence, the civil service and the officer corps in the civil and military services was dominated by people from the South.’

From reading the above quotation, it comes as no surprise that the various education systems practiced, produced different patterns of acquisition and distribution of books. Nwankwo (1992:52) again gives examples of what happened:

‘For instance, the Western government supplied English and Mathematics books free of charge to pupils of classes 1 and 2. In the East, parent purchase was the main practice except in the few government primary and secondary schools, where books were supplied free of charge though ownership remained with the school. In the North, the government was anxious to attract and keep children in school. Not only were fees free, books were supplied.’

The Nigerian government was responsible for the curriculum and local writers prepared manuscripts by either being requested (commissioned) or submitting a manuscript via a publisher. However, the Nigerian Government then began to face a problem of shortage of books, due to a variety of reasons. One, the fact that there were numerous education
policy changes from the time Nigeria gained her independence in 1960, contributed to the scarcity of books in Nigeria. Lawal-Solarin (1997:10) comments ‘Right from independence, publishers have had to contend with so many policy changes in education curricular changes, etc … this has not helped planning in the provision of books.’ Inevitably these changes to the curricular disrupted not only the practitioners, but the publishers as well. With the sudden changes to either policies or curriculum, publishers were prevented from planning and producing the books required timeously.

From the scenario discussed regarding government’s random curriculum and policy changes I agree with Wafawarowa’s point, which emphasizes how the government should remain a neutral party who simply coordinates the publishing activities, so as to avoid any bias, conflict and monopoly of the book industry. During our interview (B. Wafawarowa (Personal communication, April, 2006) explained the government’s role in the book industry ‘Governments role which would not be necessary if we were dealing with developed economies, is an enabling partner and neutral coordinator of synergy between the various sub-sectors. It is also the disburser of funds.’ Further justification as to why government should remain a neutral party is demonstrated in the Nigerian book industry whereby state governments deviated by embarking on private bulky purchasing of books from publishers for free supply to the schools.
Because government is the main disburser, when she cannot pay for the work done it means that publishers' business suffers, thus hindering progress in book production. In this case the Nigerian government lacked sufficient capital to pay for the books ordered which resulted in many publishers not being paid, thus putting the majority of publishers into debt with their banks which limited their respective production capacities.

Another contributing factor to the lack of books in Nigeria resulted because a growth explosion of the education industry was experienced in Nigeria which meant book requirements for the education systems increased. Nwankwo (1992:154) comments that ‘The total primary and post primary pupil population rose from 3.04 million in 1960 to 14.6 million in 1987. Needless to say this increase in pupil numbers led to the decline in the availability of books, which began in 1982.’ Further evidence of the problem of the inadequate supply of books is commented upon by Ike (2004:1):

‘At one stage, prospects for the book industry in Nigeria appeared rosy. The Federal Government established paper and pulp making industries, and an elaborate plan was drawn up for achieving self-sufficiency in the production of books for the nursery/primary, secondary and tertiary tiers of education. Unfortunately all that or most of it collapsed following the nation’s economic downturn of the 1980s Book famine descended on Nigeria.’
The problem of the scarcity of book was further exacerbated by the fact that the average parent was unable to afford books which are considered an expense. Thus, piracy, photocopying and re-use occurred regularly. Another option for parents wanting to gain access to books is to use library books. However, library books are either vandalized or stolen and publishers are reluctant to publish books which will not be read or consumed rapidly enough to justify their investment.

When the Nigerian government encountered the problem of a shortage of books, the Nigerian Book Forum which is a body of professional associations in the book industry addressed the matter of the scarcity of books and called for joint action in matters affecting book development in Nigeria. Ike (2004:1) comments:

‘ ... the number of task forces, study groups conferences and committees set up to make recommendations on various facets of book production and on the educational system. Let me list some of these task forces, etc: 1983 Nigerian National Congress on Books, 1984 Task Force on the Scarcity of Books and Stationary, Nigerian Book Forum ... ’

Producing books is costly, which means that in most cases the profit is insignificant. Therefore, it is understandable that when the economy is weak, books tend to be considered a luxury, because food and a roof become priority. Nwankwo (1992:157) confirms this train of thought by noting ‘In a depressed economy books take an inferior rating in people’s
priority of needs, behind food, shelter and security. There is therefore little expandable income to purchase books.'

4.2.5. Academic Publishing

The problem of the shortage of books in Nigeria overlapped into the tertiary level of education. Nwankwo (1992:156) comments ‘At tertiary level, there is readily available authorship across most subjects, although probably 30 percent self-sufficiency has been achieved.’ Only a few university presses like University of Lagos Press are involved in small scale publishing. The reason for publishing at tertiary level being restricted to a limited size is pointed out by an anonymous writer (1994:10) ‘Nigeria – Country Report’ comments:

‘Is because there is a government policy to the effect that universities should not pass government subvention to their presses, but should run these presses as commercial enterprises … and yet it is common knowledge that publishing at the university level is not as viable as publishing at the lower levels of education. Besides, an under funded university can hardly provide the capital for a press or allow it the free hand to operate along business lines. In addition, to encourage university presses, there is a need for a more systematic subsidy scheme for tertiary level publishers. In Nigeria, the government and its agencies give generous subsidies to favoured publishers or authors during grand launches.’

Unless government revokes this policy of not allowing subsidy for tertiary books, the shortage of books will persist. It will also mean that book development is indeed working backwards in that importation of books will be continued and yet self-sufficiency is the ultimate goal.
4.2.6. Language

The national language policy states that during the foundation years pupils should be taught in the language of their immediate environment. Thereafter, at secondary level pupils are taught in English and one of the three indigenous languages: Igbo, Hausa and Yoruba. In light of the many language groups, it is understandable that, government has problems implementing a language policy. Nwankwo (1992: 156) explains:

‘A fair criticism of this policy is that it has not given the industry sufficient time to prepare for, and adjust to, the demands of this situation. Almost suddenly, a whole range of primary texts have to be translated into as many as 250 local languages. While some languages such as Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba are fairly well developed, the majority are still in ontological infancy.’

There are two hundred and fifty language groups in Nigeria and the majority of Nigerian books are published in English. Publishers prefer to publish in English and then translate according to the specific demand. National daily newspapers, magazines and the majority of textbooks are also published in English.

4.2.7. Training

Publishers in Nigeria do not specialize in a particular area but instead they became a jack of all trades which results in unprofessional books being produced. The production of shoddy books indicates that training
is important to ensure that quality books are produced. Ike (2004:2) points out that:

‘Book publishing in Nigeria is essentially a private sector affair. Because of the absence of pre-determined qualifications or conditions to be met, book publishing is one of the most unregulated industries in Nigeria. All you require to become a publisher is a signpost outside your office or residence.’

