



PUBLISHING IN UGANDA

WITH NOTES FROM AFRICA:

A REVIEW

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THE PUBLISHING INDUSTRY LITERATURE SURVEY WAS PART OF THE PALM AFRICA PROJECT FUNDED BY IDRC

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with notes from Africa:
A Review

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1.0 Introduction

This review is about publishing in Uganda and more especially about publishing of educational materials. It is meant to highlight the history, nature, scope, challenges and opportunities of publishing in the country. It is more inclined to identifying the gaps in the provision of educational materials. This arises from the fact that publishing in Uganda like in many other African countries has been bedevilled with many problems and up to the present times, Uganda cannot claim of having a robust publishing sector capable of satisfying all the book and other reading materials requirements. But it is noted that the country's publishing industry is growing rapidly especially in the primary school textbook sub sector.

To understand, the nature of publishing in Uganda, information of the education policy, language, the printing industry, marketing and distribution of educational materials and Uganda copyright law are reviewed. All these are necessary to arrive at some idea about the direction of the future of the country's publishing industry. It is the picture that is needed to allow thinking about alternative models of publishing. The picture that comes out can assist the PALM AFRICA project, a project that is searching for alternative publishing models or methodologies in publishing justify and look for newer or additional models of publishing as a means of broadening access to educational or other information materials. And even without that picture, publishing in the traditional way has been on for so long that it is about time newer ways of publishing come on stage.

Additional review is done about publishing in Africa. The intention is to provide additional insights into publishing in Africa. It covers secondary school authorship, book policies in Africa, and copyright environment in Africa.

2.1 Uganda: Country profile

Uganda is a landlocked country along the Equator, which is bordered by Sudan to the North, Kenya to the East, DRC to the West, Tanzania and Rwanda to the South and Southwest respectively. The land area is about 241,139 square kilometres, 17% of which is water. Currently the population is estimated to be approximately 27.4 millions. Uganda is a developing country. It is one of the poorest and highly indebted countries of the world. Book buying is low except in specific areas like religious and schoolbooks. The current National Literacy rate is estimated at 68% of which 76% is for males and 61% is for females. The population age group 6-12 is estimated at 22%, which is about 53% of the total population. At primary school level, less than 71.1% of the children aged 6-15 years are enrolled in schools. Of these, 83% are females and 84% are males. At secondary level, 43% of the age group 15 years and above are enrolled in schools (MoE&S, 2005).

Out of fifty-six local languages that are spoken; only about ten (10) are published. Public libraries are few, small and poorly funded. There is one public library for every one million people on the average and the book per capita is below 1%. Academic libraries are as poor because they are seriously under funded or not funded at all in some cases. Rosenberg (1997), and Aiyepeku, and Komolafe (1998) tell woes of these libraries in most of Africa. The recent World Bank (2008) study lists problems of Uganda libraries as follows:

- Inadequate funding, with little or no support from government and only occasional donor support.
- Lack of adequate library rooms, which are usually, converted classrooms with insufficient space, shelving, furniture and equipment, or security.
- Lack of finance to undertake regular library maintenance
- Where stock exists it is generally old and often irrelevant to current curricula and teacher/student interests.
- Heavy stock wear and tear, loss and damage caused by poor management, lack of security, pest and fungal damage, theft and so forth.
- Lack of understanding by both teachers and students of the role and function of a school library, and there is a growing inability to use libraries properly even when they are well-established.
- Lack of trained school librarians and poor training and overloading of teacher librarians.
- A widespread lack of basic minimum standards for school library provision that can guide schools.
- A lack of commitment from either Ministries of Education or individual schools to the development and use of school libraries.
- The absence of clearly articulated school library policies in a majority of countries, and
- Poor library management systems (World Bank, 2008:71-72).

Research libraries suffer the same fate as other libraries. There are no libraries in most schools and where they exist, they are in name only. Bookshops are few and number about two hundred and fifty. Bookselling is gradually increasing and improving in urban areas.

Bookshops are not well stocked outside the capital city and few major towns. In general, school and home environment in particular have limited influence in developing reading habits.

School curriculum is too packed to leave any time for reading especially at primary and secondary school level. Urban influence due to radio, television, cinema and theatre lure students away from reading development. There are over 130 operational FM community radio stations and over ten T.V stations and many theatres which are easier forms of leisure that distract potential readers from reading. Rural Uganda accounts for about 80% of the entire population and reading facilities are scarce in such locations. Occupational activities like tethering goats and looking after cows take free time for boys while girls do domestic work. All these affect the need for publishing products to a greater extent.

Education is the greatest asset to publishing. This is because its products are the resources in the advancement of education, and knowledge. The education sector in Uganda is structured into pre-primary education, primary education, post primary education, and higher education. The guiding principles of education provision is ensuring; Access, Equity, Relevance, Quality and Affordability. The mission of the Education Sector is to “provide for, support, guide, coordinate, regulate and promote quality education and sports for all persons in Uganda for national integration, individual and national development.” (MoE&S, 2005).

Enrollment at primary school level over the years is shown in the following table.

Table 1: Growth in the Primary Enrolment 1996-2004 as a consequence of UPE

Year	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Male enrolments in all primary schools	1,647,742	2,832,472	3,061,722	3,301,888	3,395,554	3,528,035	3,721,135	3,872,589	3,721,911
Female enrolments in all primary schools	1,420,883	2,471,092	2,744,663	2,986,351	3,163,459	3,372,881	3,633,018	3,760,725	3,632,838
Total enrolment in all primary schools	3,068,625	5,303,564	5,806,385	6,288,239	6,559,013	6,900,916	7,354,153	7,633,314	7,354,749
Primary Schools	8,531	8,600	9,916	10,597	11,578	13,219	13,332	13,353	13,239
Number of teachers	81564	89247	99237	109733	110366	127038	139484	145587	145,819
Number of classrooms	25,676	25427	28380	43174	50,370	60,199	69,900	73,104	79,132
Core textbooks procured	783,556	2,112,104	1,492,186	1,331,710	1,171,235	2,086,132	3,426,000	3,467,266	2,828,324
Teachers guides procured	236,816	485,195	549,150	593,480	637,811	673,533	686,297	118,123	254904

Source: EPD, Annual School Census (2004)

The above Table gives an idea on how primary education has been expanding over the years. It also shows the status of the numbers of books and other reading materials as procured annually.

There are about 7.4 millions children annually in primary schools since 2001. These numbers may continue showing upwards trend since government has opened Universal Secondary Education (USE). Government supplies books using a decentralised system through local

bookshops. There were 697,507 students in secondary (UBOS, 2005) and teacher training. But with the introduction of USE in 2006, the number of students in secondary schools is likely to triple thus raising the book requirements for the country. Government occasionally provides schools with books but in most cases students buy their own textbooks - something that is a must in joining secondary schools. There are less than one hundred thousand students in tertiary institutions including universities. Most of these institutions get their books through donations, and purchases from fees levied to students for library development.

Government introduced different policies that support publishing. These are the Universal Primary Education (UPE) that has increased enrolment in primary schools since 1997; Functional Adult Literary (FAL) Programme in the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development aimed at making adults become literate and the Universal Secondary Education (USE) that has also created an increase of students in secondary schools since 2007.

The 1995 National Constitution of Uganda in Article 29 guarantees freedom of speech and expression. Liberalization of economy policy has eased the importation of printing inputs. Enabling political environment and freedom of expression have to a large extent created a demand for publishing products. The taxation policy permits importation of educational materials and computers and accessories tax free. Most local publishers print their materials abroad and hence enjoy the tax incentive on bringing in books or other reading materials to Uganda. Despite that respite Ugandan books are still more expensive than those in the neighbouring countries.

2.2 Education policies and their relationship to publishing

Policy relating to education in Uganda is found in the Government White Paper on Education entitled "*Education for National Integration and Development*" of 1992. This paper deals with all aspects of education and these are supported by other policies of government. The key policy thrusts of government in the education Sector are:

- i. Providing equitable access to quality and affordable education to all Uganda
- ii. Propelling Uganda towards achieving PEAP
- iii. Meeting commitments to achieve Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)
- iv. Providing relevant education
- v. Enhancing efficiency
- vi. Strengthening partnership (MoE&S, 2005).

Government has defined national aims and objectives for pre-primary education which hitherto did not exist. The policy aims and objectives of pre-primary education are: to develop capabilities and healthy physical growth of the child; to help the child develop

good social habits as an individual and as a member of society; to develop moral values in the child; to enrich the child's experience by developing imagination, self reliance and thinking power; to help the children appreciate their cultural background and customs and developing a feeling of love and care for other people and for Uganda and a sense of unity leading to a national stance and to develop language and communication skills in the mother tongue. To implement these policy statements, government adopts among others a position of providing curricular guidelines to be followed by pre-primary schools. Pupils spend three years in pre-primary schools. Book provision for this level of schooling is a private affair, that is, each pre-school asks parents to provide reading materials for their children and teachers draw lesson sheets for every day work.

At primary school level, government states the aims and objectives to be in line with the language policy of improving functional literacy, numeracy and skills in communication, oral expression, reading and writing in Kiswahili, English and the local language; basic computation skills, including skills in addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, physical development and inculcation of progressive and balanced emotional control through games, sports, hobbies and good health habits and prerequisites for continuing education and development. The primary cycle is currently seven years of schooling. An interesting element at this level of education is the introduction of vocational education on the school curricula. It is entirely government responsibility to supply instructional materials to its primary schools. Private primary schools fend for themselves. This brings in unequal access to educational materials.

The aims and objectives of secondary education that takes four to six years is to instil and promote national unity, an understanding of the social and civic responsibilities, strong love and care for others and respect for public property as well as an appreciation of international relations and beneficial international co-operation; imparting and promoting a sense of self-discipline, ethical and spiritual values, personal and collective responsibility and instilling positive attitudes towards productive work and strong respect for the dignity of labour and those who engage in productive labour activities among many others. All these aspirations are reflected in the new curricula designed by the National Curriculum Development Centre. In terms of access to educational resources, government sends grants to schools to cater for educational needs including books but because of the explosion of school populations, this is not enough. Consequently schools demand of students to contribute at least two textbooks for their libraries including prescribed textbooks students bring for their own reading. Private secondary schools are not catered for in this arrangement. Instead they buy books out of the fees students pay if at all. Even using this avenue, books are scarce in secondary schools especially in rural areas and this could explain one of the reasons for poor performance in many of the private secondary schools.

Government espouses that technical and vocational education has a role to stimulate intellectual and technical growth of students in order to make them productive members of the community; and to produce craftsmen/women, technicians and other skilled human resource to meet the demands of industry, agriculture and commerce as well as the teaching of technical and vocational subjects. Institutions in this category are the Business, Technical, Vocational Education and Training Colleges. Government maintains a number of such colleges and sends grants to these institutions to cater for instructional materials. However money is not always enough. Libraries are poorly resourced. Internet access is a dream. Textbook learning is common. Donations play a big role in most cases. This also leads to inadequate access to learning materials and directly affects their performance and eventually their competence in the world of work.

Government recognises the importance attached to teacher education and therefore to the quality of its teachers. It endorses that the aims and objectives of teacher education are the broadening and deepening of the trainees own academic knowledge of teaching subjects as well as their understanding of the development stages and needs of the child; production of competent, reliable, honest and responsible teachers. Tying this to access to instructional materials especially books, the same pattern is seen; grants are sent to colleges and colleges are advised to use them wisely including purchase of books and other instructional materials. But it is an experience that books are very expensive items that only a handful may be purchased actually. Bookshops hardly hold books for specialised users like teachers or technicians. Poverty, an all round problem affects procurement or buying by individuals and institutions. This leaves donations to take a leading part. And that apart, donations have the problem of lack of relevance sometimes. For this project this justifies a position to look for alternative means of providing learning materials.

Finally government recognizes the role of higher education as being teaching to produce high-level manpower; research, particularly applied; publication of books, journals and research papers; public service through a variety of extension activities; and serving as store-house of knowledge and centres of excellence in all fields of knowledge. And consequently directs that tertiary institutions in Uganda should pursue the following goals: training high-level technical, managerial and professional personnel for all sectors of national life; generating advanced knowledge and innovations through research and to be able to translate or adapt them to local and Ugandan situations; intensifying the provision of public services through expanded extra-mural or extension work and consultancy services; developing intellectual capacities of students to understand their local and national environment objectively and appreciate to develop them; promoting the development of an indigenous scientific and technological capacity needed for tackling the problems of development; equipping the students with knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable them to join the world of work as useful members of their communities and the nation at large. Higher education includes colleges of higher learning and universities.

For the purpose of this study, government provides grants to institutions to cater for book banks and other instructional materials. Again these amounts are not always sufficient. Also bookshops do not exist in almost all educational institutions and where they exist; there are no student allowances to buy the required books. Poverty is a big handicap to book buying. And books are expensive to be afforded by an ordinary school going person. It is only in some universities that reliance on e-resources that some relief has come from. But of course e-resources are not always available in each of the subjects or topics taught. ICT infrastructure is also not enough to allow fulltime searches whenever required. Coupled with the ICT are the prohibitive costs of connectivity. Bandwidth problem is a handicap since institutions operate on small budgets. To mitigate the problem some institutions like Makerere University have learnt the hard way to seek for Open Source Support for full texts of books and journals and also seek assistance from donor agencies for money to pay for the bandwidth.

Government provides Non-formal education for children out of school especially those in difficult environment for various reasons such as social, economic, and environmental. These children include the over age, children in pastoral areas, and fishing villages and others. Some of the initiatives in which education is delivered using alternative models include: Alternative Basic Education for Karamoja (ABEK), Complementary Opportunities for Primary Education (COPE), Basic Education for Urban Poverty Areas (BEUPA), Child-centred Alternative Non-formal Community Based Education (CHANCE), Empowering Lifelong Skills Education in Masindi (ELSE). All these efforts are because government notes the need for non-formal and adult education as a means to attain permanent and developmental literacy and numeracy, acquisition of functional skills relevant to life in the community; development of national awareness of individuals and continued learning while at work.

Eradication of illiteracy and development of post literacy and permanent functional literacy and livelihood skills are the prime aims at this level. Supply of learning materials to this level is the responsibility of the Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development. This ministry writes its own manuals, edits them and gets them printed. The department of Community Development takes these materials on their routine field work and distributes them and other packs to learners for free. So far the Ministry has produced literacy materials in six languages and these include *Luganda, Luo, Lunyankole, Lukiga, Lunyoro, Lutoro, Ateso* and *Lukonjo*. The literacy materials include; Primers, Instructors' Guides to the primer, and charts. Some post-literacy materials have also been produced. From the point of materials supply, language plays a significant factor.

Some Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) have also been active in the field of Functional Literacy programmes. These NGOs include: Action-Aid, National Adult

Education Association of Uganda, Uganda Community Association for Child Welfare, Uganda Joint Action for Adult Education, Religious bodies etc.

Although the White Paper on Education is clear about what the nation needs from the education sector, it does not fully address the issue of learning materials at all levels. And although it sends grants to institutions the amounts are never enough to see any improvement in collection development. Libraries of such institutions are poor by any standard. Often donations received are not in line with interests of particular institutions, they are merely dumping grounds. ICT diffusion is very low and connectivity problems compound the problem even further. But there are efforts to introduce ICT in primary schools, secondary schools and obviously in tertiary institutions where diffusion of ICT is ever increasing. For instance SchoolNet Uganda is helping to enhance the teaching and learning process using ICT through the provision of affordable computers, ICT for education advice and sensitization, technical capacity building and support, teacher pedagogical professional development and support, local education content development, school networking and school international linkages for project based learning. SchoolNet was started in 1997 as a programme jointly supported by World Links for Development (WorLD) currently World Links Organization (<http://www.world-links.org>), World bank Institute- ICT for Education Programme and Ministry of Education and Sports Uganda. SchoolNet is a not for profit Non Governmental Organization which works with Uganda Education Institutions in setting up ICT facilities and developing technical and pedagogical capacity necessary to use ICT to enhance teaching and learning. This is just one of the examples of such projects but the Ministry of Education and Sports is committed to ensuring that secondary schools are connected to the Internet as part of its policy framework. By this the implication is that alternative methods of publishing can be adopted to increase access to educational information. The issue to address is the publishers' fear and dilemma to release Copyright without losing income. This needs to be explored.

Private institutions of learning at all level are finding difficulties to sustain their learning requirements due to insufficient funds. The preference is for these institutions to develop textbook centres and call them libraries. The bottom line however is that access to educational materials in Uganda is hard, uneven and in some places or situations out rightly poor. This creates a need for newer ways of thinking and action. The argument is that at all levels of education, instructional and learning materials are needed in large numbers. These are made available to various institutions using different models. For example for pre-primary schools or crèches, parents pay for the instructional materials. In primary level, government pays for materials and compiles lists of approved books and other instructional materials and takes it to schools. It is schools' role to select what they want and go to buy them from bookshops in their areas. Whether they do so efficiently and effectively is another matter. Whether they are enough or not is yet another matter. In secondary schools up to the teacher

training colleges, students pay library fees as well as buying books for themselves based on list given by a particular school. Colleges and university students pay library fees too. The money collected is used to buy books and paying for Internet services. It must also be stated here that tertiary institutions are poorly funded and getting journals online looks a distant dream. For universities, the general policy appears to be that part of the students' fees is automatically allocated by management to buy books or subscribe to journals, mainly online. These inadequacies therefore provide the basis for creative thinking towards much easier and inclusive frameworks or models and PALM project is one such initiative.

3.0 Language Policy

Uganda language policy is undecided. Government recognizes that the diversity of local languages in Uganda makes it difficult for the country to achieve rapid universal and democratized education, literacy for all, intellectualisation of all the people as well as the attainment of the much needed national unity. This is because of the conflicting aims and prejudices resulting from deficient views and outlooks of life as well as narrow and selfish interest, that have made it difficult for the country to develop a common language for Uganda. There are 56 languages recognized in the national Constitution of the Republic Uganda of 1995. This diversity has been one of the most influential causes of social conflicts in the country. But at the same time government endorses the view that African languages should be developed as national media of communication and as much as possible, also as the media for instruction, for pedagogic and cultural reasons and benefits. Government, is strongly convinced that in order to develop a genuinely rich national culture and achieve national unity and rapid development, Uganda's language policy in education must be centred around the emphatic and deliberate development of a national and educational language policy that can contribute to the development of greater patriotism, nationalism and pan Africanism among citizens, leading to the achievement of increased and beneficial communication and cooperation among the various ethnic groups in the country and beyond Uganda's borders. Consequently Government for now and in the absence of a national language accepts the position that the mother tongue is used as a medium of instruction in all educational programmes; English will be taught as a subject from primary one. From primary five onwards, English becomes the medium of instruction. In rural areas the medium of instruction from primary one to four is the relevant local community languages. In urban areas the medium of instruction is English throughout the primary cycle. Kiswahili and English would be taught as compulsory subjects to all children throughout the primary school cycle, both in rural and urban areas but Kiswahili appears to lag behind because of lack of teachers proficient in the language and learning materials. Arising out of this policy position, it is expected that in future, writing and publishing in local languages may improve. To develop the Ugandan languages government is intent to establish a national Advisory Board on Languages.

4.0 The Concept of Publishing

Many people find it difficult to distinguish between publishing and printing. It is the reason it is explained here. Publishing is not printing or the other way round. Printing is only one aspect of publishing. Publishing is the process of creating an information product from an idea developed into a manuscript, getting the manuscript processed, manufactured or printed and announcing the product in the market. Printing is only multiplying or producing the number of copies of the product.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary definition of the word “publish” is ‘to make generally known, to noise abroad’. Publishing is the present tense of it which has come to be associated with the written word. It is therefore defined as the act of making known to the public any literary product such as books, journals, magazines, newspapers and musical scores. It is a means of facilitating communication of information. The term derives from a Latin word *publicare* - which means making public what a publishing house has made for sale or for free distribution. It is the process of preparing, manufacturing, and distributing books, magazines, newspapers, films computer programmes, records, periodicals, discs, bulletins and other literary materials in printed or electronic form. The process begins with the selection of the manuscripts and this is followed by the preparation or processing of manuscripts and lastly distribution of printed materials. Processing are the activities like manuscript evaluation or vetting, editing, copy editing, typesetting, design and layout and printing. According to the *Wikipedia Dictionary* publishing refers to the production and dissemination of literature and information. This entails the making available of information for public use.

Until the advent of digital information systems and the Internet, publishing was generally defined as producing reading materials that are demanded by the users and written in view of their needs. Today publishing involves Electronic publishing that has the benefit of audio publishing and visuals to complement print and other forms such as telecasting and broadcasting. Looked at it another way, publishing is a vocation or the commercial business of bringing the printed word or electronic information product to the marketplace in the form of books, magazines, and newspapers and other information products. The vocational aspect of it is that it is learnt at college or tertiary institution as a profession as well as learnt from the publishing house in-house. In all, publishing is a social responsibility to record human activity for posterity, provide entertainment and to inform.

4.1 History of Books and Book Publishing in Uganda

The history of books and book publishing in Uganda begins with the history of its education and literacy. It is documented that Arab traders were the first foreigners to come to Uganda. Their purpose was dual – trade and religion. Through their teaching of the Koran, literacy slowly emerged but Arabs didn’t do much to introduce publishing as such. Instead it is the

European explorers and Christian missionaries that came in to fill the void and introduced religion and books.

