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CONTENTS

	Page
Williams E. Nwagwu A Comparative Study of the Productivity of HIV/AIDS Literature on Nigeria and South Africa in Medline and Science Citation Index.....	1
Olayinka C. Fatoki Digitisation of Library Materials in Nigeria: Issues and Considerations for Information Professionals.....	15
Nathan Mnjama A Review of ESARBICA Resolutions 1969-2005.....	23
S.O. Popoola Workplace, Biographical and Motivation Factors Affecting Organisational Commitment of Records Officers in Nigerian Federal Universities.....	33
Arinola Rebecca Adekanmbi Availability and Use of Collection Development Policies in Colleges of Education Libraries, Botswana.....	45
Francis Oluwole Olalude Utilisation of Internet Sources for Research by Information Professionals in Sub-Saharan Africa.....	53
Short Communications The State of Archival Appraisal Practices in the ESARBICA Region.....	59
Book Review Reference Guide to Africa: A Bibliography of Sources.....	65
Professional News and Events	67

A Comparative Study of the Productivity of HIV/AIDS Literature on Nigeria and South Africa in Medline and Science Citation Index

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Abstract

Bibliographic data on HIV/AIDS literature on Nigeria and South Africa were drawn from Medline and Science Citation Index (SCI) respectively, covering the period 2000-2004, to study the productivity of literature produced by 'all authors', 'first authors', 'non-collaborative authors' and 'co-authors' using Lotka's Law. The first authors in Medline did not yield usable result for Nigeria, but the characteristic exponents for the other categories of authors are higher for Nigeria (α ranging between 2 and 4) than South Africa (α ranging between 2 and 3). Based on SCI, the model yielded only useful result for the Nigerian co-authors, whereas all other categories of authors yielded exponents that ranged between 1 and 3 for South Africa. We deduce that Medline appears to accommodate HIV/AIDS literature emanating from Nigeria more than it does those coming from South Africa, while the opposite is the case with SCI. Finally, scientific productivity in Nigeria is more significant when assessed based on Medline than SCI. The reverse is the case for South Africa.

Introduction

When the HIV/AIDS disease was discovered in the 1980s, the military government in Nigeria did not address it then. It was only given serious attention when democracy was restored in 1999. According to the United States Agency for International Development (2006):

It wasn't until the restoration of democracy in 1999 that a serious national effort was made in Nigeria to tackle HIV/AIDS. Since then, the Olusegun Obasanjo administration has placed high priority on prevention, treatment, care and support activities. It has established two key institutions - the Presidential Committee on AIDS and the National AIDS Action Committee on AIDS (NACA) to coordinate the various HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and care activities in Nigeria.

(<http://www.usaid.gov/pubs/cp98/afr/countries/ng.htm>)

South Africa's experiences at the early stages of the HIV/AIDS pandemic also mirrored Nigeria's. During the International Conference on HIV/AIDS that was held in South Africa in 2000, the President of South Africa, Mr. Thabo Mbeki, played down the fear of any HIV/AIDS pandemic, attributing it to malnutrition and poverty (Mbeki, 2006), a position that was heavily criticised (Samantha, 2003; Berry 2004, UNAIDS, 2005). According to AVERT (2006), South Africa rather focused on political changes;

Although the results of these political changes were positive, the spread of the virus was not given the attention that it deserved, and people did not realise the impact of the epidemic in South Africa until prevalence rates had begun to accelerate rapidly. It is likely that the severity of the epidemic could have been lessened by prompt action at this time (AVERT, 2006).

This observation means that government attention and support for the mobilisation of both public and private sector interests, as well as researchers in the two countries in combating the disease could be considered relatively late. Researchers in the universities and other institutions constitute a community whose activities are very critical to the efforts of the two countries in controlling the pandemic. Universities and research institutions are knowledge generating and disseminating institutions and they owe a duty to the wider society to ensure that people are informed about the disease, as well as discovering remedies.

South Africa and Nigeria are mentioned by Arunachalam (1999) as two African countries whose journals dominate developing countries' 13% contributions in the 140,000 periodicals titles listed in Ulrich's Directory of Scientific Serials. Pouris reports in 1995 that in a global context, South Africa produces 0.5% of the world's scientific publications and 0.1% of the world's patents, with researchers consisting 0.5% of the world's. South Africa presently occupies first place in Africa in terms of publications, accounting for as much as 50% of the continent's output according to analysis based on the Institute for Scientific Information's (ISI) databases. Although there is no reliable local statistics about science production in Nigeria, but there is an indication that in 2002, Medline indexed only eight (Nwagwu, 2005a) out of the over 140 biomedical journals identified in Nigeria by Akhigbe in 1992. Nwagwu also showed that biomedical publications in Nigeria increased tremendously after 1999.

In this paper, a bibliometric technique was used to analyse and compare the productivity of HIV/AIDS literature on Nigeria and South Africa, published in formal channels, as indexed in Science Citation Index of Thomson Scientific and Medline, between 2000 and 2004. The distribution of the literature of HIV/AIDS in the two countries was fitted to Lotka's Law, and the null hypothesis that the

literature produced by the various categories of authors did not conform to Lotka's Law was tested. Apart from providing theoretical information on the pattern of conformity of the literature on HIV/AIDS in the two countries to a standard bibliometric distribution, the study is also significant for highlighting the share of South Africa's and Nigeria's publications on HIV/AIDS indexed in the two most popular databases in the world namely, Medline and Thomson Scientific.

Literature Review

One of the significant strategies for establishing the strength or weakness of the response of researchers in a community to a certain area of need is an assessment of the quantity of publications which the researchers disseminated through primary and other sources, during a given period. It has become conventional in bibliometric studies to examine the distribution patterns of sources of scientific information such as journals (Bradford, 1934) and words in a text (Zipf, 1934), in order to understand the extent to which they reflect certain established stable regularities often characterised by reverse J-shape, positive skewness and straggling long tails. A typical and the earliest of such distributions relates to scientific productivity measured by distribution of contributions over authors, credited to Alfred J. Lotka in 1926.

Lotka examined the productivity of the literature output of a sample of chemists, and found that the number of authors who had published a specific number of papers was approximately equal to the inverse square of that number multiplied by the number of authors who had published one paper only. Lotka based his analysis on the power relation,

$$X^2Y = K, \dots \dots \dots (1),$$

where Y is the number of scientists producing X number of papers in any given subject area, while K represents the number of scientists making just one unit contribution in the subject area. Constraints, which Lotka initially faced regarding how to isolate the parameters, have since been overcome by research work that followed, and Lotka's Law has now been established to be generally useful for understanding the productivity patterns of authors in a bibliography (Nichols, 1987).

Research literature on Lotka's Law and methods for estimating the parameters can be considered to have matured significantly, although there is evidence

of low application in most developing countries (Lemoine, 1992). Application of this law in specific problem areas such as HIV/AIDS is not very common, although Luyanda and Ocholla, (2005) have carried out aspects of literature analysis on South Africa.

Methodology

After the birth of *Journal de Savans* in France in 1665, and aftermath, serials have become accepted as veritable sources of formal science literature (Cronin, 2001). Selected serials processed by international databases like Medline and SCI are taken to be indicative of sources of world literature. Usually, the papers indexed in these databases include the names, addresses and institutional affiliation of the authors. Papers indexed on countries or institutions include papers written by national scientists, as well as those written by, or co-authored with, foreign scientists.

The data for this study was extracted from Medline, a bibliographic database of the National Library of Medicine and the SCI of Thomson Scientific (formerly: Thomson-ISI), all in the United States of America, using the keywords "Nigeria", "HIV/AIDS", "HIV", "AIDS", "Human Immunodeficiency Virus" and "Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome", for Nigeria, and then substituting South Africa for Nigeria to obtain data for South Africa. This implies that the papers used in this study include those that focus on Nigeria or South Africa, whether or not the authors are Nigerians or South Africans. We then sieved out those papers that merely have Nigeria or South Africa in their contents, but did not focus on either of the countries.

The data was organised according to four author categories:

1. 'All Authors' - In this category, each author was given full authorship for every appearance in the byline of an article in the bibliography.
2. 'First Authors' - Only authors, whose names appear first in the byline of an article, were accorded authorship.
3. 'Non-collaborative authors' - This refers to the community of authors who never collaborated; authors who appear as single authors only.

4. 'Co-authors' - Authors who appear as contributors to papers and never as first authors.

Although our authorship categorisation here is the same with that used in a related paper (Nwagwu 2006), co-authors were counted in such a way that a scientist is counted as a co-author even if the same has been counted as a first author in another paper in the collection. Understanding author productivity using this categorisation, could aid resource allocation decision making by research institutions, governments, agencies and individuals regarding best producing author category. 'Extractor', a shareware was developed in-house to organise the data, while the analysis and testing were accomplished using Lotka®, a freeware developed by Rousseau and Rousseau (2001). Rousseau and Rousseau's program follows Nicholls' methodology namely: organisation of the data in a size-frequency form, using all the data without truncation, estimation using the maximum likelihood approach and testing performed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test statistic. Lotka® seeks the goodness of fit by comparing Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) maximum difference statistic (D-Max) with the K-S table values at 0.01, 0.05 and 0.1 significance levels and given degrees of freedom. The null hypothesis that the author categories do not fit Lotka's distribution will be rejected if (D-Max) < K-S value at the various levels of significance, otherwise the null hypothesis will be accepted.

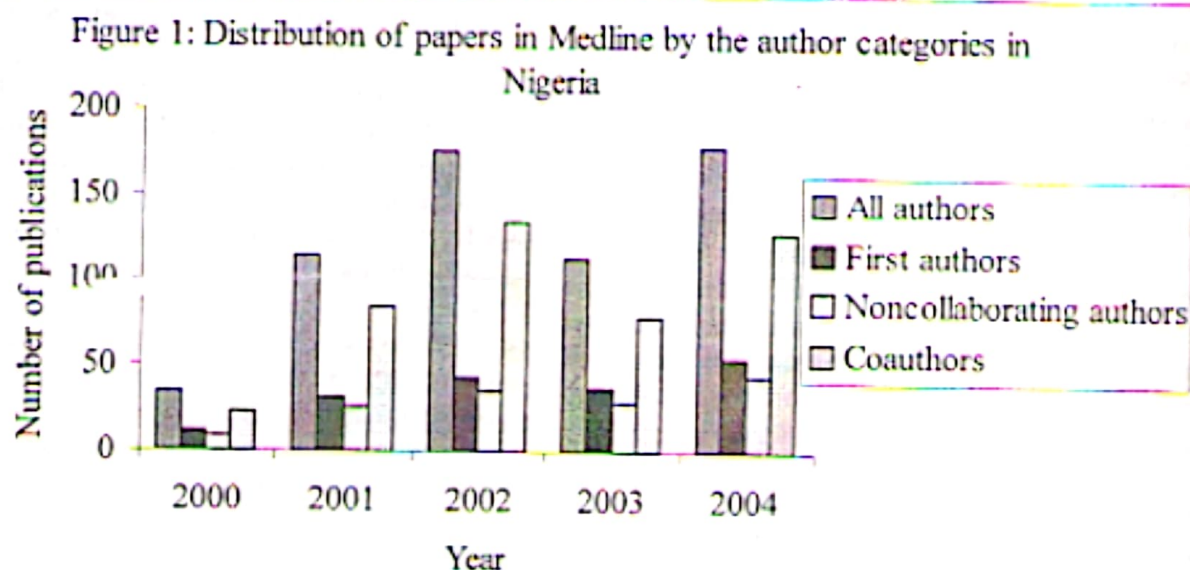
'Literature' is used here to mean any publications that focused on Nigeria or South Africa, with respect to HIV/AIDS during an arbitrarily chosen period of 2000 to 2004, irrespective of the geographical origin or other characteristics of the source of the publications or the authors. Also, researcher or author is not differentiated. A limitation relating to the validity of modelling developing countries literature based on international databases, which are known to be very scanty about research in these regions should be pointed out here, an issue that has been extensively handled in the literature (Nwagwu, 2005a, 2005b, 2006).

First the data about the number of papers falling into the various author categories in both countries in Medline and SCI are present, and then an attempt to understand the differences in paper production by South Africa and Nigeria using t-test is made, before proceeding to the modelling of author productivity.

Data Presentation and Analysis

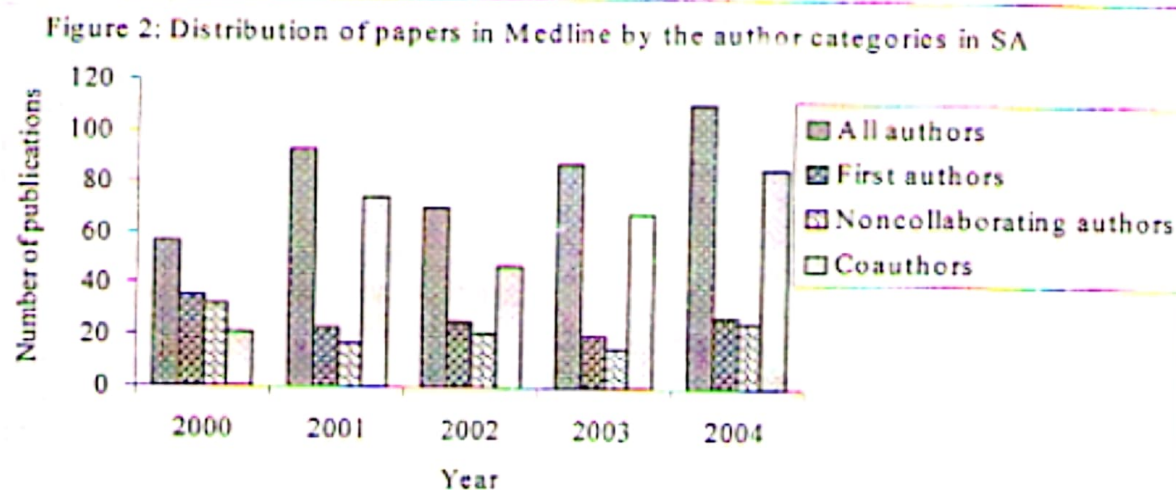
Figures 1 and 2 show that, according to Medline's listing on Nigeria and South Africa, there was a slow uptake of paper production during 2000 which peaked in all the categories of authors. Generally, in both countries apart from the "all authors" category the

despite the fact that the disease hit the countries in the early 1980s. However, a more pronounced research evidence is discernible during the period 2001 to 2004, with the latter marking the peak of production of literature by the various author categories in the two countries.



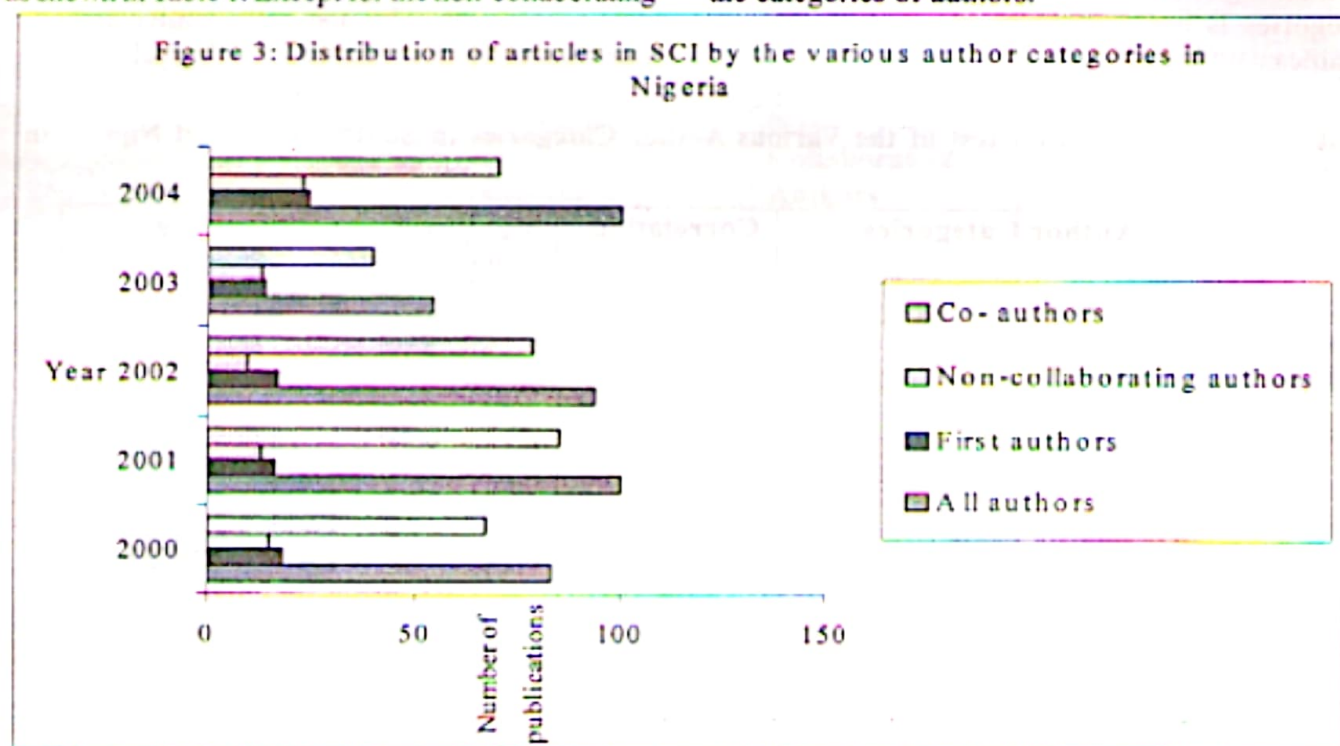
highest number of papers was produced by the co-authors category, while the first authors' category produced papers more than the non-collaborating authors. This result supports the observation that in both Nigeria and South Africa, there was a weak response of scientists to research on HIV/AIDS, exemplified by low number of publications in 2000.

Figures 3 and 4 show the pattern of paper production in the two countries according to SCI listing, indicating that, for Nigeria, the peak of paper production for all the categories of authors was 2004, except for co-authors category, whose production peaked in 2001 for Nigeria and 2004 for South. Overall, however, SCI listed more papers on South Africa than it did on Nigeria.



