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CONTENTS

	Page
Athol Leach and Jennifer Verbeek	
The Reading Habits of Adults in Anglophone Sub-saharan Africa: A Historical Overview	95
Diana Rosenberg	
Resource Sharing - Is it the Answer for Africa?	107
F. A. Ehikhamenor	
Information Technology and Scientific and Technological Information in Nigeria: Revolution or Evolution?	113
K. H. Moahi and R. M. Monau	
Library and Information Needs of Disabled Persons in Botswana	125
A. A. Alemna	
The Factor of Publishing as a Criterion for Establishing the Status of Librarians in University Libraries in Ghana	133
Olu Olat Lawal	
Indigenisation of the Curriculum in Nigerian Library Schools : A Survey of its Impact on Practitioners	141
Pino Akotia	
The Search for a Meaningful Disposition Programme in West Africa: The Case of The Gambia	151
M. E. Ojo - Igbino	
The Potential of CD-ROM Technology in African Libraries	157
Short Communications	
Information Needs and Information Seeking Behaviour Patterns of Journalists in Nigeria	167
The Role of Bibliotherapy in Adjustive Behaviour of the Handicapped in a Developing Country	175
Book Review - The State of Modern Information Professional 1992-1993	179
Spotlight on Info Africa Nova	183
Personality Interview - Mrs. H. K. Raseroka	187
Professional News and Events	
News	194
Forthcoming International Conferences and Workshops	195
Reports of Conferences and Workshops	196
Abstracts of Selected Professional Literature published in Africa	196
Index to Volume 3, Numbers (1 & 2) 1993	199

THE READING HABITS OF ADULTS IN ANGLOPHONE SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a historical overview of significant writing on the reading of black adults in Anglophone sub-Saharan Africa. The generalised thesis that "Africans don't read" is examined from a historical perspective and found untrue. Reading has always taken place albeit under certain restraints which are discussed in the paper.

INTRODUCTION

Investigations into reading habits in Anglophone sub-Saharan Africa are scattered through the literature, and an overview of the situation as reflected in the post-war literature will place this reading in its historical context.

Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa) often means the study of reading in Nigeria, because it "has the most prolific and best developed book-publishing industry in black Africa." (Altbach and Rathgeber, 1980). A review of the literature also reflects the situations in Ghana and Kenya.

Any discussion of reading in Africa must be seen in the light of the absence of research on reading in this region (Kotei, 1981). The information available is restricted to figures limited to a specific geographical area.

Generalizations, and what Onadiran and Onadiran (1984) referred to as "armchair" papers and articles often mentioned the issue, but did not deal directly with it. Existing material while providing insights into the reading situation in Africa, must be treated with caution.

Achebe (1975) in answering the question "What do African intellectuals read?", said that "The temptation is indeed strong to answer . . . in one word: nothing." He admitted that "such an answer would be too simplistic - neither wholly true nor very helpful". He believed the cause to be a lack of time and the fact that

The habit of reading itself is clearly the most important, for if it were strongly developed in our intellectuals some of them at least would find the time. But the habit is simply not there.

If Achebe's premise is accurate, the same would have applied (if not more so) to the African population in general. Zell (1984), however, suggests that if reading was not part of the African tradition this no longer holds true.

HISTORICAL ANTECEDENTS OF READING IN AFRICA

Reading in Pre-colonial Africa.

Reading has a relatively short history in Africa (Chakava 1984). Reading was in many ways a product of colonialism and the missionary activity which followed in its path. However, Bengé (1979) investigated pre-colonial literacy, showing that there were several forms of marginal and hidden literacy, and that African society in pre-colonial times was not totally illiterate. This thesis was supported by Kotei (1981): who noted that key literate individuals decisively influenced traditional society. When Europe first came into contact with West Africa in the 15th Century, primitive forms of writing had already developed, although were not sufficiently widely used to enable Africa being called literate in the modern sense. "We must remember that this (literacy) was the preserve of the specialist few and that the vast majority . . . had no direct access to the written word" and that further, by the end of the 19th century, Koranic schools had infused a certain amount of "limited literacy" to vast areas of the population in West and East Africa. Amadi (1981) believed that literacy, and the generation and organisation of records was happening in pre-colonial Africa. Pointing out that literacy was as "restricted" in Africa in the 16th century as it was in the Western world.

We see from these arguments that literacy and hence reading, was prevalent in Africa prior to the arrival of the colonists and missionaries, although on a limited scale. The subsequent colonial attitude towards defining literacy in Western terms, has done much to obscure this point. (Bengé 1979).

The Influence of Religion

Kotei (1975) investigated the role religion played in the promotion of publishing and hence of reading in Africa, so much so that in most African languages the word for "reader" is synonymous with that for "Christian". He saw that militant evangelism (mainly Methodist) did much to popularise the printed word.

By the early 1920s best-sellers such as the *Atlantic Readers* were being produced for schools in the Gold Coast. Schools and colleges provided a ready market. Irele (1975) noted that the first significant group of publishers in Africa were the Christian Missionary Societies, who had published parts of the Bible by the early 19th Century. In due course the mission houses widened their scope of publishing from "the devotional and linguistic into educational and other secular works . . ." (Kotei, 1975). According to Bischof (1993) the publishing of Bibles was preceded by that of grammars and dictionaries.

Reading and Education in Colonial Africa.

It is difficult to assess the extent of missionary influence on popularising the printed word, and hence encouraging reading. For instance, Chakava (198) believed that the missionaries

forced people to go to school and to read books (mostly of a religious kind) which they felt were good for them . . . Because the people had little interest in what they were made to read, they were induced with promises of material and spiritual rewards — a good job, prestige, financial gain and a comfortable life. In the end, those who attained these rewards stopped reading because there was no more to read for, and those who did not attain them stopped reading in frustration. Also, most African communities then . . . consider[ed] books as foreign, alien and difficult things.

This attitude persisted into independence. According to Oyeoku (1975) the attitude of the main purpose of education being certification so that one could obtain a job, led to the rapid discarding of the steps which led up to certification and thus reading itself was discarded. Mission education was of a very utilitarian nature and somewhat short-term in duration. According to Amadi (1981), 96% of the schools in Nigeria in 1960 were mission schools.

Colonial Authority and Colonial Education

The effort made by the colonial authorities in terms of producing literates through the provision of formal education was slight. Kagan (1982), referring to Kenya, mentions the Beecher Report of 1949 which "recommended that 40 percent of the eligible population be sent to primary school, 10 percent to intermediate school, and a select 1 percent to secondary school."

The situation in Somalia was even worse. A British official declared that it would be " . . . disastrously grave to educate the Somalis: . . ." and in Rhodesia "As late as 1979, only 60 out of 1,000 Africans went to secondary school . . ." Education was narrowly based, with a specific purpose: the development of an indigenous elite which would serve as an intermediary between the colonial rulers and the people (Carnoy in Kagan, 1982). The high illiteracy rates extant in each of these countries as at 1950 bear witness to the attitudes and policies above, and it is little wonder that reading was limited. It is not that the various colonial governments made no attempt to promote reading. As will be shown some did, but it is difficult to assess the success and extent of those attempts. Kotei (1981) contended that "the most significant feature of indigenous printing and publishing during the colonial period. . . was the large number of . . . official documents."

The Literature Bureaux

In Anglophone Africa the major contribution of the colonial authorities to the promotion of reading was through the establishment of various literature bureaux. Thus

...in British territories during the colonial period ten Regional Literature Bureaux were established by governments to facilitate the production, publications and distribution of materials in African languages. (Foster, 1977).

An example of such a bureau was the East African Literature Bureau establish in

1948. By 1952 it had published 281 titles in 16 languages which represented approximately 916 000 volumes of which 367 000 had been sold. In addition the Bureau had helped commercial publishers produce 127 titles with about 300 000 volumes (Ndegwa, 1973). Krog (1974) was equally positive about the accomplishments of the Rhodesia Literature Bureau stating that since its inception in 1953 over 1 million Bureau sponsored books had been sold.

While these figures appear to be substantial it is still difficult to ascertain just how successful the literature bureaux were in promoting literature and reading. The impression is that success was limited. Kotei (1981) suggested that the bureaux in fact had "limited objectives". Foster (1977), points out that most of these bureaux continued to function in the post-colonial period but that "they are not usually extensive enterprises catering to a mass readership."

Mwiska (1986) noted criticisms made of the Joint Publications Bureau of Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland. The latter's advisory committee apparently had only one African on it and did not take the vernaculars and African opinion seriously. Some of the books translated had no bearing on Africa. School primers and readers contained European pictures and drawings even if the subject had an African context. However, "some" local authors were identified, "some" African literature was created and an "effort" was made towards the distribution of literature.

Emergent Nationalism

The emergence of nationalism in Africa during the colonial period provided impetus to publishing and reading during and after the Second World War. According to Chakava (1984)

The spread of nationalism and the resultant struggles for independence increased Africans' awareness of the value of education which up to that time was still elitist in structure and available only to a few.

Kotei (1975) was more specific: the struggle for political democracy led to enhanced individualism, which in turn nurtured the incipient reading habit. He believed that the material then being read was the anti-colonial ideologies of Danquah, Azikiwe, Nkrumah and Wallace Johnson which suggests a limited encouragement of a wider reading audience. The audience of the pamphlets-cum-books (which could be anything between 10 and 70 pages in length) produced in the Nigerian town of Onitsha was much wider (see below). Obiechina (1973) pointed to the large number of pamphlets dealing with political events and personalities in Africa. He felt that pamphlet authors, in reflecting popular attitudes, could not ignore such subjects. Collings (1963) referred to the "books" which emerged following the death of the first Prime Minister of the Congo, Patrice Lumumba, pointing to how the books had played an important part in establishing Lumumba as the "Stephen" of the Pan-African movement:

These books, these paper-covered pamphlets of the Onitsha market, written, printed, distributed locally, help[ed] to provide the kind of climate in which anti-Western propaganda can flourish.

African Bookselling and Printing

The poor reading habits among the literate in Nigeria were referred to by Adegbonmire (1975) who concluded that a bookseller in that part of the world had to accept that the reading public was small compared to that in Europe or America.

A study of national bibliographies confirms that reading in general was limited. Kotei (1975) suggested that "The overwhelming majority of the adult population only read newspapers, journals and magazines . . ." (see below). This to the obvious exclusion of books. Crowder (1986) was even more pessimistic whilst acknowledging that some publishing was taking place. He referred to "Africa's other famine" namely, "the terrible dearth of books and other teaching materials that afflicts nearly all African countries south of the Sahara . . .". Zell (1989), in his preface to the 4th edition of *The African book world and press*, also referred to a "book famine" saying that "through lack of funds and chronic foreign exchange constraints, much of Africa is becoming a tragically *bookless* society. . ."

Escarpit (1982) looked at book development trends around the world. He considered publication statistics in Africa misleading, in that in Ghana for example, of the 1,114,000 copies of 135 titles that were printed in 1977, just over half of these were religious pamphlets. He approached the book situation in a "roundabout way" by taking into account the consumption of printing paper. Giving figures for 1970 and 1978, he pointed out that the average annual consumption per inhabitant for the region was 0.4 kilogram while that for the world was 8.5 kilogram per inhabitant. Of the 24 countries surveyed in Africa only 11 were above the average of 0.4 kilogram. He also referred to Africa as "deprived" and pointed to

a tendency to polarization towards a number of countries which, for historical, political or economic reasons, have had the possibility of crossing the threshold between total death and mere poverty

Finally, Zell (1978) referred to the number of books in print. He pointed out that in comparison with the 12,000 books in print and the slightly less than 400 publishers in Africa in 1978, the 1977 edition of *British Books in Print* listed 282,706 books from 8,872 publishers. The figures for Africa are certainly very low. They were however a substantial improvement on the corresponding figures for 1975 as reflected in the first edition of *African Books in Print*: only 6,000 titles published by 188 African publishers and other organizations with publishing programmes (Zell, 1975). The third edition (Zell, 1984) "lists 18,724 titles in print at the end of 1982; despite deletions of some 2,000 records, it is over half as large again as the second edition published in 1978." The number of publishers and organizations with publishing programmes had also increased substantially, standing at 604. As Zell (1984) pointed out

Publishing activities in Africa continue to be on the upswing, and the past five years have seen several significant developments — output is increasing dramatically, new imprints are mushrooming, and there has been rapid growth of some indigenous firms.

This indicates that the (book) reading habit which existed was a growing habit and that the situation appeared to be improving, albeit slowly.

READERSHIP PATTERN IN AFRICA

One of a few surveys concerning the reading of adults in Africa was that done by Kimble (1956) in the then Gold Coast. This survey provided interesting findings. In the study 159 respondents drawn from extra-mural classes in Accra were questioned. One of the findings was that the average number of books in people's homes was 27. The presence of books in people's homes obviously does not necessarily mean that the owners were readers nor does it take into account multiple readership of copies. However, even allowing for over-reporting, this figure was higher than what one would expect in the light of what has been said above. Furthermore, 16% of those books were novels, which does suggest some reading beyond the textbook. In the late 1970s, a survey of the reading habits of Ghanaians done by Kotei and Twumasi (1979) also pointed to reading being done among a large number of the inhabitants. Of the sample of 610 (which included both urban and rural people "from various walks of life") 96.1% stated that they read various books, journals and news articles (Kotei & Twumasi, 1979). Unfortunately a question on the frequency of reading was not analysed. The reading being done, however, appeared to be extensive despite the existence of various inhibiting factors which were identified in the study. These included the lack of libraries, the cost of books and an inhospitable reading environment.

Reading and Culture

People were reading, however limitedly, and during this period African culture could not be considered a "non-book-based" culture. Such a culture is seen by Waungana (1984) as having two aspects: The first is that people "carry on their day-to-day lives without paying much attention to books" and the second is that "The education of these people is dependent mostly on approaches which do not consciously take into account the contribution of books". Omolewa (1974) stressed the importance of textbooks amongst readers. During the period 1932-1960 "Nigeria . . . was wholly certificate conscious." (see below). This would suggest that books (albeit textbooks) did play a role in formal education. That there were few "general" readers (in Nigeria and in Africa as a whole) should be seen in the light of a statement made by Bengé (1979) that

reading as a customary activity is a minority thing in any culture and it should not be supposed that Africa is peculiar in this respect.

Popular Literature

Lying somewhere in format between the book on the one hand and the newspaper and magazine on the other was what has come to be known as the Onitsha Market literature. This pamphlet-type literature first emerged in the Eastern Nigerian market town of Onitsha in 1947. According to Obiechina (1973), "Pamphlet publishing became a booming industry, so that, by the 1960s, any active collector swooping down on Onitsha Market might be rewarded with as many as two hundred different titles."

Bengé (1979) emphasized the significance of this literature in view of the general belief that Africans do not read. Discussing the readership of the pamphlets, Obiechina (1972) pointed out that they were "widely read", not only in Onitsha

and the surrounding areas but also in the major towns of Nigeria and as far away as Ghana and the Cameroons. Sales figures suggested a large audience: In the majority of cases, 3,000 to 4,000 copies were sold but the more popular sold several thousand copies more. Ogali A. Ogali's *Veronica My Daughter*, for example, recorded a sale of 60,000 copies, while the *Nigerian Bachelor's Guide* sold 40,000 copies (Obiechina 1972). The actual readership however was probably a great deal larger than the publishing figures would suggest. According to Obiechina (1972) the pamphlets appealed

mainly to the new literate class of elementary and grammar-school boys and girls, low-level white-collar workers, primary-school teachers, literate and semiliterate traders, mechanics, taxi-drivers and, above all, to the numerous products of the adult education classes and evening schools who find more sophisticated literature, such as the novel proper, too cumbersome and difficult.

What Benge (1979) referred to as the "key characteristics" of the pamphlets does perhaps go some way towards accounting for their popularity. He stated that

they are relevant and topical . . . they easily available when other literature is not, and, . . . they are cheap.

Omotoso's point (1975) concerning reading in Africa in general is instructive at this point. He stated that

It is not that people do not read. They do read. It is what they read, what is available for them to read, this is the problem.

The Nigerian civil war, as Obiechina (1973) pointed out, "hit the pamphlet literature hard" and after the war there were some attempts to restore the pamphlet. Old copies were again being sold and the few surviving presses had begun producing some of the pamphlet "evergreens" but at a much higher price. Benge (1979) believed that their importance was "partly historical as the original movement was destroyed in the civil war" but that a similar type of literature still existed in the late 1970s. Kotei (1981) also noted that "While West Africa continues to read its own market literature, another, equally popular series has emerged. . ." The literature was therefore still being produced, but on a much smaller scale, as late as 1981.

Obiechina (1973) stated that a more fundamental threat to the continued existence of the pamphlet literature was that the book trade proper was moving increasingly into paperback editions with their lower prices.

Many of the readers who hitherto patronized the popular pamphlets are beginning to find in the paperbacks an alternative source of low-cost reading matter of equal relevance.

He decried the ". . . flourishing of cheap, romantic magazines with their seductive photographs and sensational treatment of sex" which also lured away some of the newly literate readers who would have previously read the pamphlets.

The issue of cost is a recurring one. According to Thomas (1975) books for the "typical" African reader "must be brief and, most importantly, cheap. . . There is a great future for the very inexpensive African paperback novel but new marketing methods are needed."

Zell, Bundy and Coulon (1983) referring to the period 1971 to 1981, pointed out that a phenomenon in East Africa had been

the proliferation of popular literature and mass paperbacks, many publishers having apparently suddenly awakened to the fact that money was to be made in such literature.

Zell (1984) stated that these books were similar to the Onitscha Market pamphlets but rather more sophisticated, elitist and better produced. According to Altbach and Rathgeber (1980) a series of paperbacks published by Comb Books (Kenya) sold nearly 50,000 copies.

and market surveys conducted by the company indicate that readership includes a cross-section of people from all sectors of society – from the barely literate to university graduates.

Zell (1984) also referred to the "success" of the popular mass market literature publishers in East Africa adding that there were "more local authors and readers than anybody suspected."

The situation in West Africa was also positive. Ikideh (1971), referring to Ghanaian popular literature (which he felt had "come of age"), said that "the most startling facts have been in the sales figures of these books, and with them, the readership." He listed eleven titles (out of a total of just over thirty) pointing out that the approximate average sales figures for the eleven were just over 21,000 and that a number of titles were sold out within a month. "These figures are in spite of the fact that *Woman is poison*, a pamphlet of 78 pages, sells at the equivalent of five shillings."

According to Ikideh (1971) the readership of the material was fairly wide, ranging from people with little formal education to professional people, although the readership was highest among the former.

These sales figures are fairly substantial but when compared with, for example, sales of books in Western countries they are low. However, as will be stressed below, sales figures can be misleading when taken as indicators of extent of readership. As the figures stand they do go some way towards answering what Zell (1984) referred to as the patronizing question "Do Africans read?" Ikideh (1971), acknowledged this when he concluded that

After these disclosures we may have to re-state our opinions on the absence of a reading public in West Africa, and we shall be indifferent to these writings [there have been complaints about their standard, for example, in terms of language] only at our own risk.

Chakava (1982) referred to sales of magazines and newspapers in Kenya representing only 10% of total readership. He suggested that "This pattern may be true of books as well." Similarly, Altbach and Rathgeber (1980) noted that a high readership of a series of romantic love stories was "Unfortunately . . . not reflected in the sales figures since there is a strong tendency for single copies to be shared among many readers."

Zell (1984), too, stressed the point that books were bought and passed on to others: "one school girl in Nigeria or in Kenya will buy one copy of a popular novel, yet a hundred will read it." He came to the rueful conclusion that

perhaps the truth of the matter is that book reading is a habit, but that book buying is not as yet. The challenge which publishers in Africa therefore have before them, and it is a formidable challenge, is how to persuade people — people with very little money — to actually buy a book rather than just read it.

Newspapers and Magazines

While the readership of books was fairly limited it appeared that the reading of newspapers and magazines was more widespread. Altbach & Rathgeber (1980), in their report on publishing in the Third World, contended that "There is little doubt that Africans read, as is revealed by circulation figures for newspapers and tabloids in many countries." These figures do not appear to be available. However statistics from the Gold Coast (Ghana) and Kenya at mid-century give some indication of this greater use. Milburn (1956) referred to the Gold Coast Vernacular Literature Bureau which in 1950 was editing and publishing six vernacular monthly newspapers with an average circulation of 65,000 each. Ndegwa (1973), in turn, pointed to the East African Literature Bureau which produced a Swahili weekly magazine *Tazama* with a circulation in 1956 of approximately 20,000.

Evidence of the popularity of newspapers and magazines was also provided in a survey of public library use in Nigeria by Onadiran and Onadiran (1984). In contrast to the United States and Britain, (where few users go to the library to read newspapers and magazines) a large number of users in Nigeria read newspapers and magazines in the library. Of the sample (the study apparently covered the entire country) 64.8% read newspapers and 39.1% read magazines. The authors felt that it was the "rising prices and high rate of inflation in Nigeria (that) make it difficult for low income people to have extra money for magazines and newspapers".

Kotei, (1975) put the reading of serials in perspective:

Literature communities throughout the world read more serialised literature than books . . . Whereas the average African literate in an urban area may read a pamphlet, magazine, or newspaper every day of the week he may not glance at a book the whole year, except the Bible or the Koran occasionally, or, if a student, his textbooks . . . So far we only know that newspapers are read because they are more readily available and within the means of most adult literates . . .

As with books, the issues of availability and cost are both obvious and important. Hatt (1976) stated that one of the reasons why newspapers were read so much is that "newspapers are simply much easier to acquire than books." Durrani (1985), for example, referred to the "high cost" of newspapers in Kenya which put them out of reach of poor rural peasants and pastoralists.

Kotei (1981: 165) provided some further reasons to account for the popularity of newspapers, magazines and journals over books. He stated that with serials

feature articles are simple and short and so they do not require a great deal of mental effort to digest. Second, they deal with more recent happenings; therefore they have an immediacy of appeal which many literacy books lack. Third, they contain material of local interest to most people; their impact on the readers' consciousness and emotional responses are quite strong. When the above advantages are added to their cheapness, the preference is understandable.

He cited figures from Unesco: In Africa in 1969 newspaper circulation per 1,000 inhabitants was 19 and in 1978 it was 21. This is contrast to the 295 and 281 respectively in North America. Tanzania, with one of the highest literacy rates in Africa (Unesco, 1988) had 3 daily newspapers with an aggregate circulation of 87,712 and a circulation per 1,000 inhabitants of only 5. With non-dailies, however, the situation was better (but still low), the respective figures being 17, 213,000 and 13.

While the above suggests a limited reading public it should be borne in mind that serial circulation or sales statistics are often (as with books) misleading when taken as indicators of extent of reading. Referring to those "who can and want to read but cannot afford to do so" Chakava (1982) discussed a survey done by Kenyan newspaper and magazine firms in which "it was found that sales represented only 10% of the total readership." Thus, as with books, it does appear that a great deal more reading of newspapers and magazines was and is taking place than is immediately apparent.

CONCLUSIONS

While the reading of books in Africa was not widespread, the reading habit did take root. The number of people reading has always been impossible to determine, but the evidence shows that people of Africa have indeed read (and read increasingly) for more than a century. The establishment of book development councils in several African countries (Zell, 1984) and the Nigerian readership promotion campaign (Nweke, 1988) were, while indicative of a lack of both books and reading, a further indication that the situation concerning books and reading in Africa has steadily improved.