From the 1860s onwards many explorers came to various parts of Africa, of whom Captain J H Speke and H M Stanley are the relevant examples for Uganda. They came with their Bibles and on their return, left them behind with the people they had influenced. Speke came in 1862 in a journey to discover for their people the source of the River Nile and travelled westward to the Kingdom of Bunyoro where he met the Bunyoro leader, Omukama, whom he presented a Bible, the rival to the Koran, which Arabs had given him earlier. In 1875, H M Stanley arrived and found that Uganda presented a striking contrast to the surrounding areas they had passed, in that it was where its rulers exacted the most merciless punishment of pain and even death. With this impression Stanley successfully requested the Christian Missionary Society (CMS) in London, to send missionaries to Uganda in what Fieldhouse' called the civilizing mission. The volunteers among others included Alexander Mackay, the missionary printer.

While in Uganda Stanley gave regular Bible lessons to King Mutesa I. In many of such lessons he quoted heavily from the Christian Scriptures as direct antithesis of the Koranic teaching. On his departure in 1876, he appointed Dallington Scorpion Maftaa, a young ex-slave from the coast as his successor. His teachings were well received and the young Baganda pages or slaves were quick to take the advantages of mission teaching.

The White Fathers, the Presbyterians and Catholic Missionaries also found Buganda a promising ground. To gain access to the King's dominion, they sought his support. Litchfield's words are perhaps more appropriate when he said: *Mutesa (The King) is now taking the question of education in earnest, and is ordering his chiefs, Batongole (officials), pages and soldiers to learn the alphabet etc. in English characters, Mackay and myself are never free from learners some of whom are waiting with the daylight. We have our hands full to supply them with brain food, and the small printing press sent with us from England is in daily requisition.*

By 1879, the learners had completed their first Luganda Catechism. The first grammar book followed in 1884 and this proved useful for the advancement of education. During the same period, Mackay was printing simple letters of alphabet and religious tracts to provide reading material for the Protestants. The followers became readers with baptism as a test of literacy as well as a sign of religious sincerity. The close link between education and religion, originating in indigenous education, and so basic in Islamic teaching, thus continued in the missions' forms of western learning.

Missionaries followed explorers in their adventure into Uganda. Missionaries came to spread Christianity, and to succeed people had first to be made literate. This was essential if proper reading, interpretations and understanding of religious teaching were to be meaningful. And once they were fairly literate, the problem of suitable reading materials came up. There were no books available locally, so the solution was the translation of European texts into local languages. Quite expectedly, another problem emerged, and that is the inability of

the missionaries to translate their texts into the native languages. On the other hand, there were not many competent converts to help in the task. To get over this two-dimensional problem, the missionaries had to learn the vernacular languages through some of their most brilliant converts – Henry Duta and Mackay Sembera.

While teaching the missionaries, the convert teachers were also busy learning and polishing up their newly acquired foreign languages so that they could work closely with the missionaries. And missionaries having learnt the vernacular language – Luganda, took to the work of translation and it became the duty of every member of the mission team to do so. This was crucial in the speedy preparation of the much-needed basic texts necessary for Christian teaching.

This ability of the missionaries to translate texts so quickly impressed Duta. He singled out Pilkington's abilities as a translator in the following words:

“He, Pilkington, could translate any book into Luganda without my help and I was not afraid of him making mistakes”.

Tracking down the translations and writings of missionaries would give sound evidence of their literary activities in Uganda. Citing two of them is sufficient for this purpose: A.M. Mackay and G.L. Pilkington.

Mackay was a Missionary printer; whom in 1876 Frederick Ulmer of London supported with an Albion Hand proofing Press as part of the CMS equipment for the pioneer work in Uganda. It is Mackay who introduced the first printing press on which the early reading materials and the “Biscuit Bible” were printed. This press was located at Natete near Kampala. In 1884, he assembled the Press from which he printed his translated versions of *St. Matthew's Gospel* (1887) and *St. John's Gospel* (1892). These translations were the first books in a Ugandan language. On this same Press were printed several reading charts, alphabets and the first postage stamps issued in Uganda.

The success of Pilkington as a translator was based on his interest in achieving success in a Christian Mission abroad. Recorded evidence shows that he did a lot of translations although he wrote a few other original texts in Luganda. The list of his translations is as follows: *The Acts*, *The Romans*, *The Revelations*, *Galatians to Colossians*, *Thessalonians to Philemon*, all of which were produced in 1892. In 1894, he translated *Genesis*, *Psalms*, *Daniel* and in 1895, the *New Testament* and in 1896, the *Pentateuch* and *The Bible* which comprised both Old and New Testament.

Both Duta and Pilkington were responsible for the translation of the Bible into Luganda. This Bible assumed the name of the *Biscuit Bible* because it fitted very well into the old fashioned biscuit tin that was used to protect it from white ants. A copy of this Bible is preserved at the Uganda Museum, Kampala.

Mukasa Ham was another brilliant covert who independently wrote a *Luganda Commentary*

on *St. Luke's Gospel* (1899) and an *Account of a visit to England, with Sir Apolo Kagwa* in 1902. Apolo Kagwa himself wrote a short *History of the Kings of Buganda* and *Proverbs of the Baganda*. Both of Kagwa's books were produced from a small printing press that the British Government presented to him when in Britain.

Mukasa's successful translation and production of *St. Luke's Commentary* was received with mixed feelings. Africans saw Mukasa as a genius. The missionaries were divided in opinion; one school of thought hailed him as a proof of the success of their work, and the other school saw him as a beginning of the generation of African Christians who would eventually take over from them, thus making them redundant.

Although missionaries were able to translate texts into Luganda, there appeared divergences and inconsistencies on the flexible use of the native language. The main issue was not the translated texts but the correct versions of the translations. Inevitably there was need to standardize the orthography of Luganda and to achieve this, a Luganda Translation Committee was proposed in 1897 and its members nominated in 1899. Pilkington was charged with the task of working out its terms of reference. The terms were:

To consider translations before they were printed and to make specific efforts with regard to:

- i) The production of new books, by encouraging members of the mission to undertake them and by looking out for the likely helpers.
- ii) Promptness in getting manuscripts through the Translation Committee and studying how this end can be best attained.
- iii) Making notes of error and misprints as well as notes of points suggested in the class and other ways, and sending them in from time to time to the secretary.
- iv) Studying how words, group of words and difficult passages can be made more idiomatic and accurate than at present.
- v) Studying what broad principles of style can be improved and how to implement those improvements.

All the changes that the Committee introduced were incorporated in the translation of the Bible and the books that were published later.

Until this time, both Christian and educational literature was distributed free, but as demand for educational materials increased, missionaries began selling some types of publication at low cost. This move never deterred the demand and as a result, all literature was commercialized and the missionaries sought new ways of producing more relevant literature for Africans. To this end a body responsible for organizing and coordinating all activities regarding book production was formed. This was The International Committee on Christian Literature for Africa (ICCLA). Margaret Wrong was appointed as its first secretary – a post she held until her death in Uganda in 1948.

ICCLA held a Conference in London in 1926. Prominent linguists and ethnographers attended it. This was followed by another conference in Belgium attended by over 200 missionaries. The theme of these conferences was cooperative effort in educational work in Africa. It was decided that publishing a quarterly bulletin would help to disseminate information on ICCLA's activities. Hence in 1931 a quarterly called *Books for Africans* was started. This publication aimed to disseminate information regarding Christian literature both in English and vernacular languages. Almost immediately another bulletin called *Listen* was published. It was devoted to women and children's literature.

Another outcome of the conferences was the formation of the International Institute of African Languages and Culture (IILAC). The objectives of IILAC were twofold" to act as a coordinating agency, central bureau and a clearing house for information; and to take a lead or to assist in anthropological and linguistic investigation, with the aim of relating the results of research to the actual life of African people. In doing this, the Institute would utilize the experience and expertise of its experts and its journal, *African* would be the channel of dissemination of information and stimulating inquiry. The Institute addressed itself to the preparation of a practical orthography for the African languages guided by the size of population speaking a particular language, and the possibilities of infinite use of a particular language in the educational system.

In their study of textbooks for African schools, the preliminary memorandum by its Executive Committee admitted that textbooks used in African schools were mostly unsatisfactory. They were neither adapted to African needs nor the requirements of modern education. Therefore the systematic production of practical scripts was to be aimed at, so that useful, relevant school books in simple readable languages would be produced. For scientific books, however, the Institute conceded that they could still be produced in European languages. The cumulative results of these efforts saw many books being written and published. Notable among them were *The Teachers' Guides* - for teachers in rural areas and the *African Home Library Service*.

In 1942, Margaret Wrong submitted a proposal to ICCLA on the scheme for territorial surveys on reading materials for spreading Adult Education. In that proposal she suggested a compilation of lists of all types of existing literature in African languages. The ultimate purpose was to collect and synthesize all information which could provide a correct approach to the preparation of useful books. This approach was also to bring into light the magnitude of the problem so that trained people in publishing could be engaged.

Meanwhile, as the missionaries intensified their activities in the promotion of mass education and literacy, the British Government equally advocated for the simultaneous advance

in education. In a report issued by the Colonial Office in 1943, the British Government emphasized the reasons for this move as a way of preparing people for a better standards of living, and attainment of universal literacy essential for a state aspiring for self-government.

The foregoing account briefly shows the role missionaries played in creating a base for book publishing. Because they spearheaded translation services, research in African orthography, and taught Africans methods of book production, they created a demand for books which they could not satisfy but had to look for support in Europe. This is how the British publishers found their way to the Uganda book market.

Missionaries could not cope with the demand for literature. There was no indigenous publishing. The British publishers came in to fill the gap. By the building of the educational system in the countries concerned, Britain was responsible for creating the infrastructure which the book trade needed; therefore a proper appreciation of the role of British publishers can be gained in the context of the growth of African education.

Historically, the extension of the British publishers, and trade to Uganda, as elsewhere in Anglophone Africa, arose out of the export to the Empire of the British system of schooling. Just as the personnel and grants had to come from Britain, so did the books and other apparatus for education. Needless to add there was the fact that English was the medium of instruction and syllabuses were entirely British in content. In terms of book publishing, all that was done was to run-off additional copies of the same books already in use in Britain and send them for distribution.

Later the British Government realized the need for producing a body of various professionals with sound knowledge of the local environment. There was need for books which related to the peoples' immediate needs before introducing them to studies further a field. This kind of awareness triggered writing and publishing of books specifically for developing countries. As there were no local authors, the enterprising British administrators and teachers working in the colonies filled the vacuum. They used their field experience to adapt and revise the contents of existing books. The result of this change was a significant contribution to the localization of schoolbooks. One example was *The Oxford Courses and Readers* that were specially written for pupils whose first language was not English. It was a continental approach to local books. A direct outcome of the Colonial Office policy in the 1930s was a secondary school history text book, *Tropical Africa in World History* by R.T. Barren (OUP).

These efforts soon paved way to regional adaptations and the writing of textbooks in history, geography and administration with particular attention to the different regions of developing countries. Hence Uganda was geographically bound to the East African region with operational headquarters in Nairobi, Kenya. Even then these books were still being written and published abroad as there were no facilities or skills available locally.

Solaru recounts an interesting and true story that students of developing countries did not want the revision of books. Students believed in measuring academic standards by using the same books used by European students at Cambridge, as the holder of a Cambridge School Certificate was highly rated in African society.

4.2 The East African Literature Bureau

By the end of World War II, a brisk trade had risen in specially produced local books. But it was in 1945 that a real boost to the production of local books was started, when an East African Governors Conference, chaired by Sir Philip Mitchell was held. At this sitting two decisions were made regarding the future of local literature in the region. One decision endorsed the need to establish a printing press at Makerere College, and the other was the appointment of an expert on African literature. This expert would work out details of a programme to establish publishing of literature in major vernacular languages for use in schools and adult literacy campaigns. Mrs. Elspeth Huxley was appointed. Although she possessed no publishing experience, she had received her early education in Kenya and was an established author of writings on East Africa. Her terms of reference were: to carry out an East African literature survey to establish what was available, and in what quantities, and to make recommendations to help establish what kinds of books Africans needed most. The survey which lasted three months covered all the east African countries namely Kenya, Tanganyika and Uganda. At the end of it, she submitted her report in which she summed up the condition of literature available as follows.

- a) Demand for simple books in all languages far exceeds supply;
- b) There is almost complete absence of vernacular books of special interest to women;
- c) The religious category is at present the best served of all;
- d) Swahili (East African language) literature is well served, but there is still a shortage of books of general interest to adults;
- e) Vernacular editions of official reports are seldom published but often wanted.

She concluded that the situation of vernacular literature was very bleak.

On the issue of what books Africans needed most, the survey revealed that Africans wanted books that made them literate, so that they could acquire skills to improve their standard

of living. Books of knowledge about history, geography and recreation could follow this. Consequently, the East African Literature Bureau was formed, as an organization of the East African High Commission, in 1948.

The Bureau was established with its headquarters in Nairobi, Kenya and with branches in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania and Kampala, Uganda respectively. Its objectives were as follows:

- i) Stimulation of thought through books and booklets about the country's natural resources, their care and use; the process of government; head and disease; its citizens' responsibilities – a subject of primary importance in the changing society of East Africa;
- ii) Books and charts for the education of the child and the adult;
- iii) Books to encourage an interest in reading for other purposes than for immediate practical end;
- iv) Assistance to the indigenous authors in order that they may take part in the provision of books for their own people;
- v) The development of periodical literature;
- vi) The building up of a library service.

Charles Granston Richards was appointed as the first director but the work could not take off immediately due to the absence of skilled staff. They had to come from Britain and in 1949 they arrived. Almost immediately, press advertisements began to appear in academic journals such as *East African Law Review* and *East African Journal* seeking or soliciting for manuscripts.

The scheme showed promise, especially at Makerere College where good manuscripts were received from young writers. Some of those published were: *Growing Up* by David Sebukima; *A Hitch over the Weekend* by Dr. D. Devercharia; *Gambeshi* by Hilda, and *The Land is Ours* by J. Kariuki.

By the end of 1950 the Bureau had published 65 titles in a total of 350,000 copies. From 1956 to 1957, the Bureau published 53 titles and reprinted 22 of them. Between 1959 and 1962, it had published a total of 86 titles and had reprinted 37 of them. The figures for Kenya and Tanzania appear separate in those reports. Important to reveal here is the point that these titles were for Uganda alone. By the country's standards, the figures showed a bright future.

4.3 Local Churches

The role of local churches in the evolution of books in Uganda cannot be ignored. In 1948, the Verona Fathers of Gulu, northern Uganda, purchased a second hand printing press, and ten years later in 1958 started publishing *Leadership Magazine* and *Lobo Mewa* newspaper.

This example was followed by the publishing of a magazine called *Mwebinga* in Runyoro/Rutoro languages of Western Uganda. In East and North-Eastern Uganda, Tororo Diocese began publishing in 1957; a monthly magazine called *Erwom K'Teso*. In South-western Uganda, one called *Agetereine* in Runyankore/Ruchiga began and in the Central region, *Kizito Magazine* began appearing in 1958 and in 1962, Masaka – still in the Central province, started publishing a magazine called *Mutabaganya*. In English, Katigondo National Seminary began in 1960 publishing *African Ecclesiastical Review*.

The contribution of the church did not stop at providing church news only but these magazines provided a forum for spreading political awareness. Ginyera Pinchwa supports this view in respect of *Lobo Mewa* and *Leadership Magazine*.

4.4 Uganda newspaper history

Newspaper publishing in Uganda is a century old. Tracing this history we find that the very earliest paper to be published in Uganda was *Mengo Notes*. The first newspaper was a slim journal, 5¾ x9 inches in size. It appeared monthly and contained four pages, increased after the first year to eight pages. After two years its title was changed to *Uganda Notes*. This newspaper was printed at the C.M.S. Industrial Mission and both type and paper were of good quality. It circulated among the British in Uganda and, being largely a missionary production. *Mengo Notes* was published in May 1900. The next newspaper was the *Uganda Herald* that appeared in 1912 (Sir Albert Cook, 1936: 27-46).

Uganda's press history shows that between 1986 and 1991, there were approximately 50 newspapers and magazines. But because of economic reasons, like lack of adequate capital, high taxes on newsprint, poor management systems in the media houses, most of these papers have folded leaving a staggering 23 – 26 newspapers and three magazines. The three dailies included, *The New Vision*, *The Monitor* and *Bukedde* which only circulated between them about 80,000 on average daily, covering approximately 6 percent of the entire population of 30,000,000 people in Uganda. (This is loosely translated to be approximately 1.2 million people, taking the average ratio of one newspaper per 11 persons who can read).

The independent press itself enjoyed a wide latitude of freedom, including the freedom to criticise individual government officials in the most scurrilous language. Some of the most stingent of these publications in Uganda were *Uganda Confidential*, *Munansi* and *The Shariat* which had been allowed to operate without interference since they were launched. These have since wound up as a result of both economic and political pressures with time. Government has also been known to exercise its rights to reply in the pages of the papers and on local FM radio stations.

However, what the media organisations in Uganda are doing, is to supply the population with information which the people are able to access and make informed and reasoned

decisions. With their wide range of news and opinions the newspapers in Uganda help the people understand and keep check on both public and private sectors of society. They thus have considerable responsibilities. The people in Uganda have relative choice of many different and competing media (STA 1998).

4.5 Post independence Book Publishing

Uganda gained political independence from Britain in October 1962. Becoming politically independent, the reigns of power and consequently the destiny of the country rested on its citizens. The then British participation in education changed. As an emergent state, massive efforts were taken to reduce the bottlenecks of development i.e. disease, ignorance and poverty. These triplets of backwardness were to be reduced through education. It was in education that lay the greatest force that could be used to redress the past shortcomings. More importantly, it was the most reliable investment Uganda could make for the accelerated economic and social progress.

The country's leaders, full of political energy, embarked on extensive school enrolment, restructuring syllabuses to meet challenges of a new nation, created more schools, opened public libraries and began massive training of skilled personnel especially health, commerce, technical and teacher training. The opening of various colleges of higher education in 1964 is the case in point. The sum total of these developments meant a corresponding provision of books and scholastic materials. Admittedly, there were no facilities yet to provide them. For the interim period, the state continued to import from Britain. Meanwhile, the leaders entertained ideas of starting an indigenous publishing industry.

Basing their efforts on the UNESCO Conference of African states on the Development of Education in Africa, Uganda was quick to realize the importance of local publishing vis-à-vis foreign participation. Talking on the subject in 1967, Dr. S.J. Luyimbazi Zake, the then Minister of Education, said of Uganda Publishing House:

“Obviously, if Uganda Publishing House produced a book, it was going to displace some other book, and certain people, therefore, decided to be obstructive. At the moment no less than 60 percent of the textbooks used in our schools in Uganda are published by Longmans...”

While denying that Uganda authorities had any intention of expropriating any publisher's copyright, the Minister added:

“We are only determined to develop our own potential of which there is plenty and to provide our own facilities for publishing. Who ordained that if a textbook is not published by Longman, it is not a textbook at all?”

Both questions revealed two things. First, it showed that there was some book trade between Uganda and Britain. Secondly the emergence of indigenous publishing was irksome to the British publishers who had enjoyed some monopoly of the book market. The founding of Uganda Publishing House was seen as a bottleneck to their business.

That reaction was voiced by G.R. Davis in his report on the events in the British industry. In that report he cited a few words by Maurice Macmillan who said:

“Africans are determined to write and print their own books, and that being so, all his company had done was to be commercially alert and get in first.”

All said the emergence of indigenous publishing in Uganda was not an act of sabotage to the foreign publishers; rather it was an honest step towards self help without stopping outsiders. This point is supported by the fact that though there was a publishing industry in the country, the government continued to import text books from Britain and that importation of books to Uganda is still tax free. Besides Uganda is a signatory of the Florence Agreement including the Nairobi Protocol of 1976 which came into force on the 2nd January 1982.

4.6 The Structure of the Industry

Theoretically, the industry can be divided into two - i.e. private and public sectors. The private sector can further be divided into indigenous and foreign owned publishing companies. The public sector though small, is represented by The Uganda Printing and Publishing Corporation, Law Development Centre and Lands and Surveys, Makerere University Press and the New Vision Printing Publishing Corporation.

4.6.1 Public Sector Publishing

By public sector publishing is meant publishing that is financed and controlled by the government. A brief inquiry into its working should reveal the role it plays. And they are: Government Printer, and Lands and Surveys, Government Educational Institutions like Makerere University, and Research Institutes like National Agricultural Research Organisation (NARO).