In agreement with the fact that Nigerian publishers were forced to become multi-skilled, Nwankwo (1992:157) describes the situation as follows:

‘Nigerian publishers are not only getting involved in typesetting but also have to run lithography, printing and binding outfits in order to be able to control their production schedules. This results in overstretching of capital and in the imposition of heavy operational and financial responsibilities on a limited management resource.’

Thus, in order to address the question of training, Nigeria relies on the African Publishers Network (APNET) and the annual workshops which are held in Zimbabwe for training publishing personnel. In addition, optional training is available both within and outside the publishing world. Nwankwo (1992:157) outlines the opportunities as follows:

‘Bilateral training arrangements between multinational corporations and their parent companies in England, and on the job training schemes provided sustenance to manpower development in the industry. The Yaba College of Technology now has a program in printing; a curriculum is about ready for a post-diploma course in general publishing at the Kaduna polytechnic ... all publishing skills are available and well developed, but economic hardships has
caused contraction and layoffs, and the pool of skilled manpower has declined as trained staff move to more lucrative areas of endeavour. Traditional relationships with overseas publishers, particularly with respect to indigenized arms of multinational outfits, provide opportunities for training and specialist supports. The main inhibitor here is the lack of funding in hard currency to pay for these services.'

In addition, some achievements of the Nigerian Publishers Association (still to be discussed in detail) cover numerous areas, one of which is training. Training courses were offered by the NPA and held from undisclosed premises for people involved in editorial, marketing, design, manufacturing and distribution. Support to conduct the training sessions came from resource personnel, mostly working within the NPA. There, then existed the Professional Training Committee of the NPA whose staff attends NPA–run courses. Members of the NPA paid close to nothing for attendance to the courses offers, but participants from non–member firms are required to pay slightly higher fees. In addition, trainers are trained and APNET sometimes sponsors such sessions. The NPA has also come up with intense training programmes for all categories of editors, production, staff, information and public relations officers. This offer to train is also extended to interested persons in the editing and publication of materials in their various co–operate organizations.

Overall, with the training offered in Nigeria, the book industry in Nigeria has developed professions cantered around the three dominant activities of the book industry and these are book creation (authorship), book
production (printing and publishing), and lastly, book distribution (bookselling and librarianship).

4.3. Publishing Associations in Nigeria

4.3.1. The Nigerian Book Foundation

With reference to the literature review (Chapter two) regarding book development councils, it is explained that one of the main objectives of a book council is to complement a national book policy by ensuring that a book policy is implemented. Technically, Nigeria has a Book Council which was established in the seventies but it remained non-functional. The reason for the book council’s failure to operate was explained by an anonymous author (1994:4) in ‘Nigeria–Country Reports’ says ‘the government did set up a Book Development Council in the 1970s, but denied it the enabling legislation to facilitate its work.’ Also confirming the non–functioning of the Book Council is confirmed by the founder of the NBF, Ike (2005:3) observes that:

‘Primarily through lack of will on the part of the Federal Government Nigeria has neither a National Book Policy nor a National Book Development Organization or Commission, During the year 2000, the Federal Ministry of education announced the establishment of a National Book Council and actually convened the inaugural meeting of the Council in Abuja on 15 September 2000. The Council has not functioned since.’
As a solution to neither having a book council nor book policy, in 1993 that the National Book Foundation which is a non–governmental organisation was formed to substitute, for the non–functional Book Development Council as a national book development organization. An anonymous commentator (1994:4) in ‘Nigeria–Country Reports’ describes the role of the NBF as:

‘Bringing together the major professional groups in the book industry, the relevant government ministries/agencies and non–governmental organizations. One of the most important roles of the Nigerian Book Foundation was that it acts as the clearing house for the collecting and disseminating of relevant, comprehensive data on book development in the country.’

Unfortunately due to lack of sufficient funds the NBF failed to implement many of their activities and this hindered their progress in terms of effectiveness. Furthermore, the NBF has a Board of Trustees whose responsibility is overseeing the policies, finances and physical assets of the Foundation. In addition, there is a National Advisory Council which serves as the Foundations professional sector and advises on things such as the NBF’s annual plan of action and activities such as the Nigerian International Book Fair and the Book Data Centre which according to an anonymous commenter (2006:3) in an article ‘Nigerian Book Foundation’:

‘... was founded in 1995 to serve as a data bank on related matters ... funded by Heinrich Ball Foundation of Germany, the NBF operated pilot reading promotions projects (1996 and 1997) and a three–year (1998–2000) programme to promote the reading habit among Nigerians.’
Similarly, there are numerous intervention initiatives which have been initiated by NGO’s and interested individuals. For example, the international donor intervention would render assistance by donating books. The NBF received a consignment of publishing reference books from international organisations such as British Council, which included books on editing, production, design and printing. These books helped in training and information service. Ike (2004:3) indicates that:

‘The Book Aid Nigeria (BAN) project aimed at receiving free donations of a wide range of new books for distribution to public, institutional community, and other libraries, organizations ad individuals, to facilitate access to books ... quoted British Council representatives as estimating the cost of books shipped to Nigeria at between one and two million. In recent years the United States of America has emerged as a major source of book donations for Nigeria, from book aid agencies. Church organizations, groups of Nigerians and individual donors ... foreign book donations help fill the yawning gaps in the publishing output of Nigerian publishing houses ... ‘

In addition to the meaningful work conducted by the NBF another admirable book development strategy employed by the book associations was a national awards scheme for book development which provided an opportunity for awards to be presented to authors. The awards were for recognition purposes and in order to promote awareness of the book industry so as to motivate citizens from all walks of life to write and publish. Incorporated in these awards as well are awards for both published and unpublished drama, prose and poetry. Examples of these awards include the Christopher Okigbo Prize and the Cadbury Nigeria
Prize. Nigeria also participated in international awards like Booker Prize and the Noma awards for Publishing in Africa. The aim of the awards is summarized accurately by an anonymous author (1994:13) ‘Nigeria–Country Report’ who observes:

‘The Nigerian Book Foundation has decided to institute a national awards scheme for book development over and above isolated initiatives, to demonstrate the centrality of the book to national development ... The Annual National Awards for Book Development were intended to promote indigenous book development through the recognition and reward of excellence ... By bringing the various awards less than one umbrella, the scheme also aims at fostering oneness of purpose among the diverse groups involved in book development.