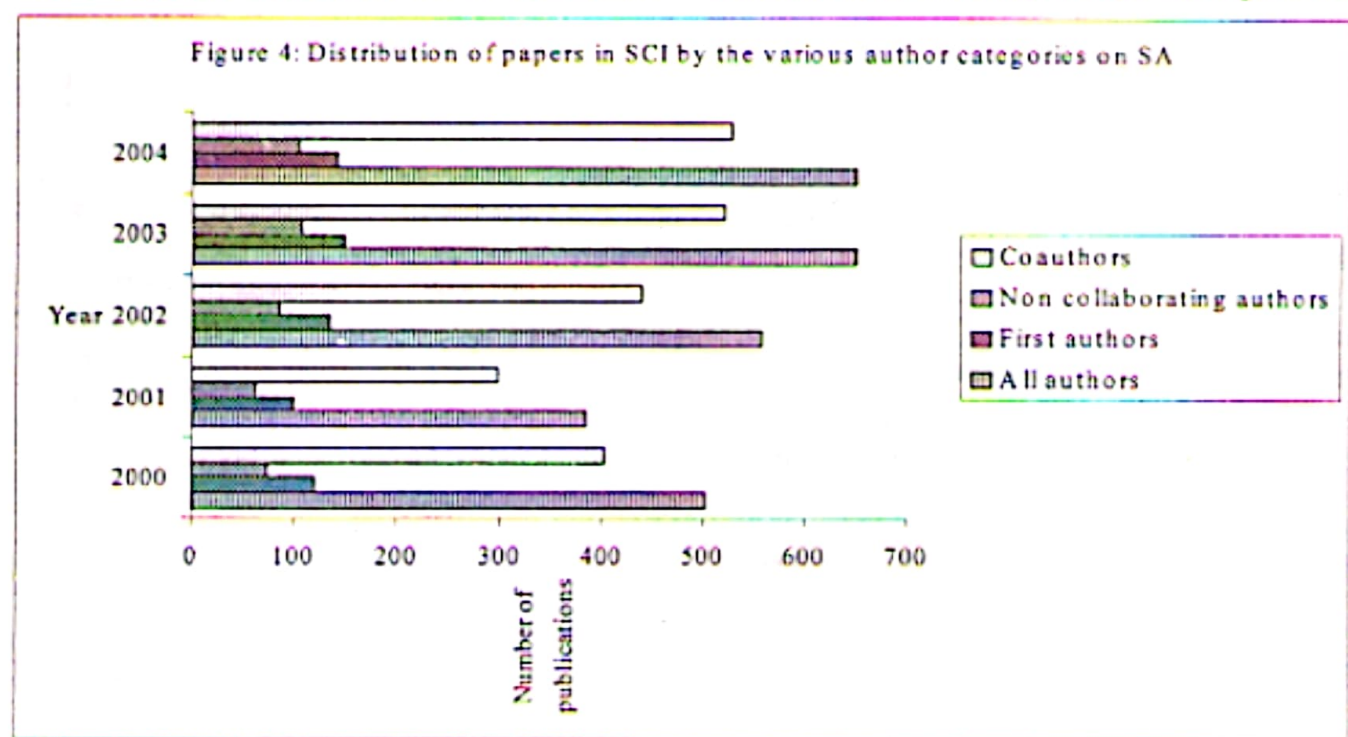
In order to further create a background for understanding the productivity of the literature in these two countries, paper production in South Africa and Nigeria are compared using paired samples t-test, as shown in Table 1. Except for the non-collaborating

significant differences. Furthermore, there is no significant correlation in Medline's indexing of Nigeria's and South Africa's literature just as the t-test did not show any significant differences for all the categories of authors.



authors; the correlation between SCI's indexing on Nigeria and South Africa is not significant for the various categories of authors, but the t-test showed

The indexing of SCI and Medline for each country was also examined. The relationship between SCI and Medline indexing on Nigeria is negative and



not significant, but the t-test shows a significant difference in all except the "all author category". With respect to South Africa, the correlation between the indexing of SCI and Medline in the four author categories is not significant, but t-test shows significant differences.

representing only one author contributed the maximum number of 9 papers. In the first authors category, only one author was able to produce five papers while the rest majority (86.67%) produced a single article each. The non-collaborative and co-author categories contained a relatively larger

Table 1: Paired Samples T-test of the Various Author Categories in South Africa and Nigeria in Medline and SCI

	Author Categories	Correlation	Sig. Level (0.05)	t	Sig. Level
SCI: Nigeria vs South Africa	All authors	0.734	0.101	-4.399	0.007
	First authors	0.887	0.182	-4.718	0.005
	Non-collaborating authors	0.842	0.042	-4.449	0.007
	Co-authors	0.645	0.164	-4.296	0.008
Medline: Nigeria vs South Africa	All authors	0.238	0.650	2.408	0.061
	First authors	-0.522	0.289	1.664	0.157
	Non-collaborating authors	-0.430	0.395	1.417	0.216
	Co-authors	0.392	0.442	2.465	0.057
Nigeria: Medline vs SCI	All authors	-0.182	0.730	-1.888	0.118
	First authors	-0.940	0.859	3.150	0.025
	Non-collaborating authors	-0.31	0.954	3.049	0.028
	Co-authors	-0.147	0.781	-3.534	0.017
South Africa: Medline vs SCI	All authors	0.707	0.116	-4.160	0.009
	First authors	0.734	0.096	4.206	0.008
	Non-collaborating authors	0.552	0.256	-3.690	0.014
	Co-authors	0.490	0.323	-4.144	0.009

This observation guided the understanding of the distribution of papers over authors in the two indexes in the two countries.

Distribution of Papers over Authors: Nigeria versus South Africa in Medline

Table 2 relates to Medline's listing on Nigeria, organised as a distribution of papers over authors for each of the category of authors, showing that 656 authors wrote a total of 234 papers. More than eighty one percent (81.85%) of the authors appeared as 'co-authors', 29.72% as 'first authors', while 28.50% appeared as 'non-collaborative authors, only. It is also seen that a very large number of the authors (82.77%) contributed only one article each in the bibliography, while a very small number (0.15%)

number of scientists (2.67% and 2.98%), who produced 5 and 16 papers respectively while 73.80% and 75.79% of the scientists produced a single article each. High producers are therefore not existent.

In comparison with other author categories, a larger proportion of papers contributed by the co-authors category and a smaller number of non-collaborative authors producing mainly single papers each would signify that many of the scientists exploited co-authorship as one great opportunity for them to write papers on HIV/AIDS. On the other hand, the 2.67% of the non-collaborative authors who successfully produced at least five papers each would point to some few authors who are resilient in addressing the problem at hand without collaboration.

The parameters of the distribution using Lotka™, on Nigeria were isolated and the result is shown in

table 3. As it can be seen, the [DMax] values for the category of all authors and the category of non-collaborative authors were less than the critical KS values at 1%, 5% and 10%. The null hypothesis that

Africa, and shows that a total of 397 authors wrote 160 papers, with a ratio of 2.4 authors per paper. The table shows that 88.16% of the authors appeared as 'co-authors',

Table 2: Distribution of Papers over Authors on Nigeria

Number of contributions (x)	All authors (y)		First Authors		Non-Collaborative Authors		Co-Authors	
	No. of Authors	% of Total	No. of Authors	% of Total	No. of Authors	% of Total	No. of Authors	% of Total
Total	n=656	100	n=195	29.27	n=187	28.50	n=537	81.85
1	543	82.77	169	86.67	138	73.80	407	75.79
2	67	10.21	16	8.21	27	14.44	75	13.97
3	31	4.73	6	3.08	9	4.81	39	7.26
4	11	1.68	3	1.54	8	4.28	16	2.98
5	3	0.46	1	0.51	5	2.67		
6	0	0						
7	0	0						
8	0	0						
9	1	0.15						

these author categories do not conform to Lotka's Law was rejected. The result for the "first authors" category is inconclusive, because Lotka® did not

32.99% appeared as 'non-collaborative authors', while 31.48% appeared as 'first authors'. The number of scientists appearing as 'co-authors' was

Table 3: Parameters of the Various Author Categories on Nigeria

Author Categories	[DMax]				Kolmogorov Statistics			Smirnov
		Parameter	n	Df	1%	5%	10%	
All Authors	0.0125	$\alpha = 3.04$ $k = 30.48\%$	656	8	0.0636	0.0531	0.0476	
First Authors	Undefined	-	195	-	-	-	-	
Non-Collaborators	0.0309	$\alpha = 2.60$ $k = 76.67\%$	187	4	0.1192	0.0995	0.0892	
Co-Authors	0.0342	$\alpha = 2.74$ $k = 79.21\%$	537	3	0.0703	0.0587	0.0342	

produce any values in the estimation, while the [DMax] value is equal to the K-S value at 10% level of significance for the coauthors category, leading to a rejection of the null hypothesis.

Table 4 displays the distribution of papers over authors for each of the categories of authors on South

almost three times the number appearing as 'first authors' and 'non collaborative authors' respectively. For the 'all authors' category, 81.1% of the authors wrote one article each, while 1% of the total number of authors wrote seven papers. In the 'first authors' category, 84% of the authors wrote one article each,

while 0.8% of the total number of authors in the same category wrote five each. In the "non-collaborative authors category", 73.2% wrote one article each, while 5.34% wrote four papers only. In the co-author

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Statistics and their various $|D_{Max}|$ values. Table 5 shows that the $|D_{Max}|$ values for the various categories of authors were less than the K-S critical values at 1%, 5%, and 10% levels of

Table 4: Distribution of Papers over Authors on South Africa

Number of contributions (x)	All the authors (y)		First Authors		Non-Collaborative Authors		Co-Authors	
	No. of Authors	% of Total	No. of Authors	% of Total	No. of Authors	% of Total	No. of Authors	% of Total
Total	n=397	100	n=125	100	n=131	100	n=350	100
1	322	81.1	105	84	96	73.2	228	65.1
2	43	10.8	12	9.6	16	12.2	56	16
3	12	3.02	4	3.2	12	9.16	30	8.57
4	9	2.26	3	2.4			8	2.28
5	5	1.25	1	0.8			15	4.28
6	2	0.50					6	1.71
7	4	1.00					7	2.0

category, 65.1% of the authors wrote one article each while 2.1% wrote seven papers. Table 5 shows the parameters of the various categories of authors, the

significance. It is therefore concluded that all the categories of authors fitted Lotka's Law.

Table 5: Parameters of the Various Author Categories on South Africa

Author Categories	$ D_{Max} $				Kolmogorov Smirnov Statistics		
		Parameter	n	Df	1%	5%	10%
All Authors	0.01	$\alpha = 2.87$ $k = 81.35\%$	397	6	0.0818	0.0683	0.0612
First Authors	0.0092	$\alpha = 3.08$ $k = 84.35\%$	125	4	0.1458	0.1216	0.1091
Non-Collaborators	0.0607	$\alpha = 2.42$ $k = 72.95\%$	131	3	0.1424	0.1188	0.1066
Co-Authors	0.0447	$\alpha = 2.29$ $k = 69.62\%$	350	6	0.0871	0.0727	0.0652

Distribution of Papers over Authors: Nigeria versus South Africa in SCI

Table 6 below shows the distribution of the papers over authors in SCI, with 356 authors writing 93 papers or an average ratio of 3.8 authors per paper.

authors (21.91%) respectively. For the 'all authors' category, 89.6% of the authors wrote one article each, while 1.4% of the total number of authors in the same category wrote three papers. In the 'first authors' category, 92.9% of the authors wrote one article each,

Table 6: Distribution of Papers over Authors on Nigeria

Number of contributions (x)	All the authors (y)		First Authors		Non-Collaborative Authors		Co-Authors	
	No. of authors	% of total	No. of authors	% of total	No. of authors	% of total	No. of authors	% of total
Total	n=356	100	n=85	100	n=78	100	n=306	100
1	319	89.6	79	92.9	71	91	243	79.4
2	32	8.9	6	7.1	4	5.1	44	14.3
3	5	1.4	0	0	3	3.8	15	4.9
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1.3

The table shows that 85.95% appeared as 'co-authors', almost four times the number appearing as 'first authors' (23.87%) and 'non collaborative'

while 7.1% of the authors in the same category wrote two papers each. In the "non-collaborative authors" category, 91% wrote one article each, while 3.8%

Table 7: Distribution of Papers over Authors on South Africa

Number of contributions (x)	All the authors (y)		First Authors		Non-Collaborative Authors		Co-Authors	
	No. of Authors	% of Total	No. of Authors	% of total	No. of Authors	% of Total	No. of Authors	% of Total
Total	N=1991	100	n=539	100	n=633	100	n=2126	100
1	1444	72.5	377	69.9	280	44.2	1095	51.5
2	211	10.6	52	9.6	66	10.4	350	16.46
3	202	10.1	71	13.2	155	24.5	368	17.30
4	58	2.9	19	3.5	56	8.8	104	4.89
5	28	1.4	5	0.9	10	1.6	65	3.05
6	19	0.95	5	0.9	12	1.9	90	4.23
7	6	0.3	1	0.2	0	0	14	0.66
8	8	0.4	4	0.7	16	2.5	8	0.38
9	5	0.2	3	0.6	18	2.8	9	0.42
10	2	0.1	2	0.3	20	3.2	0	0
11	1	0.05					11	0.52
12	1	0.05					12	0.56
13	1	0.05						
14	1	0.05						
15	1	0.05						
16	1	0.05						
17	1	0.05						
18	0	0						
19	1	0.05						

wrote two papers. For the "co-authors" category, 79.4% wrote one article each only and 1.3% wrote four papers only.

Lotka⁸ could not produce result for the for 'all authors', 'first authors', and 'non-collaborative authors' data sets for reasons of fewness of observations, as could be seen in table 6. But the category of co-authors produced a result ($df = 3$, $N = 306$, $\alpha = 2.96$ $k = 82.65\%$), and $|D_{Max}| = 0.0324$, a value that is less than the K-S value at 1% = 0.0932, 5% = 0.0777 and 10% = 0.0697 level of significance respectively. So, it is concluded that the category of co-authors fitted Lotka's Law.

Table 7 displays the distribution of the papers over authors for each category of authors on South Africa, and shows that 1991 authors wrote a total of 752 papers, an average of 2.6 authors per paper. According to the table, the number of scientists appearing as 'co-authors' was almost four times the number appearing as 'first authors' and 'non collaborative' authors respectively. For the 'all authors' category, 72.5% of the authors wrote one article each, while only 0.05% of the total number of authors (or a single author) wrote above eleven papers. In the 'first authors' category, 69.9% of the authors wrote one article, while 0.3% of the total number of authors in the same category wrote ten papers. In the "non-collaborative authors" category, 44.2% wrote one article each, while 3.2% wrote ten papers only. Over fifty one percent (51.5%) of the co-authors categories wrote one article only, while 0.56% of the total number of authors in the same category wrote twelve papers.

Table 8 shows the parameters of the various categories of authors for South Africa, as well as the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Statistics and their various $|D_{max}|$ values. The $|D_{max}|$ value of 0.0421 was greater than the K-S values at 1%, 5% and 10% level for the category of 'all authors'. Hence, it is inferred that the distribution of 'all authors' did not fit the generalised Lotka's Law. The community of 'first author' fitted the generalised Lotka's Law at 1% and 10% level of significance only. On the hand, the communities of "non-collaborative authors" and "co-authors" did not fit the generalised Lotka's Law at 1%, 5% and 10% levels of significance, with $\alpha = 1.87$ and $\alpha = 1.86$ and $k = 56.08\%$ and $k = 55.75\%$.

Medline versus SCI on Nigeria and South Africa: Some Conclusions

A total of 234 papers written by 656 authors were extracted from Medline on Nigeria, compared to 160 papers written by 397 authors extracted on South Africa. The category of first authors had 195 authors, compared to 125 for South Africa; the category of non-collaborative authors had 187 authors, compared to 131 for South Africa, while the category of co-authors for Nigeria had 537 authors, compared to 350 authors for South Africa.

Based on Medline's listing, the categories of all authors for Nigeria and South Africa fitted Lotka's Law at all the levels of significance. But the proportion of all authors that produced only one article for Nigeria ($k = 30.48\%$) was by far less than the same category for South Africa ($k = 81.35\%$). The

Table 8: Parameters of the Various Author Categories on South Africa

Author Categories	$ D_{max} $				Kolmogorov Statistics			Smirnov
		Parameter	n	Df	1%	5%	10%	
All Authors	0.0421	$\alpha = 2.48$ $k = 74.31\%$	397	6	0.0366	0.0305	0.0274	
First Authors	0.0616	$\alpha = 2.38$ $k = 0.72\%$	125	4	0.0702	0.0586	0.525	
Non-Collaborators	0.1674	$\alpha = 1.87$ $k = 56.08\%$	131	3	0.0648	0.0541	0.0485	
Co-Authors	0.1641	$\alpha = 1.86$ $k = 55.75\%$	350	6	0.0648	0.0541	0.0485	

first authors category produced inconclusive result for Nigeria but fitted Lotka's Law for South Africa, as well as producing a high proportion of scientists with single papers ($k=84.35\%$). But the non-collaborating authors fitted the Lotka's distribution for both countries, with the proportion of authors producing single papers only slightly higher for Nigeria ($k=76.67\%$) than South Africa ($k=72.95\%$). The "co-authors" category also fitted the Lotka's distribution for both countries, although there exists a higher proportion of single producers in Nigeria ($k=79.21\%$) than South Africa ($k=69.62\%$).

From the SCI, a total of 93 papers written by 356 authors were extracted on Nigeria, compared to 752 papers written by 1991 authors on South Africa. SCI also indexed papers written by 85 first authors, 78 non-collaborating authors and 306 co-authors for Nigeria, and, 539, 633 and 2126 authors in the same categories for South Africa during the period. The data for 'all authors', 'non-collaborative' and 'co-authors' for South Africa did not fit Lotka's Law at 1%, 5% and 10% levels of significance, while the category of 'first authors' for South Africa fitted Lotka's Law at 1% level of significance only. Similar data for Nigeria did not produce conclusive result for all authors, first authors and non-collaborating authors, while the "co-authors" category, which produced usable result, did fit Lotka's distribution, with $k=82.65\%$ being relatively much higher than the same category of authors in South Africa ($k=55.75\%$).

Overall, Medline indexed more papers on Nigeria than it did on South Africa. Furthermore, Nigeria has higher producers (making 9 contributions) in comparison with South Africa whose highest producers accounted for 7 contributions, although the number of authors accounting for this peak is higher for South Africa: 4, than Nigeria: 1. Except in the "first authors" category where South Africa had a higher number of authors accounting for single contributions each, authors writing on Nigeria appeared to account more for single contributions than South Africa. All the categories of authors obtained from Medline for both Nigeria and South Africa fitted the generalised Lotka's Law.

The situation is somewhat different with respect to SCI, which indexed more papers on South Africa than on Nigeria. The highest producers on Nigeria accounted only for four papers, while as many as 19 papers were credited to the highest producers for

South Africa. The South African 'all authors', 'non-collaborative authors' and 'co-authors' did not fit the generalised law at 1%, 5% and 10% levels of significance, while the category of 'first authors' fitted Lotka's generalised law at 1% level of significance only. For Nigeria, only the "co-authors" category produced a usable result, which also fitted the Lotka's distribution. Overall, with the ratios of authors to papers in Medline being 2.8 for Nigeria and 2.4 for South Africa, and 3.8 for Nigeria and 2.6 for South Africa in SCI, Nigerian authors appeared to be more collaborative.

Implications of the Findings and Recommendations

First, the result of this study relates to the quantity of formal literature emanating from Nigeria and South Africa that are indexed in the world's largest multidisciplinary databases namely Medline and SCI. Medline appears to accommodate literature emanating from Nigeria than it does those coming from South Africa, while the opposite is the case with SCI. This finding supports a widely observed fact that Thomson Scientific databases focus on papers published in journals that meet international visibility requirements, while Medline often includes a higher proportion of local and regional journal articles as well as reviews. Mouton and Dowling (2001) and DeBeer (2005) report that South Africa presently has the strongest social system of science in Africa, which probably account for the high proportion of entries in SCI.

Next, the study reflects how the distribution of publications of the two countries in the two indexes conforms or otherwise to Lotka's Law. A major implication of modelling Lotka's Law is the hypothesis that the difference in the values of the characteristic exponent for any research field is a reflection of the socio-scientific environment of that research field.