Government Printer

Government Printer was established as a Publishing House in 1900. It is directly administered from the President's Office. Its particular function is to be the sole printer and publisher of government publications. The working of the establishment is rather unique. There is no editorial acquisition and none of the marketing to any noticeable degree. All material to be published emanates from government sources i.e. President's Office, Ministries or Departments controlled wholly or largely by government. The government printer prints and publishes all types of government publications but the most common ones are: Government Bills and Acts, Parliamentary debates, Government Gazette, Legal Supplements and Reports of Government. It is also active in publishing literature in pamphlet form and posters meant for educating the public on various issues such as environment and health. Copyright for all publications resides in the government and sale of the publications is limited for one reason and that is, there is no clear establishment for the purpose such as the bookselling division of HMSO and the buying habit is also a weakness. Secondly, consent of the owner - Department or Ministry is sought before any sale is carried out. In many cases, this is not

forthcoming. Bureaucratic red tape and lack of policy on how to widely make its products available on market hinder the wide circulation of such publications. But for all those meant for public education, and awareness, the government releases them easily and in quantities sufficient for a majority of the English reading public.

Uganda Literature Bureau

This organisation is not new in terms of its establishment in Uganda. It was originally a branch of the East African Literature Bureau. Because of the political disagreements among East African Presidents in the 1970s, the East African Community collapsed and Uganda created Uganda Literature Bureau as Kenya renamed it Kenya Literature Bureau. The collapse meant the total dissolution of all bodies formerly under the Community. The objective and work of the Bureau remain the same as before but its functioning has been declining. The main reason is that finance to meet its obligations is not easily forthcoming from the government. Government has eventually closed the organisation.

Lands and Survey Department

Map production is restricted for official purposes to the Lands and Survey Department which combines the whole operation as cartographer, map printer and map publisher. The major continuing work of cartography and the unceasing revision of its own maps make it a separate special activity of public sector publishing in Uganda. The problems of map publishing largely centre on lack of modern machinery and materials.

4.7 The Private Sector

In the recent decades more publishing houses have been established. These include among others: MK Publishers, Fountain Publishers and Mukono Bookshop Ltd, Mastermind, Net Media, Joibaso, Baroques, Ocean, TCGR.

Centenary Publishing House (CPH) is an active Christian publishing house in Uganda. Its parent organisation is the Church of Uganda and was founded in 1969. CPH was established to make available, books of religious nature, at fair prices, to the expanding Christian community in the country. With initial success, its programme enlarged to include educational, children's and general books. Publishing is carried out in English as well as a few local languages especially Luganda.

Uganda Publishing House (UPH) was an indigenous publishing house in the country before it folded up in mid 1980s. Its parent organisation was Milton Obote Foundation and was founded in 1966. Its first managing director, Mr. Archer, maintained reasons behind an indigenous publishing house as economic in the sense that if a book was written, printed and published locally, then the only expenditure of foreign exchange would be for the purchase of paper, and this was the aim of Uganda Publishing House.

To ensure efficient distribution of its books, the Milton Obote Foundation established in 1968, a sister organisation called Uganda Schools Supply Ltd (USSL). This body was concerned with books as well as scholastic materials. And to succeed in their duties, USSL established branches in all major towns of Uganda as chain supplier. But because UPH is dormant now, the activities of USSL have come to a standstill. Instead it has been able to survive by selling old outdated books and stationery. The main reasons for this state of the affairs are: lack of trained staff, funds, creativity on the part of the existing staff and general awareness by the potential authors that UPH is functioning as well as the establishment of new companies that have innovative ideas and capacity to break into the market.

Uganda Bookshop is the oldest bookshop in the country. It was incorporated in Uganda on the 14th May, 1927 as a commercial organisation. It is an organisation which used to print, publish and sell its products too. The Publishing Department published general trade books, primary and secondary school textbooks and reading charts. Its publishing programme was carried out both in English and local languages especially *Luganda*, *Nkore-Kiga* languages which are spoken by half the country's population. Uganda Bookshop has its own printing press, named after Alexander Mackay. This press, Mackay Press, is capable of printing many of the textbooks, charts and stationery with which Uganda Bookshop activities depend on. It also has its own book distribution set up. It has a few bookshops remaining open from a chain of bookshops it had in many parts of the country.

Fountain Publishers is one of East Africa's leading publishing houses in Education and Trade publishing which was founded in 1988. Fountain Publishers holds a published list of over 500 titles with an average of 40 titles a year, in areas of politics, economics, tourism, culture, fiction, poetry, children's literature, and educational titles. Fountain Publishers intends to continue publishing not only for the East African region but also for the whole region on African issues.

MK publishers Ltd is one of the leading book publishing house in Uganda presently. MK Publishers (U) Ltd has a published list of over 300 titles covering, among others, the whole range of textbooks in the Primary School Curriculum, secondary school subjects, general books, academic and scholarly works both in foreign and indigenous languages.

Mukono Bookshop Ltd is another publishing house that is operating at the moment. Mukono Bookshop Ltd publishes books for pre-primary, primary, secondary, and higher institutions of learning in Uganda.

4.8 Foreign Companies

The existence of foreign establishments in Uganda is not new. Their contact with Uganda began during the colonial period when they were responsible for supplying books and scholastic materials. What is new is that they opened their offices in Uganda soon after the country gained political independence. Three of them have been operating in the capacities of subsidiary companies and one maintains the office of an agent but based in the regional

office in Nairobi. The subsidiary companies are: Longman Uganda Limited, Macmillan and St. Paul Publications. The office of the agent represents Oxford University Press (OUP), Longhorn, and East African Educational Publishers (EAEP).

Longman Uganda Limited is a subsidiary of Longman Group UK Ltd. It is an example of foreign capital investment in Uganda. The activities of Longman Group UK Ltd began in 1964 when the first representative was appointed. With a bright promise of the future, Longman Group opened their offices in the country in 1965 thus founding Longman Uganda Ltd. The main aim at the beginning was to satisfy the needs of the expanded primary education at that time. Using both local and expatriate authors, Longman was able to consolidate its position and within two years, they were responsible for 60% of the books used in schools. And because of its initial success, Longman Uganda extended its activities to include trade books, secondary school textbooks and books in different themes in local languages. But due to political upheavals over the period of time, the activities of Longman Uganda Ltd have drastically been curtailed. Longman's strategy had been to produce books in the UK and Hong Kong and the finished products air freighted to Uganda where they are sold to institutions and bookshops.

Because Longman books were those prescribed on the syllabuses, Longman did not spend much on promotion. They simply informed the Ministry of Education and established bookshops, the availability of stock and waited for order to come in. The problems of Longman Uganda Ltd are different from those experienced by the indigenous companies. Theirs are: political uncertainty in the country and economic hardships of the target buyers of their books. By political uncertainty here is meant constant violent changes in governments frequently sandwiched with looting of stocks including books and/or persistent fighting in some areas of the country thereby limiting wide distribution of books.

Macmillan opened their office in Uganda in 1965 but had a well developed publishing foundation in the East African education market much earlier. They were responsible for supplying primary school books that were chosen by the Department of Education. But when Uganda attained independence, Macmillan had to change according to the local requirements. This meant publishing books written to suit Ugandan needs of the period. As a result Macmillan became associated with Uganda Publishing House. They knew that UPH was new and therefore not very competent in handling the volume of work it was founded to do. Their collaboration included development of manpower for UPH, editing and sharing publishing expenses. But all Macmillan was doing was to give light support to UPH in training a few of its staff while actually developing its own programme alongside UPH but using UPH platform to capture the educational market. For undisclosed reasons Macmillan fell out with UPH. They are still being represented and are publishing for the Ugandan market.

St. Paul Publications is a branch of an international organisation called Daughters of St. Paul. Its headquarters is in Slough, England. It is a Christian publishing house as well as a major bookseller in Uganda. As a publisher, it was founded in 1979. The organisation has

a resident Director and Editor. Their publishing programme covers subjects on religion and moral formation and are now engaged in producing readers for pre- and primary schools. They also publish magazines, leaflets and Christian posters. Production of their books and posters, leaflets is done abroad. It is only marketing and distribution which is done in Uganda.

Oxford University Press (OUP) maintains the office of an agent in Kampala with GUSTRO being their representative. All its activities are administered from Nairobi where there is the regional office for East Africa. Ever since it started participating in Uganda's book scene, it has been responsible for the publication of the English series called *Oxford English Course series*. This series is in use in the primary schools.

4.9 Publishing trends in Uganda since 1989

The publishing industry in a country can be viable if the infrastructure and resources are sufficiently developed. Ideally, size of market, amount of disposable income, literacy, language, reading habits, libraries, bookshops, environment, education and government policies profoundly influence on publishing in any nation. This review is about the publishing industry in Uganda. Against that, is documented the country's publishing industry in the last three decades.

The decades 1970s and 1980s, were very bad times for publishing in Uganda. Donors could not help declare it as the worst scenario on the African continent. Symptoms included; closure of local publishing houses, departure of foreign publishers, re-direction of the once viable printing sector into jobbing work, closure of bookshops, wholesale importation of books for education, and publication, albeit, irregularly of newspapers. The root cause of all these, was bad governance that affected all aspects life. Since the 1990s, Uganda's publishing industry has been making steady and significant developments towards recovery and sustainability. In this section I examine publishing and book-trade in the 1990s onwards as well as factors that have supported and affected its activities. It serves as an update of literature on publishing in Uganda.

One indicator of a recovering publishing industry is the range of its products. It is encouraging that Uganda publishing industry is exhibiting a wide range of information products that are distinctly associated with different types of publishing that is, book, newspaper, journal and magazine publishing. Publishing in Uganda continues to attract more players. In the public sector, Uganda Printing & Publishing Corporation (UPPC), The New Vision, Ministries, NCDC, National Environment Management Authority (NEMA) Law Development Centre, (LDC), Inspectorate of Government (IGG) are main public sector publishers.

NGOs, local and international are publishing different types of materials, monographs, newsletters, brochures, reports and even books etc. TASO, FEMRITE, UNDP and the World

Bank are major examples in the international group while other NGOs publish basically newsletters, manuals etc to promote their activities. Use of ISBN and ISSN is stabilising in Ugandans' publishing efforts. Although the National Library of Uganda is the Agency that has been authorised by law to allocate these numbers, still it is the Uganda Publishers Association doing it. Uganda is member of International Publishers Association (IPA).

Book publishing remains the most enduring type of publishing in Uganda. Before 1992 no statistics show Uganda's output. This indicates that no statistics were ever completed.

Newspaper publishing is perhaps the most dynamic area of publishing in Uganda today. Over 20 newspapers are published weekly. Big ones running at 40 plus pages are *The Monitor* and *The New Vision*, both dailies. Print run for each is above 35,000 copies. They are colour printed and reflect high standards of publishing. *The New Vision* publishes in 4 other regional local languages *Ateso*, *Orumuri*, *Rupiny* and *Bukedde (daily)* with a print-run of 5,000 copies each. These are weeklies. Every part of the country receives papers within 12 hours after publication. Investors include foreign companies. UNESCO figures are not reliable on this subject. Though small in relation to the country's population, they are an indication in the right direction. They are sustaining the reading habit and fulfilling the insatiable thirst for information on social and current affairs.

Magazine publishing is proving popular in Uganda today. More than twenty magazines are published and of very high standard. They are well designed and printed in glossy paper. Printing is done in Uganda. Readership is diverse. For instance, youth are served by some magazines like the *Secrets; leadership* magazine is an historical one for a general readership while *the Link* magazine is for covering political events in the Great Lakes region. *Success* is business-oriented magazine. *The Architect* is for architects as *Safe Motherhood*, *African Woman* is for women. *New Era* is general magazines by Uganda Women Writers Association. *Insight* is a social and business magazine while *Tarehe Sita* is a general magazine from Uganda Peoples Defence Force. The reason of including this here is that there is a segment of market that could benefit from its products had a better business model been found to get information widely accessible.

Publishing in local language is an important means of communicating culture. This area of publishing is currently restricted to a handful of languages. Uganda is a country with more than fifty languages representing different ethnic groupings. Languages in which books and newspapers are mainly published are: *Ateso*, *Luo*, *Luganda*, *Lunyankole/Ruchiga*, *Lunyoro/Lutoro*. But following the introduction of mother tongue instruction in 2007 writing and publishing learning materials in various languages has increased.

Despite publishing in local languages, there is low reading of books and newspapers in local languages. This has been attributed largely to low literacy, poverty, poor distribution, scarcity of published materials, preponderance of oral culture and low reading habits. But a closer examination of factors leading to this state of affairs brings to light other fundamental factors. These include low level of writing in local languages due to inadequate skills, lack of significant knowledge of the nature of the reading public. Way back in 1980s, a famous Kenyan writer, Prof. Grace Ogot found that many writers in African or locals languages had not studied the reading publics enough. There were many different reading publics or target groups in local languages as they are in English. For instance these should differentiate between children, women, youth and so on. On another level the writers should care for language differences, cultural differences, education levels and so on and location as either urban or rural. These populations require the kind of style of presenting information basing on their characteristics. This is what has so far not fully been recognised and appreciated.

4.10 Co-publishing

Eminent writers on book publishing (Albatch 1996, Victor Nwanko 1996, Ian Montagnes 1996, and Chakava 1995) have given constructive ideas about the subject of co-publishing. The summary of their ideas is that co-publishing as a business model in publishing is actually beneficial if well understood and exploited. Co-publishing in Uganda exists and is bound to expand. James Currey/Fountain Publishers is an example that has had a successful partnership. Areas of collaboration are wide. They range from production to distribution. For example, Uganda publishers find it cheaper to print abroad while their counterparts market the product. Local publishers know that quality is quite difficult to get in Uganda, beating deadlines is also a problem and even the cost of inputs, smartness in costing projects for a poor market and printing make local products more expensive. This arrangement has however remained mainly a north – south affair.

4.11 Rise of Informal Publishing

A rather disturbing development in Uganda's publishing industry is the rise of informal publishing which came as a response to the critical shortage of reading materials dating back to 1970s. Right from the primary school through university type written texts on stencils are duplicated, bound together and sold to the market especially schools. Is this a fraud or impure publishing? Under normal circumstances this is grey literature that is not available through normal book selling channels. They are characterised by limited distribution, poor bibliographic control, and small press – runs and non- standard formats. Besides, these materials are not vetted, nor properly edited. They are merely typewritten or word processed and mimeographed and covers printed to give a fair look. Products of the informal publishing have a market among students since they tend to address what students want most that is, written according to examination. Regardless of problems connected with their nature, Ugandan publishers agree, these publications destroy market for published

books. And there are no doubts children and teachers find them useful. The popularity of mimeographs is a lesson for mainstream publishers to take seriously. But the effect of this form of publishing is that products encourage students to read them only for purposes of passing examination. For this review, the significant point that comes out is that the specific school market wants something to read. Books published in mainstream publishing in most cases are priced higher than informal books. Marketing outlets are teachers themselves although they are beginning to appear in bookshops as well. Another point to take count of is that informal publishing as an awkward business model is a direct result of publishing industry's inability to saturate the book market and with affordable products. Bookshops are few, inadequately stocked and this has led people have to be innovative to fill the gaps. This is an indicator that reliable business publishing models that ensure equity are needed to allow same products to be marketed in various ways to reach different audience quite easily.

4.12 Scholarly Publishing

Scholarly publishing is the domain of universities and research institutions everywhere in the world. If, as has been said, the true university is a collection of books, then university presses have much to do with the making of universities. The essential purpose of presses, as the publishing divisions of their parent institutions, is to serve scholars and scholarships in general. They exist on the cutting edge of knowledge and often function as the natural outlet for information, theory, and methodology that will influence human endeavour in the decades and generations to come.

All universities have three paramount functions: teaching, research, and dissemination of the results of scholarly inquiry. It is one of the noblest duties of a university to advance knowledge, and to diffuse it not merely among those who can attend the daily lectures- but far and wide (Sheldon Meyer & Phillabaum, nd). University presses do not serve only the scholarly community, many of their books also help bridge the gaps that sometimes appear between the academic community and society as a whole. In this broader area, university presses function in much the same manner as commercial book publishers, although there are crucial differences.

A University press normally reflects in its publishing program the strengths of the institution's faculty, as well as the principal interests of the university and the larger community in which both exist. It serves the faculty and the university best by providing an imprint and publishing program comparable in quality to the finest educational institutions of similar nature. The imprint of a university press is typically controlled by an editorial board appointed from the faculty, occasionally with some members from outside the university. Each publishing project or proposal is subject to independent appraisal by qualified reviewers, and the editorial board decides, on the basis of these reviews and the recommendations of the press's management, whether to authorize publication of the work in question. The board thus

stands behind the imprint of the university and helps insure the quality and significance of the books on the press's list contend Sheldon Meyer & Phillabaum (nd).

A review of literature and observation of what is happening in Uganda reveals that this is still a grey area of publishing although it has been going on to some extent. Although Uganda has about twenty universities public and private but much of the publishing is concentrated in few universities namely Makerere, Mbarara, Nkozi and Kyambogo Universities. At Makerere University it is the work of the University Press, that was launched in 1995 and Nkozi University that followed a little later. The Presses aim at publishing scholarly monographs, and academic texts, encouraging academic staff and students to publish worthy academic works in books and journals, obtaining copyright from authors and publishers to reproduce essential reading materials. Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threat analysis as a yardstick for evaluating its performance yield some problems. The Press does not have the editorial policy, manuscripts come to it unsolicited. Their products are not in bookshops. Potential market does not even know the presses publish books, but they do. Bottlenecks include lack of policy to guide the selection of what is needed most. Low print runs of about 500 copies that make sale price too high. There are no full time staffs to run the presses on commercial basis. The single greatest problem facing university press today and tomorrow is financing. Scholarly publishing is subsidized publishing unlike perhaps Oxford University Press or John Hopkins University Press in the USA.

One main aspect of university publishing is focused on providing distance education students with packaged reading material. All those universities run distance education programmes. Although no evaluation has been done on their distance education materials, one thing often heard from students of distance studies is that the materials are not enough. They do not have enough time to read them because they come for face-to-face for two hectic weeks. And when they go back to their work stations, it is difficult to access the materials because locations/libraries or centres that have been given responsibility to keep them for students are far apart and do not keep enough copies to go round to those in need. This is one gap about these materials.

The administrators of the distance programmes, admit, yes materials are not enough because they do not have money to print many copies to reach every one and the student numbers are in thousands. This means there is a critical shortage of reading materials for distance education. For the purpose of this review it is important to note that shortcoming and also to note that there are no better models by which distance education students effectively access information products at the moment besides teacher's resource centres in the districts. It also comes to light that provision of library services for distance learners is grossly inadequate. Libraries especially public libraries are very few and poorly funded if at all. They are not even available in some places. University libraries are available but distance education

students are poor in library skills and well as computer literacy. They do not even have time to come to the library because at the time they come for face-to-face, it is a crush programme without any moment for library use. Alternative methodology of publishing educational materials for distance learners would surely be a solution.

The other aspect is the publishing of research output in the forms of peer reviewed papers, monographs and books. I must say this is a problematic area too. Many reasons have been advanced. One main one is Universities here do not have effective presses. Even for this university, little is published as described below.

In the journal publishing specifically, the “publish or perish” syndrome, success in publishing in international journals, or difficulties in publishing research results internationally are partly reasons there is journal publishing in Uganda to some extent and in institutions of higher learning or universities. Quite often overlooked are other important factors like sustainable financing of journals, distribution and international vetting. Publishing of journals appears to have been trapped along these times. About 10 journals are published. But the major concern is regularity. Journals operate on very insecure financial base. Sendikadiwa (1999) expresses concern that even the old ones like *Uganda Journal* 1934, *Makerere Medical Journal (MMJ)* 1964 and *Mawazo* 1968 went into limbo in 1986 and reappeared in 1996. Some others including *Makerere Law Journal*, 1975 – have been restarted and new ones like *African Crop Science Journal* 1993 - *Dialogue* 1994 – *Uganda Environmental and Natural Research Management Policy and Law* 1992, – *African Journal of Peace and Human Rights*, 1995 -, *PIC News*, 1998 – *East African Journal of Peace and Human Rights*, *Journal of African Religion and Philosophy* 1989, *Education Journal* 1998, *Makerere University Research Journal (MURJ)* 2006 – are irregularly being published. And they are not even cited in international databases such as ISI or abstracts. Their future appears bleak. Continuity cannot be guaranteed unless they are subsidised somehow or other business models are found to make their visibility easier than at present. Most of these are locally funded – an arrangement that is problematic indeed. Because of the disappointing picture of journal publishing in the country, most academics publish abroad. Even there, the possibility of getting a paper published is very hard. Uganda universities are also unable to subscribe for the isolated journals where Ugandan papers appear. This is another challenge.

There is also another big challenge in universities. For a long time, universities have been used to producing lots of research dissertations in paper form. These materials are continually and quietly increasing in numbers and are becoming out of date in libraries. This brings in a big gap in academic information products. What could have come up as local content contribution to knowledge on the Internet is idle and dormant. A versatile model is needed that ensures dissertations, books and journals are published widely and made available.