The argument that the African does not read is not only paternalistic but also untrue. This paper has attempted to show that the African elite have a history of reading and that the poor, once taught to read, and provided with material that interests them at a cost which they can afford, also read. This belief has considerable implications for both educators and librarians, implications which must be taken seriously.

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RESOURCE SHARING – IS IT THE ANSWER FOR AFRICA?

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ABSTRACT

Library literature tends to review resource sharing positively, even though it has been slow to take-off in Africa. This article questions the relevance of resource sharing to Africa and reviews some of its shortcomings. It concludes that before resource sharing will even be possible, the underlying problems which have caused the decline of information services must be solved and suggests some of the measures that might be implemented.

INTRODUCTION

No-one argues with the concept of resource sharing. Co-operation and networking are globally endorsed. In all human activities sharing tends to result in harmony and progress. In the world of libraries, it seems irrefutable that "if we share whatever we have in terms of collections, equipment, manpower and experience and if we share the work to be done, then each one of us will be 'richer' and we shall collectively carry out activities we would be unable to perform alone"¹ Odini in a definitive article on resource sharing published in a recent issue of this journal, (1991) does discuss the constraints involved in resource sharing in developing countries. However his statements on its value are positive: "If libraries are to continue to meet the demands of their users, increased co-operation and resource-sharing are vital" and "There is no doubt that resource sharing programmes have a significant role to play in developing countries, given the problem of scarce resources ... with regards to human, material and financial aspects". He sees a solution to the constraints in the setting up of "a national body for the planning of resource sharing".

Progress Towards Resource Sharing

Since the NATIS concept began to be actively promoted in Africa from the beginning of the 1980s, we have come to view co-operation and co-ordination as the panacea for all that is wrong in the information world. Innumerable conferences, seminars and workshops have been held on the subject. Most recently, between 1984 and 1992, the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) financed a major programme based on national information policies through holding seminars on the subject in each of the countries of Eastern and Southern Africa. These seminars were followed by training courses on the management of information resources sharing and

networking. Thus theory as well as practice and implementation was addressed.

Despite all this effort, progress on the ground has been negligible. In 1992, I made an informal poll of around 30 Kenyan librarians, asking what progress they thought had been made in Kenya over the past years in the areas of national information systems, resource sharing and networking. The answer was "nothing". In some ways the situation with regard to resource sharing in Africa could be said to be deteriorating. Older schemes like the East African Literature Service have collapsed. National bibliographies are no longer produced or are very late in publication. Shrinking budgets leading to the purchase of fewer resources and to lower staff morale, are a common feature of African libraries. After all the 'talk', we are still struggling to establish national information systems and national information policies.

In late 1992, there was a follow-up and evaluation seminar on the series of seminars and workshops hosted by DSE in Eastern Africa over the previous four years. Participants gave papers on what had been implemented in the way of resource sharing and networking in their home countries. Some little progress was recorded, but most of this was still at the 'talk' and 'plan' stage. Recommendations were still being made to Government to provide more finance and to international agencies for external funding and for consultancy visits. No country could present and evaluate an actual on the ground resource sharing or networking project that had taken off and that was providing proven value in improving library and information services.

Relevance of Resource Sharing in Africa

Most of the writings about resource sharing in developing countries contain the same fallacy. Whilst the constraints and problems preventing the successful implementation of resource sharing are described, it is then assumed that resource sharing will somehow by itself remove these constraints. But first a way has to be found to solve the problems. And these problems — lack of finance, few resources, ill-trained and motivated staff, poor communication facilities — are not new to Africa. As far back as 1979, the same material and human shortcomings were identified as the obstacle that must be overcome for resource sharing to become a reality (Parker, 1979). It is therefore not surprising that after ten or so years we are still trying to implement resource sharing in one form or another in Africa.

I recently came across an account of how, in Natal, libraries tried to meet the financial crisis of the mid-70s by a programme of cooperation and the sharing of resources at the regional level (Vietzen, 1988). However the effort foundered on the extreme paucity of resources that were under consideration. Natal's university libraries only possessed core collections of periodicals and, because of financial cutbacks, were not buying books beyond the undergraduate reading requirements. African university libraries today are in a very similar situation. To plan to share frequently used resources is not meaningful. Core collections should never be eroded and cannot be loaned without severe impairment of teaching and first level research.

In most of Africa, it is the university and research libraries that are the best established. However, even if financial problems were overcome and it was possible to purchase adequate collections, resource sharing between libraries of the same type with

same range of subject coverage is not the most successful. Kenya is an example of a country where universities do not specialize; all offer similar teaching and research programmes. It has been convincingly argued (Atkinson, 1987) that when libraries of a similar nature join in a network, tensions ensue because the needs of their users are the same. Multitype networks bring more positive results, because then each library satisfies most of the needs of its users locally, but can use the network for that special request. For that to happen in Africa, there would need to be revival of libraries in the public, government and special sectors.

Another issue to consider is that, under structural adjustment policies, publicly funded institutions in Africa—and these include libraries have been argued to be more entrepreneurial and raise some of their own funds, rather than rely on allocations from the government. Income generation and cooperation tend to be incompatible activities (Richard, 1990). Libraries will be expected to charge outsiders for the use of their facilities and services. Interlibrary loans will be possible—but at a profit to the owning library. Instead of being judged on a "public good" basis, library operations will be costed and priced. Their benefit to the library concerned will override national considerations. Libraries will enter into competition with each other to provide training and consultancy. Time and expertise given to professional organizations will be charged.

The economics of cooperation is rarely investigated. Yet in the West, it is becoming increasingly common to complain that a disproportionate amount of each library budget is being eaten by the national networks, while these only serve a small percentage of each library's user needs. American libraries are now moving away from national networking to local microcomputer systems (Martin, 1987). There has been very little comparison or detailed assessment of resource sharing schemes, so that levels of success and cost-effectiveness can be evaluated (Wheelhouse, 1988). It would be a pity for countries in Africa to embark on national systems of resource sharing, when the rest of the world is discarding the idea as an expensive mistake.

THE WAY FORWARD?

If we accept that resource sharing is not an end in itself but merely a means to the end of better library and information services, then our primary task is to try and solve the underlying constraints.

Unless African libraries make some headway in solving their financial problems, then I see little hope for future progress. And these solutions must be internal. Developing countries have a very poor record of maintaining what was started through outside assistance. After all, as the old adage states, "charity begins at home" and aiding agencies are more likely to assist a library that shows signs of developing through its own initiative than one that has already died. Taking university libraries as an example, some of the following measures might be tried:

- requesting a % allocation of the university budget, e.g. 5% or 6%. If estimates are slashed, then at least the library will continue to get a share rather than nothing. If estimates increase, then the library allocation will also automatically increase.
- insisting that money from income generating activities is paid into a separate library

account rather than into the general university account. Cash is more useful than money on paper.

- campaigning for the decentralization of university budgets, so that control of expenditure lies with the library. Planning will then become a meaningful exercise. If the library finds that it is able, through more efficient management, to provide service with less staff, then the savings made on salaries will remain with the library for spending on materials or equipment.
- suggesting that universities within a country specialize at the research level, so that each university library will be able to rationalize its acquisition of expensive books and journals. Not every university can be a centre of excellence in every subject.
- insisting that a % of all outside aid to faculties and departments automatically come to the library, so that it is able to adequately satisfy the information needs of a project being funded.

Despite all this, few African countries have yet initiated a formal system of resource sharing. I think that the time has come to set up some pilot projects, which would provide evidence on the value of resource sharing as a way of improving service on the user demand that exists for such a service and on its cost. Document access and provision would seem to be the most obvious area and now that university libraries are able to purchase journal subscriptions with World Bank money, a sharing of journal articles would seem appropriate. Titles for purchase would have to be agreed between the libraries to avoid duplication – a form of co-operative acquisition. The system could be modelled on the British Library, with vouchers for photocopies being bought in advance. It would be interesting to see how much use would be made of such a service. A university library in the Caribbean has worked out that it is cheaper to go straight to the British Library for journal photocopies, than start a local system of interlibrary loan!

While finances remain limited, we should not be afraid to concentrate on those activities which do not require financial outlay. Inventories of existing documents or resources can be done without extra expense; only staff energy, expertise and time is required. Knowing through such inventories what the existing resources are is the first step to making better use of them. Yet today, even accessions lists seem to have fallen by the wayside. Many African journals have not yet been indexed. It would be possible to document the growth of theatre or art, through the indexing of these subjects in the daily newspapers. There are few if any bibliographies of local song and dance. The list is inexhaustible.

Finally, for the sake of our own morale, I feel that all librarians must find ways and means of making sure that their collections, such as they are, are fully utilized. The centrality of the user – rather than the computer or a national information policy – must be paramount to a library's philosophy. Librarians must convince users that they will benefit by using the information services provided. Strong support from users is of the utmost importance for the long term development of libraries and information centres. (If all academic staff were united in demanding that more of the university

budget was devoted to the library, then we would no longer need to complain about shortage of funds!) In UK, performance indicators are being increasingly used to maintain standards and to show librarians when they are no longer reaching the levels of service required. Perhaps African librarians could also experiment with this approach.

CONCLUSIONS

For too long African librarians have been dancing to tunes imposed from outside the continent — the establishment of national public library systems at Independence, the NATIS concept, the introduction of computers and new technologies and now resource sharing and networking. We have accepted these as solutions to our information problems. Rarely have the solutions worked. Instead much time and money has been expended in attempting their implementation, whilst, in the meantime, library and information services have declined.

It is time to stand back and examine the problems from first principles again. And I don't think that the problem of Africa's libraries is merely the absence of resource sharing. So we are back to the question of why Africa's libraries are in decline. If we can find and implement the measures that will reverse the decline and again establish the centrality of information to economic and social life, then resource sharing may arise naturally out of the success of individual libraries in meeting user needs. But it will not take place before the underlying problems are solved.

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INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNOLOGICAL INFORMATION IN NIGERIA: REVOLUTION OR EVOLUTION

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ABSTRACT

With a population of almost 90 million, a rapidly expanding educational system, and growing industrial and economic activities, Nigeria is one of the Third World countries that have a great potential for scientific and technological advancement. Although Nigeria has, for the past two decades recognized the need to encourage the growth of science and technology for national development, it is doubtful if the need for rational development of scientific and technical information systems and the provision of information support for science and technology has been greatly appreciated.

While the computer market in Nigeria has been flourishing and expanding, applications in library and information services have not contributed much to that expansion. At the moment, only two research and one university libraries are fully automated to provide Scientific and Technological Information (STI) services based on information technology. With the present inadequate telecommunications facilities, the development of integrated national information systems for STI services is just something of the future.

INTRODUCTION

Information technology is defined here as the acquisition, processing, storage and dissemination of information by means of computers, office machines, and telecommunications. Computers provide the processing, storage and retrieval facilities, while telecommunications provide the facilities for the transfer or communication of data and information. The necessity for efficient data communication and the convergence of telecommunications, computer technology and software engineering have facilitated the development of networks specially designed for packet switched data communication. The emergence of the integrated services digital network (ISDN) is a major development. The network carries digital information which combines both voice and data in the same channels and so forming the basis for a wide range of communication options and services.

These advances in information technology offer extensive possibilities for the communication of scientific and technological information (STI). Indeed, their impact on information processing, storage and dissemination, and consequently on the

output of the scientific and technological enterprise, in the industrialized countries has been growing rapidly since the early 1970s. So, the idea that the solution to the developmental problems of the Third World lies in better information management through the use of information technology quickly became a general principle.

This paper presents an overview of the general level of development of information technology in Nigeria, and then examines the extent to which it is being used in support of information delivery and communication in science and technology. The data for this study came from several sources. In 1989, a questionnaire survey was conducted by this author to assess the progress and problems in the development of information systems for the Nigerian academic community. The study examined the conceptual orientation to the adoption of information technology, the level of infrastructural facilities for its development and use, and the stages of implementation of planned automation projects. The information from that study was updated through reports of progress of individual university libraries. The data on the growth of telecommunications in Nigeria were collected from various official reports and contributions to seminars and conferences by staff of telecommunications units.

Information Technology in Nigeria

Information technology is rather a recent phenomenon in Nigeria. Telecommunications, the oldest element, had a modest beginning with the first trunk telephone service between two towns in 1923 (Ofulue, 1980). It was not until the 1950s that substantial expansion began with the introduction of VHF radio systems, 116 manual and five automatic telephone exchanges. During the 1970s, the national telex network was completed and subscriber trunk dialing introduced between five cities. In order to enhance the quality of telecommunications services in Nigeria, the telecommunications arm of the Post and Telegraph Department and the Nigerian External Telecommunications Limited, which previously managed the domestic and external services respectively, were merged in 1984 to form a single profit-oriented limited liability company called NITEL (Anonymous, 1990). Under NITEL, the number of automatic switching centres in Nigeria grew to 227 in July 1986. The total installed capacity of these exchanges was about 400,000, while only half of this number were functional lines. The national telex network grew also to a total capacity of 12,800 lines with only one international exchange having 1,500 trunks. By this time, the transmission media for toll and trunks included terrestrial microwave, coaxial cable, and domestic satellite (Unchidiuno, 1986).

It would seem that more attention was paid to communication with the outside world than the development and enhancement of the internal telecommunications system. The Lanlate Satellite Earth Station, Nigeria's first international satellite telecommunications gateway, became operational in March 1971 with one antenna (Lanlate I) tracking the Indian Ocean INTELSAT satellite. A second antenna called Lanlate II was added in December 1975. This one operates with the Atlantic Ocean satellite. By the end of 1986, the two antennas provided a total 417 circuits, namely 248 in the Atlantic Ocean Region and 169 in the Indian Ocean Region. Another international earth station has been built at Kujama in Kaduna State. With these

facilities, most of Nigeria's external telecommunications, including telephone, telex, facsimile, and television, have been by satellite.

The Nigeria Domestic Satellite System was established in 1975 with a network of six 11-metre earth stations operating on a leased INTELSAT satellite transponder. The network was subsequently expanded to comprise three leased transponders each of 36 MHz, 20 earth stations, a network monitor and control station, and back-haul radio links between the DOMSAT earth stations and NTEL as well as stations of the Nigerian Television Authority (Unchidiuno, 1986). The first transponder was allocated for television transmission, while the other two were reserved for telecommunication services. As the long-distance telecommunications transmission in the country is based mainly on microwave, the DOMSAT system would have provided an overlay transmission medium to improve the capacity of the national telecommunications network. However, while the network has been transmitting television programming for several years, its telecommunications services are yet to take off.

In general, the history of the development of telecommunications in Nigeria is characterized by unfulfilled objectives. Achievements have been consistently short of demand for services. Presently, Nigeria has only about 300,000 functional telephone lines for a population of almost 90 million. While telecommunications services to overseas countries from major cities in the country have improved considerably, the internal services are still poor. It must be noted that the present analogue system on which the national telecommunications network is based is outdated and this has been a serious limitation to the efficiency of the telecommunications network in this country.

There are, however, some indications that telecommunications in Nigeria may improve in future. NITEL is still following up its plan for a digital network though progress has been very slow. Recently, it was reported that the nation's digitalized earth station, expected to facilitate telecommunications link between Nigeria and other parts of the world, was ready for use (Ikhurionan et al., 1991). This will be the third gateway after Lanlate in Oyo State and Kujama in Kaduna State. The first phase of the digital project at Abuja was commissioned in 1990, while work is in progress on several other projects.

Some organizations have ventured out in developing their own networks. The greatest achievements are those of the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC), which in 1990, installed a digital communications network regarded as the largest in Africa. It is a hybrid network of fibre optics and coaxial cable. The turnkey system interconnects all the vital sites and offices of the NNPC; and provides facilities for automatic voice dialing, teleconferencing, and transmission of data, facsimile and telex. Nevertheless, a truly national network is the most desirable solution, but this is not yet in sight.

Nigeria also had a late start in the use of computers; but a start haven been made, the growth in use has been quite remarkable. Before 1977, there were only three computer companies operating in Nigeria, namely ICL and NCR both incorporated in 1949, and DPMS formerly IBM which was incorporated in 1961. By 1977, the three companies sold only 70 computers altogether. In another five years some 400 compu-

ters were sold. A tremendous impetus was given to the computer market by the growing interest in micro-computers. In 1983 when Ogis & Ododo Associates Limited organized a computer exhibition, 33 companies operating in Nigeria participated (Nigerian Computer Users Director, (1984). *The Nigerian Computer Users Directory* compiled in 1983 carried a list of 73 computer vendors operating in the country. A total of 414 installations were listed. The installations were widely distributed in universities, government departments and agencies, banks, commercial establishments, and industries. The private sector has, however, risen to a position of dominance in the use of computers.

The computer market has continued to flourish in terms of number of vendors entering the market and number of installations and applications. In 1988, the number of IBM compatibles alone sold in the country was put at 460,000 (Levin, 1989). The number sounds rather high, but it is probably not outrageous. It must be noted that computers are not yet manufactured in Nigeria, although some computer outfits can configure systems to specifications. Usually, completely assembled units are imported.

In the area of office automation, some level of adoption in Nigeria is becoming visible. Besides the use of computers, some offices are making use of a number of fairly intelligent equipment, including reprographic, telex and facsimile machines. However, telex and facsimile facilities are quite expensive and services are mainly to overseas countries. Such development as electronic mail networks is almost non-existent.

Now, we have a general overview of the level of development and use of information technology in Nigeria. It should be expected that this background must have serious implications for the effectiveness of STI services in the country.

STI SERVICES

"Scientific and Technological Information (STI)" refers to the information relating to or generated in such broad fields as pure science, applied science, and technology, including agriculture, industry, medical science, and engineering. The most intensive STI users in Nigeria comprise individuals who need information on research already performed. Such users, most of whom are themselves STI producers, include pure scientists, engineers, technologists, medical researchers, agricultural scientists, extension workers and students in educational institutions, research institutes, and industry. These are located in at least 34 universities; over 29 polytechnics, colleges of science and technology, and schools of agriculture; at least 40 research institutes and agencies; and some industrial establishments. The user population is estimated at several thousands. Their subject fields span a wide spectrum of disciplines in science and technology. A survey of scientists conducted by Odeinde and others showed that the largest proportion of the respondents (31.1%) were working in the areas of agriculture, veterinary medicine and forestry. Other fields represented in the study were health sciences (19.4%); biological sciences, including biochemistry (17.5%); physical sciences (15.6%); engineering, including surveying, environmental sciences, and fields related to engineering (15.6%); as well as unspecified subject areas (1.1%) (Odeinde et al., 1984).

In the past, these users depended on the libraries of their establishments for their

information requirements. Most of the libraries were actually able to provide books and journals to meet those requirements. The need of the users to keep abreast with developments in science and technology was also met through subscription to abstracts and indexes in hard copy. There were no operational automated services. In-house bulletins of new materials received were prepared manually for distribution to users.

Over the past decade, most of the libraries have been experiencing much difficulty providing these materials to their users on account of alarming rate of inflation of the prices of books and journals, as well as depreciating value of the Nigerian currency. The abstracting and indexing services which are very much needed by researchers are no longer purchased as their prices have become prohibitive. This has precipitated an information crisis for STI users, especially as the bulk of STI sources have to be acquired from overseas countries.

Another development of far-reaching consequences for the STI users is the rapid advances in information technology in the industrialized countries. There is a growing trend not to make databases available in hard copy. With the prohibitive cost of hard copy editions, more and more users are opting for the online services. This, in turn, keeps driving up the cost of the hard copy editions, and the vicious cycle continues. Besides the online services, many database producers and vendors are distributing their products on CD-ROM for the benefit of those who, for economic reasons or infrastructural problems, are not using the online services. Furthermore, information retrieval systems are no longer just offering bibliographic information. More and more are including full-text. Indeed, full-text databases and advances in multimedia technology are evidence of a new order of information services that a developing country like Nigeria cannot afford to ignore. STI is an indispensable requirement for the growth of science and technology; and if the community of STI users in Nigeria are not to be excluded from the world's deposit of this resource, which increasingly is accessible only to those using information technology, then the adoption of information technology in support of STI services in Nigeria is a crucial and urgent necessity.

Whatever attempts have been made to use information technology in support of STI services in Nigeria have been made within the context of the automation plans of a few libraries. Of course, the trend in library automation in Nigeria has not been impressive. While the computer market in Nigeria has been growing rapidly, libraries have not contributed much to that growth. It is probably not right to say that libraries have not been aware of the benefits of automation. An earlier survey by Ubogu and Gupta (1987) to assess the progress of computerization showed that many libraries believed in the necessity for automation.

Of the five oldest university libraries, which might have been expected to take the lead in automation, only the University of Lagos Library attempted an automation project based on its own facilities by early 1980s. The project, which was a turnkey circulation system, proved unsuccessful. One of the problems that attended early plans for automation was lack of manpower for library and documentation applications. Even by 1988 computer vendors had not made an entry into this area. Previously not many libraries had any staff with knowledge of library automation.

It would seem then that the path of least risk was the use of the facilities and staff

of the university's Computing Centre. By this method the main library of the University of Ibadan was able to produce a catalogue of serials holdings in 1975 and the union list of serials of Nigerian academic and research libraries in 1985. When the second edition of the Library's serials holding was to be produced, a fresh arrangement had to be made with the Department of Computer Science, because the previous files created by the Computing Centre were lost. This involved repeating data entry for every record. The Nnamdi Azikiwe Library, University of Nigeria, also produced a computerized catalogue of its serials holdings in 1977. The Kashim Ibrahim Library of the Ahmadu Bello University attempted the automation of its circulation in 1981 with the assistance of the Computing Centre. After much data entry, the project was abandoned. Three other university libraries also tried to automate some of their process using the facilities of the Computing Centre of their university, and their experience was not better.

The failure of these attempts was attributed by the libraries to frequent breakdown of the computer, crashing of programmes and delays in attending to library jobs. Contributing to the frequent breakdown and, consequently, high downtime of the computer installations were frequent power failure and inadequate air-conditioning. The situation was often worsened by poor servicing and lack of spare parts. It does not seem there was any clear conceptual design before some of the projects were started. At the Ahmadu Bello University, for instance, work in data entry had gone far before it was realized that there was something wrong about the procedure and the equipment. The Computing Centre generally knew nothing about the library's process information handling, and file requirements. Of course, the library's projects were not even given high priority. Furthermore, the continuity of a project was not assured. In at least two cases, the staff of the Computing Centre assisting the library on a project left the institution and the project ran into difficulty.

Many libraries have been more cautious about automation. Until recently many of them were not even thinking about it. Several others have carried out some feasibility studies using consultants and automation committees, but unfortunately, the resulting decisions and recommendations have since been overtaken by financial crisis and by advances in information technology. However, the survey by this author earlier mentioned indicates that four university libraries, including those of the Universities of Ibadan and Ilorin, the Imo State University and the Federal University of Technology, Owerri, had by 1989 acquired at least one micro-computer which they intended to use for serials control, data entry for a database, administrative file management, circulation control and for word-processing. Several other libraries have since joined the group.

