

CHAPTER 5

Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Results

5.1 Introduction

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

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

5.2 Presentation, Analysis and Discussion

5.2.1 Administration

5.2.1.1 Date of establishment

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

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

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

5.2.1.2 Mission and vision statements

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

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

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

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

5.2.1.3 Structure and position of the press in the university

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.1.4 Background of press director

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

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

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

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

5.2.1.5 The main departments of the press house

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

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

5.2.1.6 Issues on staffing

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

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

Table 5.1: Full time equivalent employees

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

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

5.2.1.7 Written and unwritten policy documents

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

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

5.2.1.8 Sources of funding

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.2 Acquisition/Editorial

5.2.2.1 Manuscript acquisition and selection

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.2.2 Editorial board and related issues

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

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

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

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

5.2.2.3 Author-publisher relations and copyright registration

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

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

5.2.2.4 Subject areas of specialization (list building)

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

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

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

Table 5.3: Proportion of three largest subject areas

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.2.5 Publishing categories

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

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

Table 5.4: Publishing categories of the presses

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.3 Production

5.2.3.1 Founding dates and publication figures

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

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

Table 5.5: Average annual new titles for 1995-1999

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 5.7: Press run for three most important categories

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.3.2 Publications and sales figures

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

Table 5.8: Publication figures

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

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

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

Table 5.9: Social indicators

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

Legend: na- not available

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

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

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

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

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

Table 5.10: Annual sales and trend

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.3.3 Academic journals published

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

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

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

5.2.3.4 Computerized operations

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

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

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

5.2.3.5 Cooperation or partnership arrangements

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 5.11: Co-publishing partners

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

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

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

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

5.2.3.6 Publishing prize(s)

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

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

5.2.4 Marketing

5.2.4.1 Publishing categories and revenue generation

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

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

Table 5.12: Most important publishing categories in terms of revenue

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

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

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

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

5.2.4.2 Royalties, marketing, distribution, and sales

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

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

Table 5.13: Royalty rates

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 5.15: Press distribution channels

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

Legend: Proportion sales given in brackets

5.2.4.3 Membership and benefits of ABC

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

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

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

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

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

Table 5.16: Sales through campus and own bookstores

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

Legend: Na-not applicable

5.2.4.4 Press web site and main purpose of the site

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

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

5.2.4.5 Target markets

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.5 Views by press directors on some aspects of their work

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

5.2.5.1 Campus allies of the Press

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

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

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

5.2.5.2 Challenges and remedial strategies/measures adopted

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.5.3 Indirect challenges

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

5.2.5.3.1 Benefits the university derives from the press

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

5.2.5.3.2 Threats from the national publishing infrastructure

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.5.3.3 Threats from the international publishing scene

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.5.3.4 Views on co-publishing

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.5.3.5 Views on photocopying and copyright as a publisher

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.5.3.6 Views on an African model of a university press

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.5.3.7 Promotion of African scholarship by AUPs

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

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

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

5.2.5.3.8 Relationship between African scholars and their publishers

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

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

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

5.2.5.3.9 *Should AUPs publish educational and trade books*

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

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

5.2.5.4. Views on the future of African university publishing

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

Press no. 1:

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

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

Press no. 2:

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

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

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

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

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

Press no. 3:

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

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

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

Press no 4:

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

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

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

Press no 5

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

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

Press No 6

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

5.2.6 Comparison of African and American university press policies

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

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

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

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

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

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

3. A clear and sustained line of authority should extend upwards from the director to the responsible academic officer of the university.

None of the press directors were found to report directly to the Vice Chancellor but there is provision through a high university officer to this office. With the exception of press 4, all the directors report to a deputy vice chancellor or the equivalent in status.

4. Presses must seek editorial advice concerning publishing policy, programs, and final approval of books from a committee of scholars drawn from the faculty.

The study shows that each of the presses has an editorial board or committee made up of faculty of the university only or a composition of faculty and outside members. The boards' responsibilities were found to be wide and varied but in all the cases surveyed it is the board that gives the final approval for a work to bear the imprint of the university.