According to a seminar on strengthening scholarly publishing in Africa held in Zanzibar in 2002, it was reported that despite general improvement of professional standards of publishing during the 1990s, few African publishers brought out scholarly works. Scholarly publishing needed vibrant universities in order to flourish; but since the drying-up of funding for higher education in the 1970s and 1980s and the consequent collapse of African universities as centres of research, university publishing has remained weak. Participants recommended that for African scholarly publications to be of excellent quality, on par with the best being produced elsewhere in the world, a number of specific needs must be met in the areas of editing and production, marketing and distribution. Participants emphasized in particular the importance of harnessing information technology, forming strategic partnerships, strengthening journal publishing and improving training. In terms of the PALM AFRICA project, their recommendations are in line with the project aspirations. For instance participants called for new forms of collaboration and sharing of resources as a means of strengthening scholarly publishing. Faculties needed to work closely and creatively with publishers to identify theses, dissertations and other research work with publishing potential. They identified co-publishing, selling rights and licensing; working together with other parts of the book chain including booksellers; collaboration on distribution and collaboration on training among others (Hussein & Priestley, 2002) as important considerations. Ouya & Smart (2005) when reporting findings of open access survey of Africa published journals also raised the issue of training, staffing, funding and indexing as being crucial. Uganda was respondent. Concerns that came up about open access included uncertainty about sustainability on the Internet, Blanket approach to Open Access, Archiving, Technological limitations, and loss of subscription revenue.

4.13 Electronic Publishing

So far it is noted that publishing in Uganda has for the last one hundred years been based on the traditional publishing model where books, newspapers, magazines etc are published in the print mode. This model has definitely supported the initiatives it was established to do but cannot be said to have solved all our problems. As the world is in constant state of transition, there have emerged new technologies such as TV; films Internet and World Wide Web that have scuttled the supremacy of the print model of doing business in the information world. While stakeholders are continuing with print, there is a generation now finding it easier to use technology based information to prospect for information and knowledge easily. This change into new era of publishing has dawned on Uganda publishing industry as well and is in tandem with sharing global trends that advances in information and communication management, knowledge creation and sharing are based on information technologies that are contributing to the solution. First this is because ICTs are now dynamically influencing our life styles and social consciousness is providing us a best tool for sharing and mutual communication. Secondly we must remember the possible contribution of publishing to effective and stable production by several models. For instance, individuals and organisations

including government, educational and research institutions are creating web sites on the Internet to create more visibility and marketing of themselves, their products and trading. Publishing houses in Uganda have also cashed in. The Ugandan newspapers, *The Monitor* and *The New Vision* and sister papers in local languages are now online. This is in keeping with advances of communication technology. Electronic publishing includes the digital publication of e-books and electronic articles and the development of digital libraries and catalogues. E-publishing is described as the use of electronic means of communication to make information available to the public.

Briefly it can be said that publishing in Uganda is neither exclusively educational nor trade publishing. It is a basket of educational, trade and religious publishing. Much as it is the correct combination for Uganda, we can not proudly say that the book market has been filled. There is a huge potential in the country. Gaps exist in the market. First, inadequacy of funds - has crippled the industry to a large extent. Lack of trade tools - catalogues, industry journals for the effective promotion of books and their distribution speak for themselves. Coupled with that, is the weak national bibliographic service at the National Reference Library. This has left a big gap in which nobody knows what is being published, where and by whom. The country's book laws have so far proved most ineffective. The National Library Act 2004, The Makerere University Legal Deposit Act, 1958 and Institute of Public Administration Library Deposit and Documentation Act 1969, are weak and exist in book only. No publisher has ever been accused in court for defying them. The effect is that it is quite difficult to acquire any new book, and in fact it is much easier to buy from abroad because tools of reference are readily available. Scarcity of trained human resource explains why some houses are dormant. Then there is the endemic complaint of foreign books being largely irrelevant in the public library system. This is a self created problem. Librarians and publishers alike interact little. Irrespective of that there are common platforms such as Publishers' Association, Uganda Bookseller's and Uganda Printers Association in Uganda and National Book Trust of Uganda for the publishing fraternity to interact and influence policy.

4.14 Role of Government in publishing

There is a close relationship between publishing industry and government. Government of Uganda involvement in publishing is visible in four areas i.e. government as publisher, as regulator, as human resource developer and as a distributor. As a publisher the role of state is limited to materials emanating from its departments. Since 1900 when Government Printer was established, the state has continued to publish Government information materials. This arrangement was modified in 1992 when the status of Government Printer was changed into a public sector institution, becoming Uganda Printing and Publishing Corporation (UPPC). The move aimed at making UPPC a self-sustaining organisation providing printing and publishing facilities to government, private individuals and organisations, and

acting as an in-service training school for its staff and other organisations. By Decree 7 of 1973 Government created the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) at a time publishing in Uganda was not yet bad but signs of volatile political situation threatened supply of books to schools. NCDC was created among others to investigate and evaluate the need for syllabus revision and curriculum reform at primary, secondary, tertiary institutions and to initiate new syllabuses, to draft teaching aids and instructional materials, to publish information for propaganda purposes. NCDC for most of its operations has been engaged in writing manuscripts.

In the newspaper sector, Government of Uganda has always maintained a newspaper house. Since independence onwards, *Uganda Argus*, *Voice of Uganda*, *Uganda Times* and *The New Vision* are names of papers succeeding one another. The *New Vision* exists legally (Uganda Parliament 1987). Its mission includes publishing government newspapers in English and local languages in Uganda. It carries out any other activities that may be carried on by a printing press or publishing house.

The State has a role in regulating what is read in Uganda. In the education sector, it has textbook and instructional materials policy. The policy, announced in 1993 removed the monopoly of NCDC writing books for schools, liberalised the supply of instructional materials to schools, and introduced vetting of all books and other materials going to primary and secondary schools. The policy decentralised selection of materials to school level. Local publishers welcomed the policy as it levelled the playing ground, which hitherto favoured only foreign publishers.

Government buys books for primary, and to a limited extent for the tertiary institutions. The major one is primary education and to some extent secondary schools. Over the last ten years, the Ministry of Education has been implementing Support Uganda Primary Education Reform (SUPER) Programme using World Bank Funds. SUPER I was implemented in 1993. It catered for primary 5 to 7. Local publishers supplied 53, 344 books or 7.5 percent of total book stock. SUPER II was implemented in 1995. It covered primary 2 - 4. Local publishers supplied 62,160 books making it 8.6 percent. SUPER III was implemented in 1997. Local publishers supplied 217,459 out of 2.1 million books that were supplied. This accounted for 10.4 percent. Under SUPER IV in 1998, the local publishers supplied 260, 540 books out of 1.5 million books thereby contributing 17.5 percent. Analysis of performance indicates that: The pattern of book trade to primary and secondary school has not changed significantly. The traditional players - Longman and Macmillan continue to dominate the school market; co-publishing is a reality as shown by Fountain and other relationships; despite of the US\$55.00 vetting fee per title, some local publishers are increasingly taking a position in the book market. It is to be noted that though a few local publishers compete to get their titles approved by the Ministry of Education and Sports, they are quite many in number. Only a handful is able to publish a book in a year, some none at all.

The second area of regulation covers the Press. There is the *Press and Journalists Statute*, No.6 of 1995 that regulates the freedom of press, provides for the media council, establishes a national institute of journalists of Uganda (NIJU) and repeals the Newspaper Publication and the Press Censorship Act. The Statute sets minimum standards for a journalist at a bachelor's degree.

5.0 Representations

Associations exist to bring together people with similar interests. They encourage professional exchange of ideas, and forge unity among members. In Uganda there are a handful of associations connected with publishing activities. For this review they include: Uganda Writers Association, Uganda Printers Association, Uganda Publishers Association, Uganda Booksellers Association and Uganda Library Association. No study has ever been conducted to review how successful these are in promoting the ideals for which they were formed to serve.

5.1 National Book Trust of Uganda

The National Book Trust of Uganda (NABOTU) was formed in 1997 to promote unity among publishers and booksellers. NABOTU is a civil society initiative set up to promote reading and books. It brings together all stakeholders in the book industry, government, non-governmental organisations, and the International Development support Organisations. It aims to work with similar organisations in the region to create a literary society. NABOTU has been organising since 1997 successful book weeks. One of its spectacular features is the children's Reading Tent, a framework for taking books closer to children. In recent times NABOTU is very active in promoting activities relating to reading and publishing. It has projects including PALM AFRICA on its plan of activities. Leadership of this organisation is an important factor.

5.2 Book Development Council

Uganda has made progress towards the formation of the Book Development Council. In a national book sector workshop held in May 1997, Interim Book Development Council was formed. It comprises of Associations of publishers, booksellers, writers, printers, librarians and users' of the books, the Government Ministries whose activity have a bearing on books; UNESCO Uganda, NGOs. The Council co-ordinates book sector activities such as book promotion, book sector surveys, training and regulation are some of its activities. It is not active at the moment.

6.0 Publishing Opportunities

A summary of various research findings indicates that Uganda publishing industry offers wide-ranging opportunities. Education in Uganda is an area of concern to publishers, because book publishing is textbook dominated and skewed heavily towards primary school books. In estimation around 60 – 75% of all books published in Uganda are textbooks mainly primary. This leaves a gap for books in other fields like culture, religion etc. Publishing for distance education, University level texts, books for technical education and others in local languages provide new challenges and opportunities for investment in Uganda.

During the 1990s, the environment for publishing in Uganda has seen a number of improvements. Ugandans are enjoying an enabling political environment. There is no more state monopoly on textbook publishing. Ease with which to access foreign exchange and improvements in information communication technology have contributed to a more conducive publishing environment. Liberalisation of the economy has lessened difficulties of accessing printing materials and equipment. Universal primary education (UPE) and universal secondary education (USE) have created a lasting demand for more books and there are general improvements in terms of school enrolments at all levels.

Publishing is reaching a level of quality and quantity, which is a sufficient base for growth. The status of publishing is going up or better. There is a younger generation of men and women publishers with entrepreneur skills and international connections. Fountain Publishers and M.K. are some examples. Co-publishing is creating new partnerships.

6.1 Economic Opportunities

An economy of a country or a sector within it can be judged using two management formulae, the SWOT analysis. Politically Uganda's economy has been transformed by putting in place enabling atmosphere and law. Security has improved, press freedom is guaranteed, liberalisation of the economy has provided opportunities for enterprising publishers. Textbook policy is in place. Uniform vetting of textbooks for schools has levelled ground for the book trade and introduced competition. Monopoly of state in publishing has been scrapped. Private companies both local and international now compete freely. Tendering procedure has become more transparent.

The Ministry of Education and Sports approves syllabi and lists of books for primary, secondary, and teacher education and allows schools to select their own books. It pays directly for books for primary education. Books for secondary education are still a niche area for investment. Books for secondary schools are charged on students who either bring their own textbooks, or they are levied a library fee or both for schools to be able to get books. Government is currently working out a new model for supplying school textbooks

to support its Universal Secondary Education. Books for tertiary institutions are a potential area for investors. Currently most of them are coming from foreign publishers. Uganda publishers are brazing for the regional market. There are investment opportunities in Rwanda, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Southern Sudan.

6.3 Cultural Opportunities

Uganda's political climate is stable and is enabling local and international publishers to take opportunities. Increasing enrolment at all levels of education is an opportunity which needs to be exploited expeditiously. Expansion of syllabi and introduction of new subjects to the schools curricula is creating more opportunities. New technology especially communication technology is helping publishers exchange ideas, with colleagues locally and internationally, manuscripts complete with illustrations can now be sent for editing through e-mail and returned same way. These are new opportunities. Use of DTPs has more than doubled within the decade. Availability of Internet services/facilities has promoted reading abroad of local literature. Publishers and organisations alike have created websites for promoting local information thus cutting barriers of time. What is important in this development is that publishers are now engaged in using information technology. Some publishing houses in the country have now gone to the extent of transforming their publishing activities by operating both print and electronic copies. The entry of e-publishing is a promising indicator in a good direction because it is a model that is also entering library spaces as a response. It is also creating a development where equity of information sharing is coming in. Libraries like Makerere, Kyambogo, Uganda Martyrs University, and Uganda Christian University Libraries are increasing the range of their e-resources in tandem with the developments in publishing industry. There are benefits out of this. First users have to learn to use ICT, second they have to understand techniques of using search engines and thirdly, they can access information even outside the library premises or elsewhere convenient. This element of accessing information outside the library is a method of democratising information access.

Whereas these opportunities exist little has been done to cover some gaps. Even if it were done, the scenario of accessing learning materials would mostly favour those who are better disposed to purchase them. This would still leave a gap to equal access to these materials. This means looking for alternative, efficient and effective means to fill the gap. This is precisely why PALM project is seeking for ideas that should lead to developing a newer model for providing learning materials. This review is one small contribution to that aim.

6.4 Challenges to publishing in Uganda

Although there is a market for information products especially books, the overall market is small. For instance that almost 32 percent of Ugandans have nothing to do with publishing due to non-literacy. Literacy is 68 percent for males and 61 percent for women. Another 18 percent of literates have limited access to published materials due to poverty. Absence

of suitable published material in languages they know and poor distribution systems make the problem mightier. In effect this means a small local market. The answer probably would be getting a model that would make it easy for people to access information cheaply. For example a model would be developed that allows materials to be placed on the Internet. People access it freely and where there is need to own a copy, advice would be given to contact the publisher for a copy. I think it would work.

The challenges of the publishing industry in Uganda are most importantly of an economic nature. Uganda is one of the poorest countries of the world. Per capita incomes stood at \$350 in 2006 against US \$500 on average in an African continent. Buying of newspapers and books magazines is concentrated only in urban areas and among a few able people. Indigenous publishing houses are under capitalised. Taxes on printing inputs remain a problem. Taxes and poor costing of project especially books makes imported ones cheaper. I would imagine that the proposal made above would bypass the printing scenario and make information materials cheaper.

At the same time, competition with multinational publishers Longman, Macmillan and Oxford University Press is tough business for the local publishers although this is good for quality control. Book publishing is skewed in favour of publishers from the north who have sufficient capital, classic publishing skills for especially materials for secondary and higher education including university. Prices of books are higher relative to real incomes. Markets are small because of low literacy and in foreign languages. Publishing basically is done in English – the second language and a few other local languages. Cost of education especially secondary up to university leaves little money for books. The culture of buying information products needs cultivation. Trading with partners is very limited indeed.

There is no overall government policy to promote publishing. It argues that what is important is freeing the economy to all actors and let the market forces of demand and supply rule. Only one sector – Education has a textbook policy. Government has put in laws in which every sector can compete. There are a few good publishers in the country. Although there are managers with experience at the top level, middle level staff is still scarce. There is a general lack of editors/translators in local languages, designers and illustrators. A large number of books published locally need improvement in physical quality and yet they are expensive at the same time. Publishers have acute shortage of capital. Banks are responding very slowly to the needs of local publishers.

The main cultural problem to Ugandan publishing is also the multiplicity of languages. Publishing is done in English and few local languages. English is the official language for administration and education. Local languages number over 50 with several dialects. The challenge to publishing is the multiplicity of local languages. Lack of editors with skills in

these languages exacerbates the problem of publishing. Dominance of foreign language, low reading habits, poorly funded libraries, poverty, low literacy levels, seeing no immediate benefits of reading by a section of society and problems of trade infrastructure especially in rural areas offer no solutions to the majority of people in Uganda who do not have access to published materials.

Uganda is pursuing a policy of primary education in the medium of local languages for the first three years. Publications in local languages are largely government initiatives that publish newspapers in regional languages but not books for schools. With thematic curriculum coming, indigenous languages could receive a boost. Churches do publish some papers in local languages and for books it is religious literature but in a few languages only.

Continued book donations in the name of cultural relations undermines writing and buying of books. Writing of tailor-made pamphlets and binding them locally is killing book sales of published books. Copyright abuse through unwarranted photocopying is a worrying problem especially at tertiary or university level.

Gender inequality within the publishing industry remains. It is as historical as it is cultural. Uganda like most African countries has in the past preferred boys more in education than girl children. School enrolment depicts this imbalance all through education structure. Development of a crop of women writers, editors and publishers remains an uphill task. Poverty, illiteracy, multiplicity of local languages, and book donations, are key factors constraining publishing of learning materials as they dampen efforts to produce more learning materials. Imbalance in school enrolment with a bias towards boys is a radical disadvantage to lifting the status of girl children. General scarcity of publishing skills, also makes it difficult for publishing to produce good products. It is the view here that had production and distribution of learning materials been easy, and cheaper people would be influenced to attend to school and adult classes. Whereas PALM is not expected to be the panacea of the problems of publishing it is indeed an idea worth exploring because publication of learning materials has been known to be problematic in its present state. It is against these difficulties that ideas are building to look for alternative ways of solving the learning materials equation.

7.0 Printing Industry

The simplest definition of printing is that it is a process and a method of making an impression on a surface such as a sheet of paper. While that definition is acceptable, printing should be understood as the entire process of producing an information product which ends with making available, copies of product like a book. Besides being a process, printing shall be given a wider connotation as that branch of industry from which we get products that are nearly designed to communicate, to instil a meaning to the user's mind.

7.1 Printing as a process and as an industry

Books as agents of education, literacy, leisure and information have to be manufactured and doing that involves a process of designing, printing and binding. It is the process whereby a typescript is transformed into a finished book. In book publishing, each printed work or book is a challenge, a new job and a different task even if it were a mere reprint. Production therefore becomes a creative function and as such a great amount of care is necessary at each step to ensure that the end product is pleasant to look at, is of right proportions and is best suited to the needs of the user. Technically, this process involves a considerable amount of liaison with authors/editors, block makers/typesetters, materials suppliers and with the promotion and sales people. All these require foresight, planning, clear thinking and quick decisions so that the format, cost, quality proceed according to plan and schedule. Like the car industry, printing industry is a union of different departments specializing in various aspects of the trade but each contributing to the final product as required. Some of the departments are inks, paper, plate, foundry, glues, thread manufacturers, but broadly put together, they come under two basic departments - printing and binding.

7.2 Nature and size of printing industry in Uganda

The most useful method of gauging the nature and sizes of printing presses or firms is by taking an inspection of all of them. Failing in that approach, statistical information regarding all the aspects of the industry should reveal the kind of facilities available. For the case of Uganda, both approaches are not possible. In the first place, owners are wary of showing their machinery to outsiders for reasons of secrecy and fear of competition and secondly there is no statistical information published anywhere about this subject regarding Uganda's state of the industry. However, a general guess of what firms' sizes are can be revealed from products they issue. Through observation and experience the printing industry in Uganda is divided into the following major divisions - general printers, newspapers, stationers and packaging printers. The general printing firms are those which deal with a range of activities such as books, magazines, business literature such as accounts and receipt books. The newspaper, packaging and stationery printers maintain their lines of specialization.

In a review of the Uganda's printing industry 2000-2005, Katigo (2006) established that many firms were small. And to qualify the word small, I use Curwen's scale with some modification. Curwen, breaks down the size of the firms in terms of people in employment. In this breakdown, the results of the respondents show that 60% of the firms were employing less than 50 people each. In fact the majority of the small ones had less than 10 people each in their establishments. About 20% employed up to 100 people each with a maximum of 400 people for the big establishments. However, the exact number of people in employment can not be fully ascertained because some firms never responded to the study request, others could not be reached and further still, some of them could not be located but said to exist. But it is sufficient to state here that people in employment in the printing industry is small.

One other issue which the survey revealed was that the distribution of firms was grossly uneven. The highest concentration is in Kampala, the capital region - which is the central region and yet the entire northern region of the country, constituting nearly one third of the country has only two functional book printing presses. This concentration of presses in the capital region is not an unhistorical accident but rather a historical result of elitist population converging in the place for employment. Consequently, they have concentrated here to serve that population.

The size and locations of firms alone cannot show how able they are in meeting the country's requirements. There could be many firms but not fully productive or there could be a few firms but fully operational. But in general there is enormous growth in Uganda's printing industry. Mere numbers of employees cannot actually reveal the kind of printing processes or complexity of the firms. For example, many firms employ up to 50 people each but a majority of them are hand compositors and other supporting staff. Data available at the Uganda Bureau of Standards (UBOS) indicates that Uganda's printing industry directly employs 7,000 people in over 380 companies (Balimwikungu 2008:41). But there are many more people directly and indirectly employed in the local printing industry. The same statistics further indicate that of the 380 companies, 275 are based in Kampala with 199 employing between five to nine people. Only five companies are employing more than 100 people. And indeed to state that many were hand compositors, shows that letterpress method of printing is widely used. Its wide application is due to the fact that offset method was sometimes bedevilled with shortages or extremely high cost of printing plates and films.

Despite the problems of materials, the use of offset method of printing is getting widespread and the introduction of modern methods of typesetting has helped improve the situation in some firms such as newspaper presses like the *New Vision* and the *Monitor* publications and Government Printer.

Despite the issues mentioned above, the printing industry has been growing over the past decade. This is partially as a result of government efforts to attract investors in the country and also promoting the local ones. One of the efforts in place is the liberalisation of the economy in which Investment Code has given investors incentives to repatriate their profits. Investment incentives in the form of Investment Guarantees are provided for under the Income Tax Act of 1997. An investor in the printing industry can apply for the tax incentives. Uganda is a member of Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) of the World Bank and VAT deferred payment Agreements. This membership means that the investment security guarantees are backed by an international framework and ensures that government will not fall back on its commitment to an investor.

Other policies government has put in place that affect printing like other businesses are: privatisation, lowering tariffs and non tariff barriers to regional trade which has facilitated cross border trade, foreign exchange market freedom, keeping down inflation to manageable rates in order to create stability in prices and encouraging growth through the private sector investment.