Needless to say these awards were an event which required financial support and the NBF secured sponsorship. Methods applied in order to secure the finances are numerous, one of which is to appeal to sponsors for money which will be geared towards the actual awards ceremony. An achievement worth mentioning is a social aspect, which focuses on Nigerian women who have made a remarkable contribution to literature in Nigeria. To illustrate that women are contributing positively as writers the Nigerian publishing industry there are several organizations concerned with promoting women’s authorship. One organization for women is called ‘Women’s Writers of Nigeria.’ Also to be acknowledged is that the NBF was not the only book related association which was committed to seeing the Nigerian book industry thrive. Also in existence is the Nigerian Publishers Association which will be discussed next.
4.3.2. The Nigerian Publishers Association

According to Adesanya (1995:1) state that ‘The Nigerian Publishers Association was founded in 1963’. The date of establishment contradicts slightly because Ike (2004:2) says the ‘Nigerian Publishers association was established in 1965.’ Nonetheless, the pioneers of the NPA were a limited group of publishers who aspired to maintain a viable book industry which would contribute to Nigeria’s national development.

Membership of the association is voluntary and open to book publishing firms operating in Nigeria. Adesanya (1995:7) notes that:

‘there are currently some 65 member firms on the membership roll and this range from the larger firms with multi-national antecedents to the smaller, fully indigenous ones which make up the majority (nearly 90%) of our membership. … there are three times as many publishers who are not members of the NPA.’

A concern that both Ike (2004:2) and Adesanya (1995:6) acknowledge is that the bulk of the Nigerian publishers are not members of the NPA. Ike (2004:2) states ‘Membership in the association (currently 103) is not mandatory: there are probably more publishers outside than within the Association.’

The NPA publishes several publications. E.g. Bi-annual journal, The Publisher (a subscription journal) and the monthly Newsletter (which is free of charge has been printed since January 1995) and two new publications have been released, namely the Nigerian Books in Print and
*Book Publishing in Nigeria.* Furthermore, in collaboration with the Nigerian Book Foundation and the National Library of Nigeria, the NPA is working towards developing an education database for the book industry. The NPA has also entered into an agreement with the UK Voluntary Service Overseas via APNET who agreed to provide African publishers and professional book associations with skilled personnel. A significant development is quoted by an anonymous reviewer (1993:5) in an article entitled *‘Tackling textbook scarcity’* comments ‘India has entered into discussions with Nigerian authors and publishers in areas of co-publishing, co-authorship and translation.’

### 4.3.3. Nigerian Book League

The Nigerian Book League comprises stakeholders in the book industry. The stakeholders include authors, publishers, printers, libraries and readers. Lawal–Solarin (1997:11) explains ‘the NBL was set up so that key actors in the book industry could speak in one voice and influence government decisions and policies on book production, tariffs on printing inputs.’ The league did not compete against the other book related associations, but instead tried to unite the associations. However, the NBL does not appear to have been a success story because not one meeting was convened which demonstrates a lack of commitment.
Also set up was the Nigerian Book Fair Trust. The Nigerian Book Fair Trust is a coalition of the major stakeholders in the Nigerian book industry. The Book Fair Trust comprises the various book related organizations/associations to organise the book fair. Ike (2004:1) defines the main aim of the trust to be ‘to promote reading, educational, intellectual and technological development of the people.’

Nigeria has benefited from the activities philanthropist foundations which donate books regularly to schools and libraries. However, Nigeria is still to master the art of securing local companies to support the Nigerian publishing associations and not depend heavily on the foreign donors for books. What happens in Nigeria is that individual publishers or authors rely on connections to buy books. The publisher’s visit or phone foreign and local companies to get them to buy their books. Even government ministries are approached to purchase books by individual authors and publishers. This erratic system of securing orders is not recommended. An anonymous author (1994:13) in an article ‘Books scarcity’ notes:

‘Ideally what is required, is a more systematic and objective support of the flow of books, generally and not be limited, to the selective support of vanity publishers whose support ends up benefiting only a favoured group of authors and publishers and not the entire system.’

Again Wafawarowa’s theory that governments role is to facilitate and not to control comes to mind. If government remained neutral she would not
have individual publishers using bribery in order to buy favours. In addition, if the Book Council was functional, a national book policy would be in place to ensure the affordability and accessibility of books without the unhealthy competition which Wafawarowa discourages but is openly displayed by the different publishers in Nigeria.

4.4. The Reading Campaigns

Like in the rest of the African continent, there are complaints of low readership in Nigeria which is attributed to firstly, the low ability to read and write and secondly the absence of relevant reading materials for the majority of the Nigerian Population. Ike (1998:1) comments:

‘The truth is that at least 90% of the titles published in Nigeria every year are textbooks for pre-primary, primary and secondary schools. Little conscious effort is made by the government, publishers, or authors to ascertain and provide for the needs of the children, adolescents and adults of all ages and both sexes outside the formal education system.’

A contributing motivation to stimulate reading amongst Nigerians occurred between 1967–1970 when civil war literature became popular. Enticing books which Nigerians read more of were published at the end of colonial rule, when what became known as the Onitsha Market Literature (developed in the market town of Onitsha in Eastern Nigeria) was introduced. The literature was written in English which made the books more accessible to its target market which incorporated school learners, teachers, entrepreneurs and civil servants because the themes
explored related to the everyday lives of the readers. Consequently, the *Onitsha Market Literature* was consumed as rapidly as it was published. Such literature is ideal because it gets people interested enough to read, thus inculcating the reading habit.

To further motivate the reading habit the Federal Ministry of Information and Culture in 1994 instituted an annual award for reading promotion. Numerous state governments stepped in to encourage the reading campaign. To quote a few; The Plateau State Government, The Nigerian Book Foundation, The Association of Nigerian Authors and the Readers Association of Nigeria. The Nigerian Library Association was also established so as to help library growth which inevitably strengthens the book development process.

The National Library of Nigeria began a readership promotion campaign from 1981 to 1985. The reading campaign included various activities such as the National Reading Week which occurred in 15 states of the Federation and in 1984 a National Seminar on reading in Nigeria. It also included a wide distribution of a variety of promotion materials e.g. book markers, car stickers, calendars, memo pads etc. The Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC), another Federal Government agency also supported the promotion of reading by organizing a Young Readers Club (YRC) in every state of the federation.
An indication that the YRC was a welcomed initiative is that eventually 20 states launched the YRC. However, due to weak monitoring by June 1996, only six of the 20 were still functioning. In addition, a non-governmental organization called, the Children’s Literature Association of Nigeria (CLAN) focused on encouraging the appreciation of reading among children and providing appropriate reading materials for children. CLAN went so far as to include organizing workshops for writers and illustrators of children’s literature. Furthermore, other non-governmental organizations which have participated in reading promotions in Nigeria include the Readers Association of Nigeria (RAN), the Association of Nigerian Authors (ANA), the Network for Promotion of Reading (NEPREAD) established in 1997, and Women Writers of Nigeria (WRITA).