According to Medline, except the "first authors" category, which did not yield any result for Nigeria, the productivity exponents for the other categories of authors are higher for Nigeria (α ranging between 2 and 4) than for South Africa (α ranging between 2 and 3). On the other hand, based on SCI, the productivity exponent on Nigeria yielded only useful result for the "co-authors" category, whereas all the categories of authors on South Africa yielded exponents that ranged between 1 and 3. The

exponents of the "co-authors" category for Nigeria in Medline and SCI ($\alpha = 2.74$ and 2.96) are greater than that for South Africa, ($\alpha = 2.29$ and 1.86), indicating that Nigerian researchers probably adopt co-authorship strategy to publish in those sources that are indexed in the databases. Moreover, Nigerian non-collaborating authors have lower characteristic exponents than the other categories of authors in both in Medline and SCI, a situation in which the reverse is the case for South Africa.

It should be stated that Lotka's Law should only be treated as a theoretical strategy for estimating productivity and not as precise evidence. Moreover, a local or regional index with a full coverage of national journals, if available, would have been more complimentary than the selective international databases of Medline and SCI.

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Digitisation of Library Materials in Nigeria: Issues and Considerations for Information Professionals

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Abstract

This article describes the potential role of digitisation in the development of Africa. It describes the efforts at the digital conversion of local information and resources held in some university libraries and national institutions in Nigeria. Theses and dissertations are the most commonly digitised, while others are newspapers, past question papers, manuscripts and special collections. The article also explores issues for the successful conversion of library materials to digital format and skills development opportunities and challenges in Africa. It submits that the willingness to share experiences gathered on digitisation programmes would broaden the knowledge base and contribute to the development of digitised African local content.

Introduction

The age long role of the library has been to develop and maintain collections of materials in all formats and to make these materials available to all users in its defined jurisdiction. While libraries would continue to collect materials in print formats for sometime to come, this approach is now being supplemented with the provision of electronic access to the collection. Print and electronic sources of information need to

be integrated to provide users with seamless access to information.

There is a rapidly increasing volume of information which exists in digital form, created as a result of digitising non-digital collections, original digital publications or digitised as part of the day-to-day business of an organisation. Digital technology offers considerable opportunities to provide rapid and efficient access to information.

Digitisation is a process towards building digital libraries, which involves taking traditional library materials, typically in the form of books and papers, and converting them to electronic form, where they can be stored and manipulated by a computer. It is a core activity that is opening up tremendous opportunities for innovative library products and services. Practical experience and expertise in this area is still scarce, and so there is a clear need for guidance.

All organisations in all sectors have been or will soon be creating digital materials. Consequently, emerging responsibility of information professionals would involve the creation and management of digital materials to ensure greater accessibility. Digital institutional resources, which include research papers and data, images and theses, are a highly valuable asset within educational institutions. Carr (2000) remarked that 'cooperation, automation and the building of the digital library – all for the enhancement of service delivery in support of teaching and research – are the principal drivers which will shape the collective future of libraries as suppliers of information to the scholarly world'. Digital libraries are seen as the new tools for achieving human goals by changing the way that information is used in the world.

Witten (2002) described digital libraries as 'focused collections of digital objects, including text, video, and audio, along with methods for access and retrieval, and for selection, organisation, and maintenance of the collection'.

A survey of the current status of library digitisation in sub-Saharan Anglophone Africa (excluding South Africa) reveals that the progress towards digital libraries has been very slow, and full text digitisation skills were particularly lacking (International Network for the Availability of Scientific Publication, 2005).

This paper examines the potential of digitisation for the development of local content in higher education institutions in the developing countries. It also describes the status and trends of digitisation activities in Nigerian tertiary and cultural institutions. It presents some basic digitisation issues for practical digital libraries' development, as well as highlights the skills acquisitions, opportunities and challenges for information professionals.

Potential for African Local Content Development

Across Africa, information on a variety of issues – health, agriculture, education, history, culture and more – is needed to help citizens, governments, civil societies and others address daily challenges and improve their lives. The Internet, a global network of computers and networks has been regarded as the forerunner to the global information infrastructure (GII), "a seamless web of communication networks, databases and consumer electronics that will put vast amounts of information at user's finger tips" (United States Information Infrastructure Task Force 1994). Africans are being called upon to produce local content in their languages and publish on the Internet, thus making a contribution to the development of African local content on the global information infrastructure. United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA, 1999) reported that surveys have shown that Africa generates only 0.4% of global content, and if South Africa's contribution is excluded, the figure is a mere 0.02%. This situation should be a major concern to the people of Africa especially, the information professionals on the continent. Chisenga (1999) reported that there were very few established local content developers on the African continent, and most

of its government have no deliberate or conscious policies to enhance the African content on the Internet. He however identified the digitisation of African documents and artefacts (although on a small and uncoordinated scale), as one of the activities towards contributing to the information and cultural content of the global information. Other ways suggested, are by putting local information content on Web sites, creating subject based information gateways, and creating electronic databases and indigenous language orientation.

The introduction of digital libraries in Africa has prospects for improving educational standards, library and information services delivery and the creation of an informed society (Ojedokun, 2000; Magara, 2002; INASP, 2005; Chisenga, 2006). Even though Africa has made some strides to access the Internet over the last decade and has managed to upload considerable information on to the Internet in areas of business, information technology, connectivity and politics, there is a missing link in scientific and technological information content creation and dissemination (Chware, 2004). Some collaborative efforts have been initiated to tackle the dearth, such as the INASP Programme for the Enhancement of Research Information (PERI), the Electronic Publishing Trust, the American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS) Africa Project and the Database of African Theses and Dissertations (DATAD).

Much of the scientific research output from Africa is in form of grey literature, i.e. unpublished information and knowledge resources, such as research reports, theses and dissertations, seminar and conference papers (Chisenga, 2006). These are usually produced in limited number, and have limited circulation, even within the institutions where they are produced. Valuable technological and scientific information and knowledge remains unexploited, and in some cases, is lost. The management and distribution of digital-based information and knowledge resources will enhance access and sharing of these resources on the continent and contribute to the development of Africa. A coordinated development and use of digital libraries accessed via the Internet and Intranets could go a long way in increasing accessibility and usability of local content from Africa, and provide the raw materials needed for research and development of most countries. Digital libraries provide, perhaps, the

first really compelling *raison d'être* for computing technology in developing economies, because of their potential role in the areas of disseminating humanitarian information, disaster relief, preserving indigenous culture, as well as enhancing locally produced information, and teaching, learning and research information.

Overview of Digital Conversion Efforts in Nigeria

African universities play a critical role in the development of their countries. Furthermore, most of the existing digital library projects in the world are championed by higher education institutions or related research projects, national libraries, archives and museums (Chowdhury and Chowdhury, 2000). A survey of some randomly selected Nigerian university libraries and national institutions was carried out to ascertain the trends and status of digitisation activities in the country. Universities surveyed were selected to adequately represent the spectrum of universities in the country, with regard to their potentials for digital conversion.

Data were gathered between June 2004 and May 2006 from the questionnaire completed by institutions, interviews and site visits. The questionnaire was sent to 38 university libraries out of the 76 universities in Nigeria and two national information institutions, i.e. National Library and the National Archives. All the 26 federal universities were selected because of the level of involvement in research and postgraduate education, which was more likely to generate research outputs. Eight state universities that existed pre-1990 were selected for their likelihood to hold a

large quantity of research output, as well as seven private university libraries were also selected. The National Library and the National Archives were selected, because they have a mandate to maintain and preserve the national cultural and literary heritage, thus expected to play pivotal roles in the drive for digitisation activities in the country.

Findings of the Study

A total of 28 copies of the questionnaire were returned, giving an overall response rate of 73.6 per cent. Only 25 per cent of the institutions surveyed had digitisation programmes in place. Most of such programmes were in the federal university libraries, private university and the national library, and no state university library had attempted digitisation of their materials. It was observed that theses and dissertations collection, constituted the largest portion of materials being digitised (66 per cent), followed by newspapers (20 per cent). Other collections, such as the Africana collection and manuscripts, were least (14 per cent). A few of these university libraries were participating institutions in the Database of African Theses and Dissertations (DATAD) project, an initiative to improve access to Africa's research activity by indexing, abstracting and distributing theses and dissertations completed in African universities. The high percentage of activity in the federal university libraries can be linked to international funding through grants.

Most of the digitally converted resources in these programmes are mainly accessible locally on the library network, and in some cases, on the campus intranet, except for the DATAD- sponsored

Table 1: Digitisation Programmes in Nigerian Institutions

Institution	No of Institutions Surveyed	No of Institutions with Digitisation Programme	Type of Resources Digitised
Federal University Libraries	14	5	Abstract of theses, Newspapers, Manuscripts, Africana collection
State University Libraries	8	-	-
Private University Libraries	4	1	Newspapers, Past question Papers
National Library	1	1	Newspapers
National Archives	1	-	-

programmes which had a wider audience through the project pages available from the Association of African Universities website (<http://www.aau.org/datatd>). Some duplication of efforts is observed, especially in the area of digitised newspapers. An enormous wealth of resources, such as research outputs, special collections (e.g. manuscripts of political figures), and staff publications (products of many years of postgraduate teaching and learning experiences) were available in the university libraries. The survey also shows that the level of awareness of practising librarians about digitisation was very low.

Basics of the Digital Conversion Process

Several authors have presented different definitions of the process of digitally converting resources. However, for the purpose of this paper, the definition given by Deegan et al. (2002) is adopted. They define digitisation as the process of conversion of any physical or analogue item into a digital representation or facsimile. Physical items that may be candidates for digitisation include, individual documents, microfilm and microfiche, bound volumes, both print and manuscript, video and audio. Analogue information is "a continuous stream of information of varying density and type. When the analogue information is digitised, it is changed into the binary code (0s and 1s) of digital information". This binary code can only be processed and displayed by computers or other equipment (Smith 1999).

Library materials may qualify for conversion to digital form, based on the intellectual content or scholarly value, the desire to enhance access to it, and available funding opportunities. Another reason for digitisation could be the educational value, for example, for classroom support, background reading or distance education. Heavily used materials may be considered for conversion to reduce handling of fragile originals. Special materials, such as unique collections of primary source for resource sharing with other libraries, could also be digitised (National Preservation Office, 2002).

Digitisation equipment – such as flatbed scanners, digital cameras and digital audio / video recorders – generate digital copies of physical objects. This is done in basically two stages: scanning and optical character recognition. The scanning of a document results in a digital image of each page which

resembles digital photographs, with each picture element or pixel in either black or white, or colour (sometimes in different shades of grey).

Standards: Driving Force of Digital Content Creation and Use

Many libraries have mounted digital library files that are neither compatible, cross-searchable, nor, in many cases, easily integrated. Policies are needed to control the format and execution of digitisation efforts. According to an Institute of Museum and Library Services Survey Report, libraries need to implement policies regarding the standards, preservation and selection of digitised material (NISO, 2004). Standards and guidelines associated with library digitisation practices vary, and over the years, university, public, school, and special libraries have adopted their own policies with regard to digitisation (Liu, 2004). Metadata standards and image quality standards and guidelines are commonly sought, when planning digitisation projects. Prominent standards being used for many of the projects are available on the Digital Library Federation's website (<http://www.diglib.org>). The MARC standard has been used as the standard interchange format in representing catalogue records electronically, but has its inability to represent complex hierarchical and certain kinds of relationships among source works, hence the inappropriateness for digital images.

The method of delivery of the digital images to the end user is as important as the digital images. Delivery options include using circulating CDs or DVDs which are inexpensive and allow for immediate sharing, but could be difficult to search effectively. Alternatively, the content could be kept on a web server accessible on an institutional Intranet or website. The digitised content could be integrated with the library management system software through the online public access catalogue (OPAC). However, some library systems products are not so flexible as to allow such manipulation. A related strategy is to use database management systems (DBMS) that have powerful search and retrieval features and possibly web delivery. However, it is expensive in the short run and demands technical expertise. The Greenstone Digital Library software suite, an XML base class, is eagerly anticipated as a promising open source solution to collections management.

Other Considerations for Successful Digital Conversion

The key to a successful conversion project lies in a thorough understanding of the relationships between three concepts. These concepts are: (1) the characteristics of the source material being converted, (2) the capabilities of the technology used to accomplish the digital conversion, and (3) the purposes or uses to which the digital end product will be put (Conway 2000).

Libraries and their administrators need to acknowledge at the outset the long-term benefits of short term increases in training and equipment costs, and disruptions in routines. Equipment costs draw the greatest at the budgeting stage but support expenses are usually greater and have more long-range implications for the institution. Even so, as anyone who has ever bought a computer knows, equipment is not a one-time expense. The rapid turnover in technology requires near-constant migration and upgrades. Outsourcing is an attractive option for some libraries because the expense of an in-house digitisation project can be considerably high, if the required infrastructure and expertise is not present. It may be the only option for institutions wishing to digitise unusual or over-sized materials (large maps or poster collections), or when it is meant to be a one-time-only endeavour.

Copyright law automatically applies to any physical or electronically created (that is, "born digital") work. Regardless of whether the document bears the international copyright symbol © or not. Most countries are signatories to the Berne Convention, which governs international copyright law. According to Hazen (1998), while the broad thrust of digital technology is toward enhanced access, diminished costs, and more versatile capabilities, it is far less clear that copyright law will likewise encourage wider use. If the source materials are protected by copyright, but rights are held by the library or appropriate permissions can be secured, the digitisation work can move ahead.

Digital content can be easily replicated and distributed. As such, publishers, libraries and other content originators must make serious efforts to protect their works. The formulation of copyright laws that take into consideration the realities of time would be a good starting point. A number of African countries either do not have any laws or depend on laws that are very outmoded and may therefore not

include digital images (Alemna, 2003).

In cases of university libraries seeking to digitise their theses and dissertations, a written form of permission using words such as "the right to use the work for any institutional purpose, in any medium" may be provided by the creator of the work (Tedd, 2005). Moreover, because of the potential for legal liability, it is advisable to seek professional advice in the planning for digital conversion.

Opportunities for Digitisation Skills Acquisition in Africa

In recent times, several standards, best practices and case studies have been developed and distributed electronically and internationally, forming a base of knowledge from which others in the cultural heritage community can draw. However, despite the incredible progress, relatively less attention has been paid to the issue of how information professionals will develop and maintain the essential skills and competencies for digitisation projects. A variety of digitisation training initiatives have been implemented worldwide, especially in North America, Europe, United Kingdom and South Africa, based on the experiences from digital library development programmes.

Perry (2005) reports the need to improve access to hands-on learning, mentoring and continuing education, as well as formal education of a new generation of creators and managers of digital assets. An examination of existing educational mechanisms and initiatives in North America and the United Kingdom reveals that the most commonly available approach to learning about issues and skills relating to digitisation is the workshop format providing practical experience with scanning and optical character recognition. Capacity building opportunities in Africa on digitisation are very limited, and presently very few organisations offer formal training programmes in this area. UNESCO supports training for building digital libraries in Africa through co-organised workshops, aimed at raising awareness on open access models for information exchange and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) capacity building of information professionals in Africa institutions. These efforts are aimed at supporting the creation of digital libraries and providing archivists and librarians with skills to utilise electronic information tools and resources in their work and enhance access to online resources.

The Greenstone software suite was developed by the University of Waikato, New Zealand, the Human Info NGO of Belgium and UNESCO. Greenstone enables users to organise, create and publish digital collections of electronic files on the Web or on CD-ROM. Greenstone is an open source product, available free of charge. The Greenstone development team also offers hands-on training in creating and customising digital libraries.

DISA, the Digital Imaging project of South Africa, developed from a workshop on digital imaging sponsored by the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation in September 1997 aimed at investigating and implementing digital technologies to enable scholars and researchers around the world access South African material of high socio-political interest that would otherwise be difficult to locate and use (Peters, 2001). The project is also providing training for information professionals in South Africa and beyond its borders through workshops. The project has set a standard for South Africa, thus becoming forerunners in digital library development on the African continent.

Conclusion

The possible role of digitisation in the development of Africa through the enhancement of the continent's local research and cultural content could be overwhelming. Digitisation promises to revolutionise the way libraries access, store, disseminate, and preserve information, especially the locally available information resources. It holds the key to granting profitable visibility, access and use of rare information treasures to millions of users within the continent and across the world.

The digitisation efforts in Nigeria and indeed Africa seem almost insignificant presently; the foundation for its 'explosion' is being laid. However, the information professionals are not yet very conscious of the various activities and possibilities in digitisation. There is a need to build new skills and competencies, which are essential for the creation and management of digital library collections and services through sponsored major conferences, workshops, tutorials and publications at both national and international levels. The practice of cooperation and resource sharing between the community of educators, researchers and practitioners concerned with professional development and education for the next generation of digital librarians would be useful to all. The willingness to share the experiences of

digitisation programmes is the bedrock of the revolution.

Information professionals should be ready to work with content developers to adhere to standards. They need to be encouraged to experiment with small scale digitisation of materials to help familiarise them with the concepts and also seek funds and grants to support larger digital content creation programmes. Finally, the issue of copyright law formulation has to be expressly tackled to give information professionals the necessary leverage to perform their roles as digital information vanguards.

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A Review of ESARBICA Resolutions 1969-2005

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Abstract

This article provides a summary of the major issues addressed during the general conferences of the Eastern and Southern African Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ESARBICA) held between 1969 and 2005. It discusses some of the major resolutions passed during the general conferences showing the progress that has been made in implementing them within ESARBICA member states. The article concludes by suggesting that, as a professional association, ESARBICA has been a major instrument in the development of archives and records management programmes and services in the region.

Introduction

During the 18th Biennial General Conference of the Eastern and Southern African Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ESARBICA) held at Gaborone, Botswana, between 25th July and 29th July 2005, the issue of how far ESARBICA member states had implemented past ESARBICA resolutions was raised. However, since many of the participants had not participated in previous ESARBICA conferences, it was not easy to assess the extent to which ESARBICA member states had or had not implemented past ESARBICA resolutions. This article reviews the progress that has been made

in implementing the resolutions since the Inaugural General Conference that was held in Nairobi in 1969.

ESARBICA, which until 1984 was known as the Eastern and Central African Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ECARBICA), is a professional association of archivists and records managers working within Eastern and Southern Africa, which was launched in Nairobi in 1969. The name was changed to ESARBICA in 1984, when it was realised that a good number of Central African countries wished to establish their own regional branch and also based on the need for ESARBICA to reflect that the bulk of the membership was drawn from Eastern and Southern African countries. ESARBICA meets on a rotational basis every two years. Currently, ESARBICA is made up of 12 countries namely, Botswana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Zanzibar. Until 1995, Sudan was an active member of the East and Central African Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives, but since then, she has opted to join the Arab Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ARBICA). Despite the fact that Uganda is within the Eastern African region, she has never really been an active member of the branch, but archivists and records management professionals from the country have repeatedly participated in several ESARBICA initiatives, such as workshops and conferences. Efforts to bring in Ethiopia and Somalia into this regional grouping have not been very successful either, while Somalia still remains the only country in the region without a functional national archives. Until the late 1990s, Seychelles was an active member of ESARBICA, but of late, her interest seems to be towards an association covering the Indian Ocean Islands.