Briefly it can be said that today's printing industry is in a state of transition. It has become an industry that no longer relies solely on print for sustainability. The printers and print services providers are incorporating different strategies into their business models to provide different types of services that consumers now require for achieving their business goals. For instance four distinct services and products are realised as products of the print industry. These are: design and pre-press services (computer graphic design, hand art design, film processing, screen print design, colour separation and aluminium plate processing); printing (products: magazines, newspapers, brochures, business documents like receipt books and invoices, office stationery, visitors cards, advertising, production of posters, billboards (PVC vinyl) manuals, books, labels and stickers); finishing (folding, cutting, gluing, perforation, glazing, polishing and sealing).

It can be said that printing industry is one of the most technologically responsive industries. The introduction of the Internet, computerised designing and digital presses has improved performance of the industry. This has meant deskilling trend in composing, plate making and pressroom operations. This has meant taking on new type of workers with skills in IT operations and generally higher education levels.

The problems Uganda printers are facing according to Katigo's study include client grabbing by the bigger printers, acquiring permits for foreign workers, corruption from managers from big organisations that need kickbacks and delayed payments, seasonal nature of business and shortage of skilled human resources. It is felt the industry does not have printers with a level of knowledge and skills exactly needed.

With printing technology changing the world over, printing houses have to train their employees. Whereas the big firms take employees to Germany, most printing houses now utilise the printing course at Kyambogo University which offers printing technology course at certificate level. As a result of this quality has improved because those who attain the training pass on the knowledge to counterparts. But even with this course there is a problem of lack of trainers and machines adequate enough to sustain a vibrant training programme at the university. And of course given the printing loads available, investments in print-on-demand facilities are still a long way away.

7.3 Binding

Binderies in the country fall under two categories: institutional binderies in places such as University Libraries, President's Office and the others are printers' binderies. While the former have been established to carry out book repairs, periodical and/or document binding, the latter are commercial binderies equipped with machinery for initial bookbinding. To date, there is no distinct plant which is wholly established for that purpose. Those that exist are part of the printer's establishment. An examination of the kinds of binding techniques reveals that stapling, perfect and sewn but paper cover binding are in use. The process of case or edition binding had not been started due to its expensive nature. Here it is stated that while thousands of books are used, book life is often short meriting rebinding. There are no binderies to cater for school books. This means a high mortality rate and replacement. For purposes of this PALM AFRICA project this weakness could be turned into an opportunity by having materials on the Internet where there would be no rebinding costs except website maintenance costs.

7.4 Production Capacity

Most firms fall under private sector and are operating as individual entities. Those that fall under public sector i.e. Government Printer, Prisons Press, Defence Press, New Vision, Lands and Surveys, operate directly under the patronage of their ministries. To get an accurate assessment of the volume of their output requires support of statistics. Again there are none publicly available. However, two pictures can be painted - one from small firms and the other from big firms.

The small firms visited showed a tendency of inflating figures which in my view were completely unrealistic. The big firms can not reveal their correct figures. Low figures are quoted but on asking the authors of their books print-runs, another set of figures, usually higher, are often given. This leads to the conclusion that fear of revealing correct figures is tied to the fear of taxation as was the case for big firms. On the other hand small firms overstate their figures for the sake of false pride, marketing, and recognition. However, failing on statistics is no total excuse to the problem. The researcher can fairly say that the output is low in terms of quantity if paired to the existing needs in the country.

7.5 Printing and Ancillary Industry

“... just bring up the supplies,” Rudyard Kipling.

That statement summarises what role ancillary industry plays in printing. It is because the products of the printing industry have increased enormously in quantity and variety these days, so has the manufacture and supply of materials and equipment for the printer.

Printers need type foundry, ink manufacturers, paper makers, film and plate makers, computers and their accessories etc, for the supply of their products. While in developed countries such as Britain, all these inputs could be manufactured within the country, in Uganda, all are imported from overseas. Against small capital, whatever becomes available is but insufficient. Paper for example, plays a leading role that before a printer accepts any job, he must be sure this item is available in stock. This is one of the elements that printers use as excuse to cost their printing jobs higher than normal. It explains why publishers in Uganda normally send their files to Arab or Asian countries for printing. When printed out there, the costs of printing, packing, insurance plus transportation by air to Uganda are still lower than if the work were printed in Uganda. It is only newspapers that enjoy the benefits of larger print runs in which unit cost drops dramatically to fairly acceptable market level.

7.6 Printers and Publishers

The relationship between printers and book publishers' centre on the ability of the printer to do the latter's job satisfactorily. This means the printers must have the capacity to do a good job. All that publishers need is a concrete assurance usually through a contract that printers will complete the job well and on schedule as specified in the contract. As far as the situation obtains in Uganda, printers and publishers have many times been unhappy about each other's attitudes. Publishers have sometimes found themselves accusing printers for delaying to deliver the final products or doing the job unsatisfactorily. Printers on the other hand, have blamed delays on shortages of materials such as paper, power failures and sometimes the competent staff being on leave. At one end of the scale, authors become impatient though the problem of scarcity of materials has been addressed. Government liberalised the economy and required inputs to the printing industry are available in the country. Also, more printers, especially foreign ones have also joined and opened printing establishments in Kampala especially. But generally stated and despite those problems, there is sufficient capacity to do the printing work in Uganda. All that is needed is good organisation and management of resources - both human and material.

Though printing has been in use for over 80 years, its development in the country has been hampered by a number of factors. The most serious being cost of materials, inadequate skilled manpower in numbers capable of managing the entire industry, old and uneconomic machines which often breakdown without facilities for quick repairs. Despite the shortcomings, modern facilities are becoming widely available but the volume of work

available to them is still low. Government's readiness to help should eventually redress the problems ailing the industry.

8.0 Book Procurement and Distribution in Uganda

Books are tools of education and instruments of knowledge and as such book publishing has a social role to play apart from being an entrepreneurial venture. To fulfil those functions, the publishers have to make sure books and other information products reach the widest possible audience. This is the essence of marketing and distribution.

Marketing is the overall function which takes the book to the reader and involves all other functions namely: promotion and publicity, actual selling, market research and merchandising and distribution. To market books, one must know books as individual items, the customers, the channels of reaching them and methods of influencing people to buy books. On the other hand, distribution is a process which involves planning, implementing and controlling the physical flows of materials from the points of origin to the points of use to meet customer needs at a profit. In book publishing, this means the physical movement of books from publishers warehouses to the distribution channels and ultimately to the buyers, using the most convenient, cheap and fast means. Both marketing and distribution are the two functions that any publisher uses to fulfil his duties. Failure to do that means all efforts and money spent to create books become a liability.

In a broader context, book distribution involves procurement, consolidation and delivery of books to the end user. For this review, I differentiate book procurement from book distribution. Book distribution, like book procurement is a part of a chain of activities in the publishing industry. Book distribution activities are centred on selection, warehousing, consolidation, transportation and delivery to the end user whereas procurement looks at the sources of funding – government, parents, local authority and how such funding is distributed or used in acquisition of books. Procurement focuses on acquisition of instructional materials, and other aspects like funding, vetting of materials to be purchased and consolidation are of great importance.

In the context of this review, this section describes how marketing and book distribution is carried out in Uganda. This begins with some history. History is important because looking back over it helps to look into the future. From it we gain knowledge of events and tendencies which help explain what is really going on today and what may likely happen in the future.

The exact year when marketing and distribution of books began in Uganda, is hard to tell. What is certain is that with the coming of missionaries and later on by the colonial administration, books came as the necessary tools of education and literacy. So, it can be safely said that the beginnings of marketing and distribution is tied with the development of education. The bulk of bookselling to Africans was done through missions who had not

only their own bookshops, but also acted as wholesale distributors to a large number of small traders and mission stations. Besides static bookshops, there was a mobile bookshop service under the charge of European missionary. This was the case for Church Missionary Society in book selling. In the commercial sector, book selling was already functioning. Bookshops were managed by Europeans, Asians and Africans. These bookshops acted both as wholesale as well as retail outlets for books.

The East African Literature Bureau followed the work of missionaries and colonial administration in bookselling. Its terms of reference in bookselling precluded competition with the existing channels of marketing and distribution. The Bureau distributed its books largely through the trade - i.e. missionary establishments and commercial sectors. The Bureau also sold its books through welfare (or Community Development) Officers. In its report, 1950, the Bureau reported that sale of its books at all places they appeared was fairly steady, but the number of places in relation to the size of the territory was inadequate. It was therefore, found fit for the Bureau to take an active part in book marketing and distribution. To put this into effect, the Bureau in 1952 agreed that its greatest contribution would be in the field of promotion of bookselling trade among the small shopkeepers over the widest possible area. Its Advisory Council at its meeting in 1951 had approved a limited publishing programme so as to direct efforts towards book promotion.

Consolidating on existing channels and creating many more, the Bureau's points of sale increased to 84 against about half the earlier total. Its sales also increased from 88,000 volumes during 1948-1950 to 113,000 during 1951, representing an increase of 28.4%.

Besides using the existing channels, the Bureau developed a *mailing list* containing addresses to which, on publication of a new book, a *Book News Sheet* was sent giving details of the new publications and price. An order form was attached. The Bureau was able to maintain its links with the established book trade for a longer period to come.

Up until 1962, book marketing and distribution developed enormously due to increased literacy, expansion of educational programmes, stable economy, and one unit of currency used in the whole of East Africa. There was mobility of books from one country to another without serious hitches.

At the attainment of political independence in 1962, book marketing and distribution continued to do well. There existed wholesalers and many retailers up to the remotest parts of the country. There was a mobile book service by Uganda Bookshop, and village traders carried books to the village markets as part of their merchandise. The rising literacy levels were a manifestation of the promising publishing industry with an effective book procurement method.

But a few years into independence, the entire publishing industry had been altered. State centralism that had swept over textbook supply in Kenya, Tanzania, Malawi and Ghana did not spare Uganda (Read, Denning and Bontoux 2001:25). Uganda Publishing House, Uganda Press Trust and Uganda School Supply all the subsidiaries of Milton Obote Foundation were created to manage book work in the country. With the fall of Obote government in 1971 Uganda School Suppliers like the Uganda Publishing House faced a downward trend without recourse to the private sector. Amin's government lasted up to 1979 when his regime fell and Obote became the president for the second time. Again an attempt to re-establish the Uganda School Supplies (Matovu & Read, 2001:114) was made. All distribution and school supply once again became the monopoly of Uganda School Supplies. With the fall of Obote's second regime in mid 1985, again the textbook distribution did not revert to the local private sector. Government learnt a lesson since it was under pressure to solve the problem of lack of reading materials in schools. It made a radical step of tendering for primary school textbook supplies to international suppliers since no other company could do in Uganda. Since then the state has been involved in procurement, consolidation and distribution of textbooks without the involvement of the private sector booksellers and distributors. For example the advent of the USAID Support for Uganda Primary Education Reform (SUPER) project created a system that initially consolidated and distributed the procured primary school textbooks within the Ministry of Education and Sports.

Because of the upheavals and the ongoing wars in Uganda since 1966 the book procurement system has been in state of disruption all the time forcing the state to play a major role in procurement of textbooks, and relying more on donor funding. For example since 1983, funding agencies have been providing most of the funds for teaching and learning materials for primary schools in Uganda. Some of the agencies are: The World Bank through four IDA projects - education III, IV, V and Northern Uganda Reconstruction Project; and USAID via the SUPER project.

Under IDA III 1985-1987 and IDA IV 1989 there was a major provision of textbooks to primary schools. The IDA III and IV spent over 16 million dollars on consolidation and shipment. The total number of books, which were provided under those two programmes, was 8 million textbooks and one million teacher's guides (Irura, 1993:1.5). When Education III project was implemented in the mid 1980s, the textbook procurement, consolidation and distribution contract was awarded to a UK company - JMLS because there was no local competent company to handle the exercise. Uganda School Supplies a sister company to Uganda Publishing House, which could have handled the exercise, was in a serious debt crisis and indeed it closed down shortly after. Since then the state continued to procure, consolidate and distribute textbooks without involvement of the private sector booksellers and distributors (Matovu & Read, 2001:119).

Though the government's good intention was to fill the gap, it culminated into the usurping the role of the private commercial sector. Irura (1993:1.4) stated that the government's involvement in textbook publishing and distribution is attributed to the economic upheavals.

"The Uganda economy took a downward trend after 1972 when Idi Amin chased foreign investors from the country. This had the effect of destroying the capacity to produce books and diminishing the reading habits" (Irura, 1993:1.4).

He adds

"Lack of adequate funds to purchase the books for education also oriented the government to come up with policy decisions which have been inimical to the development of the book sector. Some of the decisions were taken with good intentions to minimize costs and rationalize distribution of schoolbooks in view of the economic situation. Yet it was not appreciated that such decision would undermine the book sector in the country. Such decisions include: government's involvement in school book production, the confinement of school book distribution to one parastatal company" (Irura, 1993:1.8).

According to Matovu & Read (2001:112), the government of Uganda has since then been procuring primary school textbooks through the Instructional Materials Unit (IMU) of the Ministry of Education and Sports. The IMU was established in 1993 within the Ministry of Education and Sports as a specialist procurement agency to procure and distribute textbooks, supplementary reading materials and teaching aids to all primary schools in Uganda. Funds have been coming from the World Bank and USAID.

Its mission is to coordinate activities towards the acquisition, procurement and dispatch of instructional materials. The key functions of IMU are: to coordinate the procurement of instructional materials in the Ministry of Education, planning for the consolidation, storage and distribution of centrally procured instructional materials to districts and schools, monitoring and evaluation of instructional materials delivered in schools under centralised and decentralised procurement, regular reviewing of instructional materials policy, training and dissemination of information to schools on effective usage and storage of instructional materials, and implementing the stated policy on instructional materials. The functions of this Unit cut across other departments in the Ministry and the Unit works closely with the rest of the departments to achieve the smooth and timely implementation of instructional materials procurement and distribution. Other departments that IMU works closely with are the Pre primary and primary education, Education planning department, teacher education, education standards agency and Curriculum development.

As a procurement agency, "IMU was required to support and develop a fully competitive, market oriented, textbook system in Uganda based on the provision of school based

purchasing power (consumer funding) to every primary school in the country and the introduction of school responsibility for the selection of their textbooks” (Matovu & Read, 2001:112)

From its establishment in 1993 up to 2000, IMU had purchased approximately US\$ 30 million worth of textbooks from locally established publishers (Matovu & Read, 2001:112). Between 1995 and 1999, the IMU had undertaken five major material procurements and four of these were concerned solely with core textbooks and teachers’ guides, not including the supplementary readers and teaching aids, all approved by the Ministry of Education and Sports. Whereas US\$ 47.5 million were to be spent from 2001 to 2004, US\$ 5.8 million (shs. 11 billion) of this was spent on SUPER VIII whereas US\$8.5 million (shs. 16 billion) is already earmarked for the procurement of textbooks under SUPER IX (Ahimbisibwe, 2003:29).

Funding for primary school textbooks comes from two main sources; the textbook procurement budgets of the Instructional Materials Unit (IMU) and UPE funds provided under capitation grants directly to schools for school based spending on other teaching and learning materials (Matovu & Read, 2001:107). For example for the period 2000-2003 US\$ 60 million was allocated to teaching and learning materials.

Procurement of primary school textbooks has been supported with donor funding, for example the World Bank provided funds for IDA III and IDA IV projects to purchase, consolidate and transport books from Hong Kong to Uganda (Irura, 1993:10). Since 1998, six agencies (The World Bank, the European Union, DFID, USAID, DGIS and Irish Government) have combined via the Education Strategy Investment Plan (ESIP) to provide budgetary support for education, which also includes financial support for materials provision (Matovu & Read, 2001:112).

8.1 Centralised Procurement and Distribution

There are about 250 bookshops spread across the country. In those areas where they are present, they are not fully stocked. This partly explains why stationery has been added to the stocks. Non-conventional channel is used here to mean selling or distributing books through outlets that do not form part of the normal book trade structure. They are nonetheless important. These are the *Pavement Booksellers* and *hawkers*. Both these avenues are useful to the public because books are brought nearer to the people and their prices are negotiable. Books sold by pavement booksellers are both old and new. The bad aspect of them is that quite often school textbooks and library books are seen sold by them. Though hawking is a tedious exercise, some people prefer to spend their time that way. This is tangible around bus and taxi parks at peak hours of the day.

The bookshop channel would constitute what is termed decentralized textbook distribution. The distribution chain is not restricted to the central government. The second category – the non-conventional method constitutes such practices whereby the outlets do not conform to the prescribed channels of book trade-publisher-distributor-bookseller and end-user relationship. Centralized system of procurement is where the publisher sells direct to the Ministry of Education – the end user.

8.2 Decentralised Procurement and Distribution

Decentralized procurement and distribution of primary school textbooks, is that conventional channel that completes the book distribution chain. It relies heavily on the nationwide network of bookselling points. The publisher sells the books to the distributor or bookshop. In case of government procurement, the concerned government agencies buy from the distributors or bookshops in a particular region rather than procuring centrally from the publishers.

Some attempts towards revitalization of decentralized procurement and distribution of primary school textbooks are exhibited in the usage of UPE funds. The funds are sent to the district for appropriate use in support of education sector. The funds could be spent on textbooks. However the book distributors and sellers at district level are still losing out. Since there are simply too few good, well-stocked, professional and credit worthy booksellers in the districts, the publishers end up supplying directly to the districts, once again by passing the ideal distribution chain – characteristic of decentralized distribution (Matovu & Read, 2001:123).

Another attempt to revitalize private sector involvement in procurement and distribution - thus decentralized system, was in 1999. In 1999 and 2002, IMU put the textbook consolidation to a local tender. However, the contracts were not awarded to local booksellers or distributors but instead were awarded to Kamalu, a local publisher and agent of Longman; and Mukono Bookshop, a local publisher, bookseller and agent of Macmillan respectively. Both these Ugandan companies that won the contracts to consolidate and distribute instructional materials procured centrally by IMU, are agents of multi-national publishers thus hardly giving the local booksellers a chance to participate and get the relevant experience and management systems to support a strong national book distribution chain required for decentralized procurement system.

There was a poor network of bookshop distribution countrywide to support a decentralized system of procurement and distribution. To build capacity required for the decentralized distribution, 4 districts were chosen as pilot districts for decentralized procurement during SUPER VIII and IX. The pilot project aimed at creating an opportunity for local booksellers to be involved and assist in improving standards (Matovu & Read: 126).

8.2.1 Decentralised Instructional Materials Procurement Pilot Project (DIMPPP)

From the findings of the research carried out, it is observed that the respondents were knowledgeable about the Decentralised Instructional Materials Procurement System. The majority attained knowledge about DIMPPP through district officials such as District Education Officers (DEOs), District Inspectors of Schools (DIS). Others came to know about it through head teachers, Centre Coordinating Tutors (CCTs) and Official Textbook Suppliers (OTS).

In consolidating the two systems of procurement, it was found out that the majority booksellers were in favour of the decentralized instructional materials procurement system. Smaller percentage opted for continued centralised procurement. This implies that decentralized system had better prospects than centralized system of procuring instructional materials for primary schools. It was also reported that decentralized procurement system brought services closer to the end user. It enables schools to effectively select their own instructional materials using the scarce resources available to them. The other advantage of decentralized procurement system was the correction of errors in the supplies within the local area than far away from Kampala. In case of any shortages, the Official Textbook Suppliers (OTS) would quickly address the errors.

The study found out that centralized instructional materials procurement is too time consuming, expensive and inconvenient to the end user. The study also identified salient features that make decentralized system, the preferred option. Decentralized procurements are cheaper, as reflected in the discount given to schools and free transportation of materials up to the schools. And teachers participate in making selections. The discount was given in form of extra textbooks supplied. The decentralized system is more convenient and liked by the majority because it involves most stakeholders as players in the distribution chain.

Information from key informants – the publishers, booksellers and Ministry of Education officials indicated a preference for a decentralized system because it would help in building capacity for a national book distribution network based on bookshops. Another reason advanced by key informants was the stability and effectiveness of a book distribution chain. The majority argued that a stable and effective book distribution chain encouraged the growth of the publishing industry. For example, according to officials from Ministry of Education and Sports; a healthy publishing industry with effective book distribution fosters a reading culture. A reading culture is the basis for a literate society that is the primary goal of the Ministry.

8.2.2 Players in the decentralised procurement system

The Chief Administrative Officer (CAO), District Planner, Chairperson LC V, Secretary for Education LC V, District Education Officers (DEO), District Inspector of Schools (DIS),

Principal of Primary Teachers' College (PTC), Chairperson Head-teachers Association. These formed the District Instructional Materials Steering Committee (DIMSC) of the decentralised procurement of learning materials. At the school level, key players include: Head-teachers, Deputy Head-teachers, Heads of Subject Departments, a representative of Parents' Teachers' Association, a representative of School Management Committees and Librarians. These formed the School Textbook and Instructional Materials Committee (STIMC).