4.4.1. Annual National Book Week

From April, 1994, the Nigerian Book Foundation organized an annual National Book Week in order to raise the awareness on the importance of books in both the individual and national development. Ike (1998:1) explains that ‘The Heinrich-Boll-Stiftung of Cologne grant is to assist the Foundation to organize the Annual Book Week, to sensitize the nation to the importance of books, and to disseminate the results of the conference on book development.’ Nigeria’s first Annual National Book
Week was held in April 1994. Ike (1998:1) goes on to explain in detail that the national book week aims to:

‘... to set aside one week each year to sensitize the entire nation to the centrality of the book to national and individual development and survival. Two, to reinforce bonds between professionals, groups and agencies involved in book development–recommendations coming from the Book Foundation for the ensuing year. Three, to provide a venue for the announcement of the Annual National Awards for Book Development. Activities at the 1994 Book week included the National Library which organized exhibitions, films and lectures. The Nigerian Library Association scheduled its annual library week activities for this particular week and the Nigerian Copyright Council organized a Copyright Clinic. It was suggested that as from 1999, each reading promotion Unit will organize activities in its zone, to widen the impact of the week. Whether or not this occurred has not been ascertained.’

The NPA like NERDC (who focused on youth formulating youth reading clubs) through its member–firms has encouraged the formation of reading clubs in schools. They support the reading clubs by donating books and prizes. The criteria for membership is that members make a deposit of either two or four copies of each new book published by them at the branch of the National Library or in the State University Library all over Nigeria.

4.4.2. Children’s Book Day

The Nigeria Education research and Development Council has a programme geared specifically to write children’s books. It was during the annual National Book Week that a specific day was set aside for
children’s literature to be displayed. The children interacted with authors, publishers and printers and learned what it takes to write, publish and sell books. Ike (1998:1) comments that ‘The Ministries of Education, welcomed the idea of children’s Book Day but wanted it held nation-wide during the National Children’s week …’ Nigeria has taken the promotion and strengthening of reading to an elevated level, by extending awareness and initiating mobile reading centres.

4.4.3. Mobile Reading Centres

A popular activity of each Reading Promotion Unit is the organization of Mobile Reading Centres. Each centre includes the operation of a reading centre which is open to children and adults for three days a week. Each Reading Promotion Unit bought children’s books. In addition, in these mobile reading centres publishers and booksellers are encouraged to mount and display exhibition of books suitable for children to enable consumers e.g. Parents, children etc to know which books are in the market. Ike (1998:3) notes ‘A particular date is designated to work-shopping teachers, parents, local government personnel, community leaders and all interested parties to enlighten them on their role in promoting reading in their areas/communities.’ One cannot help but applaud an initiative such as the mobile reading centres. Making books readily accessible and concurrently including the whole community whole
in raising awareness about reading and its benefits is commendable. In fact, Nigeria did not end with working with communities, but continued to educate families as well about reading. A book for a family project was established. These projects were aimed at providing parents and family members with appropriate reading material and inculcate the reading habit. Unfortunately this programme did not take off because due to shortage of finances, it failed and was discontinued.

4.5. Marketing and Distribution

There is a lack of an effective distribution system in Nigeria. Private publishers found they had to multi–task by designing, printing and distributing the books themselves. Thereafter, at a specified time the government invites publishers to submit books for evaluation, selection and inclusion in the lists distributed to schools.

Bookshops are under–funded and do not have enough money to run the bookshop as a profitable business. Since most publishers survive on the sale of textbooks, the competition is stiff and underhanded tactics are often resorted to in order to make sales. It does not help that pirated books are offered at half the Publishers price so as to make a sale. As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the education system in
Nigeria differed according to what worked within each region. Nwankwo (1992:159) observes:

‘The state-purchase system is dominant in the North, while the parent purchase system is the major practice in the South. There are very few reliable distribution agents and bookshops, and publishers depend on their own teams to sell and distribute their books of general interest as well as put textbooks into the school systems.’

Undoubtedly, the additional problem of an uncertain market also hampered Nigeria’s marketing and distribution system. An anonymous writer (1997:11) in a ‘Country Report’ that:

‘There are so many variables that affect the sales of any particular book e.g. locality—North or South, South West or South East, urban or rural settling, number of private or publics schools, economic activities, depression or buoyancy that no publisher can say with a degree of certainty what the market share is of any published textbook.’

To confirm what was stated in the above-mentioned report, Nwankwo (1992:159) observes ‘it is almost impossible to determine with any degree of certainty the anticipated market of a proposed book. This is because marketing data are virtually nonexistent, distribution outlets are uncertain, and commercial infrastructure is grossly underdeveloped.’

One can deduce that the main method of distribution was probably the responsibility of the publisher. This means the publisher had to incur the costs to transport the books to the numerous destinations and the cost is
incorporated in the selling price of the book, resulting in the expensive books which are complained about repeatedly. Ike (2004:3) comments:

‘A handful of publishers have warehouses in different parts of the country, with their own fleet of distribution vehicles. Most publishers have no capacity to promote and sell their own books nationwide, drastically reducing the sale prospects of their books. Efforts by the Nigeria Book Foundation to bring about the emergence of a national book distribution operation have not yet materialized.’

In agreement with Ike, is an anonymous commentator (1995: IV) who in an article titled ‘Distribution’ comments:

‘In Nigeria the publisher reaches the consumer mainly through the retailers (bookshops, market stalls, street vendors, mobile book racks) and school teachers. The problem with this is that no publisher can adequately deal with the tens of thousands of retailers spread across the country. And given the small size of most retailers, most have little chance of getting books from distant publishers. Large publishers have regional warehouses which are in-house wholesalers. The weight of this extra administrative load on overhead and other infrastructural cost is of increasing concern to Nigerian publishers. Some major commercial publishers drift into wholesale transactions but there is still lacking a group of distributors with the experience and capital essential to the effective distribution and provision of books.’