The general aims and objectives of ESARBICA are to:

- (a) establish, maintain and strengthen relations between archivists of all countries in the region and between institutions, professional bodies and organisations, which are concerned with the custody, organisation or administration of archives.
- (b) promote all measures for the preservation, protection and defence against all manners of hazards of the archival heritage of the region, and to further the progress of all aspects of the administration and preservation of archives.
- (c) facilitate the use of archives of the region by making these more widely known and by encouraging greater ease of access.
- (d) promote, organise and co-ordinate activities in the field of archives in the region.
- (e) sponsor professional training of archivists in the region.
- (f) co-ordinate with other organisations or institutions concerned with the documentation of human experience and the use of that documentation for the benefit of mankind.
- (g) generally carry out the aims and objectives of the International Council on Archives.

Membership into ESARBICA is divided into the following five categories:

- Categories A and B consist of national, state or territorial archive directorates and professional associations. These members have voting rights during general meetings. This is in line with the parent constitution of the International Council on Archives of which ESARBICA is a branch.
- Category C members are drawn from institutions and associations concerned with the administration or preservation of records and archives or with the professional training of archivists.
- Category D consists of present or past members of any archival institution, service or training centre.
- Category E is comprised of individuals who have made an outstanding contribution to archival work in the region, and have been elected as honorary members of the association.

ESARBICA is governed by an Executive Board, which consists of a President, a Vice President, a Secretary-General, a Deputy-Secretary General, a Treasurer, an Editor and a Vice Editor. The office bearers serve for a fixed term of two years, and may be re-elected to the same positions, but are not allowed to serve more than two terms. The membership of the Board consists of all directors of the national archives in the region. The main activity organised by ESARBICA is a general conference, which is held every two years. Normally, each general conference is preceded by a two-day pre-conference seminar for junior archivists. The pre-conference seminar runs concurrently with ESARBICA Board meeting.

ESARBICA Resolutions

An examination of ESARBICA resolutions indicates that since its inception in Nairobi in 1969, ESARBICA has held a total of 18 general conferences as indicated in the Appendix. ESARBICA has consistently met every two years since 1969. General conferences have been held in the capital cities of all the countries of the region, except for Lesotho and Seychelles. This is a commendable effort, when ESARBICA is compared to other International Council on Archives (ICA) branches in the African region, such as the West African Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (WARBICA) or the Central African Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (CENARBICA). The main reason for this success may be attributed to two factors. First, the region shares a common language (English) in comparison to the West African branch, where language barrier between French speaking and English speaking countries is a major concern. Secondly, in comparison to the Central African region, Eastern and Southern African countries have enjoyed long periods of political stability.

Issues Covered by ESARBICA Resolutions

A review of ESARBICA resolutions indicates that each general conference has been organised around a specific theme. At the end of each general conference, resolutions are adopted, which each member state is expected to go and implement and

report back in the next general conference. The list below provides an indication of the broad areas covered by resolutions adopted during the general conferences.

1. Regional co-operation and records management in East and Central Africa. The focus under this particular resolution was based on the need to foster close co-operation between archivists and records managers in the region.
2. Requests to establish national archives in Burundi, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Uganda and Somalia. In the early years these countries had no functional national archives and there was need to encourage governments from these countries to establish national archival institutions.
3. Training of archivists, records managers and technicians. In the late sixties and early seventies, there were no known trained African archivists and the need to provide archival training was crucial.
4. The East African Community archives. East African Community had been in existence since 1927, and had accumulated vast quantities of records. These records were considered extremely valuable to the East African region, hence the need to have them managed professionally.
5. Staff visits and exchange of information. This was considered a crucial benefit to archivists in the region as it provided avenues for exchange of ideas and acquisition of new skills.
6. Retrieval of migrated archives and joint microfilming and copying projects. Eastern and Southern African countries had some of records located in metropolitan cities and the need to develop a common strategy for the acquisition of migrated archives was considered necessary, as a way of supplementing locally available records in the region.
7. Preservation of private, business, parastatal and ecclesiastical archives in national archives. The general conferences did acknowledge the need to preserve records from organisations that had played a role in the socio-economic development of the region, hence this particular resolution.
8. The Vienna Convention on the Succession of State Property, Archives and Debts 1978. General conferences supported efforts being made by United Nations through international instruments (especially the Vienna Convention of 1978) in order to resolve conflicts arising out of records located outside the countries of their origins.
9. Access to archival resources in the region. Promotion of the use of archives and removal of access restriction on archives were of major concern at various general conferences.
10. Membership fees and subscriptions. Reasonable subscription fees to ESARBICA were recommended by the general conferences.
11. Publication and transmission of ESARBICA Newsletter and other publications. The general conferences were keen to see that knowledge relating to archival developments in the region was shared through various publications, hence resolutions to that effect.
12. Compilation of guides to sources of African history. Archivists were concerned about the need to increase the availability and access to records documenting African history through publication of guides and other finding aids. This would in turn ensure that balanced African histories were written.
13. Adoption of uniform standards of measurement. In this particular resolution, the interest was in developing uniform and standard measures for reporting statistics on records acquisitions, volume and storage capacity, etc.
14. Concerns for Zanzibar Archives. Due to uncontrolled climate conditions and poor facilities in the Zanzibar Archives, ESARBICA was concerned that unless measures were taken to address the situation, the region was bound to lose valuable collections.
15. Machine readable records. ESARBICA was concerned that the introduction of computers was generating records that needed to be handled differently from the well known paper based records.
16. Relationships with ICA, other regional branches, universities, libraries and research institutes. Links with other professional associations and bodies were a major concern to ESARBICA,

- as there was a need for collaboration with other professional associations operating in the region.
17. Status and role of archives in African States. ESARBICA was concerned that archivists and records managers were not accorded the status and recognition that they deserved in order to carry out their mandates effectively.
 18. Microfilming and reprographic facilities in the region. ESARBICA did acknowledge that microfilming and reprographic technologies were not readily available in the region, and that there was need to acquire such facilities and also share expertise in these areas.
 19. Collection and organisation of oral traditions. ESARBICA was keen to ensure that the voiceless (or majority of citizens whose experiences are not documented in archival records) were given a voice through an aggressive oral archives collection programme.
 20. Conservation of archives materials and standards of archives buildings. In the early years, most national archives were housed in temporary buildings and ESARBICA was concerned that purpose-built buildings were made available for the storage of archives.

As indicated above, ESARBICA resolutions have covered several issues. The discussion that follows highlights some of the major issues that have been presented before the general conferences, and the extent to which they have been addressed by the individual member states. The areas that will be examined are: development of archival services, placement of national archivists and the status of national archivists, the restitution of migrated archives, archival legislation, access to archival collections, preservation of archival collections, archival training, technological developments, archives buildings and facilities, and the collection of oral sources.

Development of Archival Services in ESARBICA Region

As could be seen from the above resolutions, one of the major concerns of ESARBICA was the development and evolution of archival services in the region, particularly within those nations, where national archives were non-existent. To a very large extent, this resolution has been achieved with the exception of Somalia, where no archival service

exists. Uganda too has not had any formal archival service. To date, it remains a non-member of ESARBICA. Other archival institutions in the region are at various stages of development, with some being well established in their own purpose-built buildings, others are accommodated in leased or rented premises, which have been converted into archival repositories.

In the early years, one of the major concerns of archivists from the region was the problem of inadequate storage facilities for the records selected for permanent preservation. Various resolutions were therefore passed urging national governments to address this problem. As a result of the resolutions passed on archival buildings and facilities, many of the national archives are now housed in purpose-built buildings (e.g. Botswana, Namibia, Tanzania, Zambia, Swaziland and Zimbabwe), while others like the Kenya National Archives are housed in buildings that have been converted into national archives. Many national archives have also opened regional records centres to cater for records being created in their provinces and districts.

Apart from the creation of national archives, the general conferences have also been concerned with issues that impact on the actual organisation, management and access to archives. Dealing with backlog accumulations of records has been one of the challenges facing archivists in the region, and resolutions urging national archives to address this problem have been passed. On the whole, while some archival institutions in South Africa, Kenya, Botswana, Zanzibar, Tanzania and Zambia have made considerable progress in managing their archival heritage, the same may not be applicable to Lesotho, Malawi, Swaziland and Uganda. For example, Lwesya (1999) in a report to the ESARBICA Board meeting held in Zanzibar in 1999 revealed that in Malawi "inadequate funding for most of our services has made the institution stagnant." Malawi is not the only country that has experienced zero growth in archives and records services in the region. For some years, Tanzania experienced zero growth until the mid-nineties and early 2000, when, with the assistance of donor funding, the National Archives has now begun to function effectively. Lesotho too has not seen any major developments in the recent past.

The development of archival services for the East African Community, a regional federation of East

African partner states dates back to 1927. It had attracted considerable debate in the early years of ESARBICA, but this never took place because the community itself collapsed in 1977 and the management of the archives of this organisation was passed over to Tanzania National Archives which continues to manage them up to now (Mujama, 2000).

Owing to pressure and reports tabled before ESARBICA general conferences, Zanzibar was able to secure donor assistance to rehabilitate the archives collections. This is at least one area, where the resolutions passed by the general conference had produced tangible and meaningful results.

Access to Archival Collections in the Region

Several resolutions have been passed on issues pertaining to access to the rich archival heritage in ESARBICA region. Based on resolutions urging member states to reduce closure periods, and to re-examine rules and regulations governing access to archival holding, most of the member states had reduced their closure periods from 50 years to 30 years, and in the case of Botswana, to 20 years. Any forms of discrimination between local researchers and foreign researchers have also been abolished, and procedures for granting access to archival materials have also been streamlined. It is also gratifying to note that due to resolutions urging archival institutions to compile appropriate guides and other finding aids, many collections have now become available for public inspection. Photocopying arrangements have also been made available in most archival institutions, thus ensuring that researchers are not inconvenienced.

Most archival institutions in the region grant access to their holdings on the understanding that researchers would deposit copies of their findings with them. This has been a problematic issue to address, because many foreign scholars fail to honour this undertaking, once they return to their home countries to compile their findings.

Placement of Archival Institutions and Status of National Archivists

Some archivists in the region have attributed the problems inflicting archival institutions in the region to the placement of these departments within government ministries. It is for this reason, that in the early years, ESARBICA passed resolutions

urging national governments to consider the placement of national archival institutions under ministries with wide inter-ministerial powers and also to give national archivists the status of head of department, equivalent to other governments' heads of departments. Presently, the placement of national archives within government ministries still reveals great variations. Some national archives, such as Botswana, Kenya and Zimbabwe, are placed under the Ministry of Home Affairs, whereas in Namibia the National Archives is under the Ministry of Basic Education and Culture. In Tanzania, the National Archives was recently moved from the Ministry of Education to the Civil Service Department. In South Africa, the National Archives falls under the Ministry of Arts and Culture. It is only in Swaziland that the National Archives falls under the Ministry of Tourism, Communication and Environment. In Lesotho, the National Archives is a small component of the Department of Culture, which falls under the Ministry of Tourism, Sports and Culture. Although it cannot categorically be stated that there is any real disadvantage in being placed under those ministries, experiences gained in other commonwealth countries such as Ghana and The Gambia indicate that where the national archives is placed under a ministry without wide ministerial powers, its operations tend to suffer.

Technological Developments in ESARBICA Region

ESARBICA members have expressed their concerns during the general conferences about the impact of information communication technologies on managing records, and have passed several resolutions urging their member states to explore the possibilities or forge links with information technology experts in order to develop strategies for managing electronic records.

Although ICT usage and adoption in many archival institutions in the region is still in its infancy, archival institutions (being the main players in the management of records) are still expected to contribute effectively towards the management of electronic records. A survey carried out by Mutiti (2001), the then Director of Zambia National Archives, revealed that "very little had been done to develop electronic records management programmes in the region." The major observations that were made

in her report showed that:

- the most common application of computers was in the area of word processing.
- seven national archives in the region had embarked on automation of their archival services.
- no digitisation programme had been launched in all the national archives.
- only one national archives had put in place rules and regulations to govern the use of electronic records in the public sector.
- lack of legal or administrative framework within which to operate an electronic records management programme.
- several national archives had their own local area networks (LANs).
- only three institutions were engaged in the acquisition of electronic records.
- several archival institutions were linked to the Internet and some had embarked on programmes to create their own websites.

Mutiti identified the major constraints hampering the development of electronic records management programmes as: lack of adequate technical expertise, resulting in archivists and records managers focusing on the management of paper-based records at the expense of electronic records, and failure by national governments to understand the role of national archival institutions in managing records including e-records. Many of these challenges are yet to be resolved. Many of the problems relating to the management of electronic records stem from the fact, that usually governments, adopt different information communication technologies without consulting the national archives staff on how best to manage records that will emanate from these technologies.

Preservation and Conservation of Archival Materials

One of the concerns expressed in the different general conferences relates to developments in conservation and reprographic facilities. Except for Kenya, South Africa and Zimbabwe, where conservation facilities are fully operational, the rest of the archival institutions lack such facilities, as well as trained personnel in this field. For a considerable number of years, Zimbabwe was known for its

excellent conservation and reprographic facilities. However, with the current political and economic crisis in the country, much of the work on preservation and conservation has been suspended. Kenya has rather been fortunate, in that with the support of donor agencies such as UNESCO, it has been able to mount some training programmes for conservators. It has also tried to maintain its conservation facilities, but a lack of specialist training in this area has reduced the type of conservation work that could be carried out. Swaziland, on the other hand provides a typical example of the state of conservation activities in the region. In her country report to ESARBICA Board meeting held in Pretoria in July 1997, Mthethwa (1997), the Director of Swaziland National Archives, lamented that "presently, no repair work is undertaken and a lot of records are in danger of falling apart." Much of the work now being carried out has been restricted to microfilming and binding. It can therefore be concluded that resolutions relating to the development of preservation facilities are yet to be fully implemented in the region.

Training of Archivists and Records Managers

In the early years of ESARBICA's existence, the question of training of archivists and records managers received considerable attention during general conferences, with various resolutions being passed in support of establishing a regional training centre for English speaking archivists. Established in the mid 1970s, with the financial support from UNESCO, the Regional Training Centre for Archivists in Accra, Ghana enjoyed the support of all ESARBICA member states until economic problems beset Ghana in the late 1970's, leading to the withdrawal of participation of ESARBICA member states. By the time member states stopped sending their students to Ghana, the Regional Training Centre had trained a pool of archivists from virtually all the countries in East and Southern Africa, many of whom went on to occupy senior positions in their respective national archives. The region now boasts of several schools offering certificate, diploma, undergraduate and graduate programmes. Archival schools have been established in Botswana (University of Botswana), Kenya (the Kenya Polytechnic, Sigalala Polytechnic, the School of Professional Studies in Nairobi, Moi University and Kenyatta University), Tanzania

(School of Library Archives and Documentation Studies, Bagamoyo), Zambia (the University of Zambia), Zimbabwe (National University of Science and Technology) and in several colleges and universities in South Africa. In this respect, it could be safely inferred that the aspect of training is being adequately addressed in the region. Realising that not all national archives are in a position to establish conservation facilities, the 2005 General Conference adopted a resolution calling upon "national archival institutions, educators, and other stake holders to partner in setting up regional conservation training facilities for the benefit of ESARBICA members".

Archival Legislation in ESARBICA Region

Archival legislation plays a crucial role in the management of public sector records, as it provides the legal framework under which the national archives operate. A survey of archival legislation in the region reveals that except for Tanzania and Uganda which have enacted new legislation enabling national archives services to manage records from the time of creation to their ultimate disposition, most of the other national archives are still operating under archival legislation modeled along the United Kingdom model. The greatest weakness in operating under such archaic legislation is that it is very restrictive when it comes to dealing with records in new media, such as electronic records and on issues relating to increased access to government-held information. Moreover, as most of the countries in the region (except for South Africa) are still operating without any meaningful freedom of information legislation, citizen's rights of access to information are not guaranteed. Linked to this are official secrets acts which prohibit civil servants from disclosing information to the public.

The Uganda National Archives Act, and the new Tanzania National Archives Act, were all drafted with the assistance of the International Records Management Trust, a records management consulting firm based in the United Kingdom. However, the National Archives Act of South Africa does not strictly conform to the British model, as it was largely influenced by Australian and Canadian thought. There is therefore, need to review archival legislation in the region and specifically those areas of archival legislation which restrict access to information.

Migrated Archives

In the late seventies and early eighties, the issue of archival claims (commonly known by many archivists as migrated archives) was very popular in ESARBICA general conferences. Resolutions urging the initiation of migrated archives programmes were passed. Also, resolutions urging member states to consider joint microfilming programmes for records of common interest were adopted. Based on these resolutions, Kenya, Zimbabwe and Botswana are known to have carried out extensive surveys of records held in European metropolitan cities, with Kenya eventually having two of its archivists in London for a period of about ten years copying records at the Public Records Office (Musembi, 1982). While urging member states to take practical steps to obtain copies of the records held outside their national boundaries, national archivists were very much aware that migrated archives fall into different categories as described below.

In 1983, a United Nations Conference on the Law of Succession in respect to State Property, Archives and Debts was held in Vienna, Austria to try and develop an international treaty for resolving archival claims. The Treaty, which came to be known as the Vienna Convention on the Law of Succession in Respect to State Property, Archives and Debts was, however, not ratified by many of the Western Powers, thus rendering the convention unworkable. Realising that not much could be achieved through the Vienna Convention, a new resolution was passed in 1984, urging members to explore other ways of solving conflicts arising from migrated archives. It could be concluded that the resolutions relating to the retrieval of migrated archives remain valid, and issues surrounding this problem are yet to be sorted out, possibly through bilateral arrangements.

Management of Audio-visual Materials

Of all the archival materials available in the region, perhaps the most neglected archival resource are audio-visual collections, which remain unprocessed, and hence inaccessible to researchers. During the 1991 General Conference held in Gaborone, Botswana, a resolution was passed urging trained audio-visual archivists to form a sub-regional committee on audio-visual archives. A survey carried

out by Matangira (2003) from the Zimbabwe National Archives covering the Eastern and Southern African region found that most archival institutions had done very little to develop their audio-visual archiving programmes. Although some countries, such as Zimbabwe, Malawi, Namibia, Zambia, had acquired vast quantities of audio-visual materials in the form of films, photographs, phonographic discs, videos, maps and microforms, these were not managed adequately due to lack of specialised equipment, training and inadequate storage facilities. In South Africa, the management of audio-visual collections is directly under the National Archives, but in most member states, audio-visual records are still held by the various departments, such as mapping and surveys agencies, radio broadcasting and television stations. Due to a lack of trained archivists in the field of audio-visual materials, there is a strong evidence to suggest that virtually all the national archives in the region are ill-equipped for the management of audio-visual materials. Despite these limitations, national archives such as that of Zambia have proceeded to collect audio-visuals. This author does not foresee a situation in the immediate future when national archives will be endowed with facilities and trained personnel for managing audio-visual archives. This view was also expressed by Hamooya (2003), the then Acting Director of Zambia National Archives, who has rightly observed that "financial constraints, make it extremely difficult to convert all old holdings to modern storage media, and to keep abreast with technological changes." Perhaps, the way forward is to declare institutions holding audio-visual collection places of deposit for archival purposes as long as these places meet some minimum archival standards for the storage of audio-visual materials. Therefore, there is a need for the respective Departments of Information to be declared as places of deposit for sound recordings, as provided for in most of the archival legislations in the region.