The players both at district and school level listed above played different roles under the decentralized system. Their roles were dependent on the offices held and the type of services normally rendered. Training on book selection was carried out by District Inspector of Schools, officials from Instructional Materials Unit, Head-teachers, Centre Coordinating Tutors and Official Textbook Suppliers. The Official Textbooks Suppliers (OTS), apart from soliciting for business (making orders) also provided training.

8.2.3 Challenges to the Decentralised Procurement System

Delay in deliveries, lack of variety, inadequate copies and corruption were cited as key constraints to the implementation of decentralised procurement system. The majority of the head-teachers or teacher respondents reported a problem of delay in deliveries (materials). This analysis by respondents was limited to Decentralized Instructional Materials Procurement Pilot Project (DIMPPP) but not Decentralised System as such. The DIMPPP had a time limit within which the implementation was expected. For example the DIMPPP was supposed to run approximately for one year starting from September 2001 when schools were to receive training, order forms and their Local Purchase Orders (LPO), and March 2002 when the textbook orders were to be delivered to schools (*Management Handbook for Schools and Districts 2001:8*).

The delay in deliveries was caused by the delay in approving the books to be used in primary school under SUPER VIII project. In the course of Ministry of Education and Sports approving recommended textbooks and awarding contracts to publishers to supply textbooks to primary schools both under decentralized and centralized systems, there were irregularities and controversies that bogged down the process and subsequently caused a delay in the deliveries. Some publishers, whose books were not included on the list of approved textbooks for use in primary schools, contested the results and appealed to the Inspector General of Government (IGG). By the time the IGG intervened and made recommendations, the scheduled implementation timetable for DIMPPP had been altered thus the year's delay of deliveries.

Another constraint cited during the study was lack of variety of teaching materials and inadequate copies. This was not a problem of Decentralised System *per se* but a problem that cuts across procurement of primary school textbooks. Each primary school is allocated

a certain amount of funds depending on the numbers of pupils, and schools have to choose from the approved titles by Ministry of Education and Sports. For each subject, there are only three approved publishers and the schools are expected to buy from those and no more, thus limitation in the variety of titles. Secondly the money allocated to schools cannot enable them buy adequate copies for each course and hence the constraint of inadequate.

According to the district officials the challenges of a decentralized system are identification of the Official Textbooks Suppliers (OTSs), documentation and verification of deliveries. In the entire Rakai District for instance, there was not a single fully-fledged bookshop. Stationery and grocery were sold to supplement the bookshop business. So it is really difficult to identify a bookshop that meets the requirements expected of an OTS under a decentralized system. Documentation was also identified as a challenge to most of the stakeholders of the decentralized system. Proper record keeping is expected of all the stakeholders and they were yet to master the science of documentation. For example errors in filing the Local Purchase Orders and misfiling some documents accounted for some delays in the implementation of decentralized system. Verification of deliveries is also a challenge to District Officials as they have to traverse the district ascertaining that accurate deliveries were made to individual schools.

The information from key informants - the publishers and OTSs indicate a problem of delayed payments. The publishers who supplied textbooks both under the centralized system and decentralized system noted that payments under centralized system were much faster than the decentralized system. For OTSs, high transport costs, movements to schools throughout the district and the absence of some head-teachers at their workstations - schools, at the time of delivery were the major challenges.

8.2.4 Role of Districts in Procurement

Tibaijuka (2003) established the following roles played by the districts in the procurement of instructional materials:

- The distribution of lists of approved textbooks and LPOs to schools.
- Training. The DEO, DIS trained teachers, school heads and School Management Committees about the objectives, procedures and requirements of the decentralized system of procuring instructional materials.
- Cross-checking documents, verification of deliveries and
- Undertaking the payment process.

Tibaijuka noted that the district assisted in transportation of primary school textbooks especially those procured using UPE funds but schools also contributed to transportation of materials procured using UPE funds.

However, with procurement under the decentralized system, it was noticed that booksellers

to a large extent meet the cost of delivery to primary schools while the schools meet a smaller percentage of the cost of transportation.

Although the bookseller meets the cost of transport to schools, it seems the majority of the booksellers used hired transport from the district offices. Only a few of them had their own means of transport. This may be the case because most of the local booksellers interviewed had less than five years of experience in the business, an indication that they had not built capacity.

9.0 Copyright Law in Uganda

9.1 Introduction

In every society however great or small, industrialized or developing, there are people who possess more than others, the natural gift of intellectual creation. Those creators must be given some kind of protection and should as a matter of right benefit from the fruits of their labour and be able to earn their living from use of their creative efforts. This will encourage them to create more and thus enrich the country's store of literature, drama, music to mention but a few but at the same time allowing some freedoms to users in some ways. That is the basic message behind intellectual property rights of which copyright is but one of them.

Copyright, symbolised by a "©" symbol is a legal concept, enacted by most governments, giving the creator of an original work exclusive rights to it, usually for a limited time. It is "the right to copy", but also gives the copyright holder the right to be credited for the work, to determine who may adapt the work to other forms, who may perform the work, who may financially benefit from it, and other, related rights. It is an intellectual property form (unlike the patent, the trade mark, and the trade secret) applicable to any expressible form of an idea or information that is substantive and discrete. It refers to the works of the mind with particular focus on literary works, artistic works; scientific works which fall under copyright protection. Black's Law Dictionary, (1887) defines copyright as the right to literary property as recognized and sanctioned by positive law. It is a right granted by a government statute to the author or originator of certain literary or artistic productions but invested for a limited period to an individual with the sole and exclusive privilege of multiplying copies of the same and selling them. ALA Word Encyclopaedia of Library and Information Science (1996) defines copyright as the right to own and control a work of authorship in addition to the right to copy it, it is a unique property right that rewards authors for their contributions and entices them to contribute to the advancement of knowledge. Similarly Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary defines copyright as an exclusive legal right held for a number of years to print, publish, sell, broadcast, perform, film or record an original work or any part of it. But generally, copyright is the restriction to multiply any written material by any method unless with permission to do so, centred on print medium, literary and artistic works. It is a unique property right that rewards authors for their contribution to the field of knowledge. Copyright is therefore something invisible, incorporated and which exists in some corporeal, tangible object or material created by somebody. It is a law that is essentially the exclusive right to do certain acts in relation to propertied matter; and it is also the legal expression of the rights granted by the parliament to the creator to protect his works against a variety of unauthorized possible users.

9.2 Purpose of copyright

Copyright is very vital in the proper running of the publishing industry. The functions and basic rules of copyright are that copy right legally protects the work of an author, a musician, an artist and a creator of any original work from copying and other forms of violations of a produced work (Nyeko 1999). It also protects those who invest in publishing of the said works. The aim is to stimulate creativity, protect investment and performers and to reward those who create manufacture and distribute the product. Copyright may exist as a literary, dramatic, musical or artistic work; sound recording, film, cinematography, broadcast, cable or computer programme or typographical arrangements of a published edition (Nyeko 1999:42). However the material must be in original form and skill or labour must have gone into producing it. The author can sell, rent, give away, will or transfer copyright as he/she wishes. Often, the author will sell his/her right to a publisher who will pay a royalty or percentage from the sale of the work. The ownership of the subsidiary rights would normally have been agreed in the contract between the publisher and the author. The publisher has the right to grant subsidiary rights to someone else but the ownership of such rights would have been agreed to in the contract between the publisher and the owner or author.

Besides, an element of copyright is the idea of “fair use”. This is grounded on the idea that it is beneficial to exchange information freely. “Fair use” is applied mainly in libraries where four standards are used: purpose and character of use; nature of the copyrighted work; amount of the work being copied; effect of use on the publisher’s potential market. Any misuse may lead to civil action and in some cases into criminal proceedings.

Copyright is both an economic and moral right. Copyright is important because it provides a source of income in the form of royalties or periodic payment either through a grant of license or otherwise (Kakooza, 1995) to the owner of the work. This has an added advantage in that even after death of the author, his or her survivors continue to gain from this work not as a lump sum but as the work sells in subsequent years after the death of the author. Consequently copyright law ensures efficient dissemination of information for a long time. When a work is published the publisher or author deposits a copy of the material in the national depository as required by the law. An example of legal depository is national libraries where this information is disseminated for research purposes. Kakooza in a paper on the utility of the law on copyright (1995) says that when copyright system exists in a country, it acts as a vital part of modern society’s infrastructure due to its centrality in the communication and dissemination of information to the public through newsprint, radios, television and film. Such media broadcast when protected are effective in the dissemination of information to the public. He added that copyright brings wealth to the nation. The wealth of a nation is demonstrated in the existence of national museums, national galleries, to provide an attraction to tourists who in turn bring foreign exchange. This leads to a

conclusion that if copyright laws were not there, these materials would easily be copied and transferred out of the country thus leaving nothing home to attract tourists. Copyright laws therefore protect material that acts as a source of income to both the individual and the nation. He argued that if effectively administered copyright and neighbouring rights have a social relevance and place in the promotion of education and flow of knowledge, enhancement of scientific and technical know how. In the way it is convenient to regard copyright not, as some have said, as a negative right to prevent other people from dealing with an author's work, but rather as a positive right of property. The argument is that the fruit of a person's brain is something which belongs peculiarly to a particular person.

Copyright promotes education. For instance authors sometimes produce literary material not only for money but to contribute to learning and literature. An example to illustrate this is that provided by Professor Sebuwufu (1998), former Vice Chancellor of Makerere University who was quoted in the *Monitor newspaper* of 09/01/1998 to have advised Makerere University lecturers to "PUBLISH OR PERISH". This meant that if a lecturer did not produce works in line with their academic field, they risked perishing along with their knowledge. Existence of copyright meant such works of lecturers would receive the protection of these works which in turn mean meeting the objective of encouraging education.

Copyright also plays an important role in the promotion of culture and tradition. It is said that a nation without cultural roots and dynamic traditions cannot have steady and enduring development. Copyright encourages intellectual creativity and innovation and as a general rule, the protection granted to copyright law vests in the first instance in the creator of the work. This is known as first ownership or initial ownership. And definitely there is a host of reasons why people write to be published. People for instance write to clarify their thoughts, commitment to their professions, professional advancement and wish to communicate with others. Furthermore people also write as a way of gaining personal satisfaction, integral part of research, and writing as a hobby. For whatever reason they write, the first owner of the economic and moral rights of which copyright consists in the first instance is the author who created the work.

9.3 Uganda Copyright Law

It is recognized that debate and actions about copyright in the English speaking world began with the printing press. In the case of Uganda as a former territory of Britain, work on copyright can be traced to the work of William Caxton (1472) and later the expansion of printing trade across many countries. It can be argued that with the invention of printing in the fifteenth century, wide opportunities for intellectual property opened and the printing press made the reproduction of printed matter into several copies to the mass circulation a possibility and the publishers saw the commercial aspects of printing in their favour and tried to avoid the risk of plagiarism by those in the same trade. This means that copyright

initially was conceived as a way for government to restrict printing. Until the middle to the late 19th century, copyright was largely a domestic concern. But as the export of books from Europe expanded and new communication technologies strongly affected these nations, their perspectives on copyright began to shift. There was increased concern about book piracy and these reduced publishers' revenues and authors royalties were frequently reduced considerably.

The second landmark on English copyright history is the British national copyright law that began with England Statute of Anne (1709) and spread to other nations of Europe, before the 19th century. It is not the intention of this paper to get into that detail but sketchily run through it as a building block for its development in Uganda. This is because the national copyright laws of countries throughout the world were concerned mainly with the protection of the works of their country's own nationals and denied foreign authors any protection that copyright began to spread from Europe to Colonial Africa after the Universal Copyright Convention of 1952. Consequently copyright got introduced into Uganda as part of the British imperial expansion into Africa. Until 1964, Uganda was using the Copyright Act 1956 of the United Kingdom.

After Uganda gained independence, it became essential to revise this law to suit the publishing needs of an independent country. This was done in 1964, leading to the enactment of the Uganda Copyright Act of 1964. This Act recognized materials like literary works including poetry, textbooks, encyclopaedias, lecture notes, artistic works like maps, etc, provided they are from an individual's own creative effort. But later as it happened, this law fell short of providing for the administrative and structural infrastructure for enforcing it and did not cater for most of the subjects that needed protection for example scientific discoveries, folklore and subsidiary rights. Other issues prompting government to revise the Act were the emerging and widening forms of information dissemination centring on the Information and Communication Technologies. Therefore government found it fit to revise the old Act after forty-two years of existence, to redress the new copyright challenges. And this led to a new law the revised *Copyright and Neighbouring Rights Act of 2006, Act 19*.

This expanded Act repeals and replaces the 1964 Copyright Act, and provides for the protection of literary, scientific and artistic intellectual works and the neighbouring rights. New features in this Act are: scientific materials, neighbouring rights, contracts relating to the exploitations of Author's rights, general provisions relating to administration of copyright, and provisions relating to collecting societies. The new law has made elaborate provisions regarding fair use of works protected by copyright. It contains measures to safeguard copyright holders. It protects neighbouring rights and folklore hence the title "*Copyright and Neighbouring Rights Act 2006*". Neighbouring (subsidiary) rights include rights accruing to performers of copyrighted work, broadcasters, publishers and producers.

Another area is the extension of the period of protection. These provisions meet current international standards. As for infringement, there is provision for both civil and criminal procedures, and of fine or imprisonment not exceeding four years. The new law provides for establishment of a copyright council which should promote and encourage creativity in artistic, literary, musical and scientific fields in Uganda, represents and defends copyright, promotes awareness of copyright, grants licenses and generally promotes copyright and neighbouring rights in Uganda. The new copyright law also provides for establishment of associations for the different copyright owners like writers, publishers, performers and others and such associations shall be standing committees of the copyright council. The new law also provides for establishment of a copyright court.

Evidently, Uganda copyright law recognizes copyright limitations, allows “fair” exceptions to the creator’s exclusivity of copyright, and giving users certain rights. The development of digital media and computer network technologies has prompted reinterpretation of the law. Accordingly, the Uganda law brings in “computer programmes” and “programme-carrying signals”. The law defines “computer programme” as a set of instructions expressed in any language, code or notation, intended to cause the device having an information proceeding capacity to indicate, perform or achieve a particular function, task or result. The other aspect of interpretation is, “programme-carrying signals” as electronically generated carriers transmitting live or recorded material consisting of images, sounds or both images and sounds in their original form or any form recognizably derived from the original and emitted to or passing through a satellite situated in extra-territorial space. The spirit is to cover the emerging technological products and processes although less efficiently than the American Digital Millennium Copyright Act.

Like all other countries’ copyright law, Ugandan law does not cover ideas and information themselves, only the form or manner in which they are expressed. This is because copyright does not exist in mere ideas, but only in the particular way in which those ideas have been expressed, whether by words or by paint on canvas, or whatever tangible form. It is the expression in tangible form that really matters. The law also makes exceptions to the restrictions when the work is copied for the purpose of commentary or other restrictions such as fair use, review, and critique, news reportage, reporting court or parliamentary proceedings and giving professional advice. But the bottom line is that a work must meet minimum standards of originality in order to qualify for copyright, and this right expires after a set period of 50 years after the death of its owner. Problem area where the Ugandan law falls short is when it does not define an author to include those in employment. In other countries the original holder of the copyright may be the employer of the author rather than the author himself, if the work is a “work for hire”. It should have been provided that if a copyrighted work is made by an employee in the course of that employment, the copyright work is automatically owned by the employer which would be a “Work for hire.”

9.4 Copyright law and publishers

Publishers, even more than authors, seek to maximize profits. In doing so they, too are compelled by competing priorities and variables. Maximizing profit is achieved by selling many books at a price the market will bear as well as buying and selling rights, while minimizing both fixed costs (e.g. administration, plant) and variable costs (e.g. printing, distribution, payment to authors). They are also driven to improve their production capacity by investing in new equipment that will allow for more production at a lower per unit cost, and seek to increase their size and market share to a level that discourages other firms from entering the publishing field. Given these requirements, publishers are affected by a variety of factors; including the availability of author works and the prices they must pay for them, the size of the market and its level of saturation, the number of other publishing firms operating in their field, funds available for capitalization of new equipment, and the technological capacity of their current equipment. These factors, in turn help to determine the number of copies publishers produce each year and the average number of copies of each volume they print. From the publishers' perspective, the role of copyright is to clarify ownership of a work by an author, and thus ensure that the proper transfer of publication, distribution and related rights can be solved by way of contracts. It also provides a mechanism for enforcement against infringing acts by others.

Much as the Copyright law is in place, studies conducted in Uganda reveal that not all publishers were aware of the law. Some have heard about it but had never read it. The impact therefore of this law on book publishing in Uganda cannot at the moment be measured. Consequently it is difficult to establish whether it has reduced or helped increase accessibility of information products. As Kawooya (2007) stated, for most part the debate takes place in a vacuum devoid of empirical research on copyright in education in general and access to educational content in particular. Because of this, the need to understand the impact of copyright in Africa's education and research environments becomes more urgent.

9.5 Publishing, Copyright and Licensing in the Internet Era.

As part of the PALM AFRICA project, a survey (Ikoja & Batambuze 2008) of Uganda publishers' knowledge of copyright and licensing was done and results are shown here. On publishers' knowledge of Uganda Copyright and Neighbouring Rights Law in Uganda, those who answered this question overwhelmingly said they were conversant with it. This is contrary to what was said by the General Secretary of the Uganda Publishers Association that Uganda publishers are not conversant with the Copyright and Neighbouring Rights Act. Asked to find out whether publishers ask for exclusive rights from their authors and the answer was overwhelmingly "yes" with one saying "no" and another saying "Not applicable". They were asked whether copyright was a protector and again seven out of ten said so, one denying it and one being unsure. It was asked if copyright was a barrier to usage and wider distribution of their products. Interestingly the position reversed. Seven

out of ten said “No” while three agreed. The reasons from those who said no, were that copyright protects authors, Uganda publishing industry was weak so it needed some form of protection.

It was also asked whether publishers had a policy on neighbouring or subsidiary rights. One publisher said yes, they have and gave reasons for it saying they credit the sources of materials they get elsewhere, while four said No, preferring that they needed more information on the topic of rights. One said they just respect other people rights while another said, any person breaking the law faces charges in a court of law whereas another said they use rights appropriately as a means of providing wider coverage of their products.

On photocopying they were asked whether massive photocopying of texts in tertiary institutions were not a problem of poverty, ignorance of the law, rebellion against high costs of books in the market or inadequate distribution of book products. On poverty six out of eight that answered said yes while two said no. We can say that poverty, to some extent, is a contributory factor to massive photocopying. On whether ignorance of the copyright law was the issue causing that, nine out of ten said yes with only one objection. University students are not aware of such law. It was also asked if photocopying was not a rebellion against the costs of books. To this, five agreed and three disagreed. The reason could be that it is difficult to rebel against a situation that even your government cannot control. Publishing is operating in a liberal market and market prices rule the day. All they are interested in is that there are alternative ways of getting the text cheaper i.e. through photocopying that is providing a quick solution. Finally on the inadequate distribution of products in the market, six out of seven who answered that question agreed that inadequate distribution of books in the market was also the cause. It must be conceded here that our distribution infrastructure is inadequate.

Several issues were also raised about licensing ranging from their knowledge of it, application of licensing to their publishing projects, which models they were using, benefits accruing, and awareness of flexible copyright licensing practices, which can serve the interest of publishers and book buyers and which ones they were applying. On awareness, eight of nine that answered the question were not aware. This is important to this project. Although the sample is small it is an indicator that more needs to be done to get participants to understand this area well. Because they were not conversant with it, six stated that they hadn't applied it with one saying the question was not applicable. To us the project administrators, this meant the same thing as being unaware. None said, yes. Consequently which model and application of the model were inconsequential at this stage. Again whether they were aware of new flexible licensing practices, the answer was that all eight who answered said, No and consequently did not have any model they knew.

Other important questions on licensing were whether publishing companies or organizations had any experience providing open access to their products, applied copyright with some right reserved, issued publications with all rights reserved, offered free online open access, offered limited open access, offered open access to their archives and offered free rights for translation. This was a closed question with a checklist. The emerging picture was as follows: providing open access to their products received balanced answers. Four said yes and four said no. Two did not say anything. Perhaps this question was ambiguous. What did it mean? We need to discuss it further. Second was application of copyrights with some rights reserved. On this one, the scale was again almost balanced with three saying yes and four saying no and three not saying anything. It could be that we should have asked a further question on which rights these were.

On issuing publications with all rights reserved, five said yes and four stated no with one not answering. Offering products free online open access received three saying yes and six saying no with one remaining quiet. Offering limited open access was unanimously rejected with all eight who answered saying No. Offering open access to their archives also received eight “Nos” with only one yes. This indicates they do not do it. On offering free rights to translations, again eight said No with one saying yes and one without position. The outcome we are glad is that licensing and its newer models are new to publishing in Uganda. This project becomes a good ground on which to work to cause change.

Finally publishers/organizations were asked if they would be willing to do the following: allowing open access to their products, have some rights reserved, have all rights reserved, allow free online open access, allow limited open access, allow open archives and permit translations.

Outcomes from the ten that answered were as follows: allowing open access to their products had four saying yes and four saying no with two not answering. Our interpenetration is that those who said yes were likely to be final managers in their units, while those rejecting were not sure about the effect of such a move to their organizations and therefore would need more consultations.

Having a policy on some rights reserved, received a higher score of six as against two who said no with two again standing on the fence. This is a small indicator that publishers or NGOs will need to stay with some rights. This is grounded on the fear that they will lose out completely if they allowed all rights. This is understandable in our view.

On having all rights reserved it was a good picture that five of them opposed it and three agreed. It shows that publishers have interest in retaining some of their rights.

Allowing free online open access was doubted. Three agreed and three disagreed and a larger number, four remained unanswered. Our interpretation of this is that publishers/ organizations require more thinking on the benefits and dangers of complete freedom.

Allowing limited open access was interesting in that half said yes and three said no and again two hanging indecisively. We are beginning to see some direction from here. Publishers seem comfortable with limited freedom or carrot given out and they remain holding the stick.

On allowing open archives the opposite come out again. Half (five) could not agree meaning limited access was their choice. Only two were agreed to it and three did not indicate. Finally on permitting translations it happened that half (five) did not accept it; again preferring to hold it themselves while three were for it. Detailed analysis brought no change since no more questionnaires were returned.

9.6 Copyright law and information users

Individuals always seek to access information at the lowest cost. Copyright limits the amount of information materials on the market, thereby making the available information materials expensive. This limit is predicated on the ground that copyright restricts wider use of information because there is no other better way to use texts than by buying the products. It is for this reason that a violation of the law has become rampant through massive photocopying or piracy which again many of those who do it may not know. In this regard copyright, if viewed as a mechanism for increasing the purchase price for consumers or as a means for controlling the market place, it is seen as at best a nuisance and at worst a barrier to the free flow of information as one study found. It is for this reason that some countries in Africa like South Africa, Zimbabwe, Kenya and Nigeria have introduced Reproduction Rights Organisations (RRO). The purpose of RRO is to promote the protection of copyrights and to provide mechanisms for the collection of royalties outside the publisher's country. It is recommended that every country should have a RRO. The success of RRO will depend on how effective it is on licensing institutions that do a lot of photocopying and to effectively and quickly disburse the funds collected to rights holders.

10. Publishing in Africa: Past and Present

This section provides a brief historical perspective of the publishing industry in Africa. It traces the publishing development, state, and identifies the challenges facing it. However publishing in Africa cannot usefully be summarized on a continent-wide scale due to the region's general division into five different geographical units, each with widely varying cultures and different levels of development. The five units are as follows: the Arab world and the Maghreb countries of the north; the Anglophone west, east, central and southern Africa; the Francophone west and central Africa (and the Indian Ocean islands); Lusophone Africa and South Africa. It mainly focuses on publishing in English-speaking Africa and against a number of social and infrastructural concerns, including the impact of colonialism, underdevelopment in the African publishing industry.

10.1 An Historical Perspective

Historically, publishing in Africa is closely linked to European colonialism. In the view of colonialists, book production for Africans was needed in two areas: Religion and education. Translations of the Bible and Christian hymns began to be printed around the middle or late in the 19th century. Training materials and readers in development-related areas such as agriculture, home economics and civics were published from the 1930's and onwards—some in local languages. State literatures Bureaus were set up in the majority of Anglophone countries from the 1940s. The bureaus were engaged in the production of general literature and fiction as well as religious and training literature.

A study conducted at the end of 1990s about strengthening publishing in Africa (Sida and Lars *et al*, 1999) has dealt with the history and development of publishing in Africa up to that period. There is no need to re invent the wheel but to use that summary for this purpose. The facts and situation remains the same. I was part of the study team that carried out the study. I was responsible for East Africa region. It sums up the key findings as follows:

1. Many African men, women and children have limited access to written material, because of poverty and illiteracy, absence of written materials in languages they know and poor distribution systems. There are great variations with regard to publishing between various countries in Africa in terms of historical development, readership and market size, printing and publishing technology, and communication infrastructure. These differences to a large extent reflect the state of development and the contemporary economic and political situation in individual countries.
2. Certain problem areas, however, cut across these differences: inadequate access to capital, the high price of many raw materials, and the shortage of qualified publishing staff, in particular at middle-level, often lead to poor aesthetic and physical quality of books,. In addition, underdeveloped marketing and distribution systems, the dominance

of northern publishers, inadequate attention on the part of most African governments to book development policies, and difficulties in export, in particular in intra-African trade, are challenges facing African publishing.

3. Education in Africa is an area of great concern to African publishers, because the publishing industry is textbook dominated. The vast majority of African publishers are involved in textbook production which is the bread and butter of publishing (Nwanko, 2001). It is estimated that 60-70 percent of all books published in Africa are textbooks (Sida and Lars *et al*, 1999). Most of the textbook production is financed by the World Bank and bilateral donors.

4. During the 1990s, the environment for publishing in Africa has seen a number of changes and improvements. Liberalization has entailed the breaking of state monopoly in textbook publishing. The move towards lifting of restrictions on foreign exchange and the dramatic improvements in communication technology has contributed to a more conducive publishing environment. Democratization and globalization of the information flows have meant a greater demand for information.

5. Publishing in Africa has now reached a level of quality and quantity, which is a sufficient base for growth. The status of publishing in Africa has gone up. There are many publishing houses coming up. There is a younger generation of men and women publishers with entrepreneurial skills and international connections and there are general improvements in terms of school enrollments and literacy levels. Women however are disadvantaged both in the publishing sector, with some notable exceptions, and as readers and writers of books.

A little more elaborately, the report states that at independence, around 1960 for most countries, the publishing scene was diversified. The emphasis on primary education in newly independent nations meant that a large market for school textbooks emerged. In the whole of sub-Saharan Africa the state was a key agent in the provision of books for schools. In Francophone and Lusophone countries the needs were again met primarily by publishers from former colonial power. In Eastern Africa, Ghana, Zambia, Ethiopia and Sierra Leone, independence led to the establishment of state publishing houses. Thus, the state, in particular the Ministry of Education became a monopolizing power within both publishing and distribution. In Tanzania and Uganda, these firms operated jointly with Macmillan.

In Kenya, Zimbabwe and Nigeria, foreign-owned firms like Macmillan, Heinemann, Nelson, Longman and College Press established themselves in the 1950s and 60s. From 1973 the Nigerian military regime decreed that companies should be 60% locally owned.

In Francophone Africa, the publishing scene continued to be dominated by French publishers such as Hatier, Edicet and Hachette. They had not only the advantage of size, economies of scale, capital and access to low-printing they were also backed by French aid programmes geared to French export books. This domination is still strong in most of Francophone Africa today.

In Francophone Africa, local language publishing was also less developed as only French was promoted at all levels of the educational system and in the area of general literature. In Anglophone countries, publishing in local languages of fiction and training literature was encouraged by the literature Bureaux, particularly in Zimbabwe and South Africa-the latter country also has an important pre-bureau tradition of indigenous language literature by mission educated writers. In tune with its tenets of cultural apartheid the medium of instruction in South Africa primary schools was local language. Large Afrikaaner-owned publishing companies with close links to the national Party Government provided books in several languages directly to government. The East African Literature Bureau, which covered Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, also published titles in local languages such as Luganda and Swahili.

Scattered but important local language books were published independent of colonial authorities in most Anglophone countries. Novels in Yoruba and Hausa appeared in Nigeria, a few Kikuyu publishers brought out fiction and political literature in Kenya from the 1940s and in Tanzania manuscripts in Swahili in Arabic script have circulated for over two hundred years. In Kenya, Nigeria and Ghana, the 1960s and 1970s saw independent commercial production of a large number of popular fiction titles in English which sold well.

The 1970s was a period of flourishing for African Literature. Newly established universities served as catalysts for the production of literary magazines, and African literature in English and French reached a world market and became recognized internationally. Most of the prestigious titles were, however, published in France or Britain.

Readership was narrow. Most titles could only be read by the elite who had been educated in the foreign language medium. The vast majority of people living in Africa had no access to books with the exception of the Bible, because of low levels of literacy, few titles in local languages, and poor distribution of the books which existed. For the large majority of readers, literature was only met with in the educational system, and was linked to practical needs or the need to pass exams. Reading for pleasure or general information was not widespread.

In sum, publishing in Africa until the 1980s was supply-driven, except for text books, and closely linked to state or the church rather than driven by a demand from the general public, whose size was in any case small except for the population of primary schools and Bible readers.

10.2 Secondary Textbook Authorship and Publishing

This section reviews some literature on educational publishing because it is where there is a lot of trouble in African Publishing. According to the recent World Bank Study (2008), local book publishing is relatively underdeveloped in francophone Africa. The Bank cites the primary education sector as one that has made a breakthrough in publishing. The other sub sectors in education namely secondary and higher education remain in the publishing houses from the north.

The Bank points out that the French publishers have played a big role in developing the regional secondary textbook publishing in response to donor efforts that encourage transnational regional curricula. It argues rightly of course that regional publishing is more cost effective in that longer print runs offer lower per unit costs. In addition the French have the advantage of large back lists for adaptation, have better financial capacity and extensive skills in publishing that the local publishers do not match. Interestingly local authors are often involved in writing adaptations and other publishing projects meant for their countries. The same study pointed out that local publishing is well developed in Cote d'Ivoire (although still dominated by the northern publishers). Senegal, Mali and Cameroon are reported to be less developed.

In the Anglophone, the same report pointed out the opposite of the French regional publishing programme. It says regional publishing is much less pronounced in Anglophone Africa than in the Francophone Africa. Reason given is that national educational systems are more diverse in their form and structure than in francophone Africa. And that Anglophone Africa has tended to develop national, country specific secondary school publishing which is perhaps less economic in terms of prices, yet more relevant in terms of content and accessibility to national publishing companies. The point raised here is that different foreign countries are using models suitable to themselves to do publishing business in Africa.

In terms of costs of materials, the Bank gave comparative figures. In them we find that Uganda costs per a set of books ranked highest. For instance while the cost for a 14 set of books in Uganda is US\$155.1, it was only US\$20.1 in the neighbouring Tanzania for a set of 6 books, US\$57.8 in Togo for 6 books, US\$40.6 for 8 books in Ghana, and 99.8 for 11 in Cameroon. The argument is even if we derived the unit cost of a book for Tanzania and multiply by the number of copies, it would still be less than the Ugandan cost. The study raised the issue of geographic instability of the prices arguing that secondary textbook prices quoted for Uganda were valid for Kampala only. This means as one gets out of Kampala prices automatically keep raising with distance.

In terms of average unit cost per books, Uganda was in US\$11.10 whereas Cameroon was US\$8.85 and Togo US\$9.47. Kenya has the lowest secondary school textbook prices surveyed. Why is this so? The answer is or can be found in what government regulations emphasize.

For instance Uganda emphasizes paper type, binding among others but in Kenya price is one of the most important considerations in the evaluation process (World Bank, 2008). Cost is a fundamental point in seeking equity in education and more so inputs like books. PALM AFRICA project is asking simple question: can the adoption of more flexible licensing regimes contribute to improved publishing of learning materials in Africa to day?

As already mentioned in the Uganda part of the review, financing of secondary textbooks is almost similar in all other countries. Government, donors, parents, sponsorship and fundraising are the main sources. The first and second are the most important.

10.3 Text Book policies in Africa

Beginning the last decade, African governments have taken a position of liberalizing their economies and privatizing business. Government consider themselves as poor at business but centre their operations in producing policies that guide action. Relating this to publishing of books, the trends are that governments have developed a strategy of allowing private publishers to do the publishing and government remains as regulator of books that go into the educator sector. For instance in Tanzania, government effected its new policy on textbook production and distribution on January 1st, 1992. The policy comprises of a dramatic shift from the former policy in that it aimed at improving the efficiency in textbook production, quality of books, broadening authorship, transferring responsibility of textbook publishing to commercial publishers and developing competition and lowering of book prices (Ministry of Education and Culture). Various stakeholders were involved in the crafting of this policy from within government, donor agencies, publishers, printers, booksellers, writers and teachers. Uganda adopted a national book textbook policy in 1993. In Mozambique the national policy on textbooks and learning materials was drafted in May 1998 as part of the 1997-2001 Education Sector Strategic Plan. The policy called for education to be demand-driven, of high quality, as this country moved away from centralized state controlled systems to more liberalized political and economic policies. (Ministry of Education, 1998). Kenya's national policy on textbook publication, procurement, and supply of primary books is a Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development instrument that took effect in June 1998. The policy emphasizes the importance of quality and relevant education at all levels. The policy evolved from centralized government production, supply and distribution from the period soon after independence to the time a new policy was announced. In this policy government's role becomes limited to curriculum development and quality control. Commercial publishers will now compete to produce a wider selection of learning materials. Kenya Institute of education is the approving agency. Among stakeholders mentioned in the policy are the Teachers Advisory Centres, head teachers associations, school management committees, book trade associations, and communities (Ministry of Education and Human Resource 1998). For Zimbabwe the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture put in a policy in a document entitled "Strategy for School Textbook provision in Zimbabwe". The aim of the strategy is to catalyse policy formulation and direction on equity, sustainable book

provision, quality of education, decentralization, and cost sharing. One key recommendation encapsulating all that was the need to develop a national book policy to address among others educational publishing, book provision, roles and responsibilities of stakeholders, as well as instruments for implementation and coordination (Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture, Zimbabwe, 1998).

10.4 Languages and publishing in Africa

History shows us that it is possible for any languages to be developed and used in every way. All languages are able to deal with all our needs. Languages develop and become powerful in society, when they get used for important functions (South Africa 2000: 10). However publishing and supply of educational materials to schools in Africa has been affected by subtractive approach where a child's mother tongue is used up to a certain point as a language of learning and teaching and then dropped in favour of another language usually foreign. We need to use additive approach where the child's mother tongues is used from the beginning of education and continues to be used as a language of teaching for at least 50 percent of teaching time in school. To this are added one or two foreign languages. We need to remember that publishing in local languages thousands of languages around the world are perishing, as a result of globalisation or cultural repression (APNET 1999:9). Although this is happening our indigenous languages are offering opportunities for more avenues for publishers to diversify the work. For instance adoption of local languages in education or thematic curriculum in Uganda is an opportunity for publishers.

10.5 Copyright Environment in Africa

A generalization about Copyright situation in Africa, with a few exceptions is that the continent is not copyright conscious (Seeber, 1998:13). There is ignorance about the copyright law and its provisions. Awareness of the provisions is absent within the spectrum of many publishers (Irura, 1995). This statement is as the same today (Ikoja and Batambuze, 2008) as it was a decade ago. Though the law exists the problem appears that the writers and artists are not aware of it. Even the machinery for its protection is rather weak or is defined in many countries but poorly followed. The police who are supposed to enforce the law are not conversant with intellectual property law and so cannot write charge sheets properly. Where action has been taken to courts of law, it takes a long time to arrive at the verdict. The judicial system is slow and expensive (Kyeswa, 2006). But what publishers* know most are the vices of encroachment of works by predators like students photocopying their works, musicians pirating other people's music.

Photocopying definitely and especially at University level is a problem that has caused a lot of debate since the 1980s (Altbach 1986:1643-1650, 1998:7). Reprographic technology coupled with scarcity * in Africa has been linked to reduction of printing costs. This technology has introduced innovations in printing. For example photocopying has meant

that universities in developing countries can obtain access to imported books inexpensively by simply copying them. Unfortunately with the development of photocopying technology with photo offset printing, this has more than caused a major problem of piracy of western copyrighted editions in African universities (Baker, 1989:18-19). It is believed that this has allowed scholars to access information without paying for it or obtaining permissions from western publishers or journals (Albatch, 1998; Gleason 1998). What would have been passed off as 'fair copies for study' have turned to become some sort of personal right to copy for any other purpose.

The dilemma facing African publishers is how to protect their interests and those of their authors while not losing sight of the needs of their market, and not ignoring the demands for information hungry, cash strapped readers. It is known that books published in Africa are very expensive and so are the imported ones. It is this high cost element versus poverty that has bred avenues for satisfying book thirst through piracy. This is because it is cheaper to buy a pirated copy for a half price than the original version. Piracy itself is a bad solution from the publishing ethical point of view. Secondly governments in Africa have stopped giving students money to buy books and consequently students cannot buy books. This is understandably because of poverty and other problems that drain the state resources (Seeber, 1998).

Thirdly, electronic copyright management systems are not well developed especially in Africa. It has been a dilemma how to enforce Digital Object Identifier (DOI) system. Although its primary objective is to accommodate the changing ownership of copyright in the publishing industry, publishing in Africa has not matured enough to see that ownership can change several times throughout the life of a copyright. The traditional copyright regime of a person owning copyright reigns or in the likely event of death the taker of estate of a dead writer may have no knowledge or trading or dealing in copyright matters.

Print-on-Demand or simply On demand publishing as a concept of printing whenever required (Keenan 1996: 178) has not been attempted in Africa on a large scale. One fear is how many copies can be printed by the requester of the file. It is difficult to trust the recipient who will be at liberty to print more than double copies required at the time of seeking to print. This, it is feared can cause many copies to be printed so long as the demand exists and the original owner is far away.

I have mentioned piracy on books but where there is a very serious problem is in music piracy. This form of crime is so common in Africa that one wonders whether there will be a quick answer to it. In a study reported by African Publishing Review ... and another carried out in Uganda (Kyeswa, 2006), dubbing music illegally is almost a free trade. Music is a booming industry with youth finding it the easiest way to make quick money. Manufacturers of radio cassettes and blank tapes have a problem to cope with. Imagine some youth just

buys a recorder, purchases empty cassettes and the 'sweet taped' music cassettes and sits down to listen to all taped ones, and selects whichever suits his ears and creates a new product into one cassette which are then multiplied. Titles of new songs are handwritten. Some youth are even bolder that they have music kiosks for this kind of trade. In such situation, creativity is killed and so are royalties.

In such landscape African publishers need to explore more on flexible licensing models that may reduce the problem of piracy whether in books or music while allowing users more access and with publishers benefiting. Pressure to governments to have laws in their countries could be a deterrent but this requires a united front acting simultaneously. This is also something of a non starter in Africa where agreeing on one thing at the level of African Union takes time or years to agree by which time more than enough damage has occurred.

10.6 Scholarly publishing in Africa

Tracing the history of scholarly publishing takes us back to more than 300 years (Peek: 2000). It is a kind of publishing whose origin tells more about the writer, a scholar. Hence the word 'scholar' means someone deeply knowledgeable about a particular subject because they have studied it in detail; while 'scholarly' means the process of spending a lot of time studying and having a lot of knowledge about an academic subject (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English: 2000). Therefore 'scholarly publishing' is the publication of academic or research oriented intellectual matter of high quality (Keenan, 1996:181) from university presses or other suitable publishing houses.

One of the biggest challenges facing African Universities in the present times is the ineffective scholarly press. Many African universities are publishing less and less research output each year compared to similar institutions in developed countries. Even within the continent there are disparities in publishing of research work and universities and associated research institutions. Some universities and countries are doing much better than others. African scholars and researchers on their part claim they do a lot of research and produce ground breaking research findings but the means to get published are either poor, too slow or non existent within their countries or regions. Publishing internationally is also experienced to be difficult. Where the output is available it is likely that it is not captured in the international citation institutions like ISI but appears in non refereed journals. The effect of this is that African research scholars output is too small to cause effective intellectual awareness of the interested peers internationally because works remain marginally known within their institutions of origin, are less known nationally, and are invisible internationally or at worst stay as grey literature no body else will ever know except the owners.

Evidence shows the truth that publishing of African scholarship is weak. Altbach (1998) for instance noted that scholarly publishing remained a neglected research area. The World Bank during the same time (1990s) described African scholarly output as being actually dormant.

The Bank using an empirical measurement in 14 universities found that research output was very low, staffs were instead having second jobs instead of concentrating in research and the equipment for research was also inadequate (Blair, 1991). Saint (1992:51) observed the same scenario indicating that research output of African universities was actually inadequate. He observed that although scholarly publishing follows scholarly research, research output has lagged behind the training accomplishment of African universities. Using *Science Citation Index* as a basis for analysis Eisemon and Davis (1991:278) found that only three African countries i.e. Senegal, Rwanda and Congo enjoyed significant growth in the production of scientific papers over the past decade. By a similar method Zymelman (1990:7-8) observed that ten countries supplied almost 90 percent of the total scientific publications in sub Saharan Africa. Almost 70 percent was produced from three countries: Nigeria, Kenya and Sudan. Additionally during 1988-89, it is reported that 1,388 articles were published with 49 percent of them in international journals but three Nigerian universities accounted for 72 percent of these (Houenou, 1991). The articles were predominantly in the medical and biological fields, with physical sciences and engineering less represented. Saint (1992:25) concluded that in general African universities with their associated scientific communities have made little progress in fulfilling their mandate to generate applied and policy-relevant knowledge as inputs to the national development process.

Lately, three initiatives have provided evidence of poor publishing record of African universities. These are the Institute of Higher Education at Shanghai Jiao University (2003), the *Times Higher Education Supplement* (2004) and the Webometrics Ranking of the World Universities, a Saudi-Arabian based research group (Lirri, 2007). The Shanghai rankings are based on the total alumni and academics of an institution winning Nobel Prizes in Physics, Chemistry, Medicine, Physical Sciences, Engineering and Social Sciences; the number of articles published in *Nature and Science*, 2003-2004; the total number of articles indexed in *Science Citation Index*, *Social Citation Index* and *the Arts and Humanities index* in 2004 (Levin, 2006). Similarly the *Times Higher Education Supplement* (2005) based its ranking on the percentage of international scholars or students, student-staff ratio, scholarly publications ratio, peer review score and the recruiter scores through the opinion of major international employers of graduates (Levin, 2006). The ranking using web metrics method is the Saudi-Arabian based group that is committed to reputation ranking of the popularity of a university worldwide (Lirri, 2007). In this one it is revealed that among Africa's 100 best universities, Makerere went down the ladder from the 23rd position in 2006 to the 54th position in 2007 and 47th in 2008. The University of Dar Es salaam was in the 13th position and Nairobi, the 24th of the best African universities. According to the Webometrics Ranking of the World Universities website Makerere for instance dropped from the 3,628th position to 6,429th position in 2007. In that situation, many African universities are not really visible intellectually. Visibility of a university cannot come when the rate of publishing is low. Visibility is measured through the ability of the academic community to recognize and gain

access to scholarly research output world wide. A university is renowned in the intellectual arena by the amount of scholarly works it publishes in relevant peer reviewed journals and the standard of monographs it publishes through their university presses.

In the final analysis it is clear that it is only in a handful of universities that have active press. The most common position is that presses do not have the money to publish available manuscripts. The cost element is said to be centre of the problems. An examination of the status quo would reveal much more than just the money. Inadequate technical capacity to handle manuscript is visible. Absence of time to carry out quality research and capacity to do research are other issues. This paper argues that if it is the cost element that makes publishing more expensive, then innovations are required to use methodologies that offset cost considerably. African universities need to move away fully or at least partially from the traditional method of print-based publishing into E-based publishing. E-publishing offers excellent opportunities that paper publishing cannot match.

10.61 Situation Analysis

Although Africa has seen many improvements in professional standards during the last decade, particularly through the work of the African Publishers Network (APNET), NISC, African Journals Online (AJOL), International Network for the Availability of Scientific Publications (INASP), Database of African Theses And Dissertations (DATAD), it is documented that few African publishers publish scholarly works, university publishing has remained weak and universities as centers for research have collapsed due to the drying up of the funding for higher education in successive years (Mazrui, 2006). Many universities especially the newly created ones do not have university presses and where they exist, it takes time to produce a title ostensibly because there is no money. Some universities have had collaborative arrangements where they publish with foreign publishers especially from the north. This arrangement is not systematic and sustainable. The problem is that the market for scholarly products like journals is considered too small to be attractive to larger academic publishers. Smaller, local publishers are unable to survive with scholarly products as the sole focus of lists.

Many African journals are sustained by donors and after the donors' pulls out it mean the journal closing a short time after. Those started by institutions on the pressure of 'publish or perish' close sooner than they are started. Editorial standard is often worrisome in some of them because the products come out with unforgivable structural, typographical and grammatical errors. Paper for production is sometimes the wrong type compromising quality. Sometimes it is not available when it is required most. African countries are net importers of paper since few countries manufacture it and where it is made, need for it within the countries of manufacture far outweighs supply. South Africa, Kenya, Tanzania, Nigeria are some of the paper producers on the continent.

Other production inputs like inks, films, and printing plates are imported at a higher cost. Labour is often laborious involving first generation equipment of letter setting or even with the third generation machinery like the polygraph whose work involves rounds of inking plates, replacement and cleaning of rollers after each work including gathering and folding, collating and binding of quires. These all add up to a sizeable establishment and more workers that translate into huge wage bill. Fourth generation equipment, the Desk Top Publishing (DTP) Units have so far offered relief to many African publishing outfits.

With few skilled craftspeople and cost accountants, one can be sure of substandard products but expensive as well, as production is less tenable in most of Africa and the efficiency of the print shop is questionable sometimes. For many journals that come out, the print-run is often very small to justify publication and this pushes the production costs to the limit. At the end of the chain, reading itself is a big handicap. This is low in general throughout the education system including universities for many reasons including poorly resourced libraries, competition from exciting technologies of TV, films, etc. For universities especially it is also because the likely readers cannot see copies of journals on the shelves or share few copies that end being stolen or pages removed from them. Libraries budgets do not permit sustainable journal subscription that come irregularly or any journal at all. It is a tradition that journals are subscribed for. Buying them individually isn't what we are accustomed to. It is an institutional rather than individual matter.

Publishing at the international countries of excellence according to those who have attempted it is said has its own woos. African scholars claim that they are marginalized from world publishing. It is their experience that on first receipt of the submissions they often receive a diplomatic reply from journal editors that what has been submitted 'looks interesting' and the editor will further inform the author about the review process which takes months or longer waiting and finally receiving a heart hitting message that it has been rejected because it is considered either inferior, irrelevant, dated, is of poor quality or something else. It is partly the issue of poor quality that invites higher rejection rates and increases resistance among reviewers to evaluate articles from developing countries. But where one is lucky to receive mild acceptance comments often will advise rewriting or getting article edited by a person whose native language is English or language of the journal, shortening of article, improving referencing style, requesting restructuring of the article for resubmission. The managing editors are even more polite. The editor tells you that in case you are not able to make the necessary adjustments by a particular date you are advised to inform the editor about it or the editor is humbler to inform the author that if you cannot meet the journal requirements or deadline stated then the author should feel free to submit it elsewhere. This also takes time either way. I do not say African scholars and researchers have not written works that have been accepted immediately by international journals. They have and are many but to reach that high standard these authors must have also gone through a harrowing

experience or were lucky to have been taught technical or scholarly communication earlier. But their numbers pitted against the continental output of Europe or the Americas reduces the percentage dramatically.

These are the sort of difficulties African scholars face and are in my view one of the reasons the Public Knowledge Project workshop was held at Makerere University Library Uganda from the 14th to 15th June 2007 by the Department of Languages and Literacy Education of the University of British Columbia with the support of the Canadian International Development Research Centre (IDRC). The aims of the workshop were three fold: introducing the researchers from the Uganda Universities and research institutions, journal editors, librarians, IT specialists and students etc to the Open Journal System; examining the perceived challenges of online publishing in Africa vis-à-vis the challenges of traditional scholarly publishing; sharing ways online technologies (e.g., locally maintained open source software [OSPS]) can be used to strengthen and support scholarly publishing and the feasibility of establishing online sites in Africa (Uganda) and moving journals to online management and full text publishing. Achieving these objectives means strengthening scholarly publishing in Africa by making choices of either remaining in the traditional method or taking up innovative approach such as e-publishing as a possible route for leveraging the potential of researchers existing among the African Universities. E-scholarly publishing is part of wide programme of 're-engineering publishing in the information age in which the application of ICTs leads to digital publishing.

Although there are problems about publishing in Africa, there are great variations between various countries in terms of historical developments, readership and market size, printing and publishing technology, and research support and communication infrastructure. These differences to a large extent reflect the state of development and the contemporary economic and political situation of the individual countries. Certain problems areas definitely cut across these differences: inadequate access to capital, the high price of many raw materials, and the shortage of qualified staff, in particular middle level, often lead to poor aesthetic and physical quality of products. In addition, underdeveloped marketing and distribution systems, the dominance of northern publishers, inadequate attention on the part of most African governments to information development policies, and difficulties in export, in particular in intra-African trade, are challenges facing the African publishing industry including scholarly publishing.

African universities have missions that anchor on teaching, research and community work. Although universities could be doing this locally, wider dissemination of research based information is an important component of their existence. African scholars' research works most of the times remain in offices, repositories as grey literature. Access to it, even by the research community itself within countries is very limited. This has in one way led to the

underrating of African universities, because their research output is not globally visible on the internet. This curtails scholarship. Scholarship is about the creation and sharing of knowledge, and one of the most important means of exchanging the results of research activities is in the academic journal (Stranack). To capture the lost time it is eminently clear that African research scholars need a radical paradigm shift to address the invisibility of their scholarly capacity by going online in the publishing of their research output especially journals and monographs. This is because journals and monographs are the backbone of scholarly work, providing a medium for the exchange of ideas and information and for debate. Scholarly journals can enable more scholars to be published than would be possible through books alone, and can have considerable outreach. They are extremely important as a forum for exchanging peer views on the latest developments in the world of knowledge.

10.6.1 Case for e-scholarly publishing

Many factors do not allow African scholars to come to the world literary market place that easily. First African universities must examine problems facing African scholarship in their bid to share intellectual property and develop a turn-around, alternative strategy for publishing in African Universities. A review of literature on the subject brings into focus a myriad of challenges. For instance for the African scholarly publications to be of excellent quality, on a par with the best being produced elsewhere in the world, African universities must attend to problems of scholars in the areas of editing and production, marketing and distribution (Katama 1997). She remarked that:

“Scholarly publishing is beset with titanic problems including a dearth of expertise, marketing difficulties, distributing costs and most importantly, the lack of an appropriate forum to voice concerns, share experiences and learn from more successful enterprises all over the world”

A critical issue discussed at this seminar was “the low readership level registered in the continent and the lack of resources within the universities that make an already difficult publishing arena impossibly difficult.” African Universities need to develop several capacities, mainly technological (modern equipment and software), human resources (manpower, technical expertise), and financial (hosting fees for the web). African universities need to overcome institutional resistance to change from rapid change into electronic based publishing (Ouya & Smart, 2005).

E-scholarly publishing has a much higher advantage of eliminating some production activities and inputs needed for product development. It eliminates to some extent costs involved in advertising, postage and distribution of the product but sets in the cost of hosting and maintaining the website. It brings with it the advantages of quality product, world wide distribution, instant advertisement, increased visibility, advantage of international peer review, editorial process and eliminates cumbersome manuscript management

process, increased visibility of writer, eliminates product inputs like paper, ink, and binding materials, eliminates storage facilities although it brings in other costs such as hosting and maintaining the websites.

To narrow the knowledge divide, African universities need a new strategy of thinking and acting intellectually. African universities require a paradigm shift from the present to find new opportunities that online electronic scholarly publishing offer. African universities need to understand that the past methods of publishing are difficult to sustain. Globalization is a reality and the efforts of e-scholarly publishing are providing an enabling and supportive environment. Globalization is about doing things according to the order the developed countries have designed but not the other way round. African scholars' fear of another form of colonialism in 'knowledge aid' can be averted through active research, writing and publishing. African universities can do their own publishing in Africa. After all, a journey of a thousand miles begins with one step, a Chinese would proclaim. African scholars must demonstrate that they can make new beginnings with new opportunities that are cheaper and environmentally cleaner. One of the contributions of e-publishing is saving on environment. Many trees are saved from the lumber's saw for papermaking. This has been provided by the example of Open Journal System (OJS). OJS brings in the benefits of providing a new and unique record of scholarly activity. OJS enhances scholarly recognition it brings to a university (Stranack 2006). It contributes a lot to making an individual enrich his/her research area. This venture also joins a university to the club of scholars making local research visible throughout the continent and abroad.

Electronic publications are cheaper to run and can be disseminated to a narrow and wider sphere at lower cost than print publications. All that is needed is to start small and grow carefully. African universities need to constitute effective publishing teams, train them in areas of weakness and vote funds for activities like reviewing, editing and layout. African universities need a clear flexible publishing policy to be worked out. There should be no space for failure, no room for failure. Scholars firm commitment to research and publish culture should be cultivated if African universities are to grow to full maturity.

African scholars need to take advantage of the Internet. The Internet is now firmly established as a marketing tool. It serves as an integral part of the marketing mix serving as a digital distribution channel as well as an electronic storefront. The internet is an interactive medium as opposed to traditional marketing which allows only one-way communication. It offers significant opportunity for reducing operating costs particularly printing and distribution costs. It enables marketing managers to update product databases instantly and continuously, as new product features are developed and price adjustments are made. In fact it is even more productive when and where links are provided to other sites. The Internet medium is ideal for the fragmented nature of today's consumer markets. This technological revolution

has had a major impact on the flow of information and has created new forms of publishing that give consumers instant, on-line access to some publications. E-publishing is the new summit of hope at the beginning of this millennium. The entry of Open Access publishing beginning only in the 1990s is one of the solutions to African research scholarship. All sectors worldwide are examining ways of reducing costs and improving service delivery through the cost effective and innovative use of ICT. ICTs should therefore be interpreted as a modern managerial approach to increase productivity and efficiency (Nolan, 2001).

10.7 Training in Publishing in Africa

In the present times we can claim with some degree of certainty that there is some form of publishing going on in every country so that some kind of training goes on. By training it is meant acquisition of knowledge and skills in different aspects of publishing such as publishing management, editing, printing, photography, marketing, legal aspects of publishing and so on. We recognize training to be carried out at four levels that is, training in-house, training organized by local and regional associations, training by continental associations such as the APNET and formal training in institutions of learning.

Nationally, it is a usual practice for Publishers Associations as part of their activities to organize workshops and get together seminars where they teach members on issues of weakness affecting their publishing establishments. Examples of Associations doing this are the Uganda Publishers Association and the Publishers Association of South Africa (PASA). At the continental level African Publishers Network (APNET) an organization established in 1992 is responsible for promoting indigenous publishing on the African continent. Its mission is the transformation of Africa through access to books. In order to promote such a vision for the future, APNET focuses on the strengthening of national publishers associations in order to enable them to undertake a national role as promoters of improved access to African books. The main activities of APNET are related to training of national publishing communities, marketing of African books, research, and general information sharing (APNET Evaluation 1998:13). APNET comprises of national publishers associations and publishing communities in 27 countries as of 1998. The activities of the network are coordinated through a Secretariat in Zimbabwe. To implement its activities APNET receives substantial funding from a wide range of different donors.

There are a few formal training institutions in Africa where publishing studies are undertaken like it is done in Brooks College Oxford or Stirling University in Scotland. Some of these training institutions are: University of Witwatersrand's postgraduate publishing studies programme. The course is offered as part of African literature III. Current course outline includes Publishing studies, 20th Century Black Intellectual History; African Literature; Orality, Literacy and Readership, and Canonical Writers and the Post Colonial Experiences in Africa (Mpe, 1999:12). At Makerere University's East African School of Library and Information Science, publishing profile includes Publishing Management, Editing, Electronic Publishing, Book Design, Marketing and Book Trade all taught at undergraduate

level leading to the degree level of library and information science. Moi University in Kenya offers some courses in publishing studies at postgraduate level as part of the Information Science Faculty. In West Africa Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology offers two programmes at post graduate level that is publishing at postgraduate diploma level and an M.A. in Publishing and Media Studies.

10.8 Where do we go from here?

There is a kind of trend in Africa, Uganda inclusive that any new thing brought in their midst, takes time to adopt. While some people take up the idea immediately, others wait on the 'fence' to see success from the trials. But the world is moving in time and space. The future is ours today and now. It only requires pragmatism to start something and get on with it or leave it. PALM AFRICA project is coming with a noble idea to scratch our heads. It is seeking to reduce the gaps in book provision in African communities by proposing alternatives to the mono tradition of publishing basing on copyright methodology. This change is expected from the practitioners themselves. So far licensing appears to be one business model along the way. For instance in licensing, a book published abroad that has higher potential in a country like Uganda where people are too poor to afford books could be licensed to a local publisher to reproduce copies at fraction of a cost and sold within Uganda or East Africa and not beyond. This has been done in India where western publishers have licensed some Indian publishers to issue 'economy editions' and to be sold only in India. To get more books to more people in Africa we could follow Indian example. India's low cost mass production did not just happen in a day. It follows from a large reading population resulting from the political will to promote readership through consistent education and book policies (Nwanko, 2001:11). This could as well solve the problem of rampant photocopying assumedly rampant in tertiary institutions.

Secondly with the rampant lack of knowledge about copyright, it cannot be reasoned that it is the reason why alternative publishing business models cannot be adopted. In fact to bridge the knowledge gap and reduce this threatening digital divide into digital dividends, African publishers must adopt a new way of thinking. Print-On-Demand (POD) or On Demand Publishing (ODP) is yet another business model that can address the role of digital printing in getting books published in Africa. POD requires this paradigm shift to find what opportunities ICT offers to by-pass the limitations of lack of investment capital and inadequate physical infrastructure ordinarily essential for getting their books to the market place (Nwanko, 2001:1). In fact this opens alternative gate for education of publishers, writers and other stakeholders on copyright law.

Thirdly, there are many other options or models that have come up as a result of ICTs. There is a trend towards open educational resources. This has been enabled by e-publishing. E-publishing offers a number of options such as allowing text to be read but no down loading, allowing free reading including downloading, only showing table of content but whole

product one needs to contact the publishers and so on. There are even e-archiving services. All these developments in ICT have brought forward possibilities of doing business for all. It is this that we are looking for without destabilizing publishers.

Fourthly the library environment is changing. Users of libraries are getting accustomed to accessing information online. Models for accessing information products are increasing to include subscription, E-books conversion, and In house generated products. It is the responsibility of the publishing industry to respond and match to the challenge. In this connection, publishing industry should not be seen as an obstacle to information technology developments.

Fifthly, it must be said here that Africa is lagging behind in terms of local content contribution on the Internet. This deficit is one of the factors causing a digital divide. The quest is to narrow this divide. Whereas Africa would do well to embrace some of the western content, it should also be a contributor of its own content to the rest of the world. ICTs have definitely brought possibilities from which Africa could contribute to the international information pool. One area worth mentioning is that there is a lot of publishing of the information products by NGOs especially those dealing with HIV/AIDS. People need that information a lot and the world needs to learn how Africa is dealing with the scourge. And yet it is difficult to access such information in the present print form because it is not widely distributed and it is skewed to few languages and a few people. Another area is local research that is being done in institutions. There is a lot for instance about malaria that could be uploaded onto the Internet for all to read. Presently this is a grey area that has not been given enough attention locally in Africa. Already the western world is experimenting and consolidating on information equity using the Creative Commons Licenses including attributions, having no derivations, being non commercial and the share- alike. There are several Creative Commons Licenses such as the Science commons, CC Internationals "ports", CC learn - minimizing barriers, CC laboratories - Projects currently under development, CC mixture - community music site, Commons - useful information materials to members. Instead of starving of information this suit of licences provide possibilities to be exploited.

Sixthly, as stated above one of the problems of publishing in Africa is lack of money, inadequate distribution of information products or marketing and so on. I can say that with developments in ICT and pairing those difficulties with it, it becomes essentially obvious that African publishers need a small change of mindset to look at the way the world is moving. It is a personal view that the current of publishing coming on stage cannot be stopped but made good use of it. It is like saying fire is bad when in the actual fact fire is a friend because the role it plays. We in Africa either tow the line or we are ourselves responsible for widening the digital divide.

Similarly and this has been mentioned above, many institutions especially universities are already publishing journals in paper form. The Universities are finding difficulties in running journals due to budgetary constraints. Evidence from AJOL shows that only four countries are somehow managing to consistently publish and keep their journals online. Therefore coming to terms with e-world using appropriate Commons could help in reducing to a great extent the problems associated with costs. This is because the Internet is now firmly established as a marketing tool that works as an integral part of the marketing mix serving as a digital distribution channel as well as an electronic storefront. The internet offers a valuable opportunity for reducing costs particularly printing and distribution costs. It enables marketing managers to update product databases instantly and continuously, as new product features are developed and price adjustments are made. This technological revolution has had a major impact on the flow of information and has created new forms of publishing that give consumers instant, on-line access to some publications. Who are we not to follow suit? This is the message PALM AFRICA is attempting to send across.

Relating this to ICTs still, it will be mentioned that more opportunities are coming to Africa as a result of the liberalisation of economies. ICTs especially computers are entering countries almost free and in some cases completely free of tax, Internet networks are improving throughout the continent and at least every country is connected with an estimated number of 9,000,000 million users. The growth of the internet use in the world grew by 203 percent from 2000-2007 while the growth in Africa has been much larger at 625 percent (Esseh, 2007). And there is increasing and cheaper mobile technology, improved ICT literacy through telecentres, improved rural connectivity by Internet Service Providers. Additionally, web hosting is becoming cheaper, E-commerce initiatives are taking root, open source software is getting widely used in the market and selling and distribution of refurbished computers is also gradually becoming a reality on the continent. Although the cost of connectivity is still high, internet reliability and skills were still a problem, what publishers need to do is to: starting with developing their websites, building own capacity, acquiring equipment and developing content for online consumption. By so doing using ICTs would benefit publishers from quicker publicity, learning from other publishers, accessing a lot of free materials on the internet and reducing the cost of publishing. ICTs have the advantage of integrating text with voice and images in one product, facilitating outsourcing of expertise in remote locations, taking advantage of social networks such web 2 and blogs while minimizing waste of unused resources and keeping archive of passed publications. The opportunities include capacity to market products locally and globally, accessing picture databases (photo websites), applying flexible licensing (e.g. Creative Commons) and the introduction of local content. There is need to change the mindset from the traditional methods to modern ways of doing publishing work. One of the inputs to PALM AFRICA project is really the idea of factoring of ICTs to the job of publishing. There are increasing developments in ICT in relation to publishing where possibilities are appearing when and where it was possible to gain Knowledge for free because of the emergence of open education resources.

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