4.6. Copyright

It is envisaged that Nigeria’s membership in the Berne Convention of Copyright may be a tentative solution to alleviate the scarcity of books in Nigeria. An anonymous commentator (1993:7) in an article ‘Tackling textbook scarcity’ says:
'With the signing of the treaty scarce textbooks hitherto imported with huge foreign exchange can now be reproduced at relatively cheaper prices and made easily available … Mr Moses Ekpo, the Director of the Nigerian Copyright Council, by making textbooks available to local students, the works of Nigerian authors would now be protected in all the 115 countries that are signatories to the convention, and therefore could now collect royalties being denied them as a result of the pirating of their works in foreign countries.'

Another significant legal requirement in any book industry is the legal deposits. Legal deposits are individual titles which have been published and registered in the bibliographic database for record purposes. Nwoga (2005:7) explains:

‘The National library Act (Decree 29) 1970 of Nigeria provides for the deposit of every published work to designated library institutions depending on the location of the publisher. This constitutes the registration of the published work and details go into the national bibliographic database of the country.’

In addition, Nigeria has developed her Copyright Decree (1999). The copyright Decree has been designed in a way which enables infringement of the act to be dealt with promptly. The copyright act looks at numerous aspects, but I shall focus on the sections which deal specifically with books (literary works). Supplement of Official Gazette Extraordinary (2005:20) defines ‘literary works’ as including, irrespective of literary quality, any of the following works; novels, stories and poetic works.’ The first noteworthy detail of the Copyright Act is that copyright applies to every literary work which is entitled for copyright and which is first
published in Nigeria. Two, a literary work/book can be covered by copyright even if the author infringed the work of someone else as long as the work used/infringed is acknowledged. Three, Copyright is granted on every work which the author or in the case of a work of joint authorship, are citizens of Nigeria.

The Nigerian copyright law includes the fact that, in the instance whereby authors use Pseudonyms, (an author who uses a fake name in published books) the copyright applies until the end of the expiration of seventy years from the end of the year in which the work was first published. In the case of joint authorship, a reference to the ‘death of the author’ is taken to refer to the death of the last author. In an instance whereby books/articles are written by employed persons e.g. by Curriculum Centre, newspaper, magazine etc or under a contract of service or apprenticeship, it is the employer who is regarded as the first owner of copyright of the produced published work. However, if the author is not employed and is writing in his/her individual capacity, the author is the first owner of the copyrighted work. Furthermore, the owner of a copyright has the right to claim authorship of his/her work, except when the work is included incidentally or accidentally when reporting current events by the media. However, according to Supplement of Official Gazette Extraordinary (1997:11):
'the copyright holder has the right to object and to prevent anyone else from utilizing the copyrighted work, especially if there are distortions, mutilations or other modifications or derogatory action in relation to his work, where such action would distort the copyright owners honour or reputation.'

The copyright stipulates that publishers, printers, producers or manufacturers of works in which copyright is applicable will keep a register of all works produced by them. The registered list is important for reference and record purposes. It also assists to know who to contact when permissions to use an extract from the copyrighted work needs to be sought.

Lastly, a significant development which occurred when the Nigerian copyright act was amended in 1997 was that the Nigerian copyright includes the appointment of Copyright inspectors. Supplement of Official Gazette Extraordinary (1997:1) describes these inspectors job as ‘all persons appointed to the service of the council as officers engaged in the duty of monitoring, reporting or enforcement of the provisions of the Copyright Act shall be designated as Copyright Inspectors.’

4.6.1. Anti-Piracy in Nigeria

Nwankwo (1995:5) comments:

‘In recent times it would seem that there is a growing realisation among African governments that far from contributing to national development, piracy detracts from it. Indeed, many African governments have signed either or both of the two major international rights agreement: The Berne Copyright Convention and the
Universal Copyright Convention (UCC). Nigeria, for example, acceded to the UCC in 1961 and to the Berne Convention recently.’

As mentioned earlier, the problem of piracy came up repeatedly due to the fact that the economic crises of the early 80’s which hit Nigeria meant books became scarce and books which were available were expensive. Thus, people resorted to illegal photocopying of the books and pirating of them. Nwankwo (1995:5) stipulates that;

‘at an emergency meeting of the Nigerian Publishers Association Chief Executives held in Lagos in August, 1995 to discuss the worsening book piracy situation in the country and the grave danger it poses to the Nigerian book publishing industry, the following decisions were taken:

• That a special three-member committee to be known as the NPA Intelligence Unit be set up.

• The NPA Intelligence Unit is charged with the responsibility of commissioning, coordinating and following through with the appropriate law enforcement agencies, field intelligence reports on major book piracy centres/activities around the country.

• The key objective of the unit will be the identification and relentless harassment of key pirate printers and booksellers. Litigation will follow. In that regard the Unit will concentrate on criminal action against apprehended pirates, whilst individual member-firms affected will be encouraged to pursue parallel civil litigation in respect of their own titles.’

The anti-piracy unit was expected to put out newspaper and radio announcements, warning the public at large and booksellers, printers, schools and teachers in particular about the illegality of book piracy and how anyone who dealt with piracy directly or indirectly would face legal charges. Nigerian publishers went further and co-opted assistance from
policemen in order to address the problem of piracy by conducting raids.

In a ‘Country report’ (1997:4) an anonymous reviewer comments that ‘the raid of pirate’s hideouts is now a daily feature …by a combined effort of publishers and police in order to destabilize the pirates by carting away printed books, and attempts at prosecution.’ An anonymous author (1995:5) in an article ‘Nigerian Publishers reinvigorate anti–piracy committee’ says ‘copyright enlightenment campaigns have continued countrywide.’ Furthermore, another article which demonstrates how seriously piracy was taken in the Nigerian publishing world Lawal–Solarin (1997:10) comments that:

‘The Executive Committee of the Nigerian Publishers Association (NPA) raised their strength of its Anti–Piracy Committee from five to nine. This was in response to the dictates of a year of successful anti piracy raids by the committee. In addition, the copyright enlightenment campaigns continued countrywide. The Nigerian Copyright Council (NCC) organized seminars for the anti–piracy committees of eight states. The NPA addressed a press conference on the consequences of piracy in November, 1994.’

Organisations such as the National Publishers Association (NPA) have demonstrated their dedication to eradicating piracy by providing manpower and financial resources to the anti–piracy activity. Adesanya (1995:7) comments ‘The Association, through the anti–piracy committee and with the collaboration of the Nigerian Copyright Council has taken the initiative in organizing a number of raids on suspected book piracy operations in parts of Nigeria.’ Nevertheless, the expensive cost of books did not mean the scarcity of books was a problem which should be
disregarded and the Nigerian Copyright Act tried to assist the accessibility of books.