Research libraries, which provide STI services exclusively, have all along seemed generally apathetic to automation. There are, however, two major exceptions, namely the libraries of the International Institute for Tropical Agriculture (IITA) and the Federal Institution of Industrial Research, Oshodi (FIRO). The IITA Library has developed an integrated database system, which serves acquisitions, cataloguing and circulation processes. It was implemented in BASIS on a network of three VAX computers. The IITA Library is currently maintaining the most sophisticated in-house bibliographic retrieval system in tropical agriculture. The system called ALISTRA

(Automated Library and Information Service for Tropical Agriculture) contains records of materials available in the Library, which are fully indexed for retrieval by various approaches. The database can be accessed through over 60 terminals and micro-computers scattered all over the institute. A serials control system, STACS, has also been implemented. Besides the in-house database, several databases on CD-ROM have been acquired and mounted for searching.

FIRRO Library, on its part, has acquired at least eight micro-computers linked in a local area network for the tasks of database production and current awareness services for industrial and technical information. The FIRRO Library, is creating a database of current research projects in science and technology in Nigeria.

This is addition to the maintenance of its databases in the area of interest of its parent institute. The number of its database had increased steadily to 11 by the end of 1988. The success it has thus achieved has been due largely to the assistance of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO).

Thus, apart from the two research libraries just mentioned and the library of the Oyo State University of Science and Technology now called Ladoké Akintola University, a few other libraries in Nigeria that have acquired some computers are yet to use them fully for developing automated services. There is the problem of choice of library system. Certainly it would be very unrealistic for each library to attempt, even if it has the manpower, the in-house development of a library system. If the better option is to buy one from the market, then which one? Not even among the Committee of Nigerian University Librarians has a consensus emerged on this issue. A consensus, if it emerges, may be dependent on the policy of the National Universities Commission on library automation programme. It must be noted that the problem of choice of software has been made almost intractable by the fact that the standard library packages available overseas are not supported in Nigeria by the vendors. Nevertheless, while most of the libraries are uncertain what automated system to adopt, it seems the Mini-Micro CD-ISIS, a database management system developed by UNESCO, is likely to be considered. Two other libraries have started database development using TINLIB.

Considering the pattern of events in the history of automation in Nigeria libraries, it seems generally that the direction and progress of the development or adoption of library systems is not clear.

Revolution or Evolution

At this point, we should attempt to deal with the question suggested in the subtitle of this paper. We want to decide whether there has been a revolution in the adoption and development of information technology in Nigeria, especially in support of STI services. If there has not been any revolution, then we should decide whether there has been as much as an evolutionary trend. Perhaps, we should first attempt to make a distinction between the two concepts.

A revolution may be regarded as a radical and abrupt change of circumstances or system. Evolution also involves change but rather an unfolding of events, a gradual development from a simple or primitive to an advanced system. The tremendous

advancement in computer technology, software engineering and telecommunications as well as the resultant radical changes and advances in the techniques of data and information processing, storage, retrieval and dissemination, in developed countries within the brief period between the mid-1960s and the late 1970s is, no doubt, a revolution.

There is obviously a big contrast in the course of information services in Nigeria. Since the early 1970s, some libraries in Nigeria have been contemplating on automation, but as we have seen, very few have any real success to show for two decades of contemplation. Not only has there been no revolution, but it is even difficult to say that there has been a gradual but sustained progress in the adoption of information technology that could pass for an evolution. Considering the unsuccessful attempts at automation made by some libraries, many are still haunted by the fear of failure. To crown it all, telecommunications facilities are still under-developed and unreliable; and so, the possibility of data transmission networks is still something of the future. Thus, but for the achievements of three libraries in library automation and the pioneering efforts of the NNPC in data transmission, it could be said that the use of information technology to support STI services in Nigeria is yet to begin.

DISCUSSION

The realities of the low level of adoption of information technology in STI services should be viewed against the background of the national aspiration to launch into the club of scientifically and technologically developed nations, as well as the early visions for national information systems. For over a decade now, Nigeria has emphasized manpower development in science and technology through a policy that allocates 60 percent of admission into universities to disciplines in science and technology. The national policy on science and technology was published in 1986 to reinforce Nigeria's commitment to the development and use of science and technology for socio-economic advancement. It would appear strange then that there has been very little investment in information technology in support of STI.

The problem is certainly not due to lack of visionaries in the area of information systems. In fact, the conceptual framework for information systems in science and technology was laid as far back as the early 1970s. In 1972, Odeinde elaborated a plan for a Nigerian documentation and information centre for the sciences (NIGERDOCS). Contributing to this issue of documentation, Lawani (1972) advocated for a start with a modest project, namely the production of a union catalogue of scientific and technical periodicals. Aiyepoku (1974) saw the creation of UNISIST as offering to developing countries "a real and relatively cheap access to a large proportion of the scientific information stores of advanced countries for purposes of rapid economic growth". He suggested ways by which Nigeria could tap such vast resource by formulating and executing national science, information technology, and library policies that were oriented towards rapid economic development. The possibilities of using MARC records and tapes, and the idea of a centralized automated cataloguing system were explored by Omoerha (1974), Greaves (1975) and Amaeshi (1975). All these contributors and those that followed had in mind a physical institu-

tion to undertake planning, implementation, and control of information activities. Such an organizational entity was variously referred to as Nigerian Documentation and Information Centre for the Sciences (Odeinde, 1972), National Documentation Centre (Cohen, 1979), Nigerian National Science and Technology Library (Cohen, 1979), National Science Information Centre (Aina, 1983), Science and Technology Bibliographic Information Centre (Eyitayo, 1988), and National Bibliographic Centre for Science and Technology (Ike).

Obviously, there is a wide gulf between the above conceptual framework and the present realities. Going by this vision, we would expect that by now the use of information technology in STI services in Nigeria should be at such an advanced stage as to facilitate the acquisition or production and maintenance of bibliographic and textual databases, and their distribution by various media in the country. The envisaged national information centre would have had to acquire databases produced in other countries and make them available to the community of STI users. This means that STI users would be able to access both locally produced and imported databases from any where in Nigeria without any frustration. This level of achievement is not too much to expect. Many countries in Latin America and Southeast Asia have recorded as much success. In Nigeria, this achievement has not been made. The STI users are trapped in growing information crisis and isolation from the information resources of the international scientific and technological community. Furthermore, it is difficult to believe that the national aspiration to achieve rapid advances in science and technology is being realized.

Very often the poor attitude to the adoption of information technology in information services is blamed on such constraints as lack of funds, inadequate manpower, and poor infra-structure. While it is true that these constraints exist, they could be regarded as symptoms of misplaced priorities and lack of regards for the importance of STI. This appears to be the real problem in many developing countries. For instance, while the Nigeria's *National Policy on Science and Technology* elaborated national objectives and policies, financing of activities, research development, and application and marketing in science and technology, nothing is said about the STI support without which the objectives and strategies would be altogether futile.

The point being made here is that an acceptance by government of the urgent need for a national plan for STI systems is crucial for the successful development of the systems. With positive government intervention, even if there are certain constraints, appropriate agencies would be set in motion to address them. Outside assistance could be sought if necessary. In 1978, Adimorah drew attention to the urgent need to create national agencies in African countries for the purpose of planning and implementing national scientific information activities. The possibilities of benefiting from the services of international information systems and the availability of assistance from international agencies were emphasized. These possibilities should have served as incentives to the African countries that appreciated the value of information systems to start planning for their development.

Now the low performance of Nigerian libraries in the adoption of information technology can be understood against this background of lack of recognition of the

importance of STI to the growth of science and technology and, ultimately, to the rapid development of the country. It would seem that somebody of the rank of a minister is required to initiate a national project if it is to receive meaningful government support. For instance, since the conference on a National Health Management Information System (NHMIS) initiated and sponsored by the Federal Ministry of Health and Human Services in February 1992, the momentum of activities over the past six months in pursuance of a plan to develop NHMIS for Nigeria has been unusually remarkable. With the political leverage of the Ministry, the necessary assistance from international agencies is not likely to be difficult to secure.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper a general overview has been made, which shows that information technology is gradually being adopted as important aid in business activities. The three areas of information technology, namely telecommunications, computers, and office machines, are growing independently in importance with computers leading in terms of rapid expansion of demand. It has been pointed out that in spite of the early awareness of the need for a nationally planned STI system or systems, only a few libraries have operational automated services for their user communities. The conceptual framework of a national STI system conceived two decades ago is far from materializing. There were a number of constraints such as lack of funds, inadequate manpower and poor infra-structure; but it seems the real fundamental problem was that top government officials who would have been able to facilitate the adoption of information technology in libraries and the development of STI systems did not evince much appreciation of the importance of STI to the scientific and technological enterprise, and, therefore, to national socio-economic development. While information professionals are encouraged to continue their efforts as a pressure group to increase the general awareness of the importance of STI, and the adoption of information technology in STI processing and services, it should be noted that the real hope for the long awaited revolution lies in having in top government circles converts to the concept of information systems.

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LIBRARY AND INFORMATION NEEDS OF DISABLED PERSONS IN BOTSWANA

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports the findings and conclusions of a study that was commissioned in 1991 by the Botswana National Library Services. The emphasis of the study was to identify the library and information needs of disabled persons in Botswana, and to make recommendations on how such services could best be instituted. The need for such a study came about as a realisation that hitherto the information needs of the disabled, like everything else, tended to be overlooked. The study found that the majority of disabled persons are almost invariably illiterate or semi-literate. This factor therefore has an implication on the types of information required, current sources of information, and the form that the library and information services for disabled persons should take. Another factor to be considered when instituting a library and information service for disabled persons is that each service should be appropriate for the type of disability that afflicts the person to whom the service is geared.

INTRODUCTION

Disabled persons are individuals who are unable to undertake certain activities which are seen to be 'normal' for able bodied persons. Often the three terms, impairment, handicapped and disabled are used interchangeably. However, according to the WHO definition of 1980, impairment may be defined as a loss or abnormality of physiological, psychological or anatomical structure or function. Disability refers to restriction or lack of ability to perform an activity in a manner considered normal for a human being.

No reliable information on the total number of disabled persons exists in Botswana. Literature sources usually estimate that 10% of the population in Botswana is affected by medical, social and economic problems related to disability (Anon., n.d.). The 1989 annual report of the Special Support Services of the Ministry of Health in Botswana quotes a total of 4,945 disabled persons. This however does not give the total picture as these figures are obtained from regional rehabilitation officers who are supposed to register all the disabled in their region. Not every disabled person

registers with these officers and although the officers are supposed to actively identify disabled persons, this task is made difficult by the lack of transport and also by the practice of the majority of the people to hide their disabled in the lands.

The provision of library and information services to the disabled in Botswana has hitherto been limited to a few braille books and other materials for visually handicapped people in the University of Botswana Library and other specialised libraries. Within the Botswana Library Service, little or no effort has been made to provide services to people with different kinds of disabilities.

Disabled readers may be defined as people who have certain limitations which affect their functioning in the library context. This then means special services are required for people with different types of disabilities.

Background

In 1991, The Botswana National Library Services (BNLS) commissioned a study into the library and information needs of disabled persons in Botswana. The study was prompted by the need to provide services to all sectors of the population and also came as a direct result of a Standing Conference of Eastern, Central and Southern African Librarians (SCECAL) VIII Conference whose theme was Library Services to the Disadvantaged.

Objectives

The objectives of the study were to identify who the disabled persons were (i.e. the biodata); identify the different kinds of disabilities in Botswana; establish the information needs of this group; and give recommendations as to how services to the disabled could be instituted.

Literature Review

Generally, the magnitude of disability in African countries, and indeed throughout the world is not understood. Tsadik and Gupta (1992) note that there is a lack of figures about the numbers of disabled persons in Ethiopia. Often the disabled are supposed to be registered so that their presence and numbers are known in order for services to be provided for them. This however is hardly the case as disabled in the African setting are usually hidden away. Even the facilities that are available are in themselves limited. In Ethiopia there were only 6 special schools for a total of 576 students. Only a fraction of disabled children therefore even get to attend these special schools.

Throughout the continent, the founders of rehabilitation services have to a large extent been foreigners, especially religious grouping. According to Mba (1983), education and rehabilitation of the handicapped has been the exclusive responsibility of missionaries and a few voluntary organisations. As a result, disabled people generally end up uneducated and are considered very lucky if they can acquire any kind of education at all.

Studies on the conditions of the disabled in Kenya found that disability predominates amongst the disabled in society. They also indicate that the majority of the disabled are illiterate or become so after their basic primary school education (Nkiyangi, Mbido, 1982). This obviously has implications for the provision of library

and information services. This situation also applies to Botswana where traditionally the disabled were hidden away, and it was not considered necessary to educate them.

Muya, Owino and Ogenga in their 1986 study in Kenya, found that there are five categories of information required by the disabled:

- . Information that will provide them knowledge about their disabilities, how to cope with disability in the business of daily living;
- . Information on educational opportunities;
- . Information on jobs and careers;
- . Social, cultural, economic and political information;
- . Bibliotherapy information -- success stories of other disabled persons.

Library and information services to the disabled, are very skeletal. In most situations the provision of such services has been geared more towards visually handicapped people than the other groups, the hearing impaired and the physically disabled. Such services have been concentrated mainly in learning institutions such as secondary schools and Universities. Botswana is a case in point. According to Mbaakanyi (1987), small collections of braille books and talking books can be found in a few institutions in Botswana. The Botswana National Library Services (BNLS) does not provide any service for disabled persons. The University of Botswana has made an effort and keeps a small braille and talking book collection. The existing collections at the University of Botswana are mostly donations that have very little bearing on the curricula. The Library has experimented with production of recordings using students as volunteers, but this has not been very successful. The end result is that books and tapes have to be borrowed from external sources such as the South Africa Library for the Blind and from Tape Aids for the Blind. In other countries the picture seems a little better. Provision of library services to blind students at the Addis Ababa University is well developed through the use of volunteer readers and volunteers to make recordings. The Library boasts a good collection, 3,539 books and 1,700 audio tapes.

METHODOLOGY

Data collection was by means of a questionnaire and interviews. A total of 203 disabled persons were administered a questionnaire. In addition, 44 people responsible for caring or providing a service to disabled persons were interviewed. The decision was made to administer a questionnaire only to disabled persons in the Rehabilitation Centres and also in rural and urban centres where there are library services. The following urban areas were covered: Gaborone and its surrounds -- Tlokweng, Mogoditshane; Francistown, Selibe Phikwe, and Lobatse. The rural areas were Mochundi, Otse, Ramotswa and Serowe. The remote areas in terms of distance from the country's capital Gaborone, were Gantsi and Maun in northern Botswana. In each area, the following institutions were visited: health clinics, council offices, rehabilitation centres and schools. The purpose of visiting clinics and council offices was to obtain registers or a guide to where the disabled persons could be found.

The study faced problems such as lack of a suitable sampling frame, particularly in

clinics since the staff had been reassigned and had left with their records. Another problem was not being able to find the disabled themselves because February is the time of the year that people go to the lands (farms) or the cattle posts (ranches). Because of these problems, the study was extended for a further six months to allow for more people to be identified. Further problems beset this exercise, such as lack of transport on the part of the library staff who were asked to administer questionnaires in Selibe Phikwe, Maun, Gantsi and Serowe. The renewed efforts however brought the sample up to 203 from the initial 148 respondents.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Background Information

Because of the concentration in rehabilitation centres the study found the majority of respondents to be young — 23.6% falling between the ages of 20 and 29. As far as gender is concerned, the study revealed the majority, 109 of disabled persons to be male and 93. According to statistics provided by the Special Support Unit of the Ministry of Health for the years 1988 and 1989, males have always been in the majority. The 1989 annual report reports a total of 2,509 males out of a total of 4,945. A similar trend is noticed in the 1988 report with males leading with a total of 976 out of a total of 1,892. This suggests that the majority of the disabled in Botswana are in fact, males. Due to the emphasis of the study in areas where services for the disabled persons actually exist, most of the respondents were students, 52.7% or 107 out of a total of 203. Only a small number in this group were actually students in formal schools. In general though, the majority of disabled persons tend to be unemployed as they cannot get jobs after attending rehabilitation schools. In the study, 59 or 14.3% of the respondents were unemployed and we believe that is the case generally for the disabled in Botswana. Only 25 or 12.3% of the respondents were employed in either the formal or informal sector.

Types of Disabilities

The study found 47.8% to be physically disabled, 21.2% were totally blind while 6.4% were partially sighted. 8.4% were totally deaf, while 4.9% were hard of hearing. 6.9% were mentally retarded, and another 6.9% had multiple disabilities. This is in accordance with statistics gathered by the Special Support Unit of the Commissioner of Disabled, based at the Ministry of Health which finds the prevalent form of disability to be physical disability. The fact that there are different forms of disability, means that any service that is geared towards disabled persons needs to take the form of disability into consideration.

Literacy Levels

The study revealed that the disabled persons are mostly illiterate. There are many reasons for this. For a long time, there were no centres or schools for disabled persons. Most families tended to keep disabled persons away from the public eye. Some were kept at the cattle posts because parents did not know how to deal with their disabilities.

Schools and centres for disabled persons now exist, but they cannot cater for all the disabled as there are not enough of these centres and schools. The centres visited report of long waiting lists for enrolment. The disabled who have managed to go to school have progressed only as far as primary school or junior secondary level. Due to lack of reading materials and jobs, such people usually lapse back into illiteracy. It is particularly difficult for those with hearing disabilities because they seldom progress to secondary schools. In most cases, they cannot cope with the primary school leaving exam because they face a language problem. Without special examinations aimed at such people, they cannot pass. They also cannot get into mainstream secondary schools because provision for them is not available.

In general, the disabled can be categorised into three groups:

- a) Disabled persons in institutions (primary schools, secondary schools, tertiary, vocational or rehabilitation centres)
- b) The disabled who are educated, i.e. have gone through secondary school, university, and other tertiary institutions. This group usually include the physical and visually disabled.
- c) The illiterate disabled – who are in the majority.

The majority of persons interviewed during the study had at least gone through primary school. 8.4% (17) had completed primary education, standard 1 to 3, whilst 38.4% (78) had gone through standard 4 to 7. This meant that 46.8% of the total sample had at least gone through primary education. This fact could be attributed to the fact that a larger percentage of the disabled interviewed in the study had a physical disability rather than being visually or hearing disabled. It is the physically disabled who are more than likely to be sent for schooling and/or training amongst the various types of disabilities. Fifteen or 7.4% were or had been through secondary form 1 to 3, whilst 6.9% (14) had gone through secondary level 4 to 5. Only 1% or 2 out of 203 had been to university.

In all, 34% (69) of our sample had never been to school at all. This rather low percentage can be explained by the concentration of the study on areas with services to disabled persons. The illiteracy figures are likely to be much higher, especially also if the figures include people who left school at lower primary level.

Types and Purposes of Information

Our study found that disabled persons require all the information needed by any 'normal' person, but that because of their special situation greater emphasis needed to be laid on particular types of information. This information includes information on schools/training opportunities and on job opportunities, on hobbies and other related issues. Because the majority of disabled persons covered in this study were relatively young, information on sex, marriage, government schemes and legal rights would be necessary. Information on success stories of other disabled persons is also a requirement.

Table 1 shows the types of information required by the respondents.

TABLE 1: INFORMATION REQUIREMENTS OF DISABLED PERSONS

TYPE OF INFORMATION	NUMBERS	PERCENTAGES
International News	107	52.7
National news	134	67.0
Community news	120	59.1
Educational news	120	59.1
Job opportunities	109	53.7
Hobbies	77	37.9
Information on disability	91	44.8
Other	12	5.9

N = 203

(Based on multiple answers)

When respondents were asked to name the topics or areas of interest to them, most of them (105 or 51.7%) felt that educational topics were of interest. Educational topics in their view included maths, science, english and history. The respondents who answered this question were the young and those who had undergone some amount of schooling.

Skills were ranked next with 59 (29.1%) expressing an interest in one handicraft or another. Again, this response stemmed from the fact that the respondents were in the main, illiterate and unemployed and probably saw the way out of that situation through acquiring a skill.

Current Sources of Information

By far the most popular source of information for international and national news was the radio. Friends and family were the other mostly used source for community and other information. Newspapers were not used by many because of the literacy problem and unavailability.

Government extension workers, e.g. rehabilitation officers, health workers, etc. provide some information on available services for disabled persons and where such services can be obtained. Most of the disabled are however not aware that such government services can be tapped and thus there are a large number of disabled persons that the system cannot identify.

The Rehabilitation Centres play an important role of equipping the disabled to deal with their disability by teaching daily living skills and some crafts. Some of these centres, such as Ramotswa School for the Deaf, Resource Rooms for the Blind teach the disabled how to read.

The Botswana Red Cross Programme broadcast on the national radio station and friends were sources of information about the activities of disabled persons throughout the country.

Discussions with the special education teachers revealed that there was dire short

age of reading materials in braille and material suitable for the hearing impaired. The University of Botswana Library also provides a service which they feel is not adequate. As a result such special materials are obtained from external libraries in South Africa and the United Kingdom.

From discussions with key persons in the education of disabled persons, it is clear that for the visually and hearing impaired, particularly the latter, further education after primary school is indeed a problem. Very few make it into secondary schools and finding jobs is near impossible.

Due to the circumstances that disabled persons find themselves in our society, most are invariably illiterate. Be that as it may, they do need information as any normal person in society does. The radio and government agents could be a most useful source for them provided that the information required was packaged to fit in with their needs. For example, the national radio could have a specific program which would disseminate information on educational, rehabilitation and job opportunities, as well as any other governmental and non-governmental programmes that could benefit disabled persons. This would supplement the other general types of information that is disseminated through the radio.

There is a general lack of Setswana and culturally relevant English material. This is a problem not only disabled persons but also to the newly literate who are then faced with the prospect of not being able to develop their reading skills after obtaining basic literacy through adult education programmes and after leaving primary schools. Those who cannot read the written word due to visual or hearing disabilities need to be catered for through the translation and provision of material in braille and in simple clear language, or even sign language. This can be done by providing for libraries and resource rooms in catchment areas such as Ramotswa, Mochudi and Francistown where there are special schools and resource centres.

Parents and guardians of disabled persons need to know where to go if they need information on how to deal with their children's various disabilities. They also need information about services and opportunities and where they can be obtained.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The study recommended that the BNLS should at first concentrate on providing library and information services in places where there are rehabilitation centres and especially where there are schools for the visually and hearing impaired, such as Ramotswa and Mochudi.

A Steering Committee should be established comprising the various organisations and people involved in the provision of service to disabled persons in Botswana to oversee and coordinate the cooperation of the other bodies involved in this endeavour in the establishment of an effective information and library services to disabled persons.

The National Library, in conjunction with the various Resource Centres, Rehabilitation Centres and schools for the disabled should consider the establishment of a production unit which would be charged with the production of special materials in the form suitable for the visually and the hearing impaired.

The National Library should also carry out an active education exercise to conscientise the population in general about libraries and specifically to provide general information to the disadvantaged in society who can not make use of the library services because of illiteracy and other problems such as disability.

In-service training of library personnel on how to deal with people with various disabilities should be instituted to ensure that staff are not at a loss when having to serve disabled persons. Some of the disabled persons who utilise libraries mention how piqued they sometimes get about attitudes of library staff.

The National Library should ensure that their buildings and facilities are suitable and accessible to physically disabled and visually impaired people.

The National Library currently run a Book Box services for schools and other areas that are distant from libraries. This service should be extended to Rehabilitation Centres and schools for disabled persons.

CONCLUSION

The crux of the matter as far as provision of information to disabled persons seems to be their illiteracy. In order for a service to be established this factor and that of the different forms of disability needs to be considered. The BNLS if it wants an effective service should base the provision on targeting different forms of disability in stages. In so doing, BNLS should liaise with the relevant institutions dealing and providing services to the disabled.