Archives and Records Management in the Private Sector

Concerns about the management of private sector records, whether held by individuals, the churches or private businesses, have been expressed during general conferences, while resolutions have been passed urging national archivists to forge collaborations with the private sector in order to ensure the survival of valuable documentary sources

that originate from them. Although some organisations have deposited their archives with national archives and others with national universities, many of the records created in the private sector remain inaccessible and their whereabouts unknown. National manuscripts registers are not readily available in the region. Except for South Africa where a national register of manuscripts is maintained, the rest of the region lack a national register of manuscripts. In 2004, Zambia compiled a Guide to Non-Governmental Archives in Zambia. But having said this, it does mean that all private sector organisations have neglected their records. Many non-public organisations, particularly banks, mining companies and large parastatal bodies have now employed full-time archivists, and this is indeed a welcome development.

Oral Traditions

An examination of ESARBICA resolutions indicates that perhaps one of the issues that have received and continue to receive the most attention during general conferences is that of the collection and preservation of oral traditions. The need to collect and preserve oral traditions stems from the fact that most archival collections held in the region do not adequately document the experiences of the common man. Archival collections are seen to document the histories of colonial administrators and their African collaborators. To many archivists in the region, the only way of filling or correcting existing gaps on who is remembered and who is forgotten, who remains visible or remains invisible in their archival holdings can only be achieved through an aggressive oral archives collection programme. Varying views have however been expressed as to who should actually collect the oral traditions, with one camp suggesting that the archivists role should be restricted to their custodial role, some advocating collaboration between archivists and research institutions, and yet another camp, insisting that the archivists themselves take responsibility for the collection of oral traditions. Despite these varying views, it is cheering to know that considerable work has been done on collecting oral traditions in Zimbabwe (Manungo, 2001), Botswana, South Africa (Hatang, 2001) and Kenya.

The Way Forward

As a professional association, ESARBICA must be commended for its efforts towards the development of archival services in the region. However, there is a need for ESARBICA to take stock of its achievements and failures, consolidate its strengths where necessary and at the same time, critically determine why it has failed to implement some of its resolutions. Moreover, it can not be over emphasised that mechanisms for monitoring and reporting on the implementation of its resolutions need to be put in place, maybe through a team of professionals who are preferably non-directors of archival institutions. Unless this is done, many of the resolutions passed during general conferences will remain unfulfilled. Secondly, as the association matures, there is a need to encourage the development of specialist sections within the association, such as the audio-visual section, electronic records section, preservation and conservation section and other technical committees. This will enable the association to address the needs of specific sections, which are currently not being adequately catered for in the general conferences.

Conclusion

Professional associations play major roles in the development of the profession. Hall (1996) has observed that a professional association is "a group of individuals from the same or allied professions who come together to form an association with the object of meeting, exchanging views on professional matters and advancing the interests of their profession." As a professional association, ESARBICA must be commended for the efforts it has made towards the advancement of the profession in the region. The general conferences have not only been fora for the exchange of ideas and information, but they have also been the avenues through which archivists can collectively voice their views on matters impacting on archival services in the region as a whole. Through their resolutions, major strides have been taken in the areas of training, restoration of archival services in Zanzibar, and common understanding on issues related to records of liberation movements. Now the member states are all embracing issues of records management, good governance and public accountability. Efforts are also being made to address the challenges posed by the introduction and adoption of information communication technologies. Although

the picture painted in this paper is that of a very successful professional association with major areas to celebrate about, there are many resolutions arising out of the general conferences, which are yet to be dealt with. Among these are resolutions relating to the development of close working relationships with other professional associations in the region, joint microfilming programmes and compilation of guides to sources of African history.

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Appendix: Distribution of ESARBICA Conferences 1969-2005

Name of General Conference	Year Held	Venue
Inaugural General Conference	1969	Nairobi, Kenya
2nd General Conference	1972	Nairobi, Kenya
3rd General Conference	1974	Lusaka, Zambia
4th General Conference	1976	Blantyre, Malawi
5th General Conference	1978	Khartoum, Sudan
6th General Conference	1980	Nairobi, Kenya
7th General Conference	1982	Harare, Zimbabwe
8th General Conference	1984	Dar es Salaam, Tanzania
9th General Conference	1986	Mbabane, Swaziland
10th General Conference	1989	Lusaka, Zambia
11th General Conference	1991	Gaborone, Botswana
12th General Conference	1993	Mangochi, Malawi
13th General Conference	1995	Windhoek, Namibia
14th General Conference	1997	Pretoria, South Africa
15th General Conference	1999	Zanzibar, Tanzania
16th General Conference	2001	Harare, Zimbabwe
17th General Conference	2003	Maputo, Mozambique
18th General Conference	2005	Gaborone, Botswana

Workplace, Biographical and Motivation Factors Affecting Organisational Commitment of Records Officers in Nigerian Federal Universities

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Abstract

This paper presents the findings of a survey on how workplace, biographical and motivational factors affect the organisational commitment of records officers in federal universities in Nigeria. Single stage random sampling, with equal allocation method, was used to administer questionnaire on 300 sampled participants from 15 of the 25 federal universities in Nigeria. The response rate achieved was 100 percent. The study found that: there were significant differences in organisational commitment of the respondents on their marital status, work motivation and job tenure but not on their place of work (records offices) and religious beliefs. It is recommended that the records officers should be adequately motivated and qualified manpower (records managers and archivists) be recruited to serve in the records offices of the Nigerian federal universities, in order to enhance their organisational commitment and work productivity.

Introduction

The harnessing of human resources in a records office of an organisation like a university system is a necessary condition for the effective provision of records management services for smooth administration of the university. Records management programme is usually formulated and implemented

to render efficient and effective information services to enhance workers' productivity and improve the quality of the graduates supplied to the labour market by the university system in Nigeria. In addition, records management assists the university administrators to achieve transparency, accountability and good governance. It also aids in planning, decision making and controlling activities of the university administrators. The records officers in the federal universities in Nigeria are saddled with the responsibility of management, of mails, files, reports, correspondence, directives, acquisition and maintenance of records storage equipment, records centre (active and semi-active records), in-active records, records disposition, inventory planning and control, and budgeting for records management operations.

Nigerian university administrators are often concerned about the alarming rate of misplacement or loss of vital records and the slow speed at which needed records are retrieved from their storage by the records management personnel. In most cases, misplaced or lost records delay necessary actions on urgent matters, or lead to irrational decisions, which may lead to social crisis or embarrassment to the university system (Federal Ministry of Education, 2004), frequently misplaced or lost records may be signs of either low organisational commitment or sabotage on the part of the records management personnel. It is therefore pertinent for the university administrators to look at the job motivation of their records management staff. Research into job motivation and organisational commitment of records management personnel in any organisation may assist the management to predict staff turn over and job satisfaction, as well as improve organisational effectiveness and productivity.

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) defined organisational commitment as the relative strength

of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation or profession. This definition has to do with affective organisational commitment, but it fails to consider the continuance and normative components of organisational commitment of workers in the world of work. Allen and Meyer (1990) defined their three-dimensional construct of organisational commitment as the degree of an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. The continuance component refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with quitting or leaving the organisation, while the normative component refers to the employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation. Steers (1977) asserted that organisational commitment may be used to measure the effectiveness of an organisation. Jauch, Glueck and Osborn (1978), when stressing the importance of organisational commitment, reiterated that highly committed employees may perform better than less committed ones. Okorie (1995), in the same vein submitted that the continuance commitment of the employees in an organisation is positively related to their job performance. Cohen (1997) observed that the responses of employees and organisations to work and non-work interfaces are related to organisational commitment. It must be noted that when the organisation provides conducive working environment, adequate working materials, occupational safety measures, good pension schemes, good corporate culture and makes information available and accessible for planning, decision making and monitoring and evaluation, there is a tendency for the workers to be highly committed to its goals and ideals. Weiner (1982) opined that normative commitment may develop as a result of organisational investments in the individual (e.g. training or tuition subsidies or socialisation experiences that stress the value of loyalty). Northcraft and Neale (1996) stressed that attitude reflecting employees' loyalty to their organisation is an on-going process, through which organisational participants express their concern for the organisation and its continued success and well-being.

Some studies have also found that the organisational commitment of employees in a workplace is determined by the biographical variables of the workers (age, sex, marital status, job tenure, education). Other studies have found positive

correlation between age, length of service and organisational commitment (Angle and Perry, 1981; Meyer and Allen, 1984; Morris and Shearman, 1981). Becker (1960) reported that advancing age and length of service are correlated with staying with an organisation, due to the accrual of organisation investments. Badu (2001) found a significant negative correlation between educational qualification and organisational commitment among the staff of three old and well established university libraries in Ghana. Meyer and Allen (1984) found that married respondents expressed higher organisational commitments than respondents who are single in the studied organisations. They further reported that those with graduate degrees were less committed than those with undergraduate degrees after only eleven months of employment. Similarly, other factors, such as job satisfaction, turnover, absenteeism, job involvement, promotability and potential, affect organisational commitment of workers. Corroborating findings, moreover, come from a study of managerial perceptions of employee organisational commitment, which found that affective commitment was negatively related to promotability (Shore, Barksdale and Shore, 1995). The past studies on job involvement had focused on its ability to determine turnover and absenteeism, with special interest on the interaction between job involvement and organisational commitment as a predictor (Brown, 1996; Huselid and Day, 1991). Keller (1997) in his study of 532 scientists and engineers from four industrial research development organisations showed that job satisfaction had significant positive correlation with organisational commitment. Research by Irving and Meyer and Allen (1991) also indicates that on-the-job experience early in one's tenure plays a significant role in the development of affective commitment, but this form of commitment has also been correlated with organisational characteristics such as decentralisation of decision-making (Brooke, Russell and Price, 1988), as well as dispositional characteristics such as locus of control (Luthans, Baack and Taylor, 1987).

Objectives of Study

The specific objectives of this study were as follow to:

- (i) find out the level or extent of organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities.

- (ii) ascertain if there is a significant difference in organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities based on their work motivation.
- (iii) ascertain if there is a significant difference in organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities based on their marital status.
- (iv) ascertain if there is a significant difference in organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities based on their religion.
- (v) ascertain if there is a significant difference in organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities based on their job tenure.
- (vi) ascertain if there is a significant difference in organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities based on their workplace.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated and tested at $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance:

- (i) there is no significant difference in the organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities based on their work motivation.
- (ii) there is no significance difference in the organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities based on their marital status job.
- (iii) there is no significant difference in organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities based on their religion.
- (iv) there is no significant difference in organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities based on their job tenure.
- (v) there is no significant difference in the organisational commitment of records officers in the open and confidential records offices (registries) in Nigerian federal universities.

Literature Review

Armstrong (1999) posited that the management in any organisation should be concerned with the strategic goals and values relating to the creation of workers' commitment to the organisation. He suggested that issues concerning information communication, education and training programmes, initiatives to enhance involvement and ownership, the development of performance and reward management systems should be given due attention in order to stimulate organisational commitment among employees in an organisation. Guest (1991) reported that high organisational commitment is associated with lower labour turnover and absence, but there is no clear link to job performance. Thus, organisational commitment does not have a direct and immediate impact on job performance. This is unlike motivation that has direct influence on workers' job performance in an organisation. Organisational commitment is a broader concept, and tends to be more stable over a period of time and less responsible to transitory aspects of an employee's job. It is possible not to be satisfied with a particular feature or aspect of one's job, and still exhibit a reasonably high level of commitment to the organisation as a whole. Kahn (1973) was of the opinion that job satisfaction is very important for a person's motivation and contribution to production. One can therefore deduce that an employee who is motivated will have job satisfaction. But job satisfaction has also been found to be positively correlated with the organisational commitment (Matheiu and Farr, 1991). It is therefore logical to postulate that work motivation received by an employee in his/her work place can affect his/her level of organisational commitment.

Workers' motivation has been of interest to the modern day managers of organisations, as well as the industrial psychologists, sociologists and other organisational behaviour researchers. Work motivation is universally agreed to be of paramount importance to personnel productivity in the world of work. It is a force that maintains and changes the quality, intensity and direction of behaviours toward arousing the interest of workers by constantly and willingly executing their assigned responsibilities without any coercion or with little or no supervision

from their superiors. Luthan (1998) viewed motivation as a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates a behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive. Olajide (2000) defined motivation as whatever it takes in encouraging workers to perform by fulfilling or appealing to their need; it is goal directed and therefore cannot be outside the goals of any organisation whether public, private or not-profit. This implies that work motivation has serious consequence on organisational commitment and job satisfaction of records management personnel in the university system. According to Edigin (2000) motivation is a management function that stimulates individuals to accomplish laid down institutional goals.

However, Brann and Grant (1966), while summarising the qualities deemed essential to managerial success in their study of the junior managers in AT & T in America, pointed to the importance of motivation to perform well, desire for rapid advancement, independence of the approval of others, and lesser concern with security, in addition to having the requisite intellectual, administrative, and social abilities. Howard and Bray (1988) also reported a 20 year follow-up of a total 266 assessments in the AT & T programme. Motivational dimensions again proved to be prominent in predicting career advancement and success twenty years later – specifically, the dimensions of advancement motivation and work involvement.

Oladunjoye (2002) reported that training is a major tool to motivate workers to perform their work optimally and to cope with the ever-changing nature of work schedule in the banking industry. The study also sheds light on motivational factors predictive of staying optimally and coping with the ever-changing nature of work with or voluntary leaving the company. Stayers scored, on average, significantly higher on the need for security, company value orientation, work involvement, and tolerance for delayed gratification, but showed urgent need for advancement. The opportunities for rapid promotions in a work place can motivate an employee to enhance his/her job performance and exhibits high organisational commitment. In Nigeria, such promotions must be backed up with increased wages and salaries. Also, monetary incentives have positive influence on workers' attitude to work in a depressed economy like Nigeria, where good welfare packages

for minimum comfort of citizens are lacking, and coupled with high inflation rate that rapidly worsens the standard of living of the people. This assertion corroborates that of Anikpo (1984), who observed that in contemporary Nigerian society, the workers have surrendered to the hegemonic power of money. Trevor and Boudreau (1997) opined that low salary growth and high promotions were positively associated with the dimension of performance that was explicitly rewarded, but not with the non-reward dimension. When employees are adequately remunerated (good pay packet), there could be a tendency for them to have high job satisfaction and high organisational commitment.

The imperative that follows from incentive/reward theory is that jobs and their associated prerequisites must be designed, so as to be attractive, interesting and satisfying to workers. When a national sample of 1,500 workers were asked about the importance to them of various features of a job, the highest ratings were assigned to the rewards of interesting work, good pay, availability of needed resources, having sufficient authority, and friendly and cooperative co-workers (Survey Research Centre, University of Michigan, 1971). Having control over one's working life appears to be becoming increasingly salient as well (Katzell, 1979; Lawler, 1985). In the actual sense, work motivation through rewards must include not only monetary compensation to workers, but also psychological rewards, such as praise for a job well done and social rewards such as acceptance by the co-workers. Maehr (1989), Martel (1988) and Lahiri (1988) had contrary view about workers' motivation in an organisation. They submitted that if staff must be motivated, it is necessary to pay attention to safety and health issues relating to them as such measures are capable of enhancing high performance and quality of work life. Hammed (1998) reported that there was no significant difference in the work motivation of media personnel in the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria and Nigerian Television Authority in Oyo State. From the available literature organisational behaviour researchers and archives and records management researchers have failed to beam their lights on work motivation, as it affects organisational commitment of different group of workers in an organisation. It is against this backdrop that the present study investigates workplace,

biographical factors and work motivation as they affect organisational commitment of records officers in Nigerian federal universities.

Methodology

The research design adopted in this study was survey descriptive research. The study population consisted of all the records officers in the federal universities in Nigeria. Lack of sampling frame and limited time to compile the needed sampling frame, administrative convenience, and the cost of sampling, necessitated the use of a single stage random sampling, with equal allocation method to select 15 out of 25 federal universities. Thereafter, 20 records officers were selected from each of the 15 chosen universities. According to Yamane (1976) the sampling fraction for samples selection in a survey research must be at least up to sixty percent before generalisations could be done on the population of study. The choice of 15 out of the 25 federal universities in Nigeria, which makes the sampling fraction to be sixty percent, was based on the assertion of Yamane (1976). A list of the universities appears in the Appendix.

Research Instrument

A questionnaire tagged Work Motivation And Organisational Commitment (WMOC) scale was used for the study. It consists of three sections A, B and C. Section 'A' contains items on personal information of the respondents such as sex, age, marital status, job tenure, level of education, monthly salary (in Naira) and religion. This section was developed by the researcher. Section 'B' contains a 19-item work motivation scale developed by the researcher. It has a reliability coefficient of 0.88, using Cronbach - Alpha method. Section 'C' contains the 24-item organisational commitment scale of Dunham, Grube and Castaneda (1994). The scale was revalidated and its reliability coefficient was determined to be 0.86, using Cronbach - Alpha method. The scale has 8 items each on affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. The instrument utilised a five-point scale, with response ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). The Cronbach-Alpha method was used to determine the internal consistency (that

is, content validity of the research instrument used for the study. The research instrument (WMOC) scale was validated by administering it on 50 records officers drawn from the five federal universities not included in the original samples.

Data Collection and Analysis

Fifteen hired and trained postgraduate students from the Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan, Nigeria, who hailed from the areas where the selected universities were sited, served as enumerators. They personally administered the questionnaire on the 300 sampled records officers from the fifteen chosen federal universities. Data collection lasted for four weeks in November, 2005. All the 300 copies of the questionnaire were retrieved, edited and found valid for analysis. Inferential statistics (Z-score and one-way analysis of variance - ANOVA) were used for data analysis, with the aid the C.STAT software package.

Findings

Background Information of the Respondents

Of the 300 respondents, 158 (52.7%) were males, while the remaining 142 (47.3%) were females. The ages of the respondents ranged between 21 and 48 years, with a mean age of 32.5 years. The study revealed that out of the 300 respondents, 105 (35%) had Senior Secondary School Certificates/General Certificates in Education (ordinary level), 88 (29.3%) had Ordinary National Diploma certificates, 62 (20.7%) had Higher National Diploma certificates and 45 (15%) had Bachelors degree certificates. It is very surprising to find that none of the 300 respondents had formal training in archives and records management. Their knowledge of records management was mainly derived from on-the-job experience and occasional attendance at training workshop on records management/registry management. Clearly, records officers with low educational qualifications dominated the staff of the records offices in the federal universities in Nigeria. This probably may be due to shortage of qualified records managers and archivists in Nigeria and to minimise heavy costs of administration.

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of Organisational Commitment of Records Officers in Nigerian Federal Universities

S/N	Item	X	SD
1.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	4.98	0.126
2.	I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside of it.	3.26	0.019
3.	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	4.98	0.221
4.	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one.	3.02	0.218
5.	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation.	2.08	0.176
6.	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation.	3.12	0.146
7.	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	4.80	0.312
8.	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.	2.05	0.089
9.	I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	3.04	0.031
10.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	4.50	0.128
11.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.	4.90	0.136
12.	It would not be too costly for me to leave my organisation now.	1.26	0.122
13.	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	4.94	0.212
14.	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.	2.78	0.079
15.	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	4.80	0.178
16.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here.	4.99	0.098
17.	I think that people these days move from organisation to organisation too often.	3.08	0.072
18.	I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his/her organisation.	2.08	0.089
19.	Jumping from organisation to organisation does not seem at all unethical to me.	1.56	0.029
20.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	4.98	0.216
21.	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organisation.	4.88	0.164
22.	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation.	4.92	0.116
23.	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers.	3.04	0.124
24.	I do not think that wanting to be a "university records management man/woman" is sensible anymore.	2.99	0.120

Table 1 provides mean and standard deviation scores of different items on the organisational commitment scale for of records officers in Nigerian federal universities. The results show that the records officers tend to exhibit high organisational commitment. This is based on the fact that the majority of the respondents upheld the view that: One of the major reasons I continue to work this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here ($x = 4.99$; $SD = 0.098$); I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation ($x = 4.98$; $SD = 0.126$); One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain ($x = 4.98$; $SD = 0.216$); I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own ($x = 4.98$; $SD = 0.221$); Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire ($x = 4.94$; $SD = 0.212$); I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation ($x = 4.92$; $SD = 0.116$); If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organisation ($x = 4.88$; $SD = 0.164$); This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me ($x = 4.80$; $SD = 0.312$).

Table 2 indicates summary of data analysis on the Z-score test of significant difference in organisational commitment of respondents in the Nigerian federal universities by their level of work motivation. The mean score and standard deviation score of work motivation of the respondents were ($x = 24.2$, $SD = 4.26$). This mean index was used as basis of classification of the respondents into high work motivation and low work motivation. Those respondents whose mean scores of work motivation fall below $x = 24.2$ were considered having low work motivation and those whose mean scores of work motivation higher than $x = 24.2$ were regarded having high work motivation. Thereafter, the mean and standard deviation scores of organisational commitment of each of the groups were computed for. The mean and standard deviation scores of the respondents belonging to high work motivation class were ($x = 23.8$, $SD = 4.52$) and that of low work motivation class were ($x = 21.2$, $SD = 4.44$). The test

of hypothesis 1 revealed that there was a significant difference in organisational commitment of the respondents based on their level of work motivation ($z = 4.84$, $P < 0.05$).

Table 2: Z-Score Showing Test of Significant Difference in Organisational Commitment of Records Officers in the Federal Universities in Nigeria by Work Motivation

Work Motivation	n	X	SD	Z	P
High work motivation	192	23.8	4.52	4.84	0.0462
Low work motivation	108	21.2	4.44		

Table 3 gives a summary of the test of hypothesis 2 that there is no significant difference in the organisational commitment of the records officers in the federal universities in Nigeria based on their marital status. Of the 300 respondents, 112 (37.3%) were single, while the rest 188 (62.7%) were married. The mean score of organisational commitment of the records officers that were single was ($x = 24.8$; $SD = 4.60$), while that of the married records officers was ($x = 20.2$; $SD = 4.52$). One can therefore deduce that the unmarried records officers had a higher mean score of organisational commitment than the married ones in the federal universities in Nigeria. The test of hypothesis 2 further revealed that there was significant difference in the organisational commitment of single and married records officers ($z = 8.38$, $P < 0.05$).

Table 3: Z-Score Test Showing the Difference in the Organisational Commitment of Records Officers in the Federal Universities in Nigeria by Marital Status

Work Motivation	n	X	SD	Z	P
High work motivation	112	24.8	4.60	8.38	0.078
Low work motivation	188	20.2	4.52		

On the issue of religious beliefs of the respondents, 10 (3.3%) of the 300 respondents were traditional religionists, 148 (49.3%) were Muslims and 142 (47.4%) were Christians. The data presented in table 4 depicts a summary of one-way analysis of variance, showing difference in organisational commitment of records officers based on their religion. The test of hypothesis 3 revealed that there was no significant difference in the organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities based, on their religious beliefs ($F = 42.04$, $P > 0.05$). (See Table 4).

Table 4: One-Way Anova Showing Differences in Organisational Commitment of Records Officers in the Federal Universities in Nigeria by Religion

Source of variation	DF	SS	MS	F-ratio	P
Religion	2	2826.8	1413.40	42.04	0.078
Residual	297	9986	33.62		
Total	299				

The job tenure of the respondents ranged between 3 and 30 years among the sampled records officers. The mean score of job tenure was 18.5 and this mean score was used to dichotomise the respondents into high and low job tenure groups. Those whose their mean scores of job tenure fall above $x = 18.5$ years were considered having high job tenure and those whose their mean job tenure scores fall below 18.5 years were considered belonging to low job tenure group. The test of hypothesis 4 revealed that there was a significant difference in organisational commitment of sampled records officers based on their job tenure ($z = 7.85$, $P < 0.05$) (See table 5).

Table 5: Z-Score Test Showing the Difference in the Organisational Commitment of Records Officers in the Federal Universities in Nigeria by Job Tenure

Job tenure	n	X	SD	Z	P
High Job tenure	184	24.6	4.56	7.85	0.0142
Low Job tenure	116	20.4	4.48		

Table 6 presents the summary of the test for significant difference in organisational commitment of the records officers, according to their place of work. Of the 300 respondents, 174 (58%) of them were working in the open records offices, and the remaining 126 (42%) were working in the confidential records office. There were more records officers in the open records offices than the confidential records offices in the federal universities in Nigeria. The mean score of organisational commitment of the respondents working in the open records offices was ($x = 22.1$, $SD = 4.54$), and for those working in the

confidential records offices was ($x = 22.9$, $SD = 4.62$). The test of hypothesis 5 revealed that there was no significant difference in the organisational commitment of the records officers, according to their workplace ($z = 1.49$, $p > 0.05$).

Table 6: Z-Score Test Showing the Difference in the Organisational Commitment of Records Officers in the Federal Universities in Nigeria According to their Workplace

Workplace	n	X	SD	Z	P
Open	174	22.1	4.54	1.49	0.0681
Confidential	126	22.9	4.62		

* P refers to the significant probability level that enables the researcher to take a decision whether null hypotheses formulated should be rejected or accepted.

Discussion

Two of the findings of this study were that there was significant difference in organisational commitment of the records officers in the federal

universities in Nigeria, based on their marital status, and that unmarried records officers were more organisationally committed than their married counterparts. The latter finding was not in line with that of Meyer and Allen (1984) who reported that married workers showed more organisational commitment than single workers. The most likely explanation for our present finding in this study is that married respondents probably have their family matters conflicting with their organisational commitment more than the single records officers in the Nigerian federal universities.

This study also found that records officers working in the open versus confidential records offices in the federal universities in Nigeria were equally committed to their organisation. This may be also be due to the higher importance attached to records management services. The finding may perhaps, be due to the considerations of costs associated with quitting, their accumulated investment in the organisation, as well as the perceived lack of alternative job opportunities. Becker (1960) corroborated this assertion when he submitted that continuance commitment of workers to their organisation is as a result of lack of employment opportunities and their much investment in it. Popoola (2005) also agreed with our present finding when he reported that there was no significant difference in organisational commitment of records management personnel in open and confidential registries of Ondo State Civil Service, Nigeria.

The result of this study, however, also established that there was a significant difference in the organisational commitment of the records officers in the federal universities, based on their levels of job tenure. It is not surprising to find that the records officers with high job tenure had a higher organisational commitment than those having low job tenure. The reason could be their strong belief in and acceptance of the organisational goals and values and desire to maintain organisation's membership. Indeed, there is a direct relationship between job tenure and organisational commitment of employees in the world of work. The higher the job tenure of workers, the more they are committed to their organisation. This submission is in conformity with Tella (2004), who reported that significant relationship existed between job tenure and the organisational commitment of library personnel in academic and research libraries in Oyo State, Nigeria.

This study also found that there was a significant difference in organisational commitment of records officers in the federal universities in Nigeria based on their work motivation. Perhaps, due to much recognition and incentives given to the records officers. Odunlade (1999) asserted that carefully designed incentives packages can favourably motivate workers for increased work performance, high organisational commitment and job commitment. If records officers in the Nigerian federal universities are to be organisationally committed, they must be provided with personal and material resources to work with, good pay packet, adequate training in records and archives management, conducive working environment, job enrichment, good leadership and recognition by their university administrators. This contention is well supported by Freedman and Phillips (1985) and Katzell and Thompson (1986) that inadequate resources can adversely affect the attributes and emotions of workers.

However, the study established that there was no significant difference in organisational commitment of the records officers in the federal universities in Nigeria by their religious beliefs. This finding confirms the assertion made by Smith (2004) that religious beliefs of workers in organisations in Africa have nothing to do with their organisational commitment.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Human resources management, according to Flippo (1980), encompasses planning, organising, directing and controlling the process of procurement, development, compensation, integration, maintenance and separation of the organisation's human resources to the end that individual, organisation and societal objectives are accomplished. One of the primary duties of the university management in Nigeria is to enhance the work motivation and organisational commitment of their employees, especially the records officers. They cannot downplay the issues relating to work motivation and organisational commitment of their records officers, if reliable, accurate, sufficient, complete, efficient and timely information is to be supplied to them for risk management, rational decision-making, effective personnel management and problem solving. This present study therefore reinforces the need for adequate provision of work motivation, in order to enhance the organisational commitment of records officers in the Nigerian federal universities.

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that: the human resources management policies of the federal universities in Nigeria should be centred on employment of workers with reasonable pay package, conducive work environment, paid insurance and pension and including several other financial and security rewards. This will encourage the records officers to improve their productivity and be organisationally committed. Adequate and relevant training in the field of records and archives management should be given to the records officers. Qualified manpower be recruited into the records offices. Fringe benefits and good salary packages are necessary to reinforce their organisational commitment. In addition, material resources should be provided to the records officers, so as to make them more organisationally committed to the goals of the federal universities in Nigeria.

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Appendix List of Universities used for the Study

1. University of Ibadan.
2. University of Lagos.
3. Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.
4. University of Ilorin.
5. University of Benin.
6. Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.
7. Bayero University, Kano.
8. University of Nigeria, Nsukka.
9. University of Calabar.
10. University of Jos.
11. University of Uyo.
12. University of Port Harcourt.
13. Federal University of Technology, Minna.
14. University of Maiduguri.
15. Usman Dan Fodio University, Sokoto.

Availability and Use of Collection Development Policies in Colleges of Education Libraries, Botswana

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Abstract

Collection development policies are necessary working tools in the development of library collections as they help in the development of a balanced stock. This paper examines the availability and use of such policies in the colleges of education libraries in Botswana. With the senior librarians in the six colleges forming the target group, nine major questions were posed to them on collection development policies. It was noted that not all the libraries had policies. Also, a majority of those who had did not involve their users in the formulation of the policies, and the policies did not incorporate some of the essentials of a collection development policy. It was revealed that those who had policies, did not use them in their collection development practices. The study concludes that college librarians need to equip themselves in the area of collection development. They also need to be made aware of the importance of the use of policies to develop college collections. Library schools also have a major role to play in equipping librarians with skills in formulating collection development policies.

Introduction

Educational systems all over the world need libraries to support and enhance their operations; therefore, they have to engage in collection development activities. Collection development is thus essential in libraries, because collections have to be developed before they can be made available to users. Brothers (1991) points out that in Botswana (formerly known as Bechuanaland Protectorate), two teacher training colleges (Lobatse and Serowe Colleges) were established before independence in 1966, and they had libraries at inception, meaning that collection development activities started in teachers' colleges in Botswana before independence.

Collection development is usually seen as the process of planning, building and maintaining a library's information resources in a way that will be relevant to clients. This being the case, the process of building the collections can not be done haphazardly. In the view of many library professionals, policies have to be put in place for collection development activities. In developing the collections in any library, it is of necessity that the librarian understands the basic elements of collection development, including the formulation of a policy, which will help in providing rationale for the inclusion of each library resource.

Preliminary investigations on the libraries of the colleges of education in Botswana indicated that there were inadequacies in the collections of the libraries, with the libraries filled with multiple copies of rarely used items. This researcher therefore perceived that the libraries may not have been using policies in their collection development practices among others. This

was the motivation for the study. The main objective of this study was to determine the adequacy and effectiveness of the collection development policies being used in the libraries under study. The study is significant because its findings would alert librarians on collection development.

Background Information on Botswana Colleges of Education and their Libraries

There are six colleges of education in Botswana, and all are affiliated to the University of Botswana. These are: Lobatse College of Education, Serowe College of Education, Francistown College of Education, Tlokweng College of Education, Molepolole College of Education and Tonota College of Education. The oldest was established in 1947, and the newest in 1990. The first four colleges offer a three-year Diploma in Primary Education programme and in 2006, nearly all of them had between 300 and 400 students, and about 40 to 50 teaching staff each. The last two colleges offer a three-year Diploma in Secondary Education programme, and each has about 600 to 700 students. One of them had over 90 teaching staff, and the other had about 110. Each college had a library, established at inception.

Review of Relevant Literature

According to Hannaford (1991), collection development is the overall moulding of a collection for a purpose to suit a group of users. He also sees it as the intentional and systematic building of a library collection with a certain end in mind. Kachel (1997) describes it as an integral part of library operations, which is at the centre of information management. Tucker and Torrence (2004) see it as policies and procedures that are established to develop library collections. It is a general belief that libraries in institutions will find it difficult to meet the information needs of students and teachers, if materials are not developed. While buttressing this point, Kiyimba (1996) states that educational institutions in Uganda will not be able to carry out their activities in a meaningful way without library collections to support those activities. Olden (1995) had earlier noted that library collections are essential in African schools, as they help students pass their examinations or help information seekers to improve their performance. Collection development is thus seen as a very important activity in libraries.

The concept of collection development policy is not new in the library profession and literature. Tucker and Torrence (2004) see the policy as part of a collection development process. Evans (1987) describes a collection development policy as a library's written plan, aimed at correcting the weaknesses of the collection and maintaining inherent strengths. He sees the policy as a plan of action which guides the library personnel's thinking and decision making. Wood and Hoffman (1996) go further to suggest that collection development policies include, statements regarding selection, de-selection, acquisition, organisation, assessment and preservation of library collections. In the view of the Australian Council of Libraries and Information Services (1994), a collection development policy is "a statement of general collection building principles which delineates the purpose and content of a collection in terms of relevance to both external and internal audiences" (The Australian Council of Libraries and Information Services, 1994:1). The American Library Association (ALA) (1994) describes the policy as a written document that defines the scope and nature of a library's existing collections, as well as the policies and plans for the continuing development of the resources.

The University of Louisville Libraries (2005) stress that a collection development policy guides the development and management of library collections. Various writers have also provided their views on these policies. Baughman, et al. (1980), while advocating for the policies in college libraries add that if the significant groups concerned with educational planning are involved in the formulation of collection development policy from positions of commitment, dedication and excitement, responses to collection development in libraries will be one of dynamic positiveness. From a study conducted by Baughman, et al. (1980) in the U.S.A., the faculty, college administrators and library directors are strongly in favour of a formal written collection development policy statement. Also, the three educational groups (faculty, college administrators and library directors) are of the view that a collection development policy statement would strengthen their library collection. Baughman, et al. (1980) also note that five factors are key in determining and designing a collection development policy statement in a college. These are general college goals, college curriculum, use of library materials, and content value

of books, periodicals etc. and faculty research interests. The authors note further that the three educational groups mentioned earlier consider all the factors enumerated as equally important, except for the faculty research interest factor. The reason, according to the writers, is that many academics constitute a teaching profession rather than a scholarly one. Many of them do not usually engage in research and do not usually publish books or articles.

The Rationale for Collection Development Policies in Libraries

Various authors have discussed extensively the rationale for a collection development policy in libraries. Among these are: the American Library Association, 1979; Gorman and Howes, 1990 and Vogel, 1996. Gorman and Howes (1990) perceive that collection development policies are needed in libraries because they perform the planning function. They further note that a collection development policy performs an external communication function, as the policy informs external users and other libraries, the types of collection available in it. The internal communication function has also been identified by Gorman and Howes (1990) as a function of a collection development policy, as dialogue with the library's internal clients, such as staff and administrators, is also necessary. Consultation with this group of people is essential when preparing the document. This helps to generate both goodwill and commitment, which shield the library from attack (Gorman and Howes, 1990). This view is shared by Kachel (1997) and Wood and Hoffman (1996). The last two writers indicate that collection development policies can improve communication, public relations, staff development, training and assessment. To this end, the policies also should:

...reduce miscommunication, misunderstanding, stress, and time spent in handling complaints and training by clarifying procedures (how does..., or what happens when...) and roles (who does what). The policies not only save everyone's time and energy on collection responsibilities, but also help defend and protect library staff and governing board members from unwelcome pressures within the community or governing

board themselves. When everyone who should be or wants to be involved has approved the policy, the policy gains a sense of formal authority quite unlike any unwritten or informal approach to collection management (Wood and Hoffman, 1996:5-6).

Atkinson (1986) enumerates three major functions of a collection development policy as referential, generative and rhetoric. The referential function relates to the function performed on the current state of the selection, as well as its development and desired future state. The generative function has to do with the collection's transformation from its current position to the desired state. The rhetoric function is the one in which there is evidence that a systematic plan is followed in the development of the collection. Atkinson (1986) also notes that a collection development policy should not only indicate the current and the desired states of the collection, but should also serve as a guide to the selector, guiding him on how to transform the collection from its current state to the desired state.

Based on the study he carried out at the Southeast Missouri State University, Buis (1990) notes that the first step in planning library acquisition expenditures is the development of a meaningful collection development policy. This is produced jointly by the library staff and the teaching faculty. He indicates that in any academic setting, the library collection contributes directly to the institution's educational function, and therefore, a collection development document should not be a rigid one. It should reflect the needs of the academic community in which it exists, and must be revised when necessary. It should also indicate the collecting priorities of the programmes offered with departmental selection goals functioning as a major part of the academic process. Bloomfield (1988) observes that a library's collection development policy must be formulated not only by the library staff, but also in conjunction with the library users. On striking a balance between the ideal and the reality, Bostic (1988) asserts that a collection development policy should tend toward the ideal, but should also be tempered by a sense of the real. In the view of Martin (1995), the actions stated in the policies are controlled by the availability of funds. Still pursuing the same theme, Futas (1995) suggests that there is no single

model that is perfect, which a library can use to ensure for itself a long-lasting and useful collection. Rather, there are a lot of possible permutations and combinations of topics that comprise a working and workable collection development policy.

The Perceived Negative Side of Collection Development Policies

Despite the rationale provided for the development of collection development policy statements, Cargill (1984) and Hazen (1995) have given reasons why these policies are not needed in libraries. On the negative side of collection development policies, Cargill (1984), suggests that not all academic libraries have these policies, because they are not all that important. Thus, to her, policies are not worth having in libraries because: they are not realistic; they prevent librarians from responding to changes or campus needs; they are time-consuming; they are difficult to compile and review; and they impose unneeded limitations on the acquisition of materials. Cargill prefers a general statement of purpose as an alternative to a collection development policy in a library. This statement of purpose should therefore be a focal point of an ongoing dialogue between faculty and librarians, which will be used to institutionalise both stability and flexibility in the process of developing the collections. While sharing the same view, Hazen (1995) suggests devising flexible guides to the library collections.

Although Cargill (1984) and Hazen (1995) have provided reasons why collection development policies should not be used in libraries, their arguments are not convincing enough. This is because librarians should endeavour to produce policies that will serve as guides in the collection building processes. A realistic rather than an ideal policy should thus emerge, based on a librarian's work environment. Also, policy opponents did not think of the time the library staff will save on answering unnecessary queries and making clarifications if no policy exists. In addition, policy preparation helps collection developers to be more versed in collection development, as some aspects incorporated in the policy may be overlooked, if they do not gather the needed information to produce a policy. Librarians and collection developers are likely to go into excesses in some areas to the neglect of other areas, if no guiding policies are followed in the collection

development process. These issues raised have been overlooked by the opponents of the policies.