Despite the economic hardships faced by the Nigerian as a whole, there are positive aspects to the Nigerian book industry. I use the phrase ‘positive aspects’ because at some point various governmental and non-governmental agencies have participated in promoting reading in Nigeria. This indicates that the Nigerian book development industry is a shared commitment which is supported by the various stakeholders and book related associations. In addition, praise worthy of Nigeria is the existence of the creation of fiction, drama and other works that could be classified as supplementary reading materials. Furthermore, a social aspect which is noteworthy is that women, have made a remarkable contribution to literature in Nigeria. The fact that there exists a women's association called ‘Women’s Writers of Nigeria’ is clear evidence of the strong impact women are making in the Nigerian publishing world as well. Granted recognition of Nigerian women writers could be attributed to Nigeria's large population, but credit has to be given to Nigeria for acknowledging and awarding women, who in most Africa societies are undermined, a chance to produce written literature as well.

Another commendable point is that various awards which are given to authors for their contributions are a positive incentive for the Nigerian
writers. The fact that there are awards for both published and unpublished manuscripts is also definitely motivating. Undoubtedly the authors are groomed and motivated by workshops and the awards provided.

Other achievements of the Nigerian book industry is the anti-piracy unit which was formed and went to great lengths to ensure that piracy is eradicated by setting up the unit which embarked on conducting raids on culprits who were dealt with legally and had their pirated materials confiscated. Also admirable is that children’s publishing is not neglected and this enables them to appreciate reading at a tender age. Despite the corruption and even poverty, they are definitely rich in terms of skills and knowledge with regards to publishing. Nigeria is a nation other African countries can learn a lot from with regards to this particular area of publishing. Yet, it is noteworthy to observe that Nigeria did not remain passive when they saw that the National Book Council was not active. In response to the book council’s inactivity, the Nigerian Book Foundation substituted the Council and performed the duties required from the Council rather than having no one attends to book issues.

The main problems of the Nigerian book industry can be summarized as first, the printing equipment, which was not of high standards and failed to adequately service the Nigerian book needs. Two, the shortage of
paper prevented the book industry from being able to produce enough books. Three, lack of training of the publishing personnel meant shoddy books were produced. Four, the linguistic problem which is exasperated by the lack of a clear language policy restricts publishers from being able to plan and provide books within good time. Lastly, the poor promotions and distribution of books also hindered the sales, which affected the profits in the Nigerian book industry.
5. CHAPTER 5: Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter I discuss the data collected from the case study countries, Kenya and Nigeria in Chapter three and four respectively. As a start, I relate an event which is a book development strategy and is referred to as World Book and Copyright Day. With the Swaziland book industry in mind the observations made at the WBD lead me to compare and comment on Kenya and Nigeria’s book industries and the book development strategies applied in each country so that recommendations presented at the end of this chapter are made.

On 7 April, 2006, Swaziland celebrated for the ninth year the World Book and Copyright day (WBD). The celebrations have been held annually since 1997. The WBD celebrations are organised and hosted by the Swaziland National Library which is under the Ministry of Education. The venue for this event alternates amongst the stipulated four regions: Hhohho, Shiselweni, Manzini and Lubombo.

I attended the event where it was apparent that it is mainly schools from that particular region which attend the celebrations, which automatically means that the vast majority of the Swazi nation is not part of the
celebrations. Various activities are prepared and presented by the schools and local drama groups. The activities include poems, songs, dancing (traditional and modern) and dramas. However, as enjoyable as the activities are, the bulk of the content has little or nothing to do with the promotion of reading. For most people, especially for the students the celebrations mean a time for fun which is fine, provided effects are made to adopt these activities to reaffirm and appreciate reading.

Another sore point for me was the lack of book displays at the event. The only book display was a Macmillan one and even then it was in such an obscure position, that one had to search for it in order to locate it. The audience had their backs turned away from that one display and paid little, if any attention to it. These observations made me realise profoundly that the weak reading habit needs to be addressed and that book development strategies need to be employed if there is to be any diversification, expansion and sustainability of the Swaziland book industry.

The case studies conducted on the Kenyan and Nigerian book industries told me that in order to address the lack of diverse reading materials besides educational books and the weak reading habit, effective book development strategies need to be applied. There is a dire need for Swaziland to increase the promotion of reading campaigns and do so
more aggressively. More sectors besides the educational and library sector need to participate in promoting reading. Currently, the only official organisation recognised as responsible for promoting reading is the Swaziland Reading Association, which needs support from the government and the stakeholders in the publishing industry in order to be effective.

The hosting of the International Reading Association Conference in November, 2005 referred to in Chapter one, is certainly a commendable start to recognising the importance of literacy in national development, but there is still a lot more work which needs to be put into the development of Swaziland’s book industry. As Wafawarowa recommends, the government should be seen as facilitating and supporting the book industry and not restrict itself to partnerships such as the Macmillan, government one which is renewable and exists to date. Furthermore, the sub-policies drafted for consideration by Wafawarowa in the literature review chapter (Chapter 2) is a concrete template to refer to when drafting a national book policy or establishing a Book Councils which will ensure that whenever the book policy is created it will be implemented through appropriate evaluation and monitoring mechanisms.

With these few comments regarding the Swaziland situation, I then focused on comparing and commenting on the Kenyan and Nigerian
publishing industries and the book development strategies employed in the chosen two case study countries respectively. Thereafter, I make recommendations which will assist other African countries (specifically Swaziland) to form a national book policy as the main book development strategy which will operate as a guideline towards the desired diversity, expansion and sustainability of the book industry in the country.

5.2. A Comparison of Similarities and Differences of National Book Development Strategies used in the Kenya and Nigeria Book Industries

Similarities to note in the Kenya and Nigeria’s book industries is that both countries experience what is normal in the majority of Africa which is the problem of textbooks being the dominant books published. Due to the fact that textbooks are a guaranteed market many publishers are reluctant to go into publishing general books which are perceived as an uncertain market. An unknown writer (1997:12) ‘Overcoming Barriers to the East African Book Trade’ eloquently comments ‘If power abhors a vacuum, business abhors uncertainty.’

In addition, both countries have managed to develop and produce internationally recognised authors who produce supplementary reading material. Recognising the fact that producing supplementary reading
materials by providing follow-up reading material to prevent the newly-literate slipping back into illiteracy, is acknowledged by the Kenyan and Nigerian book industries and it is commendable. Furthermore, both countries have large population figures and this translates into large print runs for publishers, which interpreted means cheaper books. Therefore, in order for Kenya and Nigeria to have reached a point whereby they have produced titles read and sold globally, they have had to apply some book development strategies.