5. Periodic evaluation of procedures and policies, including accounting and budgeting.

This was not covered in the survey questions but as departments of their respective universities, the presses are subject to the same scrutiny as the various departments and units in the university. With recent cut backs in university funding, which have been passed on to the presses, it is the unscrupulous director who may be unmindful of the harsh economic realities. The study identified a wide and varied range of responsibilities among the editorial boards, which include the revision of policies and procedures, in addition to their main task of certifying the academic merit of the works that come to them.

6. A university sponsoring a press should provide financial support and support in the form of services and facilities for its scholarly publishing arm. They should also subsidize the press for production (printing, binding, etc.) and the accompanying expenses (editing, marketing, designing, accounting, etc.).

The study established that the surveyed universities fail to provide full financial support for their presses to operate within their prescribed mission of publishing predominantly scholarly works. Only one of the presses receives full funding for its production and operating costs. The rest have to depend on revenues derived from the publication of other works and income from publishing services to supplement the dwindling subsidy from the university. However, five of the presses surveyed receive subsidies in the form of rent, utilities, and staff salaries.

Summary

Chapter 5 presented the main findings of responses received from the presses that were surveyed, a summary of which forms Section 6.1 of Chapter 6. In the main, the study established that the policies and practices of African University Presses compare very favourably with those of their American counterparts. Practices might vary from one country to another but if the adoption of policies go very far to guide practices, then the comparable policies of American and African university presses would help the latter to shape their publishing programmes.

The presentation followed the flow of work in the press under the subheadings administration, editorial, production, marketing/promotion, and distribution. The directors expressed their views on aspects of their work through a set of open-ended questions under 'general'. Highlights of the findings are: the presses were founded between 1957 and 1993; the main publishing categories are undergraduate textbooks and research monographs; the presses are able to sell between 20-65% of their production; most of the presses do not appear to have a clearly defined subject focus; none of the presses has a formal written policy on manuscript acquisition. The most popular manuscript acquisition methods from the survey are the academic grapevine and the acquisitions editor.

The size and composition of the editorial boards vary from 2-5 for one press, 6-9 for two presses, 10-13 for another, and over 14 for the remaining two. Five presses responded that the final decision to publish any title rests with the board. Four [2,3,4,5] out of the 6 presses gave direct sales as the most popular means of selling their works, followed by review copies which was cited as the second most important by three presses. For the majority (4 out of 6) of the presses, the most important publishing category in terms of income is undergraduate textbooks. Lack of cooperation among the AUPs and non-specialized areas (no list building) were identified as deficiencies in their operations.

Two presses [2,4] were in favour of a unique African model of university publishing, two [3,5] opposed it, and two [1,6] did not respond to the question. Responses to the question on the ideal author-publisher relationship stressed cooperation and partnership, 'assisting scholars to write; through cooperation among the presses; mentoring programmes; AUPs may be able to promote publishing by Africa for Africa through publishing quality works, which they distribute more efficiently.

Two views were expressed on the issue of publishing non-scholarly works, but it was swayed towards getting the needed profits to support non-profitable but essential publishing by the university press. Coping strategies adopted by the AUPs in the face of harsh environmental conditions include the introduction of ICTs in their operations, treatment of authors, editorial policy on publishing non-scholarly materials, staff levels and use of outsourcing, and approaches to sources of funding.

The study concluded that there is a serious absence of competition and cooperation between the presses surveyed and in general among all university presses within sub-Saharan Africa; there is no aggressive fund raising, for example through alumni, book clubs, foundation money, publishing component of research money, and publishing fund for universities; AUPs do not have press publishing areas or press lists, which define the subject areas in which each press concentrates its publishing; the history and development of the publishing industry is inextricably tied to the economic fortunes of a particular country.

The study recommended a continent-wide consortium of university presses based at the AAU, in Accra, or APNET in Harare (now moved to Abidjan) with sub-regional 'nodes' spread throughout the continent; setting up sub-regional university presses; adoption of POD technology; and developing innovative methods for funding.