The views of policy opponents notwithstanding, this researcher supports having collection development policies in libraries. This is because the policies give focus to librarians and help in charting a course for the development of collections. The availability of such a policy in a library shows that a librarian or a collection developer has planned for the building of his collection. It should be noted that if a librarian fails to plan for the collection development activities as would be reflected in the policy, then such an officer is planning to fail in the collection development process, as materials are likely to be developed haphazardly.

Collection Development Policies of Some Libraries

The collection development policies of a few libraries examined in Botswana and those of some colleges in developed nations have been written in various forms, although there are similarities in the contents of the policies. Some of those examined provided information on the purpose of the policies, the selection policy for each faculty within universities and colleges, as well as the collection level codes. Some also touch on collection evaluation, although they fail to mention anything about the clients served, limitations that is, what materials will not be acquired, co-operative arrangements and review of the policies. The collection development policy guidelines produced by the Australian Council of Libraries and Information Services are a useful tool for the preparation of any library's collection development policy, because it addresses the various components a collection development should have. The policy guideline is divided into two broad headings, which are: introduction to the library's collections, and subject areas in which the library collects. Part of what is covered in the introduction to a library's collections is the relationship of the library to the mission of the parent body, as well as the purpose of the policy and clients served. Other areas covered under introduction are the types of access available, background to the collection, which includes categories of materials available. How acquisition budget is allocated is also included, as well as selection principles, limitations (categories of materials not acquired), co-operative arrangements with other

libraries, and collection evaluation. Other areas covered are preservation of collections, weeding and review of the policy. The information that appears under the subject areas in which the library collects deals with subjects collected, present collection strengths, future acquisition intentions, language and geographic areas covered.

Methodology

This is a case study of the availability and use of collection development policies in the six colleges of education libraries in Botswana. The data for the study were thus collected from the senior librarians of the six colleges through a questionnaire administered on one senior librarian in each college and in charge of collection development responsibilities. Hence, the study population was six.

Results and Discussion of Findings

The questions posed to the senior librarians related to: availability of a written collection development policy, when policy was developed, who participated in the development of the policy, policy revision, elements of the policy, and if policy was not developed, what were the reasons. Their responses are now discussed.

Availability and Use of Collection Development Policies

Out of the six respondents for the study, four indicated that they had collection development policies. The remaining two did not have. One of the two indicated that she was still working on it, and that the policy would take a long time to complete, due to staff constraints. The other respondent said they were in the process of developing one. This indicates that not all the libraries had policies, even though the newest of the libraries had existed for sixteen years, and the oldest for fifty-nine years. It further shows that the collections in the libraries are being developed haphazardly over the years, even though Gorman and Howes (1990) and Wood and Hoffman (1996) stress that libraries should have well documented collection

development policies in place which will serve as guides to their collection development process. Also, the American Library Association (1979) perceives a written collection development policy statement as a desirable tool in any library, because it enables selectors to work with greater consistency toward defined goals, thus shaping stronger collections and using funds effectively. The policy also informs library staff, users, administrators, trustees, and others as to the scope and nature of existing collections, and the plans for continuing development of same, and provides information which will assist in the budgetary allocation process, a view shared by Gorman and Howes (1990).

On the use of the policies, those libraries that had policies did not really use them. The fact that it took them time to locate a copy of their policies for this researcher to peruse attests to the fact that the policies were not being used. This indicates that there may not be a difference in the collection development practices of those libraries with policies and those without policies. This further shows that the libraries did not take note of the suggestion of Vogel (1996) that libraries should make use of collection development policies, because they give direction for the orderly selection, acquisition, as well as management of the materials which are made available to library clients. He affirms that the policy provides a focus for the building of the collection and identifies specific subject areas of greater and lesser concentration. In addition, incorporating electronic resources into library resources will be easier with a well-laid out policy. In this regard, the policy is expected to spell out the various formats of information resources to be acquired in a particular library.

Formulation of the Collection Development Policies

The respondents were asked to indicate when their collection development policies were developed, and who participated in the development of the policies. Table 1 shows brief information on the colleges and the responses as to when the policies were developed.

Table 1: Indicators of Collection Development Policies

College	Year Founded	Students	Teaching Staff	Library Staff	Volumes of Books	Journals	Year of Policy
Tonota	1990	596	93	4	35,000	101	2000
Lobatse	1947	346	51	2	14,000	17	2004
Tlokweng	1986	343	56	3	22,088	23	2004
Serowe	1963	397	38	3	12,400	42	2005
Francis town	1968	285	44	3	18,000	42	*
Molepolole	1985	680	111	3	32,350	80	*

The asterisk (*) above indicates those libraries which did not have collection development policies.

Those who participated in the formulation of the collection development policies of the four libraries are shown in table 2.

Table 2: Participants in Collection Development Policies Formulation

College Library	Policy formulation participants
Tonota	Senior librarian, library staff, library committee, teaching staff, students, Administration staff.
Lobatse	Senior librarian, library staff, library committee.
Tlokweng	Senior librarian
Serowe	Senior librarian, library staff, library committee.

The Tlokweng respondent indicated that he gave copies of the policy to the college management and the senior librarian in charge of Educational Libraries at the Botswana National Library Service for their comments. The above table shows that not all those who had policies involved the college lecturers and the students in the formulation of the policies, even though they are the users of the libraries.

Revision of Collection Development Policies

Tonota indicated that the policy was revised in year 2005, Lobatse also indicated 2005, Tlokweng and Serowe libraries had not revised their policies. Thus, the two libraries did not have policies regarding policy revision. This contradicts the view of Odi (1994) which states that for collection management to be effective, it must be based on an agreed, regularly reviewed collection development policy, which is

formulated after assessing the needs of users and evaluating the existing library collection.

Components of the Collection Development Policies

Table 3: Elements Incorporated in the Four Policies Available

College Library	Composition of Collection Development Policies
Tonota	Acquisitions, budget allocation, collection evaluation, interlibrary loan, selection, technical processing, circulation, disaster management.
Lobatse	Policy purpose, clients served, acquisitions, selection.
Tlokweng	Selection, budget allocation, evaluation
Serowe	Policy purpose, clients served, acquisitions, budget allocation, collection evaluation, weeding, interlibrary loan, networking, selection, preservation, policy review.

Table 3 shows the elements incorporated in the policies, as the researcher had a look at each policy. Some of the components listed above were not listed in the questionnaire filled by the librarians, which further buttresses the fact that the policies are not being used, otherwise, they would have familiarised themselves with what they wrote in the policies. Using the information in table 3, Tonota Library did not include clients served, purpose of the policy, networking, limitations (type of materials not acquired by the library), weeding and when to review the policy. Lobatse also did not incorporate in the policy how budget will be allocated, collection evaluation,

co-operative arrangements, preservation, networking, limitations, weeding and review of the policy. Tlokweng's policy is also lacking in that all the elements mentioned above were omitted apart from selection, budget allocation and evaluation. For Serowe Library, limitations (areas not covered) were left out. This indicates that the libraries did not fully incorporate the essential elements of a collection development policy in their respective policies.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Information gathered from the Botswana colleges of education officers in charge of collection development revealed a lack of use of adequate collection development policies in their collection building practices. The fact that some of the libraries had not developed policies and those with policies seemed not using them also shows that the collections in the libraries were being developed without proper laid out plans. Relevant people like lecturers and students were not consulted while formulating the policies for the majority of the libraries, and some of the essential elements of a collection development policy were not incorporated. The majority of the various authors on collection development policies in libraries discussed in this study, favour of having the policies in libraries. Collection development policies are thus seen as essential tools in the development of information resources in libraries. Although a lot of time and energy is needed in the formulation of the policies, this should not deter librarians and collection developers, especially if they are willing to benefit from the advantages of a well laid-out policy in their respective libraries. It should be emphasised that officers in charge of collection development need to be committed, appropriately trained formally and informally, and be willing to spend considerable time and energy to develop useful and relevant policies. Developing the policies is not an end in itself, the policies are to be followed in the collection building process.

In view of the fact that every library needs a well laid out plan to develop virile collections, the following recommendations are now proffered:

- Library schools should incorporate how to formulate collection development policies into their programmes to equip student librarians with skills in collection development policy formulation.

- Librarians/collection developers should formulate collection development policies for their libraries, and use the policies to avoid collections being developed haphazardly.
 - In developing the policies, various stakeholders and library users should be consulted, as adopting a team approach will be greatly beneficial. Each librarian needs to study the environment where he operates and co-opt people who are in a position to assist.
 - All necessary and vital information should be gathered to help develop the policy. Such components, as policy objectives, clients served, budget allocation selection and acquisition principles, preservation, weeding, networking, etc., need to be incorporated and addressed, while the policy needs to be approved by the appropriate authority upon completion.
 - Policy revisions should be done from time to time. Although there may not be major changes in the pattern of a library's collection, emphasis may need to be placed on providing other services to clients, for example, access to information in electronic format, which may not have been covered by a previous policy.
- Librarians need to bear in mind that library collections are meant primarily for users, and as such, the collections are not to be developed haphazardly. This brings in the element of planning as an indispensable aspect of the collection building process. Policies should be developed for this awesome task, and should be used as guides in the collection building process.

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Utilisation of Internet Sources for Research by Information Professionals in Sub-Saharan Africa

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Abstract

This study investigates the extent at which librarians and other information professionals in sub-Saharan African countries utilise Internet facilities as research tools in their scholarly publications. It used African Journal of Library, Archives and Information Science (AJLAIS) as a case study. All the references cited by contributors to AJLAIS volumes 10 (1&2) 2000 to 15 (1&2), 2005 were screened. The numbers and percentages of the cited references accessed from the Internet were calculated on yearly and regional bases, using simple percentile method. The findings revealed that 2005 recorded the highest citations of Internet references of 49 (20.25%), while 2001 had the least citations of 4 (3.54%). On regional basis Southern Africa had the highest Internet reference citations of 98(68.53%, while West Africa had the least citations of 17(11.88%). Some measures to enhance the degree of utilisation of Internet facilities among African information professionals are highlighted.

Introduction

Electronic communication systems are one of the most important aspects of modern societies that bring

development. To facilitate effective communication, different computer systems are connected together to ensure sharing of resources. This concept is referred to as computer networking, which could be done within a metropolis (Metropolitan Area Network), within a nation or among nations (Wide-Area Network). When different networks are connected together to facilitate communication and sharing of resources at global level, this is generally referred to as Internet. It is therefore defined as network of networks.

The Internet facility is a powerful and efficient tool for searching, retrieving and disseminating information. As an electronic resource, Internet is currently having the most significant impact on almost all professions. Librarianship and all other information science professions are not left out. This strength of impact is due to the multi-faceted nature of the Internet, since it simultaneously fulfils three important roles in library services. First, it is a resource that can be consulted and used like any other reference resource. Second, it is more dynamic and far reacting than any other resource use in the library setting. Lastly, it provides a medium of communication that has extended the potential of librarians to interact beyond the physical library with users, colleagues and other professional activities and relationships.

In specific terms, Internet facilities support such services as e-mail, listerv, newsgroups, remote login, file transfer protocol and World Wide Web, otherwise known as W3, which has become the most popular way of locating and retrieving information. It does provide the facilities and capabilities to browse through a list of subject headings to get an idea of what is available. Internet facilities enable reference librarians to answer questions for which they had virtually no background and the information is usually more up-to-date than printed resources. Freedman (1996) observed that with the Internet, one can have

a growing information database without data collection and maintenance responsibilities.

According to Internet World Status 2005, Africa as a continent had recorded an Internet user growth of 258.3% between 2000 and 2005 but still accounted for only 1.7% of the world's Internet usage. Asia had the highest usage of 34.5%, while Europe and North America accounted for 28.7% and 23.8% respectively of the Internet users in the world.

Ojedokun (2001), Ikem and Ojo (2003), Chifwepa (2003), Kadiri (2004), Fatoki (2004) and Oyelude (2005) identified the following as constraints to Internet development in Africa: The initial capital outlay to put Internet facilities and services in place is a problem confronting many libraries in sub-Saharan African countries. Almost all the African countries are experiencing dearth of foreign exchange required to purchase relevant information and telecommunication technologies from the developed world. Majority of them depend on handouts from the developed world. Development of specific IT national policy is lacking in most sub-Saharan African countries, and as such there is no coordinated and enduring ICT developmental road map to follow. In addition, efficient telecommunication and power services that are supposed to serve as spring boards for the development of Internet services are not well developed, and where they are, the expensive service rate is a problem. The lack of reliable Internet service providers (ISPs) is another problem. Cases of no network and system collapse are common occurrences in many African countries. Apart from the problem highlighted, materials from refereed e-journals, which are useful to the researchers are not usually available on-line, free of charge. It is from those websites such as EBSCOhost and www.epnet.com operated on commercial basis that the full text of relevant research materials can be accessed. Unfortunately, many African libraries and individual information science professionals lack the wherewithal to pay for such a service on a continuous basis. Lastly, the shortage of IT specialists and inadequate skill development on the part of the potential Internet service consumers constitute hindrances to adequate development and utilisation of Internet facilities and services in Africa.

In spite of the constraints highlighted above, the continent of Africa cannot afford to do without access to Internet facilities, if she hopes to close the gap between the developed world and her in the area of

science and technology. Universities, research bodies, libraries and other information and documentation centres over the world do paste current research findings and information on the web. For African information professionals to remain relevant and meet the needs of their patrons, they must possess adequate knowledge and mastery of Internet facilities as tools for accessing current information.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were to:

- (i) ascertain the extent to which the librarians and other information professionals in sub-Saharan African countries are sourcing information from the Internet for their academic and professional publications from 2000 to 2005.
- (ii) compare the degrees of utilisation of Internet facilities as research tools among the target audience on regional basis, that is, East, West and Southern Africa during the period under review.

Methodology

In order to find out to what extent African information professionals have been accessing Internet as research tools for current information in their academic and professional publications, the African Journal of Library, Archives and Information Science (AJLAIS) was purposively chosen for this study. The choice of AJLAIS was informed by its regular frequency of publication, wide geographical spread of contributors to the journal throughout Africa and sometimes from outside, and its wide distribution network within and outside Africa. Moreover, AJLAIS is the only library and information science journal from Sub-Saharan Africa, which is adequately available and accessible to the author. Aina (2002) stated that AJLAIS was founded in 1991, with the objective of serving as a gateway for the latest developments in the information profession all over the world and Africa in particular. The journal is expected to be the major medium for reporting empirical research findings, and studies on highly theoretical aspects of the various disciplines in the information profession in Africa. All this informed the choice of AJLAIS for this study.

All the twelve issues of AJLAIS published from 2000 to 2005 were used for this study. The twelve

issues contained one hundred and one (101) academic publications (excluding book reviews), all of which, except one, were written by authors within Africa. Only one was contributed from Canada. All the one hundred (100) articles written by writers domiciled in Africa were used for this study. The articles were carefully screened, and the following data collected: country of domicile of individual author, number of references cited at the end of each article and the number and percentage of those accessed from the Internet. Using the authors' countries of domicile, the distribution of articles on regional basis, that is East, Southern and West Africa, was arrived at, as well as the number and percentage of references cited from the Internet on a regional basis.

Findings

Table 1 reveals that authors from ten different African countries published the 100 journal articles in AJLAIS from 2000 to 2005. A total of 1131 references were cited in the 100 articles, out of which only 143 (12.64%) were accessed from the Internet. Botswana and South Africa, which accounted for 17 and 9 articles respectively of the 100 articles, produced 52 and 45 references sourced from the Internet. Kenya and Tanzania with 9 and 5 journal articles respectively, accounted for 13 and 14 references accessed from the Internet, whereas Nigeria and Ghana with 40 and 13 journal articles respectively accounted for only 10 and 7 references sourced from the Internet out of the total 143 Internet

references cited. The above implies that authors in countries, such as Botswana, South Africa, and to some extent, Tanzania and Kenya appear to use Internet facilities as research tools while writing academic publications more than authors from Nigeria, Ghana, Zambia, Uganda, Mozambique and Swaziland.

According to table 2, the proportion of Internet references cited to the total number of references cited on yearly basis from 2000 to 2005, shows that 10.99%, 3.54%, 15.79%, 10.24%, 8.60% and 20.25% respectively were accessed from the Internet. The figures do not show any consistent yearly improvement in the utilisation of Internet facilities as research tools by the contributors to AJLAIS, although 2005 had the best report of 20.25% citation rate, while 2001 recorded the poorest rate of 3.54%.

Table 3 shows that East Africa with 16 journal articles from the 100 articles accounted for 197 references, out of which 28 (14.21%) were sourced from the Internet; Southern Africa with 31 articles accounted for 407 references, 98 (24.07%) of which were accessed from the Internet, while West Africa which contributed 53 journal articles and 527 references accounted for only 17 (3.22%) Internet sourced references. Distributing the 143 Internet references cited during the period under review on regional basis, East Africa accounted for 28 or (19.58%), Southern Africa accounted for 98 or (68.53%), while West Africa accounted for only 17 or (11.89%).

Table 1: Distribution of Journal Articles according to Author's Country of Domicile

Author's country of Domicile	Total no. of article per country	Total no. of ref. cited	Total No. of Internet ref.	% of Internet ref. Cited
Botswana	17	182	52	28.57
Ghana	13	133	7	5.26
Kenya	9	102	13	12.74
Mozambique	1	7	0	0
Nigeria	40	394	10	2.53
South Africa	9	169	45	26.62
Swaziland	1	8	1	12.50
Tanzania	5	72	14	19.44
Uganda	2	23	1	4.35
Zambia	3	41	0	0
Total	100	1,131	143	12.64

Table 2: Proportion of Internet Cited References according to Author's Country of Domicile

Country	2000 % of Internet ref cited	2001 % of Internet ref cited	2002 % of Internet ref cited	2003 % of Internet ref cited	2004 % of Internet ref cited	2005 % of Internet ref cited	Total % of Internet ref cited
Botswana	32.56	11.11	21.43	28.57	34.62	40.54	28.57
Ghana	5.88	-	-	-	-	15.63	5.26
Kenya	-	12.5	-	12.12	20	21.43	12.74
Mozambique	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nigeria	-	-	3.57	3.25	2.24	5.36	2.53
South Africa	8.93	-	33.33	58.33	-	40	26.62
Swaziland	-	-	-	-	-	12.50	12.50
Tanzania	-	-	18.52	66.66	-	16.67	19.44
Uganda	-	-	-	-	-	6.56	4.35
Zambia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	10.99	3.54	15.79	10.24	8.60	20.2	12.64

In spite of the fact that West Africa region accounted for 53 (53%) of the 100 articles screened with 527 (46.59%) of the total references cited, it recorded the least Internet references of only 17(11.88%) cited. This implies that Internet facilities as research tools have not been adequately embraced by the West African library and other information professionals. This finding is at variance with the findings of Fatoki (2004), Ojokoh and Asaolu (2005), who in their separate studies of university students' utilisation of Internet facilities for academic and research projects discovered that students in their respective libraries made great use of Internet facilities to collect relevant data and information for their research. The trio and Odunewu (2004) however

observed that most of their respondents made use of cyber cafes outside the libraries to access information from the Internet. This implies that, perhaps, there is inadequate Internet connectivity in the libraries used for their studies. This claim is corroborated by the findings of Chifwepa (2003), who discovered that the teaching staff of the University of Zambia did not use Internet facilities for their teaching and research work, due to low level of ICT development on the university campus. On the other hand, Ojedokun and Owolabi (2003) found out that majority of the academic staff of the University of Botswana used Internet facilities for their teaching and research activities, because Internet is easily and adequately accessible to the staff on their campus, and majority

Table 3: Distribution of Journal Articles on Regional Basis

Region	Total no. of article per country	Total no. of ref. cited	Total No. of Internet ref. Cited	of Internet ref. Cited
East Africa	16	197	28	14.21
Southern Africa	31	407	98	24.07
West Africa	53	527	17	3.22
Grand total	100	1,131	143	12.64

of the staff members had computers hooked to the Internet in their offices.

Implications of the Findings

The fact that most of the sampled authors did not use Internet facilities as research tools implies that several relevant and up-to-date information had been eluding the sampled authors, because currently, the Internet provides the largest and latest reservoir of vital information in all kinds of disciplines from all over the world. By extension, the librarians and other information professionals, as information providers, are not likely to be able to provide up to date Internet accessed information to their clients in so far as they have not been accessing information constantly from the Internet for their individual research. The lack of adequate utilisation of Internet facilities by the sampled authors, especially those from West Africa, might not be unconnected with lack of access to Internet facilities as observed by Oyelude (2005) that: as at 2001, most libraries in Nigeria had not gained access to the Internet. This situation is similar to that of Zambia, as stated by Chifwepa (2003) and Makondo and Katuu (2004). Furthermore, the fact that there has not been constant improvement in the utilisation of Internet facilities by the authors from one year to another, indicates that there have not been systematic and proactive efforts on the part of the policy makers at the governmental and institutional levels to develop Internet facilities in African countries. Botswana and South Africa appear to be the only exceptions, as shown by the findings of this study.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study has shown that the utilisation of Internet sources for research by sub-Saharan African information professionals is low, however the situation obtained in Southern African region is better than what is obtained in both East and West Africa. In view of this, there is an urgent need for academic libraries in Africa to be hooked to the Internet, and that librarians and other information professionals should have unrestricted access to the facilities. All other supportive facilities and services, such as, adequate and constant supply of electricity, as well as reliable and affordable telecommunication services should be put in place. Furthermore, to hone the Internet searching skills of the information

professionals, workshops should be organised from time to time by the governments, the managements of institutions, the libraries and the information professional bodies.

Finally, governments of various African countries should evolve and vigorously pursue clear-cut national ICT policies. For meaningful contribution to global intellectual development, African information professionals cannot afford to lag behind in ICT knowledge and utilisation.

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Short Communications

The State of Archival Appraisal Practices in the ESARBICA Region

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Abstract

When archivists appraise records, they make a determination as to what to keep and destroy. In other words, they decide who has voice and who remains voiceless. Appraisal involves value prescription to records, and is one of the most important responsibilities of archivists. The future research potential of records is a variable that is difficult to determine, and this serves to highlight the delicateness of the appraisal task. Wrong appraisal decisions constitute a barrier to accessing records and archives. A variety of methodologies exist for archival appraisal, but for the Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ESARBICA), many archival institutions employ the value based approach. Despite this fact, the archival process is not being conducted in a professional manner which threatens the future of historical research, corporate memory and national heritage of the member states of ESARBICA. This is evidenced by the archaic legislation in place, and the lack of both expertise and defined standards to carry out the process.

Introduction

Archival appraisal remains one of the most critical responsibilities of an archivist. Archivists shape societal memory, as they determine what is to be preserved for posterity. Lisitsyna (2002) advances the view that archivists have a very important task in society, as they have to safeguard records that protect humanitarian and societal rights of the citizens. Suderman (2003) acknowledges this responsibility by stating that archival appraisal is the defining role of the archival profession. This is not surprising considering that records appraisal largely depends on deciding what records should be preserved or destroyed. It follows then that a huge responsibility is placed on the archivist in terms of utilising appropriate methods for the selection of records of enduring value. Cook (1999) has acutely observed that archivists must realise the gravity of the task of documenting our heritage for posterity when conducting appraisal. Cook (1995), rightly argues that the subjectiveness of the process has actually de-legitimised many societies, classes, religions, ethnic groups or races, from archives, and thereby from history and mythology – sometimes unconsciously and carelessly, sometimes consciously and deliberately. In a nutshell, the delicateness of the appraisal task highlights the fact that the future research potential of records is a variable that is difficult to determine, and calls for expertise on the part of the appraiser, in order for the process to conform to acceptable archival standards and guidelines. In essence, wrong appraisal decisions can be a barrier to the access of records and archives by society.

Information is created to serve a specific purpose. In serving this purpose, its period of

usefulness varies from just a few minutes, to a few weeks, months, years or even eternity. A good records management programme makes it possible to identify the period of usefulness of the information and to give appropriate instructions as to the fate of the information. It follows then that records, whether paper or digital, cannot all be retained indefinitely. It is indisputable that storage and maintenance over time is often expensive and as the volume of records grows, access becomes slower and more difficult. Appraisal is the process whereby archivists evaluate records to determine whether they will be destroyed or preserved (Walne 1988). In other words, the process entails prescribing values to records to determine their life expectancy from a retention point of view.

ESARBICA Region Situation

The Eastern and Southern African Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ESARBICA) was established in 1969, in Kenya. It brings together individuals and institutions concerned with the creation, use, preservation and management of recorded information in Eastern and Southern Africa. It comprises twelve member states namely: Botswana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zanzibar and Zimbabwe (ESARBICA 2004). The mission of ESARBICA is the advancement of archives through regional co-operation.

ESARBICA is greatly concerned with archival appraisal practices in the member states. This is in recognition that there are problems associated with the appraisal of records in the region. Ngulube (2001) asserts that not much is known about how archivists conduct appraisal, as the process is fraught with irregularities and characterised by a hit and miss approach. The draft Resolution 5 of the 17th Biennial General Conference of ESARBICA on Archives, Society and Good Governance, Maputo 2003 highlighted the need for archival institutions to handle records appraisal in a professional manner. There was unanimity on the view that archivists had to be encouraged to constantly review and document the archival appraisal procedures, in order to meet societal expectations (ESARBICA 2003).

The main objective of this study was to investigate the state of appraisal practices in ESARBICA Region.

Methodology

In 2004, this author undertook a regional assessment of the appraisal practices currently prevailing within the Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ESARBICA). The assessment was part of a dissertation project for a Master's degree in Information Studies at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. The aims of the study were multifarious, but three of them centred on determining archival appraisal practices within the region, ascertaining whether the methodologies conformed to laid down benchmarks, and suggesting recommendations as to what can be done to improve the appraisal practices within ESARBICA. A questionnaire was distributed to the national archives of all ESARBICA member countries. Nine countries completed the questionnaire namely, Botswana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Only Mozambique, Tanzania and Zanzibar did not respond to the questionnaire.

Findings

The survey revealed the current appraisal practices in the region, as follows:

Appraisal Applications

Two most common applications of archival appraisal in national archives in the region were (a) the value-based or Schellenberg approach, whereby records for permanent preservation are selected because of their historical value, and (b) sampling, whereby a sample of records is selected to represent a whole. Another methodology was the functional or macro-appraisal approach, whereby processes are first appraised before the records are appraised in an effort to capture the contextual milieu in which the records were created.

The application of standards to the appraisal exercise remains a contentious issue. Standards are benchmarks used to measure the quality of the final product, and in a way, they regulate that process. Archival appraisal standards refer to threefold aspects: (i) the process of carrying out the appraisal, (ii) the report explaining the recommendations (iii) the criteria used in arriving at the recommendations (Archives New Zealand, 1998). The findings revealed

that although standards existed, compliance with them was, however cosmetic, and lacked uniformity in practice. The discrepancy was due to a number of reasons, ranging from lack of qualified personnel to handle the delicate task and the frequent staff turnovers that affected continuity in appraisal practice.

Archival Legislation

Article 11 of the International Council on Archives (1996) states that all archival legislation should define the respective roles of the national archives and the various government departments for the appraisal and destruction of records. This means that responsibility for appraisal and disposal should be clearly assigned to the appropriate heads of agencies and to the head of the records and archives institution, and this should clearly be spelt out in any piece of archival legislation. The study established that in the present archival legislation, archival appraisal was not given the full treatment it deserved. Except for two national archival institutions, there was no clause that specifically dealt with archival appraisal. The study also revealed that the legislation is outdated and in desperate need of a review.

Re-appraisal Applications

Archival institutions within ESARBICA were currently facing a huge backlog of unappraised records. The reason lay primarily in the lack of expertise to conduct the exercise, and was also due to lack of co-operation by departments with records whose disposal authority had been applied for but not affirmed. A recent study by Mnjama (2006) suggests that one of the most effective solutions of dealing with backlog accumulations of archives was the adoption of a series of co-operative workshops. Mnjama (2006) further posits that backlog accumulations in this region are a result of the lack of strong archival institutions in the region during the colonial period and soon after independence. In addition, backlog accumulations are due to staff shortages, as many archival institutions in the region remain understaffed.

The study established that save for one institution, electronic records were not being appraised, as the bulk of the surveyed institutions were still paper focused. Generally speaking, electronic records are

being created in public institutions, but then, some are being mismanaged and getting lost altogether.

The study intended to establish whether re-appraisal of records was being undertaken in their archival repositories. Re-appraisal or retention review is the process of re-evaluating the holdings of an archive or manuscript repository to determine which holdings should be retained and which should be de-accessioned (Bellardo and Bellardo 1992). It was found that in the majority of cases, re-appraisal was being conducted in an effort to create space which was in short supply in most archival institutions.

Training

The training of archivists and records managers has never been prioritised within the ESARBICA region. A few of those trained left for greener pastures out of frustration, as those very institutions could not afford to provide the right staff incentive schemes for their employees, which explains the frequent staff upheavals. According to Mnjama (2006), archival institutions have due to shortage of staff, been unable to appraise closed records in ministries and departments, resulting in huge accumulations of closed records in these institutions.

Recommendations for Improving Archival Appraisal Practices Within ESARBICA

These recommendations are based on the models found in the literature and the findings of the research.

- Archival institutions within ESARBICA use mostly the value based methodology and sampling for their appraisal practice, but both methodologies are found wanting, when it comes to preserving the complete record of society. According to Ngulube (2001), a hybrid approach that integrates document imaging and appraisal to deal with over-abundant information and the paper avalanche can help to strike a balance between preserving impartial historical records and achieving economies in the storage and retrieval of records. In the proposed model, hybridisation will integrate appraisal as a document management technique with document imaging, in order to preserve the impartial documentary record.
- Due to the fact that digitisation is tremendously expensive, microfilming is thus strongly

recommended. Micro-forms are relatively inexpensive to produce, and copy, can be read by the naked eye, using only light and magnification. At the heart of this recommended model, is the fact that microfilming can be used to replace paper at any stage of the record life cycle. More importantly, archivists would continue appraising records and selecting those that they would want to keep as originals in their limited repository space, while keeping those non-current records that are deemed to be of no conceivable value as information surrogates on microfilm, instead of completely destroying them without leaving any evidence that they ever existed. Digitisation and microfilming have a symbiotic relationship, as they both enhance access, and are a panacea to space constraints that affect archival institutions within the region.

- Archival institutions should work according to established standards in order to ensure that the appraisal criteria serve to provide either authority to destroy records or a statement that records are considered of sufficient value to warrant preservation. Ngulube (2001) aptly remarks that standards provide a solid basis for archive services, and act as yardsticks by which the services can be monitored and measured. It therefore follows that these standards have to be incorporated into archival legislation, but regrettably, this is not the case within ESARBICA as reported by Ngulube.
- It is strongly recommended that periodic reviews of archival legislation be undertaken, with particular regard to archival appraisal and the ever changing world of information technology. Legislation should explicitly define appraisal and how the task is supposed to be executed. According to the International Records Management Trust (1999), legislation should establish a framework for the continuous appraisal and disposal of all records. Archival institutions within ESARBICA should also periodically review their Archival Acts, and specifically incorporate archival appraisal, and draft policies and guidelines to act as drivers for the exercise. Re-appraisal of records should be a continuous activity, and efforts should be made to ensure that legislation captures this important activity. Not only does re-appraisal help to create

space but ensures that a re-visit of the institution's holdings is done to ensure that use as the ultimate goal of all archival endeavour is upheld.

Conclusion

The various governments need to recognise the role of records managers and archivists and show appreciation. In this regard, there is need to provide training for records and archives staff, and help prepare them for the information technology world, which is always in a state of flux. Such training may be conducted through in-house workshops and seminars, attachments, visits or refresher courses, in order for archivists and records managers to keep abreast with the emerging developments and challenges of the electronic age. According to Mutiti (2001), electronic records are here to stay, and must be made an integral part of an archive's routine operations.

The training of archivists and records managers needs to be prioritised in view of the electronic revolution, as professionals need to keep pace with the changing technologies. The brain drain syndrome could be solved, if governments commit resources to train archival staff, and provide the necessary incentives to retain personnel. As a stop gap measure, in light of the fact that governments have pressing priorities in other fields, information professionals have to start empowering themselves economically to improve their welfare.

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Book Review

Reference Guide to Africa: A Bibliography of Sources. 2nd edition. Edited by Alfred Kagan. Lanham: Scarecrow Press, 222p. ISBN 08108 5208 X

This Africa reference Guide is divided into two main parts. The first part, consists of General and Subject Entries, while the second part comprises the Author/Title and subject Indexes.

The General section is made up of six chapters-Bibliographies and Indexes; Guides, Handbooks, Directories and Encyclopedias; Biographies; Primary Sources; Government Publications; and Statistics. The Subject section consists of 17 chapters according to academic disciplines. These are Agriculture and Food; Communications; Cultural Anthropology; Development; Environment; Folklore; Geography and Maps; History; Languages and Linguistics; Libraries and Librarianship; Literature and Theatre; Music; Politics and Government; Publishing and the Book Trade; Religion; Visual Arts; and Women

According to the editor, there are 23 chapters and 793 entries in the guide. Thus, there are fewer entries in this edition than the first edition published in 1999, which has 944 entries. A large number of the older titles in the first edition were deleted from the second edition and fewer new titles were added. The new Guide covers more works on North Africa and Islam in Africa than the previous edition. Also, electronic sources are covered in this edition. The Guide is biased towards the social sciences and the humanities. Country and region specific titles are excluded. Most of the titles are in English and French languages published in Africa, North America and Europe. A few titles in other languages are included.

Most of the titles are annotated. The entries have detailed author/title and subject indexes. Individual countries and regions are not listed in the indexes. The index numbering refers to the citation numbers rather than page numbers. Materials on North Africa/Middle East are indexed under Middle East in the subject index.

Africa is undergoing a process of development, it is therefore understandable that the chapter on development has the largest number of entries (74) followed by the chapter on History (54 entries). Some notable titles are excluded from this Guide. For example, *Africana: the Encyclopedia of the African and African American Experience*, Basic Civitas Books, edited Henry L. Gates, Jr and Kwame A. Appiah; *Financial Mail Business Magazine Annual* (based in South Africa); *South African Political History: A Chronology of Key Political Events from Independence to Mid-1999*. Edited by Jacqueline A. Kalley

Professor Kagan is Professor of Library Administration and African Studies Bibliographer at the University of Illinois at Urbana Champaign, USA. He is to be commended for this easily navigable reference guide. This guide would be useful to government officials, scholars, as well as students, librarians, teachers and researchers in African studies.

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Professional News and Events

AJLAIS Ranked Second Among 245 Journals in Africa; Included in EBSCO Publishing

African Journal of Library, Archives and Information Science (AJLAIS) was ranked second among the 245 journals on the African Journal Online (AJOL) Programme. The evaluation was carried out by the International Network for the Availability of Scientific Information (INASP). It will be recalled that AJOL was established in 1997, by INASP, with the objective of "raising the visibility of African journals and create a greater awareness of research carried out in Africa." As at the time of the evaluation, AJOL had 245 African journals in its programme. The journals cover various types of disciplines. The evaluation of the journals was based on the requests for documents and deliveries for all the 245 journals published between 2003 and 2005. During the period, the East African Medical Journal topped the list with 311 requests and deliveries, followed by the African Journal of Library, Archives and Information Science (145). South African Journal of Botany came third with 123 requests and deliveries.

Recently, the management of African Journal of Library, Archives and Information Science (AJLAIS) signed a license agreement with EBSCO to include AJLAIS in EBSCO Publishing (EP). EBSCO Publishing currently licenses the full text content of over 8,000 well-known periodicals and databases, which are offered as collections in more than 40 products that are successfully being marketed worldwide. EBSCO's research database products are installed in close to 90% of the public and academic libraries in the United States and Canada. EP has excellent penetration in Western Europe, and, due to an exclusive arrangement with a philanthropic organisation, EP products are installed in every college, university and public library in the libraries of Australia, New Zealand, Japan, China, Hong Kong, S. Korea, Taiwan, and the Philippines. EBSCO Publishing will pay royalties on a quarterly basis.

Carol Priestley awarded MBE; Pippa Smart leaves INASP

Carol Priestley, former Director of the International Network for the Availability of Scientific Information (INASP), UK, was recently acknowledged in the 2007 New Year Honours List with an MBE (Member of the British Empire). She was awarded this title for her services to science in developing countries and emerging economies. Carol Priestley initiated the successful African Journal Online Programme (AJOL) programme, while she was the Director of INASP. The management of African Journal of Library, Archives and Information Science (AJLAIS) congratulates Carol Priestley.

Mrs Pippa Smart, Head, Publishing Initiatives of INASP, recently resigned her appointment from INASP. She was directly involved in providing grants to AJLAIS to provide capacity building for library and information science authors and editors in West Africa. Mrs Smart also initiated INASP sponsorship of the stakeholders conference on improving the quality of library and information science journals in West Africa held in Ibadan, Nigeria in 2005. The management wishes her success in her new endeavour.

Nigerian Senate passes FOI Bill

Freedom of Information (FOI) Bill 2006 was recently passed by the Senate of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The bill had earlier been passed by the other arm of the National Assembly (House of Representatives) in 2004. The bill would provide members of the public with unhindered access to public records or documents to which they had hitherto been denied. It is expected that the bill would boost the practice of library, archives and information science in Nigeria. The bill "provides for public access to public interest and the protection of personal privacy; protects serving public officers from adverse consequences for disclosing certain kinds of official information without authorisation; and establishes procedures for the achievement of those purposes and related purposes thereof."

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.

MISSION

To provide on a regular and sustainable basis an excellent scholarly journal for reporting empirical research findings in the information profession in Africa

VISION

To be the main resource base for library, archives and information science research in Africa

NOTES TO CONTRIBUTORS

Contributors are to submit the manuscript by e-mail file attachment using MS word and a hard copy, typed double space on A4 paper. Ample margins should be provided. The title, author's name, position and place of work should appear on the first page. Subsequent pages, not more than 15, should include an informative abstract of not more than 100 words. A 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) 13-10.

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

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

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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. Fifteen copies of reprints of each major article will be supplied to the principal author.

Manuscripts and other editorial materials should be directed to the Editor in Chief, Professor L.O. Aina, Department of Library and Information Studies, University of Botswana (e-mail:ainalo@mopipi.ub.bw) or any member of the editorial board nearest to you.