One strategy which ensured effective book development, in both Kenya and Nigeria is the aggressive reading promotion campaigns. Numerous organizations related to book development supported reading promotions. Promoting reading amongst children and the importance of getting children to read at an early age was not neglected. It has been said that getting children in the habit of reading when they are young ensures a strong reading habit will be developed well into and beyond adulthood. I fully support the notion that reading habits need to be instilled as early as possible in anyone’s life. Conference participants at the Mc Lean and Zell (1973:29) validate this notion by stating that:

‘Good reading habits need to be inculcated in the home at an impressionable age. All parents should make a habit of giving books as gifts to their children. Schools should play their part by providing libraries that are well stocked with books that can be read for pleasure.’
An unidentified author (1997:4) ‘Reading Children in Africa’ also agrees and comments that:

‘it is important for the future culture of developing countries to ensure that children develop reading skills and carry them through into later life so that they have the necessary abilities to assist their own country in developing a valuable publishing industry.’

The promotion of reading campaigns incorporated both adults and children. Nigeria had a book week whereby reading was encouraged. Within this week a specific day was set aside for children, who got an opportunity to interact with authors and see children’s literature. Kenya initiated the children’s tent which presented a chance for children to read and appreciate books. The advice given by Wafawarowa that national realisation about the importance of books should begin from the top level down to the grass-root is being practiced. Both countries involve leadership in the book sector activities e.g. Ministry of Education demonstrates the national participation recommended as an extension of book development strategies to get any nation to appreciate reading.

Another book development strategy, both Kenya and Nigeria implemented is introducing a bibliography lists. Both countries realise the importance of the bibliography list. A bibliography list is comprised of each title published. The list is an important literary tool, compiled so as to give an indication of how culturally oriented people of any country are.
Ignorance of the bibliography list has led to the exercise not being done efficiently in many countries, Swaziland inclusive.

The fact that Kenya and Nigeria have reviewed and updated their copyright acts is a valid book development strategy. Unlike, Swaziland who still depends on the Copyright Act from 1956, Kenya and Nigeria updated their copyright act to incorporate appointed inspectors to deal specifically with Copyright issues. The Inspectors’ appointment is definitely a positive reinforcement about eradicating infringement of copyright and to raise awareness on how serious an offence infringing copyright is.

Seeking sponsorship is another book development strategy which Nigeria applied and subsequently received donations from as far as the USA. The books requested and received were in quantity. These books were helpful in that they become information resources. In addition, in Nigeria the admirable awards ceremony which motivated and encouraged writers, depended on securing sponsorship money. These awards motivated authors enough to inspire them to write books which were varied and not textbooks. Kenya’s book industry was also privileged by being a pilot country for the Dag Hammarskjold Foundation loan scheme, which in the absence of a national book policy facilitated rather than constrained the
Kenyan book sector, by offering money to help indigenous publishing houses to expand.

In Nigeria, distribution of books was tackled by utilising mobile libraries. Mobile libraries enable closer contact with the masses and children get to know more about writing and reading within the communities by spending time at the mobile library. Thus, mobile libraries can be viewed as a book development strategy as well. Furthermore, even though it is said that the family project failed to take off in Nigeria due to lack of money, the concept is a good one. If the whole family becomes a reading family it would be a great achievement because more books would be bought for the numerous family members.

Training in the various areas of publishing is a book development strategy in that, training in the specialised areas would make sure that the end product is of a high standard. If the books look professional, they are more attractive and bought more frequently. Furthermore, the publishing of publications by the Nigerian Publishers Association is a useful strategy in book development because the publications are informative in that they keep the public updated on the association’s activities. This brings to the fore front the sad fact that Swaziland does not offer any publishing course at any level and does not even have Journalism courses offered locally.
Book fairs are another book development strategy both Kenya and Nigeria utilised to the advantage of their publishing industries. The book fairs allowed communication between stakeholders and consumers of books by providing a platform whereby there was less secrecy and competition but more sharing of ideas and displaying of titles written and published from their respective countries. For example, if a Swazi book was displayed at a book fair and a publishing house from Tanzania wanted to order it, the book fair is where negotiations and deals pertaining number of copies, and copyright issues would be discussed. In addition, authors are promoted at book fairs as well.

A last significant book development strategy which both Kenya and Nigeria applied is the indigenization of the book industry. When the operations of the publishing industry was left to the local publishers, it enabled an opportunity for local publishers to learn and manage their own industry in a context African publishers related better to, thus enabling the production of not only relevant but enticing reading materials which diverts from the textbooks. The indigenisation of the book industry ties in with my rationale which envisaged that with more relevant books being produced the existing readers and school leavers will want to buy more books and read for leisure, thus strengthening the weak reading habit.
5.3. Overall Analysis

This thesis has explored what is entailed in the book development process in Anglophone Africa. The issues discussed assist towards comprehending the history of how publishing began in Africa and how book development has progressed over the years. The book development strategies discussed and to be recommended are one way of ensuring that the book industry in Africa not only becomes established, but that it grows from strength to strength. A country without knowledge remains stagnant in terms of development thus ending up facing poverty. Information is necessary in order to see progress. Admittedly the national book policy is by no means the guaranteed solution, but it is a good starting point for any book industry to have one. With modernism infiltrating Africa, books need to retain culture through indigenous publishing. Recognition of the value of books by the leadership in Africa will undoubtedly elevate publishing and book development as a priority area which yields positive results in the long run.

With reference to Chapter two, which is the literature review and from the above comments on the book development strategies of the case study countries, one can deduce that what veterans in the book development field such as Wafawarowa, Makotsi and Nyariki suggest regarding national book policy and/or national book councils being the crucial coordination mechanism between the numerous publishing sectors is
accurate. Wafawarowa’s theory and Nyariki and Makotsi’s study (1994) which stipulates that a book policy is necessary to coordinate or link the various book sectors that should work as a unit and not be antagonistic towards each other if progress is to be witnessed in the book industry. Noteworthy is also the fact that the government is advised to fully support and not be sidelined, but act as the glue which will keep the numerous sectors together.

As mentioned by Wafawarowa, government’s role should be to create a balance in and support the book industry and not monopolize it. If government did not monopolize the book industry, different publishers would be allowed the opportunity to submit different types of books instead of having to adhere to governments specific requirements. Favours (bribery) for the Ministry/government officials by publishers who want to get their books included in the government’s perscribed list would be avoided as well. A national book policy and/or a national book council as a main book development strategy should be endorsed and implemented if the expansion, diversity and sustainability of the African book development industry is to occur. Nevertheless, the recommended solution in the form of numerous book development strategies which will expand and sustain the African book industry is treated in the following section.
5.4. Recommendations:

- A national book policy must be created. The lack of a book policy for any country is a serious impediment to the development of a viable book industry. A book policy would act as a law which would guide, advice, and co-ordinate and regulate the activities of the industry which would result in an efficient book industry being created. In addition, an efficient book industry would make books affordable and accessible as UNESCO and Wafawarowa prescribe.