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THE FACTOR OF PUBLISHING AS A CRITERION FOR ESTABLISHING THE STATUS OF LIBRARIANS IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES IN GHANA

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ABSTRACT

One of the major determinants for academic status in most countries is research and publications. This study aims at collecting the views of university librarians in Ghana with regards to this criterion. The study examines, among others, the views of librarians on academic status; appointment and promotions criteria; opportunities for research and publications; and constraints in research and publication. The paper concludes that although a majority of university librarians in Ghana desire academic status, they have not undertaken enough research and publication to justify this desire. A number of obstacles have to be overcome before full academic status can be achieved.

INTRODUCTION

Academics all over the world place emphasis on research and publications, not only because it is presumed that research enriches both teaching and the learning process as well as contributing to the body of knowledge, but also because it is a major determinant of institutional prestige. (Ochai and Nwafor, 1990). To the academic staff, therefore, publishing achieves that dual purpose of enhancing both one's position and the status of the institution.

According to Akhidime, (1984) the use of publications as one of the major criteria for appointments and promotions has been a controversial issue among librarians on the one hand, and between librarians in the universities and faculty members on the other. He goes on to assert that it is even more controversial when publications are used as the parameter for determining academic status.

Several studies have been undertaken on the issue of academic status for librarians in universities. Most of these studies are focused on the situation in North America and Europe. In Africa, a number of 1982 studies have been done by writers such as Akhidime, (1984) Akinyotu (1982) and Olanlokun (1982). These have been written specifically on the Nigerian situation. In Ghana, the only recent study is that conducted by Antwi (1992). In that study, Antwi attempted to find out the current status of librarians in Ghanaian universities. The aim of the present study however, is to find

out the views of university librarians in Ghana on one aspect of academic status – publishing or research.

STATUS OF UNIVERSITY LIBRARIANS IN GHANA

There are presently three universities in Ghana namely University of Ghana, Legon; University of Science and Technology, Kumasi; and University of Cape Coast. As expected, all the universities have libraries with the University of Ghana Library being the oldest, the largest and the best equipped.

Unfortunately, the university librarian in Ghana is neither regarded as an academician nor as an administrator, though he performs both functions. When it suits the university authorities (for example in salary grading) librarians are placed together with the academic staff. In other situations like the granting of sabbatical leave, librarians are considered as administrative staff. (Alemna, 1991). But Khurshid and Russell (1968) hold the view that equating the salaries of librarians with that of the faculty does not solve the problem. Neither does the granting of comparable faculty ranks. Academic status should also extend to such areas as membership on academic committees, tenure, intellectual freedom, retirement, vacation and research leave.

In the study by Antwi, it was reported that University of Science and Technology had granted academic status to its librarians. The situation at the University of Cape Coast and the University of Ghana is, however, different. In the case of the University of Cape Coast, it is only the University Librarian and his Deputy who have academic status. The remaining librarians are considered non-academic. Librarians at the University of Ghana do not as yet have a clearly defined status. From the result of Antwi's study, we can infer that there is as yet no consensus on the status of librarians in Universities in Ghana.

METHODOLOGY

Data for this were obtained through a questionnaire. As at June, 1992, there were 35 professional librarians in the three university libraries in Ghana. The questionnaire was pretested on two librarians from the University of Ghana Library and a Lecturer from the Department of Library and Archival Studies, University of Ghana. A few modifications were made on the original questionnaire before copies were sent to each of the thirty-five librarians.

The questionnaire sought to investigate five major things:

1. Whether the librarians desired academic status or not.
2. Ranking of appointments and promotion criteria.
3. Research activity.
4. University support for research.
5. Problems encountered in research and publishing.

Twenty-two completed copies of the questionnaire were returned, representing 62.8 per cent of the total number of librarians in the university libraries.

FINDINGS

The first major finding is that more university librarians in Ghana (59.1 per cent)

desire to be academics than those desiring to be regarded as professionals (40.9 per cent). However, none of the librarians wants to be regarded as an administrative staff (Table 1).

On the question of the place of publications in terms of promotion and job advancement, librarians in Ghana would like publications to be considered as a third factor in determining their appointment and promotion. The first two factors fundamental to them are qualifications and length of service. (Table 2).

Respondents were also asked questions on their research activities. The results of this section was rather disappointing. Three librarians (14 per cent) had published 1-2 papers in reputable professional journals. Five (22 per cent) had published between 3 and 5 papers, and only 2 (9 per cent) had published 6 or more papers. Twelve respondents (55 per cent) had not published any paper. (Table 3).

It is therefore not surprising that university librarians in Ghana do not want publications foremost in determining their progress in their profession. (Table 2).

Attendance and presentation at seminars and conferences was also not encouraging. The results show that only three respondents (14 per cent) had presented 1-2 papers at conferences and seminars, while five (22 per cent) had presented 3-4 papers. This is an area that needs a lot of attention as conferences and seminars play an important role in the continuing education of librarians.

What is encouraging is that a large number of respondents (73 per cent) had between 1-2 papers in preparation (Table 3). One may therefore conclude that there is a consciousness on the part of librarians to undertake research, although they do not want it to play a major role in their career.

TABLE 1: VIEWS OF LIBRARIANS ON STATUS

STATUS	NO OF RESPONDENTS	%
Academic	13	59.1
Professional	9	40.9
Administrative	0	0.0
TOTAL	22	100.0

TABLE 2: RANKING ORDER OF FACTORS USED FOR APPOINTMENT AND PROMOTION

FACTORS	FIRST		SECOND		THIRD		TOTAL R	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Qualifications	19	86	2	9	—	—	21	95.5
Length of service	—	—	9	41	10	45	19	86.4
Publications	—	—	9	41	6	27	15	68.2
Confidential rep.	—	—	3	14	5	23	8	36.4
Interview	—	—	2	9	1	5	3	13.6

N = 22

TABLE 3: RESEARCH ACTIVITY OF RESPONDENTS

NUMBER OF PUBLICATIONS	PUBLISHED PAPERS		CONFERENCE PAPERS		CURRENT RESEARCH	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
6 or more	2	9	1	5	—	—
3 — 5	5	22	5	22	—	—
1 — 2	3	14	3	14	16	73
No paper	12	55	13	59	6	27

N = 22

CONSTRAINTS RESEARCH AND PUBLICATIONS

Respondents were requested to list some of the problems they encounter in research and publishing. These problems were analysed so that those identified as common to a number of respondents are discussed.

One of the pressing problems facing university librarians in Ghana in their efforts at research and publishing is finance. This problem was mentioned by 92 per cent of the respondents. On the other hand, although 45.45 percent of the respondents were aware that they could apply for research grants from the universities, only 9 per cent had actually done so. Reasons given for the inability to apply for this grant include difficult procedures adopted by the Research and Conferences Committees of the Universities before the money is disbursed to applicants.

Another common problem cited by respondents is the lack of current journals. Experience has shown that getting a manuscript published depends on a variety of factors, among which are its targeted audience, the right choice of journal, and the currency of information. Unfortunately, in Ghana, current journals are difficult to find in our libraries. This has been confirmed by Harvard-Williams, who in his review of library service in West Africa lamented that "few libraries have had any quantity of

periodical titles since 1974. Many have had none at all for the past five or six years". (Havard-Williams, 1987).

Since access to new journals is almost nil, it follows that researchers in Ghana are out of touch with developments in their fields. Even where they have manuscripts, the library stock may not help them to determine the suitability of journals to which to send them. The manuscripts are often lacking in current information and this may lead to their rejection by international journals.

Added to this is the pronounced irregularity with which local journals are published. The *Ghana Library Journal* was re-issued in 1988 after it had ceased publication for about fifteen years. Since then, two issues have been produced. It is not known when the next issue is coming out. The *Ghana Book World* has not come out since 1989, although it is expected to be published annually. Similar situations may be recounted in other African countries. To further compound the problem of the librarian, Ghanaian universities only respect referred journal articles as if the libraries contain only refereed or reputable journals.

Librarians in Ghana are also faced with the problem of time. They often have to combine their normal routine with research. Working under a rigid 40 hours per week schedule, it is nearly impossible to be able to do some research. This is all the more so since librarians are further engaged in extracurricular assignments like attendance at meetings, junior staff training and library instruction, that could take a great deal of their time.

Results of the study show that 82 per cent of university librarians in Ghana said they did not have facilities for research leave. Of the 18 per cent who were aware of this facility, only 5 per cent have taken a research leave. Those who have not taken this opportunity stated that they did not see the immediate need for it. Therefore, unlike the teaching staff, most university librarians cannot take a leave for the purpose of carrying out a research project. This is also a major hindrance.

There is also the problem of retrieving completed questionnaire from academic staff of the universities. It is sad to note that this problem is common even among us librarians. One would expect that as professionals who deal with information provision and therefore recognise the importance of quick and adequate information, librarians should not be found wanting in the area of returning completed questionnaires.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study discovered that a majority of university librarians in Ghana desire academic status. Unfortunately, they have not undertaken enough research and publications to justify this desire. This result is similar to results of studies by Akhidime (1984), Akinyotu (1982) and Olanlokun (1982) on the Nigerian situation. However, these studies were conducted almost a decade ago and might therefore not compare favourably with the study on Ghana.

Unlike the faculty staff who carry out their teaching programmes under conditions more favourable to intellectual self-development, librarians are not favoured with such working conditions. Therefore they cannot engage in as much research as their faculty counterparts do to qualify for academic status.

The findings also show that university librarians in Ghana do not want to be regarded as administrative staff. There is however, a move by librarians to join forces with other professionals to form a third group of university staff. But this is only begging the question and not solving it. Librarianship is essentially an academic profession. Our stock-in-trade is knowledge — the selection, collection, organisation and transmission of knowledge. The information explosion has given a new dimension to the role and responsibilities of librarians. Any attempt to make librarians in universities function in any role other than active members of the teaching and research team would seriously jeopardise the academic programmes of the universities.

It appears then, that it will be difficult for university librarians in Ghana to obtain academic status unless they are able to adapt to a work schedule that will incorporate research and publications. So far as academic status continues to be judged by research and publications among others, university librarians in Ghana have to take a keen interest in research. They should disseminate their research results through seminars and publications. An active involvement in the inter-faculty lecture series for example, will go a long way to convince the academic community that, apart from their traditional bibliographic functions, they are capable of undertaking research and disseminating their findings.

With many university librarians acquiring higher degrees these days, the attainment of full academic status is not far away. Library staff should be encouraged to improve themselves and if possible get advanced degrees as this will expose them to research methods and techniques. This together with efficiency and dedication, will go a long way to boost the image of university librarians in Ghana. At the end of the day, it might be necessary for university librarians in the country to come together to draw up uniform conditions of service instead of the present system of varied conditions. In this way it will be easier for staff to move from one library to another without facing problems with new service conditions.

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A. A. ALEMNA

INDIGENISATION OF THE CURRICULUM IN NIGERIAN LIBRARY SCHOOLS : A SURVEY OF ITS IMPACT ON PRACTITIONERS

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ABSTRACT

This article examines elements of the curricula of Nigerian Library schools indigenised in response to local needs. The assessment of programmes provides a unique opportunity for feedback from practitioners on the priority values of indigenised courses in their work. For the survey questionnaire, a response rate of 171 (or 81%) librarians and information specialists formed the sample population and the data they generated, based on multiple choice responses is as indicated in Table 1. Four broad programmes (A-D) were identified with a listing of indigenised course under each main heading. The findings indicate as follows: A - High Priority (HP) course was *The Library in Nigerian Society*, 91%. B-HP: *Information Services* (71.9%), LP- *Information needs of the non-literate/semi-literate user*, (57.4%); C-HP: *Reference books and subject bibliography tools on Nigeria*, (82.8%), LP - *Analytical and Historical Bibliography*, (81.3%); and D-HP: *Cataloguing rules and application; Nigerian materials* (91%), LP - *Introduction to library automation/information science* (84.4%). With these findings, the paper concludes by drawing attention of educators to the abstractness of some of courses considered by practitioners to be of low priority but which are socially relevant and can enhance the local practice of librarianship for 21st century Africa. It was further suggested that as many libraries are at present engaged in automating essential services for effective dissemination of information, the course on library automation should constitute part of the core of library schools curricula.

INTRODUCTION

'Indigenisation' is a common terminology used in the developing countries to denote emancipation from economic domination by foreigners. The aliens are backed by the dominant power of rich nations who, in theory, determine to a large extent the pattern of international trade, terms of technology transfer, foreign aid, and direct investment in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean. Usually this form of economic domination also permeates the countries' socio-cultural system, not least education. For instance, prior to Nigerian independence in 1960, indigenisation at the university level meant Nigerianisation of staff; the term was also applied to describe curriculum

renewal and innovations which relate to local and national conditions (Ogunsheye 1977). It is also an established fact of history that Western motives for the cultural penetration of Africa resulted in the emergence of the university as the most sophisticated instrument of 'cultural dependency'. Integration with metropolitan systems have always formed the basis of the priorities of African scholars. In West Africa, Greek, Latin and European history formed the core of the humanities. For many years, no African language, not even Arabic could be studied at the university level (Mazrui 1978). Thus, it seems, of special importance in the homogenisation of the intellectual culture of the world is the role of modern education. The impact of the West on the rest of the world has been particularly critical in this regard. The technological triumph of the western world gave its system of education almost universal prestige. It has been asserted in the literature that cultures which previously trained and socialised their children in radically different ways saw themselves drawn irresistibly toward the western approach to education (Mazrui, 1976).

However, when related to professional education, there has been expressed need to make what is taught in library schools, for instance, relevant to the needs of the society so as to achieve meaningful and practical development (Aradeon, 1974; Mohammed & Otim, 1978). Again, it has been established that a consequence of cultural dependency is that perceptions are blocked or distorted so that people are prevented from seeing their own world; they are using borrowed coloured spectacles. With regard to education for librarians this causes the unfortunate students to concentrate on non-problems and provide answers to questions which should not have been asked (Benge, 1979). So, to what extent is the problem of local relevance being tackled by library educators in the development of their programmes? How do practitioners rate library courses on the basis of priority and relevance to local practice? These are searching questions that have motivated this study.

This article examines elements of the curricula of Nigerian library schools that have been indigenised in response to local needs. The assessment provides a unique opportunity of a feedback from practitioners on priority areas of courses taught in the schools and their social relevance for the practice of librarianship in Nigeria. The data is based on 1988 and 1990 syllabuses of the schools investigated. These are the latest syllabuses available to the author.

Theoretical Postures

This section reviews Nigerian literature on theories of local relevance and how it has been suggested that the curriculum can be indigenised to meet with the needs of social change. The debates on indigenisation has as its principal actors senior library professionals and educators on the Nigerian library scene. The concept of 'relevance' draws the undivided attention of librarians and educators alike as it affects the indigenous elements of library schools' curricular. The demands for local relevance in the curriculum seem, in theory, to have triggered off actual efforts by educators in that direction.

Library educators, in considering the relevance of their programmes to the community, readily admit that this is an area constituting 'a major academic problem for the

renewal and innovations which relate to local and national conditions (Ogunsheye, 1977). It is also an established fact of history that Western motives for the cultural penetration of Africa resulted in the emergence of the university as the most sophisticated instrument of 'cultural dependency'. Integration with metropolitan systems have always formed the basis of the priorities of African scholars. In West Africa, Greek, Latin and European history formed the core of the humanities. For many years, no African language, not even Arabic could be studied at the university level (Mazrui, 1978). Thus, it seems, of special importance in the homogenisation of the intellectual culture of the world is the role of modern education. The impact of the West on the rest of the world has been particularly critical in this regard. The technological triumph of the western world gave its system of education almost universal prestige. It has been asserted in the literature that cultures which previously trained and socialised their children in radically different ways saw themselves drawn irresistibly toward the western approach to education (Mazrui, 1976).

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Library educators, in considering the relevance of their programmes to the community, readily admit that this is an area constituting 'a major academic problem for the

library schools' (Mohammed and Afolabi, 1979). It is generally felt that while mindful of the development in the profession on the international plane, education for librarianship should also reflect local needs. There seems to be an inclination towards the social functions of libraries as observed by Aboyade:

"For us in Nigeria, as indeed for Africa in general, the question of relevance has to do mainly with service to a predominantly orally literate and non-literate people when the institution itself is heavily print oriented" (Aboyade, 1979).

The emphasis on oral tradition is a direct result of the UNESCO-sponsored Standing Conference of African Library Schools (SCOALS) Meeting held in Dakar in 1974, where the need to indigenise the curriculum was formally recognised and recommendations put forward to the effect that the curriculum in African Library Schools should include courses on African History, Sociology and Literature, Oral Tradition and Audio-Visual materials and Technology.

In stating ways of attaining an indigenised curriculum along the lines proposed by SCOALS, *research*, as an instrument for discovering new knowledge, has been considered as 'very necessary in the African situation where we are still rather uninformed about the behaviour and information on our local clientele, where we need to record and document our cultural, literary, and information material resources' (Ogunsheye, 1978). The posture here is the tendency for academic personnel to be guided solely by interest, in their selection of topic for research; the factor of relevance, it is argued, must strongly be considered in the African situation where funds generally are in short supply.

Similarly, it has been stressed that approach to indigenisation should relate professional education in librarianship to the realities of the library school's environment and societal goals in general. A relevant curriculum should be geared towards defining and meeting developmental needs through the teaching of appropriate courses which propagate cultural liberation and create awareness of change in respect of education for national development (Mohammed and Otim, 1978).

Yet another school of thought exists with fervent belief that indigenisation objectives can be attained through appendages used as cue in examinations: 'with special reference to', 'with particular emphasis on ...' (the Nigerian situation), but this approach has run into criticisms by some educators who believe it is superficial (Benge, 1979). If one accepts that knowledge is a social construct, then it follows that the problems of professional practice under consideration in written examinations, essays, thesis or whatever, should be perceived as unique to the local environment. If the teaching has adequately reflected on this element during the course, then evaluation through examination will achieve original results without recourse to superficial cues.

Education in Nigeria has metamorphosed from pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial (modern) systems, but the same cannot be alluded to professional education which as it were, evolved during colonial period according to prescribed standards. Thus, some writers have explained reasons for failure to indigenise aspects of the librarianship curriculum as being due to use of measure of *excellence*, which in sociological literature is tied up as 'a mythical international standard that must be achieved'. For

THE ADMINISTRATION OF ARABIC ARCHIVES IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

The administration of Arabic Archives in Nigeria is discussed in the wider context of acquisition efforts, bibliographic undertakings, conservation and preservation techniques, information dissemination, utilization of the materials as well as consideration for an appropriate training scheme.

INTRODUCTION

Arabic Language has been a vehicle influencing the culture of many nations. The influence of the language in what is now the territory of the Federal Republic of Nigeria dates back to the emergence of Islam in that area toward the end of the eleventh century. It is, however, pertinent to mention that it was during the eighteenth century that a cultural blossoming occurred which resulted in a greater generation of Arabic literature which occurred in the early nineteenth century under the leadership of the Sokoto Islamic revivalists.

However, toward the end of the century, the production of the Arabic literature began to wane. Moreover, by the beginning of the twentieth century, the dominance of the British colonial rule, coupled with a new influx of printed Arabic books from Cairo, the Middle East and North Africa, tended to reduce the interest of the 'Ulama' (Islamic Scholars) in writing original works. The writings are said to constitute the classical literature of West Africa, and are virtual mines of information, regarding the culture and intellectual activities of their age. They are in forms of poetry, prose, fiction, letters, diaries and other belles - letters. They contain a vast literature on a number of topics like theology, politics, law, education, applied sciences, medicine, recreational arts and crafts, and a host of others.

As a result of such a variety of subject coverage, the works have more than ever before, become indispensable reference sources to scholars and researchers in different fields of learning, particularly Arabic - Islamic Studies, History, Political Science and Administration, Sociology, and Linguistics.

ACQUISITION ACTIVITIES

Over the years, arabic archives in Nigeria have achieved not only national but also international importance because of their immense research value and relevance in the enrichment of knowledge and understanding of the historical, cultural, and socio-economic development of the country.

currently available, copies of 1988 and 1990 course descriptions were examined for this paper. They were found to be at slight variance with what obtained in 1983, although it could be assessed that this was as a result of phasing out of courses and their merger with wider and resilient topics rather than tinkering of the curricula.

A selection of courses which have been indigenised to reflect local needs was made from the documents gathered. The courses were then grouped into four to conform with UNESCO Common Core Curricula for the *Harmonisation of Methodology and Curricular in the Training of Documentalists, Librarians and Archivists*, (UNESCO, 1974), and as adopted in the report and recommendations of the meeting of experts in library education held in Dakar (UNESCO, 1974a). Thus, the courses were listed in the questionnaire (sent to 210 librarians working in 46 libraries and documentation centres, of which an overall response rate of 171 or 81% was achieved) under the main subject headings as follows:

- (1) Libraries and librarianship in West Africa - A
- (2) Information studies and sociology of information - B
- (3) Bibliographical studies - C
- (4) Processes and methods - D

Respondents were asked to rank the importance and relevance to professional practice of the indigenised courses by indicating in the boxes provided the scale 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 in order of utmost priority to the least. The returns show maximum interest on the subject as the ranking was variously completed by all the population in the sample.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

According to Table 1 a summary of the research results on indigenised courses in Nigerian library schools indicate that under the programme 'Libraries and Librarianship in West Africa', the course *The Library in the Nigerian Society* received the high priority rating with 121 (91%) of respondents finding it relevant in their professional preparation and eventual understanding of the work environment. *The role of the library in education* was considered second high priority ranking with 119 (82.1%) scored by respondents, this is in line with current practice in development of school and college libraries. With regards to 'information studies and sociology of information', the course *Information Services* ranks as high priority with 102 (71.9%) respondents finding the course relevant in their work. *Information needs of Nigerian government policy makers* ranks next with 72 (52.2%) (This course has now been phased out). On 'Bibliographical Studies', respondents pitched their tents with *Reference books and subject bibliography tools on Nigeria* with 120 (82.8%) indicating the usefulness of the course in their practice; similarly, the challenges of compiling national bibliography and its control formed the basis of respondents ranking it 95 (71.4%) as being next in priority. Although one is disappointed with the 46.8% score on Indexing, abstracting and reviewing, it is only to be expected that such function is assigned to few experts in that area of practice with minimum distraction from other tasks to be performed. On 'Processes and methods', 130 (91%) respondents found the course *Cataloguing rules and application: Nigerian materials* of high priority with *Classification, schemes: area application, study and use* ranking next in priority with 101 (72.7%) score.

A comparative assessment of priority ranking of indigenised courses (Table 2) reveals that low priority rankings were scored for courses in: Group A – Quranic Schools and private collections (98.1%); This course is now merged with *Library in the Nigeria Society* as "Islamic and Christian influence on reading and learning". Group B – Information needs of the non-literate/semi-literate user (57.4%); This course has been integrated with *Information Services* although current trends in the literature suggests its possible re-emergence under services to rural community. Group C – Analytical and Historical Bibliography (81.3%) and Group D – Introduction to library automation/information science (84.4%). The trend of high and low priority rankings seem obvious even though the average percentage medium rating scores for the four groups A – D is 19.6% with little effect on the obvious implications of the research findings.

TABLE 1: EVALUATION OF INDIGENISED COURSES BY PERCENTAGES OF PRIORITY RANKINGS

(A) LIBRARIES AND LIBRARIANSHIP IN WEST AFRICA			
	*HP	+LP	NO. OF RESPONSES
History of Nigerian libraries	70 (56%)	55 (44%)	125
Library in the Nigerian Society	121 (91%)	12 (9%)	133
Sources for African Studies	37 (31%)	82 (6%)	119
Islamic and Christian influence on reading and learning	3 (1.9%)	161 (98.1%)	164
The role of the library in education	119 (82.1%)	26 (17.9%)	145
(B) INFORMATION STUDIES AND SOCIOLOGY OF INFORMATION			
	*HP	+LP	NO. OF RESPONSES
Information Services	102 (71.9%)	40 (28.1%)	142
Information needs of the non-literate/ semi-literate user	58 (42.6%)	78 (57.4%)	136
Information needs of Nigerian government policy makers	72 (52.2%)	66 (47.8%)	138
Information needs of the professions, e.g. medicine and farming (Agriculture)	62 (46.3%)	72 (53.7%)	134
Sources of Information: African cultural materials including data collection, storage and retrieval devices for dissemination of oral literature	58 (43%)	77 (5%)	135

(C)

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL STUDIES	*HP	+LP	NO. OF RESPONSES
Analytical and Historical Bibliography	28 (18.7%)	122 (81.3%)	150
Reference Books and subject bibliography tools on Nigeria	120 (82.8%)	25 (17.2%)	145
Library Service to children and adolescents	48 (35.6%)	87 (64.4%)	145
Nigerian National Bibliography: problems of compilation and bibliographic control	95 (71.4%)	38 (28.6%)	133
Indexing, abstracting and reviewing	58 (46.8%)	66 (53.2%)	124

(D)

PROCESSES AND METHODS	*HP	+LP	NO. OF RESPONSES
Classification schemes: area, application study and use	101 (72.7%)	38 (27.3%)	139
Classification of special materials on Africa	60 (56%)	47 (44%)	107
Cataloguing rules and application: Nigerian materials	130 (91%)	13 (9%)	143
Government Publications: Federal/ Local Governments	34 (24.3%)	106 (75.7%)	140
Introduction to library automation/ Information Science	24 (15.6%)	130 (84.4%)	154

*HP - High Priority) Summary of the 5-point-scale from Utmost Priority to

+LP - Low Priority) Lowest Priority.

TABLE 2: COMPARATIVE ASSESSMENT OF HIGH AND LOW PRIORITY RANKING OF INDIGENISED COURSES

GROUP OF PROGRAMS A	B	C	D	REMARKS*
The Library in Nigerian Society (91%)	Information and society: user behaviour in Nigerian libraries (71.9%)	Reference books and subject bibliography tools on Nigeria (82.8%)	Cataloguing rules and application: Nigerian materials (91%)	HP
Islamic and Christian Influence on reading and learning (98.1%)	Information needs of the non-literate/semi-literate user (57.4%)	Analytical and Historical Bibliography (81.3%)	New application in technology (84.4%)	LP

*HP - High Priority

LP - Low Priority

DISCUSSION

This study of the importance of indigenised courses to the work of library and information professionals in Nigeria is quite illuminating. For now, it appears there is no consolidation of practice in the exposition of African culture and oral traditions and library's role of preserving knowledge in this respect in spite of serious efforts by library educators. Can this be problem of logistics? Even more disappointing is the elucidation of the abstractness of meeting information needs of the non-literate (semi-literate) user since, as it seems, there is existing missing communication link through which appropriate information borne out of an intimate understanding and knowledge of the prevailing conditions in specific rural communities is found to be lacking (Aboyade, 1981). This seeming neglect in practice is fundamental to the core of library's social objectives in Africa. The rather low priority status accorded *Library service to children and adolescents* is indeed a true reflection of the Nigerian society as a whole where, bibliographically, children are given any consideration only on commercial publishing basis rather than preservation and nurturing of knowledge (Fayose, 1980; Isok, 1978; Yeboah, 1978). The indication is that even in the public library service points and schools where adequate attention to children services is expected few professionals fulfil or justify such expectations.

CONCLUSION

So far in this paper an attempt has been made to assess the effectiveness in practice of courses that have been indigenised to suit local conditions in Nigerian library schools from the viewpoint of their priority to professional practice. Surely in order for library practice to be socially relevant to all cadres of users it must remain print oriented but this is not to discount the usefulness of harnessing all possible resources such as transcripts from oral sources and the use of medium technology to collect, preserve and disseminate aspect of our culture to the mass of 'illiterates' and semi-

literates. Illiteracy does not preclude the high intelligence and cultural value of an individual and this is the challenge 21st century librarians and information scientists in Africa must face in making library services socially relevant else we end up perpetually as elites in the society that generates our practice. In order to maintain minimum standards in the library schools, practitioners must be prepared to offer support on indigenisation through re-activation of the *research* instrument with adequate funding provided for the purpose. As has been demonstrated elsewhere in the literature (Lawal, 1991), professionals should modulate their task performance to reflect areas of practice that evince indigenous problems and cultural values. It is therefore recommended that the course on library automation should form part of the core of library schools' curricula in view of its importance to library information practice.

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THE SEARCH FOR A MEANINGFUL DISPOSITION PROGRAMME IN WEST AFRICA: THE CASE STUDY OF THE GAMBIA

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ABSTRACT

The paper discusses the efforts of archivists in West Africa with the support of The University College London at evolving a strategy for effective management of records disposition in West Africa. A pilot field scheme was run in the Gambia which was successful because of the small size of the country. An appraisal team of three was set up to review the criteria governing appraisal of records government-wide and involving a systematic listing of public records specifying how long registries should keep records.

INTRODUCTION

A team of archivists from the University College London visited the Caribbean, East and Southern Africa, Asia, West Africa, North America and Australia between 1988 and 1989 with the aim of developing the graduate programme in Overseas Records Management and Archives Administration established at the University College London in 1984. The visits involved contacts with national archives services and universities. The Gambia, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Ghana and Nigeria were covered in the West African visit.

An important observation made by the team in its Report and one that has come to influence the direction of records management programmes in the West African sub region was that "... loss of control of records ... (which) has become a significant factor contributing to administrative inefficiency". (University College London, 1988)

Records management systems designed in the colonial era can no longer support the complex and growing challenge of administrations in the new countries. None of the countries surveyed had defined responsibilities for managing the record life cycle. There was no doubt that in West Africa, the records systems had to be reformed. Systems and training schemes and in particular the restructuring of the national archives serving which could relieve the pressure on the registries

TRAINING SCHEME FOR WEST AFRICA

Through the initiative of Dr. Anne Thurston, the University College London in collaboration with the Association of Commonwealth Archivists and Records Managers (ACARM) evolved a strategy to resolve the contradictions in central government record systems in Commonwealth West Africa. Drawing on the model established in two earlier field workshops in Zanzibar which had helped to re-activate the National Archives Service, Dr. Thurston developed a field training scheme.

In 1988, a pilot field scheme was run in the Gambia. Lecturers from the Universities of Ibadan and Ghana worked with students from the University College London. The effectiveness of this scheme on The Gambia government was remarkable. 75,000 files were handled. 200 were transferred to the National Archives. This pilot scheme was launched in the Gambia because of its size. It is a small country with a population below a million where it was envisaged results could be achieved quickly and analysed easily.

Against the background of the achievements of The Gambia Project, two workshops have been held in Ghana (1989, 1990) one in Freetown, Sierra Leone (1991) and three more in Banjul, The Gambia (1990, 1991, 1992). These schemes have involved the participation of professionals in the sub region drawn the national archives services, registries, management services, lecturers and students of archival and records management schools. All the projects have sought to achieve practical solutions to specific aspects of the problem of the management of information, these are:

- bringing all semi-current records in central government ministries under the control of an intermediate records centre;
- establishing an intermediate records centre and installing systems for its operations;
- building professional links between the staff of the three participating universities (Universities of Ghana, Ibadan and London College);
- developing new training strategies which could be utilized by the three universities as well as by universities or other institutions elsewhere in the Commonwealth;
- providing students with the means of establishing links in the wider professional community; and
- establishing retention schedules for general housekeeping records government-wide and specific schedules for main development ministries.

Workshops in the sub-region have been managed by dividing participants into small teams of between five and seven. Each team works in a specific ministry. Specialist teams on retention scheduling and registry review undertake studies. While the clearing and processing is going on in the registries, a team reviews retention requirements with officials of the governing. The registry review team on the other hand, carries out in-depth evaluation of current procedures in registries involving observations and interviews. The report of the registry review team has been the basis of the on-going restructuring programmes of government registries in The Gambia, Ghana and Sierra Leone.

ARCHIVAL LEGISLATIONS AND DISPOSITION PROGRAMMES IN WEST AFRICA

The national archives services in Ghana, Sierra Leone and The Gambia perform staff functions in the sphere of disposition programmes. Within these countries the national archives services statutorily have no influence over the management of current records, except in so far as the disposal process cannot be comprehensively applied without consideration of both current and non-current papers. It is the normal practice for documents in the current phase of the record life cycle to be stored in the offices in which they are used. At this stage, only the agency which created them and uses them to conduct its business could be responsible for managing and controlling their use. There has not been any instance of intervention by the national archives services; the right of inspection as enshrined in their respective legislations notwithstanding.

The archives legislations of The Gambia, Ghana and Sierra Leone vests the archives services with the authority to preserve historical archives. For the purpose of the orderly dispositions of public records the respective legislations have established Committees. These Committees are responsible for examining requests from government agencies for the disposal of records and for approving such requests. In the archives legislations, as for example section 5 of the Ghana Public Archives Regulations, procedures are outlined for records disposition. Under it, agencies are required to prepare disposal schedules. The retirement instrument which controls disposition under the respective legislations are the disposal lists and the simple disposal schedules. The disposal list is a form constituting the application to dispose of an existing and defined body of records. When proposed and approved by the Committee, a one-time authorization to dispose of the records is covered by it. In Sierra Leone and The Gambia the disposal list is, to date, the most viable disposal authority.

In Ghana, a country with a much more complex government bureaucracy the disposal list had given way to the simple disposal schedule. This instrument when approved by the Committee, authorizes on a continuing basis the disposition of recurring classes of records after a specified period of time. It has been identified as a weak disposition tool. Its principal shortcoming is that it provides for only partial, usually very limited coverage of the total records of the machinery of government.

Between 1986 and 1990 the Archives Committee in Ghana met twice. This trend of not meeting has manifested itself to some degree in the two sister countries. This development had made impossible for requests of agencies to be examined. Disposition of public records became stalled. The result of course has been that registry grew worse everyday. Many institutions took to use available space in their buildings. It became obvious that any attempt to review disposition procedures would invariably involve records retention programmes which as we found out constituted the key, the pivot around which any meaningful dispositions programme would revolve.

The creation of a specialist team under the auspices of the third West African Workshop on the Management of Semi-Current Records known as the "Appraisal Team" was a matter of course.

APPRAISAL OF GOVERNMENT RECORDS IN THE GAMBIA

The Appraisal Team was set up in The Gambia. In support of the teams clearing and processing semi-current records in the registries, the Appraisal Team was given the task to review criteria governing appraisal government-wide and to submit proposals involving a systematic listing of public records specifying how long registries should keep records and whether upon the expiry of the specified retention periods those records were to be destroyed or become public archives.

At the inaugural meeting of the three-member Appraisal Team, the objective of the programme was defined and a decision reached on the methodology of going about the task. It agreed that two variants of the simple disposal schedule should be developed, namely the "Comprehensive Schedule" and the General Schedule". The preparation of both schedules would run concurrently. The objective of developing both schedules is to ensure the efficient and legal disposal of public records. The General Schedule would constitute the retirement instrument governing the disposition of specified recurring classes of records common to The Gambia Civil Service. The data provided by the teams in the ministries confirmed that the great bulk of record generated by government, housekeeping records, were to be covered by this schedule. For us, it meant that the General Schedule would eliminate the necessity for each Civil Service agency to prepare its own schedules of such general records. Invariably, consistency would be encouraged in disposal decisions.

The Comprehensive Schedules on the other hand would follow the convention of being specific schedules covering all records relating to substantive matters of the ministries. The main development ministries would receive early and possibly greater attention.

The concerns confronting the Team was addressed at this point. The first concern was to resolve the relationship between legal and user needs. For a government-wide retention programme consideration of user or operational requirements and legal requirements were vital issues in determining the total retention for records (Skupsty, 1989). The remedy for resolution of this concern lay in studying in-depth the government machinery and in fashioning out retention criteria balanced enough to satisfy both user and legal requirements.

The term 'legal' has two entities within our context, namely, legal requirements and legal consideration. The legal requirements would be determined by laws that specified retention periods. Legal considerations on the other hand would involve legal issues that affect a retention decision on records. From our perspective, the two legal factors taken together would determine the legal retention periods for records. Under the circumstance therefore, the legal factor and user requirements when identified and balanced would determine the total retention periods.

Our second concern was the on-going restructuring of the Civil Service registries. Central to the registry restructuring had been the introduction of the keyword classification system. The introduction of this system had involved the compilation of keywords based on the existing vocabulary of each ministry. Our concern was how to relate the description of the records in our schedules to keywords which reflected the functions that created the records. The relationship of the classification scheme and

the schedules, in our view, was a good marriage that should make the schedules not only meaningful to the staff who also have responsibility for registry management, but enhance the use of the schedule as instruments of disposition.

At various times members of the Team had played prominent roles in installing the keyword scheme and consequently understood the operation, form and content of the scheme. This, no doubt, became a welcome advantage. With these concerns addressed, various forms of contact took place with key officials in government and in particular action officers on determining general attitude to records retention. The discussion centred on :

- the records series maintained in the ministries;
- how the records are used;
- problems associated with specific records especially in the event of their unavailability.

A regular feature of post interview discussion of the team was an assessment of the general needs and temperament of officials. The assessment made normally constituted the basis of our finding as preliminary retention periods.

Very interesting is the unrealistic view bureaucrats have of their record holdings. To some, the machinery of government would run to a halt should the records being held become unavailable even when very vital documents are often misfiled. The unfortunate impression was that some officials in creating records consciously had an eye on history.

The retention periods detailed in the draft schedules had been determined firstly on the basis of the interviews with action officers, knowledge of the ministry and experience gained, in the course of decongesting and restructuring the registry. Secondly, consideration of one or more of relevant legislations have provided basis for formulating the legal retention periods which merged with the user requirements have determined the total retention period for records. The legislations which met our active consideration have been:

- The Limitation Act, 1987
- Financial Instructions, 1989
- Public Service Commission Regulations (validation) Act, 1989
- General Orders
- The Gambia National Archives Act, 1986.

Where on consideration, a single retention period was not appropriate explanation of the options available are provided. On the other hand, where a retention period could not be determined for series, class or category of records, the schedules proposed review data and the retention criteria to be applied.

Meetings were arranged with the Chief Archivist to discuss the draft schedules and examine the issues relating to authorization. With agreement reached, proposals were made for the presentation of the draft schedules to the Advisory Committee on Archives which by law has responsibility for advising the Minister on matters relating to records/archives in The Gambia.

An important facet of contacts had been meeting held with the Solicitor General, Accountant General and Auditor General. Areas of agreement on the draft schedules were identified and conflicts resolved. We had at this point prepared a preamble and explanation to retention decisions for each record category. While comments of each of these key officials provided the necessary assurance that we were within the confines of the laws of The Gambia, the way forward for their implementation was assured.

The Advisory Committee in presenting the draft schedules to the Minister recommended its acceptance inviting the Minister to issue them as regulations under section 17(b) and (c) of the National Archives Act. The regulation would authorise application of the schedule on a continuing basis.

CONCLUSIONS

The effective management of the records disposition programme in The Gambia rests entirely on two developments. The first is the staff issue. This relates to the development of a records cadre within the Gambia Civil Service with its own scheme of service. Similarly, the records services provided by the institutions involved in records work should be brought under an integrated records service. The extent of compliance with the schedule will invariably determine the action to be taken by top management to ensure that disposition guidelines and procedures are maintained.

The second concern is training and programme promotion. Personnel assigned responsibility for records disposition should be motivated to participate in the programme through training and programme promotion. There is a linkage between these two concerns. Registry staff who manage current records and are expected to assume responsibility for the disposition phase have no career structure and no incentives for enhance performance. This status, position and career prospects with similar basic grade entry qualification. Within this framework, and in the context of government, it has been found meaningful for example, to link registry series and keyword of classification and retention schedules. Staff working in all areas of record services would have a clearly defined role within a career path.

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THE POTENTIAL OF CD-ROM TECHNOLOGY IN AFRICAN LIBRARIES

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ABSTRACT

"Browse, display, connection, storage, set up, quit/escape". These are words associated with CD-ROMs. But what are CD-ROMs? This paper attempts a definition and states its economies. CD-ROM is contrasted with Online industry and is found to be a more efficient medium for storage and publishing large amount of information. Besides, CD-ROMS is cheaper to own and to run, more user friendly, one can browse on them, power cuts do not affect the disc or its memory, do not require Online telephone connection and is more durable than print and microform.

It is postulated that CD-ROMS is a more appropriate technology for Africa because of the relatively harsh environment. Poor communication facilities and poor economies resulting in shortage of foreign exchange have combined to cause Africa to lag behind the developed countries. Therefore African librarians and scholars unable to subscribe to Online bibliographic databases would find that CD-ROM offers an acceptable alternative.

INTRODUCTION

"I am pleased to inform you that two prestigious indexing and abstracting services are now available on CD-ROM". Or "full-text of articles from . . . on CD-ROM". Or "Browse, display, connection, storage, set up, Quit/Escape". I am sure that many librarians are receiving leaflets, trade notices, publishers' blurbs, etc with notices or words about CD-ROM similar to the above quotations. What are CD-ROMs?

CD-ROM, the acronym for Compact Disc – Read Only Memory, is the popular name for a small plastic disc 4.72 inches (120mm) in diameter that can hold approximately 550 million characters of information. According to Kurdyla (1988), this last figure is the equivalent of 1500 microcomputer diskettes (floppy discs) or two hundred 1000 page books, or as Zorkoczy (1988) says, more than what 300mm LP discs hold on both sides. The disc contains more than 20,000 tracks about 1.6mm apart within which sound (character, bits of information) is represented in the form of "pits" and "plateaux". A relatively new innovation, it was commercially introduced in 1985.

It is a useful, efficient and economic medium for storing and publishing large amount of information. The attractiveness of the CD-ROM technology is that it is simple to use. This technological development coupled with the power of the micro-computer and software advances which have made possible the handling of large databases by one untrained in computers.

These are not the only advantages, however, when compared with, say, other computer products or Online. Feldman (1991) has contrasted Online and CD-ROM. "Online systems charge their users by connects time. This means that they have to rehearse their search strategy, they go online, dive into the databases, locate the information and escape as quickly as possible. CD-ROMs are quite different. Like a book, once you have bought a CD-ROM, it can be used as often and for as long as one wishes with no extra charge that involved in a power source (and stationery e.g. printing paper, printer ribbon). This encourages browsing, a type of enquiry familiar for centuries to readers of reference books but horrendous to contemplate in Online." Online is unfriendly. After contrasting Online versus print versus CD-ROM in terms of their costs and benefits, Brindley (1988) concludes that it would seem that libraries will gradually migrate from print to CD-ROM.

CD-ROMs are easier to read than microfiche or film, less difficult to store and possibly more durable than fiche or film in difficult environments like in Africa. Levey (1990) essayed that fully-text compact discs might also prove more secure than print copy, for it is impossible to mutilate them by cutting out pages in order to take home a needed article or chapter. This will safeguard the periodical collection which is often vulnerable to such sharp practices. Korwitz (1990) says that CD-ROMs text passages and even photographs could be digitalized and stored on discs. With this technology it became possible to create a workstation linking a personal computer-based computer system with a CD-ROM drive and a laser printer to retrieve full-text information on discs and to provide quality printouts from international databases.

Is CD-ROM an information storages medium or a publishing medium or a document archive medium or a data proceeing medium? It is all of these and more. It is a tool that can meet many of library needs when the information is properly designed for efficient access. CD-ROM technology has enormous potential in publishing and in producing large databases at low cost. The data bases are appropriate for a publication where frequent updating is not important e.g. dictionaries, directories, handbooks, graphic and pictorial data. It even has use in the conservation of library materials. Its high density storage capability will shrink shelf space requirements in libraries especially in the area of remote storage and in the preservation of high use materials (Seaton 1983). All bibliographic databases available in printed and Online are also available on CD-ROM. It is an appropriate technology for Africa. The telecommunications gap between developed and developing countries has played a major role in denying access to Online databases in developing countries. Methods of indirect access to Online databases can be got through CD-ROM as shown by the examples of China and Egypt.

Origin

CD-ROM is a generic of the standards established by Philips/Sony electronic companies. According to Kurdyla (1988) the "term" book can mean a generic information delivery medium or format or a specific volume or title. Similarly, CD-ROM can be viewed as a generic information delivery medium, or format or a specific title. It is actually in combination of several products and processes-data generation, preparation, pre-mastering, mastering and replication-just like in making a book one gathers the information, compose the text, layout, design, printing and binding. In CD-ROM, information is arranged in a specific manner in order to be read by computer and then by the user. This is carried out in CD-ROM pre-mastering process, which is analogous to the composing, designing and layout of a book. The CD-ROM process is, however, different in one important aspect. There is computer access.

In addition to the advantage of CD-ROM over Online already stated in this paper, people who are searching CD-ROMs are themselves the end-users of the information. In comparison with the Online industry, this amounts to a revolution. The reason is simple (apart from their "browseability"). CD-ROMs are relatively easy to use. By contrast, the Online industry has always been dogged by the unfriendliness of its software. Indeed, even today, most new users have to undertake several days of special training just to be able to get at the information in an Online database.

High connect time charges and unfriendly software have meant that most searches of Online systems are, therefore, conducted by intermediaries, trained information professionals who act on behalf of the end users of information. CD-ROM, however, can dispense with the services of intermediaries and place large, easily searchable databases directly in the hands of the end-users.

We have seen that CD-ROM has computer access. This additional layer of technology and barrier between the information and the reader, presents both advantages and disadvantages.

However CD suffers from the fact that one must have a micro-computer, and a CD-ROM reader in the location where one wants to use the information on the disc. As at now, this means that the information is not portable, i.e, it can be used only where the CD-ROM player is. Many of the full text articles required for a lot of the CD-ROM searches are not available in-house in African libraries a number of which have up to four years' gap of periodical subscriptions. The information on the disc must be read by another laser beam which reflects light from the "pits" and "plateau" that were burned into the disc during the mastering process. The reading or playback unit comprising the laser beam is a computer peripheral device variously called a CD-ROM drive.

The CD-ROM reader itself has limitations. Although it is possible to connect more than one CD-ROM reader to a single work station or microcomputer, the process of connecting more than one microcomputer or work station to one CD-ROM player is currently imperfect. Thus only one user at a time can access information on the disc. If one did have a CD-ROM encoded with the text of two hundred, 1000 page books,

only one person could have access to those books at one time. In printed form if all 200 books were on shelves, 200 persons could have access to the same information. This is, however, a temporary disadvantage. The initial high cost of installation is one factor that keeps away many institutions from setting up their units.

SPECIFIC LIBRARY APPLICATIONS

The uses to which CD-ROM can be put in libraries are just as diverse as the above, but have strong emphasis on the bibliographic databases especially those about books. Abstracting and indexing databases which have been the province of Online now abound in CD-ROM. Library catalogues, union catalogues for, resource sharing and retrospective conversion and cataloguing systems are some of the others.

Full-text information such as encyclopaedia and other reference books are now published in CD-ROM. The library Corporation, Grolier Electronic Publishing, British Library and Whitaker pioneered the development of CD-ROM applications in libraries. For example, Grolier's Electronic Encyclopaedia has been available since 1986. It was the first major full-text database available on compact disc. It was designed for the end-user, incorporating the power of full-text, key word, and Boolean searching in a way that required no training on the part of the user. Grolier also pioneered in pricing. While the printed version of the encyclopaedia was selling at \$700, the CCD-ROM version was introduced at a price under \$200, thus reflecting the lower production cost of the product. This kind of availability and low cost is characteristic of CD-ROM products.

Microsoft, a microcomputer software company which promotes CD-ROM technology has introduced the *Microsoft Bookshelf*, a database. Kurdyla (1988) says that this unique product combines ten commonly used reference works on one disc: a dictionary, thesaurus, almanac, postal code directory, quotation dictionary, grammar, and so on and stored on a single CD-ROM. In addition to the reference works, the disc also contains a collection of over 100 forms and letters for use as templates. Kurdyla adds that what makes the product even more useful is the fact that it is interactive with the major word processing programmes currently in use with microcomputers. While typing a document the user can highlight a word and automatically search for it in the thesaurus, dictionary, almanac, or other reference work. Retrieved information can then be automatically copied into the document being composed. The *Microsoft Bookshelf* has shown the type of products that will soon inundate the market because of its low cost.

CD-ROMs store large quantities of information and in essence they are no more than enormous digital filing cabinets and some publishers have used them in this way to deliver large numbers of computer programs especially in the area of software and graphics. They can be used to support desktop publishing applications or the development of computer-generated presentation materials for corporate use. These categories are some examples of CD-ROM products and indicate the diverse range of its applications. Most of these products can be searched by author, title, keyword, subject heading etc, as may be applicable.

The Potentials of CD - ROM in Africa

CD-ROM has enormous utility in African Libraries. According to Littlejohn (1990) CD-ROM has enormous potential for African researchers in their efforts to gain access to scholarly data and literature. The discs can hold huge volumes of information and are inexpensive to ship. They do not require special handling, storage space, or the large drives necessary for magnetic media. Hardware requirements are IBM compatibles (and now Apple) personal computers with a memory of 640k. The system is relatively inexpensive even more so today as disc drives decline in prices. The cost of making CD-ROM is falling as a result of increase in research efforts. Another factor making for lower prices is that competition among the publishers is increasing. Cost is very important for African libraries as the decision to or not to buy is a matter of cash.

CD-ROM does not require Online telephone connection, and equally important, power cuts do not affect the discs or its memory. There is a growing volume of scholarly material on CD-ROM, primarily bibliographic databases but also abstracts, anthologies containing full-text articles, reference materials, such as encyclopaediae and, increasingly, complete periodicals (including news-paper). There are now more than 1000 commercially available CD-ROM products, 38% of them in the social sciences and 30% in science and technology.

In 1990 the American Association for the Advancement of science (AAAS) surveyed 200 individual libraries in Africa on the use and availability of computer and CD-ROM. The survey, as reported by Levey (1990), found that 16 libraries in sub-saharan Africa have CD-ROM units (9 university and 7 research libraries). In addition, it was reported that the University of Ibadan, the University of Science and Technology (Ghana) L'Universite du Benin (Togo) and l'Universite de Yaounde Centre des sciences de la Sante (Cameroon) expected to acquire CD-ROM drives in 1990. African Libraries which are buying CD-ROMs in 1991. The University of Ibadan, perhaps, expect to obtain its computers through the World Bank loan to the Nigerian Federal Ministry of Education, which loan is meant to upgrade the capabilities of Nigerian 21 federal Universities. It was also found that libraries with computers have already purchased the most expensive components of CD-ROM.

CD-ROM requires start up capital beyond the reach of most African Libraries. From the AAAS survey, only one African library bought its CD-ROM unit entirely from its own fund. The rest obtained theirs through donations and/or grant from such a variety of international agencies and foundations which include UNESCO, British Council, the Carnegie corporation of New York, the French Mission of Cooperation, the Royal Tropical Institute of Netherlands, USAID, the Health Foundation, Rockefeller Foundation, CTA to name a few.

Many African Libraries have difficulty with the installation of their CD-ROM drives. Once they are installed however, and the bugs ironed out, very good services can be obtained. Literature searches are primarily conducted by the librarian, which can be a frustrating experience if the researcher cannot articulate his needs clearly and if the Librarian does not ask the right questions or is not skilled at reference negotiation. (Taylor 1968). As related by Levey (1990) some libraries such as at the Univer-

sity of Botswana, will permit computer literate faculty to use the CD-ROM unit. Also, the University of Zimbabwe Medical Library would take this a step further with the initiation of a "public access work station", an innovation that will greatly broaden the impact of CD-ROM because it will allow researchers to take control of their own literature searches. Microcomputer connected to the CD-ROM drive can be used for other purposes in addition to CD-ROM, because in most instances literature searches are conducted by library staff rather than the end user.

Some libraries actively encourage users to avail themselves of CD-ROM services. L'Universite Cheikh Anita Diop which acquired its CD-ROM unit in 1987 has produced two brochures that describe the CD-ROM products located in the library and their applicability to research. Levey (1990) states that others with similar brochures are the University of Ghana Medical Library which produces a quarterly brochure with selected MEDLINE citations and the University of Zimbabwe Medical Library which produces CHIZ bulleting (current Health Information Zimbabwe).

After literature searches are conducted, where the full-text articles requested by researchers are not available in-house (or from its own library), assistance can be got from the British Library Document supply Division when they need to order articles or the La Bibliogtheque Nationale in Paris by librarians in Anglophone or Francophone Africa respectively, or through inter library loans either locally or abroad.

Problem of CD-ROM usage in Africa.

We have seen that documents not available in-house may be ordered from abroad. Postal services are not very efficient in Africa. It could take up to six weeks or more for the return of the article ordered. This can be frustrating to the researcher. Besides there is the problem of foreign exchange with innumerable documents required to support applications for foreign exchange from the banks. It has been stated that many libraries have had great difficulty with the installation of their CD-ROM drives. Some of this difficulty could involve having incompatible drive, wrong extension card, or using a microcomputer with low memory of say, 512k whereas 640k is needed. As related by Levey (1990) some times the difficulty has to do with a wrong advice from the vendor as was the case with the Librarian of the University of Zimbabwe Medical Library who bought a non-compatible CD drive - on the basis of advice from their New York software vendors.

The fundamental difficulty is the lack of in-country expertise with CD-ROM, which is still a very new technology in Africa. Any breakdown or installation may require long distance advice which is frequently a less than satisfactory solution. Technical assistance will be required from abroad for sometime to come. This is so because librarians are not technically knowledgeable. Librarians in subsaharan Africa are, infact, in a bind. Such technical or specialised training is hardly available at home and there is little fund available to travel abroad on short courses, librarians in Africa do not have written acquisition policy for selecting CD-ROM. Even in more developed countries many libraries do not have written policy statements and criteria for selecting CD-ROM and magnetic tape products. Many purchases have been on haphazard criteria. If this can be said of developed countries, the situation could be worse in Africa where CD-ROM is a relatively very new technology.

It is common knowledge that most libraries in Africa are unable to subscribe to current periodicals and that there are large gaps in their periodicals collection. Epraim (1991) relates the case of Abdus Salam, Nobel Laureate in physics, who left Pakistan in 1954 because no library in the country had received any scientific periodicals since World War II. The situation is still far from being satisfactory for many developing countries, especially countries in Africa which has problems of foreign exchange. Kumar (1984) also decried the situation. He surveyed 20 university libraries in East and West Africa for literature search for the book he was writing. He found that 17 libraries had little or none of the pre-1975 literatures cited in the book, that the three remaining libraries had barely half of the post-1975 literature. Lack of current literature, especially in the sciences, is endemic in African Libraries. CD-ROM can help solve such problems.

Most of these problems can be overcome by African libraries through the acquisition of CD-ROM technology in their efforts to gain access to scientific data and international literature. We have seen that lack of infrastructure such as the lack of constant supply of electricity, poor telecommunication facilities, lack of spare parts for maintenance and repairs of machinery and lack of technical or specialised training at home cannot seriously affect the acquisition and operation of CD-ROM technology in Africa once the foreign exchange or cash component is overcome. The presence of these problems weigh significantly in favour of CD-ROM preferences in Africa as against Online. In addition we have also seen that some philanthropic organizations and publishers are actively propagating the use of CD-ROM in Africa through donations and enlightenment programmes.

Epraim (1991) states that "in many African countries today, there is a growing appreciation for, and acquisition of, some word processors (especially in the universities) - with printers, computers, systems to which a CD-ROM drive could easily be integrated. Such public awareness has already provided a fertile ground and the basic skills for CD-ROM acceptance and use".

This growing evidence has been encouraged by governmental and non-governmental organizations. In October, 1990, a team of consultants from the University of London the British Council and Overseas Development Agency (ODA) visited Nigeria. They conducted workshops for chief librarians, heads of acquisition and relevant staff of the National University Commission (NUC). The main aim of the workshops was to ensure familiarity with CD-ROM and its application to administration, bibliographic and non-bibliographic activities of the libraries.

In November, 1990, the first Southern African Computer show organized by Computers in Africa and Telecoms Update was held in Harare, Zimbabwe. A similar show was held in Nairobi in July, 1991 and a second Southern Computer show was held in Harare, Zimbabwe in November, 1991. Also the Tropical Royal Institute in Amsterdam in cooperation with the Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation (CTA) has a project to introduce CD-ROM technology to African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries. Their objective is to improve dissemination in agricultural information, to stimulate the use of CD-ROM in information centres and to encourage the development of regional networks. Of the selected five countries in Africa Cameroon, Kenya, Mali, Zambia and Zimbabwe - each will receive a CD-ROM

workstation and various agricultural databases on CD-ROM. Teaching of basic skills for operators of microcomputers will be provided as well as training modules appropriate to local needs. Similar computer shows are being organized in many African Countries e.g. Nigeria by commercial concerns and the computer Association of Nigeria.

Compact Disc— Read Only Memory is a very suitable technology for Africa. It is rugged and portable. Shipping and postage costs are relatively inexpensive. It is easier to store and less difficult to read than microform and more durable. As a storage medium, its capacity far surpasses any other e.g. it is 1000 times the capacity of one floppy disc. This capability will shrink storage space which is already a problem in many African libraries. Compared with Online, CD-ROM is cheaper to install and operate. It is simple to use and does not require the training of Online and as such can be handled by one untrained in computers. It can be used in cataloguing systems or in place of national union catalogues. For example, OCLC (Online Computer Library Centre) has developed a CD-ROM based cataloguing system.

It does not require telephone communication. Black out or power cuts, which are very frequent in Africa and occur in some place as many as fifty times, in a day, do not affect the disc or its memory. Its link to existing computers (IBM or Apple) is a big plus over paper and microform reference materials. Besides, costs are constantly falling and we are approaching an era in which CD-ROM will be easily affordable by African libraries from their budgets. CD-ROM has a great potential in Africa for all bibliographic databases available on Online are also available on CD-ROM and can be searched interactively like Online. The data cannot be erased but can be updated. CD-ROM is cheap to use and operate. Unlike Online, there is no connect time charge. Users can therefore browse and experiment and perhaps find rich and unexpected correlation in the information. Producers of CD-ROM technology would find Africa a fertile ground for specially tailored abstracting and indexing databases and multidisciplinary full-texts, especially in the sciences and technology.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CD-ROM will become more attractive to African librarians and scholars once essential full-text literature is routinely published on CD-ROM as well as in print copy. Level (1990) says that this is happening increasingly, spurred on by both the market economy and also philanthropy. The Rockefeller Foundation, which was responsible for initiating the selected Medical Library on Microfiche (SMLM), has funded the Main Library of Cornell University to produce a comprehensive list of core agricultural literature for mastering on CD-ROM.

CD-ROM are being used for electronic publishing and for making available expensive and large databases to libraries and information centres in far away and remote places. It is hoped that with CD-ROM, researchers in African countries could obtain world periodical articles in any desired field of research within 9–12 months of publication. Africa has lagged behind in the use of CD-ROMs and microcomputers because of factors such as high costs, poor telecommunication facilities and even lack of fuller knowledge about these technologies. The impact of microcomputer and the electronic

transmission of information will certainly grow dramatically in the years to come. Where African libraries are unable to subscribe to Online bibliographic databases, CD-ROM offers the researcher an acceptable alternative. CD-ROM can be a potential, short-term medium to bridge the information gap in Africa. There is need for UNESCO and philanthropy to undertake projects to implement its use in developing countries especially in the areas of periodicals and materials of science and technology in order to improve their availability. There is also need for AAAS to look beyond periodicals subscription and enlarge its programme to include CD-ROM capabilities for African libraries. For African Librarians, CD-ROM provides an opportunity to own computer capability without the problems of Online computer services. It eliminates the use of telecommunication system for information transfer and can hold up to 220,000 printed A4 pages and can easily be handled.

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SHORT COMMUNICATIONS

INFORMATION NEEDS AND INFORMATION SEEKING
BEHAVIOR PATTERNS OF JOURNALISTS IN NIGERIA

INTRODUCTION

Information is an important factor in the Nigerian society. Its acquisition and dissemination could enhance societal growth and development. Media personnel need various types of information for different purposes. They employ special techniques in acquiring, organizing and using information. With the information available to them they play the role of informing, educating and entertaining people. They need information for current and retrospective news items.

Nigerian journalists need a well equipped library with professional librarians to be able to meet their information needs during the course of their activities. Various factors may affect a person's interest on the type of information he seeks and how he goes about obtaining the information. Thus the need for information may arise from various aspects of a person's interest.

The main objective of the study is to find out how journalists used library and archival resources available to them. Two hundred copies of a questionnaire designed for this purpose was mailed out to practising journalists in four major towns in Nigeria. These are Lagos, Ibadan, Kaduna and Calabar. These four towns account for more than 90% of practising journalists in Nigeria.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Background Information

According to Table 1, majority of the respondents were drawn from print media, radio and television houses as depicted in Table 1.

TABLE 1. : DISTRIBUTION OF OF JOURNALISTS IN THEIR WORK PLACE

WORK PLACE OF JOURNALISTS SELECTED	JOURNALISTS IN FOUR SELECTED n = 140 Frequency	TOWNS %
1. Newspaper house	59	42.1
2. Newsmagazine houses	30	21.4
3. Radio houses	23	16.4
4. Television houses	28	20.0
Total	140	99.9%

The highest number/percentage of journalists came from newspaper houses 59 (42.1%) followed by nesmagazines houses 30 (21.4%) television houses 23 (16.44%) and lastly radio houses 28 (20.0%).

TABLE2: DISTRIBUTION OF JOURNALISTS' EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF JOURNALISTS	NUMBER OF SELECTED n=140 FREQUENCY	JOURNA- LISTS
1. WASC 3 Certificate from FRCN Ikoyi, Lagos	7	5
2. WASC + OND or 'A' level	14	10
3. First degree holder + PGD from NIJ, Ikeja, Lagos	62	44
4. First degree holders e.g. B.A., B.Sc.	50	36
5. Second degree holders e.g. M.A., M.Sc.	6	4
6. Higher degree holders e.g. PHD	1	0.71
Total	140	99.71

The distribution on Table 2 above shows the educational qualifications of the respondents with first degree and postgraduate diploma certificate from Nigerian Institute of Journalism, Ikeja, Lagos scoring the highest number/percentage, 62 (44%). This shows that a good number of journalists used in the study graduated from this institute which was established in 1963.

A breakdown from the table shows that first degree holders were 50 (36%); second degree holders 6 (4%); doctorate degree holder 1 (0.71%). WASC + OND holders are 14 (10%) and WASC + Certificate from Federal Radio Corporation Nigeria Training School, Ikoyi, Lagos are 7 (5%) respondents.

The average age of the respondents was thirty two years, with a range of twenty-four to fifty-five. Average total work experience was 6.95 years, 46 (32.8%) of the respondents were married with children. An average time in present position was 3.58 years with a range from zero to twenty one years.

Information Needs of Nigerian Journalists.

Journalists need all kinds of information in every aspects of human endeavour or activity in the society. They need current and retrospective information to enable them satisfy the information needs of the numerous customers or readers.

TABLE 3: : SPECIFIC AREAS OF INFORMATION NEEDS OF JOURNALISTS
IN SELECTED NIGERIAN TOWNS

Various Information Needs of Journalists n= 140	Number of Selected Nigerian	% Journalists
1. Government affairs	30	21.4
2. Political activities	38	27.1
3. Economic "	20	14.2
4. Religious "	4	2.8
5. Social "	23	16.4
6. General Knowledge and others	5	3.5
7. Preparing official articles for publication and newstalks/ programmes	18	12.8
8. Hobbies and recreational duties	2	1.4
	140	100%

According to the respondents, 133 (95%) show that they need information for official duties while 7 (5%) said they use information for unofficial duties which is for their consumption. For their official duties, they need information for writing articles for publication, preparing news talks, news reporting for knowledge of citizen-political, governmental, economic, religious and social activities within and outside the countries.

According to Table 3 the area of greatest information need is in political activities 38 (27.1%) followed by government affairs 30 (21.4%); social activities 23 (16.4%); economic activities 20 (14.2%). Others include needing information for preparing official articles for publication, newstalks/programmes and discussions 18 (12.8%) information needed for general knowledge and others 5 (3.5%) and information needed for hobbies and recreational duties 2 (1.4%). The greatest information needs is on political activities as shown on Table 1.4%.

Information sources Available to some Nigerian Journalists:

Two major information sources available to Nigerian journalists were identified. Surprisingly, 106 (76%) of the respondents preferred using the informal sources to 34 (24%) of respondents who use formal sources which are the library and archival centres. Reasons given for this is that formal sources are usually obsolete and causes delay. A breakdown of 34(24%) respondents use of the library/archival centres is indicated in Table 4

TABLE 4 FORMAL INFORMATION SOURCES CONSULTED BY RESPONDENTS IN LIBRARIES

Formal Information Sources	Number of Subjects Frequency	%
1. Dictionaries/Encyclopedias	1	2.9
2. Newspapers/Newsmagazines	7	20.5
3. Journals/Periodicals	1	2.9
4. Handbooks	1	2.9
5. Government Publications	14	41.1
6. Published Proceedings of conferences/symposia	6	17.6
7. Textbooks/Fiction and Non-Fiction Novels	2	5.8
8. Archival Materials	2	5.8
Total	34	100%

It shows that the highest respondents who use the library 14 (41.1%) consult various Federal/State Government publications - reports of panels of enquiry commission, gazettes, annual reports of government owned companies and parastatals etc. This follows by 7 (20.55) respondents, who use old and new newsmagazines/newspapers probably for up-dating information or for retrospective searches.. Use of published proceedings of conferences/symposia came third with 6 (17.6%) respondents. Other sources scored low usage by journalists.

Those journalists who do not consult the library said they usually use informal sources which involves obtaining information from people. Also, they obtained information from other radio, newspaper, newsmagazine, television and news agencies' houses within and outside the country. Among other informal sources used by the respondents who do not use the library 106 (76%) are obtaining information from University dons, politicians, trade union leaders and influential people through interview.

TABLE 5: PROPORTION OF MEDIA HOUSES WITH LIBRARIES

Media Houses	Number of Media Houses	Media Houses with Libraries	Number of Library Staff
1. Newspaper houses	12	12	36
2. Newsmagazines houses	10	6	12
3. Radio houses	6	6	6
4. Television houses	6	6	6
Total	34	30	60

Table 5 shows that all the 12 newspaper houses surveyed have libraries, of 10 newsmagazines houses surveyed, 6 (60%) have libraries and all the radio and television houses also have libraries with staff-professionals and non-professional librarians.

We also examined the educational qualifications of their librarians to enable us see if they are adequate to cope with needs of respondents as shown in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6: PROPORTION OF MEDIA LIBRARIANS WITH THEIR QUALIFICATIONS

Media Houses	No. of Media houses with Librarians	Librarians with MLS	Librarians with BLS	Librarians without Professional Qualification
1. Newspaper houses	12	3	2	31
2. Newsmagazine houses	6	=	4	4
3. Radio house	6	=	2	4
4. Television houses	6	=	3	3
Total	30	3	11	46

Responses show that of the 34 media houses, 30 have libraries with 60 library staff showing an average library (2.1) two library staff to one library. Of the 60 library staff, 3 (5%) had the highest professional qualification - MLS, 11 (18%) had BLS and

46 (76.6%) did not have professional qualifications to qualify them work as librarians. Probably, they have Diploma in Library studies; WASC and some are designated as library officers, library Assistants and Library Attendants etc.

Table 7 shows respondents use and non-use of the various libraries at their places of work.

TABLE 7: RESPONDENTS USE OF FORMAL SEEKING BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS

Library Sources Used	Number of Subjects	Frequency	%
1. Seeking assistance of the librarian or other library staff	36		73.4
2. Use subject/author title catalogue and other bibliographical tools	8		16.3
3. Going to the shelves directly to seek for information material	5		10.2
Total	49		100%

The information seeking behaviour patterns show that 36 (73.4%) depend on the assistance of librarians or other library staff; 8 (16.3%) depend on use of subject/author title catalogue and other bibliographical tools to search for information while 5 (10.2%) said they usually go to the shelves directly to seek for any information material which they need. It was assumed by the researcher that those who go to the librarian or library staff each time they needed information 36 (73.4%) do not know how to use the library effectively. The same applies to those journalists who usually go to the shelves directly to seek for any information material which they need.

Conversely, the respondents who do not use the library said that sometimes they participate or witness they event or ceremony or carry out on the spot reporting and conducting of interviews with those involved in the event or ceremony. Other informal behaviour patterns of information acquisition are shown on the table below, showing the number of their respondents and percentages scored.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In Nigeria, we have four major agents of socialization. These agents are the school, the press, the family and the peer group and they play crucial roles in transferring the societal norms, values, ethos and beliefs. Journalists, who control the press have the herculean task to play through the print, radio and television houses. Thus media houses should computerize their resources for easy storage, preservation and retrieval. This will facilitate use, thus solving the problem of accessibility. Also durable information storage media system will effect longevity and provide security in times of disaster like fire and harsh weather conditions.

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APPENDIX I

LIST OF MASS MEDIA HOUSES USED FOR STUDY NEWSPAPER HOUSES (12)

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. <i>The Daily Times</i> | (Daily newspaper, Lagos) |
| 2. <i>The Guardian</i> | (Daily newspaper, Lagos) |
| 3. <i>National Concord</i> | (Daily newspaper, Lagos) |
| 4. <i>Daily Champion</i> | (Daily newspaper, Lagos) |
| 5. <i>The Punch</i> | (Daily newspaper, Lagos) |
| 6. <i>The Sunday Concord</i> | (Weekly newspaper, Lagos) |
| 7. <i>The Tribune</i> | (Daily newspaper, Ibadan) |
| 8. <i>The Sketch</i> | (Daily newspaper, Ibadan) |
| 9. <i>New Nigeria</i> | (Daily newspaper, Kaduna) |
| 10. <i>The Democrat</i> | (Daily newspaper, Kaduna) |
| 11. <i>The Nigerian Chronicle</i> | (Daily newspaper, Calabar) |
| 12. <i>The Defender</i> | (Daily newspaper, Calabar) |

RADIO HOUSES (6)

1. Cross River Radio, Calabar
2. Radio Kaduna, Kaduna
3. Oyo, Radio, Ibadan
4. FRCN, Ikoyi, Lagos
5. Radio Nigeria, Lagos
6. AM/FM/Lagos

TELEVISION HOUSES (6)

1. NTA, Channel 9, Calabar
2. NTA, Kaduna
3. NTA, Ibadan
4. BCOS, Ibadan
5. NTA, Lagos
6. NTA, Channels 5 and 7, Lagos.

NEWSMAGAZINE HOUSE (6)

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Newswatch | (Weekly newsmagazine - Lagos) |
| 2. African Guardian | (Weekly newsmagazine - Lagos) |
| 3. Tell | (Weekly newsmagazine - Lagos) |
| 4. African Concord | (Weekly newsmagazine - Lagos) |
| 5. Classique | (Weekly newsmagazine - Lagos) |
| 6. Hints | (Weekly newsmagazine - Lagos) |
| 7. Prime People | (Weekly newsmagazine - Lagos) |
| 8. Vintage People | (Weekly newsmagazine - Lagos) |
| 9. This Week | (Weekly newsmagazine - Lagos) |
| 10. West Africa | (Weekly newsmagazine - Lagos) |

THE ROLE OF BIBLIOTHERAPY IN ADJUSTIVE BEHAVIOUR OF THE HANDICAPPED IN A DEVELOPING COUNTRY

INTRODUCTION

Books are principal sources of cognition, information and intellectual growth. "One cannot imagine how the importance of books in a man's life can be exaggerated, especially in the life of the handicapped. A book has the power to mean something to each individual, to make an intimate unit out of those who read it together, even if one of them is still too young to do more than listen. A book also has the power to establish from generation to generation, a continuity of common reference. The book, undoubtedly, has the intrinsic characteristics that has healed the depressed minds, sick or lost souls and the infirm or unsteady bodies. "Thus, the nourishment of the body is carried forward through stage. For the handicapped life could be a wioned adventure, but book therapy has always proved efficacious in making the handicapped to "Rise up and walk" and become a successful and integrated member of the community.

The Need for Bibliotherapy Programmes

In Nigeria the cultural and social factors have tended to further maginalize the handicapped in the society. Consequently, the handicapped has been forced into developing negative self-concept. This has further dampen, to a great extent, the spirit of sizing up for competition in the society by the handicapped.

Bibliotherapy programmes if developed and carefully applied can be a saving grace in the release of hitherto excapsulated creative energies of the handicapped.

The approach in the use of bibliotherapy in building national human resources should as a matter of necessity be institutionalized through central polcies from the national Government and implemented by different social and religious organizations and particularly by specialized institutions.

Books have the characteristics to influence human behaviour and can be used to bring about a particularly desired behaviour through pre-determined reading programmes. The concept of behaviour therapy is a conscious theme here: "Behaviour, usually from undesirable to desirable forms. It is based on the notion that many psychological abnormalities result from unfortunate processes of conditioning (classical or operant) through the process of barning, which may be unconscious and involuntary (i.e) classical conditioning) or otherwise entails self-activity or conscious, voluntary and personal effort (i.t. operant conditioning), the individual may come to have mala-daptive or undesirable behaviour which could handicap him in many ways. The handicapped lives through emotional problems resulting from the very state of his physical disposition and the burden heaped on him by his immediate (here) and the longer environments which is the entire community. In some countries, adequate provisions

are made available to the handicapped to properly make him become an active member of his society. It is common place that the handicapped is ignored, rejected and avoided as a plague.

Bibliotherapy is a deliberate and formal use of selected reading materials as reading therapy, or as aid in remodelling emotional, behavioural and other personality problems. It is a programme of directed readings designed to enhance the patient's understanding of himself, to provide a border range of emotional experience, and to widen his cultural horizon. The practice of bibliotherapy, through originated from theories and research findings in learning, is essentially based on well found beliefs in the power of the written or printed word. It is also based on the strong belief in the capacity of all forms of written or printed materials, especially literary works of various genres, to substantially, influence, modify or change human emotions, attitudes, character, and so forth, in short to influence human behaviour generally.

Editors usually trace the practice of bibliotherapy to that era and society. Books have been used ever since as primary sources of entertainment, instruction, and healing. In their view Bibliotherapy means guided reading that helps individual gain understandings of the self and environment, learn from others, or find solutions to problems. It consists of three fundamental processes between readers and literature: identification, catharsis, and insight. It is through those processes that books make the handicapped "Stand up and Work". Studies conducted concerning the effectiveness of book therapy (bibliotherapy) on academic achievement, assertiveness, attitude change, behavioural change, fear reduction, helper on activeness, marital and couple accord, self concept, self-development, and therapeutic gain have shown it has come of significant effects.

Based on the results of those research studies, the following are implications for using bibliotherapy as an adjunct to counselling.

- (a) Bibliotherapy might be useful to counsellors and therapists in their work with individuals and groups.
- (b) Bibliotherapy might be useful to school counsellors and teachers who wish to tap the benefits of guided reading for guidance or instructional purposes.
- (c) Counsellors should be aware that positive recommendations of the value of bibliotherapy exceed available documentation of its usefulness.

Effects of Handicap on the Development of an Individual

During the first five years of life, children develop rapidly intellectually, emotionally and physically. In those early years children are able to control their bodies. They also learn to play, talk, walk, understand their environment and establish relationships with parents and friends. But when a child is born with a handicap or acquires one later, his development is generally impeded in many ways.

Suspicion of the capabilities of a handicapped person can only be overcome by knowledge, especially on the part of the community in which the handicapped person gradually develops.

A handicapped person could suffer from any of the well recognised categories of handicap existing today. Visual impairment, physical deformity, learning disability, emotional instability and giftedness. If any of these handicapping conditions strike

an individual at an early age, or during the post adolescent and adult period, there is the tendency that the person would definitely face some general thought provoking and problem solving challenges. The individual does not realize this situation at an early age, but very much in life.

Some of the pressures a person with an handicapping condition could have to suffer includes: emotional instability, anachronistic attitude of the public, traumatic events, depression, temporary inconveniences, academic deprivation, inadequate equipment and improper training facilities, etc.

THE THERAPEUTIC VALUES OF BOOKS FOR THE HANDICAPPED

As noted in the foregoing discussion, Literature presents situations, interactions and oppositions. It suggest a spectrum of value, of attitudes, but it rarely hands down formulated judgements and conclusions. The reader not only enters into experience of the action and characters as it unfolds, but he is also left to his own conclusions and evaluation of that experience, of its truthfulness and relevance to real life. In this way they can "pattern the world for the individual; they can define for the individual his own position in relation to other members of the society, and they help the individual to adapt successfully to his environment. Books can perform these functions because they serve the society as mediators, as property, as makers of atmosphere, and as builders of the inner resources. Books serve as mediators or intermediaries between the individual as he is and what he is to become, and between the individual and his human, non-human, and ideational environment; Books as property can provide a common frame of reference for all the members of a society. In this way the contents of books can be a common group community or national conscience, for instance, the Chinese Red Book and Libyan Green Revolution; Books as Makers of an atmosphere - In any home in which a good book is entertained within an intimate atmosphere of love and honour the book itself enters into a series of significant alliances with elements which contributes to a sound growth human character; and books as builder of inner resource help build the individual inner resource, because reading of books is bound to influence our lives, our attitude to people, situations and event as well as our moral sensibilities. Through reading the handicapped can share vicarious experiences, learn new ways, gain deeper and greater insight into various problems situations, learn more about the world and their immediate environments and its people, problems, aspirations among other things.

Through this process "bibliotherapy" or reading therapy as a form of behaviour therapy, can be used in solving several emotional problems among the handicapped. When combined in appropriate measure with direct experience, the book is an *ally of creative imagination*.

Bibliotherapy have also been found to be particularly effective with the gifted children. This consists of providing well-chosen books to the gifted learners to increase their self-knowledge and self-esteem and find relief from personal conflicts. The books should be carefully and relevantly selected to reflect the children's needs, interests and ability.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Human beings face different handicaps which in some cases defy medical treatment but some which at times when treated leave dehumanizing impact on the person. Through bibliotherapeutic treatment the human mind can literally "stand up and walk in bright day light". Against this background the following recommendations are made:

- (1) a national book policy should enhance the publishing of relevant books for use in bibliotherapy programmes especially those suitable to handicapped.
- (2) a national development of awareness in the use of book in solving behaviour problems should be pursued vigorously in post secondary schools especially in teacher training colleges and other similar institutions.
- (3) Publishers should accept the publishing of suitable bibliotherapeutic materials for the handicapped as a cultural rather than business enterprise.
- (4) for effective bibliotherapeutic programmes to be accomplished, there is the need to train bibliotherapists for this purpose.
- (5) Librarians, especially educators and guidance and counsellors and publishers should collaborate not only in the production of relevant materials but in the development and sustenance of curricula for bibliotherapy in relevant institutions.
- (6) Librarians should take the mantle of compiling an annotated bibliography on books for handicapped children.

CONCLUSION

Handicap affects one irrespective of the type of handicap and degree. The handicapped children or person are less well adjusted to their handicap. They show insecurity, suspicion and over-compensation and are constantly depressed, withdrawn and live in a world of their own. This situation calls for attention to how handicapped individual can get out, reach out, and come to terms with his handicap. Music and books reading are effectively used especially in educating children with handicap.

Book reading is a sensible and reasonable pursuit because it brings a reality of delight which moves one from where he is to when he has never been. Bibliotherapy, does not serve only as a therapeutic strategy which brings handicapped persons out of their shells but has come as a major source of relaxation for the handicapped and normal persons.

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- *Dr. C. O. Abosi, Senior Lecturer, Department of Educational Foundations, University of Botswana. and
- *O. A. Okwilagwe, Lecturer, Department of Library, Archival and Information Studies, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

BOOK REVIEW

The state of the Modern Information Professional 1992-1993: An International View of the State of the Information Professional and the Information Profession in 1992-1993. Compiled by the FID Special Interest Group on Roles, Careers and Development of the Modern Information Professional (FID/MIP). The Hague, Netherlands: International Federation for Information and Documentation (FID), 1992. 175. NLG 90 (FID Members: NLG 67.50).

In the preface of this volume it is stated that the first edition of the *State of the Modern Information Professional*, is a snapshot of the modern information professional from each region of the world and covers many aspects of the information field," (p.i). The book consists of three sections and is largely a collection of papers authored by various information professionals. There is also an excellent introduction to the volume by Barbie E. Keiser, Chair FID/MIP. The introduction presents a good overview of what the collection of fourteen papers are about. The papers illustrate how nations around the world have chosen to address information issues, covering such aspects as education and training, employment environs, global and regional orientation among others.

The first section contains all contributed papers except one. The contributions which are of varying quality are quite informative on the information professional in the different regions of the world, including Latin America and the Caribbean, North America, Europe, Asia and Africa. They provide useful regional comparison between and among regions of the world. The peculiarities in the least industrialized, newly industrializing and industrialised societies again come to light. While the least industrialized societies are bugged down with their usual problems of budget limitations, non-recognition of the role of information by policy makers, low student demand and low professional status the newly industrializing ones are breaking new grounds and expanding the profession rapidly. As is well known the industrialised societies are in the leading edge of information technology. The contributions which are in this section are grouped regionally and are:

Latin America and The Caribbean

Aida Damas Anton and Mercedes Santana de Arenas (Venezuela), *Perfil del profesional de la informacion en Venezuela*; Daphne Douglas (Jamaica), *The MIP in the Caribbean setting*; Sue Evan-Wong (West Indies), *Development of information professionals and paraprofessionals in the organization of eastern caribbean states, with special reference to the Commonwealth of Dominica*; Iraset Paez-Urdaneta (Venezuela), *In search of new information professional for Latin America*.

North America

Alice Sizer Warner (USA), *Information intrapreneuring and entrepreneuring*.

Europe

Jens Christensen (Denmark), *The information professional in Denmark*; Merja Karivalo and Ritva Launo (Finland), *The great variety of roles and careers for modern information professionals in Finland*; Gyorgy Rozsa (Hungary), *Information policy in new circumstances in the region of Central and Eastern Europe, with special regard to Hungary*; Elisabeth Simon (Germany), *Education and training as a key to professional success*.

Asia and Oceania

Leigh Baker (Australia), *Darwinism extremes: evolution for survival (a new breed of information professionals for the 21st century)*; Raja Abdullah Yaacob and Laili bin Hashim (Malaysia) *Information professionals in Malaysia: roles, careers and development*.

Africa

Mamosi N. Lelo (Morocco), *Information professional: agent of cultural preservation and development in Africa*; Olivier Sagna (Senegal), *Roles, carriers et perspectives du professionnel de l'information de demain en Afrique subsaharienne francophone*.

I particularly found the paper by Alice Sizer Warner (USA) and Leigh Baker (Australia) very stimulating. Warner observes that "more librarians and information specialists are becoming entrepreneurs, selling all manner of library/information services to clients and customers", and she advocates that "those who teach library and information science must help prepare students for possibilities of intrapreneurship" (P.16). Leigh Baker succinctly presents the traditional and non-traditional information professional and gives the direction for survival. The other contributors also stress the importance of going beyond the traditional roles and responsibilities of the librarian, archivist, records manager, and documentalist, and what is required in the way of education and national information policy to achieve this.

The second section, captioned *New directions, New needs* consists of a paper by Michael Hill titled *The changing information society: changing the information professional*. Hill maintains that "there is real need in an information society for a new profession which can help organizations of all types harness the information technologies to enable them to extract the maximum benefit from information, information resources and the management and manipulation of information". And in his view, the education programme should be to creating an information profession to meet the needs of the 1990s and beyond. He says that taking people from other disciplines and taking on a one year course in information techniques is no longer adequate. He recommends that "full three year degree courses in information studies, of a standard which stretches the mind every bit as much as those in law or in PPE (politics, philosophy and economics), followed by one or two years training in the techniques listed by Karivalo, should be the normal requirement for admission to the profession."

Lastly, section comprises autobiographical sketches. The contributors have good understanding of developments in their various terrains. The level of the authors writing skills varies; and where a contribution is in a language other than English a synopsis is provided.

Being the first edition more effort should have been put into eliminating the numerous punctuation, spelling and typographical errors in the volume. Though a

minus to the publication, these errors do not affect the wealth of information provided in the publication. I share the view of the Executive Director of FID that the publication is a must for all those involved in the information profession — whether working as information professionals, educators, policy-makers, and all others with a stake in the information field.

Felix N. Ubogu

University of Botswana Library

SPOTLIGHT ON INFO AFRICA NOVA

INFO AFRICA NOVA is an independent and non-government enterprise which was started in 1991 in the field of library and information services of Southern Africa based in Pretoria, South Africa.

INFO AFRICA NOVA has an Afrocentric approach and aims to facilitate the interpretation and analysis of problems and challenges in library and information services and training in order to increase innovation and creation of indigenous solutions and answers which are relevant to our unique situation in Southern Africa specifically and Africa in general.

Our objectives with the above aim are the following:

To support the development of self-reliance and pride in our African identity amongst our people who for centuries have been oppressed and then convinced that they always have to look elsewhere than Africa for models and solutions to address indigenous challenges.

To open the borders between South Africa and the rest of Africa for two-way traffic of library and information professionals.

To support development of indigenous infrastructures and sources in the fields of information and education, including publishing.

The extent of our success in the above objectives will result in more effective and suitable information services to people of all the levels of our society.

Ways and means of pursuing the above objectives:

INFO AFRICA NOVA creates forums where information workers and specialists from all over Africa can get together to discuss mutual and specific problems and possible solutions in the field of library and information services and education in the Southern African Region specifically and in Africa in general. We believe in our motto: *Ex Africa Semper Aliquid Novi*/ Out of Africa always something new, and we believe our solutions should come from Africa and that is the reason why INFO AFRICA NOVA conferences always try to invite the experts from Africa to speak at conferences. Under exceptional circumstances we invite a person like Phyllis Bischoff who is steeped in her knowledge and experience of publishing in Africa and who has a real affinity for our problems. The idea is to bring together people from the different African countries to address our indigenous challenges in order to solve first some and then even more of Africa's information problems. The reason for this being we have to look inwards because there is so much to learn from each other in Africa without always having to stand on the periphery of the European and Western experience. By pooling this vast source of knowledge and experience in the *model of think-tanks and contributions during the different sessions* at INFO AFRICA NOVA conferences we can generate our own ideas and solutions for our indigenous challenges and really get ahead with development of our own solutions. INFO AFRICA NOVA conferences will in future be more and more according to the *model of think-tanks case*

studies and discussions and less of academic exercises. For this reason we always try to have continuous themes which connect the consecutive conferences to enable us to evaluate the progress that we have made.

The conferences also provide young librarians and information specialists/workers/lecturers to present their topics and viewpoints to an international audience and enable them to share their ideas and grow in experience through contact with international speakers from other African countries. This is especially the case for many South Africans who lack isolation which we have experienced in this country and also because of the social structure which denied many the opportunity to prove their abilities in professional circles.

INFO AFRICA NOVA promotes and supports persons in library and information services right down to the grass-roots level who are addressing our unique configuration of information needs.

By all these activities we aim to address the information needs of our people from first world to third world level and help them to progress in development and sustain the levels of development which have already been attained.

Activities of INFO AFRICA NOVA:

Apart from organising the annual INFO AFRICA NOVA conferences. We also publish the Proceedings of the conference.

Currently INFO AFRICA NOVA is compiling a WHO'S WHO IN LIBRARY AND INFORMATION SERVICES OF SOUTHERN AFRICA which will be available by the end of September 1993. We hope to address a worldwide need to publicise the persons in library and information services of Southern Africa.

Africa is experiencing great problem in the field of publishing and to support publishing efforts in Africa. INFO AFRICA NOVA would like to support the creation of networks and infrastructures in Southern Africa specifically and Africa in general. INFO AFRICA NOVA already supports the publishing effort in Africa by serving as a marketing outlet for African publishers locally and abroad. Publishers and booksellers in Africa are therefore invited to contact us in this respect.

Future Role of INFO AFRICA

INFO AFRICA NOVA's future role will continue as information facilitator by means of conferences reference sources, marketing efforts, etc. to support development and progress of all people of Southern Africa specifically and Africa general.

Specific Objectives:

- *Initiate and organize conferences in the fields of Information Services. Publishing and Education
- *Create information sources regarding Southern Africa and Africa
- *Facilitate exchange schemes for students, information workers/lecturers
- *Research and rendering of assistance with research (including co-operative research) specifically in the field of Human Resources.

Current Range of Information Products and Services

The current products range from initiating and organising of conferences, publishing of proceedings, creation of reference works, marketing of publications and other services such as consultation regarding the development of database in the fields of information science, publishing and education.

TRUDIE COETZER

PERSONALITY INTERVIEW WITH MRS. HELEN KAY RASEROKA THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIAN OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BOTSWANA AND THE SECRETARY OF IFLA (AFRICA SECTION)



MRS. HELEN KAY RASEROKA Committee for Africa Section in 1987, Regional representative in COMLA from 1986 - 1988, Chairperson, Standing Conference for Eastern, Central and Southern African Librarians and she is currently the secretary of IFLA (Africa Section). She was a member of the Editorial Board of *Information Development* for eight years (1984 - 1992). She was for many years the Chairperson of Botswana Library Association. Mrs. Raseroka has been involved in several consultancies and she has many publications to her credit. She is also actively involved in women organisations. It is our pleasure to interview Mrs. Raseroka on a number of topical issues especially her university library which has been judged by many users from different countries as one of the best this continent can boast of.

The University of Botswana Library is regarded as one of the best university libraries in Africa in terms of its services and resources. How long did it take you to get to this stage?

Mrs. Helen Kay Raseroka is the first female university librarian to appear in our personality slot. Mrs. Raseroka a versatile, intelligent and hardworking librarian obtained B.Sc. from the University of South Africa in 1970. She obtained both the lower diploma and higher diploma in librarianship from the same university in 1970 and 1972 respectively. In 1978 she obtained the Masters of Arts in library studies from the University College London. Mrs. Raseroka has been working at the University of Botswana Library since 1969 where she started her career. She rose to become the University Librarian in 1981, a post she currently holds. Mrs. Raseroka has attended numerous conferences, seminars and workshops in various parts of the world. She is actively involved in the profession. She was a member of IFLA Standing

The resources of the library have been built on a very good foundation laid after 1975 when the institution was the University College of Botswana. The break up of the trinational University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland in 1975 galvanised the nation of Botswana to contribute finances to build the University College to be an adequately institution of higher education which would meet the crucial human resource needs of the country.

Library needs were many and glaring. Although a new purpose built Library had been completed, it was inadequate for the sudden increase in student intake forced by break up of the University. Where the Botswana campus had taught the first and second year courses in select degrees, it had to offer a four year degree across all disciplines of the humanities, science, education and social sciences almost overnight.

The implications of the above for the quality and quantity of library resources to support, not only undergraduate programmes, but also academic staff research, were not lost on the University Administration and the Library.

The development of resources and services has been largely due to a commitment of Library Staff and continuous support by University management over the last twelve years.

The organisational structure of your library is based on subject specialisation. How successful have you been in this area? Are your readers satisfied with this approach?

The organisational structure of subject specialisation depends for its success on good communication among librarians, academic staff and students. This means that the numbers of subject librarians should be such that they are able to initiate, maintain interaction with their clients fairly regularly. This enables them to interpret the needs as expressed or as implied by curricula, departmental research and assignment programmes through the collection building which is closely linked to intellectual challenges of programmes. The Library subject specialisation programme has evolved over time.

Success in computerisation of the library collection processing services has enhanced targeted productivity of subject librarians. Services based on research profiles of clients are now being produced. Under the manual system, such a service was time consuming and hence was done as isolated research activity rather than a regular service, which is being developed now, thanks to the contribution of library technology.

Indications are that readers are satisfied, but are already asking for more personalised service. This will be possible as soon as the hardware installation is complete and facilitates full implementation of the Library automation plans.

You have been planning to automate your library services for some time now. How far have you gone with automation?

A little background information would be useful here. We acquired the TINLIB software package in 1991 and it is installed on the University ICL DRS 6000 minicomputers, which is in a network. TINLIB is an integrated library and information management system with various modules, including cataloguing, conversion, interlibrary

loans, import-export, and communications. There was a major problem with the computers and we could not use them for about six months. This, naturally, appreciably delayed the implementation of the project, coupled with the fact that computer literacy level was then pretty low. In 1992, more professionals joined the library staff, and some of them had an appreciable knowledge of computers as well as experience of automated library environments. We were therefore able to revamp our Library Automation Team, and intensified in-house staff training. We also proceeded with the definition of the data elements of the fields within the database structure and the production of relevant documentation. We also planned for the application of appropriate authority control for name, series, and subject. These processes took considerable time and painstaking efforts. A few of the activities in this regard involved.

- numerous contacts with persons/bodies for clarification of contentious issues on TINLIB fields;
- study of various literature; and
- interpretation of various MARC formats (SAMARC, LCMARC, CDMARC) that enabled accurate and intelligent mapping of various specifications for profiles.

The following profiles for the import and export of records have been developed to date:

- profile to convert Blackwell records to TINLIB
- profile to convert SABINET records to TINLIB
- profile to export TINLIB records to SABINET
- profile to provide an interface with ITS student and personnel records
- profile to import only the Library of Congress CDMARC Subject terms which are connected to documents in the TINLIB database (added at a later stage).

With effect from June 1993 we started cataloguing online after loading MARC records of some of our holdings into the system. All cataloguing is now done online, and we have begun generating our current awareness services from the database.

Our acquisition system has also gone live and we generate our orders from the system. As soon as we have terminals in place circulation control and interlibrary loans would also go live.

Lastly I should add that we use other information technologies including CD-ROMS, electronic mail, etc.

Many librarians in Botswana have criticised your policy of not recruiting librarians without a background in another subject, that is, a first degree in another discipline, why is this so? What can be done to accommodate librarians without a subject background in your library:

The University of Botswana Library policy is to recruit library professionals who have a basic degree in a subject discipline and a postgraduate professional qualification. The rationale of this policy is that a qualification in a subject discipline facilitates better interaction with the academic community which librarians serve. Further the postgraduate professional qualification, with its emphasis on philosophy, theoretical approaches to knowledge is received at a time when it can reinforce and encourage a critical analytical approach (received through the first degree) to practice of a profes-

sion which is undergoing rapid change and requires flexible and contextual rather than rigid application of rules and standards. Academic librarianship demands constant analysis of curricula and clientele needs which vary not only among courses, but also among cohorts. The interpretation of needs in the form of services (be they in a reference enquiry or collection development) is the core job description of all professional staff of the University of Botswana.

There have been criticisms against this policy, mainly because it has been seen as being restrictive against those who have elected a different route to librarianship. There are openings where such qualifications are acceptable and provide a good base for service. The University of Botswana, however, cannot accommodate librarians without a subject background at present.

You are one of the pillars of librarianship in Southern Africa, why is it that librarianship is not very popular in Botswana? I understand the number of Botswana professional librarians is less than 30. What exactly is the problem with librarianship in Southern Africa?

The number of Botswana professional librarians is less than thirty. Botswana has a population of approximately 1.5 million people. At independence, in 1966, there were very few Botswana graduates. Hence human resource development for administering the country was the priority of government as well as provide professionals in every field. Librarianship as a profession was relatively "unknown" if compared to teaching, nursing for example. Thus there were neither role models and no training facilities for librarianship within Botswana. Considering the acute shortage of human resources in all fields, it is understandable that those which were least understood would attract fewer candidates. Further those who worked in libraries tended to look upon library work as a job rather than a consciously selected career.

It is not until the Department of Library Studies was established that the "rewards" of working in a library became appreciated as providing opportunity for a career path. Unfortunately the strategy of establishing non-graduate certificate and diploma qualifications first, has contributed to the slow pace of development of librarianship as a profession, in Botswana. With the introduction of the Masters level in library and information studies, the image and status of librarianship might be seen to favourably with other professions.

In other parts of Africa, there are more male librarians than female librarians, why is reverse the case in Botswana?

One might argue that there are more female librarians in Botswana because it is in keeping with the ratio between females and males in Botswana's population. This argument, however, is not supported by statistics in other professions such as medicine, engineering, law etc. One, however observes that there are more women in the nursing and teaching fields as well as other service professions. It might be argued that because librarianship is a service profession it therefore attracts the sex which is characterised as being nurturing and is thus in line with comparable professions cited above.

You have been very much involved in Village Reading Rooms project in Botswana. How far is this project now?

The Village Reading Rooms (VRR) project in Botswana is still in existence. It is a joint project between the Department of Non Formal Education (DNFE) which is responsible for literacy and the Botswana National Library Services (BNLS) which is responsible for equipping the VRR. The communities served by the VRRs determine the location of the VRR. It is usual for cooperative programmes to have teething problems which can be overcome only through commitment to common goals by all involved parties. The VRRs have experienced some of these which are related to the use of the VRR and its supervision by readers assistants and the relationship between the host institutions of the VRR and the readers assistants. Management of both institutions DNFE and BNLS are seeking ways of resolving different perspectives and build understanding for the goals of the service. An interesting feature has been the use of the VRR's in some areas for community activities which does not fall within the scope the traditional reading room e.g. concerts. Yet this development is one which needs to be encouraged and explored as a possible vehicle for and contribution to community empowerment in the form of initiative and revenue rather than be stifled on the grounds of it being outside the scope of VRR activity.

It is hoped that the VRR experience will be shared with the participants of the Africa Section's Pan African seminar on Information Provision to Rural Communities in Africa planned for May 1994 in Botswana.

As the Secretary of IFLA (Africa Section), how much efforts have you put in to make IFLA popular with library associations in Southern Africa?

As the Secretary of IFLA (Africa Section) I have been concerned about creating awareness amongst library associations in both Southern Africa and West Africa, on IFLA and its activities; we have communicated with representatives of library associations, whenever possible, at regional conferences the Term, the structure of IFLA and the role of the African Section programme activities and the possibility for funding of project falling within the Medium Term objectives and as proposed by Africans from the sub-regions.

In discussing the ways in which the region can participate effectively in IFLA in its objective toward assisting library development in Africa, it has been recognised that the biggest hurdle facing African Library Associations is the cost of Membership dues which are payable in scarce foreign exchange. Membership to IFLA is encouraged for Associations to participate, contribute and benefit fully. Library Associations, UNESCO unable to raise for the required foreign exchange may use coupons which are an acceptable currency for payment of membership dues.

Recently, the Africa Section has established a forum of bringing together African participants at IFLA Conferences, as a means of soliciting inputs on a wide range of subjects which concern Africans. The informal discussions have been a useful, but limited way, for exchange of ideas which encourage meaningful participation in IFLA activities and encourage development of relevant projects, publishes activities of the section and solicits news and articles from African professionals. This Newsletter is

distributed free to all African Library Associations regardless of their standing as IFLA members. It is hoped that the Newsletter is disseminated widely to individuals.

A trend is emerging in university libraries in Africa where the position of the university librarian is no longer a career position. It first started in Tanzania where this position is rotated among senior librarians of a university library. In a recent move in Nigeria, the incumbent is only given a five year term which is renewable only once. Do you think it augurs well for the profession?

The emerging trend in African university libraries for the management of the library to rotate or for the position of director to an elected office has to be understood within the context of the politics of African academic librarianship. Factors which have contributed to this move are the status of university library staff in relation to that of their teaching colleagues or faculty; the lack of mobility amongst academic librarians within the broader professional sphere which has resulted in a high concentration of well qualified staff but without limited opportunities for upward mobility; the close range of ages and expertise among librarians working in the academic arena.

Ideally librarians who work in university systems would wish to have status equivalent to that of faculty and have similar rights and obligations for the attainment and retention of their academic status. The problem has been the lack of tradition and therefore reluctance by University administrators to accord librarians these rights and obligations including equivalent requisite staff development either in librarianship or related fields or in the subject areas. The status of librarians, particularly in East and Southern Africa has been caused to vacillate from full academic to administrative to an in between position such as being entitled to terms and conditions pertaining to academics but not the remuneration or vice versa.

In response, librarians have sought to "prove" their academic capabilities by attaining PhDs, publishing extensively and by seeking to alter the management ethos of university libraries to be comparable to that of vice chancellor and deanship, the senior most positions within university academic bureaucracy.

Whilst change of the management tradition of university libraries might be beneficial for individual persons and the morale of the library staff, the most important question which begs an answer is whether the library as service organisation benefits or not. Library planning and administration cycles from proposal to implementation take a long time simply because of lengthy consultation, negotiation among various constituencies who may act in concert or separately. The library manager has to establish working relationships with constituencies and the leadership of the university to facilitate access to finances which are crucial for the quality of collection, service and staff. Since the library manager does not occupy a position of authority but a collegial position, the negotiation base is influenced not only by the academic standing but also by a thorough understanding of the stake holders, the politics of the institution and tradition. A time when competition for finances is the single most challenging activity for all departments in a university environment, the library whose cost benefit is not easily identified needs experienced managers who have well established networks. If election or rotation of directors of libraries can also provide leadership with these skill

regularly, then it is an acceptable innovation.

The process of criteria for election would have to be clearly defined to avoid the "political rally" mentality which sometimes mars the election process in academia. The size of library staff qualified to stand for election, when compared to that of academics in the case of deans, might be at issue which would need to be considered before the system is adopted. Any abuse of the system would have far reaching implications for efficiency, professionalism and status of librarians as a group.

Where the position is advertised and the incumbents hold the position for a maximum of two terms, one can only wish any library system well in terms of internal continuity, nurturance of the team spirit and the successful negotiation of political, administrative structures and hidden networks for the advancement of the library's programme and services to staff and students.

What do you think the information professions will look like in Southern Africa in general, and in Botswana in particular in the year 2000?

Year 2000 is seven years from today. The greatest challenge which faces libraries is the lack of financial resources which are necessary for sustaining services and developing new initiatives which are based on clientele needs. The information professions will be divided into two major groups those who are unwilling to exploit institutional strengths for advancement and those who are innovative and use available resources for either obtaining funding or networking with leaders in the field for the benefit of their programmes, and services.

The information profession will be actively involved in market research as part of their routine if it is to justify and sustain its services and programmes.

The influence of technology will be acutely felt by the information professions. It is usually said the cost of hardware and software poses a serious financial problem for Southern Africa. Unless there is a commitment toward the provision of a local capacity for maintenance of existing equipment, Southern Africa will be unable to link up and benefit from technology based information networks accessible through SABINET and UNINET. The information professions in Southern Africa will thus be affected by technology advance and maintenance capacity on one side and the urgency to meet the information needs for diverse populations through various communication media: literacy, oracy, aurally visually and a combination of all these.

PROFESSIONAL NEWS AND EVENTS

NEWS

Librarian Elected into Parliament

Mr. Kosi Kedem, a librarian at Balme Library, University of Ghana has recently been elected into the parliament in Ghana on the platform of the National Democratic Congress. Mr. Kedem is currently on the leave of absence from the University of Ghana. We wish Mr. Kedem a successful tenure.

First set of Bachelors in Library and Information Studies Graduates produced in Botswana

Six students recently completed the Bachelors in Library and Information Studies Programmes at the University of Botswana. They had previously obtained the diploma in Library and Information Studies from the University with good grades and had served in various libraries for many years before they were admitted for the bachelors programme. Three of the students are from Botswana while the remaining three are from Zwaziland.

The position of university librarian is no longer a career position in Nigeria

The position of the university librarian in Nigerian universities is no longer permanent. The position is now for a contract term of five years which is renewable only once. This is similar to the situation in Tanzania where the position is rotated among senior librarians in the University Library. It is not known whether the Tanzania system will be adopted in Nigeria or the incumbent will be expected to leave the university library system after termination of his contract. However the term "univeristy librarian" is still retained unlike in Tanzania where the term "director" has been adopted.

Proposed Library Studies Programme at National Univeristy of Science and Technology, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe Suspended.

It will be recalled that in the issue of Volume 2, Number 1 under the News section, it was reported that a new library school had been established in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. The first set of students was expected to start the programme at the beginning of the 1992/93 session. Even though positions of lecturers and professors were advertised, the school has not been able to take off because of acute accommodation shortage in Bulawayo which has resulted in the University suspending many of its advertised programmes including library studies. However efforts are being made to solve this problem and as soon as it is over the Department will take off.

Consortium of African Information Science Schools Planned

A consortium of principal information science schools consisting of Africa Regional Centre for Information science, (ARCIS) University of Ibadan, Nigeria, School for Information Studies for Africa, (SISA) Addis—Ababa University, Ethiopia and the Department of Library and Information Studies, University of Botswana is being proposed. This project is being facilitated by the International Development Research Council (IDRC) of Canada. The main objective of the Consortium will be among others, the rationalization of information science education and training in Africa, co-operation in curriculum design, development of a regional programme for continuing education staff exchange, etc. The Heads of the three schools met in Spain last year to discuss the modality of the Consortium.

FORTHCOMING INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES, SEMINARS AND WORKSHOPS

November 8 – 10, 1993 Kampala, Uganda and November 10 – 11, 1993 Nairobi, Kenya – Conference on Environmental Information Management for Sustainable Development. The Conference is jointly sponsored by the Special Interest Group on Environmental Information (SIG/EI) of FID and the Regional Commission for Western, Eastern and Southern Africa (FID/CAF). The sub-themes include; Policy, Management and Educational Aspects of Environmental Information Resources (Kampala)

Scientific and Technical Aspects of Environmental Information (Nairobi)

For further information contact Kenya National Library Services Office, P.O. Box 30573 Nairobi, Kenya and Director, NIS Office, Uganda Management Institute, P.O.Box 20181, Lugogo, Uganda.

November 10 – 12, 1993 Bonn, Germany. International Symposium on Information Technologies in Agriculture. The Symposium covers: general information policy; bibliographic databases and information systems; factual databases and information systems; electronic networking and multi media applications. Organised by the International Association of Agricultural Specialists (IAALD), Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Co-operation (CIA) and Zentralstelle für Agrardokumentation und Information (ZADI). For further information contact:

Dr. Eberhard Munch – ZADI, P. O. Box 201415, D-53144 Bonn2, Germany. Tel. (49) – 228-954 – 8117; Fax (49) – 228 – 954 – 8149.

December 13 – 15 1993, Amsterdam, Netherlands First International Conference on Grey Literature. The session themes are: The Producers of Grey Literature, Information Networks and The supply and Demand of Grey Literature. The Conference is jointly sponsored by the European Association for Grey Literature Exploitation, The Hague, Netherlands, Japan Information Center for Science and Technology, Tokyo, Japan and the National Technical Information Service, Springfield, VA, United States of America. For further Information contact GL '93 TransAtlantic, Koninginneweg 201, 1075 CR Amsterdam – The Netherlands.

REPORTS OF CONFERENCES AND WORKSHOPS

Info Africa Nova Conference, Pretoria, South Africa, 3 – 7 May, 1993 – An international Conference on Library and Information Services was held in Pretoria, South Africa. The one week conference was sponsored by Info Africa Nova, an information consultancy organisation based in South Africa. Over 300 librarians, information scientists documentalists, archivists and publishers from Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe, the United Kingdom and the United States of America attended the Conference. The key Note Address was given by Mr. Kingo Mchombu, a Lecturer in the Department of Library and Information Studies, University of Botswana. The theme of the Plenary Session was "African Librarianship: Quo Vadis?"

Training of Trainers Workshop, Gaborone, Botswana 27 June – 9 July, 1993 – The two week workshop had the objectives of equipping trainers with the necessary skills to carry out continuing education, building capacity for designing effective continuing education and to train trainers to train other trainers. The workshop was jointly sponsored by the German Foundation for international development (DSE) and the Department of Library and Information Studies, University of Botswana. The 14 participants which included library school lecturers, librarians from national, university and special libraries including top officials of library associations came from Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

ABSTRACTS OF SELECTED PROFESSIONAL LITERATURE PUBLISHED IN AFRICA' 1992 – 1993

Archival Conservation

Kufa, J.C. (1992) Guidelines for setting up a Conservation Workshop in a Developing Country. *ESARBICA Journal*, 13 60 – 65. The paper examines the requirements for a conservation workshop. Prominent among the requirements listed are a full-time professional conservator who should be adept in binding work, filing, guarding as well as skills in microfilming; a good accommodation with a minimum space requirements of 600 sq. ft.; repair equipment and materials used for repair.

Library Development

Tali, Maria da Conceicao (1992) Factors which Affect the Development of Libraries in Angola. *Information Trends*, 5 (3) 93 – 96.

The paper identifies illiteracy, lack of manpower, inadequate funding and accommodation, minimal co-operation between libraries as the major problems facing library development in Angola. It concludes that the future of libraries in Angola will depend on whether or not, information is recognised as a crucial resource necessary for sustaining development.

on whether or not, information is recognised as a crucial resource necessary for sustaining development.

Totemeyer, Andree Jeane (1992) Developments on the Library and Information

Scene in Namibia. *Information Trends*, 5 (3) 109 -114. The paper discusses the agents of library development in Namibia. The prominent agent being the Namibia Information workers Assosiation (NIWA), which has played a leading role in library development in Namibia. It mentions its acceptance as a member of IFLA, COMLA and SECSAL. Other agents mentioned are the Department of Library and Information Science of the University of Namibia which trains only para professional and professional school librarians in the form of introductory and advanced courses on school librarianship as part of the basic 3 & 4 year teacher training programmes. The Department's involvement in services to the information society at large is also discussed. The paper also discusses the role of public libraries, university library, special libraries and the Namibian Children's Book Forum (NCBF).

Records Management

Chirwa, D. P. G. (1993) Malawi's approach to Records Management *ESARBICA Journal*, 13 38 - 45.

The paper examines how records are created without any pre-conceived plan and discusses the procedure for storing them which involves putting them in open racks and steel shelving in the registry or room within the premises of the government agency. The records are then disposed by sending them to the National Archives Records Centre five years after closure, where they are accessioned, sorted, assigned into record groups by date (year) of last use, listed, boxed, labelled, located and finally shelved.

LIST OF JOURNALS ABSTRACTED

Eastern and Southern African Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ESARBICA) Journal (Editor, Justin M. Wamukoya, Department of Archives and Management Records, Moi University, P. O. Box 3900, Eldoret, Kenya).

Information Trends (Editor : Kingo Mchombu and Richard Neill, Department of Library and Information Studies, University of Botswana, Private Bag 0022, Gaborone, Botswana).

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1. Preference will be given to manuscripts that address African issues. This should contain new contribution to knowledge. Emphasis should be on empirical research or highly theoretical Studies. Articles that discuss local issues will also be considered.
2. Authors should avoid overflogged topics such as academic status for librarians, application of Bradford's Law to subject literatures, etc.
3. Manuscripts already published or sent to another journal for consideration will not be accepted.
4. Papers should be submitted preferably in WordPerfect Floppy disk or WordStar floppy disk. In the absence of disks, three copies of the paper should be submitted.
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8. We are not obliged to return rejected manuscripts.

AFRICAN JOURNAL OF LIBRARY ARCHIVES AND INFORMATION SCIENCE

INDEX TO VOLUME 3 NOS. 1 & 2

- Abosi, C. O., 178
 Adimorah, E. N. O., 45
 African Book Scheme, 39
 Africa Regional Centre for Information Science, University of Ibadan, 195
 Akotia, Pino, 151
 Alemna, A. A., 133
 ARCIS see Africa Regional Centre for Information Science, 195
 Banjo, Gboyega, 83
 Book Review: The State of the Modern Information Professional, 1992 - 1993, 179
 Boye, Mary, 35
 Chandler, George, 89
 Coetzer, Trudie, 185
 Conference on Bibliometrics, Informetrics and Scientometrics, 90
 Conference on Environmental Information Management for Sustainable Development, 195
 Conference on Grey Literature, 195
 Consortium of Africa Information Science Schools, 195
 Dewey in CD-ROM, 90
 Edem, U. S., 173
 Ehihamenor, Fabian A., 113
 An Empirical Study of the Information Needs of Industries in Nigeria, 45
 The Factor of Publishing as a Criterion for Establishing the Status of Librarians in University
 Libraries in Ghana, 133
 Factors Restraining the Formulation and Implementation of a National Information Policy (NIP)
 Process: The Zambian Experience, 23
 FID Conference and Congress, 91
 Huttermann, Lutz, 69
 IFLA (Africa) Section, 75, 83
 Indigenisation of the Curriculum in Nigerian Library Schools: A Survey of the Impact on the
 Practitioners, 141
 Info Africa Nova, 183
 Information Needs and Information Seeking Behaviour Patterns of Journalists in Nigeria, 167
 Information Technology and Scientific and Technological Information in Nigeria: Revolution or
 Evolution, 113
 International Library Review, 89
 Kedem, Kosi, 194
 Kantumoya, Albert, 55
 Lawal, Olu Ola, 141
 Leach, Athol, 95
 Library and Information Needs of Disabled Persons in Botswana, 125
 Lundu, Maurice, 23

- Management of Scientific Information on Agricultural Research in Small Countries Workshop, 91
- Mbewe, Godfrey, 23
- Moahi, K. H., 125
- Monau, R. M., 125
- National University of Science and Technology, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe, 194
- Nawe, Julita, 1
- Nigerian Library and Information Science Review, 89
- Nwafor, B. U., 67
- Ochai, A., 67
- Ojo-Igbinoba, M. E., 157
- Personality Interview — Banjo, Gboyega, 83
- Personality Interview — Raseroka, H. K., 187
- The potential of CD-ROM Technology in African Libraries, 157
- Practices and Variables Affecting the Quality of Ghanaian Children's Literature, 35
- Promoting Information Literacy in Developing Countries — The Case of South Africa, 11
- Public Relations for the Library Profession: The Case for Zambia, 55
- Raseroka, H. K., 82
- The Reading Habits of Adults in Anglophone Sub-Saharan Africa: A Historical Overview, 95
- The Realities of Adaptation of Western Librarianship to African Situation, 1
- Resource Sharing — Is it the Answer for Africa? 107
- Reviewing Reviews of Books on African Librarianship, 63
- Rosenberg, Diana, 107
- School of Information Studies for Africa, Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia, 195
- The Search for a Meaningful Disposition Programme in West Africa: The Case of the Gambia, 151
- September, Peter, E., 11
- SISA see School of Information Studies for Africa, 195
- The State of the Modern Information Professional 1992 — 93 see Book Review, 179
- Symposium on New Information Technologies in Agriculture, 195
- The Training of African Information Personnel: DSE Past Activities and Future Plans, 69
- Training of Trainers Workshop, 196
- Ubogu, F. N., 181
- University of Botswana, Department of Library and Information Studies, 187
- Users Course on mini-micro CDS/ISIS Workshop, 91
- Verbeek, Jennifer, 95

AIMS AND SCOPE

African Journal of Library, Archives and Information Science is established mainly to provide a forum for librarians, archivists, documentalists, information scientists and other information related professionals in Africa to report their research findings but with emphasis on African setting. The Journal is refereed by distinguished scholars. Emphasis is on empirical research; however manuscripts of high quality on theoretical aspects of the three information related disciplines will be considered for publication.

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Three copies of the manuscripts typed double space on one side should be submitted. Ample margins should be provided. The title, author's name, position and place of work should appear on the first page. Subsequent pages of not more than 15, should include an informative abstract of not more than 100 words. Manuscript will be considered only if it has not been published elsewhere.

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Mazikana, P.C. (1987) "Archives and Oral History: Overwhelming Lack of Resources" *Information Development*, 3 (1) 13 - 16.

References to books should be in the following order: Author(s), date, title, place of publication, publisher, pagination eg.

Aboyade, B. O. (1989) *The Provision of Information for Rural Development* Ibadan: Fountain Publications, 104p.

References to contributors in collected works should be in the following order: author(s), date, title of contribution, name of the editor, title of the collected works, place of publication, publisher and inclusive pagination e.g.

Neill, J. R. and Kotei, S. I. A. (1981) "Towards a National Information System for Botswana" in Inganji, Francis (ed.) *Use of Information and Documentation for Planning and Decision Making*. Gaborone : NIR, pp. 36 - 53.

No charge is made for publication. Twenty five copies of reprints of each major article will be supplied to the principal author.

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