- A National Book Council is a recommended book development strategy because book councils will include representation from government; stakeholders in the publishing industry like libraries, booksellers, readers etc who are meant to produce a national book policy and oversee the book industries activities.

- Government must be the facilitator for coordinating the national book policy with other policies in the related fields of education, language, information and media and communication, culture and technology. A facilitator in the development of national book policies entails government being a resource of ideas, an advisor, a manager and a provider of initial capital to set up the book related business, as well as being the key link between the book sector.
• Libraries must be marketed aggressively because it is book development institutions such as libraries which need to be strengthened in order to instigate and promote book use. Government must budget adequately enough to make the library buildings attractive and comfortable for youngsters to want to spend more solid time in there as opposed to watching television or listening to music. Reading is for everyone which is inclusive of adults, who must also be encouraged to read. Furthermore, the budget should be adequate enough to purchase titles regularly, so that there are a variety of books to read and stimulate the interest in reading for pleasure.

• A reading centre must be set up. The centre would focus on literacy, which in this case refers to both reading and writing. Research on reading and writing can be conducted from the centre, like the development of reading strategies. The knowledge can thereafter be transferred to curricular developers and teachers in the classroom via training workshops. The reading centre can also act as a resource centre, where information on literacy worldwide, expert literacy opinions can be obtained. The centre can also build capacity through training of those in the fields of reading, writing etc.
• Book clubs must be introduced in schools, targeting the youth and in venues which will attract adults, like the library. Book clubs are a strategic place to discuss the importance of reading, exchange books, discuss books etc.

• Numerous Publishing Associations must be established and strengthened, so that jointly the book related associations can support the various sectors in the book industry and also convince or influence government in book related issues, such as the creation and adoption of a national book policy.

• Government and publishers should partner and not fight each other. The textbook system must not be monopolised by the government. Education systems depend on publishers for the effective interpretation and implementation of the curriculum. Therefore, Government ought to recognize the information and book industry as a strategic sector contributes extensively towards national objectives.

• Government must subsidise the book industry financially. A government subsidy would assist the book industry to produce
below the real production costs. If subsidizing publication of books is a government policy it would make books both available and affordable.

- Eradication of illiteracy is a book development strategy in that ultimately more reading will occur, thus more books will be bought. What must not be overlooked that publishers have to be involved in discussions or plans on how illiteracy will be decreased because it is the publishers who will be required to publish relevant reading material.

- There should be special focus on eradicating literacy amongst mothers. I suggest the design and implementation of special programmes aimed at making mothers become literate because it is mother’s who strongly influence children at home.

- The awards scheme is a commendable book development strategy to utilise. Public recognition of one’s written work is motivating because it’s an honour. The awards are also an opportunity to market the author’s work, which means more sales are made.

- Training of authors and the employees in the publishing world is a must. Without training of both mentioned groups, poor quality
books will be produced and this will not entice the desired audience. In the training sessions, research must be emphasised because it is important that research is conducted by authors to ensure they are writing the type of books which will interest the readers.

- A clear common language policy is definitely as a book development strategy recommended. If publishers know what language the books are required in, they will be able to plan ahead and have large print runs which are guaranteed to sell and not end up as dead stock in warehouses. If language policy is unclear, publishers have to gauge the numbers of books to print, considering that a small print run is more costly this is not a viable option.

- Reviewing, updating and enforcing the copyright act law diligently is a book development strategy, in that if the act is enforced there will be less piracy and illegal photocopying of books. Attached to the copyright act is the importance of educating people about what copyright is and what it entails. People will not infringe knowingly if their awareness is raised.
• Book Fairs are a recommended book development strategy because they present an opportunity for all stakeholders in the book industry, associations related to books, to gather together and brainstorm on new ideas, exchange ideas and update each other on the new technological advancements and display and discuss different titles globally.

• Indigenization of the book industry is a valid book development strategy because it means the book sector lies in control of the local publishers. In this way the books produced will be more relevant to the context and entice new readers as well as maintain the old ones. If indigenization is successful, it would result in less reliance on imported books, which inevitably cuts down on the costs of books produced locally.

• Strengthening relationships and partnering with media houses is a recommended book development strategy because it enables the promotion of books to occur regularly and reach a wider audience. The radio caters for the often marginalized rural masses and the television would be accessed by the urbanites. Talk shows, reviews, press releases etc could be incorporated in the media.
• Distribution of books is a crucial book development strategy because distribution must be balanced by ensuring that more bookshops or outlets are established in rural areas rather than the city centres only. Alternatively, mobile libraries and encouraging the setting up of libraries at home would assist to make book access easier.

• Book Competitions should be introduced to the public and schools as well. Competitions are fun and everyone likes to win. Needless to say, books would be the prizes.

• Reading promotions are a definite book development strategy in that the importance of reading is realised. Reading promotions allow an opportunity to educate the nation about the importance of reading and how it benefits the national development.

• Research on reading is an important book development strategy in that there are now numerous research areas devoted to understanding the history, psychology, pedagogy and phenomenology of reading as a social activity. Research areas such as the history of the book as a commodity with focus on printing and publishing, the interaction of orality and literacy, the rise of copyright law, methods of sale and distribution, institutions of
distribution and consumption and the social history of readers and reading should be encouraged in universities.

- Eradication of poverty is a book development strategy. If poverty is conquered and there is adequate food and shelter, people would be able to buy more books and not consider books as expensive and therefore a luxury they cannot afford.

- Undoubtedly communication as a book development strategy is crucial. Infrastructure has to improve in order for the books to be transported from point A to B. Open communication between stakeholders has to improve, so that there is less secrecy and competition but harmony when working towards the same goal. Solid communication between the regions would ensure regional collaboration and trade between the countries within the region as Wafawarowa suggests.

5.5. Concluding Remarks

The lack of a national book policy or national book council cripples the development of any book industry. Yet, the African book industry needs such a policy or council to operate as a viable business which is efficient and effective. The national book development strategies and
recommendations suggested can only be applicable in a solid book industry. It is if a book industry is progressive that more general books can be produced, made accessible and affordable, thus resulting in an increase in the consumption of books. With a flourishing book industry, undoubtedly, the reading habit will strengthen concurrently.
6. References Cited:


