National development plans and the integration of library planning in a developing country: Nigeria as a case study

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NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANS
AND THE INTEGRATION OF LIBRARY
PLANNING IN A DEVELOPING COUNTRY:
NIGERIA AS A CASE STUDY

By

PETER TARZOMON DIM. M.A., B.L.S.,

A Doctoral Thesis submitted in
partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the award of Ph.D. in Library
Studies of the Loughborough University
of Technology, July 1983

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A.N.Z.L.A., Head, Department of
Library and Information Studies.

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DEDICATION

To my wife Kate,
my daughter Dooshima,
and my son Apine
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Many people have helped in many different ways to make this research possible. It would be impossible to acknowledge the assistance or cooperation received from everyone of them. The author would, however, like to acknowledge the invaluable assistance of the following particular persons: Professor P.Havard-Williams, Head of the Department of Library and Information Studies, Loughborough University of Technology, who is also my research supervisor and Director. His personal interest in the subject of investigation has been a source of encouragement to me. I am most grateful to him for his painstaking comments and useful suggestions throughout the period of investigation. I am particularly grateful to him for his sympathetic understanding of my financial difficulties.

I am grateful to Mr.L.G.Durbidge, Lecturer in the Department of Library and Information Studies, Loughborough University of Technology, for kindly reading the final drafts and making some useful suggestions and necessary corrections; Mr.Benson Edoka of the Department of Library Studies, University of Ibadan, Nigeria, for providing me some data on the Department of Library Studies, University of Ibadan, from its inception in 1960 to the present; Mrs.Eno Bassey of the Nigerian Book Development Council, Lagos, for furnishing me with information on the operation of the Council; the staff of the National Library of Nigeria for their kind cooperation during my research visit to the National Library in September 1982. I wish to thank in particular Alhaji M.H.Wali, Deputy Director of the National Library Board, for making available to me, free of charge, a National
Library publication on the Fourth National Development Plan, 1981-85; the Catholic Bishop of Makurdi Diocese, Benue State, the Rt.Rev.Donal J.Murray, for a loan of £1000.00 from his London accounts, which greatly alleviated my financial difficulties during the course of this research; my wife, Kate, for the understanding she has shown throughout the period of my absence from the family, and my brother Cletus A.Dim whose moral support has always been a source of inspiration to me.

Finally, I wish to express my profound gratitude to the Benue State Government for the award of two-year scholarship to enable me to undertake this research full-time; my employers Benue Polytechnic, Ugbokolo, for granting me a two-year study fellowship, thus enabling me to maintain my family in Nigeria while undertaking this research in the United Kingdom.
The main objective of the research is to try to achieve 'a value' for library and information services in national planning in Nigeria. Genesis and development of national planning and national planning procedures have been explored. The place of library and information service in national development planning in developing countries, with special reference to Nigeria, as against education, transport, industry, agriculture, health, etc., has been identified. The relations existing between library and information services and scientific development as well as the book trade have also been explored.

A case for national planning of library and information services has been made, priorities have been identified. Those include library legislation, national information policy, library technology, library manpower, i.e. education and training of the information personnel, and centralised planning. Unesco's activities in the field of library development planning in developing countries have been highlighted to give reinforcement to the proposed programme of national library planning and development.

Problems associated with national planning of library and information systems and services have been identified but suggestions for forestalling those problems have been made.

The role of the Nigerian Library Association has been critically assessed, particularly its role in the education and training of library and information personnel at all levels. The weaknesses of the Association have been identified. These include lack of legal status to give the Association powers to enforce standards of practice; communications problems which prevent the Council of the Association from meeting frequently to carry out its decisions, and the small size of the Association with resultant shaky financial base.
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SECTION A

DEVELOPMENT
I

I N T R O D U C T I O N

I. Library development planning is a relatively recent concept in the literature of librarianship. The concept was first propounded by Carlos Viento Penna, and it was set out in his original essay which was revised by P.H.Sewell and Herman Liebers, and published as a Unesco manual (1970).

In the thirty years of Unesco's existence, a lot of discussion has taken place concerning library development planning. As a result of Unesco's regional seminars which have been organised over a period of more than ten years, it has become possible to discuss the need for national library planning in relation to national plans for economic and social development.

The concept of national library planning has been given new and more practical emphasis by a number of unofficial publications including National Library and Information Services: A Handbook for Planners edited by C.V.Penna, D.J.Foskett and P.H.Sewell published in 1977. The most recent addition to the literature on the planning of national library services is Aspects of Library Development Planning edited by J.Stephen Parker, and published by Mansell, London 1983. Like its predecessor 'A Handbook for Planners' (1977), Aspects of Library Development Planning is a composite work of several librarians from different countries with different experiences in library development planning. It had its origins in a British Council course on library development planning which was held in Bristol, England, 7 - 19 October, 1979. The major theme of the course was the national
planning of library and information services in developing countries. There is a contribution by George Affia on "Library Development Planning : The Case of Nigeria". The author surveys the library development plans of the Federal and State Governments from 1960 to 1980. This period covers Nigeria's three national development plans. The work is essentially a 'study of the various library plans that have been made for the development of libraries both by Federal and State Governments'. Factors affecting the implementation of the various plans have been identified, namely, frequent changes in the political and administrative units of the country - from three regions in 1960 to four in 1963, then twelve states by 1967, and now nineteen states, leading to frequent revision of previous plans to fit in with the changes. Other factors include lack of executive capacity to implement the plans, unrealizable plans drawn up in some cases by non-librarians, and over-ambitious plans drawn up by inexperienced librarians which are out of tune with the national economy.

The survey deals with only two aspects of library development planning namely, library legislations and development plans. The crucial factors of education and training, information technology, centralised planning and the book industry are left out of the study. This could be deliberate, because as the title of the book itself suggests, the course was concerned with only some aspects of library development planning. In the introduction Parker points out that the book "does not pretend to be a comprehensive manual".

Another contribution to the concept of the national planning of library and information services is Stephen Parker's FLA thesis (1978). It is a comprehensive and well documented account which
traces the origin of Unesco's concept of a planned centralised library and information system.

The national planning of library and information services in any country today should aim at meeting the worldwide proliferation of information by including the planning of such international concepts as the Universal Bibliographic Control, and more recently, the Universal Availability of Publications. By implication the planning of these international concepts means the adoption of international standards of classification, cataloguing and the definition of machine format.

The concept of Universal Bibliographic Control has been advanced by the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA), as a worldwide scheme which has as its function the control and exchange of information relating to current publications whereby each country will be able to acquire the bibliographical data about publications in other countries.

In 1972, a World Science Information System (UNISIST) was established within Unesco as an inter-governmental programme originally designed to stimulate and guide voluntary cooperative actions by Unesco Member States, and by non-governmental international organisations to facilitate access to and international flow and exchange of scientific and technological information, thus serving as a clearing house for the world scientific and technical information. Similarly, a Unesco sponsored Inter-governmental Conference on the Planning of National Documentation, Libraries and Archives Infrastructures, held in September 1974 in Paris, endorsed the establishment of a national information system, generally known by the acronym NATIS. In creating the NATIS
concept, Unesco was responding to a new challenge facing the United Nations systems, the challenge of a New International Economic Order, which was adopted at the Sixth Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly. But Unesco has been cautious in its interpretation of the 'new economic order'. The term "social" should be understood and interpreted to include and give expression to the cultural element.

The social reality of development is something much more than material well-being:

human dignity is at least as important as part of its happiness. The term "the quality of life" expresses this twofold demand for happiness and dignity, a demand incomprehensible without reference to culture which our contemporaries, and particularly the younger generation, are coming more and more to see as the criterion of genuine development. (1)

Improvement in the quality of life will however, depend on the amount of knowledge an individual acquires, knowledge in turn depends on access to relevant information. Information has therefore become an essential basis for the improvement of the quality of life and a vital instrument in the progress of civilization and society. In their operational activities, the two concepts of NATIS and UNISIST inevitably duplicated functions and resources. To eliminate this duplication, the Unesco's General Conference, at its nineteenth session in 1976, authorized the merger of NATIS concept of overall planning of national information systems with the UNISIST programme so that the effectiveness of Unesco in the field of information systems and services could be strengthened. This decision was implemented in March 1977 when
the activities and programmes of the two concepts were combined into a new Division of the General Information Programme (PGI after the title in French). Unesco's activities in the fields of scientific and technological information, documentation, libraries and archives were therefore brought together for the first time as an integrated programme.

The General Information Programme was organised to correspond to the major sub-objectives or themes of Unesco's Objective 10.1 (which referred to the development and promotion of information systems and services at national, regional and international levels) in its Medium-Term Plan for 1977-82. These themes are:

- To promote the formulation of information, policies and plans at the national, regional and international levels.
- To promote and disseminate methods, norms and standards for information handling.
- To contribute to the development of information infrastructures.
- To contribute to the development of specialized information systems in the fields of education, culture and communications and the natural and social sciences.
- To promote the training and education of specialists in and users of information.

Among those themes, the General Information Programme was directed to give top priority to the development of information infrastructures and to the training and education of information personnel and users. PGI was also urged to strike a proper balance between the information, library and archive activities which met the needs of Member States.
The establishment of the General Information Programme was followed by the First UNISIST Meeting on Regional Information Policy and Planning in West Africa held in Accra (Ghana) 4-7 December 1978. The meeting deliberated on a range of issues concerning the whole field of information, emphasising the role of scientific and technical information for development. Among its recommendations, the meeting invites Unesco to undertake in the framework of its General Information Programme and in co-operation with existing training facilities in the region and other appropriate organizations a study on the desirability of the establishment of a regional training centre in West Africa for all kinds of information personnel....

The meeting also called on governments of West Africa to take measures to improve access to information generated within the region by:

(a) building up comprehensive clearing house arrangements for identifying the relevant literature, especially non-conventional literature, collecting, storing and announcing it and making it available throughout the region;

(b) compiling and regularly up-dating, inventories of current research..... and ensuring their circulation throughout the region...;

(c) exploring in detail possible ways of overcoming language barriers within the region....;

(d) compiling, and regularly updating, directories of information resources, professional expertise, conferences and meetings etc. when possible with the assistance offered by FID;

(e) urging ECOWAS to speed up its programme for communication development within the region. (3)
While recognising that the planning of information services is necessary in all countries, it must be argued that it is more necessary in developing countries. Alexander Wilson has observed, quite correctly that the library planner in a developing country knows that he must argue the case for resources in an economy which would usually face crushing problems of priority with regard to nutrition, law and order, economic growth and other life or death decisions. 

It may be due to these problems of priority and 'other life or death decisions' that despite continuing support given by the Unesco, IFLA and other international organisations, that there are remarkably few examples of successful execution of plans for national library development in developing countries. Penna et al (1977) are correct in stating that some of the reasons for the failure of economic planners to include library and information services in national economic plans are the non-inclusion of experienced librarian-planners in national planning agencies, and that few librarians have been committed to the study of development planning. Furthermore, the potential contribution of library and information services to national development plans has never been seriously explored, either by librarians themselves or economic planners. It is on the basis of this assumption that Wilson suggests that the neglect of library development in a country may be due to ignorance on the part of planners in other fields, notably educationalists and economists, or of latest thinking and development in library service. This being the case plans for library development in developing countries have to
be clearly related to the specific economic, educational and cultural goals of the nation so that they may be given their due place in national development plans. It is for this reason that this investigation devotes the first three chapters to an examination of the concept of development and national development planning in Nigeria. The objective is to identify national priorities so that a case for relating library services to them can be made. Making a case for library development means defining the objectives of the service and this has not proved very successful in developing countries. George Affia has admitted that "library planning faces two problems, first, defining the real objective of a library .... (is it a social service in its own right, or an adjunct to education?), and secondly, defining the inter-relationship between the parent institution to which the library may be attached and the library itself". (6)

It is because of the ambiguities in the definition of the objectives of library services that even in states (in Nigeria) where library plans are drawn up, one often finds that the original concept and objectives of the plan are lost "in the process of integration into a national grid" and "the time table of implementation and the phasing of the projects get dampened by the final figures approved". (7) One such example was a proposal by Benue Plateau State Government to expand and equip the state headquarters library at Jos and to build 60 branch libraries at the District headquarters, provide mobile libraries for book distribution to schools and rural communities. In fitting the plan into the national grid, it could not be costed, and so there was no financial allocation made for library services plan during the plan period 1970-74, neither were the 60 branch and divisional libraries built.
II. Statement of Problem

The main objective of this inquiry is to try to achieve a value for library and information services in a developing country like Nigeria. A case will be made for the integration of these services with others such as economic, educational and cultural services in the context of Nigeria's overall economic planning. It will be necessary to identify those conditions which will make the provision of such services full, practicable and productive. In doing so, the general and specific objectives of development programmes, which are usually related to the expansion of the national economy as a base for achieving social and cultural objectives, will be considered. This in turn means identifying the country's priorities which over the past few years have remained principally agriculture, health, transport and communications, commerce and industry, education, and only recently, science and technology. The integration of library and information services with these sectors is often taken for granted even by librarians. A complete harmonisation with those of other sectors of national life is what we mean by integration. In other words, the planning of library and information services should not be an isolated factor but an integral part of national planning. This is by no means the case at present.

III. Scope of inquiry

The context within which national planning for library and information services occur calls for an identification of the country's development objectives and programmes. The scope of this investigation
accordingly, includes an examination of successive national development plans in Nigeria with a view to (a) determining the country's development objectives in relation to identified national priorities, and the place of library and information services vis-a-vis other priorities, and (b) providing some guidelines for the harmonisation of library and information services with other sectors of our national life.

The period chosen covers two historic dates, the Colonial period from 1946 to 1960 and the post-independence period from 1960 to the present. The post independence period is marked by a number of significant political changes: from three regions at independence in 1960 to four in 1963 with a civilian administration that succeeded the colonial rule. That civilian rule lasted from 1960 to 1966 when it was succeeded by a series of military regimes. Most significantly, during the successive military regimes Nigeria metamorphosed from a nation of four regions to twelve states in 1967, and is now made up of nineteen states. The military rule ended in October 1979 with a return to democratic rule in that year.

These changes have significant bearing on development planning and plan implementation. They have the effect of disrupting earlier plans for library development. With each successive administration being ushered in, quite often in the middle of a development plan, it becomes necessary to review or modify the previous plan so that it is in harmony with the ideology and ideals of the new regime. When such changes occur, obviously some development projects are either abandoned or delayed, and since library services are least cherished
even by the administrators they are usually the first to be axed.

The period also corresponds to five development plans, one by the Colonial administration known as the Ten-Year Development and Welfare Plan 1946 - 1956, and the rest which are regarded as truly national plans beginning with the First National Development Plan 1962 - 68 to the current Fourth National Development Plan 1981-85.

The study is divided into two sections. Section A consists of three chapters, and is devoted to an examination of the concepts of 'development' and 'national development planning'. The various theories of development have been examined with a view to relating the concept to that of library development planning. A critical review of Nigeria's development plans has been made in Chapter 3. Section B consists of five chapters. It deals with the place of library and information services in national development plans in Nigeria. It examines those conditions which are conducive for making the provision of national library services full, practicable and productive. These conditions include the presence of a flourishing book industry, library legislation, manpower, education and training, and viable professional associations.

IV. Literature Review

Searching the literature can be an exhausting task because of the large body of literature involved. The search lasted for about four months (full-time) beginning from October 1981 to early February 1982. Materials consulted were varied in both content and scope, and included the following:
a. Research in Progress

Listings of work in progress were first consulted. The Department of Library and Information Studies at Loughborough University of Technology, has prepared a list of research work being undertaken by students either on full-time or part-time basis, and this list was quite useful as a first step in collecting ideas and evidence in support of the investigation. Radials bulletin was also consulted.

b. Research Completed:

and the United States. The other relevant work which unfortunately could not be traced, was Charles W. Armstrong's "Role of Information Resources in National Development: A descriptive study and analysis of library resources in West Africa", (University of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania) Ph.D. 1971. There are also a number of Master of Library Studies (MLS) dissertations at Loughborough University of Technology Department of Library and Information Studies which are relevant only to some aspects of my investigation such as those by R.O. Igbolekwe (1981) and A.O. Agboola (1976) both of which deal with publishing in Nigeria, and Okpa-Iroha's Inservice training provision for non-professional staff in public libraries in Nigeria (1976).

c. **Periodicals:**

This study breaks the frontiers of librarianship and enters into what is relatively a new discipline, namely, 'development studies'. Consequently periodicals consulted represent a cross section of disciplines such as economics, political science and sociological journals. Library science periodicals consulted were mainly:

- IFLA Journals
- International Library Review
- Libri
- Library Review
- Nigerian Libraries

d. **Primary Sources:**

These are publications from central and state governments, international organisations such as the Unesco, annual reports from libraries and statistics.
e. **Abstracts**

Indexing and abstracting services are the greatest time-savers for tracing books and articles relevant to any field of study. Those consulted for this study included:

- Library and Information Science Abstracts
- Informatics Abstracts
- Management Abstracts

f. **Monographs:**

These consist of two groups. One group deals with economic development planning, and the other deals with library development planning:

i. The first group consists of works by renowned economists, sociologists and economic planners. In particular, works by former economic advisers to the governments of developing countries have formed the major sources of the literature searching process. They include works by W.F. Stolper (1966), Edwin Dean (1972), both of whom were economic advisers to the Federal Government of Nigeria at one time or another, Frank J. Moore (1964), Arnold Rivkin (1964), Arthur W. Lewis (1966) (1969) as well as works by Nigerian economists such as Professor Adedeji (1971), Tomori and Fajana (1979), Dupe Olatumbosun (1975) among others.

ii. On the planning of library and information services, works by C.V. Penna have been extremely useful, but other invaluable works have also been added to the volume of literature of librarianship, which are of recent origin e.g. Professor Benge's Cultural Crisis and Libraries in the Third World (1979); National Library and Information Services: A handbook for Planners edited by C.V. Penna, D.J. Foskett and P.H. Sewell (1977) and Aspects of Library Development Planning edited by J. Stephen Parker (1983).
g. Conference Papers/Reports:

Papers and proceedings of professional associations, especially reports of annual meetings of the Nigerian Library Association, as well as its various groups or divisions e.g. reports of the Northern States Division of the Nigerian Library Association.

V. Hypothesis

Our first assumption is that library and information services have the lowest ranking in the country's scale of priorities.

The second assumption is that library services in Nigeria are unplanned and uncoordinated.

The third one is that they are not an integral part of the national plans for social and economic development.

The fourth hypothesis is that Nigeria has got the potential for the national planning of library and information services.

VI. Methodology: Content Analysis

This study does not lend itself to quantitative analysis (including the application of statistical techniques), nor is it amenable to the other more fashionable methods in librarianship such as questionnaire, diary, operations study methods etc. It is rather a qualitative analysis of library and information services. Accordingly the survey is impressionistic rather than of a scientific nature. It is a content analysis method involving the collection and analysis of written documents or material. As far as possible, all relevant documents have been searched in order to identify observable trends.
in successive national plans in Nigeria. There has also been personal exploration and discussion with individuals e.g. leading librarians in Nigeria, as well as government policy-makers. Accordingly, a number of government establishments were visited in order to discuss with senior government officials some policy matters relevant to the study e.g. visits were made to the Nigerian Book Development Council, Lagos, to find out about the activities of the Council; the Ministry of National Planning (Manpower Planning Board) in connection with manpower development; the National Library of Nigeria, Lagos, where discussions were held with some senior members of the Board. Some of the Board's publications were made available and these have formed an essential part of the data collected for the investigation.

Before embarking on this study full-time one year was spent doing some preliminary reading and tidying up the outline of the work. During that period, pilot questionnaires were sent to twelve public libraries in Nigeria. The questionnaire titled "Integration of Library and Information Services into National Development Plans in Nigeria" was designed to achieve two things. First, to assess the place and role of library services in economic planning in Nigeria. Second, to find out if librarians in public libraries are involved in any way in drawing up library development plans in their respective states, to be included in the national economic plan. The questionnaires were sent out in July 1981, but by the time this study was begun only three responses had arrived. Because of the poor response received, it became necessary to abandon the questionnaire technique, although
results from the three (by December when a visit to Nigeria was made, one more response was received bringing the total to four) responding libraries suggested some movement towards the recognition of the role of librarians in national development planning. This was evident only from libraries under statutory bodies namely library Boards established by law.

VII. Data Collection

Data for this investigation consist mainly of published material relating to national plans in Nigeria. They include Sessional papers; published by Colonial administration; published development plans and other related documents, e.g. Ten-Year Plan of Development and Welfare for Nigeria, 1946, Sessional Paper No.24 of 1946; Preliminary Statement on Development Planning in Nigeria, Sessional Paper No.6 of 1945; Development of the Western Region of Nigeria, Sessional Paper No.4 of 1955; World Bank Report (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development 1955);

Nigeria : National Development Plan 1962 - 68 (1962);


Such historical materials are difficult to quantify and analyse, but as J.M. Brittain (1970)\(^8\) has rightly observed, "they help in the understanding of the research process . . . . and . . . . they increase understanding of the literature searching process and contribute to the formulation of more precise and empirically testable hypotheses".

The second part of the data consists of what can be referred to as "testimony of history" by which one looks into the history of library development in other countries which are well developed. The library history of those countries can then be compared with the library history of Nigeria to identify obvious gaps. Three countries have been chosen for this purpose. They are Great Britain, the United States and the Soviet Union. Great Britain has a long historical link with Nigeria, while the U.S.A. and Nigeria have similar political structures namely, federalism and presidentialism. Furthermore, the history of library development in Nigeria is rooted in the Anglo-American traditions, since Nigeria's pioneer librarians were trained in these countries. Library consultants who have worked in Nigeria have also come from these countries at one time or another. The Soviet Union's position is different. It has had no close link with
Nigeria. It is a communist state operating a highly centralised planning technique. But it illustrates the point that is being emphasised in this study that a country which aspires to greatness politically and economically must also be prepared and willing to invest sufficiently in library and information services.

VIII. Data Analysis

As has been stated before, data for this kind of investigation are difficult to quantify and to analyse. Since the problem is only amenable to empirical approach, the analysis of data depends largely on observable trends in relation to national planning in Nigeria. The analysis is therefore impressionistic rather than scientific. Trends in national planning can be observed by looking at each plan period in order to identify development policies and objectives for each plan period, what priorities for each plan period are, and the sectoral financial allocations for each plan period. In this case trends can be extrapolated with some degree of reliability. e.g.:

A. Colonial Planning

Development objectives of Colonial planning were increase in international trade, improvements in transport and communications and increase in agricultural and industrial production.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National priorities</th>
<th>Total N million</th>
<th>% Distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Primary Production</td>
<td>6.976</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Transport and Communication</td>
<td>22.788</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Education</td>
<td>10.654</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Social Welfare including Village reconstruction</td>
<td>1.432</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There was plain and observable apathy for library and information services in colonial planning, and this is reflected in the characteristic passive attitude towards public education and library developments shown by Lord Haldane, then Lord Chancellor, when he addressed the second county library conference in London in 1924. He said:

Matters like education, instruments like libraries, we leave to take care of themselves. The state of course, will have to take it up, but it does not take things up until it finds things going. Then it will say: Here is a thing going, a popular thing, let us develop it and thereby attract votes to those who administer its affairs....


The objectives and goals of the first national development plan were (a) achievement of rapid economic growth at an average rate of 4 percent.; (b) acceleration of technical and managerial education at all levels; (c) shifting of all the resources to enlarge the productive sector of the economy.

Priorities were given to agriculture, industry and technical education.

Financial allocations 1962 - 68. Total budget £663.200m.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National priorities</th>
<th>Total £ million</th>
<th>% Distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Primary Production</td>
<td>91.8</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Trade and Industry</td>
<td>90.3</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Education</td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Information</td>
<td>36.62</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion  The first national development plan, like the preceding colonial plan, tilted too much towards industrial and economic growth at the expense of social services, including library and information services. Although provision was made for information services, allocations were made only for the mass media. e.g.:

- Domestic broadcasting: £1,096,000
- External broadcasting: £525,000
- Television: £730,000


National objectives and purposes: To establish Nigeria firmly as:

(a) a united, strong and self-reliant nation;
(b) a great and dynamic economy;
(c) a just and egalitarian society;
(d) a land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens, and
(e) a free and democratic society.

To achieve these objectives priorities were given to agriculture, transport and communications, industry and education.

Financial allocations  -  (₦ million)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National priorities</th>
<th>Total ₦ million</th>
<th>% Distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Primary Production</td>
<td>265.334</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Trade and industry</td>
<td>215.090</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Transport &amp; Communications</td>
<td>570.480</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Education</td>
<td>277.786</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Information</td>
<td>21.862</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Of the ₦21.862m the National Library of Nigeria was allocated only ₦0.500 million for its permanent building and expansion services.
Discussion  The Second Development Plan was the first plan that showed Federal Government financial commitment to library development. But this commitment was limited to the National Library of Nigeria, not "the nations libraries". For other public library services the plan simply states ..... "some state governments intend to expand public libraries in their areas".

Another important milestone in library development during the Second Development Plan was the reconstitution of the National Library Board by a Decree to make it more effective in the performance of its functions. The National Library Act (No.6) 1964 was replaced with the National Library Act No.29 of 1970. The Board under the previous Act functioned as a division of the Federal Ministry of Information and was severely limited in its functions and activities. The 1970 Act provided for a Corporate or Statutory Board which is constituted by members drawn from all the states of the federation and some interest groups. Its functions have also been expanded.

D. Third National Development Plan 1975-80

1. Plan Objectives
   a. Increase in per capital income.
   b. Equitable distribution of income.
   c. Reduction in the level of unemployment.
   d. Increase in the level of high level manpower.
   e. Balanced development.
   f. Indigenisation of economic activities.
ii. National priorities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National priorities</th>
<th>Total N million</th>
<th>% Distribution</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Transportation</td>
<td>7,303.1</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Manufacturing &amp; Crafts</td>
<td>5,315.9</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Education</td>
<td>2,463.8</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Housing</td>
<td>1,837.4</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Agriculture</td>
<td>1,645.9</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Communications</td>
<td>1,338.9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
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Information

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<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Federal government</td>
<td>234,341</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All States</td>
<td>145,884</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>380,225</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Although the plan was still tilted towards economic growth, there were some significant developments in the social sector. In the education sector, two programmes were introduced, namely, the Universal Free Primary Education and the Federal Government New Policy On Education. Information policies were defined. Government was committed "to make information services more efficient in the task of promoting the nation's basic ideals of unity and the projection of the nation's image abroad". Library services were to be expanded and improved throughout the country.

The Federal Government's main task during the plan period was to enable the National Library (by providing funds) to play its depository and reference roles, and to construct its headquarters in Lagos and establish four branches in four states of the country.
E. Fourth National Development Plan 1981-85

i. Plan objectives and strategy
   a. development of science and technology
   b. increased productivity
   c. increased self-reliance and reduction in the country's dependence on the external sector.
   d. development of the human resources.

Priorities were given to agriculture, the expansion and strengthening of economic infrastructure: water supply, power, telecommunications etc., manufacturing industry, education, health, housing and public transportation.

ii. Financial Provisions: Total = N 82 billion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>N 10.7 bn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial dev.</td>
<td>N 6.4 bn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation</td>
<td>N 473.7 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>N 175 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>N 131 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library development</td>
<td>N 11 million*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The N 11 million is federal allocation for library services. States allocations are not included in this figure, because states have made their own separate allocation. It is difficult to compute the state figures because some states have mixed library funds with other services such as education, adult education etc.

Discussion: The allocation of N 11 million by the Federal Government for the expansion and improvement of the National Library is an indication of the government recognition of the role of library services in the development of the nation. The plan states that "adequate emphasis will be given to the role of libraries in public enlightenment,
for they constitute an important complement to the mass media by providing a repository for the product of the mass media”.

What is not encouraging however, is the association of library services with public enlightenment instead of with economic and social development generally. Such services as public enlightenment, adult education etc., have very low ranking, and as long as library services are associated with them, one cannot expect sufficient funding for library services. This point can be illustrated by comparing the library provision of N 11 million with that of housing or health with allocations of N 175 million and N 131 million respectively.

IX. Data interpretation and hypothesis testing

It is evident from the Third and Fourth Plans that the legendary apathy to library development in Nigeria is gradually giving way to a more positive approach to library development. Judging from the two plans, both in terms of financial provisions and the expressed information policies, one can safely conclude that there are now encouraging signals that library services are being appreciated by the government. However, the financial provisions for library services when compared to other sectoral allocations, appear rather too small to make for any meaningful development. This proves our first hypothesis that library services have a low priority in Nigeria.

The plans also reveal that both the Federal and state government’s plans are disjointed and uncoordinated. The Federal Government’s investments go to the improvement and expansion of the National
Library while states are left to plan their own services. This confirms our second hypothesis that library services in Nigeria are unplanned and uncoordinated.

Thirdly, although all states make financial provisions for library development in the national plans, few of these plans ever get implemented. The reason for their inclusion in the national plans may be political or a matter of national prestige. Our third hypothesis that library and information services are not an integral part of the national economic plan for social and economic development is therefore valid.

Finally, one may ask whether Nigeria has any pre-conditions for the development of a systematic plan for library services. The answer is that there is a great potential for library development. Firstly, there is the rapid rate of educational expansion at all levels (see Chapter 5, Section 3.4). Secondly, a national plan for library development will benefit from the already existing isolated infrastructures - state legislations, well established university libraries, the existence of four full-fledged library schools, a core of publications both in local and foreign languages and, above all, the existence of a professional organisation. A planner of national library and information services will benefit from these existing fragmented infrastructures as well as Unesco's regional and international demonstration projects instead of having to start from scratch.

Summary Between 1970 and 1980, there has been a remarkable improvement in the funding of library and information services in Nigeria particularly at the national level. This period corresponds to
Nigeria's Third and Fourth Development Plans and Unesco's NATIS and PGI activities in the fields of library, information and archives services. These activities certainly have had measurable impact in Nigeria.

NOTES


3. Ibid.


7. Ibid.


CHAPTER 1

THE DEVELOPMENT CONCEPT

1.1. Theories of development

Development is a concept that is difficult to define. Several theories surround the concept but none of its definitions ever meet universal acceptability. Benge (1979) admits that 'none of the terms dealing with development are satisfactory since they all have inadmissible implications'. Brandt (1980) has put it even more bluntly: "Development never will be, and never can be, defined to universal satisfaction." The concept embraces such diverse disciplines as economics, sociology, social anthropology, psychology, and politics. Perhaps it is because of its multidimensional aspect that the concept lacks definitional unity. Economists are agreed on the theory of 'economic growth', the oldest theory favoured by growth economists in the 1950s and early 1960s. During this period development was thought of mainly in economic terms. It was popular among economists to define development in terms of per capita Gross National Product, arguing that economic growth would ultimately lead to all forms of development. They also argued, as they do now, that economic growth is about wealth and that the increase in wealth is the proper object of economic development. The other social scientists, especially the political scientists, on the other hand, have no such agreement. Not only do they disagree with the theory of economic growth, but they are neither agreed on the theory of economic development which they appear to favour. e.g. Charles Taylor (1972) has asserted that
political scientists have no similar agreement in regard to
the appropriate goal for political development since the various
aspects of political/social change (development) cannot be found
on a single continuum. Regarding the Gross National Product (GNP)
as a measure of development, McGranahan states:

We can disagree with a definition of
development in terms of the per capita
GNP by arguing that this is too narrow
and not the way the word 'development'
is understood and used by most people. (4)

How then is development understood or used by most people?

There appears to be no clear-cut answer, instead one is presented
with a list of six conceptual models 'by which one arranges and
orders one's thinking about development'. These are:

a. Development defined by lists of desiderata
   and ideal pictures of the future;
b. the organic model;
c. the technological-educational model;
d. the input-output conceptual model;
e. the capacity-performance model;
f. the systems model.

Yet one after another McGranahan rejects all the models as 'not
cohertent', 'too far-fetched', 'deficit', 'one-way' 'model' etc.
Another case of non-agreement among social scientists is evident.

Two major theories dominate the literature on economic
development. They are the orthodox theory popularly known as the
linear 'stages' model, and the 'Marxist' or neo-Marxist theory, also
known as international structuralist models, both of which imply
'capitalism'.


1.1.1 The linear 'stages' model

In the 1950s and early 1960s development was conceptualised as a series of successive stages through which all countries must pass. 'The stages of economic growth' was an economic theory of development which sought to explain that with the right amount and mixture of saving, investment and foreign aid, Third World countries could proceed along an economic growth path which advanced industrialised countries had followed before. Development thus became synonymous with economic growth. Its most influential proponent was the American economic historian Professor W.W. Rostow. According to Rostow the transition from underdevelopment to development can be described in terms of a series of stages through which all countries must pass. These stages are the traditional society; the pre-conditions for take-off into self-sustaining growth, the drive to maturity and the age of high mass consumption. Rostow argued forcefully that it was possible to identify all societies in their economic dimensions as lying within one of the five categories.

1.1.2 The International-Structuralist models

The second major theory of development is that which views underdevelopment in terms of international and domestic power relationships, institutional and structural economic rigidities and the resulting proliferation of dual economies and dual societies both within and among the nations of the world. There are two main strands of thought in these models. The first is what is regarded as neo-colonial dependence model, which attributes the existing and maintenance of Third World underdevelopment to the historical and
colonial ties between them and the advanced countries in an international capitalist system that is dominated by such an unequal power relationship between them that makes it impossible for developing countries to be self-reliant. Within developing countries themselves there are certain groups (e.g. landlords, entrepreneurs, merchants, public officials and trade union leaders) who enjoy high incomes, social status and political power, and these groups constitute a small elite ruling class whose main interest is the perpetuation of the international capitalist systems of inequality and conformity by which they are rewarded. This comprador elite serves special interest power groups including multinational corporations, national bilateral aid agencies and multi-lateral donor organisations such as those in the United Nations system whose main allegiance and/or funding comes from wealthy capitalist countries. The neo-Marxist/neo-Colonial structural view blames the activities and viewpoints of the international agencies for the underdevelopment of Third World.

1.1.3 The 'false' paradigm model

This is a neo-Marxist approach which seeks to explain the underdevelopment of Third World in terms of 'faulty and inappropriate advice' provided by well-meaning but often uninformed international expert advisers from both developed country assistance agencies and multinational donor organisations (like the World Bank, UNESCO, the International Labour Organisation, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). These experts provide highly sophisticated concepts, elegant theoretical
structures and complex econometric models of development which often lead to inappropriate or incorrect policies. Consequently, instead of becoming better off, developing countries become worse off, because the existing institutional and structural constraints (such as the unequal ownership of land, disproportionate control over domestic and international financial assets and unequal access to credit) merely serve the vested interests of existing power structures both domestic and international.

According to this theory, in addition to faulty expert advice, leading University intellectuals, trade unionists, would-be government economic advisers and civil servants from developing countries get their education and training in developed countries where they are unwittingly served an unhealthy dose of alien concepts which prove to be irrelevant to the conditions at home. Because these students are unable to understand the real development problems they tend to become unknowing or reluctant apologists for the existing system of elitist policies and institutional structures.

Summary. The international structuralist models reject the economic growth theory (GNP) as an index of development. Instead they stress the needed structural and institutional reforms in order to eradicate absolute poverty, provide employment opportunities, lessen income inequalities and raise the general levels of living (including health, education and cultural enrichment of the masses.)

1.2. Measurement of development

The use of per capita Gross National Product (GNP) as a measure of development has been rejected by modern development theories
because it is too narrow and misleading, and that no welfare conclusions can be drawn from it. Were this measure to be accepted many of the oil producing countries like Kuwait, Nigeria and Saudi Arabia, all of which are underdeveloped, would have been classified among developed countries. Nigeria for example, reached an annual production rate of 6% in the 1960s which was accepted as high enough to qualify any country as advanced country. Similarly average income per capita in Kuwait in the 1960s was higher than that of the United States during the same period. This point can be further illustrated by the analysis of Nigeria's economic growth during the past ten decades. A survey by The Economist\(^{(5)}\) reports that the oil industry has enabled Nigeria to increase its exports ten times in ten years, and its imports eleven times in ten years. Nigeria has been able to buy foreign goods and services and to pay for them conveniently. 'No country in the world has been so eager to buy more foreign goods and services, and so well able to pay for them'.

Yet in spite of this promising growth in the economy, The Economist asks

> How can so much money and such high hopes engender such chaos? Why won't the telephones, or the bureaucrats work? Why can't you turn on a switch, or a tap or turn up a scheduled flight, with any confidence that a light, or a wash, or a journey will result?

Certainly oil brings money, but 'oil money is paid not to the people but to the government. Its immediate result is a growth of government jobs and of offices for government servants'.

Because development is a multivariate concept which refers not only to total income but also includes notions of productive
capacity, infrastructure income distribution, etc., McClelland (1966)(6) has argued that income figures alone cannot sufficiently explain development. In fact they sometimes violate our total conception of what development means, e.g. in countries where rich oil reserves or other natural resources have been discovered and exploited by foreign companies. According to McClelland, electricity consumption is the most reliable estimate of the rate of development, because it has 'great technical measurement advantages over national income figures', e.g. statistics on electric power consumption are readily available for practically every country in the world in internationally comparable units, for exactly comparable time period. Secondly the figures are 'believable' because fewer errors are recorded in computing them. Thirdly, production and consumption figures are practically equal, which avoids complications introduced when indexes are used. Fourthly, electric power consumption enters into most categories in an input-output table, e.g. it is widely used in the public sector (for lighting streets, transportation, public establishments etc.), it enters into nearly all kinds of manufacturing. Finally it is also a home consumption item (lighting, radio, television).

Conceptually and for all practical purposes therefore, electricity consumption appears to be the best and most reliable measure of development.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Electricity produced 1950</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. KWh/Cap. 1000</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>+.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>+.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>+.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>+.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>-.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>-.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>-.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. KWh/Cap. between 400 and 900</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>-.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>-.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>+.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>+.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>-.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>-.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>-1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. KWh/Cap. between 100 and 300</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>-.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>+1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>-.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>-.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>+.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>+.01</td>
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Table 1.1 contd.

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<tr>
<th>Country</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>+1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>+2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>+1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>+0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>-1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>-0.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from McClelland (1966) 
Economic Development and Cultural Change. 

1.3. The Meaning of development

What has been discussed so far has been a series of theories concerning development or what causes underdevelopment. So far no clear definition of development has been provided. Implicit in the theories however, is that in strictly economic terms development for the past ten decades has meant the capacity of a national economy to generate and sustain an annual increase in its gross national product at rates varying from 5 to 7 percent, or even higher. The United Nations even declared the 1960s the 'Development Decade', and development was then conceived largely in terms of the attainment of 6 percent annual target growth rate of Gross National Product. Development has also been conceived in terms of planned structural change in traditional methods of production and employment. Consequently agricultural shares of both (production and employment) have declined while those of manufacturing and service industries have increased. All these meanings have globally ignored the cultural
dimensions of development i.e. the collection of values, aspirations, beliefs, patterns of behaviour etc. established or predominating, within a given society.

In Third World countries development even implies the construction of public works, industrialization, or in general, 'modernisation' which means the introduction of new types of economic and social relationships with a view to promoting the growth of investment and production. The effects of this modernisation or changes in the structure of economy have been crucial. e.g. the disappearance of subsistence agriculture and the resulting emergence in the rural areas of a monetary economy and new types of relationships between peasants and the land, conversion of peasants into wage earners, modification of links between members of rural communities - or even the break-up of them.

Urbanisation and urban location of industries have given rise to new urban classes whose cultural standards are different from those of rural peasants. Centralisation of administrations, integration of internal markets and their linking with international markets have changed the local organisation, the introduction of new products and the effective advertising (through the media) have modified the consumption patterns, behaviours and values of the society as a whole. Development has thus become a mechanism for transferring Western industrialised culture to the developing countries. Third World countries with scarce economic resources have thus adopted a life-style that is neither culturally appropriate nor economically advantageous.
In the light of the above discussions sufficient evidences have emerged which have forced some economists and policy makers to remove the Gross National Product as a measure of economic development, and to elevate direct 'attacks' on widespread absolute poverty, inequitable income distributions and rising unemployment. In short, economic development has been redefined in terms of reduction or total elimination of poverty, inequality and unemployment within the context of a growing economy.

Development can therefore be defined as 'a multidimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes and national institutions as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of absolute poverty.' Probably, having been inspired by the new concept of development, and certainly alarmed by the negative effects of development - loss of cultural identity, the decline in agricultural productivity - developing countries have launched a two-front attack on what politicians consider to be 'capitalist penetration'. The first attack is the reorganisation of national economies through development planning, which will be examined in Chapter 2. The second involves the establishment of a new international economic order, and the newest, a New International Information Order as a bye-product of the former.

1.4. The Rich-Poor Dichotomy

The study of development is inevitably associated with the study of underdevelopment. The latter is a concept which is used to refer to those countries to the South whose per capita income per
annum, measured statistically, is less than US $500. The world is viewed as being divided into two grouping - North and South, which are also synonymous with 'rich' and 'poor', 'developed' and 'developing'. But modern writers on development and international organisations tend to divide the world into three according to its power structure. Thus we have, according to Mountjoy's Classification:

1. The Free World of the Atlantic.

2. The Centrally organised European communists block. Both of these comprise the technologically advanced nations of Europe and America, and together they hold only 40 percent of the world's total land surface and a minority of 30 percent of the world's total population.

3. The third group comprises the newly independent or emerging countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America which are technologically backward but still capable of great advances, and possessing a great wealth of minerals and other natural resources.

The term Third World came into vogue in the 1960s as these countries were thought to have embraced a third element in the world's power structure. Countries in this block have persistently maintained non-aligned stand in international politics, being neither pro-West nor pro-East.

**Characteristics**

There are glaring and diverse differences between 'developed' and 'developing' nations. Developed nations are characterised by a high rate of per capita income per person, a high rate of literacy, a strong striving to achieve material well-being, a proportionate balance
between the resources and population, respect for manual work and the existence of social and economic structures appropriate for the application of modern technology.

Developing countries, although generally similar among themselves in several respects, do show a diversity of characteristics. A common mistake is to assume that these countries are homogenous. Ecologically they are dissimilar since there are areas of low and high temperatures, low and high annual-rainfall, as well as areas of high and low density of population. Also there are cultural differences among developing countries. Differences of language, race, religion etc. exist. They also have different historical development. Jan Tinbergen (1967)\(^{(8)}\) has pointed out that "only very few South American Colonies were still colonies in 1850, by far the greater part of Africa and a large part of Asia were still colonised in 1930".

On the other hand there are quite striking similarities which developing countries share together. In addition to extreme poverty, the standard of education, particularly primary, technical and commercial education, is at its lowest ebb. Medical and health facilities are grossly inadequate. Life expectancy is very short, averaging just about 40 to 50 years compared to the average life expectancy of 70 years in advanced countries. All these factors diminish the energy available for self-reliant and local development. Excessive dependence of Third World on primary products makes them rather susceptible to impoverishment when fluctuations in these products occur. For example, the decline in agricultural products in Nigeria during the past decade has created a serious economic
recession in the country. Inequality in income distribution, unemployment, and under-employment, urbanisation, are all the problems which are common to all developing countries.

Assistance to developing countries has come from international organisations like the World Health Organisation (WHO), the International Labour Organisation (ILO), International Monetary Fund (IMF) etc., as well as from advanced donor countries to help them solve some of their perennial problems. This assistance takes different forms, but the most popular ones seem to be multilateral or bilateral aid and financial loans from international financial institutions. In spite of international assistance there appears to be no significant improvements in the conditions of most developing countries. Certainly the mechanisms of operations of the assistance appear to be deliberately structured to make it not only agonising for developing countries to receive assistance, but also to make any form of assistance received unfruitful for development.

1.5. Aid to the Third World

International aid as an aspect of international cooperation is necessary for development as it would provide resources needed to implement development plans in developing countries. Aid is particularly required to improve the provision of professional education and training, to introduce new techniques and innovations to develop new and more efficient methods of management, and to improve the general standard of education in developing countries. Unfortunately aid to developing countries is not often given for development purposes, and usually not without strings. Pierre Jalée in 'The Pillage of the Third'
asserts that the proclaimed targets of bilateral and multilateral aid to developing countries are niggardly, and that "there is a serious danger that they will not actually be reached, and aid on this scale is basically incapable of ensuring the "take-off" of the economies of underdeveloped countries or even of playing a major role in bringing it about". (9)

1.5.1 Bilateral Public Aid

Aid to developing countries comprises official donations, long-term public capital and private investment, although Jalée rejects the inclusion of the latter as aid on the grounds that 'private capital has never had any purpose beyond that of aiding its owners'. Bilateral public aid comprises almost all the official donations and nearly three quarters of public loans. It is by far greater than multilateral public aid dispensed through international agencies. A number of writers including Jalée, have attacked what they describe as the ' politicisation of aid'. According to them aid is given to preserve certain economic privileges:

This aid to the Third World is not gratuitous generosity, and it would be childish to deny the political or commercial, motivations of what is variously called aid, technical assistance, or cooperation. It even happens that potential donors enter into secret competition to be the first to show their generosity to those newly admitted to national sovereignty. A glance at the map will show that nations without strategic importance get less than others. (10)

Any wonder then that in Africa economic and financial aid is granted by Europe and North America partly to preserve certain areas as privileged sources of raw materials?" Bilateral aid, no matter whether it comes from France or Great Britain or North America, is a
matter of self-interest. It helps to cover the luxury or prestige spending of the ruling oligarchies of newly independent countries, thus keeping them respectful and perpetually attached to advanced capitalist countries.

1.5.2 International Public Aid

International aid has been shown by Jalée to be very small, consisting of about 1 percent of gifts and 20 percent of public funds from all the advanced capitalist countries. It is thought to be preferred by Third World countries on the grounds that it would not impinge on their freedom as bilateral aid does.

International Public Aid is dispensed through three main financial institutions: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (BIRD), also known as the World Bank, the International Finance Corporation (IFC), and the International Development Association (IDA). Other contributions though on a very small scale, come from the Inter-American Development Bank, the European Development Fund, the Common Market Countries and the African Development Bank.

Founded in 1944 at the Bretton Woods Economic Conference, the function of the World Bank is to grant loans to the governments of member nations, to official bodies and to private enterprise. Both the International Development Association and the International Finance Corporation are affiliates of the World Bank. The IDA was formed in 1960 and it gives long-term loans on more generous terms. The International Finance Corporation was established in 1956 with the special purpose of encouraging the growth of private enterprise in developing countries.
All the institutions operate within the bounds of, and on
terms dictated by capitalist countries notably France, Britain,
United States, West Germany, Japan and China which together have
more than 50 percent controlling votes in the World Bank. These
countries have been accused of 'political preferences' in the
allocation of loans and the placing of investments: "international
aid is distributed by agencies which are institutions of imperialism
cloaked in the garb of the United Nations; it is distributed solely
within the bounds of the imperialist camp with the basic purpose of
defending its frontiers". (11)

Conclusion

Statistics show that multilateral and bilateral aid, together with donations and loans to Third World amount to about $5 or
$6 billion per annum. These figures are unimpressive because as
Jalée says, they are inadequate 'to make a decisive contribution to
the "take-off" of the Third World countries'. Bilateral public
aid is most important compared to other forms of aid, but it brings
political servitude and economic subjugation. International public
aid is dispensed by international agencies which are dominated by
the capitalist countries. Technically, it is better applied, and
developing countries seem to prefer it, nevertheless it is sub­
ordinated to the fundamental cause of defending the frontiers of the
so-called free World.

Private investment in Third World is directed mainly to energy
production e.g. oil and raw materials. A small proportion is also
directed to manufacturing industries, though not those needed by
developing countries for development, but are chosen according to the need for markets of host countries. Profits in these investments are repatriated to Western Capitals where they contribute to Capitalist accumulation.

1.6.0 A New International Economic Order

The concept of a new International World Order dates back to 1950s and 1960s when 'Non-Aligned Movement' was initiated by heads of states of India (Nehru), Egypt (Nasser) and Yugoslavia (Tito). Originally referred to as the 'Group of 77', the aim of the Non-Aligned Movement was to forge a new international economic order in which Third World countries could make an impact on the international political and economic environments. It was in May 1974 that that dream became a reality. The Sixth Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly supported the resolutions calling for the establishment of a New International Economic Order (NIEO). Initially the new movement proved to be very powerful and effective, particularly in influencing oil price increases.

For an analysis of the impact of the New International Economic Order, the work of David Denoon (1979) is an excellent exposition. In evaluating the impact of the New International Economic Order on the United States, Denoon presents a three-level model of analysis. 'At the first level of analysis' the New International Economic Order is to be conceptualised as a series of specific proposals for restructuring the character of world economic relations - by establishing and raising the prices of raw materials, by providing increased
tariff preferences to the less developed countries, by expanding aid and waiving debt payments, by making more technology available at lower prices, and by allowing host countries to nationalise foreign assets on their own terms. In making these proposals the Group of 77 hoped to use the international forum to achieve internal development.

Thus at this first level of analysis NIEO is predominantly economic in orientation. It is concerned with the world distribution of wealth and income.

'At the Second level of analysis' the NIEO is concerned with power-political power. At the centre of this power is the market. Political elites in developing countries "are unwilling on either a personal level or as a matter of policy-making to acknowledge the advantages of designing market-oriented systems for producing goods", systems which are too loose, open, and capable of limiting the control over resources the elites possess. They want increased not less, control of their resources. Political leaders in developing countries have been alarmed by what they see as blatantly unjust in the international monetary system - lack of morality and lack of just price - for their commodities. NIEO at this level seeks both political and psychological readjustments - obtaining greater control over world decision-making, and improved personal and national esteem.

'At the most fundamental level of analysis' NIEO is about restructuring the international economic system ('systems perspective'). Attention is focused on economic results but the political and psychological elements should be treated simultaneously to produce an overall system that is just and legitimate.
The underpinning to the New International Economic Order is precisely the creation of a 'World Social Contract', which means not only restructuring the system but also creating new bonds of obligation.

Denoon has further examined the essential difficulties of a World Social Contract, and the most striking of these problems is the 'diversity of countries' involved. No matter how one classifies the potential negotiators, they will still remain heterogenous. Therefore the difficulty of satisfactorily aggregating their interests are obvious. It is also striking to recognise the difficulty of global economic planning, even in its most rudimentary form.

The second difficulty is that there is no consensus on an appropriate 'new model for world economic organization'. The organisation and scope of such international financial institutions as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund etc., have been criticised as being dominated by, and favouring only the big Capitalist countries of North America, Britain, France, Western Germany, Japan etc.

Thirdly, there is no agreed 'forum for discussion' of the NIEO, neither is there a neutral research body to do objective analysis on ways to construct a new international economic system.

Fourthly, a World Social Contract conotes 'bonds of mutual obligations'. So far what developing countries have presented in the NIEO have been demands for extracting more economic benefits and power from the wealthier countries. On the other hand developed industrial democracies appear to be wanting a "commonly agreed reciprocity and sense of mutual responsibilities".
The task of designing and negotiating a World Social Contract is therefore overwhelming. It is precisely for this reason that the exercise has become more or less rhetoric and academic.

The Brandt Commission recognises "the grave global issues arising from the economic and social disparities of the world community" and has urged the United Nations Member States to "pay careful attention to the UN resolutions on development problems and other issues explored in international fora in recent years". So far there are no visible signs of this warning being adhered to.

Meanwhile radical writers, especially of the Neo-Marxist school of thought, have come out to press for the discontinuation of the North-South cooperation. John Abhuere wrote:

We (Africans) should cut off from world activities for at least twenty years....
International trade now is a waste of time,
a drain of foreign reserve and a serious impediment to industrial growth and employment. (13)

Abhuere has aptly described the relationship between advanced industrialised countries and developing countries as that of poor-rich and beggar-donor taxonomy, which he says breeds "only misery and bad blood". The moderate in this camp however, favour some contact with industrialised countries. Although they are generally unhappy with the North-South relations, they believe that developing countries could solve their problems through the use of appropriate technology from the industrialised countries. This can be achieved through learning (as in the case of students studying overseas), imitation, personal contact, and available technical information.
1.7.0 A New International Information Order

Attempts by non-aligned countries to design a World Social Contract have been extended to include an international information order. They have confirmed during the past several years that not only are they economically dependent, but also informationally dependent on advanced countries. They have agreed that to promote a new economic order, they must first take control of their information systems, both to prevent the tide of one-sided news, cultural programmes, and other kinds of information coming from advanced capitalist countries, and to use their information resources towards promoting the social and economic welfare of their own people. Thus the establishment of The New International Information Order is seen as the 'decolonization of information'. There is a growing belief among developing countries now in the importance of information, education and communication to promote the goals of material well-being, and improved social services for the rural poor. McAnany has even suggested that "it is not enough to create more schools or even adult, nonformal education schemes if the immediate needs of people for information in their everyday lives are not met by access to this information through some kind of communication system". (14) It is pertinent to point out that information as we use and understand the concept is not the same thing as used and understood by government ministries. Their own concept of information is usually the obvious cultural messages of radio, television and film entertainment, to solve the problems in agriculture, health, nutrition etc. Technological information that business and industrial concerns control and use is rarely the kind of information governments talk about. This explains why in planning for
information in the Third World there is a priority for the establishment of a government press, radio and television and the provision of mobile cinema. Chenchabi (1981) confirms that "To develop the press in the Third World is another fundamental condition for "decolonizing information" and for establishing a more efficient new order". Unfortunately the use of the mass media as a strategy for development has proved to be misconceived basically because they are not within the reach of rural peasants. The radio is perhaps the only exception, but even so the intended cultural messages are often irrelevant. Instead the media have been effectively used by transnational companies to their own advantages as Chenchabi has shown:

...60-90 percent of the advertising in 25 women's magazines in five Latin American countries comes from the transnational companies, which are encouraging the consumption of inappropriate models, out of reach of the majority of the population. .... Unfortunately, the information system is transformed into a system of commercialization of tastes. The cultural invasion of the consumer society, the permanent attack by advertising messages encouraging consumption, real or by proxy, of inaccessible objects, not always necessary, increase the frustration of a large majority of the population living in poor countries of Africa, Asia, or elsewhere. (16)

Summary

The advanced industrialised countries have for long exercised clear monopoly of transnational circulation of information, just as they have dominated the international monetary system. The demand for The New International Information Order is an attempt by Third World countries to break this international monopoly and to 'decolonize information' as well as "to balance the flow of information between
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the different parts of the world". How can they achieve this balancing internationally when it is so difficult for them to achieve internal balance? The same difficulties experienced in designing a new international economic order are in operation. To ignore them is to once again leave the debate to rhetorics and academics.

1.8.0 Technology and Developing countries

Technology has been defined as the "physical methods of doing or making things". This definition however, reduces technology to mere tools or machines. But technology is much more than the mere invention of tools (physical objects). According to Benge (1979) the first stage of technology is the invention, that is, machines or tools are invented by manufacturers. The second stage is the application of technology, i.e. someone (farmer or industrialist) comes and puts it to use "for better or for worse".

Technology cannot be separated from culture and it is for this reason that Bowen-Jones goes further to define technology as a physical process plus the cultural context of tools and processes. Such cultural factors as the diffusion of ideas and values, folk movement, contact between communities are all involved in technology. Technology is therefore not a neutral entity, but it reflects the culture, the conditions and aspirations of the people. "It embodies and reflects the economic social, political, cultural and cognitive modes of the society in which it was produced".

Western technology has strong economic motive which demands a great deal of profit irrespective of the social consequences such as inducing unemployment and which aspires to create material comfort.
Unfortunately the cultural significance of technology to development has not often been recognised in developing countries simply because they cannot see that relationship between the two (culture and technology).

A model presented by Diener (1977)\(^\text{(20)}\) shows how technology can be related to the cultural values of aesthetics, ethics, economics, morality, politics, sociability and spirituality. Items of material culture such as a bicycle, can be "operationalised in a socio-informational setting by knowing how to utilise, repair, design, build, modify and maintain them". In this case information of various sorts, not least, technical information will be required. The ultimate significance of technology and technological information in a social setting is problem-solving and decision-making. Therefore technology must support the expected continuation of its growth. But this implies that there must be some peripheral supporting information in the culture, to enable recipients of technology to appreciate its economic value as well as its entire use as related to the six values mentioned above. For technology to serve its purpose of accelerating development, it must be understood by the people using it, and it must be related to the cultural values of the society in which it is applied.

Unfortunately technologies that are imported from advanced industrialised countries are often highly sophisticated and are created in an endogenous technical environment completely alien to our culture. The result is they simply do not work.
1.8.1 Transfer of Technology

Third World countries have, after several years of disillusionment with the world economic system, realised that their real problem is that of development and that their salvation lies in their own hands. At the OPEC meeting held in Vienna, Sheikh Ahmed Zaki Yamani, Saudi Arabia’s Minister of Petroleum and Mineral Resources was quoted as saying:

To solve that problem (development) two basic factors must first be provided: a massive transfer of wealth and a transfer of technology to developing countries, accompanied by a removal of trade barriers that hinder developing countries from entering the markets of industrialised countries. (21)

So urgent is the desire for development that developing countries are wont to accept all that is modern in technology, even when the terms of transfer are deliberately set against their interests. It is curious that political leaders in developing countries have been so indoctrinated by Western propaganda media that their development (based on Western lifestyle) depends on the application of Western technology. Certainly technology is needed for development but in acquiring technology regard must be had to the cultural differences between producers of technologies and their consumers, the cultural, social and economic environments in which the technology was produced, and those in which it will be operated.

Opinions and ideas on technology transfer are varied. Bowen-Jones considers the process of technology transfer as involving the diffusion of ideas and values. It involves information dissemination between different socio-economic and socio-informational systems.
In particular technology transfer process is characterised by the transfer of materials and energy forms, folk movement, contact or intermingling between communities. Information explosion has also facilitated the transfer process. As a result of printed information, audio-visual information - radio and television advertising, developing countries have become aware of their material poverty in contrast with the material affluence of advanced countries.

Technology transfer process also involves the following activities: foreign investment, international aid, foreign capital, subsidiary enterprises and by the multinationals. These activities have the capacity to promote indigenous production, and production in turn boosts or expands internal markets. It also leads to an increased use of local capital to finance joint ventures between governments and foreign consortium.

There has emerged in developing countries a corps of intellectuals who have begun to wonder whether technology transfer is necessary, or if indeed, there is anything like technology transfer?

There are radical academics, especially the neo-Marxists, who dismiss outright any idea of technology transfer. They argue that technology transfer is a Western concept deliberately designed to perpetuate their capitalist interests in developing countries. Technology cannot be fully transferred but could be described as "partially rental" with a host of restrictions. Multinational corporations once again come under attack as the official channel through which technology is 'supposed' to be transferred. A forceful argument is made that the international consortia have operated in Africa for decades
without the host countries being able to master the techniques offered by the industrial gains. Development research for these companies is usually conducted away in the metropolis from where the multinationals come, thus depriving the local personnel of the knowledge and skills they would have acquired from such an enterprise. A university intellectual once warned Nigeria not to lean too heavily on foreign technology because many people do not seem to grasp the problem of adapting new technologies to fit a new environment. He then advised the Nigerian government to invest more in science at all levels of education so that basic scientific skills could be developed faster.

This brings us to the problem of technical education. Too much attention is paid to higher education, and even at that, university degrees of all sorts. The gap between higher level manpower, and intermediate manpower is quite big. Developing countries should give priority attention to the training of technicians who do most of the "donkey work" in all establishments. There is absolutely no point in installing computer terminals in our libraries or air-conditioners in offices, or buying sophisticated farm tractors for the much celebrated 'Green Revolution' if there are no technicians to man or operate them.

1.8.2 Appropriate technology

Advanced industrialised technologies are capital-intensive, labour saving, and as such are inappropriate for Africa's needs. Their application in developing countries achieves far less than a satisfactory result. They suffer from lack of basic infrastructure
and reliable utilities such as materials, energy, transportation system, spare parts, qualified personnel to operate them etc. Furthermore, apart from being expensive, advanced technology is created in an endogenous technical environment and when transferred (or rented?) to poor countries where technical change is exogenous it is found to be inappropriate. Everywhere in Africa pieces of broken machines litter the cities, highways, farm settlements, garages etc., because either there are no people with technical know-how to repair them or they cannot survive in a hostile alien environment. This is a severe case of "culture shock".

It is common knowledge that while technology has satisfied others materially (advanced countries), it has failed others (less developed countries) both materially and socially. The major problem in developing countries is that of selection, selecting a technology that is relevant to solving development problems.

What is required therefore, is what is variously known as relevant technology, native technology, selective technology, intermediate technology or appropriate technology. Appropriate technology is a technology that is understood and accepted by those who will install, use and maintain it - and whose spare parts can be easily found, cheaply enough to be within reach of the users, easily modified and geared towards the utilisation of local skills in crafts for the development of rural areas. Appropriate technology implies the diffusion of advanced technology with traditional or indigenous technology to achieve results. It is labour-intensive and more relevant to the development needs in agriculture, building/construction and processing industries.
Appropriate technology not only produces higher output but it is comprehensible in form, function and repairability.

Several suggestions have been made for the successful transfer of technology:

a. Successful transfer of technology requires the creation of a team of bright, trained people who are interested in acquiring new knowledge and skills;

b. People trying to transfer technology must have access to a large body of technical information and experience. Technical information is vital for technological development. Unfortunately it is a resource that is neglected by many African governments. Political leaders and policy-makers need to be informed on the range of choices (of technology) available to them.

c. Person to person contact, over a long period of time between initiators of concepts and practical engineers is essential.

d. Merely providing information in the form of reports is usually insufficient and ineffective. Tailoring the solution to the problem and training is required.

e. The transfer is complete only when the technology becomes generally accepted practice.

f. The transfer process requires considerable liaison - the people who develop the ideas, their agents and the people who originate the concept.

**Conclusion**

Technology in developing countries requires not only adequate information, but also a strong political will and social policy-decision. In developing countries the political decision is not about their own research but about what technologies to acquire and where they should come from. This choice is determined by ideological
consciousness reflecting international power struggles between Western capitalist imperialism, and Eastern communist penetration.

NOTES


11. Ibid. p.69.


13. Abhuere, John. "To hell with Cancun" West Africa 30 November 1981, p.2837. Abhuere argues in this article that both the Brandt Report and the Cancun Economic Summit at Mexico "can never and will never" solve the problems of world poverty, and he suggests that the non-industrialised countries should summon up political will to further their own development.


17. Benge op.cit. p.35.


2.1. The meaning and purpose of planning

Planning is about future action. It is a preparation for a desired future, setting out a series of statements of intention and policy guidelines that will enable an organisation to achieve its long term purposes. Planning should be distinguished from a plan. A plan is a written document setting out details of the problems or the policy to solve the problems identified (usually including diagrams and maps to illustrate essential points). Planning on the other hand is a continuous process of decision-making with regard to a coherent set of decisions because it does not end with the preparation of a particular plan. It is a process because it embraces the preparation, taking, evaluating and implementing a set of inter-related decisions. Wilson (1979)\(^{(1)}\) has conveniently classified planning (i.e. the statements of future decision) into a hierarchy of terms: namely, mission, goals, objectives, policies and programmes. Mission implies the general purpose of a plan or of the organisation. The objective is what the organisation wishes to achieve within a given time. As Wilson says, objectives are quantifiable statements which ideally state "what, when, where, by whom, and how something will be achieved....". Objectives in turn lead to policies, which are clear statements of attitude of the central organisation to the working situation which will enable executing subordinate bodies or departments to cope with minor decisions. Policies are guidelines for an organisation, they should not be confused with rules or procedures. Programmes on
on the other hand are detailed objectives. They are individual subordinate activities of a larger organisation.

The most popular kinds of planning today are corporate strategic planning and national strategic planning, although regional planning is still practised. Corporate planning involves a combined operation of an organisation as a whole - local government/authority, government departments, university or industry. National strategic planning involves the formulation of (national) goals, purposes, objectives and policies, and the strategies to achieve these. National strategic planning also involves the processes of analysis of the national economy, usually undertaken by an inter-disciplinary team of experts; participation by the public - their understanding, discussion, and where necessary, modification of any major policy alternatives; and lastly, reaching a consensus by the elected members of parliament.

This chapter is not concerned with corporate planning but with national strategic planning, which is essentially a state activity.

All planning leads to the production of goods and services, and this could be undertaken in workshops, factories or offices, and by various means. These means include roads, railways, etc. The state participates in productive activity directly in such crucial sectors as electricity supply, mining regulation of the monetary and legal systems, educational development and so on. The ultimate aim of state planning is to improve the quality of life of citizens. State intervention in productive activities (planning) varies in degrees from Western democracies to Eastern Communist countries. In the
West, although the state participates in production, the private sector controls the larger proportion of the production. In the Communist block, including Eastern Europe, the public sector controls the greater proportion of production. In developing countries too, state participation is predominant for two main reasons. First, the economies of less developed countries are less complexed and so can be planned centrally by a single authority. Secondly, the private sector in developing countries lacks initiative in production industry. In all countries, however, whether the public sector is small or large, the state nevertheless exercises profound influence on the economic life of the community. It does this by prescribing hours of work in industry and through regulation of fiscal and monetary policies.

While state influence on economic life of a nation is a consciously planned phenomenon in most countries, certain activities are recognised as natural state responsibilities. These include the maintenance of law and order, which should not be left to private hands, the circulation of money, which should be controlled by a single central banking system. During wars and in times of disaster or depression the state may regulate certain unstable markets and the supply of raw materials, import restriction may also be imposed and permits may be required for certain types of goods. All these activities including the construction of roads, railways, airports etc., are usually referred to as economic policy, which is the sum total of social and economic activities undertaken by the state. Economic policy is a complicated process because of its multi-factorisation. All
complicated processes require detailed preparation, otherwise it will not be possible to fit the various parts into a coherent whole. This detailed and complicated preparation is the plan or the economic policy of government.

2.2. Types of Plan

All plans, whether national or corporate, have three categories which are usually referred to as strategic, operational and project plans. A project plan is an occasional one-off plan induced by an event, e.g. the introduction of a computerised data retrieval system in a library. A strategic plan is a long-term one setting out objectives for the organisation and which also selects the means to achieve these objectives. It is referred to as the 'heart of the system'. It is very broad in scope and is usually formulated at the corporate level, but has implications for most of the activities of the organisation.

Operational plans are short-term plans of say, one year or two or more. They are usually narrow in scope. They are also called tactical plans because they are concerned with the 'how' of a plan (e.g. how to achieve a strategic war).

Planning takes place in all aspects of life. We plan for a holiday, for shopping, for production in a factory or industry, and in many countries today it is even fashionable and may be desirable to engage in family planning. But the aim of state economic policy is to make the economy function or grow. For this reason, a plan ought to indicate what the state is to do as well as the most desirable course and direction of the economic process as a whole. In other
words it is not sufficient for a plan to simply state the course of economic mission, but an essential part of the plan should also indicate the measures to be taken by the state to achieve its economic objectives. These measures together may be referred to as 'policy'.

There are various means through which the general aim of an economic policy can be attained. One of the special functions of a plan is therefore to choose the best possible means from the many alternatives that are available. The choice of a means will be determined by its effectiveness, but other factors such as the psychological aspects should not be ignored. E.g. there may be strong psychological objections to certain forms of taxation and compulsory services as it happened in Nigeria in 1973 when a scheme of compulsory national service for Nigerian University graduates was introduced. The introduction of the National Youth Service Corps caused so much violence that the stability of the nation was threatened.

2.3. **5 Critical stages in planning**

Jacqueline Drake identifies 5 critical stages in planning. (2)

These are:

1. **ENDS** - refer to specifications of objectives and goals of a plan.

2. **MEANS** - these are selection of policies, programmes, procedures and practices by which ends are pursued.

3. **RESOURCES** - determination of the types and amounts of resources required, how they are to be generated and how they are to be allocated to the various activities.
4. IMPLEMENTATION - design of decision-making procedure and a way of organising them so that the plan can be carried out.

5. CONTROL - design of a procedure for anticipating or detecting errors in, or failures of, the plan, and for preventing or correcting them on a continuing basis.

A similar model is provided by De Smith and Rade (1980) rather diagrammatically:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure 2.1 Plan levels</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NORMATIVE</td>
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<tr>
<td>STRATEGIC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TACTICAL</td>
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<td>INSTRUMENTAL</td>
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Normative planning - level of values - choice of 'ideals'.
Strategic planning - level of objectives - choice of objectives.
Tactical planning - level of goals - choice of goals.
Instrumental planning - level of tasks - choice of policy or means.

Definition of terms:

'Ideal' is an end which by definition is unachievable but which may be approached e.g. equal opportunity for all.

'Objective' is an end which can be achieved without the period within which this happens being foreseen.

'Goal' (or 'target') is an end to be achieved within a certain time.

Drake has also established 'a 4-stage planning cycle' which aptly summarises what planning is all about:

Figure 2.2 A 4-stage Planning Cycle

Start Here

1. Where are we now?

2. Where do we want to be?

3. How are we going to get there?

4. How do we know we have arrived?

Source: Jacqueline Drake. Corporate Planning and Libraries. Where are we now? p.11.
Development planning can be defined as the preparation and coordination of medium and long-term economic policy by those government institutions concerned with formulating, implementing or executing development policies. Development planning has become an increased state activity because there is an increasing tendency towards a planned economy in most countries of the world, as against the principle of 'laissez-faire' in the past when planning became necessary only after a natural disaster such as floods, earthquake or war.

Although developing countries have adopted the planning technique as a means to raise the rate of economic growth and the standard of living of the people, it is doubtful if the concept of planning has been properly understood and practised. Max Broome asserts that:

Too often the planning process is seen by the different departments and branches of government as nothing more than a reconciliation of their demands with the availability of resources. A kind of grand bargaining procedure with each department bidding for the largest possible slice of the national cake. (3)

Planning of course, is a great deal more than this. It is concerned with an identification of areas of need, the ordering of these needs into categories of priority and the marshalling of all the resources and services of government to meet these needs. The problem with developing countries is that their needs are so many, and in planning it seems that everything is important.

Development planning involves three elements, namely: thinking ahead, coordination and aims. Thinking ahead involves forecasting the
future and it requires a thorough knowledge of the operations of social and economic forces such as population growth, literacy rates, urbanisation etc. Coordination implies the integration of isolated parts of the economy into one coherent whole. Aims are the attainment of deliberate economic goals. This means sound development.

2.4.1 Functions of development planning

The task of development planning is usually that of the planning bureau or the planning office. This office performs four basic functions, namely: construction of plans, feasibility studies, setting regulations and standards, and ad hoc advice.

2.4.1.1 Plans.

Development plans may be long-term perspective, medium or short-term plans. Long-term plans have the widest scope with much broader outlines. They are geared towards looking ahead over a period of 15 to 20 years. Perspective plans usually indicate the radical nature of the aims that government wishes to achieve. Only a radical government can be expected to change either the social or economic structures of the society which it recognises have slowed down the process of development.

Medium-term plans usually cover a term of four, five or six years. In some countries the duration of the plan period corresponds to the life of parliament or legislature. In this case a medium plan can rightly be regarded as a government programme. The advantage of the medium-term plan is that it enables the government to forecast what can be achieved during its legislative life or during the period of transition.
While both perspective and medium-term plans express government intentions, one-year plans set out clearly how government policy should be carried out. It is drawn up in conjunction with the budget which then imposes an obligation on the government. It is shown in concrete investment projects.

2.4.1.2 Preparatory investigation

It is wise for planning proper to be preceded by some research work or feasibility studies. This research work is technically not part of the planning process but only preparatory to it. The first part of the research work is pre-investment studies - defining and framing investment projects in the form in which they can be put into effect. This framing is usually undertaken by ministerial departments, by private and public bodies.

Population study is an important aspect of this preparatory research work. It will be necessary to study the migration of people from rural to urban centres, or from neighbouring states into the country. It will also be necessary to study the income levels and consumption patterns of the various groups in the society - how much money is spent in each income group on various classes of goods and services and to classify these items according to the various industries that are being considered in the plan. This process usually involves the use of mathematical expressions and statistical measurements to express the relationship of the various economic quantities to each other.

Pre-industrial planning is a joint activity involving a cross-section of experts and professionals including specialist firms.
of consultant engineers, industries and public services looking
after special activities such as road construction, electricity
supply, mineral deposits etc. It may begin with geological surveys
or soil analysis for agricultural development and mining, with
technical studies. An acquaintance with or an experience and knowledge
of local populations; water supply, energy, road transportation etc.
becomes necessary.

2.4.1.3 Setting of Rules and Standards

Rules and standards are necessary for the planning office
to coordinate the various activities undertaken by various ministries,
private industries etc. Rules will spell out the method to be
applied but they are also useful in appraising investment projects so
that there will be no conflict in appraisal. The planning office will
prepare and circulate standard figures for the determination of the
national economy-data for economic development. These are figures
showing the projected growth of the population, expected development
of foreign markets etc. These figures will enable all the executing
bodies to proceed from the same base and so maintain consistency.
Certain figures may be prepared by the central government for use by
the public bodies at lower levels so that assumptions based on
ignorance can be avoided. These figures include the rate of increase
in the national income and the distribution of the increase in
production in various industries. The central office of statistics
will be vital for this task.

2.4.1.4 Ad hoc advice to the Government

Giving advice to the government is one of the important
functions of the planning office because the staff of the planning
office have unique advantages which others may not have. They have access to information and their wealth of experience in economic policy put them in a position to be able to advise the government. This advice, usually, ad hoc in nature, should centre on problems relating to the inter-dependence of the various sectors of the national economy, measures needed to deal with inflation, deficit in balance of payments, unemployment, new projects especially those initiated by outsiders - foreign firms; new discoveries of national resources such as petroleum, natural gas etc. Too often plans are disjointed, and uncoordinated instead of each sector dovetailing into one another. Nigeria's ten-year plan of development 1946-56 had these characteristics and was aptly described by the British Colonial Office as a mere "Shopping list".

2.5. Why development planning?

There are several theories of development planning. One school of thought attributes development planning to 'imbalances' in the economies of developing countries. According to this theory advanced by Waterston (1965)\(^4\), such factors as unemployment and underemployment, balance of payments, deficits and other structural bottlenecks that impede production and distribution - land tenure systems, inequitable taxation systems, weak bureaucracies, an ill-equipped private sector, that ignores its place within the society, all must be modified or removed if development is to take place. Changes in the traditional economic and social structures are a precondition of development, hence development planning.
planning seeks to break down structural obstacles. This theory however, sees development planning only in the context of developing countries. But development planning is practised both in Western industrialised countries and Communist countries. It is not limited to developing countries alone.

A second theory advanced by De Smith and Rade (1980) attributes development planning to 'social development'. The period from 1950 - 1955/70 has been described as a period of 'turbulent environments', when growth from autonomy to inter-independence, increase in ranges, capacity and speed of communications media, participation, joint responsibility and openness of management etc., all produced a social situation in which planning was needed by governments. This theory does not limit development planning to developing countries, in fact the social conditions described by De Smith and Rade are features of industrialised countries. Both the more developed and less developed countries have, in the past two decades, been concerned with national planning to achieve a kind of national image.

There is a third theory which relates to the dependency theory discussed in Chapter one. This theory sees development planning as a continuing process of decolonisation in developing countries. Economic planning is seen as signalling a change in scope and purpose of former colonies. There are two strands of opinion in this dependency theory. The first strand conceptualises Third World economy as possessing an 'elite comprador' who do not want to break ties with former Colonial powers preferring to see their economy incorporated into that of the metropolitan power or into the international economy in which the group take part. This arrangement would suit the elite group at the expense
of the entire economy. Political independence is seen by this group as only signalling a certain degree of political decentralisation within which framework the main political actors are they themselves. The second strand conceives the developing economy as comprising the 'new national leaders' who would define their economy as one of an emerging national society. This group favours a reduction in economic integration with the metropolitan economy and an increased integration with the rest of the evolving political and stratification systems of the economy. In this way development planning is geared towards self-sufficiency. E.g. Nigeria's Fourth National Development Plan 1981-85 emphasises self-reliance and self-sufficiency in food production as well as the development of 'self' (persons) as opposed to the development of things in the previous plans. The new plan stresses less dependence on foreign factors as a means of ensuring rapid development.

The new national leaders are in good company. The Brandt Report (1980) has urged them to strive for self-reliance.

Moves by developing countries towards self-reliance on a national and collective basis should be seen as an attempt to reduce economic dependence on the North, to rely more on themselves and to promote their dignity and fuller independence. Self-reliance does not imply autarchy.

Development planning has become so fashionable in developing countries that one author reports over 1450 national development plans that have been published in the countries of the Third World. Waterston has been so fascinated by what he has observed that he puts it rather amusingly:
Today, the national plan appears to have joined the national anthem and the national flag as a symbol of sovereignty and modernity. (9)

Despite the euphoria of planning in developing countries, development plans have not always achieved their declared objective of 'accelerated economic growth'. What is practised in most developing countries is what Ehrensaft calls 'weak planning' which implies planning largely on paper. (10) Weak planning is also heavily dependent on metropolitan investment and aid, and has its origin from the Marshall Plan. Under this plan, also known as European Recovery Programme 1948, each participating nation was required by the United States Government which sponsored the programme:

- to prepare comprehensive four-year and annual plans embracing its resources and their utilization which became the basis for governmental policy and action. (11)

More than thirty years after the Marshall Plan, advanced industrialised countries or their agencies make the formulation of plans a pre-condition for technical aid. This has given rise to the proliferation of published plans in less developed countries, most of which have little relevance to the socio-economic problems of their people. The preparation and publication of national plans in some of the countries of the Third World can thus be seen as a way of attracting foreign investments or aid neither of which may prove beneficial to the interests of developing countries receiving them.
2.6. The New Social Order

A new social order which Third World countries have been trying to evolve at the global level now appears to be evolving internally. Individual countries within the 'Group of 77' are discovering more and more that they need a new social order within their territories. Tinbergen defines the 'optimum social order' as the complex of institutions that make up the society. These institutions include religious organisations, the school system, universities, the police, the security system, the bureaucracy, the introduction of a taxation system based on equity, the distribution of goods and services. All these institutions with their rules and regulations govern society.

A good, well thought-out development plan must envisage the form of the new social order the nation wishes to establish. A good many of these social structures are unsuitable for modern development — feudal institutions, special privileges enjoyed by a certain group of people not based on achievement but on ascription, the existence of absentee landlords, secret societies etc. In choosing the optimum social order two methods of welfare economies and empirical approach have been suggested by Tinbergen. First, the theory of welfare economies. This stipulates certain conditions which a maximum welfare must satisfy in a world of preferences and in which laws of production obtain. According to the laws of production, there are limits to what goods and services can be produced with the existing limited supplies and personnel. Secondly, the goods must be sold to every one or buyer at the same price, and that those prices must reflect
the existence of free competition in a free market situation. Thirdly, a redistribution of income should take place on the basis of equality of marginal utilities for all persons. Fourthly, the system of taxation should be such that a far smaller proportion of our taxes must be obtained from indirect taxation and from personal income tax than is the case at present. This means a progressive shift of emphasis towards property and profit taxation.

What the theory of welfare economies is emphasising is the principle of social justice or egalitarianism.

The empirical approach provides excellent examples of observable trends over several years which show that societies have been steadily moving from feudalism towards a capitalist and free enterprise and there-on to a mixed economy. Some African countries like Tanzania and Ghana (under Nkrumah) show a tendency towards socialist economies as opposed to communist economies. In socialism distribution of the public goods is to each according to result (ability) while to the communist, the distribution is to each according to need. Nigeria has since 1979 adopted as an official ideology the philosophy of mixed economy.

**Fundamental Reforms**

The problem of planning in developing countries is essentially that of fundamental reforms. It varies from country to country and also depends on political views of the people or of government. It also depends on the political culture and political education of the people as well as the type of regime in power. E.g. citizens are less able to voice out their opposition to a plan under a dictatorship than
they would under a democratic government. Generally people in higher social economic and intellectual level can exert far greater influence on government than those in lower economic and intellectual segment of society. It is common knowledge that university lecturers play an important role in shaping or re-shaping the economic policies of governments in developing countries. The fundamental reforms in the optimum social order relate mainly to the following:

2.6.1 Land Reforms

These reforms are aimed at equitable distribution of land among the larger population as against a few landowners who keep land as investment against possible inflation. Since agriculture is the mainstay of the economy of developing countries any land reform that will facilitate and not hinder, agricultural development, will be good for the people of Third World.

2.6.2 State machinery

The bureaucracy in developing countries is characterised by undue resistance to change, inefficiency, corruption and tradition, long cumbersome procedures, conducted very slowly and involving several authorities. The weakness of the state machinery means that things simply don't work. 'Nothing moves'. Some of the regulations imposed by the state machinery may be absurd e.g. the granting of an import licence for machines may exclude spare parts when they are worn and Bribery in high and low places is common. All these factors prevent rapid and meaningful development. Any social reforms that fail to improve the efficiency of the bureaucracy is just a tip of the iceberg.
2.6.3 Educational Reforms

The urgency of educational reforms in developing countries is understandable. Most of them have had an educational system that is based on Western culture, and which does not relate to indigenous needs and aspirations. A good many of the political leaders of the Third World were exposed to modern forms of education in the United States, Britain, France or elsewhere in Europe. Most of the educational systems in developing countries have been modelled on patterns which are obsolescent in the countries which produced them. The educational systems inherited by developing countries at independence were based on Western literary education, which is unsuitable for our development purposes. The neglect of vocational or technical and agricultural education by ex-colonial masters was deliberate colonial policy. What colonial authorities needed were clerks and junior administrators and these required no practical and technical education. And, as Benge puts it, technical skills were not required because these were not industrial societies. But the neglect of practical education, especially agricultural education, has created gaps in the educational systems of developing countries, gaps which are difficult to fill.

In 1960, the Federal government of Nigeria commissioned a study headed by Sir Eric Ashby (1960) to make recommendations to the government of Nigeria concerning post-school certificate and higher education in the country. One of the most striking things in the Nigerian educational system which the commission noted was the lack of practical education and its pre-occupation with literary education based on Western educational system. The Report recommended the
introduction of practical and agricultural education at the primary school level "since for a long time to come large numbers of primary school leavers will be unable to attend secondary schools".

In a good number of educational reforms today, emphasis is on socialisation - how the African child should be introduced to his own way of life-culture. "A necessary part of culture is the preservation of the past, which is one reason why libraries which preserve records of all kinds are important cultural agencies". Unfortunately the provision of library services is never considered by economic planners as a necessary and integral part of the educational system in developing countries. Most of the educational reforms have reflected mainly curriculum changes. Textbooks have had to be rewritten to get rid of Eurocentric bias. E.g. at the introduction of Universal Primary Education in Nigeria in 1976, the Nigerian government asked for tenders from Nigerian publishers to produce new textbooks which would replace the existing stock that were considered culturally irrelevant to the country’s needs.

There have been changes in other areas as well. In pedagogy rote learning is to be replaced by intelligent understanding. There is to be more scientific treatment of subjects than merely historical treatment. The training of character rather than intellectual formation is to be preferred. Efforts have been intensified to improve the teaching of mathematics and science at all levels of education. These efforts however, have not been aligned to the provision of library services to improve the quality of education.
2.7. **Genesis of development planning**

Planned development has been in existence since the early civilizations of ancient Egypt, Mesopotamia, India and China, when these countries were engaged in the construction of highways, terraces for agriculture or irrigation to control floods. But this type of planning was rather peacemeal and unintegrated, nor was it on a continuous basis.

Modern development planning is usually attributed to the efforts of the Soviet Union which had introduced development planning before the Second World War with its First Five-Year Plan in 1929. Elsewhere in the Colonies attempts were made by Colonial authorities to introduce planning. The Belgian government attempted a public investment plan for the Belgian Congo's railways and mines in 1906 and 1920, but according to one source these plans were no more than a list of projects, a peacemeal disjointed piece of work.\(^{(16)}\) In the former British Colonies a Colonial Development Act was passed in 1929. The Act was not a plan itself but only an enabling act for the Colonial Office to allocate funds to the colonies for development purposes. In 1940 another Colonial Development and Welfare Act was passed to supersede the 1929 Act. The new Act covered all the British Colonies. Unfortunately the outbreak of World War II made it impossible to carry out the proposals for the Colonial development under the 1940 Act.

2.7.1 **Post-War Planning**

In Western Europe, France was the first country to embark upon a plan of reconstruction. The First Plan of Modernisation and Equipment 1945/46 to rebuild the ruins of the war was initiated.
Development planning was given further impetus when the United States launched the Marshall Plan, referred to earlier. Under the plan the United States government agreed to provide funds to each of the participating European countries provided that they prepared "comprehensive four-year and annual plans", indicating their existing resources and their utilisation.

2.7.2 Colonial Planning

At the end of World War II in 1945 another Colonial and Welfare Act was passed by the British government with the main objective of improving the welfare of the colonial peoples. The fund under this new Act was more than doubled the amount which the government had been prepared to make available to the colonies previously. The Secretary of State for the Colonies had requested:

..... the governments of all the British dependencies to produce proposals for the economic and social development which they would like to see take place in their territories during the next ten years.... (17)

Following this request a ten-year plan of development covering the period 1946 to 1956 was launched in all the colonies. Details of this plan will be discussed in the review of development plans in Nigeria in Chapter 3. Henceforth development planning in nearly all former British Colonies became a common feature, involving the participation or cooperation of international agencies or organisations, notably the World Bank.

2.7.3 The World Bank.

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development has made significant contributions to development planning in
developing countries. Its activities date back to 1950, and in the early stages, were restricted to feasibility studies, recommendations and advice, and even at that, in the fields of agriculture and transportation. Through these activities, the agency has done much to accelerate organised national planning in several countries of the Third World. It has helped some countries to reorganise or reshape their development plans, while in others it has helped in reorganising their planning agencies. It was responsible for revising Nigeria's Ten-Year Plan of Development 1946-1956 which became known as the Revised Five-Year Plan 1951-56. The World Bank had recommended that the Ten-Year Plan was unrealistic and unfeasible. It was unrealistic for Nigeria, without any previous planning experiences, to charter a development plan over a period as long as ten years.

The Colonial Development and Welfare Act of 1945 had stimulated planned development throughout the former British Colonies and today there is hardly any country in Africa that does not engage in development planning.

Planning in developing countries imposes far greater tasks on governments than it is the case in advanced countries. Governments in developing countries have to do many things which in advanced countries are undertaken by the private sector. Industrial centres have to be created, agricultural revolutions have to be initiated, flood controlled, roads built, schools, housing and health services provided, towns to be planned, foreign exchange to be controlled, an awful lot of tasks, all to be carried out by the government "through an incompetent and usually corrupt civil service". (18)
2.8. Development Planning in Nigeria

The genesis of development planning in Nigeria like elsewhere in former British Colonies, can be traced back to 1929 when deliberate development policy in the Colonies was started. Both the Development and Welfare Acts of 1929 and 1940 were inoperative, being no more than pious declarations of government intentions. It was the Third Colonial Development and Welfare Act of April 1945 that really got under way and can be regarded as Nigeria's first deliberate attempt at development planning. Under this act a block sum of £120 million was made available to the colonies collectively for the ten fiscal years ending 31 March, 1955.(19) Each colony was requested to submit a Ten-Year Development Plan. Nigeria's plan which envisaged an expenditure of £55 million out of an increased total of £180 million was criticised by a Select Committee of the British House of Commons for being "merely an aggregate of proposals for spending money". (20)

There were considerable difficulties in implementing successfully a development plan that was chartered over a long period of ten years in a country where plan errors were numerous. Consequently, the plan had to be revised for the years 1951-56. The Revised Five-Year Plan coincided with a significant political development in Nigeria. The Macpherson Constitution of 1951 was introduced to replace the Richards' Constitution of 1947. The Revised Plan was in operation when Nigeria became a federation on October 1, 1954. This development was significant in the history of development planning in Nigeria because it changed the entire structure and character of the Revised Plan. The plan was terminated on 31 March, 1955 at the recommendation of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. The programmes
of the Revised Plan, hitherto highly centralised, were transferred to the regions and became the programmes of four governments, i.e. Eastern Region, Northern Region and Western Region and the Federal government of Nigeria. Regional planning was thus introduced in Nigeria in 1955, bringing to an end the first ever attempt at centralised planning.

It is against this background that we shall discuss how planning has proceeded in Nigeria for the past three decades.

2.8.1 Regionalism and development planning

The constitutional change of 1954 had created three autonomous regions, namely Eastern, Northern and Western regions. In 1963 the Mid-West Region was carved out of Western Region bringing to four the number of regional governments in Nigeria. There were great diversities among the regions - ethnic, political and religious as well as differences in resource endowments. All these diversities created special problems for development, but it was precisely the same factors that gave the country a potential for development planning.

The federal constitution of 1960 recognised strong regional prerogatives while at the same time vesting in the Central government those powers which determined national coherence and the development of nationhood.

The Northern Region, the largest of the four regions, had a population of about 30 million people out of a total of approximately 55 million. It also occupied a land area of 281,782 sq.miles. The North was the poorest and the least developed of the four regions. It however dominated in politics because it was ruled by a feudal Muslim
The vast size of the region and the sparse population over large areas imposed considerable constraints to the development of infrastructure. The major exports of the region were cotton, groundnuts and beniseed. Mining industry was at the Jos Plateau (now Plateau State).

The Eastern region, stretching from the Niger River to the Cameroon's border and North to some 100 miles of the Benue River, occupies 29,484 sq.miles of land, and had a population of about 12.4 million people, mainly of Ibo speaking origin. The Ibos have a strong sense of community work and local cooperation. This sense of cooperation had tremendous effect on planning in the region - schools, feeder roads, hospitals and health centres were built through communal efforts, thus allowing the government to concentrate on other vital sectors.

The major export crops of the region were palm oil and palm kernels. By 1966 petroleum and natural gas had been discovered in substantial commercial and industrial amounts in the Niger Delta. The region was also the main producer of coal.

The Western region, as at 1954, had an area of 45,376 sq.miles. It was reduced to 30,095 sq.miles when the mid-West region was created in 1963. By mid-1963 its population was at 10.3 million people. It is predominantly Yoruba speaking, a traditionally town-dwelling people with strong political traditions. The major exports of the region are cocoa, rubber, oil palm products and timber. The West was the richest of all the four regions.
The mid-West region, created in 1963 had an area of 15,281 sq.miles and an estimated population of 2.5 million people. The dominant ethnic group is Edo. Rubber, oil palm products and petroleum are the main economic base of the region.

The above sketchy description of the political and economic structures of Nigeria has revealed two important things. First, the regions were distinct entities, with special ethnic characteristics. Second, each region had its own defined economic base.

In a federation the central government must exercise legislative powers over all those matters that are essential to maintaining national coherence and giving direction to the country's economy either exclusively or concurrently with the regions, but the centre assuming dominant roles. On the other hand, all those matters which are regionally distinct are better left to the regions. This explains why planning is less centralised in federal systems of government.

Under the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1979) the Federal government has responsibility for national defence, foreign affairs, the issue of currency, the control of banking system, raising of foreign loans, federal trunk (A) roads, energy, the Nigerian Railways Corporation, the Nigerian Ports Authority, and a host of other statutory bodies.

The major regional or state responsibilities are agriculture, education other than universities, health and other social services including public libraries.

Since 1967 Nigeria has undergone dramatic political transformation. From a federation of four regions only at the beginning of 1967, Nigeria became a federation of twelve states in May 1967, and
in 1975, seven more states were created bringing the total number of states to nineteen.

Despite these structural changes the procedure for national planning has remained basically the same except that the federal government as the central coordinating body has become stronger. There are no longer separate state plans as were the regional plans of 1955-60. The federal government coordinates all state projects and on that basis publishes a national plan which, after approval by the National Assembly, becomes a legal document binding on all the states. Within the framework of this legal document, each state is expected to charter its development programmes.

The planning organisation has undergone several changes with changes in regimes. The Colonial planning bureau of the 1940s consisted of an Advisory Commission on Economic Development and Social Welfare, Departmental Administrative Heads, Provincial Committees responsible for considering development in general within their areas of jurisdiction. By the time the First National Development Plan 1962-68 was launched a number of institutional changes had been made to facilitate the planning process. The Federal Ministry of Economic Development had been created, and there were corresponding ministries in the regions. A Joint Planning Committee (JPC) was also established. It was an inter-regional body at the top Civil Service level. It had as its Chairman the Governor of the Central Bank, later the Economic Adviser to the Federal Government. Its function was to coordinate Federal and Regional planning efforts. The Federal Ministry of Economic Development provided the Secretariat for the Joint Planning Committee,
and within the same Ministry the Economic Planning Unit (EPU) was
given responsibility for preparing both the Federal programme and
the National Plan.

The Joint Planning Committee itself was responsible to the
National Economic Council (NEC), the highest Ministerial inter­
governmental body with the Prime Minister as its Chairman. Its members
were the three regional (later four) premiers, four ministers repres­
enting each region, and four others from the Federal Territory.
With this composition, which projects were included in the national
plan and where they were sited depended on where the ministers came
from, and of course, their bargaining power. However, one thing to
the credit of these institutions was that the process of coordination
was facilitated.

There was little change in the structure of the planning bureau
in the Second National Development Plan. The Federal Ministry of
Economic Development was largely responsible for the preparation of
the Second Plan, although its publication was undertaken by the
Federal Ministry of Information. The Ministry responsible for the Third
Plan was the Federal Ministry of Economic Development and Reconstruction,
created after the civil war, but the main planning agency was the
Central Planning Office. The other agencies included the National
Economic Advisory Council (the equivalent of the National Economic
Council), and the Joint Planning Board (JPB). During the current
Fourth National Plan a separate Ministry, the Federal Ministry of National
Planning, was created. There is also the National Economic Council
established under the Third Schedule of the Constitution of the Federal
Republic of Nigeria 1979, comprising the Vice President of the Federal
Republic, as Chairman, the Governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria and the Governor of each state of the Federation. The various ministries responsible for economic planning in the states perform similar functions as the Federal Ministry of National Planning. The newly reformed Local Government Councils have also been involved in national planning, thus bringing economic planning for the first time to the grassroots. The advantage of this decentralised planning is that "more of the knowledge of an economy can be utilised than would be the case with a severely centralised approach". (21)

Given the quality of staff of the Local Government Councils, it is doubtful if decentralisation will achieve its declared objectives. With competent staff local government could contribute significantly to national planning because the diffusion of local knowledge of social and cultural factors would be allowed to enter into the formulation of plans.

Conclusion

Concluding this chapter, both negative and positive aspects of development planning can be identified. The negative aspects relate generally to plan weakness both in plan formulation and plan implementation. Economic experts attribute this fault to lack of 'executive capacity' as the major constraint. There is generally a paucity of personnel of the right calibre to plan and implement plan objectives. This factor is particularly crucial because plans in developing countries tend to emphasise the more difficult sectors of the economy such as industrial development, where the personnel of highly technical and professional expertise is required. The problem
is even made worse by the incompetency of the administration. The slow flow or non-flow of information among Ministers may impede the implementation of development plans. Similarly interference from the politicians who often introduce into the plan their own pet projects, can lead to approved development programmes not being implemented.

On the positive side, we can begin by saying that the very realisation by developing countries that in planning their economies, they are striving towards self-reliance to complete the process of political independence with economic independence. In doing so they are not trying to de-link from the international economic system, but only to bargain on more equal terms with the richer countries of the North.

Most importantly, planning offers the best opportunities for the development of agriculture, education and the manufacturing industries if the right approach is adopted. Therefore planning should take into consideration the special cultural and social needs of developing countries.

NOTES


11. Waterston op.cit. pp.32 -.


20. Ibid. p.37.

21. Ibid. p.43.
Development planning in Nigeria can be divided into two broad phases. Phase one, the period prior to 1960, is referred to as Colonial planning period, while phase two, the period after political independence, is known as the post-independence planning period.

3.1. Colonial Planning

Efforts at planning during this period date back to 1929 when the Colonial Development Act was passed by the British Government. The Act did not represent any systematic development planning in the sense that we understand the term, it merely provided funds to be allocated to the Colonies. The Act was however rendered inoperative by the Great Depressions of the 1930s. In 1940 another act, the Colonial Development and Welfare Act was passed to supersede that of 1929. The 1940 Act too was interrupted by World War II and rendered inoperative. It was the Third Colonial Development Act, the first after the Second World War, 1945-56 that really made deliberate and significant efforts at development planning.

3.1.1 The Ten-Year Plan of Development and Welfare

The Ten-Year Plan of Development and Welfare Act was Nigeria's first economic plan. It resulted from the passing in 1945 of the Third Colonial Development and Welfare Act, and became operative in 1946.
when the Secretary of State for the Colonies called upon the
governments of all the British dependencies to produce their proposals
for the economic and social development which they would wish to see
take place in their respective territories during the ten-year
period commencing from 1 April 1946. It was perhaps the first, and
so far, the only attempt at long-term development planning in Nigeria.

The plan was divided into five-year periods. The first five-
year plan contained more clearly defined objectives, while the second
five-year one was concerned with more general principles.

3.1.2 The Revised Plan 1951-56.

The Ten-Year Plan of development became operative in 1946 but
it was quickly followed by a succession of events which led to its
being revised. First, the Richards' Constitution of 1947 which
created three autonomous regions in the country - Eastern, Northern
and Western regions, as well as the Southern Cameroon and the Colony
of Lagos. The Richards' Constitution was repealed and replaced in
1951 by the Macpherson Constitution (of 1951). In 1954 the three
regions were amalgamated into a federation, an event which has remained
a significant historical landmark in Nigeria's political development -
(the 'Amalgamation of Nigeria'). Thereafter, Nigeria was on the
move. Political independence came on October 1, 1960, and on 1 October,
1963, Nigeria gained a republican status.

The Ten-Year Plan had to be revised partly because of the
unforeseen economic circumstances and partly to take cognisance of
these political and constitutional changes. Moreover, the report of
the World Bank Mission in Nigeria had just been published, and it was
quite critical of the Ten-Year Plan, which it described as 'unfeasible' and 'unrealistic', pointing out that Nigeria could not "charter a development plan over a period as long as ten years", without having any previous planning experience nor planning machinery. The plan was also criticised because it was formulated without taking into account costs of services and goods which had risen beyond expectation. Accordingly a Revised Five-Year Plan 1951-56 came into being. Both the Ten-Year Plan and the Revised Five-Year Plan were highly centralised covering the whole country. In the opinion of Professor Adedeji both plans were prepared "on the lines of a military plan of campaign". (1)

The Revised Plan was terminated on March 1, 1955, and from April 1, 1955 each regional government prepared its own development plan. This brought to an end the first attempt to have an integrated national development plan. Regional plans were thus launched for the years 1955 to 1960. However, with independence approaching close to 1960, it became necessary to extend the federal programme period to 1962 so that the next plan would be a truly Nigerian effort. It was envisaged that the next development plan would integrate the programmes of all the four governments thus reflecting the federal character of Nigeria.

3.1.3 Regional Plans 1955-60.

Regional development plans of 1955-60 were more or less an extension of the Ten-Year Plan of Development and Welfare. The regional governments merely took over programmes which were formulated for the Ten-Year Plan 1946-56. They also coincided with what is
generally regarded as the second phase in planned economic development in Nigeria.

According to Professor Adedeji, of all the four plans only the West and the Federal governments had prepared well-thought out plans, and of the two governments, only the Western regional government had prepared a detailed expenditure for the whole five-year period. The federal government expenditure was prepared only for one year. The North had prepared only "A Statement of Policy on Development Finance Programme 1955-60". This was later revised and extended to 31 March 1962. The East on the other hand, owing to financial constraints at the time prepared only an "Outline Plan of Development". When revenue increased as a result of the discovery of mineral oil products in the region, a more ambitious plan was launched for 1958-62 with a projected capital expenditure programme of £20.7 million as against the previous one of £5.2 million for the years 1955-60. The East regional government plan envisaged more than disciplined allocation of limited resources on the part of the planners and executors, it also envisaged discipline from the grassroots to gain acceptance for the translation of the political objectives into practically realisable economic goal.

The main principles of Western regional plan which made it stand well out from the others were as follows:

a. It opted for a medium-term 5-year development plan.

b. A clear distinction between developmental and non-developmental plan expenditures was made.

c. All activities of government were covered in the plan. The aim was to construct a balanced programme covering the whole of
government sector of the economy as well as assisting the private sector. Government recognised that "public services improve its physical equipment as well as skills and the quality of its people.

d. Strengthening the productive capacity of the economy to bring about increase in real income per head, hence increase in government revenue.

Although the government recognised the role of information in development its understanding of the concept seemed to be limited to the cultural messages put out by mobile cinema vans, hence due attention was given to the provision of this service.

The provision of adequate information services is essential if people of the region and the outside world are to be fully informed on development taking place in the region. Mobile cinema vans and barges are being introduced to meet the needs of the outlying areas of the region. There is however, one important service which is still lacking and must be provided as soon as possible - an organisation for the production of documentary films. (3)

Other cultural services provided for in the plan included a printing Corporation to manufacture exercise books for the needs of educational institutions, and to produce 'follow-up' literature in a range of subjects for newly literate adults, and vernacular primers for adult education classes.

There was implicit concern for the quality of education in the plan but unfortunately, the provision of school library services was either totally neglected or overlooked. Neither was there any provision for public library services in this 'most successful' plan in which 'all activities of government' were covered. Curiously,
Western Nigeria till today, lags terribly behind in library
development among the states in the federal Republic of Nigeria.

3.1.4 The main features of Colonial Plans

The Colonial plan period 1945-56, has been described by
Olatumbosun as the 'pseudo-planning era',(4) because what was
prepared was not a plan but a collection of projects designed by the
Colonial administrators to achieve their economic objective of
securing raw materials for industries in their home country. In
fact the British government too reacted sharply to the plan. A
Select Committee of the House of Commons described the 1945-56 develop-
ment plan as merely an aggregate of proposals for spending money.

The allocation of expenditure on the Ten-
Year Plan of Development and Welfare does
not give anything like a complete picture
of the future development of the territory.
The plan does not propound a complete strategy
of development, it is merely an aggregate of
proposals for spending money.....
Beginning with water supply the list goes on
with education, agriculture, forestry and
veterinary services...This is not planning. (5)

Generally, Colonial plans were characterised by lack of
coherence and internal consistency. Moreover, as regions were au-
nomous, each struck in its own direction and it was difficult to
achieve effective coordination. Because of the existing divergencies
in socio-economic structures among the regions, the pattern of planning
differed from one region to another, depending on the availability of
natural and human resources. This factor is significant for library
development planning and will be discussed in detail in Chapter 7.
Above all, the most important concern of the Colonial administration
was economic. All other things were promoted to achieve that single objective. E.g. law and order were to be maintained so that commerce could flourish. Agriculture and medical research were given adequate attention. Economic exploitation led to the establishment of research institutions and their special libraries. The Agricultural Research Department was the first of these institutions to be set up in Nigeria. It was established in 1910. Another agricultural research centre was opened at Samaru, Zaria in 1934 (now Institute of Agricultural Research). In 1930 the Oil Palm Research Institute was opened near Benin City (now the Nigerian Institute for Oil Palm Research since 1964).

Ekpe describes the growth of the libraries of these research institutes as "similar to most small special libraries in the United Kingdom. Starting with a few books and journals the libraries were chiefly run by the research staff themselves with the aid of clerical or partly trained assistants". From 1945 a block sum of £1,000,000 per annum was allocated by the Colonial Office as research fund. Also a Colonial Research Committee was set up with sub-sections of specialist bodies dealing with research into new colonial products. In particular, agricultural soil science and economic researches were encouraged.

One of the repugnant Colonial research policies was that a number of vital research projects were carried out "in British Universities and research centres and were financed from the Colonial Development and Welfare funds". Most of the research results were published in British journals or other scientific journals in Europe.
When these expatriate researchers left, they did not leave any copies of their research publications, nor copies of data collected, behind. This accounts for the vast amounts of research publications, especially on tropical subjects, in British universities and major public libraries. This repugnant colonial policy which Ekpe describes as 'academic colonialism' tended rather to inhibit the development process of research enterprises and the publication of books and periodicals, as well as the development of special research libraries.

The development of academic libraries was significantly affected by the colonial policy on education. Government's policy was to spend as little as possible on education. The onus thus fell on Christian Missionary and private enterprises. The Christian Missions had one objective — the use of educational institutions as agencies for evangelisation. Their educational enterprise consisted mainly of primary schools where the curriculum consisted of the 3Rs. The main emphasis was on character training and spiritual development but the Missionaries also needed clerks and interpreters. It was thought that these did not need more than primary education.

Government involvement in education was minimal until 1940s. In fact the first institution of higher learning in Nigeria was the Yaba Higher College which was opened in 1934 to provide vocational and professional training for teachers of secondary schools, and for medical, agricultural, veterinary and forestry assistants. The institution was funded entirely by the Colonial government from its meagre resources generated internally. By 1945, ten years after the establishment of the institution, the library collection was reported
to be "some 3600 volumes mainly textbooks and works of reference in science". (8) The College library had a book budget of £200 altogether from 1934 to 1938 whereas Achimota College (Ghana) of a similar status had an annual book budget of £300.

In 1948, the University College, Ibadan was established as a result of the reports of two earlier Commissions - the Asquith Commission, and the Elliot Commission - on higher education in the colonies. Both Commissions were concerned about the essential role of libraries in the work of Colonial University Colleges. It was as a result of their recommendations that the British government provided a total capital grant of £1,700,000 for Ibadan, out of which £30,000 was for building up the library collection and a further £144,000 for the library building. On the whole the library budget of Ibadan University College was grossly inadequate, and the library depended initially on gifts and loans from benevolent organisations and individuals. John Harris, the first University Librarian of the institution was later to complain that the library had become a dumping ground for the "hard indisposab1e core of London's second-hand bookshops or else the refuse of a hundred dusty attics".

If research and academic libraries developed in Nigeria during the Colonial planning era, no matter how rudimentary, it was because their growth was organically tied up with the Colonial policy of economic exploitation. Research libraries were to facilitate the process of research in new colonial products for industrial and commercial use in metropolitan cities in Europe, while academic libraries grew with the establishment of higher institutions of learning.
necessitated by a desire to train successors to the Colonial administration. There was no similar pressing need to develop public libraries. "The Colonial system was neither an information producing system nor was the colonized society a participant society". (9) Attempts to get the Colonial government to support public library services were unsuccessful until late 1940s. In fact the first public library was built in Lagos in 1932 with a generous grant of $6000 from the Carnegie Corporation.

During the Second World War a need to disseminate information about the war in all British dependencies was recognised. Accordingly there developed in Nigeria a number of 'reading rooms' through which information about the war, and in particular, British war efforts, could be filtered. But there was no positive effort to develop public libraries until the arrival of the British Council in Nigeria in December 1943. In the same year a committee was set up by the British government to examine the problem of illiteracy and communal education in Africa. The committee recommended that encouragement be given to local publishers as well as those in Britain to produce suitable reading materials for the African people, and that as much as possible the literature should be subsidised as mass education would require cheap reading materials of all kinds. It was as a consequence of this that Gaskiya Corporation was established in Northern Nigeria with the objects of increasing the supply of general vernacular literature to assist the spread of mass literacy; and of establishing a vernacular newspaper for the North - The Gaskiya Tafi Kwabo - meaning 'truth is worth more than a penny'. A total grant of £198,550 was made by the Colonial administration under the Development and Welfare
Act, to the Corporation for its capital and recurrent expenditures.

Now, back to the British Council. On opening an office in Lagos in 1943, the Council's first priority was to start a reading room on the Marina, Lagos, with a book stock bearing the imprints of its cultural mission of promoting a wide knowledge of the United Kingdom and the British way of life abroad. It was in 1946 that the Council, in conjunction with the Lagos Town Council, opened what was really a public library. Outside Lagos, Council's libraries were opened in Enugu (1947), Ibadan (1947), Kamo and Port Harcourt (1950). However, Council's public library development programme was short-lived. On the orders of the British government, Council was not to establish or maintain public libraries in the Colonies but to maintain its own libraries through which the British way of life could be projected, and closer cultural ties between the British people and the people of the Colonies could be promoted. Thus Council's libraries failed to promote mass literacy, nor were they able to provide general information to the general reader. They became and still remain, elitist institutions, accessible only to literate and sophisticated Africans who could assimilate British cultural values.

The above analysis has proved sufficiently that colonial planning during the period under review, was geared towards economic exploitation of the colonised people. The welfare of the people was considered only in so far as it facilitated this process of exploitation. The information need of the colonised people was secondary to the cultural assimilation of British cultural values.

The most notorious feature of colonial planning was its criminal neglect of the rural people. Investment in the rural sector
was too insignificant for any meaningful social transformation. While the rural people supplied most of the primary products which provided resources for development, the bulk of social services such as modern sanitation, pipe-borne water supply, electricity, roads, medical services etc., were all concentrated in urban areas. The neglect of the rural people is one of the sad colonial legacies bequeathed to African political leaders who now have the responsibility of planning for their people's welfare.

3.2. Post-Independence Plans

Since the end of the Revised Five Year Plan 1951-56 and 1955-60, Nigeria has opted for medium-term economic development planning. Since independence in 1960, Nigeria has had four national development plans beginning with the first one 1962-68.

3.2.1 The First National Development Plan 1962-68.

The 1962-68 development plan was really Nigeria's first 'National' plan. It reflected the federal structure of the country. Under the first national plan centralised planning begun under the Ten-Year Plan of Development and Welfare was introduced. Both federal and regional programmes were coordinated, although regional governments had "responsibility and authority to develop and carry out economic development plans within their geographical limits". (10)

Priorities

Government priorities in the first national development plans were in the fields of agriculture, industry and technical education.
A TEN-YEAR PLAN OF DEVELOPMENT AND WELFARE FOR NIGERIA 1946-56.

### TABLE 3.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project</th>
<th>Funds allocated (N million)</th>
<th>% allocation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Primary production</td>
<td>6.976</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Water supply:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Rural</td>
<td>8.004</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Urban</td>
<td>9.120</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Transport &amp; communications</td>
<td>22.788</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Electricity</td>
<td>3.088</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Health</td>
<td>13.276</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Education</td>
<td>10.654</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Commerce &amp; Industry</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Building programmes for development</td>
<td>18.068</td>
<td>17.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Social Welfare including village reconstruction</td>
<td>1.432</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Local development schemes</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Others</td>
<td>9.726</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL:</td>
<td>106.654</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These areas were regarded as the productive sectors which required:

as large a volume of resources as possible
to raise the average level of living and
provide the Nigerian people with the means
for increased employment. (11)

A total capital expenditure of £676.8 million was allocated over the six year period. Of this amount 14 percent was earmarked for the primary production sector, and 13 percent for trade and industry. Altogether a total of 70 percent of the total allocation went to those sectors contributing directly to economic growth - primary production, trade and industry, transport and communications, irrigation and industrial water supply.

Tables 2-4 show sectoral allocations during the 1962-68 development plan.

Like the previous Colonial administration the federal government intensified its research efforts into natural resources and mineral wealth under the plan. A number of research institutions were set up including the Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research (NISER), which was accorded a strategic position of a major national institute of applied research on Nigerian development problems. (12)

Another research institute of national importance was the Nigerian Institute of International Affairs (NIIA). Established in 1963 as an independent non-political and non-profit making organisation under a succession of governing councils, the institute has as its main objective:

the promotion of the study of international affairs by means of research, lectures, seminars, and exchanges of information with institutions of learning in all parts of the world. (13)
### TABLE 3.2

**FEDERAL GOVERNMENT CAPITAL EXPENDITURE 1962 - 68**

**DISTRIBUTION BY SECTOR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. ECONOMIC</strong></td>
<td>£1,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>£1,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Primary Production</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Trade and industry</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Electricity</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Transport</td>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>104.0</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Communications</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Water excluding irrigation</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. SOCIAL OVERHEADS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Education</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Health</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Town &amp; Country Planning</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Social Welfare</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Information</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III. GENERAL ADMIN.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Judiciary</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. General</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IV. FINANCIAL OBLIGATION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Financial Obligations</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>146.3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>412.5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## TABLE 3.3

**FEDERAL CAPITAL EXPENDITURE PROGRAMME 1962-68**

**BREAKDOWN BY MINISTRY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MINISTRY</th>
<th>£1,000 Total by Programme</th>
<th>£1,000 Total by Ministry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Communications</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunications</td>
<td>27,409</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posts &amp; Telegraph</td>
<td>2,300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meteorology</td>
<td>291</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Works &amp; Surveys</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roads &amp; Bridges</td>
<td>35,382</td>
<td>39,146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surveys</td>
<td>1,901</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos water supply</td>
<td>1,863</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Transport &amp; Aviation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inland Waterways dept.</td>
<td>1,981</td>
<td>14,665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coastal agency</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine Division</td>
<td>147</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil aviation</td>
<td>4,949</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport surveys</td>
<td>250</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7,288</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Commerce &amp; Industry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steel Mill</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>44,730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment in industry</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mint &amp; security printing</td>
<td>300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development Bank</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insurance Companies</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal loans Board</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal trade faire</td>
<td>400</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institution of Admin.</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Mines and Power</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geological and water surveys</td>
<td>1,007</td>
<td>3,176</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.3 contd.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MINISTRY</th>
<th>£1,000 Total by Programme</th>
<th>£1,000 Total by Ministry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. Economic Development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries Dept.</td>
<td>885</td>
<td>14,992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry research</td>
<td>498</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veterinary research</td>
<td>322</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agric. research</td>
<td>1,462</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agric. investment</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office of Statistics</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development Bank</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NISER</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Census</td>
<td>1,025</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Information</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Broadcasting</td>
<td>1,096</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Broadcasting</td>
<td>525</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>730</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Health</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Education</td>
<td></td>
<td>28,954</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 3.4

PLANNED EXPENDITURE ON NATIONAL PLAN BY SECTOR AND GOVERNMENT 1962/63-1967/68

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>£ Thousand</th>
<th>Federal Region</th>
<th>Eastern Region</th>
<th>Northern Region</th>
<th>Western Region</th>
<th>Total National</th>
<th>% by sector 1955-62</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. ECONOMIC SECTOR</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Primary Production</td>
<td>10,466</td>
<td>30.361</td>
<td>22.494</td>
<td>18.439</td>
<td>81.760</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Electricity</td>
<td>94,540</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>96.140</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Communications</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>30.000</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Total</strong></td>
<td>282,993</td>
<td>52.741</td>
<td>58.518</td>
<td>49.734</td>
<td>443.986</td>
<td>66.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. SOCIAL OVERHEADS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Water other than irrigation</td>
<td>1,863</td>
<td>5.100</td>
<td>7.442</td>
<td>9.853</td>
<td>24,258</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Education</td>
<td>29,154</td>
<td>8.805</td>
<td>18.949</td>
<td>12.855</td>
<td>69.763</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Health</td>
<td>10,364</td>
<td>1.821</td>
<td>3.317</td>
<td>1.636</td>
<td>17.076</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Cooperatives</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.439</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>3.939</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Social Welfare</td>
<td>2,689</td>
<td>534</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>4.723</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Information</td>
<td>2,351</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>773</td>
<td>3.662</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Total</strong></td>
<td>69,521</td>
<td>20,014</td>
<td>38,235</td>
<td>37,397</td>
<td>165,167</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III. ADMINISTRATION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Judiciary</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>964</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Total</strong></td>
<td>44,187</td>
<td>2,317</td>
<td>993</td>
<td>1,556</td>
<td>49,053</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IV. FINANCIAL OBLIGATIONS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.200</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>3,920</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL:</strong></td>
<td>398,901</td>
<td>75,209</td>
<td>98,803</td>
<td>90,287</td>
<td>663,200</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The establishment of development research institutes attracted government grants directed towards:

a. The production of adequate, cheap and reliable supplies of power e.g. the Niger Kainji Dam.

b. Increase in investment in the field of agriculture.

c. A positive approach to industrial development e.g. the establishment of an Industrial Development Bank.

d. Minimum possible investment in technical secondary and higher education to provide future manpower required for development.

e. The development of communications and coordinated transport service.

f. A limited expansion service in the Federal Territory of Lagos.

g. Strengthening of the country's defence.

h. Restraining investment in all other fields to the minimum levels required to accelerate growth in those sectors of higher priority. (14)

Any hope of expanding social services including library services would have been dashed by objective 'h' above. There is evident bias in favour of the 'productive sector' e.g. while Commerce and Industry received £44.7 million, Works and Surveys £39.1 million and Communications £30.0 million, (the productive sectors), Information received only a miserable allocation of £2.4 million for the whole plan period (see table 3 p.16) and this allocation was utilised for the mass media programmes - domestic broadcasting £1,096,000, external broadcasting £525,000 and television £730,000. Library services were not included among the information programmes.
Summary

The development strategy of the Nigerian government in the first national development plan resembled that of the previous colonial plan. There was too much preoccupation with growth at the expense of social services. Although government had recognised the crucial role of information in mobilising people for development it thought that role could be performed by the mass media hence an investment of £2.4 million for broadcasting and television. Nowhere in the plan is there a provision for public library services. A few research libraries sprang up as supportive agencies to research institutions. Their development has not been a consequence of conscious systematic planning, but a by-product of the overall objective of organising research into natural resources and development problems.

3.2.2 Second National Development Plan 1970-75

Nigeria's Second National Development Plan was launched in 1970 after the country's 30 months civil war. The plan was to be implemented from April 1970 to March 1974, but was later extended to March 1975. It was appropriately christened a Programme of Post-War Reconstruction and Development. It was also the first development plan by the military regime.

3.2.2.1 Objectives of the Plan

As this was a military government's development plan the Second National Development Plan was conceived in a characteristic military fashion. The objectives were crisp but grandiose. The plan was aimed at establishing in Nigeria:
a. a united, strong and self-reliant nation;
b. a great and dynamic economy;
c. a just and egalitarian society;
d. a land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens; and
e. a free and democratic society.

3.2.2.2 Priorities

Since the second plan was a programme of reconstruction and development, the main priorities were agriculture, transport, industry and education. These sectors suffered either directly or indirectly from the effects of the civil war. During the period of the crisis, all resources of the country were directed towards war efforts.

Agriculture has been described as the driving force for economic growth. It needed to be reactivated in order to strengthen the war damaged economy of the nation. Emphasis was on extension activities for the dissemination of research results to farmers.

Transport was another sector of high priority (see Table 5, p.24). The development process depends on a good network of transportation, and so a conscious effort was made to link transportation systems with economic growth.

Under the second national plan there was expansion in all levels of the education sector. Primary enrolment rose from 3.5 million in 1970/71 to 4.5 million in 1973/74, while secondary enrolment rose from 343,300 to 649,900 during the same year. But the highlights of the plan were the establishment of 20 new federal secondary schools, 4 new colleges of technology, and 9 trade centres by the state governments.
The federal government also established 3 new Colleges of arts and science. In the field of higher education, all the country's universities formerly under the control of state governments were taken over by the federal government and have since become federal universities. Total university enrolment rose from 14,500 in 1970/71 to 25,000 in 1973/74.

Increase in the number of educational institutions meant more College and University libraries, although these libraries are usually not planned as integral parts of the institutions. In many of them the librarian is not appointed until after one year or more. As a consequence most of the academic libraries, especially college and polytechnic libraries, grow very slowly.

3.2.2.3 Information Policy

The second plan was an improvement over the previous plans from the point of view of information. For the first time, libraries were mentioned under information. One of the stated policy objectives under information was:

Development and maintenance of library services. It is planned to implement projects involving the expansion and establishment of public libraries to assist the spread of knowledge and information among the people in the various communities. To this end the Federal Government plans to expand the facilities and services of the National Library. Some state governments intend to expand or establish public libraries in their areas. (16)

The fact that library services were mentioned under information, which was regarded as a social service sector and accorded only the
second order of priorities, meant that library services would receive very mean allocation. The whole information sector received only 1.1 percent of the total plan budget compared to 28 percent or 13 percent for transport and communication and primary production respectively. Library services received only £0.500 million, and this amount was for the National Library building and the expansion of its services, while the plan merely stated 'some state governments intend to expand or establish public libraries in their areas'.

The second plan generally accorded very low priority to social services as Table 5 shows. Because of the low priority accorded the information sector in the plan, Banjo argues that "libraries would fare better if it was realised that their services cover both the economic and social services and so cannot be regarded as an arm of the information services". (17)

The plan did not show any serious commitment on the part of the state governments which merely intended to 'expand or establish library services in their areas'. This is not planning.
TABLE 3.5

PLANNED EXPENDITURE 1970-74 DEVELOPMENT PLAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Federal (N million)</th>
<th>All States (N million)</th>
<th>Total all Govts. (N million)</th>
<th>% Distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>90.650</td>
<td></td>
<td>90.650</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary production</td>
<td>68.046</td>
<td>197.288</td>
<td>265.334</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resettlement &amp; Rehabilitation</td>
<td>20.000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20.000</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade &amp; Industry</td>
<td>108.746</td>
<td>106.344</td>
<td>215.090</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport &amp; Comm.</td>
<td>419.548</td>
<td>150.932</td>
<td>570.480</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>98.244</td>
<td>179.542</td>
<td>277.786</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>20.260</td>
<td>87.362</td>
<td>107.622</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>9.564</td>
<td>12.298</td>
<td>21.862</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour &amp; Social Welfare</td>
<td>6.008</td>
<td>17.940</td>
<td>23.948</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country &amp; Town Planning</td>
<td>10.574</td>
<td>27.576</td>
<td>38.150</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water and Sewage</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>103.392</td>
<td>103.392</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defence &amp; Security</td>
<td>192.720</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>192.720</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Admin.</td>
<td>46.864</td>
<td>57.876</td>
<td>104.740</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Obligations</td>
<td>18.964</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>18.964</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


---

TABLE 3.6

FEDERAL EXPENDITURE IN THE INFORMATION SECTOR 1970-74

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>£ million</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical improvement on Radio Nigeria</td>
<td>2.860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News Agency of Nigeria : States Centres</td>
<td>0.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Library of Nigeria : Expansion of</td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Division</td>
<td>0.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing Division</td>
<td>0.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigerian National Press, building -</td>
<td>0.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Theatre, Cultural activities</td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simultaneous interpretation equipment</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL:</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.782</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.3. **Third National Development Plan 1975-80**

Nigeria's Third National Development Plan was to be the military regime's last development plan. Initially, it was thought to be too ambitious and grandiose. The new military regime that ousted the one that launched the plan had to suspend or moderate some of the projects included in the plan.

The plan provided for capital expenditures of N 30 billion. Although agriculture, manufacturing industries and education remained high on the scale of national priorities, there was a dramatic shift of emphasis from growth in per capita income to the achievement of "rapid increase in the standard of living of the average Nigerians". (18) The plan envisaged a possible provision of adequate welfare for the people - good water supply, rural electrification and community development. At the end of the plan period, "every Nigerian should experience a definite improvement in his overall welfare". (19)

A dramatic change in attitudes to 'development' was quite evident in the plan

> development is not just a matter of growth in per capita income. It is possible to record a high growth rate in per capita income while the masses of the people continue to be in abject poverty and lacking in basic necessities of life. (20)

The plan was divided into four major sectors, namely:

- a. Economic Sector
- b. Social Overhead Sector
- c. Regional Development Sector
- d. Administration Sector
The Economic Sector comprised all the productive activities including agriculture, trade and industry, transport and communications etc. The Social Overhead Sector comprised the 'non-productive' social services and utilities such as health, education, information etc. Regional development was concerned with the reduction of regional and social inequalities, by promoting development outside the existing major centres of activity, i.e. concentration of economic activities in certain districts. The administration sector comprised general administration and the Judiciary.

3.2.3.1 Objectives and priorities

Plan objectives were as follows:

a. Increase in per capita income
b. More even distribution of income
c. Reduction in the level of unemployment
d. Increase in the level of high level manpower
e. Balanced development
f. Diversification of the economy
g. Indigenisation of economic activities.

To achieve these declared objectives, high priority was accorded to agriculture, industry, transport and communications, education and health. Highlights of the 1975-80 Plan were the launching of 'Operation Feed the Nation' (1976), an agricultural programme which had replaced the previous National Accelerated Food Production Programme (1973) which in turn is now replaced by the 'Green Revolution' (1980), the introduction of the New National Policy on Education described as the boldest and most imaginative educational revolution in Nigeria. For the first time in the history of Nigerian education, the philosophy and objectives of Nigerian education have been defined,
and policies that underlie its current massive investment in education spelt out in clear unequivocal terms. Finally, the introduction of Universal Free Primary Education (1976).

It is significant to note that for the first time, school library services have been mentioned in the plan. Section 3, paragraph 15 (2)(i) of the New National Policy on Education, states that

Government will provide junior libraries for primary school children, libraries are already being incorporated into new primary schools being put up as part of the plan for the Universal Free Primary Education Scheme.

Stating government intention is one thing, having the political will to carry out or implement those intentions is quite another, and for a service that ranks so low on the scale of national priorities, this political will is always lacking. Accordingly, the provision of school libraries, contrary to government's declared policy, still remains a blueprint.

3.2.3.2 Information policies and objectives

The Third Development Plan was geared towards making information services more efficient in the task of promoting the nation's basic ideals of unity and the projection of the nation's image abroad. Like in the previous plans, improvements in sound technical equipment, modern production techniques and the training of manpower were given priority in this sector. Library services were also incorporated in the Third Plan. "The major policy here is to expand and improve library services throughout the country". (21) Both the Federal and State governments had plans for library services. The Federal government's main objectives in library development were (a) to encourage
the National Library of Nigeria to play its depository and reference roles, to construct the headquarters of the National Library in Lagos, and to establish branches in four states for a start. The State governments on the other hand planned to extend library services to remote areas of the country, while also consolidating their existing libraries. The plan also stated that those states that had not already established library boards would be encouraged to do so.

For the entire information sector, a total capital expenditure of N380.225 million was allocated. The Federal government contribution amounted to N234.341 million, while the state governments together contributed N145.884 million (see Table 7).

Out of the federal allocation of N234.341 million for information only N15.8 million was allocated to the National Library Board. The most important project of the National Library during the Third Plan period was the headquarters library building. A sum of N9.3 million was earmarked for this project. Unfortunately the building project was halted at the stage of going to tender, as a result of the decision of the Federal government to move the country's Capital to Abuja. The other projects in the plan were however implemented, namely, the establishment of three branches in three states of the Federation, and the building of 16 housing units for staff in the Lagos area.

States' plans for library services under the Third plan were better articulated than they were in previous plans. Most of the states spelt out clearly how they intended to implement their library development programmes. But the problem with most state governments is inadequate funding for library services. E.g. one state library board made an estimate of N1.5 million for its various library
development programmes, but government approved only N600,000. As a result of this, most state libraries have been unable to implement their planned library programmes, though quite a few have managed to implement substantial programmes of library development. Anambra State, for example, implemented three major projects during the plan period including the construction of a divisional library and the reactivation of Enugu and Onitsha Divisional libraries. Kaduna State Library Board reported the completion of ten branch libraries in various parts of the state.

The picture emerging from the Third Development Plan is that there is a growing awareness of the role of libraries in the development of the nation. The difficulty facing Nigerian economic planners is that of choice, when library services have to compete for scarce resources with the 'productive sectors' of the economy. This point was made crystal clear in the first development plan 1962-68:

> The alternatives with which the governments have been faced have not been whether or not to build roads rather than factories, or whether to have education and health rather than agriculture or electrical power production and so forth. The choice before governments has been to decide 'when' and 'how much' (emphasis mine) of each commodity or service is to be produced in the light of alternative strength of the desire for particular goods, and the relative cost. (22)

Since economic planning is generally regarded by economists as their sole area of jurisdiction, and so long as it involves 'rational allocation of resources' in competitive economy, so long will library services be relegated to the second or third order of priorities. It is up to librarians and library planners to prove to economic
planners that library services 'cover both the economic and social services' as suggested by Banjo on page 29. This can be done by relating library services to government philosophy of development planning.
### TABLE 3.7

**THIRD NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 1975-80**

Total estimated expenditure on Information = \textbf{N 380.225 million}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Total Exp.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Federal Government</strong></td>
<td>234.346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. State Governments</strong></td>
<td>145.884</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Federal Government:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Budget</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>National Library of Nigeria</strong></td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of NL headquarters</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; 4 states branches</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; residential quarters</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Benue Plateau Govt. Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Budget</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Radio/television, expansion</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libraries, headquarters to be expanded</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 libraries in district headquarters</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 mobile library vans to be purchased</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books and other publications to schools and rural communities</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State printing press to be developed</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing &amp; Publishing Corporation</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Centre, Jos.</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. East-Central State, Information Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Budget</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Library Board allocation</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This figure represents the provision of 3 branch libraries, 2 pilot branch libraries, and the development of 20 rural libraries. Provision of new administration block for headquarters at Enugu and the purchase of 11 mobile library vans.
4. Kano State, Information Services
   i) Completion of television station 6.5
   ii) Library Services 3.0

5. Kwara State, Information Services
   a) Radio & television to be established 7.8
   b) Library services to be improved 3.85
      - completion of headquarters library
      - Lending library (children & adult)
      - Reference Section
      - Schools Section
      - Circulation Centre
      - Administrative block
   c) Branch libraries in 11 administrative divisions 1.6

6. Lagos State, Information Programme 5.3
   7 divisional libraries to be established 0.5

7. Mid-West Information Services 5.9
   Radio/Television 2.0
   New headquarters library 1.0
   Branch libraries in 14 divisional headquarters, and the expansion of Ethiope Publishing Corporation 0.5

8. North-Central State, Information Programme 6.193
   Improvement of library services 1.05
   Expansion of Kaduna Central Library and 6 Branch libraries

   Expansion of headquarters libraries and 13 Provincial & Divisional libraries to be built 2.64
10. North-West State, Information Programme
  Central library building and
  Branch libraries at Minna and Gusau

  16.7
  0.5

11. Rivers State, Information Programme
  Improvement of library services

  12.31
  1.5

12. South-East States, Information Programme
  Library Services programme
  - completion of central library at
    Calabar, 21 branch libraries,
    purchase of 1 river craft for use
    in the riverine areas of the states.

  15.11
  1.3

13. Western State, Information Programme
  Expansion of the Central Library
  Ibadan, 4 branch libraries

  17.112
  0.15

  Sketch Newspapers

  1.4


Note: At the end of the plan period
1979-80 State governments spent only
  N48.200 m.
  Federal government spent
  N55.187 m
  Total expenditure on information
  N103.387 m
  Unspent vote on information
  N276.838
TABLE 3.8
CAPITAL PROGRAMMES OF FEDERAL AND STATE GOVERNMENTS BY ACTIVITIES - INFORMATION

N million

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL OR GOVT.</th>
<th>Information Services</th>
<th>Printing Services</th>
<th>Library Services</th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Radio &amp; Television</th>
<th>Newspaper Publications</th>
<th>GRAND TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Federal</td>
<td>22.251</td>
<td>4.900</td>
<td>15.800</td>
<td>14.72</td>
<td>17.038</td>
<td>0.920</td>
<td>234.341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Benue Plateau</td>
<td>0.175</td>
<td>1.640</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>2.500</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td>9.415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. East-Central</td>
<td>1.338</td>
<td>0.739</td>
<td>3.060</td>
<td>9.700</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>19.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Kano</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Kwara</td>
<td>1.350</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>3.850</td>
<td>2.500</td>
<td>7.800</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Lagos</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>3.700</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Mid-West</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>0.605</td>
<td>2.100</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>5.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. North-Central</td>
<td>0.993</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>2.250</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6.193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. North-East</td>
<td>1.270</td>
<td>0.727</td>
<td>3.640</td>
<td>5.100</td>
<td>5.400</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>16.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. North-West</td>
<td>0.390</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>0.640</td>
<td>1.340</td>
<td>12.000</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>16.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Rivers</td>
<td>1.510</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>2.500</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>12.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. South-East</td>
<td>1.720</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td>1.300</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>6.500</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td>15.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Western</td>
<td>2.649</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>0.596</td>
<td>3.200</td>
<td>9.117</td>
<td>1.400</td>
<td>17.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35.341</td>
<td>11.951</td>
<td>35.536</td>
<td>50.562</td>
<td>238.615</td>
<td>8.220</td>
<td>380.225</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Third National Development Plan 1975-80 p.281
3.2.4. Fourth National Development Plan 1981-85

Nigeria's Fourth National Development Plan was launched in January 1981. It was the first civilian government's economic plan after thirteen years of military rule. The plan provides for an investment of N82 billion (about £70 billion) in the five years to 1985.

Guidelines for the Fourth Plan, reflecting the experience of the preceding plans, broadly emphasise:

a. self-reliance as a strategy for meaningful development;
b. the increased role of local governments;
c. priority given to agricultural and agro-allied industries;
d. emphasis on maintenance of existing facilities;
e. the use of functional designs as against grandiose structures;
f. the importance of relevant training for all categories of manpower;
g. need for necessary studies before projects are admitted into the plan; and
h. the use of both economic and social indicators to evaluate development.

3.2.4.1 Objectives and Overall strategy of the Plan

The objectives of the Third Plan remain valid for the Fourth Development Plan, but in addition the following objectives have been spelt out:

i. Greater self-reliance, i.e. increased dependence on our own resources in seeking to achieve the various objectives of society. This includes increased efforts to achieve optimum utilization of our human and material resources;

ii. Development of technology;

iii. Reduction in rural-urban immigration;
iv. Increased productivity and reduction in the level of under-employment;

v. The promotion of a new national orientation conducive to greater discipline, better attitude to work and cleaner environment.

The fourth plan has as its main thrust of development strategy, increased self-reliance and a considerable reduction of the country's dependence on the external factor in general and on petroleum in particular. Consequently the plan puts high premium on the development of the human resource rather than things. The goal is to produce people with a determination to succeed in life through productive labour and scientific enterprise. The plan states:

Of all the new values to be created among developing countries, in their bid to develop, self-reliance is the single most important. We have depended too long on external resources, and there is no doubt that Africans, or Third World in general cannot develop until we are absolutely resolved to be self-reliant..... (23)

Self-reliance is dependent upon productive labour which in turn is the result of technological know-how. The latter is a function of the information content of the worker's mind.

In rationalising the role of libraries in the attainment of self-reliance, the National Library of Nigeria has stated:

Availability of information is the genesis of these chains of reactions. The agent for information transfer in all developed as well as developing communities is the library whose role it is to identify relevant information packages, acquire them, organise and store them in a way conducive to easy retrieval as and when needed.... the library is a means of continuing education oriented towards self-reliance.... (24)
But how did the planners of the Fourth Plan conceive the role of libraries in the development process particularly as it concerns the development of self-reliance? To assess this role, we must look at the information policies and programmes of the plan.

3.2.4.2 Information Policies and Programmes 1981-85

Government performance in this sector covers a wide range of activities. In pursuance of its declared policy of disseminating printed information through the establishment and maintenance of organs "for the dissemination of news, and information of government activities", the Federal government took over the Daily Times, formerly an independent daily newspaper, and the New Nigerian generally regarded as the voice of the Northern establishment. The improvement and expansion of the Nigerian Broadcasting Corporation (NBC) and the Nigerian Television as well as the establishment of the News Agency of Nigeria, were all part of the improvement in information activities. Of course, the improvement and expansion of library services throughout the country is part of the information programmes clearly articulated in the fourth plan:

Adequate emphasis will be given to the role of libraries in public enlightenment, for they constitute an important complement to the mass media by providing a repository for the product of the mass media thereby providing the nation with a memory. (26)

Successive plans have shown that the public enlightenment services of radio and television have failed to be harnessed for mass education in the areas of environmental sanitation, crime prevention, and mass participation in the overall socio-economic
development of the country. Perhaps the time has come for planners to give the library the responsibility of promoting mass education in the areas of agricultural development, environmental sanitation and mass participation in the development of the country. Libraries are capable of performing this role if they are sufficiently funded. They complement formal educational institutions in the continuous process of enlightening the mind and enriching the lives of the people.

The National Library of Nigeria has summarised the objectives of library service in a developing nation as follows:

(i) The evolution of a citizenry free from the thraldom of ignorance and upon which to lay the foundation of a productive society and a great dynamic economy.

(ii) The evolution of a strong, united and self-reliant nation, since it is an indisputable fact of human experience that the full and free use of the accumulated thoughts of the mind facilitates and nurtures the genius of a nation.

(iii) The evolution of a social milieu that helps to equalise educational opportunities and ipso facto produce good citizenry that can effectively and intelligently participate in the affairs and contributes to the development of the society. The library is to modern education and learning what the heart is to the body.

It is within this broad perspective of the role of library service that the library "planner in a developing country must argue the case for resources in an economy which would usually face crushing problems of priority..." Since the neglect of library development in a country may be due to ignorance on the part of planners in
other disciplines such as education or economics, Wilson has pointed out as Penna did before, that it is essential for the library development plan to be clearly related to the specific goals of economic, educational and cultural development so that it may be given its due place in national development plans.

In the fourth development plan library development programmes have been incorporated in the national plan. However the provision of library services has not been related to any specific national goals like education, agriculture, health, technology, industry and so forth, other than public enlightenment.

Consequently library budget in the fourth plan, though substantially improved over the third plan budget, still amounts to a very insignificant proportion of the total economic plan budget of N82 billion compared to agriculture with an allocation of N10.7 billion or industry with N6.4 billion or transport and communication with N473.7m.

Summary

The fourth development plan is the first bold attempt to emphasise the development of 'people' rather than the development of 'things'. Although it accords high priority to agriculture, industry, transport and communications, education and so forth, the development of the human resource to ensure self-reliance, is recognised as a crucial factor in development. The development of the human resource in turn places special demands on library services, and it has been pointed out that if library planners can relate library services to
the specific economic, educational and cultural sectors, they will have a chance of getting the resources required for library development. Most states have shown a growing recognition of the role of library services, but their understanding of this role seems to be limited to that of public enlightenment, and as a result library budgets are often very small indeed.

Generally there has been a growing awareness of the role of library services in the development process. The Third National Development Plan 1975-80 summarised government policy for information by stating succinctly "library services are beginning to be recognised as sources of motive power for economic and social change". It is in the light of this recognition that one looks ahead with confidence for the integration of library plans in economic plans.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>svel &amp; Proposed Project</th>
<th>1981-85 ANNUAL ESTIMATES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Federal Government</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Educational programmes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Adult and non-formal education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. National mass literacy campaign Stage I. 1982: 6.8m. literates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>State Governments</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Ananmbra State</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. New libraries and reading rooms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Schools library dev.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Bauchi State</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. A new H.Q. library to be built</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Local Govt. Adult edn. Libraries etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.500</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Bendel State</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library services total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of library building in the headquarters and in all the 19 local govts. school libraries to be devd.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archives development</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level &amp; Proposed Project</td>
<td>1981-85 ANNUAL ESTIMATES</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Benue State</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adult education, 4 centres to be establ.</td>
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<td>5. Borno State</td>
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<tr>
<td>State library services</td>
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<td>3. Cross River State</td>
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<td>7. Gongola State</td>
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<td>Construction of the State Library headquarters</td>
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<td>Establishment of Divisional libraries</td>
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<td>8. Imo State</td>
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<td>Library development</td>
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<td>Provision of library service in all post-primary institutions</td>
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<td>3. Kaduna State</td>
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<td>a. Expansion of library services</td>
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<tr>
<td>b. 53 Reading rooms in 4 local govt. areas</td>
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<td>5. Kano State</td>
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<tr>
<td>a. Expansion of main liby.</td>
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<tr>
<td>b. Provision of 30 divisional libraries</td>
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<tr>
<td>c. 6 mobile libraries</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. Equipment</td>
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<td>Adult Education</td>
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<td>Adult education classes, library and equipment.</td>
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<td><strong>11. Kwara State</strong></td>
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<td>a. Construction of state library</td>
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<td>Local Governments</td>
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<td>Building of libraries and equipment in school libraries in 8 local Governments.</td>
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<td>a. 4 new libraries to be established</td>
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<td>b. Local Governments</td>
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<td>New libraries in 18 local govt. areas</td>
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<td><strong>13. Niger State</strong></td>
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<td>b. 3 branch libraries</td>
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<td>Construction of libraries</td>
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<td><strong>14. Ogun State</strong></td>
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<td>Libraries and Archives</td>
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<td>Local Govt.</td>
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<td>6 public libraries to be built</td>
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<td><strong>15. Ondo State</strong></td>
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<td>a. Schools Library Services</td>
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<td>375 secondary school libraries to be built in various schools</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Public Libraries</strong></td>
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<td>i. Central library at Akure, equipment and books</td>
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<td>ii. Purchase of 2 mobile library vehicles &amp; books</td>
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<td>ii. Branch libraries</td>
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<tr>
<td>Purchase of books</td>
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<td>iv. Local Governments</td>
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<td>a. Public libraries and reading rooms</td>
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<td>b. School libraries</td>
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<td>a. Archives Services and Record management</td>
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<td><strong>Local Government</strong></td>
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<td>b. School libraries in all local government areas</td>
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## Local & Proposed Project

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<th>1981-85 Annual Estimates</th>
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<td>Sohoto State</td>
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<td>Construction of</td>
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<td>state headquarters</td>
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<td>library (on-going</td>
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<td>project)</td>
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**Source:** Fourth National Development Plan 1981-85
Vol.II (Draft copy)
NOTES


8. Quoted from Ekpe op.cit. p.11.


12. Ibid. p.59.


16. Ibid. p.236.


19. Ibid.

20. Ibid.

21. Ibid.


26. Ibid. p. 94.


CHAPTER 4

THE ROLE OF LIBRARIES IN SOCIAL
AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Analysis of development planning in Nigeria for the past two
and a half decades indicates that library and information services
have a low rating in the country's scale of priorities. They are
part of the social services whose planning comes only after planning
in industrial sectors has taken place. Their low rating has been shown
by the relative emphasis placed on them, vis-a-vis other sectors of
the economy like agriculture, education industrialisation and so forth,
and by the inadequate financial allocations to the sector. For
example, while 13.5 percent of the total expenditure for the second
national development plan in Nigeria was allocated to the education
sector, only 1.1 percent was earmarked for information, to which
area the library belongs.

The third and fourth national plans of Nigeria have shown
apparent remarkable recognition of the status and role of library
services in national development. The third development plan 1975-80
states that "library services are beginning to be recognised as sources
of motive power for economic and social change". Library funds were
also slightly increased during the third and fourth development plans
as was seen in Chapter 3. However, policies aimed at improving and
expanding library services have not been clearly articulated. Library
development is still lop-sided. There is no national mechanism for
planning the services, and individual states with scarce resources are
left to plan their own services. The federal government is concerned
with the development of the National Library through the National Library Board. Consequently gaps exist both qualitatively and quantitatively.

4.1. Library services in relation to economic planning

The purpose of economic planning is the improvement in the quality of life of the people. What determines the quality of life, according to Parker,\(^1\) are energy, matter and information. While matter and energy supply is finite, that of information is inexhaustible. It is information which determines the pattern and organisation of matter and energy. Therefore investment in information is a sure way of improving the quality of life.

The planning and execution of development programmes requires both theoretical and practical knowledge, and for a mass of data which can be used for forecasts covering varying lengths of time. Information can thus exercise a great deal of influence on development planning and programming. But this influence can be effective only if used in "a combinative system in which no discipline stands above the others".\(^2\) A balance must be struck between the industrial and social sectors as well as between sciences and the humanities.

The UNESCO regional seminar on the development of public libraries in Africa held at Enugu, Nigeria in 1963, recognised that information was the basic requirement for economic and social development. The basic sources of information are books, pamphlets, periodicals, films etc., and these are indispensable tools in the dissemination of economic, social and cultural information about good health practices, improved agricultural methods, or vocational techniques.
Libraries are one of the channels making these materials accessible to all people.

4.1.1 The role of public libraries

Public libraries are institutions which spread ideas and stimulate social development. Their role in economic and social development is uniquely significant for a number of reasons: first, they are free for all and can make available a variety of information and educational materials that can be obtained in no other way. In developing countries where the book industry is underdeveloped, average incomes low, and where the general reader cannot easily buy books, the role of the public library cannot be over-stressed. Secondly, the public library serves the needs of all including the person who is learning first or second languages, a farmer who wants to improve his crops, the community leader working to improve community social services etc. New skills must be learned to handle machines which have replaced the labourer. Libraries promote vocational aptitudes by providing opportunities for people to find information on new equipment and machines. Professional people can learn about new developments in other countries. Thirdly, libraries provide information which can help prevent waste of time, effort and money which occur in the trial and error methods without reference to the accumulated experience of the past. Fourthly, the public library has a special role for the adult population in developing countries. The adult population has had little educational opportunities. Yet the challenge of political independence brings pressure to bear upon them to make their new governments work. They must therefore understand and control the
technical and social changes taking place in their communities. With insufficient formal educational opportunities to make the adult population productive public libraries have a major role to play in filling this gap.

The role of the public library in economic development can be better summed up with the following beautiful quotation from the Enugu regional seminar already referred to:

In the newly developing African nations, no library has such an important contribution as the public library. No other library takes books to the people through a network of service points. It reaches the largest and smallest community and it makes contacts with the individual reader. No other person is so skilled as the public librarian in assessing the reading needs of these people. (3)

Finally, public libraries have a crucial role to play in literacy campaigns. If they are well integrated in adult education or literacy programmes, they provide useful and indispensable service by making available follow-up literature to enable graduates to retain that capacity they have acquired. In the provision of public library services, consideration should be given to the improvement in the citizen's access to public information about government activities and decision-making at all levels - federal, state and local. Government published information (other than classified information) in whatever form, should be made available in public libraries for the benefit of all citizens. A lot of information is produced by governments in developing countries - national plans, annual budgets, reports of commissions, development programmes etc. Citizens need to have access to all these sources of information if they are to contribute to the development of their nation.
Nigeria’s fourth development plan puts high premium on the development of the human resource, as it is recognised that the development of this resource will ultimately lead to self-reliance and sustained development achieved. The achievement of this goal will depend on the government ensuring the equality of educational opportunities including free and easy access to self-study materials. Demand for life-long learning will increase. In planning all these activities, plans for increasing library resources to support them should be included.

4.1.2 The role of National Libraries

There are different types of national libraries, and their functions vary from country to country depending upon the individual social and economic circumstances of each country. National libraries can be divided into five categories, namely:

a. Cultural National Libraries;
b. Dual Purpose National Libraries;
c. National Subject Libraries;
d. Reference and Lending Libraries;

The Cultural National Libraries are national libraries of a country as a whole as well as those libraries which serve a cultural community within a country or the national library of a federal state like Nigeria, the National library of Scotland, or the National Library of Wales. Among the dual purpose libraries are National Academic Libraries such as the Library of Ibadan University College, Nigeria, prior to the establishment of the National Library of Nigeria;
the Helsinki University Library; National Public libraries e.g.
the National Library of Nigeria; and National Parliamentary Libraries,
e.g. the U.S. library of Congress, the National Diet Library in
Tokyo etc. The remaining three categories - National Subject libraries,
Reference and Lending libraries and National libraries for handicapped
readers, are self-explanatory.

The traditional function of any national library is to collect
all the nation's publications as well as foreign literature. It is
now recognised that the national library of any country is the focal
point for a National Information System (NATIS) whereby information
network is developed in accordance with the requirements of Unesco.

The fundamental roles of a National Library can be summarised as
follows:

a. possessing the most outstanding and central collection
   of the nation's literature;

b. acquiring all the current published materials by means
   of legal deposit;

c. the coverage of foreign literature;

d. the publication of the National bibliography;

e. being the National bibliographical information centre,
   which entails the function of publication of union
catalogues.

4.1.2.1 The National Library of Nigeria

The National Library of Nigeria belongs to the two categories
of Cultural National Libraries and Dual Purpose National libraries
discussed above. It was established in 1964 but its growth dates
back to 1945 when a proposal for a 'Nigerian National Library' was made
by the Standing Committee to 'Advise Government on Provision of Libraries'.
This proposal itself was a by-product of a gift from the Carnegie Corporation for library purposes in 1939. In 1940 the Lagos Secretariat informed the Colonial Office in London that fund had been received from the Carnegie Corporation but it had little practical value since Africans' reading interests were too closely limited to self personal advancement to justify expenditures on reading materials of broader scope.

The Colonial Office reply was a characteristic passive comment that although the Carnegie fund had been granted, local staff would not be asked to participate in a scheme with which the Colonial Government was not in general agreement. (4)

The intervention of the Second World War notwithstanding, the Standing Committee with professional advice from the British Council, produced a "Three-point Library Scheme for Nigeria:

1. Establishment of Regional Central Libraries to act as book lending centres for Native Administration Libraries until the latter were able to stock their own libraries.

2. Establishment of local libraries to be the major objectives of regional governments.

3. Formation of National Central Library to make into one central library - the present British Council Library in Lagos, the Lagos Library and the Henry Carr Collections'.

In 1948 the concept of a National Library as proposed by the Standing Committee on library development was approved in principle by the Chief Secretary to the Government. However, in 1952 the Council of Ministers decided against acceptance of library development as a responsibility of the Central government. Library development was left to regional and local initiative.
The Unesco Seminar of 1953 at Ibadan, proved to be a turning point in library development in Nigeria. It called attention to worldwide trend towards creating library services of national and international scope. This was followed in 1959 by the West African Library Association's (WALA) recommendation that a National Library for Nigeria be established. It persuaded the Federal Government to create in 1959 a National Library Advisory Committee.

With political independence in 1960, some Nigerian leaders, not least, the Prime Minister, began to speak strongly in favour of a National Library. The Ford Foundation agreed to join the Federal Government in getting to the bottom of the problem of a national library. It arranged for Dr. Frank Rogers, Director of the National Library of Medicine, Washington, to come to Nigeria "to consider the problem of a National Library for Nigeria". Dr. Rogers arrived in Nigeria in 1960 for a feasibility study and after three months produced a report recommending the establishment of a National Library, which would, as a first responsibility, provide adequate library services for the various departments of the Federal Government, and as a second responsibility, take on wider role of a national bibliographical centre. He recommended against Federal operation of public library services along the French or in the manner of the Ghana Library Board.

Dr. Rogers assumed duties as Library Adviser to the Federal Government in March 1962 only to hear the disgusting news that £670 million was approved to be spent in the next six years, i.e. the First National Development Plan - but nothing was voted for starting the library. Dr. Rogers undertook to work, and he recommended among other things, enactment of legislation both for the purpose of defining the
functions of the National Library and providing a suitable framework for effective administration. A draft of the legislation was included.

The Ministry of Information, the controlling body, fought hard to procure an operating budget of £16,000 and asked the Ford Foundation for the aid which the Library Adviser had recommended. A temporary accommodation was procured on 4 Wesley Street, Victoria Island, Lagos. Between 1962 and 1964 the idea of a National Library for Nigeria had become a reality. The remnants of the Old Secretariat Library consisting of about 7,600 volumes had been taken over to start the new National Library. The library budget for 1963/64 was £90,000 and was to be spent for books and periodicals, binding staff and other necessary services.

In 1962 the Ford Foundation sent Dr. Carl M. White to replace Dr. Rogers as Library Adviser to the Federal Government. White deplored the omission of National Library from the Six-Year Development Plan, an event which he regarded as "a conspicuous example of lack of agreement that libraries count much in national planning". He recommended that:

1. A National Library be described as a centre of service and professional leadership placed high enough in the nation's power structure to become a useful aid in:
   a. deciding fundamental questions of social policy;
   b. strengthening the modern library movement; and
   c. promoting international cultural cooperation especially through the exchange of publications.

2. Every effort be exerted to recruit the Nigerian staff approved by the Council (Director, Deputy Director, 4 librarians and 7 library
officers) as soon as possible - these permanent members of staff urgently need to be on hand to benefit from working with the experienced librarians who have been provided by the Ford Foundation to aid them in getting ready to take over the library.

3. That if the Public Service Commission can give assurance that these librarians will be recruited in April the National Library be opened for the use of readers beginning 1st May 1964."

Unlike his predecessor, Dr. Rogers, Carl White was in favour of planning library services at the national level. In fact he argued that "The National Library and the Federal Government should have more than an accidental relation to national library development". He rejected the argument that national library development is impossible under the Federal Constitution, stating that "the lives of all Nigerians are interwoven to some extent already; and the common aims to which federation commits them will make it increasingly difficult ..... to build certain national programmes out of unrelated pieces neatly packaged by independent territorial effort".(p.12).

4.1.2.1.1 The functions of the National Library of Nigeria

The general functions of the National Library of Nigeria are similar to those of national libraries of other nations. However, there are specific functions which the National Library of Nigeria is expected to perform which are peculiar to it alone. Section 2 of Decree (No.29) of 1970, which superseded the National Library Act (No.6) of 1964, empowers the National Library of Nigeria to carry out the following functions, among others: (2)(b) to establish and maintain a branch of the National Library in each state of the federation; (e) to make
recommendations and give advice on library development or organisation to any department or state or to any local government authority; (f) to be responsible for the development of the National Bibliography of Nigeria and National bibliographical services either in a national bibliographical centre or elsewhere.

The function of establishing and maintaining a branch of the National Library in each state of the federation has a wider implication of stimulating library development efforts or creating library consciousness in the country and among Nigerian people. On the whole the three functions enumerated above place enormous responsibilities and obligations on the National Library, and call for equally enormous resources - human, financial and material resources.

4.1.2.1.2 The performance of the National Library of Nigeria

In a document outlining its fourth development programmes 1981-85, the National Library Board has stated categorically that:

The National Library is in a most fortunate position because it is certainly one of the institutions where government policy has been so elaborately and clearly stated. There is no equivocation about the intention of the federal government as regards the objectives which the National Library Board is expected to attain,.....

(6)

The federal government on its own part has indicated in both the third and fourth plans that it intends to improve and expand library services throughout the country through the National Library Board. It is against these backgrounds that the performance of the National Library of Nigeria will be judged.

The National Library Act of 1964 limited the scope of the National Library to the Federal Capital Territory of Lagos alone.
Then the library was regarded as a reference library for the parliament. As a result its influence was not felt in other parts of the country. The board was composed of heads of interested federal ministries who were civil servants. Governed largely by civil service bureaucracy, the National Library Board could not function effectively. E.g. the slow-grinding machinery of the civil service made it impossible for the National Library plan to be included in the Second National Development Plan 1970-74. However, the enabling Decree No.29 of 1970 has extended the scope and functions of the National Library as well as the board's membership, which is made up of representatives from all the 19 states of the federation including various professional associations and other interests.

In the 1975-80 development plan period, the headquarters library in Lagos, conceived since 1967 (9,000 sq.m. of floor area) was fully supported by the federal government. However, following the decision of the federal government to move the country's capital to Abuja, the project was halted. A new headquarters library is being planned for Abuja, the new federal capital. It is however, curious that while the library project was halted, others went ahead to their successful completion. E.g. the Federal Secretariat and the National Assembly village, the latter having been planned much later after the decision to move to Abuja. The National Library is still housed in two separate temporary accommodation in Lagos. Its most acute problem is lack of space. Without a good headquarters library from which to carry out its operational activities it is inconceivable that the National Library can function satisfactorily.

The suspension of the National Library building project in
Lagos confirms the fear that in any event of financial squeeze involving social programmes the library project is the first to be axed.

In the fulfilment of its function of creating library awareness and stimulating library development, the National Library Board has established six branches in six states of the federation. Thirteen other states have not had branches of the National Library more than ten years after the idea of state branches was conceived.

Exactly what criteria the National Library Board uses in setting up a branch library in a state is not known but one wonders what wisdom there is in setting up branches in states that have already had good library services. If the objective of establishing branches in the states is to stimulate library development and create library consciousness in the states, then one should suggest that efforts should be concentrated in those states like Benue, Borno, Bauchi, Oyo etc., where library services are least developed. Anambra and Kaduna states have better public library services dating back to the 1950s. Yet they are among the first six states to have a branch each of the National Library. What is more, even in those states where branches of the National Library have been established, services are provided in small temporary accommodation. In fact the branch in Jos, Plateau State, has been housed in a small temporary building since 1975.

The National Library function of stimulating library development is a particularly important one in a country like Nigeria where many people including policy planners, are ignorant about the role of public library services in economic and social development. The board should consider taking responsibility for advising state authorities
on the development and organisation of public and school library services. In particular it should encourage those states which have not yet established library boards to do so by legislation. Or why not the National Library Board advise the Federal government on taking over the provision of national public library services throughout the country?

The National Library has been active in advising government departments to set up departmental libraries but this service seems to be confined to Lagos for Federal departments and of course, the Lagos State government departments. It has also given assistance to ministries and parastatals in staff training and in recruiting professional manpower for their libraries.

4.1.2.1.3 The National Library Building

The National Library Decree No.29 of 1970 charges the Board to "establish a National Library of the highest standing". As already noted, since its inception in 1964, the National Library has not had its own permanent headquarters befitting a library of the highest standing. In view of this, the construction of the headquarter's library in the new federal capital at Abuja has been accorded the highest priority by the Board during the fourth development plan. The Board is determined to provide the headquarters library whose superstructure and its facilities "do not fall too much below those of National Libraries in other parts of the world".

The proposed National Library Building covers a total area of 23,000 m. consisting of (a) Legal Deposit Publications; (b) International Publications; (c) National Bibliography of Nigeria, (333 sq.m.
of office space); (d) Rare Books, (4,600 sq.m. of office space); (e) Technical Services, and (f) an International Conference Room with an area of 8,600 sq.ft. of office space.

The building project is expected to be completed by 1984 at a total cost of N36.0 million. Yet the federal government allocation to the National Library for its building programme, including state branches, amounts to only N11.0 m.

When this building is completed the National Library expects to reach its proposed annual rate of acquisition of 50,000 volumes of book stock within a few years. At the moment its total book stock is about 2,500,000 volumes with an annual rate of approximately 15,000 volumes. This falls far short of a National Library of the highest standing in the country.

Programmes of public library development (including national library) in Nigeria have been retarded mainly by inadequate funding. We have already seen the federal government allocation of N11.0 million for the expansion of the National Library when its headquarters building alone is estimated at about N36.0 million. Public and national libraries are institutions which provide free access to recorded information and ideas for the community and the individual. Information, it is said, is the source of wealth. It appears that a wealthy nation is an information-rich nation. There is certainly a relationship between the wealth of a nation, the amount of resources it invests in information and the volume of information it generates and consumes. The United States for example, as one of the wealthiest of the nations of the world, invests substantially in both the production and consumption of information.
The problem of library and information services particularly in developing countries is that their roles in national goals are never appreciated. The question that is often asked is what benefit does the public perceive from library services to justify its continued sanction of necessary taxes? Goddard(7) provides an 'economic decision-rule' to evaluate the relationship between social marginal benefits and private marginal benefits for the various functions of the public library. His analysis leads him to the conclusion that for any external benefits flowing from any economic activity, there is "an a priori economic case in favour of public support". Based on this analysis, Goddard has ruthlessly condemned any public support for free service for business and purely leisure-time uses of the public library, arguing that these uses do not lead to any externalities. On the other hand he supports the efficient allocation of resources to the public library in a 'social sense', that is, the public library should concentrate its resources on educational functions at all ages, and on service to the general government. The educational functions embrace school-age children, those engaged in education, and government staff, as well as the disadvantaged minority groups. The former use the library for educational purpose which is required for development while the latter, the disadvantaged group, use the library to improve their skills and to enable them to contribute to the economic and social wellbeing of the society.

4.1.3 The role of academic libraries

Academic and specialised libraries both have a vital role to play in development. Besides training high level manpower needed for
development, academic libraries provide resources for serious research in both the humanities and the sciences.

Nigerian University libraries have a very special role to play in development. First of all most of the research personnel required for development reside in universities. Most of the government-sponsored research is carried out in Nigerian Universities, particularly scientific and technological research for development. Secondly, public libraries are underdeveloped, the book industry is underdeveloped and individuals, industrialists and others working on research projects - basic or applied, are unable to have access to appropriate research materials. They then turn to the universities for assistance. This means that African universities should stop being the 'Ivory Towers' they have hitherto been and extend their services outside the university environment. University libraries should be prepared to give assistance for serious research from industrialists, managers, administrators etc. Unfortunately, Nigerian Universities face problems of obtaining suitable equipment and documentation for the undertaking of serious research. Most of the research materials, including both photocopies and microfilms and other forms of transfer of information are available from abroad. However, these take time to arrive, and often have to be paid for in currencies which governments are unwilling to release.

In times of economic crisis or recession universities are most hit. Import restrictions on books and periodicals have become a common feature in the economies of developing countries. This of course has adversely affected serious research in African Universities. The
Unesco Export Meeting on National Planning of Documentation and Library Services in Africa which took place in Kampala, Uganda 1970, observed that "with better organisation of library and documentation services the African scientist could contribute more actively to social and economic development".

The role of academic libraries in development will depend to a large degree on sound planning, which requires the formulation of appropriate objectives, followed by the development of programmes designed to achieve those objectives. This will be the subject of Chapter 5.

4.2.0 Library and information services in relation to scientific and technological development

The science and technology policy of a nation is usually part of the development policy. Scientific and technological activities are organically linked with the science policy of a nation, and science and technology policy defines the objectives and the means of achieving endogenous scientific development. Science and technology policy is also a determining factor in the choices that have to be made as regards scientific and technological documentation, libraries and related services of all types.

Information, not least scientific and technical information, is a vital resource for development. Lack of information that is relevant to national needs and objectives, or the inability of decision-makers to make effective use of it when available, presents problems of choice - choice of technology for development for developing countries. It is usually difficult for developing countries without
relevant information, to choose the best course of action in terms of national needs and interests. Development requires that all information systems and services be organised in such a way that they are able to offer alternative solutions for development problems - what to choose, and where to choose it. It is within this context that Unesco's General Information Programme is organised - to develop strategies that will foster the development of national information systems and services, operated by qualified indigenous personnel; systems and services capable of facilitating the flow of information and increasing national capabilities for innovative development.

A nation's capacity to manage and analyse its information resources guarantees its self-reliance, making it possible for its leaders to identify alternative courses of action in order to solve its problems.

To facilitate effective utilisation of information for development, all activities in the fields of scientific and technical information, libraries, documentation and archives were brought together as integrated programme by Unesco's General Information Programme at its twentieth session of 24 October - 28 November, 1978 General Conference. Information has been recognised as an international resource, but the inter-dependence of all countries with regard to information has also been recognised by the Unesco. This recognition has given rise to the establishment of information systems and services to serve the whole world. E.g. AGRIS, International Nuclear Information Systems, International Bibliographic Services, Universal Availability of Publications etc. Such systems are costly but they constitute a unique mechanism for the transfer of information which is of particular interest to developing countries.
Consideration is given to the information needs of different groups of users by the Unesco's General Information Programme e.g. the development of information systems specifically designed to serve decision-makers; the development of information management capabilities at the national level, including the education and training of personnel capable of acting as liaison officers; the development of national capabilities to make rational decisions regarding the introduction of satellite, telecommunications and other modern information technologies; the need to minimise the adverse effects of the introduction of such technologies in traditional societies like Nigeria; the removal of economic and linguistic barriers to information access; and the promotion of international collaboration in the development of information systems and services.

4.2.1 Obstacles to the transfer and utilisation of information for development.

Developing countries face numerous problems of information transfer from developed countries. Firstly, the sheer volume of information presents difficulties of selection and acquisition. The exponential growth of published information from foreign sources has presented the problem of choice for developing countries - how to identify from the huge mass of information the potentially most relevant and most useful sources which will meet the needs of users in developing countries. To ameliorate this problem, information specialists in all fields - librarians, information scientists, archivists, records managers and documentalists will be required to liaise between information sources and information users, selecting, analysing and repackaging information to meet local needs.
The second problem is an economic one. The advent of "information society" characterised by high information - carrying devices including large and small data bases, and document delivery systems, to facilitate the creation and maintenance of bibliographical and numerical data bases, has put developing countries in a dependent position. Advanced information handling technologies are being developed by the industrialised countries, and this puts them in a dominant position in the field of information transfer. They have all the necessary resources - human, financial and technical resources and capabilities - to create and maintain data banks, and so are in a position to control the generation and transfer of information. Moreover these activities are carried out on a commercial basis through the information industry, to meet the needs of 'information society' in industrialised countries. Products of the information industry are not designed to meet the information needs of developing countries. Developing countries are not only facing the problem of cost but also that of establishing connections with such worldwide systems. It is suggested that the multinational corporations will eventually dominate the world in information market, supplying not only whole ranges of information packages but also information sources such as books and journals, bibliographical and other data bases, satellite and other communication facilities for information transfer and document delivery as well as referral services. Apart from these problems of access to information arising from inadequate bibliographic control and lack of financial resources; availability of publications arising from legal barriers such as copyright restrictions etc., there is the third problem of absorption and effective use of information arising from the
level of education of users, poor presentation of information, lack of appropriate information policies, lack of user training at school and professional levels, lack of promotional activities in connection with information use, and the ineffective performance of information services.

Having studied this whole range of problems facing developing countries the Director of Unesco's Division of General Information Programme, Jacques Tocatlian \(^{(8)}\) concluded that:

Thus in the 1980s developing countries will witness the advent of the information society without being able to participate in it except in a dependent role which is likely to increase their debts.

Developing countries have become aware of the imbalance in the generation and flow of information, and have used every available opportunity to press for a restructuring of the world economic order. Recognising the role of scientific and technical information as a vital resource essential to the advancement of science and technology, and their application to economic, cultural and social development, developing countries are demanding wider and better-balanced diffusion of information and for its freer circulation.

4.2.2 Scientific and technical information for development

Internal flow of scientific and technical information in a system of national technological activities can contribute to the establishment of a virile and vigorous scientific and technological community. It fosters intellectual stimulation. The less well-informed the scientist is, the less incentive he feels to be so, the need for scientific enterprise is no longer there. Therefore, the
absence of scientific and technical information causes intellectual isolation, which is detrimental to the productivity of scientific and technological work.

Scientific information should contribute to the development of basic as well as applied research, and to the advancement in specific fields such as technological and industrial processes which correspond to the objectives of national science and technology policy.

The primary aim of science policies is to establish coherence and to strengthen the organic links between the various research activities. In accordance with this principle, the Inter-governmental Conference on Scientific and Technological Information for Development (UNISIST II) held in Paris in 1979, recommended that the collection, dissemination and exploitation of scientific and technical information should be centralised, responsible to a body designated to deal with all the practical problems involved in establishing and running the specialised centres, scientific libraries and information network exchanges. A universal system of scientific and technical information was also recommended for all countries as this would be capable of making useful contributions to the flow of information. Universal systems will enable scientific and technological information users in developing countries to identify the sources of information corresponding to their needs. This arrangement would help in reducing the imbalance that now exists in the international economic order involving the flow of information between the industrialised countries and the developing countries.

The specialised systems best suited for the transfer of scientific and technical information from advanced countries to the
less developed countries are the international information system for the Agricultural Sciences and Technology, (ACRIS), and the International Nuclear Information Systems (INIS). One of the UNISIST pre-occupations today has been to standardise the measures and policies for effective integration of the various systems so that national scientific and technical information systems can be linked with the international systems in order to facilitate the receiving and the sending of information.

4.2.3 UNESCO's activities

In recognition of the problems of information transfer and utilisation facing developing countries, the Unesco Division of General Information Programme has stepped up its activities in the field of information. These activities are aimed at establishing information systems and services to serve the whole world; to promote information systems and services at national and regional levels. The activities of the General Information Programme are related to the problems of the production, storage, retrieval, management, transfer and utilisation of information.

Apart from policy guidelines focusing on the regional problems of information policy planning which the PGI has produced and circulated among Member States, regional development policies have been promoted or encouraged through the organisation of several meetings for regional cooperation. This promotional activity culminated in the First UNISIST Meeting on Regional Information Policy and Planning in West Africa which took place in Accra (Ghana) 4-7 December 1978. The
meeting was attended by participants from Ghana, Nigeria and Sierra Leone. Members reaffirmed their belief that "scientific and technical information is a vital resource for the economic and social development of the regions" and that "the need to develop national information policies and structures in close association with, as an integral part of, the machinery for economic and social planning" was recognised.

At the national level, Unesco's programme is ensured by national focal points. An information focal point is a national agency responsible for coordinating the overall information policy, including national participation in international information exchanges. The national focal point works in cooperation with a National Committee for UNISIST or PGI. A National Committee is a consultative body to advise the government on all aspects of information exchange and on liaison with the Unesco Division of General Information Programme (PGI). The UNISIST National Focal Point in Nigeria is the National Science and Technology Development Agency. This agency serves as the main documentation centre for UNISIST activities and is housed in the new Secretariat building at Ikoyi, Lagos. The establishment of this agency within the political power structure at such a high level not only gives it prominence but also shows the Federal Government Commitment to utilise scientific and technical information for development.

4.2.4 Policies for Scientific development in Nigeria

Although colonial administration had established research institutions in Nigeria as early as 1920s to facilitate the process of economic exploitation, after independence in 1960, Nigeria did not
evolve a clear science and technology policy until 1970. By Decree No. 6 (of 1970) the Nigerian Council for Science and Technology was inaugurated, thus laying the foundation for a science policy in Nigeria. The objectives of the Nigerian Council for Science and Technology (NCST) were spelt out as follows:

1. Determination of priorities for scientific activities in the federation to the economic and social policies of the country;

2. advising the federal military government on a national science policy...

3. ensuring the application of the results of scientific activities to the development of agriculture, industry, and social welfare;

4. ensuring cooperation between the various agencies involved in the machinery for the making of the National Science Policy...

These broad objectives were spelt out in functional details including scientific documentation, statistics, surveys and general information.

Having laid the foundation for a national science policy, a number of science and technology-related research councils were established by decree:

Agricultural Research Council of Nigeria
Decree No. 33 of 1971

Industrial Research Council of Nigeria
Decree No. 33 of 1971

Medical Research Council of Nigeria
Decree No. 1 of 1972

Natural Sciences Research Council of Nigeria
Decree No. 9 of 1973.

The third development plan 1975-80 had as its scientific objectives, the promotion of scientific research, industrial development
research, medical and health research, manpower development and training, transfer of research findings and their exploitation to the successful areas of growth both in the public and private sectors. In short, the development of science and technology is to be promoted through research.

Nigeria has embarked upon a gigantic scientific programme with many implications for information work. Its science and technology policy covers all the areas represented by the various research councils. A separate Ministry of Science and Technology has been created to be responsible for all aspects of scientific and technological development. About thirty-four research institutions representing various disciplines have been brought under the umbrella of the Federal Ministry of Science and Technology.

To really understand the dimensions of science and technology development programmes, we need to look at some figures in this sector. In 1970 it was estimated that there were 700 scientists in Nigeria as against 559 in 1968. In the 1980s the figure is estimated to reach about 1,730. At the same time Nigerian Universities were required to produce as many as 700 research zoologists by 1980, while medical schools were given an admission quota of 1,000 medical students each year from 1980. If these quotas are met Nigerian universities and polytechnics will be producing an enormous number of scientists, technologists and engineers in the 1980s and beyond.

In the industrial sector, investment has been unprecedented. The various steel projects in different locations in the country call for huge resources in terms of personnel, finance and materials. The current Green Revolution Programmes aimed at revitalising agricultural
production are also of great magnitude calling for enormous human, financial and material resources. All these scientific and technological advances are bound to create great demands on scientific and technical information. These demands may include planning and organisation of the information infrastructure - in its widest sense, to include library, documentation and archives services, computerised services, telecommunication services and satellite; user education and such specialised services as current awareness, selective dissemination of information (SDI) and retrospective search. To get the best out of the information systems the various facets of the information infrastructure should cooperate with each other internally and with other international bodies such as the UNESCO, UNISIST, International Council for Scientific Union (ICSU), International Nuclear Information Systems, Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) of the United Nations, the World Data Centre etc. After all information is an international resource.

At the national level, cooperation among the various information sub-systems is needed in order to:

i. identify information needs of scientists;

ii. fill gaps in information services, and coordinate existing services;

iii. prepare a national programme to make the best use of human, technical and financial resources;

iv. encourage cooperation between government and scientists and technologists.

Unfortunately, the establishment of a science policy for Nigeria is not matched with a similar policy on information. There is
yet no clear statement of a detailed programme for the development of library, documentation and archives services. At the moment, information systems in Nigeria consist mainly of a range of public, academic and special libraries. Of these, the special library is best suited for the scientific and technical developments although apart from its teaching function, the academic library also performs the research function required for development.

Special research libraries have a long colonial history dating far back to 1910 with the establishment of the Department of Agricultural Research Library, Ibadan. Yet, Petrie (1966) had good reason to regard them as "the Cinderella of libraries, they aren't yet really in the picture, they are merely also rans". Their growth has been very slow, mainly on an ad hoc basis. Like in many university libraries, the "librarian is not appointed until years after accumulation of library material has reached such a point of chaos that someone says, 'perhaps we'd better get a librarian' which often means an untrained clerk". (10)

Petrie's account of the state of special libraries and status of special librarians in the 1960s makes pathetic reading.

Although the librarian in a special library in the 1980s may not be made 'to make the rest house curtains' or to 'make the morning coffee' and 'collect the pennies' or be 'turned out of his library for two days at a time without warning so that the junior staff can hold their union meeting', there is still room for improvement in the status of special libraries and librarians working in them. Special libraries attached to research institutions fare better than those
attached to government departments. Departmental libraries are usually so small and prospects for successful career opportunities (advancement) so limited that they hardly attract professionally qualified librarians.

Their funding is one of their greatest weaknesses. It is also arbitrary. There are no handy current statistics but Petrie's account given in 1966 still seems appropriate to illustrate the kind of random funding for this class of library. In 1966 the federal allocation for a number of these libraries was made as follows:

1. The Nigerian Defence Academy Library - £200 a year for its library with a librarian on Scale A. (senior position).
2. The Federal Department of Justice Library - £5,500 for its library, with only an assistant library officer.
3. Cabinet Office Library - £1,500 for its library and one library clerk.

The significant point to note about special library services is that some of them have no staff yet they have budgets or votes (rather small) while others have no budget yet they have staff.

4.2.5 Quantitative analysis

Reliable current statistics on special libraries are not available. Different studies in the past have produced different results concerning the number of research libraries in Nigeria. Enu's study (1972) ten years ago revealed the existence of 38 libraries with resources in science and technology. This number was made up of university libraries, scientific research libraries and colleges of science and technology libraries. Academic libraries were
included in this study because 'their collections include resources in science and technology as well as a core of research materials'.

A breakdown of these libraries by discipline revealed the following pattern:

- Agriculture and Forestry: 14 libraries
- Medicine: 5
- Veterinary Science: 4
- Pharmacy: 3
- Engineering/Technology: 18
- Basic Sciences: 15

In 1975 Oguara\(^{(12)}\) carried out another study on special libraries. He came out with 56 special libraries of which 23 were in science and technology broken down as follows:

<table>
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<th>Table 4.1</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>No. of libraries</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Technology</td>
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<td>2. Medicine</td>
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<td>3. Agriculture</td>
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<td>4. Mining, geology etc.</td>
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<td>5. Others</td>
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</table>

Yet a recent survey by the National Library of Nigeria has revealed 20 scientific research libraries excluding libraries of the universities and colleges of science and technology. These are grouped under the Ministry of Science and Technology, and are therefore called 'Ministry of Science and Technology Libraries'.\(^{(13)}\)
Results extracted from these studies including another survey by the National Library of Nigeria in 1979(14) (not mentioned above) indicate a total of 34 libraries representing science and technology. These figures are very conservative, based on inaccurate information. They do however give us some idea of what is available for our growing number of scientists and technologists in a fast growing economic and industrial society.

4.2.6 Agricultural Libraries

The importance attached to agriculture in Nigeria has been expressed in several ways: it receives a significant proportion of the national and state budgets - 15 percent of the total allocation for the current national development plan; the flamboyant organisation of the 'Green Revolution' at the federal, state and local government levels, and not the least, the number of research institutes responsible for agricultural research and agricultural development.

Internationally too, agriculture has been accorded high priority in the United Nations' development programme. Accordingly, a meeting of experts sponsored by the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) of the UNO, and the International Development Research Centre, held in 1973 recommended the establishment of an international information system for the Agricultural Sciences and Technology (AGRIS) to be organised at two levels. Level one to consist of an internal (national) mechanism to collect speedily all the necessary information to maintain a comprehensive bibliography of current literature in all those subject fields represented by the activities of The Food and Agricultural Organisation — which are food, agriculture, fisheries and forestry and to issue the bibliography both on magnetic tapes and in printed form.
Level two consists of a world-wide network of specialised information services, data banks and data analysis services, to provide detailed information responding to the needs of individual users. Nigeria is fortunate to be linked to the international system through its Institute for Tropical Agriculture, Ibadan, which was opened in 1969. The International Institute of Tropical Agriculture Ibadan, has grown to become one of the best information systems in Africa. It provides a range of services including public services, reference, information, bibliographies, abstracting and indexing services, photo-copying services, publication, literature searches, inter-library cooperation both locally and internationally. (15)

Developing countries are urged to set up institutions of planning, coordinating and managing of agricultural and other scientific information systems, while professional bodies - librarians, documentalists, agriculturalists and scientists are urged to pool their resources together to achieve the objectives of AGRIS. This pooling of resources involves training in documentation exchange of experience and the development of methods and services in information systems. Information and extension activities are expected to be integrated in order to achieve better results.

Agricultural libraries in Nigeria have a long colonial history of development. They developed simultaneously with agricultural research. In 1910 research in agriculture was stepped up with the establishment of the Moor Plantation Ibadan. In 1912 a Department of Agriculture for the Northern Provinces was set up, but in 1921 the departments of agriculture for the Northern Provinces and the Southern Provinces were brought under one administrative unit with headquarters
at Moor Plantation. With the introduction of regional government in 1951 the former Nigerian Department of Agriculture was split into three with regional Directors at Ibadan, Enugu and Kaduna. Research facilities at Moor were shared between the Federal and Western Nigeria governments in 1954. The Western share became the assets of the Western Nigeria Ministry of Agriculture Library, while the Federal share was divided between the Forest Research Institute, Ibadan, and the Federal Department of Agriculture, Ibadan. With the expansion of the Federal Department of Agriculture in 1956, it became necessary to establish the West African Cocoa Research Institute Library which became from 1962 Cocoa Research Institute of Nigeria.

When the Agricultural Research Council of Nigeria was established in 1971, it charged the Documentation Centre of the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture Ibadan, with the responsibility of publishing research results, abstracting and indexing services, and to serve as a national referral centre.

Today there are more research institute libraries in the field of agriculture than can be found in any other single discipline. Of the 34 scientific and technical libraries in this study fifteen are in the field of agriculture with about half of that number having functional libraries. Some of the well established libraries such as the Institute for Agricultural Research, Samaru, Zaria; International Institute of Tropical Agriculture Ibadan; Forestry Research Institute of Nigeria Ibadan, etc., offer a range of services including abstracting and indexing, publications, reference, information services. However, like all research libraries, agricultural research libraries have experienced such problems as inadequate funding, lack of personnel
The personnel problem seems to be particularly acute. Adimorah's study (16) indicates that only four libraries out of twenty-one in his survey had more than two professional staff. Another four had only two professional staff, three had one professional staff each while others had no professional staff at all.

Agricultural libraries also suffer from a lack of national bibliography. Although these libraries are brought under the administrative direction of the Federal Ministry of Science and Technology, they seem to be isolated. There ought really to be centralised acquisition policy, to avoid duplication of efforts and materials. Most of the functions of these libraries overlap, and it would make more economic and administrative sense if there was centralised technical service. There is a need for a National Agricultural Library to coordinate the activities of all the other agricultural research libraries which are spread throughout the country. Such a national institution should be charged with the responsibility of preparing a national bibliography on agriculture, training and maintaining of indexes, bibliographers, documentalists and information scientists. This arrangement would facilitate the networking of agricultural research libraries in Nigeria.
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<tr>
<th>Library</th>
<th>Public Service</th>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Bibliographies</th>
<th>Abstracting</th>
<th>Indexing</th>
<th>Photocopying</th>
<th>Literature Searching</th>
<th>Inter-library cooperation - Local</th>
<th>Inter-library cooperation - Overseas</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Cocoa Research Inst. of Nigeria, Ibadan</td>
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<td>2. Forestry Research Inst. Ibadan</td>
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<td>3. Institute for Tropical Agric., Ibadan</td>
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<td>4. Institute of Agric. Research, Samaru, Zaria.</td>
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<td>5. Lake Chad Research Inst. Maiduguri</td>
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<td>8. National Horticultural Research Inst. Ibadan</td>
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<td>10. Nigerian Inst. for Oil Palm Research Benin City</td>
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<td>Library</td>
<td>Public Service</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Bibliographies</td>
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<td>14. Nigerian Inst. for Trypanosomiasis</td>
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<td>Research Inst.</td>
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<td>Kaduna</td>
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<td>15. National Veterinary Research Inst. Vom</td>
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</table>

**Source:** Adimorah, E.N.O. Agricultural librarianship, documentation and information science in Nigeria. *Int.Lib.Rev.* (1977)9, 418.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library</th>
<th>Date founded</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Central Medical Library, Lagos.</td>
<td>1948</td>
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<td>2. Centre for Management Dev.Library, Lagos.</td>
<td>1974</td>
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<td>3. Cocoa Research Institute Library Ibadan</td>
<td>1964</td>
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<td>4. Federal Ministry of Trade Technical Information Library, Lagos</td>
<td>1951</td>
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<td>5. Federal Ministry of Transport Library, Lagos</td>
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<td>6. Federal Ministry of Science and Technology Library, Lagos</td>
<td>1976</td>
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<td>7. Federal Institute of Industrial Research Library, Lagos.</td>
<td>1956</td>
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<td>8. Federal Department of Agricultural Research Library, Lagos</td>
<td>1910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Federal School of Telecommunications Library, Lagos.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Inst. for Agric.Research, Samaru, Zaria.</td>
<td>1962</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Inst. for Tropical Agric.Library, Ibadan</td>
<td>1969</td>
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<td>17. National Horticultural Research Institute Library, Ibadan</td>
<td>1977</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. National Institute for Medical Research Library, Lagos</td>
<td>1972</td>
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<td>20. Nigerian Institute for Oil Palm Research Library, Benin City</td>
<td>1939</td>
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<td>Library</td>
<td>Date founded</td>
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<td>22. National Veterinary Research Library, Vom</td>
<td>1924</td>
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<td>23. Nigerian Institute for Trypanosomiasis Research Library, Kaduna</td>
<td>1951</td>
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<tr>
<td>25. Rubber Research Inst.Library, Benin City</td>
<td>1961</td>
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<tr>
<td>27. Nigerian Industrial Development Bank Library</td>
<td>1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Nigerian Civil Aviation Training Centre Library, Zaria</td>
<td>1968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Petroleum Training Institute Library, Warri</td>
<td>1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Ministry of Industrial Research Library, Enugu</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Nigerian Steel Dev.Authority Library</td>
<td>1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. National Science and Technology Development Inst.Library, Lagos</td>
<td>1973</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.7 Characteristics of Research Libraries in Nigeria

Most of the scientific research libraries in Nigeria are linked with research institutes, although their development is hardly ever considered by the government as an integral part of these institutions, hence Petrie's opinion that 'they aren't really in the picture'. Secondly, most of them are serving mainly public policy in the areas of agriculture, science and technology and management.

There is an appalling information gap between the public and private sectors. Only the Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (Nigerian Institute of Management (NIM)), Centre for Management Development (CMD), and the National Bank of Nigeria (not to be confused with the Central Bank of Nigeria) have research libraries catering for the information needs of the private sector. Yet the private sector has always been called upon to participate in national development. At the present, its needs for technical information is only potential. It needs to be explored and tapped.

In a general perspective, it must be emphasised that the existing information systems cannot satisfy the demands of science and technology development upon which the Nigerian government has embarked. A radical approach on the lines of the USSR is advocated.

The objective of transforming scientific, technical and cultural sectors of the Soviet economy after the revolution led V.I. Lenin himself to direct the planning of scientific information system. Based on the Soviet centralised planning approach, Lenin directed the organisation and dissemination of scientific and technical advances, and the acquisition of the most current foreign literature on the basic sciences.
The entire information service was directly related to the need of the national economy - specialist knowledge of workers such as engineers, technicians, and so forth. As a result of this revolutionary approach today the Soviet Union has some 45,000 special libraries organised on a sectoral basis e.g. railways, textiles, etc.

If Nigeria is going to fulfil its ambition to become a great industrial and technological country in the Third World, and to prove to the rest of the world that it is "a land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens" then the nation must invest substantially in the development of information.

4.2.8 Services required for science and technology development in Nigeria

Services required by Nigerian scientists and technologists include abstracts and indexes, specialised bibliographies, union lists of serials, and books, and current awareness services. Of these services, those produced in Nigeria by Nigerians are relatively small compared with those produced by outsiders but which are consumed in Nigeria. A survey by Odeinde (17) in 1972 showed that there were approximately 60 serials of scholarly and research importance which are published currently in Nigeria, or which are of direct relevance to the country. Only about 50 percent of this scientific literature was either indexed or abstracted by local or international documentation centres. A national documentation centre has therefore been suggested by Odeinde to cover abstracting and indexing services of those journals not covered by the existing services. Lawani (1972) (18) on the other hand, regards a national documentation centre as an unnecessary bureaucracy since the existing specialised national and
international documentation centres can perform the functions. Lawani has either ignored or overlooked the fact that some 42 Nigerian scientific and technical journals are not covered by the existing systems. Nigeria needs not just one national documentation centre but a number of them based on major subject divisions like Natural Sciences, Technology, Material Sciences etc.

4.3 Conclusion

It has been revealed in this chapter that a good library network capable of assisting in national development is lacking in Nigeria. Public libraries are still underdeveloped, school libraries almost non-existent and special libraries only haphazardly developed. Academic libraries, particularly university libraries have fared better than all the other libraries, but even they need improvement especially in the area of library cooperation. Special or research libraries have tended to serve public policies in the main development areas of agriculture, science and technology as well as management/administration. The private sector is almost totally neglected in the provision of research library services.

To correct this imbalance, information systems based on Ranganathan's 'business library' system is suggested. The division of business organisations into sectors such as trade, transport, banking and other types of business was recommended by Ranganathan (1950)(19) and was adopted by Lenin after the Russian Revolution. The business library system looks like this:

a. **Industrial Library System** - based on types e.g. heavy or light industries such as steel or iron industry, petroleum/mining, agriculture,
b. **Newspaper Library System** - to improve the editorial and managerial proficiency of staff as well as for the benefit of field staff and those training in journalism.

c. **Commercial Library System** - comprising libraries for Insurance Companies, banking institutions, transport services etc.

d. **Departmental Library System** - Government is an expanding business. So its various departments need current and reliable information to formulate policies and to implement them. The legislature, the judiciary and the executive arms of government in particular need well developed departmental libraries.

The evolution of departmental libraries in Nigeria dates back to 1900 with the establishment of the Law Library, Federal Ministry of Justice Lagos. Others in this special library category include the Secretariat Library, Lagos, the Agriculture Departmental Library, Ibadan, originally established in 1910; Federal Ministry of Trade Technical Information Library (1951), and Federal Ministry of Science and Technology Library, Lagos (1976).

The better organised departmental libraries can be found only in the Federal Capital Lagos, where perhaps their development has been influenced by the National Library of Nigeria. In the states the departmental libraries are in a rather poor state. They hardly provide what approximates to the absolute minimum library service. What is often regarded as a library may be a collection of a few books and some government publications which are tucked away in a cupboard, with an untrained clerk in charge who is called 'the librarian'. It is this
image of the untrained Clerk-'Librarian' that partly contributes to the low status of librarians in Nigeria.

NOTES


5. Ibid. p.8.


10. Ibid. p.65.


16. Ibid. p.419.


CHAPTER 5

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT

5.1. An overview

All governments in developing countries regard investment in education as a national priority because education promotes the growth of economy. International studies have shown that there is a close correlation between human resource development and the Gross National Product of a country. Writers like McClelland have demonstrated that the gross national product of a country increases many times with expenditure on education. Therefore some of this increase must be attributable to increased skills in the labour force due to education. But returns to investment in education are not without qualifications. Bowman and Anderson\(^{2}\) have argued that returns to investment in education depend very much on the 'quality' (emphasis mine) of the product and on the ways in which graduates of the schools are integrated into the economic life.

Until the average duration of schooling reaches a certain point, loss of literacy predominates and much of the investment in schooling is wasted.

It is estimated that about $300,000 million a year is being spent on education throughout the world. It is also estimated that of this amount about $18,000 million is spent by developing countries, and this represents some 15-20 percent of these countries' national budget.\(^{3}\)

The purpose of educational planning is not simply to allocate resources efficiently, nor to produce skilled high level manpower.
It is also to make millions of illiterate populations literate. It is for this reason that we shall include adult education in the overall framework of educational planning as it affects library development in Nigeria.

5.2. Colonial policies and educational development

In Chapter 3 the British Colonial policies as they affected educational and library development in Nigeria during the Colonial development period 1945-1960, were discussed. There is also a stimulating article by F.C. Ekpo (4) on the Colonial situation and library development in Nigeria which covers the same subject. The main points of Ekpo's article are that the Colonial administration showed no interest in providing education to the colonised people. Their main object was economic exploitation. This led them to establish research institutions in Nigeria as early as 1910 and beyond. This is how research libraries evolved in Nigeria. The onus of providing education to the colonised people fell on the Christian Missionary bodies. The Missionaries too were only interested in opening primary schools which were to be used as centres of evangelization. They needed interpreters and catechists to assist them in their work of evangelization, but they did not need post-primary education to produce these assistants.

With the growth of government activities and the expansion of commerce - import-export trade, a need arose for the training of local clerks and interpreters. Colonial government was therefore forced by these circumstances to consider the establishing of post-primary institutions. Accordingly the government established King's College, Lagos.
in 1909. Other schools were established at Ibadan and Umuahia in 1929, Queen's College for Girls, Lagos, 1929, and Zaria 1937. These were institutions that were comparable to junior secondary schools in England. There was no institution of higher learning in Nigeria until 1934 when Yaba Higher College was opened. This was an institution of lesser status to the University which was established to serve a particular need— to provide vocational and professional training for teachers of secondary schools, and for medical, agricultural, veterinary and forestry assistants. Admission to this institution was strictly based on government manpower need, and not on individual choice or aptitude. It is clear that the colonial policy on education was to spend as little money on education as possible, but in so doing the local intellectual elite "who in the safety of British protection have peacefully pursued their studies under British teachers", were being antagonised. (5)

While the Colonial rulers showed no understanding of the aspirations of the colonised people's aspirations for higher education, other well-meaning people in Britain at least showed some sympathy. For example, Sir Alexander Carr-Saunders wrote as follows:

What needs explanation is the general lack of interest in higher education shown by British officials .... they displayed very little sympathy with local aspirations for university education. They had usually graduated at one of the older universities from which they carried away agreeable memories rather than professional accomplishments or enduring intellectual interests. They had little understanding of the part played in the modern world by universities and of the importance of the professions for which universities are a preparation. (6)
However, British apathy towards higher education in the colonies was gradually giving way for a more positive approach to the education of prospective successors to the Colonial rulers. Accordingly in 1943 a Commission on Higher Education under the Chairmanship of Mr. Justice Asquith, was appointed: "To consider the principles which should guide the promotion of higher education, learning and research and the development of universities in the Colonies; and to explore means whereby Universities and other appropriate bodies in the United Kingdom may be able to cooperate with institutions of higher education in the Colonies in order to give effect to those principles". The Commission's report was published in 1945 as Cmd.6647. In the commission's report it was stated categorically that

The main consideration in making this decision is that H.M.G. has entered upon a programme of social and economic development for the Colonies which is not merely the outcome of a desire to fulfil our more obligations as trustees of the welfare of Colonial peoples, but is also designed to lead to the exercise of self-government by them. In the stage preparatory to self-Government, Universities have an important part to play; indeed, they may be said to be indispensable.

A second Commission under the Chairmanship of Sir Walter Elliot was appointed in 1944 "to report on the organisation and facilities of the existing centres of higher education in British West Africa and to make recommendations regarding future university development in (the) area". The Elliot Commission came up with two reports - the majority and minority reports. The majority report was in favour of establishing three colleges of university rank one each to be sited in the Gold Coast (Ghana), Nigeria and Sierra Leone,
while the minority report favoured the establishment of a single West African College to be sited at Ibadan, Nigeria with three territorial colleges as feeder institutions one each in Nigeria, Gold Coast (Ghana) and Sierra Leone. After some controversies the British government agreed to establish two university colleges one each in Nigeria and Ghana and to upgrade Fourah Bay College, Sierra Leone. As a result of this decision, the University College Ibadan, was established, based on the British London and Cambridge universities as model.

Both the Asquith and Elliot Commissions emphasized the essential role of libraries in the work of universities. The Asquith Commission for instance, stated that:

> We cannot emphasize too strongly the paramount importance of the building up of a university library (in the Colonies) to rank with university libraries elsewhere. (8)

The Commission recommended considerable capital outlay to enable the Colonial University libraries to function. By 1955 the British Government had provided a total sum of £1,700,000 for Ibadan. Out of this total grant £30,000 was for building up library collection and £144,000 for the library building. The library funds were certainly too small compared to those of Ghana £90,000 and the University of West Indies £55,000 during the same period.

There was a general dissatisfaction with the funding and the library resources of Ibadan University College library. Had there not been gifts of books from philanthropic organizations and individuals like Henry Carr, the whole library building built at a cost of £144,000 would have been another white elephant. The Elliot Commission also
expressed some concern about the state of library services in institutions of higher learning in Nigeria. It described the Yaba Higher College library as 'a pathetic affair', having only 3,600 volumes mainly textbooks and works of reference in science.

A third and last Commission appointed by Colonial government was the Ashby Commission. In 1959 the government of Nigeria appointed a Commission under the Chairmanship of Sir Eric Ashby "to conduct an investigation into Nigeria's needs in the field of post-School Certificate and Higher Education over the next twenty years". (9)

The main task of the Commission was to forecast Nigeria's educational needs up to 1980. The Ashby Report contained several significant recommendations including some controversial ones. First of all the Commission was appalled by what the Commissioners saw as a total lack of balance in the structure of Nigerian educational system. It noted that:

a. there was a serious gap between school certificate and the level of attainment necessary for entry into university or any other higher educational institutions;

b. an insufficient number of higher institutions of learning. For example, there was only one University College at Ibadan which was affiliated to the University of London;

c. education beyond secondary school was less favourably developed. It was an import of the British educational tradition being too rigid, too literary and academic;

d. there was a considerable number of unqualified and inadequately prepared teachers; and finally,

e. there was an appalling disparity between the North and South of the country.

Other areas of concern to the Commission were the establishment of the sixth form to prepare students for university education, insufficiency
of teacher training colleges, technical and commercial education and agricultural education.

Another recommendation of the Commission was to establish schools and institutes of African studies within the existing institutes of higher learning to serve as centres of teaching and research where "foreign scholars would be glad to come and pursue their studies of Nigeria in particular and West Africa in general". The report suggested that the institute's equipment should include 'specialist libraries', stores and equipment for field research, laboratories etc.

5.2.1 At the Tertiary level

The Commission had taken into consideration considerable problems of geographical distance, population and cultural diversities and recommended the establishing of each university in each region of the country. The Commission however warned that admission into each regional university should not be limited to candidates applying from that region. In spite of the strong regional loyalties, the Commission warned that regional borders should not be barriers to the 'migration of brains'. It was believed that brain migration would promote regional cohesion. But the Commission also agreed that universities should be independent of each other (unlike former University College Ibadan which was attached to the University of London) offering its own degrees.

The most courageous recommendation the Ashby Commission made was the phasing out of the three colleges of Arts, Science and Technology in each region, and incorporating them with the University system. The Commission believed that the College had played an important
role in the expanding system of education of Nigeria, for example, by compensating for the shortage of sixth forms by providing courses for the General Certificate of Education Advanced Levels. In spite of this role, the Commission was convinced that the Nigerian College had outlined its usefulness since the numbers of sixth forms had increased and the Universities and technical institutes had assumed responsibility for many of the subjects the Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology was designed to teach. Accordingly, the branch of the College at Zaria was incorporated into the new Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, the one at Enugu with the University of Nigeria, Nsukka (to be opened by the time the report was published) and that of Ibadan was integrated into the University College, Ibadan.

The integration of the Nigerian Colleges into the University system of the country led to the facilities and resources of these Colleges (including their library stock) forming the nuclei for University development as well as University library development.

Most of the resources of the libraries of these Colleges were unsuitable for University work, especially serious research but they did offer the new universities, often without a librarian at the planning stage, something upon which they could build their stock.

The Ashby Commission having observed the conditions in the existing institutions of higher learning, sounded an early warning that:

All students depend on the resources of a good library, not merely for their special discipline of study but for their general enlightenment and for their awakening to the treasures of knowledge and of the world's experience in its manifold variety. The cost of these material provisions has of course to be counted. But so also has the ultimate cost to the nation of ignoring them.
It is interesting that all the three Commissions in this study were concerned about the state of library services in institutions of learning in Nigeria both at post-primary and tertiary levels. What effects had these reports on the development of school, college and university libraries in Nigeria? Did they have any significant effects on school library development in particular, and the whole problem of educational development and planning? In the following sections attempts will be made to answer these questions. Attempts will also be made to establish any relationship between educational libraries and the overall development planning in Nigeria.

5.3. Educational Planning in Post-Independent Nigeria

5.3.1 The Lagos School Library Service

Perhaps it was in response to the recommendations of the Ashby Report that the first positive step towards the development of school libraries was taken in 1962. A technical cooperation agreement between the Nigerian government and the UNESCO was effected in 1962, and consequent upon that UNESCO sent Mr. H.V. Bonny as adviser to the Federal Government of Nigeria. Bonny's main duty was to advise the government on how to develop school library services in the country. Initially the project was limited to organising a number of libraries in some selected schools in the Lagos territory, including St. Finbar's Secondary School, Ahmadiya Girls' High School, Muslim Teacher Training College and Ansar-Ud-Deen Grammar School.\(^{(11)}\) This followed the planning of a centralized school library service to serve all the secondary schools and teacher training colleges in Lagos. The project,
a joint venture between the Nigerian Federal Government and the Unesco was completed in 1964 and the first Library Organiser was appointed. In the following year, 1965, two demonstration libraries were opened at the Baptist Academy and the Methodist Girls' High School.

In his report to the Federal Government Bonny recommended specifically:

a. The full development of school and college libraries in Nigeria.

b. A central education library with reference and lending facilities for teachers, education officers and higher school students.

c. A central text books library

d. A special advisory unit to advise on library planning methods, training and organisation. (12)

While the objectives of this pilot scheme could be said to be laudable, their achievement has unfortunately been limited to the city of Lagos. Ndunteni is certainly in good company to assert that 'outside Lagos, school library services on governmental level were limited to the Unesco sponsored Advanced Teacher Training Colleges in Owerri, Ondo, Zaria and Kano". Each of these institutional libraries had a professionally trained librarian supplied by Unesco, to organise modern school library services.

In the former Eastern Region of Nigeria school libraries had developed to appreciable standard before the civil war, but this development was attributable to the activities of the Eastern Nigeria Library Association. Through the efforts of the Eastern Nigeria Library Association, a School Library Association - known as the Eastern Nigeria School Library Association - was formed. The Eastern Nigeria
Library Board was responsible for training school librarians for the schools in the region.

In Northern Nigeria some school libraries were developed under the direction of Mrs. Joan Allen and Miss Roberta Williams but the standard was in no way comparable to that of the Eastern Region of Nigeria.

The success or failure of the Lagos School Library Service as a pilot project can be assessed in its national context. Within Lagos area, it was a success. Nationally however, it has been a dismal failure. It has not succeeded in stimulating school library development in other parts of Nigeria. In theory plans for education, especially the establishment of new educational institutions, include some imprecise statement of policy on school libraries but few governments in the Federation of Nigeria approach the problem of school libraries with any vigour or serious commitment. Only federal colleges have anything approximating the minimum standard of school libraries. This demonstrates a glaring case of inconsistency in planning in a developing country, a case of planning in isolation.

The latest in educational planning in Nigeria are the Introduction of the Universal Free Primary Education (UPE) scheme, and the new National Policy on Education which will be examined briefly in the following sections.

5.3.2 The Universal Primary Education (UPE)

The introduction of the Universal Primary Education in 1976 was a result of a conference of African Ministers of education, held in Addis Ababa in 1961, when it was agreed that all African states
should strive to achieve Universal free primary education by the year 1980. Therefore Nigeria had nearly twenty years to prepare for this gigantic educational programme. Yet when the scheme was introduced in 1976 it appeared to have caught Nigerian planners off-guard. The programme was conceived and executed in total isolation of other social economic and cultural sectors. Those engaged directly in education appeared to be taken by surprise as they were not invited to any meeting to consider the wider implications of the scheme. Librarians were not consulted and so could not offer any advice on the choice and acquisition of learning resources for the expanding education programme. Book printers, publishers and distributors were 'thrown out of gear'. When finally the scheme took off (in 1976) text books, equipment, classrooms etc. were not, and are not, enough to go round. Perhaps the political capital to embark on the universal primary education scheme over-rode all the other considerations. (13)

5.3.2.1 The objectives of the scheme

The philosophical basis of the Universal free primary education was stated as follows:

a. Equalising individual access to education throughout the country by expanding facilities for education;

b. Education to be more responsive to the socio-economic needs of the country - by reforming its general content;

c. To rationalise and strengthen the machinery for educational development in the country, and

d. To rationalise the financing of education with a view to making the educational system adequate and more efficient.
Despite these fine policy declarations, many people were less than enthusiastic about the much celebrated scheme. After all free primary education had been tried in Nigeria before, first in Western Nigeria in 1955, and then in Eastern Region of Nigeria in 1957. Both experiments had failed because they only managed to produce neo-literates. The memories of these two experiences were still in the minds of Nigerians when the new free education scheme was introduced with great pomp and pageantry. But pessimists have been proved right. The scheme has not only failed to equalise educational opportunities but it has also failed to eradicate illiteracy. At best it is producing only neo-literates who relapse into stark illiteracy soon after leaving primary schools.

Obviously, more needs to be done than merely provide schools within easy reach of every child. Consideration must be given to the children's later life, life after formal schooling. Some means must be found for those unlucky children who cannot proceed to post-primary institutions so that through it they can retain permanent literacy which they gained during formal schooling. If this is not done much of the investment in education will be colossal waste when products of the universal free primary education relapse into illiteracy due to lack of incentive to read. One way to prevent such loss of literacy is to encourage children to experiment with communications media including books outside the formal school as suggested by Bowman and Anderson. (14) This in turn will create demand on public and school libraries which must have the resources to provide appropriate reading materials for the products of the Universal free primary education. This is by no means the case at present.
5.3.3 The New National Policy on Education

This policy, introduced in 1977, is the first specific policy statement on school library planning in Nigeria. Section 3 of the policy document makes provision for 'junior libraries' for primary school children. It also provides for the establishment of a school library service, and will ensure that teachers are given in-service training in the management and administration of school libraries. Elsewhere in the policy document it is suggested that 'libraries are already being incorporated into the new primary schools being put up as part of the plan for the universal primary education scheme'. Little evidence exists at the moment to suggest that this is the case, and the Federal Government may be well advised to appraise this programme. With the present state of the country's economy to embark upon a massive network of primary school libraries will be totally unrealistic indeed, unachievable. The realizable strategy is to develop college libraries - secondary, teacher training and technical college libraries. Then there should be a long-term plan for primary school libraries.

A study carried out by Federo in 1975 revealed that only four out of nineteen states - Bendel, East Central (now Anambra and Imo States), South East (now Cross River State) and Lagos States had any positive programme for school library development. Bendel (formerly Mid-Western) State, has one of the best school library systems in Nigeria. It is reckoned to be the first state in Nigeria to give legal backing for the development of school libraries. The Mid-West Edict No. 4 of 1971 empowered the State Library Board 'to create a school
library division to be responsible for the development and promotion of library facilities in the educational establishments in the state. To be able to carry out this function and other related activities, the Board introduced the following measures:

a. A system of bulk loan of books to some selected primary and secondary schools in the state. Each of the selected post-primary institutions could receive on loan between 400 and 600 books on various subjects for a period of up to six months.

b. Model libraries have been set up in a few selected areas, the first being Benin City and Ashaka. The ultimate aim is to have a model secondary school library in each local government area.

c. A book depot has been created at Benin City within the headquarters of the State Library Board. The creation of a Book Depot is one of the most important functions of Bendel Library Board, and it is an innovation for which the Board has been commended.

The depot has been able to solve the distribution problem in the state. Under the system, each secondary school is allowed to charge N2.00 (approximately £1.50) per pupil annually, and it is mandatory for each school to open an account with the Book Depot and to pay 75 percent of the library fees collected to this pool of account. This allows each school to receive books to the value of its account with the Depot. This arrangement prevents library funds from being converted to other uses by school authorities.

d. There is a full-time librarian responsible for visiting all the post-primary institutions in the state. He reports back to the Director of the Library Board.
The Board runs a mobile library service both for the general reader and schools.

Having said this, it must be pointed out however, that the Book Depot functioned better under the military regime which had no vested interest in the project. Today, the Board has not only been starved of funds, but its activities particularly its distribution work, have been severely affected by political influence. No longer are schools required to receive their supplies of books through the Bendel Book Depot, but the state Ministry of Education invites tenders from publishers who supply directly to the government - (Ministry of Education). There have been complaints of large consignments of books missing owing to lack of storage facilities, or even through fraud. In fact there have been allegations of books being hoarded by some headmasters of schools.

The former East-Central State (now Anambra and Imo States) was the first region to show an interest in school library service. Its interest followed the establishment of the Lagos School Library Service in 1964, and it was the first region to have a School Library Association now split into Anambra School Library Association and Imo State School Library Association. The former Eastern Nigeria School Library Association was so strong that it succeeded in persuading the former Eastern Nigeria Government to accept minimum standards for school libraries, and to appoint in 1966 a Librarian to the position of Inspector of School libraries. Officially new schools can only be approved for the presentation of their candidates for the West African School Certificate examinations (WASC) if they have school libraries that meet the absolute minimum standards. Many schools
however, disregard this requirement with impunity.

The Cross River State was formerly part of the Eastern Region of Nigeria. So what was said above in respect of the former Eastern Regional Library services also applied to this part of the country. Since becoming a state of its own, the Cross River State has established a central agency for school libraries known as the Cross River State School Library Service. It is an arm of the State Ministry of Education, but it works in collaboration with the State School Service Board both of which are based at Calabar.

The School library service is responsible for developing school libraries in all parts of the state. Its specific functions are:

a. Centralized acquisition and purchase of books.

b. Part-processing of new books for all schools benefiting from the service.

c. Training of library clerks and teacher/librarians to look after school libraries. As in Bendel State students in post-primary institutions pay a library fee of N2.00 each per annum, and this forms the main source of library funds.

The Lagos School library service is a continuation of the Lagos School Library Service established in 1964 jointly by the Nigerian Government and the Unesco. The Lagos State Government has inherited the whole library infrastructure from the Federal Government. In this way it can be said to be lucky to have inherited the best school library system in the country.

There is very little to write about from the other states. At best, some of them have created a post of Inspector of School Libraries within the Ministry of Education. Even at the headquarters there is
not even a reading room that can be regarded as a central library. What is an Inspector of School libraries expected to inspect when there are no libraries? The Librarian is simply one of the team of Inspectors of Education.

It is regrettable that the crucial role of the school library in education and national development has not been fully appreciated in Nigeria even when the ruling National Party of Nigeria (NPN) government has as its educational philosophy, 'qualitative education'.

It is pertinent at this stage to re-emphasise what Joeckel (1938) said in the United States more than forty years ago:

In the United States today, it is accepted as axiomatic that the library is an essential and integral part of the educational system of the nation. It therefore shares with the public school, the College and with all other agencies of public education their common responsibility for the maintenance of those adequate standards of intelligence and citizenship. (16)

International efforts have not succeeded in producing positive results for the planning of a school library service. A Unesco working party on National School Library service held at Bagota, Colombia, in 1961, observed that library services 'suffer from serious deficiencies in coverage, quality and influence on the development of education.'(17)

5.3.4 Quantitative Analysis

Since the end of the Nigerian Civil War in 1970 there has been an accelerated growth of education at all levels, and an increase in institutional libraries. This growth has been most significant at the primary school level - the base of the educational pyramid.
In 1950 the number of primary schools in Nigeria was 5,000. Ten years later (1960) the number rose to 15,703. Primary school enrolment during the period was as follows: 1950-970,199 pupils (5,000 primary schools). In 1960 when the number of primary schools had risen to 15,703, enrolment increased to about 3 million pupils. By 1973 enrolment had reached 4.8 million pupils. From 1975 to 1980 during the fourth national development plan, enrolment had reached 15 million pupils.

The figures for secondary schools are as follows: in 1950 there were only 200 secondary schools in Nigeria, with an enrolment figure of 28,962 students. In 1960 the figure had reached 883 with an enrolment of 135,364. Between 1975 and 1980 there were about 2,296 secondary schools with a student enrolment of 1.6 million. For teacher training colleges there are no figures for 1950 but in 1960 there were 315 teacher training colleges in the country with a student population of about 27,908. Between 1975 and 1980 there were about 234,680 students in teacher training colleges in Nigeria.\(^{18}\)

At the tertiary level the figures are no less striking. From one University College in Ibadan in 1948, Nigeria's Universities increased to 13 by the end of the 1970s. The number of polytechnics and Advanced Teachers Colleges also rose to 8 and 10 respectively during the same period. There were about 15 Schools of Basic Studies. Today the number of full-fledged universities has risen to 22 with a total student enrolment of 78,642 (this number does not include students admitted into six new universities which are still in the process of formation). There are not less than 19 polytechnics with a total student population of 40,142.
While there is an accelerated quantitative development in education both at the base and at the apex, there is no corresponding development in the qualitative aspect. The rapid increase in educational institutions at all levels without adequate number of teachers sufficiently trained, has meant that educational institutions especially at the primary and secondary levels, are producing only neo-literate. There is a further danger that because many of them will not be qualified to proceed to the universities, they will sooner than later relapse into illiteracy. The huge investment in education then will be a waste. To improve the quality of the educational products, adequate library services must be provided at all levels for the educational programmes to meet with the success expected of them.

A Unesco Seminar on the planning of a national school library service held at Bogota, Colombia in 1962 observed that library services suffer from serious deficiencies in coverage, quality and influence on the development of education. The Working Party of the Seminar noted that there was no overall plan and no clear and satisfactory notion of the role and function of libraries in the whole context of educational planning. It urged planners to include as one of the objectives of educational planning, "all questions relating to the quantitative and qualitative improvement of library services". Twenty years after the Bogota Seminar, the school library situation in most of the developing countries has not improved. In Nigeria too much lip service has been paid to the improvement of school library services. As noted earlier in this chapter, only four states in Nigeria have embarked on
a positive and realistic programme of school library development. Even in these states inadequate funding prevent these programmes from being fully implemented.

It is quite clear from the report of the Bogota Seminar that lack of school library development is due mainly to the ignorance of educational planners of the role of school libraries in education. Governments must be convinced that school libraries have a positive contribution to make to the improvement of the quality of education and to development.

5.3.4.1 The role of School Libraries in education

The phrase school library services is sometimes confusing. Quite often it is used to refer to all educational institutions except perhaps, the universities. But since polytechnics and Colleges of Science and Technology libraries belong to a category of their own the use of the phrase must be limited to primary and secondary schools, teacher training and technical vocational training colleges.

School libraries have an important role to play in the education of the child. They open the gateway to a world of information and knowledge which a child must discover by himself. In other words school libraries widen the children's mental horizon and so increase their curiosity to discover more and more of the world around them. School libraries are needed to improve the quality of education. This role is particularly crucial at present in Nigeria when the ratio of pupil teacher is at least 60 : 1. Little individual attention is paid to pupils now. Moreover most of the teachers today are themselves ill-prepared and ill-equipped. Adequate school library services can
make up for the classroom shortcomings as well as complement teachers' efforts, thus raising the standard of education in Nigeria. It is lack of school library services which led Professor Babs Fanfunwa to comment:

Indeed, we are yet to assess the extent to which lack of elementary school library has adversely affected low educational standards in our primary schools .... on the one hand, and manpower wastage after elementary schooling on the other. (19)

School libraries have a capacity to stimulate the reading habit during the school years, (when the child is in his formative age) and a means of overcoming the very serious problem of relapse into illiteracy. This is a very important function from the development point of view because one of the greatest problems for development is illiteracy. The school library has widely been recognised as the most effective initial library development because the majority of the literate population are easily reached in schools. Functional literacy can be retained only if the means to practise the reading skills learned in school are provided. "If schools are without adequate libraries, then there is a real danger that the initial reading skills are lost before they have been given an opportunity to develop properly". (20) This warning by Berkeley and others has reinforced the case for a strong school library service in every school so that the reading habit will be acquired and reinforced, and the habit of library use established. In a rapidly changing society as ours, school children, as well as adults, need to have an ability to seek out and handle information themselves which will be of economic, social and cultural importance.
Curiously these new approaches to education already form part of the school pedagogy in many developing countries including Nigeria.

The functions of the school library as it relates to the educational and social needs of a country have been summarised by Berkeley as follows:

1. to support the evolving curriculum - helping users to become familiar with available materials appropriate to their needs and ensuring access to them. From this will follow the identification of gaps in published material, creating the opportunity to encourage total publishing to fill the need and to create in-house materials designed to meet educational objectives;

2. to provide facilities for improving and maintaining standards of literacy - both through the provision of materials for recreation and information and through guidance and encouragement in the selection and use of these materials;

3. to act as a liaison with outside agencies and services of information, encouraging their use and contributing to national library networks;

4. to create library users through training in the use of library services both within the school and beyond it. This will include the development of reference skills and the selection and evaluation of information, as well as thoroughly familiarizing all potential users with the skills to enable them to make optimal use of library facilities.

5.3.4.2 Planning a school library service

The provision of school library services in both primary and secondary schools will undoubtedly present many economic and financial problems for Nigeria. This section will therefore concentrate mainly on secondary schools including teacher training and technical colleges.
The first question one is apt to ask is whether there is a need to plan school library services. The answer is certainly yes. School libraries are most unplanned and uncoordinated, and the reason is that they have been totally ignored by both educational planners and school authorities. They have depended for their growth on the goodwill or enthusiasm of a teacher, usually a teacher of English language who has neither sufficient time nor training to enable him to organise the school library even to meet the absolute minimum standard. There has been a new thinking in recent years that school libraries should form part of a national library service. In other words a national policy for school library development should be an integral part of a national policy for library development. This makes more economic sense. Plans for national library development should be drawn up to be integrated into national library networks. There are obvious advantages for this kind of integration. Firstly, it will ensure an overall policy development. Secondly, it will make the best use of both human and material resources, thus balancing needs and scarce resources and arriving at a realistic set of priorities in National library provision. Finally, the qualifications and duties for school librarians should be part of the national plan for library development, since the most acute problem facing school libraries is that of lack of trained staff. Individually schools will find this problem almost unsurmountable, but centralized planning will achieve some of the desired results.

Berekely suggests that the first step towards the preparation of a national development for libraries will be to do a survey to assess
the library needs of a country in terms of existing library provision and the development required to meet the present and future educational, cultural and scientific needs (p.150). The advantage of this survey from the point of view of school library service is that even in a situation where books and libraries are scarce, there must be some rudimentary or ad hoc development of school libraries, and there are several examples of this in Nigeria. In many Federal Colleges and some well renowned Christian Mission Colleges there are some rudiments of library services upon which a well planned school library service can be built.

5.3.4.2.1 Centralized School Library development

The planning of a national library service including school library service involves several problems, not least of which are control and finance. The provision of a school library service like other library services, is usually not under one central body. School library development is usually the responsibility of one department of government - usually the Ministry of Education or other of its various agencies such as Schools Board, Teaching Service Commission etc. Integration of a national school library service will be made easier if all library provision is the responsibility of one department of Government. Alternatively, school library planners should liaise with the other bodies responsible for public or national library planning such as the Library Board of a state or the National Library Board. Ghana provides a good example of this kind of integration, but there are also a few similar models in Nigeria, where very good virile library statutes are established. The Anambra State Library Board,
the Bendel State Library Board, the Kaduna State Library Board, are a few examples where school library services have been integrated into the overall public library development of the states.

Experience from Nigeria has shown that centralization and integration of school library services will not succeed unless it has a strong government support and interest and a strong financial backing. Before the Civil War, the former Eastern Nigeria Library Board had both of these attributes and consequently, it had a well developed school library service. Because of the enormous cost involved in providing school library services, Berkeley has argued that for the school library service to be effective, it must be planned as part of a national library planning programme, supported by government finance and provided for in library legislation or in educational legislation. Unesco has also emphasised the contribution of school libraries to the NATIS concept by stating that:

In view of the increasing emphasis on learner-centred education, and the need to learn how to obtain up-to-date information, there is a strong case for making it a legal requirement that library services of a standard to be specified by regulations, shall be established in all recognised schools and vocational colleges. (22)

5.3.4.2.2 Problems of Centralization

Besides the problems of control and finance referred to earlier, the planning of a national school library service involves several other problems. Chief among these is staff. Lack of adequate trained staff is a major barrier to the development of a good school library service. As was noted earlier (section 3.4.2) the job of looking after a school library is usually the responsibility of the
teacher of English, who, according to M.Bird (1974) (23) "apart from having the most tedious task of all subject teachers in the way of marking students' exercise books, probably has to run the Dramatic Society and who, consequently, becomes a little tired of books and boys".

Both Jackson et al (24) and Berkeley suggest that a professionally qualified librarian be charged with the responsibility of developing school library services. Jackson et al are specific in suggesting that such a librarian should be recruited directly from a library school in Nigeria, or failing to get one, from outside. His first duty will be to survey the region in which the service is to be provided, and to collect all possible data - information on the number of schools, enrolment, staffing, siting and communications, as well as information on the existing library facilities in each school in the region. It must be made clear that Jackson et al are thinking of a centralized school library service, both administratively and technically, from where operational activities in schools will take place. Pilot library projects will be set up using circulating classroom libraries. Their proposed model of a school library service will be given at the end of this section.

Berkeley's proposal is in line with that of Jackson et al. She proposes that the head of the public library development should appoint a highly qualified and competent professional, capable and willing to liase with all departments and potential users. His expert advice should be sought by government on all matters relating to school library plans, standards for school library provision etc., and these should be drawn up to be used as yardstick for government funding and
as a measure of success. In all cases support for school libraries should have guaranteed funds to allow for expansion of service. Here again the concept is that of a centralized service serving regional centres as well as individual schools. If geographical areas to be covered are too large, it will be advisable to start with pilot projects, using mobile library vans for distribution of books and other materials, while planning to develop regional centres as services develop and staff become available.

5.3.4.2.3 Advantages of Centralized Services

There are several advantages which arise from centralized library services. Firstly, grants for library development channelled through a central agency will be more wisely used, and will facilitate speedy and efficient utilization. Secondly, materials supplied will be complete with all necessary processing done (e.g. book jackets, issue cards/tickets, catalogue cards etc). This has a further advantage of saving duplication of efforts and of ensuring a uniformity of standards which facilitates cooperative and inter-lending schemes essential to the integration of school libraries into national library network. Provision of books and other learning materials to schools through the central agency has yet another advantage of schools benefiting from the knowledge and expertise of professional librarians even if the schools themselves have none. Fourthly the librarian in charge of the centralized service will keep up-to-date with current materials of value to schools and make them available through the central service. He should be capable of keeping abreast and identifying and evaluating materials of potential value to schools,
from an ever increasing volume of publications from developed
countries. He must also try to discover gaps in local publishing
and advise indigenous publishers on how best to meet local needs
and aspirations. Above all the provision of minimum stocks and
basic standards of bibliographic organisation through a centralized
service are important first steps in school library development.

5.3.4.2.4 Education of School Librarians

Before discussing the education of librarians perhaps it is
pertinent to quote at length that gloomy picture of the school libraries
in Nigeria as seen by Jackson et al:

A dreary, dusty, poorly located room, labelled
library, full of unsuitable and often dilapidated
furniture with rows of multiple copies of
textbooks (usually outdated ones) and/or
unsuitable donations haphazardly arranged on
a shelf. Completing this heart sinking
picture is a large notice SILENCE. Once a
week each class is taken to the room and told
to pick a book and read but on no account must
they make a sound. The Principal is often very
proud of the library and complains that the
students do not use the donations but instead
waste their time reading novels. Could the
reason be perhaps that the Dental Practical's
handbook dated 1920 has no interest for them
or that the Bibliography of the American Navy is
not seen as essential reading by a Nigerian
School Certificate Candidate. (25)

That dreary picture of the Nigerian school library service does not
only indicate how undeveloped and appallingly rudimentary they are,
but it does indicate a total lack of trained library staff. This
problem can be solved in two or more ways. The first method involves
'dual qualifications' and this means training as both professional
librarian and as professional teachers. This category of staff will be
part of the teaching staff as well as being in charge of the school library. Fears are expressed about the success of this arrangement because there may be divergencies in both programmes. What for example, if one is training at a high professional or undergraduate professional level in librarianship while the only opportunities that exist for training in education are at a level lower than that of graduate librarianship? This arrangement is a long-term one, and with proper planning the objective can be achieved. One of the most convenient and economical ways is what is being experimented at the Ahmadu Bello University Zaria. The departmental requirement is that education students must take courses in librarianship as optional. The arrangement has a chance of working satisfactorily because the department of Library Science is within the department of Education both of which form the Faculty of Education. The aim of this programme is that education students who study library science will, on completion, be appointed to be in charge of the school library where they are teaching. Moreover in some of the Advanced teachers' Colleges like Kano and Zaria, students are required to take library science as their minor. They too can run and manage school libraries.

The second proposition is that the Central School library like the Lagos School Library service (supported by Unesco 1964) should be responsible for providing technical services (Cataloguing, classification, bibliographical services etc.). A qualified librarian should be assigned this task. A third proposition which has been tried in many places in Nigeria with little success, is that there will be in
each school a teacher-librarian for large schools who will be working part-time in the library. This seems to me to be the most desirable and suitable approach if it is properly planned. Experience has again shown (in Nigeria) that with extra pay for extra jobs done in the library usually outside school hours, and with regular in-service training teacher/librarians can be a dependable force for the development of school library services. In-service training can be undertaken at the central service which must have sufficiently trained staff willing to teach others.

5.3.4.2.5 Plan for a School Library Service

A school library plan should include an outline of the service as proposed by Jackson et al:

A. 1. A model library which will include all types of relevant materials including teachers' text-books. This will be a valuable aid to book selection as bookshops are scarce and of poor quality, and for practical training sessions.

2. Centralized purchasing and processings. e.g. the Lagos School Library Service.

3. Training facilities for teacher-librarians and library assistants.

4. Advice and assistance to follow up training given, help with furniture specifications etc.

5. Bulk loans and requests to supplement stocks.

6. Publications such as manuals and annotated bibliographical lists.

B. Enumerate and cost the essential items needed to implement the plan:

1. Staff in the Central Unit                   1 School librarian
    2 Librarians/library officers
2 Trainees with West African School Certificate (WASC).
2 Assistants
2 Typists
1 Accounts Clerks
1 Driver
1 Cleaner.

Above all there should be clear job descriptions for each category of works.

2. Building. Most school libraries start off in a temporary building, usually a small store. Efforts should be made to provide purpose-built accommodation whose areas will include space for the model library, administrative offices, seminar rooms and store/workshop or space area with outside access. Finally provision must be made for expansion.

3. Furniture and Equipment These should be produced locally if possible, or obtained within a normal school budget.

4. Stock The ideal number has to be worked out from available data - in relation to the population of the school to be served. However it is estimated that the basic minimum should be between 5,000 and 10,000 volumes. In addition provision for audio-visual materials should be made.

5. Transport At least, one all-weather vehicle is essential to run a satisfactory service including mobile library service. It should be permanently attached to the unit charged with the responsibility for transporting books and people.

5.3.4.2.6 Summary

The value of school library services has been aptly summed up by Bird by stating that:

School libraries play a great part in fostering a facility in reading so that it ceases to be a laborious chore and in widening the background of general knowledge which is all too pitifully lacking in children entering post-primary institutions not only from non-bookish homes but often from non-bookish primary schools. (26)

From the social point of view school libraries have a capacity of helping children to respect common property. School libraries also help children achieve independence in searching out and selecting information appropriate to their given assignments, or to their own leisure time occupation. Good school libraries are training grounds for students proceeding to institutions of higher learning where independent study is most important, teaching them also that the library is the natural place to obtain information.

All too often Nigerian students enter universities and other institutions of higher learning without the slightest idea of how to obtain information from the library. Many of them are even frightened by, and often get lost in the enormous size of library collections. Experience has shown that many Nigerian students graduate from Universities after three or more years without knowing how to use the library, a lot more still do not know the difference between reference materials and lending or circulating materials. An early start in school library use can help in instilling confidence in the new entrants to the universities in searching for information independent of the
teacher and even of library staff.

There are important factors that help in achieving the objectives of a school library service. First and foremost is the enthusiasm of the Principal. If a principal is convinced that a school library is vital to the progress of the school and not merely a show place where visitors are taken, if he is convinced that it is well-organised, well-stocked and well-used, and is one of the vital departments of the school, there is no reason why such a school library should not develop as well as it could. Moreover, it is rare these days when some Colleges of Education are offering library science as a minor, not to find one member of staff who is enthusiastic and capable of setting up and managing a school library so long as he is suitably encouraged by the Principal. The traditional attitude that only English language teachers can run a school library should be discouraged. Opposition to using English teachers as school librarians was made crystal clear by Sharr in his report quoted several times in this investigation. He opined that "What is required is interest ... and an open and enquiring mind, trained in one of the disciplines which encourage hard analytical thought. History, Science and Economics spring to mind as alternatives".

The second factor to consider is the state of the library itself - School libraries ought to be attractive. Children love beautiful things, including beautiful buildings. This is why educational planners are concerned about all that makes the school appear attractive - school buildings, furniture, school lawns with beautiful flowers etc. No pupil or student is going to use and
appreciate a gloomy, untidy, ill-organised library with its books in poor condition. Such a situation as has just been described only leads to problems of self control, disrespect for property and misappropriation of books. On the contrary an attractive library is capable of attracting readers, no matter its size.

The third factor is closely related to the state of the library discussed above. This is the question of books. Any school library to be really effective must have a good stock of books, maintaining a good balance in its reference and lending sections including fiction. The reference collection in which information is constantly sought, must be up-to-date, and of course, a good collection of well chosen newspapers, magazines and periodicals. This task requires careful selection but unfortunately it is the selection of suitable and well balanced collection that schools run into trouble. As Bird has pointed out "a considerable amount of injudicious selection and buying of books takes place in the dying days of the financial year when it is suddenly discovered there is some money left in the library vote or some order which has been budgeted for will not be fulfilled until the next financial year". It is precisely for the problems of book selection that suggestions have been made regarding the setting up of a central agency or School Library Service, which has been the subject of the foregoing discussion. In support of this proposition Sharr listed the following problems of selection: a lack of consistent policy; a lack of knowledge of pupils' difficulties and interests; the unfamiliarity of teachers with books outside their own academic background and private tastes; a lack of bibliographical information on books in print and new books; unskillful selection by
by teachers who had no training in the techniques of selection; and a lack of time to select books. Sharr argued that there was therefore a strong need for a central supply of a proportion of the books for all school libraries. Having set up a strong central supply centre, there must be an experienced librarian to be appointed and attached to the centre. His duties will be mainly to tour regularly in order to be aware of the particular problems, needs and character of each post-primary institution, and secondly to arrange the central purchase and despatch of the books to the schools. These books will be however centrally catalogued and classified. (27)

5.3.4.3 The role of academic libraries in education

The role of academic libraries in national development has already been discussed. Attention will be focused here on what impact the planning or non-planning of academic libraries has on the development and functioning of the university and the nation as a whole.

The planning and administration of university libraries is not the same thing as the planning of school or public libraries. University or academic libraries are entirely the responsibility of the university itself, which is an independent body.

5.3.4.3.1 Planning

It is common, indeed it has become a practice for Nigerian Universities and polytechnics to start off in temporary accommodation, some of them dilapidated. Some fortunate ones have started off in some older institutions that have ceased functioning. e.g. Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, inherited her teaching facilities from the former
Nigerian College of Arts Science and Technology. Among the facilities inherited were books and a small building used as the College library. Any institution of higher learning that starts in this way develops very slowly.

Planning at an early stage of an institution is a prerequisite for the rapid growth of the library. Unfortunately in Nigeria new universities do not appoint the University Librarian until after the planning stage. Some delay the appointment of the Librarian for as long as one year or more. Of the 22 universities in Nigeria at present (many of which were established between 1980 and 1982) at least three had no librarians before the end of 1982. The same applies to polytechnics and Colleges of Arts Science and Technology. In a number of others the first library position to advertise is that of the library officer or assistant. The danger of this abnormal practice is that when finally the librarian is employed he cannot fit his library development plan into the overall university development plan. A plan requires the formulation of appropriate objectives, followed by the development of programmes designed to achieve those goals or objectives. Goals to be reached by the end of a definite time period of say, 5 to 15 years, are then established. Once the agreement is reached on time-frame, effort is made to determine what must be accomplished each year if the final goals are to be achieved. Effective university library planning is based largely on the programmes of teaching and research of the university. The essential elements involved in planning and management of the university library are:

(a) Collection and evaluation of relevant data cost-benefit analysis, and
McCarthy argues that lack of information on library activities is one of the most serious weaknesses of university library management, and this is obvious when the university librarian is not employed at the inception of the institution.

The planning process must take cognisance of the amount of pertinent data required in management; accumulation of the necessary facts, and sufficient time to be allowed for their interpretation and evaluation.

Earlier on we referred to cost-benefit analysis as an essential element of planning. What cost-benefit ratios attempt to do is to determine costs of facilities and services as they relate to their roles in the achievement of goals of the organisation. For example, some services may be inexpensive but they may not be important. On the other hand some services may be quite expensive but vital for library service.

The sum total of what has been discussed so far is that the appointment of a University Librarian like that of a polytechnic is, in the words of Sam Ifidon 'an after thought'. This unfortunate happening shows clearly a lack of appreciation of the place of libraries in the educational progress and research potentials of academic libraries.

Recruitment of the University Librarian after the planning stage of the institution has led to gaps in the university library's collections. Because of the under-developed publishing industry and book trade in Nigeria, most of the university book requirements, especially
of research nature and in the sciences and technology, are imported from abroad. When orders are made it takes at least six months, sometimes one year before they arrive. Administrative procedures within the institutions and the Central Bank do not help matters either. There are usually long, cumbersome procedures for settling invoices once books are received. Overseas suppliers become suspicious and unwilling to honour any further orders until pre-payments are made.

These problems cannot be totally eliminated but they can be minimised, and one way to do this is to appoint a librarian at the planning stage of the institution so that he can employ his own staff who will participate in the planning of the library programmes to be integrated into the university curriculum development. Failure to do so usually means very small volumes of books and periodicals for libraries after several years of the establishment of the institution. This situation seriously affects the first intake of students who are without sufficient and relevant learning materials. It also affects academic staff who would like to use the library for serious research.

Below are a few illustrations of the state of some of the new universities in terms of their library collections and population:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UNIVERSITY</th>
<th>Bk.Collection</th>
<th>Student Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Anambra University of Technology, Enugu (1980)</td>
<td>in process of formation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Federal University of Technology, Bauchi (1980)</td>
<td>in process of formation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
UNIVERSITY  

5. Federal University of Technology, Owerri (1980)  
8. Rivers State University of Technology, Port Harcourt (1980)*  

Bk. Collection  
1,075 vols.  
20,000 vols.  
no librarian  
in process of formation  
45,000 vols.  

Student Population  
195  
300  
250  
in process of formation  
3,186  


Note: Dates in brackets indicate when the institutions were established.  

* This university although is as new as the others but has more book collection than any other one listed because the collections of the former College of Technology, from which the university sprang, formed the nucleus of the new university.  

5.3.5 Adult Education  

Adult education has a particular meaning in developing countries. It has always been linked with literacy, which is ability to read and write in one's own language. This is as it should be because in countries where the majority of the population is illiterate the concept of adult education could not mean anything else. In advanced countries where illiteracy is not a major problem adult education has a different connotation. It refers to life long education since it is possible that even in these countries, school leavers could relapse into illiteracy, the kind Professor Benge refers to as 'illiteracy by atrophy'. (30)
Illiteracy has long been regarded as an obstacle to development. In developing countries it is even seen as a cause of underdevelopment, although Benge refutes this claim, arguing that it is poverty that is the cause of illiteracy and that illiteracy itself is only a symptom of underdevelopment. Since illiteracy is only a symptom and not a cause of underdevelopment, argues Benge, it cannot be eradicated until other social transformations have taken place. These include the eradication of poverty as well.

Earlier adult education programmes in Africa consisted mainly of teaching adults how to read and write in their own language. Unfortunately these programmes were misconceived. First of all, most of the vernacular languages were not national, and as long as English and French remain the official national languages, written local languages have no educational appeal to the adults. They do not carry "a passport to material advancement". Secondly, the method of instruction consisted of using primers which were not related to the everyday life of the people. The failure of this 'traditional literacy' saw the introduction of yet another concept, functional literacy, largely because of the effort of Unesco. Functional literacy is defined as work-oriented literacy related to the problems, needs, and interests of given groups. In this new approach, adults are encouraged to learn to write and read words which are related to their environment or special needs and occupations e.g. agriculture, health care, commerce, transport etc.

The introduction of functional economic literacy has not been the success it was envisaged by the Unesco. At best, there may be
large numbers of adults registered in a country, at worst there has been no noticeable improvement in the socio-economic life of the participants. Some fundamental weaknesses of the functional literacy will be examined later in this section.

5.3.5.1 Adult Education in other countries

1.1 Adult education movement in the United States and the role of libraries

Adult education movement began in the United States soon after the First World War. After the Second World War it was intensified by the activities which were intended to place industry on a war basis to inform the public about the issues of the war and peace, and to make clear the principles and ideals of democracy. In the pursuit of its educational function the American Library Association (ALA) established an Adult Education Board and a Committee on Readable Books. Through the Committee on Readable Books the A.L.A. cooperated with the American Association of Adult Education (AAAE) and jointly they carried out a number of studies which concerned reading interest and abilities of adults to learn. But it was the division of labour introduced by the ALA that went a long way in achieving the objectives of the programme.

The Cleveland public library set up a special branch representing the 'different nationalities' and cultures of the foreign-born residents of the city to stimulate their education.

The Chicago Public Library in 1942 established a 'Pamphlet Selling Service' in its Circulation Department to provide mass information on current national issues and world events.
The Lincoln Library of Springfield III developed a programme of education, both formal and informal, involving teachers as well as forums - discussion groups and evening classes through out the year. It thus satisfied the educational informational and cultural functions of the public library. The New York Public Library through its Readers' Advisers' Department effectively promoted study by individuals and groups. The A.L.A. Adult Education Board generally concerned itself with planning, advising libraries concerning new developments, and cooperating with other A.L.A. boards and committees and agencies engaged in adult education activities. The main areas in which the A.L.A. as an official body and some individual libraries gave successful adult educational leadership were defence, war and post-war reconstruction.

Yet in spite of these achievements some one's 'considered judgement' was"that their achievement had been slight". The significance of this 'considered judgement' is not to be seen entirely in the failure of American libraries to respond to national needs, but it should be seen in the context of the high expectations of the American people from a social institution or service that was expected to give leadership in an aspect of education considered to be its responsibility.

Wilson has drawn the following conclusion from John Chancellors' considered judgement:

The situation is unfortunate for the nation and for libraries. For the nation it means the lack of full service from an institution which, it is generally agreed, is ideally situated to provide it at a moment when the nation greatly needs practical support for its war effort and aid in acquainting the
citizenry with the issues which will grow out of the war and peace. For libraries it means partial failure not only to serve the nation, but failure to adapt themselves fully to educational procedure which is essential to their own continued existence. (33)

Because of the special demands on libraries which arise out of the activities of adult education, Wilson suggests the following steps:

1. a change of attitudes towards adult education held by librarians;
2. a different type of education for the personnel of public libraries which will better fit it for educational services;
3. financial support through local, state and federal aid which will place adult education on a statewide, organised basis comparable to that of the public school;
4. the development of collections of materials in print and in other forms, carefully adjusted to the specific needs of the communities served, and
5. the utilization of forums, discussion groups, the showing of educational films and the promotion of additional means of getting materials to those who need them.

Views about public libraries and adult education stubbornly persist in the U.S.A. since it is generally agreed that the public library is 'an active ally of public education'. Both librarians and educators in the U.S.A. have come to agree that of all the library obligations 'adult education must be singled out' as the one providing the best opportunity for the public library. It is necessary to emphasise these points because when we come to discuss adult education in Nigeria, we shall be able to see the problems in perspective. The gaps between those who plan adult education and those who plan library services are wide apart. This is very significant from the development point of view.
1.2 The British Experience:

Elsewhere in this chapter it was pointed out that the concept of adult education as understood in developing countries is different from its meaning in advanced countries with high percentages of literacy. A Committee of Inquiry to investigate the problems of adult education in England and Wales[^34] did not think it was right to make a definitive distinction between 'adult' education and any other form of education. Education, whether of adults or whatever, should be "concerned with developing the ability of the individual to understand and articulate". It should be concerned with the development of man, his knowledge, skills, judgement and creativity throughout adult life, and not necessarily for specific, occupational training. It is evidently clear that the British government regards adult education as an important component of the whole process of education. The only distinction that can perhaps be made is that this kind of education is directed at specific target groups, and the curriculum will be determined by the particular socio-economic conditions of the time. For example, the Russell Report, stressing the need for a comprehensive adult education programme states that (p.8)

The pressures of our society, which create or exacerbate the needs from which these demands emerge, set up a Darwinian situation in which the educationally fittest survive. But they are a minority. Almost three-quarters of the adult population left school at the minimum leaving age; three-fifths of today's adults received their schooling before the leaving age was raised to fifteen; better opportunities for technical education and the broadening of entry into further and higher education came too late to benefit them, and the fresh approaches
to education that are transforming many schools, notably primary schools, with whole new dimensions of educational experience, are unknown and inaccessible to all but today's children.

The report goes on to emphasise the role of adult education that "It is central to our argument for a comprehensive service of adult education that deficiencies of educational opportunity must be remedied so that every individual has the educational resources, not only to fulfil himself as a person, but to play his full part in society."

Having established the need for adult education activities, the committee went on to identify the various agencies contributing to the success of the scheme. First, there were agencies supplying adult education. The largest providers of adult education, according to the report, were Local Education Authorities which in 1968/69 enrolled 1,700,000 students, employed 800 full-time teachers and nearly 80,000 part-time staff, while expenditure on adult education was £16 million. Adult education activities consisted mainly of domestic arts and crafts, painting, a whole range of activities. The report summed it all up like this:

The needs being met by adult education are clear enough; creativity and craftsmanship in an age of mass production; enrichment of the home environment and of family activity; benefit from social mobility and enhanced opportunity, and voluntary association with others of like interest. (35)

The second largest providers were the universities which in 1968/69 catered for some 163,000 students, employed about 285 full-time teachers and spent £2½ million on adult education activities. The universities' main activities were directed particularly at the
educationally deprived, especially women and manual workers. These extension activities gave rise to an alliance between the universities and the Workers Educational Association (WEA).

Due to recent changes in educational, social, economic and political structures of present societies, universities' adult education activities have been modified, and have moved towards meeting 'the demands of the better educated'. Subjects of study include archaeology, local history, natural history and social studies. But the distinguishing feature of the great bulk of university adult education is the pre-eminent intellectual demands it makes on students, enabling them 'to think and work independently in the best traditions of university scholarship'.

The third major providers of adult education are the Workers' Educational Association who are concerned with adult education either in partnership with the universities or independently but with aid coming directly from the Department of Education and Science. In 1968/69 WEA catered for 150,000 students and spent £1 million. Their subject areas of major concern are social and economic studies providing a background for voluntary action in social work, politics, trade unions and local government.

The adult education scene in Great Britain is interesting for three main reasons. First, it aims at developing the whole man and once that development has been achieved, the individual is capable of adapting himself to any occupational situation he desires. Second, adult education is such an important activity that joint efforts are required to achieve its objectives, hence it has been fostered by
the partnership of central government, local Education Authorities, voluntary organisations and the Workers' Educational Association.

It must be pointed out however, that the sociological circumstances under which adult education is organised in Great Britain or the United States, are different from those in Nigeria. For example, the evolution of Workers' Educational Association was a consequence of industrialisation and the emergence of industrial working class, which is not yet prominent in Nigeria. However, these examples are quoted to indicate what might be regarded as a fragmentation of adult education activity by the various agencies in Great Britain. Yet they all look to the public library as the most suitable social institution to provide a service for this life-long education. In fact adult education programmes in both Great Britain and the United States are actively supported by public libraries, museums, art galleries, arts centres, archives, broadcasting organisations, correspondence colleges including universities, and commercial agencies.

This is sharply in contrast to the situation in Nigeria where adult education promotion is almost entirely the responsibility of the government supported rather ineffectively by local authorities, and without any reference to the role of public libraries in promoting adult education.

The Russell Report states (p.41) unequivocally that Public Libraries are a standing reservoir of source materials for the student. In addition, they may lend collections of books for limited periods to adults, institutions of all kinds or to individual classes. The report added that some urban libraries promote educational activities
for adults direct, including lectures, exhibitions, films shows, concerts and theatre. (36)

Successful adult education or literacy programmes cannot be divorced from information agencies including the broadcasting authorities such as radio and television.

1.3 Adult Education in Nigeria

Adult education movement began in the Metropolitan Lagos, and its first programme was started in 1948. The aim of the programme was to eradicate illiteracy in Yoruba and later in English in the then Lagos Province. By 1963 it became possible for the products of adult education classes to seek employment in industry and the public service. During the same period the programme was divided into two categories, the literacy and the primary classes. In 1964 this responsibility was transferred from the Federal Ministry of Education to the Lagos City Council, and by 1965, 46 adult centres were opened with a student enrolment of 5,789 in both categories. Post-primary adult education was introduced to cater for the products of primary schools who could not further their education as well as those secondary school drop-outs and those who failed the School Certificate examination. In 1965 the Federal Ministry of Education set up six evening adult education classes but in 1967 they were handed over to the Lagos State Ministry of Education. By 1969 the student enrolment had risen to 2,902. (37)

The university of Lagos has embarked upon adult education programmes of a different kind, similar to those in Great Britain discussed above. It has introduced correspondence education courses
preparing adult students for the external degrees of the university in some selected areas or disciplines. Similarly, the Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, has introduced an adult education programme in its 'University of the air'. And only recently a bill for the establishment of the 'Open University' was submitted to the National Assembly by the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The writer understands the bill has now been passed by the National Assembly.

It is important to make a distinction between adult education programmes run by the various governmental agencies in Nigeria and those run by the universities. The university adult education programmes are directed at those adults with post-secondary education while the governments and their agencies are concerned with the millions of illiterates living mostly in rural areas of the country. The Federal Government of Nigeria has incorporated adult education in the Fourth National Development Plan, but the money voted for the programme is pitifully small relative to the dimensions of the programme. Known as 'Mass Literacy Campaign Stage I', the programme has an allocation of N19 million. Stage I of the campaign commenced in 1982 and has as its target the achievement of functional literacy by a minimum of 6-8 million Nigerian adults during the current plan period. Other state governments also have programmes for adult education during the plan period. Bauchi State has allocated N1.500 million for the programmes; Benue State has made a budget of N0.500 million; Rivers State N0.400 million; Kano State which has taken a more dynamic and coercive attitude to the programme, proposes to open 215 adult education centres. Unfortunately there are no statistics on its proposed
expenditure on the programme. Kano has one of the largest illiteracy population in terms of ability to read and write in English, the official language of communication and business at present. The state government has taken a very radical approach to solving the problem of illiteracy by making it mandatory that all civil servants in the service of the Kano State government who are not sufficiently literate must attend adult education classes. The penalty for non-compliance is immediate and unconditional loss of one's job. The use of coercion, we are told by Paulo Freire, has succeeded in almost all communist countries. Perhaps it will succeed in Kano State in Nigeria.

In all other states literacy programmes have been more or less unsuccessful because the approach to adult education has not shown any total commitment by the governments. Even in Kano State the government may succeed in compelling only civil servants to attend adult education classes. What happens to the other adults who are not civil servants? For them attendance is not compulsory. Furthermore no provision is made for the women in purdah.

It is easy to understand why adult educational planning in Nigeria has not been wholly successful. The first fundamental weakness is that it is artificially separated both administratively and ideologically from the formal education process. The Russell Committee on adult education in England and Wales already referred to, warned against this danger, and preferred to treat adult education as part of the formal process of education. In Nigeria those who plan adult education and those who plan libraries are quite different agencies. To provide an effective planning they will need to work together as a team.
Attendance at adult education class is voluntary. This means that where motivation is weak, the drop-out rate is bound to be high. Adult education suffers from insufficient funding like other services such as libraries. The status of the adult education officers employed by the Local Authorities is so low that they have no serious commitment to their job. Moreover the division between adult education officers employed by government and those employed by the local authorities does not augur well for the promotion of adult education in Nigeria. Finally lack of follow-up literature, particularly in the vernacular language, leads ultimately to relapse into illiteracy. Too often literature cannot be produced or when it is available, there are hardly any libraries or bookshops to distribute it. There is a need for adult educational planners and library planners to integrate their efforts because the public library is an indispensable agency in adult education.

To conclude this chapter on educational planning and library development, it is important to say something about private students in Nigeria. There are thousands of Nigerians studying privately for various examinations. Some of these are internationally controlled, like Pitman and Gregg, some are nationally controlled like the West African Examinations Council (WAEC), while others are privately controlled by professional bodies like the institutes (of Accounting, Surveyors, Banking). Students preparing for these examinations rely solely on very dry and sketchy lectures prepared by these bodies, without any other sources of information or reference. This is why during the 'peak season' when students are preparing for these examinations, some of the well organised public libraries like Enugu, Imo
and Benin public libraries, are usually full to capacity, while others without these facilities, labour painfully and with arduous tenacity to succeed, too often success eluding them.

Having passed through the same system (three odd years with the Rapid Results College, London) for my A levels, one cannot fail to be aware of the hardship faced by private students in a society lacking adequate and satisfactory public library services. Plans for educational development are not complete until adequate provisions for public libraries are included in the overall educational development plans.

NOTES


8. Quoted from Ekpe op.cit. p.12.


22. Quoted from Berkeley op.cit. p.152.


25. Ibid. p.37.


32. Quoted from Wilson *op.cit.* p.53.

33. Ibid. p.53.


35. Ibid. p.5.

36. Ibid. p.42.

6.1. A General Overview

The history of publishing and the book industry in Nigeria, and indeed, Africa, has been well documented both in local and international literature on librarianship and general publishing as a discipline. My 1976 BLS dissertation on the Current State of Printing and Publishing in Nigeria contains a bibliography of 30 titles relevant to the Nigerian book industry. Professor Benge's recent book Cultural Crisis and Libraries in the Third World (1979) published by Bingley, also contains several references on the chapter dealing with publishing in Africa.

In a historical perspective, publishing is still in its embryonic stage, having started only in the first half of the twentieth century against a background of educational and political reforms culminating into intense nationalism. Nationalist activities obviously increased the demand for education, and the need for better and more textbooks became obvious. Publishing executives from Europe and America began to make inroads into Africa with a view to finding suitable markets for their products - published materials mainly for primary and secondary schools. There were few higher institutions of learning, and perhaps it was thought economically unviable to cater for the needs of higher education. Competition was mainly between Americans and British publishing firms, but it was the British publishers that were most successful in Nigeria. The success of the British
publishing houses no doubt reflected the histo-political Colonial relationship that existed between the two countries for several decades. British publishers have constantly watched the changing educational philosophy and the progressive stages of Nigerian nationalism. For example, in the first part of the Colonial period when everything British was considered superior to all others, and suitable for Nigeria, 'standard' English school books, which were by no means relevant to our cultural needs, were imported for use in Nigerian schools, 'for better or for worse'. With the changing educational philosophy that a child learns best from his own local and immediate experience, attempts began to be made to produce educational materials with Nigerian background. Again it was the British publishers who prepared texts for Nigerian schools.

Overseas based publishers have made remarkable progress in the development of publishing in Nigeria. Before independence nearly all the books that were used in Nigerian schools, including primary schools, were foreign in both content and attitudes. Today much of the publishing in Nigeria has been localised and this is one of the greatest contributions made by overseas based firms we shall be examining in the later sections of this chapter.

6.2. Book Publishing

The production of print is a process that has a direct bearing on the intellectual, cultural and ideological life of a nation. It is an expression of cultural freedom to which many nations are apparently committed. It is this belief in the cultural value of the print that one of Nigeria's finest novelists, Achebe, once reminded
local publishers in the following words: Indigenous publishing is therefore seen as an essential element in this 'cultural revolution' which will ensure that our literature grows 'out of the social dynamics of Africa'. Yet little effort is made by developing countries to boost a virile book industry in their territories. The underdevelopment of the book industry is an obstacle to cultural freedom, but it is also an illustration of 'the realities of neo-colonialism' and how deeply entrenched is the system.

One of the most common features of book publishing in Nigeria is the predominance of foreign-based, particularly British-based, publishing firms. Represented by the Oxford University Press, Longman Nigerian Ltd., MacMillan Nigeria Publishers, Ltd., Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., Thomas Nelson and Evans Brothers (Nig.) Ltd., the foreign firms have a success history of about 30 years in Nigeria. Perhaps this 30 year success is due to post-Colonial advantage as suggested by Professor Benge (1979). (1) A contrary view is however held by Mitchel who attributes the success history of the British-based publishing firms to the fact that 'British publishing industry is the most productive in the world' having an annual output of some 33,000 titles. (2) Mitchel's rejection of the argument of 'an entrenched system of neo-Colonialism' is not surprising, having himself come from one of the most successful British publishing firms in Nigeria, the Oxford University Press.

6.3. International Activities

As in other areas of library, information and documentation services, the Unesco has been in the forefront in the development and
promotion of publishing in Third World countries. It has organised and sponsored international conferences on book development in these countries. Tokyo (1966), Accra (1968), Bagota (1969). Another Unesco expert meeting on National Planning of Documentation and Library Services in Africa was held at Kampala, Uganda in 1970, and it discussed book development in Africa. In Nigeria a Conference on publishing was held at the University of Ife in 1973. This Conference drew participants from all parts of the world representing professionals from all areas concerned with the book trade. Recommendations and resolutions of the Ife Conference were published in 1975 by the University of Ife Press and the document has since been serving as a basic reference tool for African governments who wish to plan book development in their areas. It is now 9 years after the Ife Conference, yet no positive action in this direction has been observed in any African country. Too much lip service has been paid to the development of indigenous book industries in Africa. The acknowledgement by African governments that the growth of indigenous publishing is necessary for development is not matched by positive action. What has so far been achieved in Africa is the establishment of the Centre Regional de Promotion du Livre en Afrique (Regional Book Promotion Centre) with its headquarters at Yaunde, Cameroon (for Africa South of the Sahara). The functions of the centre are as follows:

1. Thorough investigation into the problems of book development in Africa.
2. Ensuring the pooling together of the resources of all the different countries for book promotion in the region.
3. The organisation of programmes for professional training.
4. Encouraging and assisting publishers in the region to embark upon co-publishing projects, using common background illustrations for texts printed in different languages.

5. The collection and dissemination of information on book promotion and book use.

6. The search for publishers for African authors. (3)

Another result of international activity with regard to Nigeria is the establishment of the Nigerian Book Development Council (NBDC) in 1973. Following the recommendations of the Accra Conference of 1968, the Nigerian Book Development Council was established as 'a non-profit making government agency to initiate, coordinate and stimulate the activities of government and private sector agencies in the development of the book industry of Nigeria to the end that more and better books of all kinds, and responding to our national goals and aspirations, may be made available at the lowest possible costs to readers of all ages, and in all parts of the federation'. (4)

6.3.1 Functions of the Nigerian Book Development Council

The functions of the Nigerian Book Development Council are as follows:

1. To ensure that the book industry is treated as an integral part of the country's industries and to formulate plans and policies regarding book industry, develop and present these plans to governments as a means of ensuring that planning for book development is given appropriately high priority in the overall national development plans.

2. To bring together the different groups, public and private, concerned with book industry problems so that all may become aware
of the problems and of the contributions of all other sectors of the book field, and to coordinate the efforts of all parties engaged in the book industry.

3. To support and strengthen associations with the book industry where they exist, and to urge the formation of such groups where they do not.

4. To encourage the establishment and maintenance of high professional, technical and ethical standards in all segments of the book field.

5. To create and foster the book-reading habit among all age groups.

6. To commission, carry out, support or encourage investigations and researches into problems, habits, etc. concerning the development of the book industry and the provision of an effective service to the reading public.

7. To gather, disseminate and generally act as a clearing house of information on all aspects of the book industry.

8. To improve performance in every segment of the book community, and the literary and artistic standard of the industry by recommending, encouraging, supporting, sponsoring or organising training courses, seminars, conferences, workshops, exhibitions, festivals, awards, establishment of permanent training institutions devoted to the various aspects of the book industry and the award of student bursaries for training in the various disciplines of the industry.

9. To cooperate with national agencies such as the National Library, the Nigerian Educational Research Council, the Language Centre etc.
whose activities impinge on the development of production, distribution and use of books for concerted effort for the attainment of national goals.

10. To protect the industry by suggesting to government whenever necessary, the removal of trade barriers, the elimination or reduction of taxes on spare parts, raw materials, and paper for the book industry, the reduction of postal rates for books and by keeping copyright and deposit laws constantly under review.

11. To gain recognition from those agencies concerned with national economic and social development of the importance of the book industry as the provider of the essential tools of education which is the keystone for developing any nation.

12. To maintain contact with similar agencies in the other countries of the region and with international and professional bodies concerned with book industry development in order to both receive and give assistance in the developing of the book industries of the region.

13. To promote in any other way not mentioned, the advancement of the book industry in Nigeria.

The activities of the Nigerian Book Development Council are, to say the least, low keyed. Nine years after its establishment, its influence on the book industry is yet to be felt. The reason for this may be that the Council is government-controlled and administered, and as such, is hampered by the 'slow-grinding machinery of government bureaucracy'. (5)
In 1977 the Nigerian government announced the setting up of yet another company, the National Publishing and Printing Company (NNPC). The National Publishing and Printing Company was established to work in collaboration with the Nigerian Book Development Council to provide facilities for the printing industries, and on the publishing side, the company was given the responsibility of publishing worthy manuscripts, particularly in local languages. This is the aspect of the publishing industry that does not attract profit-oriented commercial publishers, and it was envisaged that a government agency without a profit motive would be more successful in this venture. Unfortunately little is heard of the company since its formation six years ago. Perhaps another case of the 'slow-grinding machinery of government bureaucracy'?

The achievements of the Nigerian Book Development Council have so far been minimal. It has been able to organise only workshops and to mount exhibitions. In 1980 the Council organised a workshop for writers of children's literature, both in Lagos and at Kaduna. The 'modus operandi' of the workshop was to provide "a forum for discussion and examination of the different factors that influence creative writing". Although the organisers of the workshop described it as successful, one is not particularly impressed by reported attendance of only 27 participants supposedly drawn from all the parts of the country.

6.4. Publishing Factors

Any discussion about publishing in Nigeria must be related to two main issues, the issues of foreign-based and indigenous publishing
firms. Indeed the publishing industry in Nigeria is torn between two opposing concepts, namely, pre-Colonial and indigenous - while the former is much older spreading over a period of thirty years, and much more established, the latter is still in its embryonic stage. In order to have a fair appreciation of the stages of development of both the indigenous and non-indigenous firms, we need to apply William Mitchel's 'four-stage development model'. According to this model or classification, 'Development Stage 1' starts with a "U.K. based representative touring the book trade and educational institutions to look for market opportunities". Development Stage 2 is typically the formation of an overseas editorial department having a base in Britain. The editor's job is to travel around the country commissioning books or soliciting manuscripts.

Development Stage 3 is the appointment of locally based staff (in Nigeria) and Development Stage 4 is the point at which local publishing begins. At Stage 4, the locally based organization, equipped with capital and manpower, can venture into indigenous publishing, that is to commission, edit, design and produce books on the spot.

This model was used by Oxford University Press to explain how they developed but the experiences of other overseas-based publishing firms may not be quite different.

6.4.1 The Non-Indigenous Publisher

Mitchel (1972) defines the non-indigenous publisher as "a company in which a non-Nigerian parent corporation holds a majority ownership interest". In the case of Nigeria the parent corporation
is almost without exception, a British publishing house. Representing
the British publishing houses are Oxford University Press, which
reached its third stage of development - appointment of locally
based staff - in 1949 with the appointment of T.T. Solaru as branch
manager; Longman Nigeria Ltd., MacMillan Educational Publishers Ltd.,
Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., Thomas Nelson, Cambridge University
Press and Evans Brothers Ltd. All these companies have their sub-
sidiaries in Nigeria. They are also partly indigenised. A survey
carried out by the writer in 1976(8) revealed an encouraging trend
towards localization or to use the more familiar word, indigenization,
of foreign-based firms. The Oxford University Press which opened its
branch in Nigeria in 1948 and appointed its first indigenous manager
was fully Nigerianised by 1963, and today it has not less than eight
editors for local publishing. Almost all of its 140 staff (in 1976)
were Nigerians. Editorial control is Nigerianised so that decisions
to publish are taken in Nigeria. Royalties to both foreign and
Nigerian authors are paid in Nigeria. Moreover its company tax is
part of the Nigerian Government revenue.

Heinemann Educational Books has an all Nigerian staff. Its
Nigerian Director is Aig Higo. Its publications cover almost all
subjects at all levels of education. Its African Writers' series
launched in 1958 with Chinua Achebe's 'Things Fall Apart' is unique.
Longman (Nig.) Ltd., was opened in Nigeria in the sixties. Its
Nigerian Management Director is Felix Iwerebon. The Company is about
98% indigenised. It is about the largest publishing house in Nigeria.
Evans Brothers (Nig.Ltd.) was established as a Nigerian Company in
1966, although its association with Nigeria dates much further back.
It has a team of field officers travelling throughout the country visiting educational institutions and government departments. MacMillan Publishers Ltd. became Nigerianised in 1965, but only partially, although its establishment in Nigeria was in 1962. It also has a Nigerian as its general manager. Thomas Nelson became a Nigerian company in 1965. It is partly indigenised but it has been training Nigerians to fill the critical gaps created by the absence of professional African publishing personnel. Its printing is done abroad but warehousing and distribution are done in Nigeria. Cambridge and London University Presses both of which have their offices in Ibadan, have been slower in getting well established in the country. The main reason for this slow development, is that both companies specialise in academic publishing which is not yet a profitable venture in Nigeria as will be seen later.

The analysis of the foreign-based firms so far has pointed to one significant direction: whether they are partially or fully indigenised, they contribute to the process of technology transfer and the development of a flourishing local industry. This argument is challenged by those who believe that the mere existence of these foreign-based companies prevents the growth of the local industry. Indeed, it would be wrong, as suggested by Robert Fraser, in West Africa of 28 February 1983 (p.539) that 'were the multinationals to disappear, the path would be clear for these (local) companies to monopolise the market'. The soundest solution for everyone is to encourage and maintain a free market in which a constructive partnership between local initiative and the multinationals and their subsidiaries is possible.
There is no doubt that a partnership between overseas publishing houses and indigenous entrepreneurs works only to the advantage of the former. Apart from having sufficient technical expertise, foreign firms are heavily capitalised while local firms are lacking not only in technical expertise, but they are also heavily under-capitalised. On balance however, the non-indigenous publishers have been able to meet a need vital for the educational development programmes of Nigeria. On the other hand, it is doubtful if this need could have been met by the indigenous publishers. Secondly, the Africanisation of the infrastructure which is being achieved methodically and constructively bodes well for the future of the publishing industry in Nigeria.

Mitchel makes an interesting analogy between British-based companies. In terms of ownership criteria of non-indigenousness, British publishers are the same as other overseas companies. But in terms of production they are different. For example, while a British electrical company may produce or manufacture for the general market, the book company produces specifically for Nigerian market. Nearly all their books are produced for the Nigerian market. The supply of text books for the Universal Primary Education, Teacher Training Colleges, etc., is undertaken mostly by foreign firms. This is the dilemma facing Nigerian government. On the one hand government favours an indigenous publishing industry, and on the other, government contract for the supply of basic textbooks to schools is given to foreign companies in the confidence that they will most competently execute the contract. Is there any middle course for government to take? It is a question to be resolved by the Nigerian Book Development Council.
6.4.2 Problems of the Non-Indigenous Publisher

"Publishing feels the pinch" is the title of Robert Fraser's recent article on publishing problems in the Third World generally but in Africa in particular, Fraser has focused on 30 years of boom enjoyed by the international publishers, and draws attention to the problems they face now as a result of the world recession which seems to hit developing countries most. The implications this recession has on Africa has been highlighted.

6.4.2.1 Economic Problems

Multinational publishing firms which were active and buoyant in the last 30 years in Africa are now working under restrictive conditions owing to the general economic crisis. Although the problems are faced by nearly all the non-indigenous firms, Fraser gives the impression that Longman has been most hit. The company has problems not only of repatriating their profits from Lagos, Nigeria to the United Kingdom, but it also faces the problem of unwillingness of some state governments to remit monies to the Central Bank in Lagos. As a result up to £10 million in sterling of Longman's profits are tied up in the regions of Africa. The company faces a similar problem from Kenya in East Africa. These problems have compelled the company not only to prune some of its forward programmes, but it has also been unable to balance the company accounts. The withholding of the company's revenues by governments has resulted in a chain of events which are quite unfavourable: it hurts the editors and other employees, as well as distributors and readers; secondly fewer books are on the market. There are reported cases of piracy on a scale never known
before in Africa. Many international publishers are known to have suffered piracy from their books for reprinting at cheaper rates. As insufficient returns in investment is experienced by publishers, confidence is eroded, fewer and fewer titles are published each year, and as demand increases disproportionately to supply prices of books have gone up astronomically.

6.4.2.1.1 Tarrif Policies

As part of import control measures in most African countries experiencing the worst economic recession for decades, Nigeria has put tight squeeze on importation of printing material into the book market. This particular measure has pinched nearly everyone engaged in the book trade. But in times of economic crisis any country has the choice to take any measure to save its foreign exchange reserves, and library planners ought to understand this economic 'trick' so that unwarranted attacks on government policies could be avoided. The case for government can even be made stronger and defended if there exist alternative means of achieving the objectives of government. However, where there are no alternatives of supply of essential materials such measures as the ban on importation of books and journals including other printing materials, is hard to defend. In the whole of Nigeria there is only one paper manufacturing industry at Jebba and this hardly meets the demands of the nation. A ban on importation of printing paper at present in Nigeria when there is no plan to establish more paper industries, nor expand the existing one at Jebba, is certain to be counter productive.
6.4.3 The Indigenous Publisher

Iroaganachi (1966) defines indigenous publishing as "any publishing carried out by:

a. an entirely Nigerian house, or
b. a joint Nigerian-expatriate house where the Nigerian participation is at least 51 percent in terms of Capital investment,
c. the editorial control of such a publishing house should be in the hands of Nigerians,
d. profits of such venture should be ploughed back into the enterprise in Nigeria. (10)

Indigenous commercial publishing is still in its embryonic stage in Nigeria. The reason for this is attributed rightly or wrongly to the existence of expatriate commercial firms which publish almost all the educational books for which there is a guaranteed market. Many local publishers have come up only to wind up a few years later because of lack of capital. The buoyancy of local publishing enterprise which began in the 1950s has vanished. As Fraser rightly points out 'the efficiency of a national book market, however, is not only a question of number. It also depends crucially on a comprehensive network of bookshops, wholesalers, distributors and advertisers'. (11)

A third crucial factor is the willingness and confidence of local writers to put their faith in and patronise local firms. This kind of confidence is lacking among Nigerian writers. The courage and confidence of 1950s which inspired the growth of such small and blossoming enterprises like the Onitsha Market Chapbooks, which brought into the limelight such early literary writers as Cyprain Ekwensi, or the Ibadan-based 'Black Orpheus' (1958), a leading international periodical
of black writers, published by the Western Nigeria Ministry of Education, was a successful venture. It was later taken over by the Mbári Club in 1960s. Mbári was a writer's club or institute in Ibadan and Ogbomosho. It helped to promote the literary works of Nigerian pioneer poets and novelists as John Pepper Clerk, Lenrie Peters, Dennis Brutus, Christopher Okigbo and Kofi Awonor. Okigbo, one of Nigeria's best poets, is dead, and it looks as if he died with Mbári Club. His living colleagues now prefer to publish in London, although a few like Chinua Achebe and Cyprian Ekwensi, are still trying to patronise local publishers. What is happening now is that the history of African publishing that looked set for take-off in the 1960s now seems to have crash-landed. It is this failure of local enterprise to make any headway in indigenous publishing for about thirty years, that makes some cynics claim local publishing cannot grow under the present competitive capitalist system, since "they are, after all competitors, and business is not mutual aid". (12) This is not to suggest that indigenous publishing industry cannot flourish in Nigeria. In fact the last few years have seen the establishment of a number of successful local publishing houses whose achievements have been commendable and deserve the support of libraries, general readers but above all, government and administrators. These include Spectrum in Ibadan, Fagbamigbe in Akure, Fourth Dimension in Enugu, Ethiope in Benin City and Oniboneje in Ibadan.

The most successful of the local publishers in Nigeria at present is Oniboneje Press and Book Industries Ltd. G.O. Oniboneje was once the President of the Nigerian Publishers' Association. He is
head of his own 100 percent Nigerian Publishing Company which began in 1958 after a successful teaching career. The company became fully operative in 1965. Oniboneje started off with popular educational aids and Yoruba books for schools and today he is 'determined to make a giant step forward'. He conceived an idea of a 'Book Club' in 1973, the first of its kind in Africa and attracted membership from among African literary writers. He is now experimenting on an 'African Literature Series'.

Oniboneje is one of the strong critics of the monopoly enjoyed by overseas-based firms. At the Ife Conference of 1973, he delivered one of his devastating blows to foreign publishers whose attitudes towards indigenous publishers he says, "varies from open ridicule, a patronising tolerance, to outright threats and open hostility". He is totally committed to, and uncompromising on, the cultural revolution that would lead Nigeria to freedom and development in its wider context.

Nwamife Publishers

After the Nigerian Civil War in 1970, another indigenous firm made a dramatic entry into the publishing industry. A partnership of Arthur Nwankwo and Samuel Ifejika (from which the company derived its name) set up their Nwamife Publishers in 1970 with the objective of patronising local authors. But in 1978 Nwankwo left the company and set up his own 'Fourth Dimension'. This is typical of Nigerian entrepreneurs who, rather than work in partnership, prefer to run a one-man business. As a consequence most of these businesses do not
grow fast enough owing to lack of capital and technical expertise, which are easier to provide in a cooperative venture than a one-man business. Fourth Dimension has since its establishment published a few general titles including Achebe's *The Flute* and *The Drum*. The contributions of these two companies are still small since they both aim at Nigeria's most difficult and unprofitable market, the general reader.

6.4.3.1 **Planning decision**

The inability of the indigenous publishers to develop to the stage of self-reliance and self-supporting means that the responsibility for planning a national publishing policy lies with the Central Government that has enough resources. Too often however, the political decision revolves around what Fraser calls 'crude alternatives'. The political case to exclude the multinationals appears attractive, but when this choice is translated into practical realities, then that alternative seems to lose credibility. The reality of the situation is that to exclude the multinationals from participating in the publishing industry, would not necessarily clear the path for the local firms to monopolise the market, although Oniboneje believes this is the only answer. However, what has happened in recent years in Nigeria is the insistence of the government on a local majority shareholding in the local offices of the overseas firms. The rapid expansion in education and the consequent explosion of demand for educational books require the maintenance of a free market "in which a constructive partnership between local initiative and the multinationals and their subsidiaries is possible". In fact, as Fraser warns,
the soundest solution is not to alienate the multinationals, turning
them away from the African scene before other measures have been
found to satisfy the growing local demand. In planning a national
publishing industry extreme care must be taken to ensure that the
cultural and academic life of the country does not suffer as a
result of policies which sacrifice the support of the intelligentsia
and those who need books for intellectual stimulation and development,
on the alters of political expediency. It is a truism that:

It is in everybody's interest that the
buoyancy of publishing be maintained,
and a diversity of choices be made possible.
We all need publishers for our intellectual
survival. For, in the last resort, to neglect
the publisher is to persecute the mind. (15)

6.4.3.2 Vernacular Publishing

One of the recommendations of the Ife Conference of 1973 was
that publishers should endeavour to produce books in the vernacular
in order to enlarge readership in Africa. For adults, what was recomm-
ended was the 'butter and bread' type of literature - simple manuals
that could improve the lives of farmers, artisans and others by helping
them to modernise agricultural practices, and by giving them instruction
in health education and good citizenship. Despite these recommendations,
there has been no significant development in this area of publishing.
The market for vernacular publishing is small because English is the
official language. It is uneconomical for profit oriented commercial
publishers to undertake vernacular publishing for which there is no
market. The case for Government in local language publishing is there-
fore strong and urgent. First, governments have a responsibility for
preserving traditional culture, and language is the basis of culture. Moreover, all governments of the federation are committed to various programmes of 'cultural revival', witness the establishment of Arts Councils and Cultural centres in all parts of Nigeria. Secondly, all governments of the federation are committed to adult education programmes where vernacular languages are the medium of instruction. Thirdly, in most parts of the country particularly in non-urban areas vernacular is used as a medium of instruction in the first two or three years of primary education. Finally, there is the ideological issue of national integration. Attempts have been made both by the military regimes and the civilian government to replace English language with one indigenous language as the 'lingua franca'. This is of course, politically improbable with as many as 395 languages in the country. A compromise seems to be the adoption of the three major languages - Ibo, Hausa and Yoruba. These three already have a substantial body of literature. Hausa is very widely spoken in Nigeria and in other parts of Africa. The other 'minor' languages can be spoken only at a very simple level.

Apart from Ibo, Hausa and Yoruba (the major languages) there are more than half a dozen other languages with their own written literature. There are books and newspapers in Effik, Ijaw, Kanuri, Edo and Tiv. Christian missionaries have also translated the Bible, hymn books and have also published some other kinds of literature in these languages. The old Northern Literature Bureau published some literature in Hausa until it was discontinued in 1968 when it was succeeded by the Northern Nigeria Publishing Company, a partnership of
MacMillan Publishing Company which had a shareholding of 41 percent, and the Gaskiya Corporation with a 51 percent shareholding. The Northern Nigeria Publishing Company is relatively small. It publishes vernacular literature in the major languages in Northern Nigeria — Hausa, Fulfulde, Kanuri, Tiv and Arabic. Its publications are mainly educational and religious.

Some of the expatriate firms have expressed an interest in vernacular publishing. In 1975 the Chairman of MacMillan Publishers announced that his company was willing to assist the Universal Primary Education programme by publishing Nigerian authors and translating their works into local languages. The Oxford University Press is already publishing in Hausa, Ibo, Effik and Yoruba, while MacMillan in addition to these, publishes in Edo and Igala. But as the market for vernacular publishing is small they are only experimenting, and as can be expected, they have started with educational materials.

6.4.3.3 Academic Publishing

Academic publishing is defined as that activity which specialises in the publication of books and journals which are more or less reports of research and scholarly endeavours. Academic publishing like vernacular publishing, is in its infancy in Nigeria. Its growth is usually associated with the development of higher education in the country. The first University Press in Nigeria was established in 1955 at the University College Ibadan. Today there are four full-fledged University Presses including Ibadan University Press. The others are Ahmadu Bello University Press, founded in 1977, Ife University Press and Lagos University Press.
6.4.3.3.1 **Characteristics of Academic Publishing**

Academic publishing has a very limited market. It is directed at a very small segment of the community - the academic community. In this sense, it is in a position similar to local language publishing which also has a limited market. It is estimated that the usual print run of academic books is between 3,000 and 5,000 copies per edition or even less, and that of a scholarly journal is a great deal less. The limited number of print runs makes the unit cost of a scholarly material very expensive. In spite of limited production it takes several years for a University Press to sell off its stock of books and journals.

6.4.3.3.2 **Problems**

The problems of university presses are similar to those encountered by other indigenous publishers. After all they are part of the indigenous entrepreneurship with a guaranteed local ownership and control. Some of the general problems faced by the university presses are under-capitalisation, they are technically non-profit-organisations, they lack printing facilities and an adequate and satisfactory distribution infrastructure. Local bookshops are unwilling to stock academic books which the public is not going to buy. There are no adequate research libraries to buy and store academic books and journals. Few existing public libraries are willing to acquire scholarly materials because their target audience is not the academic community. Finally, university presses also face the chronic problem of experienced personnel - managerial, technical and marketing personnel. There are however problems that are peculiar to the university press.
The first of these problems is the acquisition of 'publishable' material which means manuscripts of acceptable and scholarly standard. University lecturers who are the potential authors of scholarly works face a real dilemma in Nigeria. On the one hand, there is the demand to 'publish or perish', and on the other, an obligation to teach and conduct research. Moreover, adequate research facilities appear to be seriously lacking in some of the universities or other institutions of higher learning. Secondly, there is the problem of time lag. Even when a suitable manuscript is obtained, it takes a long time, sometimes years, before the author's work is published. This delay is usually due to the lengthy decision-making process characteristic of all university presses. The danger is that it can cause a potential local author to turn to an overseas publisher and many Nigerians have done this quite often, with the result that indigenous publishing is not being given the boost it needs to survive in a competitive open market situation.

In view of these problems, is it not appropriate that university presses are urged to extend their role and their range to undertake tasks which in more advanced countries are carried out by commercial presses? Instead of concentrating on the minority market, which is not always assured anyway, university presses could produce for a much wider market by publishing indigenous imaginative literature as well as general educational material. The implication of this of course, would be that a change in the organisation of university press would be desirable. The university press bureaucracy would probably have to be modified so that decisions have to be made faster, may be, by a
small editorial board drawn mostly from non-departmental heads who are not over-burdened with administrative and teaching duties. Membership of the editorial board should be strictly on individual merit, but equally, interest and willingness to undertake soliciting manuscripts and other editorial tasks should be considered.

6.4.4 The Role of Government in Publishing

The role of government in publishing in developing countries has not been clearly stated or defined because different interests could be at risk. It is because of this confused role that one finds such references to government involvement in publishing as 'state participation', 'state intervention', 'state assistance', etc. It is generally recognised that indigenous commercial publishers are unable to meet the educational needs of the country. But few people are willing to give the government a blank cheque to participate in publishing. Many international gatherings have recommended state assistance in the form of subsidies to individual firms. So far none have recommended that government should take over full responsibility for publishing. The reaction of the Nigerian Publishers' Association to the Federal Government new Policy on Education as it affects the book industry is typical:

a. The publishing industry has a significant role to play in the implementation of the policy.

b. The production of books at all levels should be the responsibility of the publishing industry.

c. Government should recognise past and present contributions, capacities and experience of book publishers and recognise that we are still in a position to publish good books. (16)
The Association remains confident that they are capable of meeting the educational needs of the country, and that government should not interfere directly in the production of print. On direct government publishing the Association warns that:

government ventures, either at the federal or state level, may likely lead to monopoly and mediocrity because neither the authors nor the printers have an incentive to do their best. (17)

What the Nigerian Publishers' Association wants is for the government to introduce economic strategies and social policies which could remove some of the constraints on the local publishing industry. In particular the Association recommends the placing of the printing of the industry in the 'favoured category' - whatever that means - in order to attract government loans for expansion, and the establishment of new shops. So far government assistance has fallen short of financial support. It is possible that with a small capital investment, a company favoured with educational publishing of prescribed courses could gradually develop through proceeds from guaranteed publishing ventures. But government assistance has consisted mainly of the commissioning of textbooks for schools as it happened in 1975 for the Universal Primary Education textbooks. In other countries like Ghana and Tanzania government support has taken the form of a joint enterprise between government and overseas-based firms. The best known example is the Ghana Publishing Corporation, where the government had 51 percent participation and provided the capital, while MacMillan had 49 percent ownership and provided skilled technical and professional know-how. That partnership collapsed later
for some rather obscure reasons. MacMillan entered into a similar partnership venture with the Northern Nigeria Publishing Company in 1968. Just as the venture failed in Ghana, so did it in Northern Nigeria. Again, the reason for this failure is obscure, and it might well be desirable to investigate the two incidents. That could be 'an agenda' for further research.

The only example of direct government publishing in Nigeria (apart from newspaper publishing) is the Ethiope Publishing Corporation. Established in 1970 in Benin by the then Mid-Western State government, the company is now supported by the Bendel State government. Although it is government-owned, Ethiope Publishers operate strictly on commercial basis. It is also run as part of the Bendel Library Board. The company was set up to fulfil a particular need, the supply of educational materials to schools, and it has been able to meet that need. Unfortunately it is now seriously undercapitalised. It has suffered severe cuts, and for other reasons which are political the company's future looks bleak.

The other way in which the Nigerian government could participate effectively in book publishing is through the Nigerian Book Development Council. References have already been made to this company. All that remains to be said is that government should give the company enough sharp teeth to grind. It occupies a strategic position in indigenous publishing, but so far its activities have been rather obscure.

Finally, what are the advantages and disadvantages of state publishing? The main reason for advocating state publishing in developing countries is one of the underdeveloped state of indigenous
publishing industry, and the inability of indigenous publishers to meet the growing demands of education. The alternative to state publishing is either to rely on foreign-based firms or to wait until domestic publishers establish themselves, as Benge suggests. But none of these crude alternatives seems acceptable. The choice is a difficult one. Perhaps subsidizing local enterprise could be a credible alternative. Secondly, government direct participation may vitalise vernacular publishing, hitherto a neglected sub-sector. Since this aspect of publishing is not profitable and commercial publishers are afraid to invest in it, government as a non-profit making organisation is most appropriately placed to undertake it. Thirdly, state publishing will guarantee continuing financial support and the creation of a truly indigenous industry which will be capable of meeting national development demands. Fourthly, the country at large will benefit culturally as national needs will be taken into account. Books that will reflect the country's cultural needs will be produced for home market instead of having to adapt imported ones. Fifthly, 'safe' educational publishing will be used to support the more adventurous books in local languages to enlarge the small potential market. Sixthly it will be economically more advantageous to the country as profits will be ploughed back into the country. Also long-term planning in terms of training and programme planning will be more effectively undertaken.

Now, the disadvantages. First and foremost is the fear of state monopoly which might result into high prices, but not necessarily high standards. In fact standards are likely to be low. This fear is
justified by the performance of many of the public statutory bodies or corporations in the country, such as the National Electric Power Authority (NEPA), the Department of Posts and Telegraphs (P&T) etc., which are chronically inefficient and corrupt. Secondly, there is a possible government censorship over what should or should not be published. This argument can be countered on the grounds that government censorship could even be applied to private commercial publishers. The degree of censorship will however vary between private commercial publisher's production and what is published by government controlled publishing firm. Thirdly, like the presence of foreign-based firms, the existence of government publishing company could threaten the growth of private entrepreneurs. Perhaps the already established foreign-based company could survive, but it is doubtful if local private firms could. Fourthly, fear has been expressed and rightly too, that publishing houses will become government mouth-piece, publishing only what governments want, or getting censored. This is a valid objection borne out by common experience in government-owned media such as Radio and Television and newspapers. As the country prepares for the 1983 general elections, a national daily has reported a number of unpleasant developments in the government-controlled media, quite inconsistent with the principle of the freedom of the press. Newspaper editors or directors of government-controlled radio and television at all levels of government, who do not 'toe party lines' have been replaced by those most loyal to the party in power, and who are eager and willing to toe party lines. This is the genuine fear of direct government participation in publishing.
6.4.4.1 Government as Promoter

While there is no agreement on the role of government as publisher, there seems to be a general agreement that government's role in publishing should be that of a promoter rather than publisher. As promoter, government is expected to assist industry by identifying and encouraging creative writing, ensuring a sufficient supply of essential materials either from indigenous sources or from abroad. The relaxation of import-restriction on such essential materials include newsprint, printing and binding machinery. Other activities to promote a virile publishing industry include organising courses and seminars for the book personnel to keep the industry abreast of latest development in skills and techniques of book production and distribution, establishing a network of public and school libraries, reducing postal rates for overseas books and journals, providing financial incentives like special tax dispensation and proper credit facilities to the book industry, creating and stimulating reading habit among young school children and adults through such activities as book exhibitions, workshops etc. Most of these promotional activities are contained in the functions of the Nigerian Book Development Council discussed in section 3.1.

The role of the Nigerian governments in book promotion has not been particularly impressive. At the ministerial level it consists mainly of prescribing what textbooks schools should use. Even this role was only partially performed before the 1970s when the dual system of education was in operation. Then government prescribed basic textbooks for those schools owned and managed by the government,
leaving the voluntary agencies to decide for themselves what textbooks they would use. Another aspect of the promotional activities consists of the interactions between publishers and government officials concerned with education. In any case it is the publishers who initiate these interactions for the purpose of securing guaranteed markets for their products. Beyond this point governments have done very little to support local publishing industry. Discussions with publishers' representatives have always centred on prices and delivery terms, such as discounts, but hardly ever on the content and quality of such books. This picture is however changing as the Federal Government gets more and more control of education at nearly all levels. The matter of 'content' for books published for Nigerian schools is now central to the Federal Government's new philosophy of Nigerian education.

Libraries provide the largest and most assured market for publishers. If the local publishing industry is to blossom and grow to meet the challenge of educational expansion, both publishing and library services must be planned together in a methodical and integrated system of the overall national development planning.

6.4.4.2 Ethiope Publishing Corporation

Our analysis of the role of government in publishing in Nigeria has revealed that government has failed both as publisher and promoter of the book industry, although it can claim some small degree of achievement in the latter. The only exception so far has been the establishment of Ethiope Publishing Corporation by the former Mid-Western State government. This company was established in 1970,
and its establishment marked a great significant milestone in state participation in local publishing. It was set up originally to publish the *African Impact*, a weekly magazine of news commentary and educational materials. Its original objectives and scope were soon modified and expanded, and from 1972 the company began to publish mainly educational and general materials. The most remarkable aspect of the company's operations is its close working relationship with the Bendel Library Board which culminated in the establishment of Bendel Book Depot about which a lot has been said and written. The Bendel Library Board has a school services division and through this division the Board liaises between the schools and Ethiope Publishers and the Book Depot. Despite the problems which the company faces just like any other local publishing firm, Ethiope has become a reality, and is now receiving unsolicited manuscripts. By following development in both areas of educational reform and curriculum development, Ethiope Publishing Corporation is rendering a significant cultural service in a unique way. It is interesting to note that although Ethiope is a government-owned corporation, it is run on purely commercial basis. Perhaps this is why it has been able to stand on its own for so long despite government's inability or unwillingness to subsidise it substantially.

6.4.4.5 Educational Market

The bulk of what is published in Nigeria is educational, and even at that textbook publishing for primary and secondary schools. The predominance of educational publishing can be attributed to two factors. Firstly, the pioneer publishers like Oxford, Longmans etc.,
entered the publishing industry at a time of educational expansion when educational publishing was the most profitable aspect of publishing. Publishers and authors who produced successful textbooks for the primary school market often reaped great financial dividends. The picture has not changed even in the eighties. Philip Altbach (1975)\(^{(18)}\) confirms that 40 percent of British book sales are made overseas, and the books are predominantly educational. In fact 80 percent of the 'reachable' book buying public is resident in educational institutions. The second reason for this imbalance in publishing is due largely to the reading habit of Nigerians. The majority of the literate people are more concerned with 'achievement reading' than with reading for enjoyment or recreation or even for information. Publishing is a highly commercialised activity and few entrepreneurs are willing to risk publishing in areas where the market does not exist. Nearly every publisher in the writer's survey of 1976, Dim (1976) *op.cit.* agreed that the determining factor in any publisher's mind is 'a speculative market for the product,' and the school is always a guaranteed market.

Educational publishing will, for a long time to come, remain the dominant activity of the book industry in Nigeria.

6.4.5.1 The Primary Education Market

Of the three levels of education – primary, secondary and tertiary, the primary and secondary education offer the liveliest and most profitable markets for the publishers. The introduction of the Universal Primary Education has increased the demand for primary textbooks because there has been an astronomical rise in the number of
children attending primary schools. In the first year of the scheme for instance, publishers were required to produce about 60 million textbooks, a figure which indigenous publishers alone would have been unable to achieve. Even with the combined efforts of overseas-based publishers it was difficult to achieve that target because of the planlessness of the scheme. Publishers have complained they were not consulted before the scheme was introduced. Moreover, the production capacity of the existing printing facilities could not cope with the increased educational demands. Consequently, several years after the universal primary education scheme took off, some of the books commissioned in 1975/76 are still coming probably from foreign printers.

6.4.5.2 The Secondary School Market

The expansion of primary education also means the expansion of secondary education. But secondary school market has more limited possibilities of large scale economies. According to Mitchel's findings, secondary education provides only about \(\frac{1}{14}\) th of the educational market because secondary school books are larger and more expensive than primary school books. In order to achieve economies of scale, secondary school market has had to be spread over the entire West Africa since West African secondary school students take a common examination conducted by the West African Examination Council on behalf of all the governments of West African countries.

By spreading the secondary school market to cover the West African region, publishers hope to achieve economies of scale.
6.4.5.3 The Tertiary/University Market

The market for this third level of education is quite limited because the proportion of the 'reachable' buying public is smaller at the tertiary level of education than it is at the first and second levels. Put it another way, the educational pyramid broadens at the base while narrowing towards the apex. However, there seems to be a correlation between the gulf existing in the educational pyramid and the level of development of a country. In other words, the wealthier a nation is, the narrower the gap between the bottom and top of its educational pyramid. With only five universities and a corresponding number of polytechnics before 1975 Nigeria now has 22 universities, a similar number of polytechnics and colleges of education. The expansion in higher education has significant effects on the publishing industry in Nigeria. The demand for books and other research materials like periodicals, has increased substantially. Unfortunately this demand will have to be met by supplies from overseas publishers. Areas or disciplines most dependent upon overseas supplies are science and technology, which even the overseas-based publishing firms have been unable to published satisfactorily and in any significant number.

Elsewhere in Chapter 5 statistics for the expansion of education were given. The figures reveal the dimensions of the needs for published materials to be met during this era of unprecedented expansion in Nigerian education, and whether or not the publishing industry in Nigeria will be up to the task will depend to a large extent on the assistance of Federal Government.
Problems

Although educational publishing is the dominant feature of the Nigerian publishing industry many publishers have acknowledged that text books are perhaps the most difficult to write. The difficulty of securing good, acceptable manuscripts is perhaps 'paramount' among their problems. This problem will be particularly felt now that educational publishing is oriented towards African cultural values. This means that only Nigerians who are 'steeped' in our culture can competently write and publish our cultural values. This problem is aggravated by the fact that teachers, who write the greater proportion of text books, do not have enough time nor incentive to devote themselves to writing books. But as Solaru once remarked, the development of an acceptable Manuscript requires a lot of time and effort. A third difficulty experienced by publishers is that school curriculum, is in a constant state of review. Constant changes in the curriculum are usually due to new systems of examinations and new syllabus, or owing to reports of governments or specialist bodies as well as professional associations, all of which affect the curriculum in a profound way. E.g. the Science Masters' Association of Great Britain produced a report in 1932 which greatly influenced the teaching of science in schools. In the 1950s and 1960s there were further changes in the science syllabus and curriculum. Similarly the Science Teachers' Association of Nigeria has on a number of occasions influenced the ways in which science should be taught and this has led to regular changes in the curriculum particularly as it affects basic science and mathematics. Publishers and authors have to be constantly in touch with these changes so that they can both reorient their work to a definite school programme.
6.5.0 Book Distribution

An important aspect of book publishing is its distributive mechanism. For what is the use of producing large stocks of books if the publisher cannot dispose of them as efficiently and economically as possible? Book distribution in Nigeria is the most unsatisfactory aspect of the book industry. It is the general reader who bears the brunt of this weak link from the publisher to the reader.

Textbooks distribution is partly undertaken by government; the supply is direct from the publisher to the government who commissioned the supply. This practice has caused some friction between the publishers and booksellers.

The university market is sustained by the university bookshops, but only those universities that have well established university bookshops. Ahmadu Bello University, Ibadan University and Ife University have good bookshops that serve these institutions, although only a small proportion of the university undergraduate, post-graduate and research needs are met. Universities also have well established libraries which cater for the academic needs of students and staff - teaching and research.

For the general reader perhaps the decisive factor is a lack of demand as well as an inability to stimulate this demand. The situation is even worse for country readership. There is absolutely nothing to provoke a response in the rural areas, even the one-man book stores or kiosks are not available in the rural areas. This is a gap that is often taken for granted. How can people ask for items which they have not heard of or seen? How can one enjoy what is not available? The demand for such articles as detergents, electrical or
electronic materials and other manufactured goods is stimulated by advertising agents like the radio, television etc. No such services exist yet for books. Some newspapers carry occasional book reviews but this service is not systematic. The lack of bibliographical service at all levels is a serious problem for the book industry in Nigeria. Even major libraries have had to rely on overseas sources for information about new books which have some local relevance. Books In Print, British Books in Print, American Book Reviews are handy reference tools for book acquisition. Hans Zell has recently added to this list his African Books in Print and African Book Records. All these bibliographical tools are only suitable for tertiary education. The biggest markets—primary and secondary education are unfortunately the ones that lack bibliographical services.

The picture is not all bleak. The National Library of Nigeria publishes the National Bibliography of Nigeria, which is a classified list of materials published in Nigeria and deposited with the National Library in accordance with section 4 of the National Library Act No.29 of 1970. It is a monthly publication with both semi-annual and annual cumulations. Because of the weakness of the deposit law in the country, the National Library is unable to receive a copy of each book published in Nigeria. For this reason the National Bibliography of Nigeria is not comprehensive enough to be relied upon as a reference tool. Another bibliographical tool published by the National Library is the Theses and dissertations accepted for higher degrees in Nigerian universities. The publication lists by subjects all the theses accepted by Nigerian universities for both Masters and Doctoral Degrees. This publication is usually out of date. The last issue
published by the National Library covered the period 1972/73 - 1976/77.

6.5.1 Bookshops

Bookshops form a substantial proportion of registered booksellers for publishers in Nigeria. Unfortunately they are generally small, they lack finance, technical knowledge and skill. Finance is a particularly serious problem as the stock will depend on how much money the organisation is able to deposit to the publishers. Many publishers deal with two categories of registered booksellers namely, credit customers and non-credit customers. Credit customers can order books from publishers on credit after a period of proven honesty, but only if this order does not exceed the customer's credit facilities e.g. declared landed property and so forth. Non-credit customers are treated as individuals, they have to pay cash. They collect orders from schools and send them through the bookshops.

Although publishers deal with registered booksellers on fairly favourable trade terms lack of heavy capitalisation can hinder the expansion of local bookshops and other outlets.

Lack of trained and skilled manpower also prevents the growth of local bookselling industry. Not many people appreciate the business of bookselling as a lucrative job. Often the staff is un-skilled and ignorant of the stock of the bookshop. In this way they cannot inspire people to visit their bookshops. Registered Bookshops are mainly Church bookshops. Originally set up to distribute religious materials, their activities now extend to the realm of secular publishing. The most successful of these in Nigeria are the Sudan Interior
Mission (SIM) now known as Challenge Bookshops. They have between 20 and 30 shops. The Church and Schools Supplies (CSS) has some 15 shops in Northern Nigeria. They have served mainly the primary and secondary educational needs.

Apart from these registered booksellers, there are Colporteurs, a species of itinerant booksellers usually travelling on foot or bicycles. They are sometimes called book contractors. They visit schools to get contracts for the supply of books. They then place orders to publishers and when the orders arrive they take them to the schools concerned for distribution and settlement of bills. This category of booksellers has the advantage of eliminating certain overhead expenditures like paying for a hired building, light, security, messengers, etc.

There are also book kiosks which are pitched in strategically busy areas such as post offices, banks, schools, churches etc. Their stocks are however limited to popular novels and love magazines, sold along with other 'curious objects from the ends of the earth'.

6.5.2 University Bookshops

The university bookshop is perhaps the better organised of the indigenous book distribution channels. They do however, have their own special problems such as expanding into the wider range of 'development' literature. They are also undercapitalised and to urge them to move into this area would be economically unwise. But their most serious problem is foreign exchange control. Money transfers abroad, where most of the books for university requirements are bought can be delayed for as long as 12 months by the Central Bank.
The case for journals is even worse. Books can be obtained abroad on the 'pay later' basis, but with journals this is improbable. Subscriptions must be made before periodicals are received.

6.5.3 Other Services

Over the past few years there have sprung up a number of privately owned bookshops that have made impressive beginnings. The most successful of these so far are the Nigerian Book Supplies Ltd., Lagos, a wholly indigenous bookseller, Spectrum Books Ltd., Ibadan, an overseas based bookseller, and Bisi Books Ltd., Ibadan. The last two are newcomers to bookselling. Spectrum, begun only some three years ago, has been very successful because of its overseas connections. It represents John Wiley Publishers. Bisi Books is an indigenous bookshop owned and directed by a retired university librarian. It has a bright future, appealing most strongly to libraries especially academic libraries. Its stock ranges from nursery to research materials.

All of these bookshops have one common characteristic, they are relatively small in size.

6.5.4 Government and book distribution

Elsewhere in the preceding sections, state commissioning of books was discussed. This is one way of government or state participation in book selling and book buying, since books so commissioned are sent direct from the publisher to government. But the best example of book distribution by government is the Bendel Book Depot referred to in an earlier section. Established as part of the Bendel State Library Board, the Book Depot has served as the main distribution
channel for both schools in the state and other institutions outside the state. But the buoyant era of the Depot seems to have vanished. With its chronic undercapitalisation the Depot has been unable to operate satisfactorily. Moreover it has overstretched its scarce resources by attempting to serve a far larger Nigerian public than was originally envisioned. The Depot has extended its sales distribution to primary and post-primary schools, institutions of higher learning including the universities, polytechnics, Colleges of education and even government departments. The company's problems have been exacerbated by the inability of many of its customers to pay for the books received. Debts owed to the Depot amount to thousands of naira. Lack of finance has almost crippled the sales of the Depot. For instance orders for the writer's library have been outstanding for more than two years.

The Bendel example is significant for two reasons. First, it is the first of its kind in Nigeria, having incorporated publishing, printing, distribution and library services. Second, it illustrates how well-conceived projects of its kind in Africa suffer appalling neglect after government has heavily invested in them. It also shows a lack of clear definition of the roles and scope of many of the enterprises set up by government. There is no doubt that if the role of the depot was limited to that of serving primary and secondary school markets alone, the depot would have been able to perform better than it is doing now.

In other areas of the country book distribution takes different forms, but generally it involves the supply of textbooks directly from the publisher to the government. The introduction of the
universal free primary education has even compounded the problem of book distribution. The involvement of the contractor element without specialised knowledge of the book business has not only disrupted the normal pattern of book distribution, but it has also frustrated registered bookshops or booksellers. Contracts for the supply of books for schools are known to have been awarded to persons whose only qualifications are that they are party supporters. In some states, governments have set up their own book companies to sell books directly to schools. In Benue State for example, Benue Educational Supply Company has been established. Its main objective is to acquire prescribed textbooks and sell them to pupils and students in educational institutions in the state at 'subsidized rates'. The establishment of the company in itself is a fine gesture by the government, but the underlying concept has been more political than economic or any other consideration. The company's choice of customer is limited to those publishers which appear to be supporting the government of the day. Moreover, its mere existence may be an obstacle to the development of a service whose functions appear to conflict with the objects of the company. For example, the Benue House of Assembly passed a bill for the establishment of a State Library Board in May 1982. One of the functions of the proposed Library Board (paragraph f) is to set up a Book Depot as a commercial venture to cater for the book needs of the state and other institutions. (20) This function clearly conflicts with that of the Benue Educational Supply Company. It is probably for this reason that the State Governor delayed assent to the bill for almost one year, after its passage by
the legislative house. The good news however, is that the State Governor has now assented to the bill which has now become law establishing Benue State Library Board as a corporate body.

6.6.0 Printing

So much has been said and written about publishing industry in Nigeria. But for any publishing industry to flourish there must be a good network of printing industries. Of all the book development agencies in Nigeria, the printing industry is the least developed, both in quantitative and qualitative terms. The overseas-based publishers have indigenised substantially and have tried to meet Nigeria's educational needs; the printing industry has no comparable parent body. Foreign-based publishers usually print their manuscripts abroad. Although Nigerian printers face little competition from foreign printers they have been unable to develop for reasons which are economic and technical. Firstly, they are faced with the problem of heavy duties on imported materials including machinery and paper. Stringent exchange control makes it almost impossible for Nigerian printers to pay manufacturers on delivery. Delay in payment may incur interest charges, and to offset these charges, printers try to jack up prices. Publishers have found this unacceptable, but the solution for the problem seems to be for the Federal Government to relax import restrictions on all printing materials and to set up more paper industries in the country. The only paper industry at Jeba serving the entire country, the size of Nigeria, is grossly inadequate.
The technical problem relates to personnel. There is an acute shortage of trained personnel, especially technicians, in the printing industry. This illustrates the country's bias against technical education. The Ashby Report of 1960 was evidently critical of the Nigerian educational system which tended to be too theoretical and literary. The Commission expressed concern about the absence of practical education generally, and of the middle level manpower in particular.

Nigeria can afford to import sophisticated technologies from advanced countries. It can go on producing hundreds of Ph.Ds in electrical, mechanical and civil engineering, but without an adequate number of technicians to really do the work, our true development is at worst an illusion, at best, a distant hope.

One cannot conceive any short term remedies for the printing industry in Nigeria. In the long run however, the solution lies in setting up printing departments in our polytechnics and Colleges of Science and Technology. After all those institutions were established specifically to cater for the technical/middle manpower needs of the country. They were not meant to be producing self-glorified engineers.

6.7.0 The Economic Factor

In concluding this chapter, it is important that the various problems involved in publishing and the growth of the indigenous book industry be pieced together, and of course the common denominator is the 'economic factor' - how economic forces affect the growth or non-growth of the book industry in a particular country. In advanced
countries such as the United Kingdom, these forces may affect the flow of information or obstruction of the distribution of works of the highest value. In relation to Nigeria however, two questions are relevant in dealing with the economic factor, namely (a) to what extent will financial subsidies affect the growth of an indigenous book industry? (b) who should subsidize the publishing industry? The question of subsidizing indigenous publishing ought to be emphasised because it is one of the surest ways of ensuring or promoting the growth of a virile local book industry. Professor Taraporevela attributes the high rate of demise in the book business to an inadequate appreciation of the financial problems right from the initial stages of publishing. (21) He warns of the danger of the "romantic approach" which he says is totally wrong.

There are various processes involved in publishing and each one of them involves financial problems and creating a situation of despair and hopelessness in developing countries:

1. Organization: Capital (finance) is needed to set up offices, for the purchase of furniture for the office, personnel to get the business going e.g. managers, executive officers, accountants, clerks, stenographers etc. The skilled editorial staff is required to conduct the business. Apart from capital, this appears to be the greatest problem faced by the indigenous publisher, and it has led to many promising and potentially competitive local publishing ventures to wind up helplessly, or in order to survive by all means, to employ close relations without the necessary knowledge and training in the art of book production. Such family or one-man businesses produce very
poor quality work, and although they are unable to expand or grow, they have managed to survive because whatever profit they make is shared among members of the family. The wage for each member is very small indeed.

2. Warehousing: One of the essential physical facilities needed to be identified in time, is the warehouse where printed books will be kept and protected from damage.

3. Book Manufacture: Most publishers have no printing or binding plants – they need not have them. Printing and publishing are two distinct businesses. Publishers rely on the printers who own printing machinery. These plants are quite expensive both in terms of purchase and maintenance. Furthermore the cost of paper and binding material has risen sharply, forcing printers to charge high cost for printing works. The end result is a general rise in the cost of the published material.

4. Distribution: The problem of releasing and distributing the finished material to the wholesalers or retailers involves a large investment in sales promotion. Thereafter there is also the problem of recovering payments from wholesalers. This problem is partly due to the unreliability of our communications system, and partly to the dishonesty of some of the book dealers.

5. Dead Stock: Most publishers print sufficient copies for a period of 18 months to 3 years, and the problem of dead stock cannot be ruled out. Dead stock means loss of finance, and this problem arises when a publisher is left with a vast volume of books on his hands instead of selling them. In Nigeria there is a relatively small
market for general books, the demand is largely for textbooks, and publishers depend on institutional markets such as schools, colleges and libraries, the latter being only very few. Secondly, constant change in the school curriculum with resultant changes in textbooks has caused Nigerian publishers to lose millions of funds accruing from book production. e.g. in 1971/72 some Nigerian publishers were reported to have lost as much as £80,000 to replace existing books with new editions in decimal currency, metric units etc. The loss to publishers during the introduction of new textbooks for the universal primary education was enormous, although actual figures are not available.

6.7.1 Subsidizing Publishing

Since publishing involves several factors, so will its subsidies. First, subsidizing should begin with the professional writer, because without him there will be no 'serious' publishing and so no strong publishing industry. Unfortunately, the irregular nature of an author's payments is a cause of insecurity which is increased by corresponding fluctuations in his income tax. The result of these factors is that the quality of his 'serious' work may be affected, or the time needed to produce it could be extended. Part of the answer lies in providing a fixed capital as suggested by Taraporevela. A fixed capital is required to set up the business. There are practical problems in this suggestion. There are no banking or credit facilities. In the United Kingdom for example, apart from available banking facilities, higher purchase agreements are guaranteed. In developing countries, publishing companies are
required to pay for these facilities. Secondly, in financing advances to authors publishers could use suppliers' credit. Printers can grant about three months credit after delivering the books to the publishers.

The most convenient way of raising capital for any large-scale business is borrowing from the banks. But as has been pointed out already, banks are unwilling to lend money to publishers because they are nervous about giving loans on security to published books since demand for different titles cannot be gauged accurately.

The second factor is what Professor Benge regards as following "congenial and relevant occupations". What sort of occupation should a writer in Nigeria follow as an expedient? By the nature of publishing in the country - predominantly educational - the most obvious choice would be the teaching profession. The writer or author of educational books would have an obvious advantage of knowing what is good and relevant for his readers. He should also know at what level he is writing. This advantage may however, be offset by the poor organization of the teaching profession in Nigeria. Teachers' organization is weak and without funds, and seems unable to subsidize publishing. The Association of University Teachers could perform this task, but again as was discussed earlier, their writing has a very limited appeal and market. The Medical Association can, and does, subsidize publishing in their own field, but their publications are of a periodical nature. Librarianship which is a relevant occupation is still finding its feet in Nigeria.

It seems therefore that some grant-giving body may be an expedient in financing a particular project, usually of a research
type. Once again the task seems to lie with the University. University writers are singularly placed in an advantageous position, having the facilities which other writers have not such as good libraries, an assured though limited audience, good bookshops etc. But the increasing pressure of teaching and lecturing may be great obstacles to rapid and effective publication.

It remains for benevolent trusts, governments or international organizations or agencies to offer prizes to deserving authors as an incentive for publishing. Recently, a Nigerian playwright, Wole Soyinka, was awarded the 1983 prize for Third World Literature of the American branch of the English-speaking Union, for his "stunning autobiographical work". A number of other Nigerians like Professor Chinua Achebe, have won international awards for their outstanding contribution to literary work. At home in Nigeria, good authors have often been frustrated or negatively rewarded - by torture, imprisonment, or censorship. There is just no incentive.

6.7.2 The Publisher

In normal publishing, the greatest motive is to make profit, although quality publishing cannot be ignored. Certain works bring prestige to the publisher, and this in itself is an economic asset. Such works include results of scientific research - basic or applied. Other works may not pay immediately, but may do so subsequently. a. University Presses. Works of a limited or 'minority' appeal, because of their academic value, are supported by the University. Some universities even provide annual subventions so that the press can 'operate on a budgeted loss'. The university press has a greater cash
flow and can finance its expansion out of its own reserves.

b. Advertising. External advertisement is one of the best ways of subsidizing publishing especially publications of magazines and trade journals. While advertisement assists in communications process with respect to magazines and trade journals, the more academic minority journals cannot rely on this method as they do not appeal to a sufficiently large public.

c. Publications by interested bodies. These bodies include political parties, religious organizations, etc. These forms of publications do not necessarily pay but are mainly propagandist. Those of religious bodies are missionary oriented and often foreign. Those of political parties are of book or pamphlet materials. They were hardly found in Nigeria during the thirteen years of military rule. With a return to the democratic process of government, these publications have increased significantly. The point here is that they need not be business which pays necessarily, but they are various forms of subsidy.

NOTES


7. Mitchel op.cit.


11. Fraser, op.cit. p.537.

12. Benge op.cit. p.169


15. Ibid.


17. Ibid. p.17.


CHAPTER 7

FORWARD PLANNING

The Unesco Expert Meeting on National Library, Documentation and Archives planning defined the planning of library services as "a continuous systematised process of studying educational problems at all levels, including adult-education, and the problems of scientific research from the standpoint of library needs". (1) It also involves determining the aims and objectives of library services in relation to these sectors, setting out targets for attaining those aims and objectives, and preparing realistic decisions to ensure that these objectives will be achieved within a time frame. The planning of library and information services is therefore conditioned by national or local policies in many other fields such as culture, education, economic development, scientific and technological development and so forth, as well as by policies in the information field itself.

The Unesco Intergovernmental Conference on the Planning of National Documentation Library and Archives Infrastructures, held in Paris in 1974, known simply as the NATIS Conference, laid great emphasis on national information policy, in the firm conviction that the planning of the different elements of national information system will be carried out more effectively within the overall framework provided by such a policy. However, where such a policy does not exist, library planners can often identify the main features of such a policy in the policy declarations of national leaders in the other
fields or sectors. e.g. the adoption of a national policy for the expansion of higher education will create a need for a corresponding increase in academic or college and university libraries, and so will prepare library plans accordingly. Similarly the adoption of a national policy on science and technology development will create a need for a corresponding increase in scientific and technical or special libraries and documentation services.

The non-existence of a national information policy in Nigeria has made the planning of a national information system in the country quite difficult. Although policies for the development of other sectors such as culture, education, agriculture etc. are usually made articulate, library-planners seem to have been unable to align these policies with library development planning for the reasons discussed in Chapter 3 (Section 2.4.2) - ignorance on the part of planners in other fields such as education and economic planning.

7.1.0 The Concept of National Planning of Library and Information Services

Stephen Parker (1978)(2) has made a comprehensive survey of the current Unesco concept of national planning of library and information services in developing countries. His survey includes the pioneering work of such international organisations as the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, the Carnegie Corporation of New York which exercised profound influence on the development of public libraries in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Contribution to library development of individuals such as Lionel McColvin, Edward Sydney, Frank Gardner, Sydney Horrocks, Eve Evans, etc., as well as the worthy contributions
of professional associations from the United Kingdom, and the United States, are included. But the most significant and persistent endeavour has been that of the Unesco, assisted to a large extent by three international non-governmental organisations, the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA), the International Federation of Documentation (FID), and the International Council on Archives (ICA). The first part of this Chapter will be a summary of Unesco's activities in the field of national planning of library and information services in developing countries.

7.1.1.0 UNESCO and the Concept of National Library and Information System

Unesco's efforts towards library development planning are rooted in the Anglo-American traditions. This is understandable judging from the contributions of the American philanthropist organisations and the British librarians both during and after the wars when Unesco was set up. It was the American and the British librarians who formed a greater proportion of Unesco consultancy services to the developing world. In Great Britain the work of McColvin has no doubt had influence on Unesco. It was due largely to the untiring efforts of McColvin and the Library Association that the British Public Library Act of 1964 was passed, giving some measure of responsibility for library development to the central government. In the United States, the struggle for a national library service was begun as early as 1933, championed by the American Library Association. Through the influence of the ALA, a federal library agency was created in Washington as a Library Services Division of the Office of Education.
The Soviet Union did not join the Unesco until 1954. But there is no doubt that Unesco has benefited from the experience of Soviet centralised planning, which is what that organisation is trying to achieve in developing countries.

The main strategy of Unesco has been to transfer, as Benge says, "material and intellectual resources from the developed countries to the less developed ones so that they could be stimulated to build up their own library services". (3)

Unesco's activities in the development of national library and information services can conveniently be grouped into two phases. Phase one consists of pilot library services or demonstration libraries while phase two consists of a series of regional conferences on national planning of library and documentation services.

7.1.1.1 Genesis of Unesco Pilot Library Projects

It was at the Unesco general conference of September 1949 in Paris, that the Library's Division of the Organisation was given mandate to organise in each member state, and with the assistance of the government concerned and as part of the campaign to spread fundamental education, a pilot project for public libraries. The philosophical basis of a pilot library project was, according to Professor Benge (1979), 'to demonstrate to an indifferent world the values of public library contribution'.

The General Conference of Unesco in Paris (1949) and the subsequent regional conferences at Sao Paulo, (Brazil) in 1951; Ibadan (Nigeria) in 1953; and Delhi (India) in 1955; resulted into the setting up of pilot library projects - a joint enterprise between the
Unesco and Member States concerned. The first to be set up was in Delhi, India 1951 for Asia, followed by others at Medellin, Colombia, 1954 for South America, and Enugu, Nigeria 1958, for Africa.

The strategy of a pilot library service was that by establishing such a library in a region, the countries within the region would be stimulated to develop and extend public library services in their respective territories. Foreign experts who carry out such pilot projects have claimed that the projects at Delhi, Ibadan and Medellin were successful. Stanley Horrocks (1959)⁴ for instance claims that "the service started in the Eastern Region of Nigeria has acted as a spur to other parts of the country". The fact is that in terms of spreading or stimulating public library development, these projects have been relative failures. The Enugu project was set up as a demonstration not only for Nigeria but also for Africa as a whole. Few will agree that the project has stimulated public library development in other parts of Nigeria, less so in the rest of Africa. It is necessary for Unesco to re-examine the philosophy of pilot projects in developing countries.

There are a number of false assumptions surrounding pilot schemes in developing countries. The first is the false belief that if one such project succeeds, then nation-wide success is automatically guaranteed. This is not true, and one agrees with Benge (op.cit.) that "there is naturally a vast gap between the resources needed for one project and those required for nation-wide undertakings". The second false assumption is the view which is often held that the foreign consultant knows everything. This view is strengthened by the
attitude of the consultant himself. A few weeks stay in the capital city holding consultations with officials of the government are usually considered long enough for the 'expert' to write his 'comprehensive report'. Usually the foreign consultant may not necessarily know better than his indigenous counterpart. The fact of his being foreign, and therefore neutral in political matters of the country makes him more acceptable to governments of developing countries. By this same token he is likely to be more objective than his local counterpart. This is why authorities in developing countries listen more to the foreign expert even on matters where local expertise exists. But if the best is to be obtained from the services of the foreign consultants, they need to be sufficiently conversant with the politics, history, sociology, economics and culture of the people for whom and with whom they are to work. This latter point is closely related to the duration of the consultancy. Many of the consultants do not stay long enough for their service to make any impact on those responsible for promoting and implementing the pilot projects they have set up. For all these reasons a lot of the pilot projects in developing countries collapse or come to a standstill soon after the foreign expert has returned to his country.

The Enugu pilot public library project has not stimulated public library development to other parts of Africa. The Lagos Federal School Pilot Library Project has not stimulated school library development outside Lagos city. Generally the success of pilot library projects in developing countries can only be measured in terms of service such individual libraries have rendered to their communities,
but certainly there is no evidence that the projects have helped in spreading or stimulating similar developments elsewhere in Africa.

7.1.1.2 The spread of library development planning

The second phase of Unesco's activities consists of regional international conferences and seminars geared towards centralised integrated library planning. A series of regional meetings of experts on the planning of library and documentation services were held during the 1960s and early 1970s. There were seven such meetings at Delhi, Mexico City, Bogota, Enugu, Mendoza, Cairo and Manila between 1960 and 1965. Further meetings were held at Quito in 1966, Colombia in 1967, Kampala in 1970 and Cairo in 1974. There were two significant influences during this period. First Penna's second edition of 'The Planning of Library and documentation services 1970' had been published. Second the concept of centralised planning by the East was accepted as a policy. It became generally agreed therefore, that centralised planning was necessary in all developing countries. Consequently the programmes of these conferences consist of centralised planning, that is the identification of a need for central planning authorities and the need for libraries to be integrated with the overall economic plan. A central planning authority, backed by appropriate legislation, should coordinate the services of types of library and documentation work as it was recognised that the conditions of developing countries required a network that embraced all types of library, including scientific and technical information. To achieve these noble objectives, it was recommended that a national bibliographical service be set up in each country.
7.1.1.3 The Concept of National Information System - (NATIS)

The developments discussed above culminated in the creation of a national information system, a Unesco concept known by the acronym NATIS, which was endorsed by the Inter-governmental Conference on the Planning of National Documentation, Libraries and Archives Infrastructures, held in Paris, September 1974. The establishment of this national information system had been preceded by the creation in 1972 of a World Science Information System (UNISIST) within the Unesco as an inter-governmental programme originally designed to stimulate and guide voluntary cooperative actions by Unesco Member States, and by non-governmental international organisations to facilitate access to and international flow and exchange of scientific and technological information, serving as a clearing house for the world scientific and technical information.

The main focus of NATIS is the establishment in each member country of infrastructures or sub-systems to ensure the availability of the necessary information to all those engaged in political, economic, scientific, educational, social or cultural activities, which will enable them to render their fullest contribution to their communities. Unesco defines a national information infrastructure as the sum of a national system of archives and records administration, a national library system and a system of general and/or specialised documentation services. When used in this sense, the national information infrastructure of a country is more or less identical with the national information system itself. Parker (183) appears to disagree with the use of the term infrastructure in the sense which Unesco
uses it because of the inevitable confusion it creates, but Unesco insists the term is mandatory because "it is a term of Unesco". (5)

The NATIS document approved by the inter-governmental conference on the planning of National Documentation, Library and Archives Infrastructures 1974, contains objectives for 'National Action' and 'International Actions'. Objectives for national action include the establishment of a national information policy, the promotion of reading habit, assessment of user needs, analysis of existing information sources, analysis of manpower resources, planning the organisational structure of NATIS, supplying manpower for NATIS, legislative framework for NATIS, financing NATIS, and, linking the national objectives to the international ones is the Universal Bibliographic Control (UBC). The aim of Universal Bibliographic Control has been defined by Unesco as 'to achieve the universal availability, in an internationally accepted interchange form, of basic bibliographic data on all publications.

International actions are laid down as future policies and they include assistance to member states for the planning and development of NATIS, setting out methodologies for planning, the application of information technology to documentation, libraries and archives, and a revised programme for the education and training of information manpower. Other international objectives include the promotion of Universal Bibliographic Control, which is linked with national programmes, and a long-term programme of action to assist member states in the planning and establishment of coherent national information systems capable of participating as full partners in the transfer of the growing volume and sources of documentation and information.
7.1.1.4 Unesco General Information Programme

At the nineteenth session of Unesco General Conference in 1976, Unesco authorized the merger of NATIS concept of overall planning of national information systems with the UNISIST programme to strengthen the effectiveness of the organisation (Unesco) in the field of information systems and services. This decision was implemented in March 1977 when the activities and programmes of the two concepts were combined into a new Division of the General Information Programme (PGI). Unesco's activities in the fields of scientific and technological information, documentation, libraries and archives were thus brought together for the first time as an integrated programme. At the same session the General Conference also approved Unesco's Medium-Term Plan for 1977-82 which covered all aspects of the Organisation's work, including the transfer and exchange of information. Objective 10.1 of the plan, directed towards the development and promotion of information systems and services at the national, regional and international levels, was divided into four sub-objectives to correspond to the formulation of information policies and plans, the establishment of norms, the development of information infrastructures, and the education and training of information specialists and users.

The highest priority among these themes has been accorded the development of information infrastructures and education and training, although importance will continue to be attached to the other themes for the development of a coherent programme to support the exchange and transfer of information. The main thrust of Unesco in the development of information infrastructures is to strengthen 'the whole complex
of resources and facilities, including libraries, archives and documentation centres, which will support the flow of information from the source to the user". (6) Attention will be given to the establishment of scientific and technological information services for social and economic development, access, availability and use of information; library infrastructure development; records and archives management; co-ordinated library, archives and information services. Activities relating to training and education of information specialists and users include the development of policies and plans in the field of education and training of information specialists, harmonization and co-ordination of education and training activities of information specialists; training programmes in librarianship, information, science and archives also belong to this area of activity; establishment and development of national and regional training programmes; preparation of teaching materials; promotion of international and regional training; and the promotion of the education of information users.

All these proposals sound impressive, but apart from education and training, they remain no more than recommendations. Unesco's training programmes have been more successful than others e.g. the development of information infrastructures, because the organisation's funds are directly involved in education and training of information specialists. In other areas, the umbrella which NATIS was expected to provide is not yet there. The answers lie with the politicians, because as Benge says, "the contingent factors are the usual political and social ones" (7) requiring political solutions.
Since the evolution of libraries in Nigeria several decades ago, there has been no national coordinating service. First, regions, and now states, are allowed to plan their own services within the limit of their scarce resources. This shows Federal Government apathy to library development which had its origins in colonial development policies as was revealed in Chapter 3. The Second National Development Plan was the first attempt by the Federal Government to make provision for library development. It provided for a miserable allocation of 1.1% of the total national budget for information, compared to 23% for transport or 13.5% for education during the same period.

The former Eastern Region was the first to make a serious commitment to the development of public library services. It established the Eastern Regional Library Board by legislation in 1955, known as the Eastern Regional Library Ordinance. This law repealed the national publications ordinance of 1950 which applied to all parts of the federation. Between 1955 when the Eastern Regional Library Board was created, and 1967 when the Nigerian Civil War broke out, the East had the best public library system in the country. The Board was charged with the responsibility 'to equip, manage and maintain libraries in the Eastern Region'. The new headquarters library was built in 1959 and it has been described as 'a model for the tropics'. Divisional/Branch Libraries were built in the major towns of the region—Port Harcourt, Ikot Ekpene, Umuahia and Onitsha. In 1964 the Eastern Region government earmarked £45,000 on current library expenditure alone, and budgeted £750,000 for library development in the 1962/68 regional development plan. Sadly, the civil war of 1967-70 destroyed much of
what was built up over a period of ten years. The region, along with the other three, has now been split into several states so that the history of library development in Eastern Nigeria is now a history of reconstruction.

In Northern Nigeria, attempts by the Kaduna Regional Library to develop public library services through the Native Authorities between 1952 and 1963 failed. Book boxes containing some 50-200 titles were sent to schools, teacher training colleges and the Native Authorities for a period up to four months. Reading room attendants and library staff received training at Kaduna. But it was soon realised that the system could not succeed because the Native Authorities were misusing the funds earmarked for library services. It was in the light of this realisation that the Sharr Report (1963) accepted by the Government of Northern Nigeria, recommended that 'a dynamic partnership between the (Native) Authorities and the Regional Government should replace the former paternalism'.

Northern Region has, since 1967, been divided into ten states. Ten smaller units are more manageable administratively than the vast single unit as was the case before the events of 1967. Yet apart from Kaduna State, and in particular, Kaduna Metropolis, there is little evidence to suggest that any dynamic library services have taken place in the new smaller administrative units - states.

The library situation in the former Western Nigeria has been described by Wynter (1979) as "grossly underdeveloped, virtually non-existent". This observation was made about five years ago, but today 1983, the situation remains the same.
The conclusion one draws from the discussion above is that lack of a national coordinating authority has led to unplanned, uncoordinated and totally unbalanced library services in Nigeria, with each state striking in its own direction and allocating whatever funds that can be appropriated from the surplus from other sectors.

7.2.0 National Information Policies and Plans

The philosophical basis of a national information policy is the need for coordinated and centralised planning. Records of information are increasing in volumes and becoming more and more complex. Different organisations, including government departments, local authorities, professional associations, research institutions, etc., need information of various kinds. But available facilities to provide information are inadequate, and still uncoordinated. Unesco has therefore urged member states to review at the highest level, the existing arrangements both nationally and internationally, for providing access to information. Information policy is necessary to providing adequate national arrangements so that 'social progress can make the fullest use of available information'. A legislative framework is usually regarded as one of the pre-requisites for the establishment of an information policy. This is necessary because it will define the functions and scope of library and information services that are to be provided. So far there is no national legislative instrument in Nigeria for the provision of library and information services on a national basis. Eastern Nigeria was the first to enact a library law in 1955. The Federal Government followed by enacting a piece
of legislation creating the National Library of Nigeria in 1964. These laws will be discussed in the section on library legislation in Nigeria. The second prerequisite is the establishment of a central Federal Agency, which is a national focal point, to provide professional and political leadership, stimulate, coordinate and develop information resources for development. Such a planning machinery should comprise all the agencies concerned with national economic planning and librarians of high academic and professional reputation. A third policy is the promotion of research and development (R & D). The function of R & D is to make periodic surveys of existing information systems and supply arrangements in the country, and to establish where necessary, experimental services, to assess user needs. Surveys of existing information systems and services as well as of user needs should be given top priority among information policies for Nigeria. Since the evolution of libraries in Nigeria in the 1930s there have been few library surveys. The only studies that have been made so far are those undertaken by Frank Rogers in 1960 for the establishment of the National Library of Nigeria, and F.A.Sharr in 1963 for the development of libraries in Northern Nigeria. Both these studies were undertaken by foreign consultants without an intimate knowledge of the complexities of the Nigerian economy. Moreover these studies were not nationally oriented.

The fourth requirement is that information policy planned within the general framework of socio-economic development should be concerned with the needs of policy planners and managers in the areas of national development, specialists involved in research
development and application and the grassroots. Finally in a
developing country like Nigeria where the role of the extension
worker is crucial in modern agricultural methods, health services
and social work, "the national information policy should explicitly
support the provision of information to extension services and
related activities". (9)

7.2.1.0 The Library and Information Services Plan

The planning of national information system and services
comprises in large part all the objectives for national action
adopted in 1974 for the NATIS concept. However, priority appears to
be given to three main areas which cover the essential issues of the
planning of documentation, library and archives infrastructures.
These areas are integrated planning, application of technology and
information manpower.

7.2.1.1 Integrated Planning

The NATIS concept has been accepted in principle by most
member states of the Unesco. Objective 7 urges all member states to
set up a central co-ordinating body or bodies 'to advise the government
on the formulation and implementation of national information programmes
and matters related to international cooperation in these fields'.
This body should be composed both of representatives of all appropriate
government departments, state bodies, and semi-official institutions,
and of representative specialists from the information field. The
fundamental function of a national information system has been defined
as 'to provide for the effective transfer of information that meets
the needs of the whole community'. But in formulating plans for NATIS, it should always be borne in mind "that documentation, archives and libraries should not be thought of as isolated units... separate from other professions and sectors of society... The professions are able to draw strength and inspirations from each other's efforts by recognising their inter-relatedness". 

Increasing gap between librarians and information scientists/documentationalists on the one hand, and archivists and librarians on the other has caused a great deal of concern not only to library planners but also to library educators. P.Havard-Williams talks of 'the unity of archives, library and information sciences' and proposes two types of training for the three categories of information work, namely horizontal and vertical training. Horizontal training is training for information people generally - librarians, archivists and information scientists. Vertical training refers to a degree of specialisation and professionalisation.

There is no agreement among students of library studies, information science and archives on the unity of the three elements of information. Many have welcomed cooperation rather than unity.

In many countries, gaps exist even between public and academic librarians. In countries with small professional associations these differences can harm rather than facilitate the development of library and information services.

Since the planning of library and information services will involve governments directly or through their agencies, it was proper to issue a clarification on the concept of information at the Inter-
governmental Conference of 1974...."the type of information with which the Conference was concerned, was not the kind dealt with by information ministries but corresponded rather to that conserved and made available by documentation centres, libraries and archives." This clarification is quite appropriate to developing countries where public libraries are usually put in the Ministry of Information. Funds allocated to the Ministry are usually used up by the government printer, the government-owned radio and television and the newspaper printing department.

7.2.1.2 Application of Technology

This area is related to objective 9 of NATIS. It is one of the requirements of NATIS that a national information plan should include adequate provision for the application of information technology. The objective of NATIS is not only to transfer information to meet the needs of the community but also to link the system with international systems for effective cooperation. International cooperation will not be possible unless there is compatibility in techniques and standards, hence the need for the application of technology. Advances in technology and techniques of information handling are continuing. If developing countries are going to participate effectively in, and benefit from the world information resources they will certainly need to integrate new technological methods in the mainstream of their information activities. But developing countries must be well aware of applying advanced and sophisticated technology for its own sake. Technology is good, but it should be applied only when the country is ready for it, that is, when general
development has taken place in the rest of the country. It is no use introducing computerised services in the library when power supply in the country is unreliable or totally absent, or when there are no electricians to repair broken machinery.

National planning is therefore necessary in the area of technology. First, technology is costly and long-range government planning will ensure the stability of the programme. Secondly, it is complex and requires technical direction at the national level. Thirdly, it is specialised requiring a national information programme to be synchronised with technical education of the people who will operate it. Fourthly, technology is by its very nature an innovation, and so has the capacity to alter the traditional ways of doing things. Therefore it necessitates 'national attention to the problems of user re-education'.

7.2.1.3 Planning Information Manpower

The problem of providing manpower for information work is treated in a separate chapter on 'Manpower implications'. Here it is sufficient just to state the requirements of NATIS.

Manpower planning is essential to ensure an adequate supply of qualified personnel to meet the increasing demands for information and to avoid overproduction. NATIS requirement is that programmes for information work should include initial courses and advanced studies, as well as specialised courses for continuing education and training. These programmes should be organised in the universities or similar institutions where a 'core subject area' will be adopted as a guide for preparing basic professional curricula for information specialists,
library and archivists. This is what Professor Havard-Williams had in mind when he suggested horizontal and vertical training for information scientists, archivists and librarians.

Technical education, particularly of middle-level manpower should be organised in appropriate institutions, e.g. Colleges of science and technology and polytechnics, to prepare technical staff in "conservation and restoration work required by documentation, library and archive services. e.g. book binding, reprography etc."

In summary, the trend of professional thinking throughout the library world today is an integrated national planning for library development based in the cultural and political traditions of individual countries.

The aim of a national information policy has been defined as 'to identify the information requirements of the country and to ensure that they are satisfied as fully promptly, cheaply and conveniently as scarce resources allow.' Responsibility for assessing user needs, providing information services through appropriate structures, including libraries and archives, developing the professional and technical manpower required, educating users and ensuring their active involvement in information transfer, introducing new information technology and stimulating and supporting information research - all should be explicitly provided in the national information policy.

7.2.2.0 Universal Bibliographical Control (UBC)

The link between national information infrastructures and international ones such as International Nuclear Information Systems (INIS), AGRIS etc., is via the Universal Bibliographic Control. The
concept of UBC presupposes the setting up of a National Bibliographic Centre (NBC) in each country with the ultimate aim of ensuring that the records of the publishing output of that country are properly kept by the National Bibliographic Centre.

It is difficult for developing countries to achieve national bibliographic control due to problems of underdeveloped local publishing industry, absence or ineffective deposit laws; the existence of several local languages but none of which is used as a national language. In order to strengthen national bibliographic control, each country is urged to examine the provisions of its existing deposit laws or establish them where they do not already exist, and improve publishing and the book trade through the encouragement of bibliographic standards in book production.

The National Library of Nigeria, through the active participation of its Director at international and inter-governmental conferences, has taken a lead in Sub-Saharan Africa in adopting Unesco's recommendations on standards and norms for a National Bibliographic System. A National Bibliographic Centre has already been set up in the National Library of Nigeria, and is already publishing the National Bibliography of Nigeria (NBN). In 1975 the National Library of Nigeria organised a seminar to introduce International Standard Book Description (ISBD) to Nigerian librarians. Librarians from other African countries - Ethiopia, Kenya, Liberia and Tanzania - also attended. After the seminar Nigeria formally adopted the ISBD, and it is now applied to all materials that are listed in the National Bibliography of Nigeria: monographs, serials, atlases, maps etc.
International Standard Book Number (ISBN) was introduced in Nigeria in 1973, and most of the publishers in the country are applying it now. The introduction of ISBN has helped to uncover flaws in publishing in the country and the National Library of Nigeria has been educating Nigerian publishers on its use. In 1978 it was reported that 72 publishers had been issued with ISBNs.

The National Library has been a member of the International Serials Data System (ISDS) since 1977, and the Nigerian Serials Data Centre (NSDC) has been established with the framework of the National Library.

These then are some of the tools of systems interconnection necessary for the transfer of bibliographic information. The most difficult one to achieve from the point of view of developing countries is the compatibility of computerised systems, and this rests on economic factors. The resources are just not there. In addition, lack of trained manpower for information technology handling is a crucial factor.

It is for this reason that careful planning in this area is crucial.

7.3.0 Library Legislation

The philosophical basis of a library legislation is the creation, by a legislative action 'a secure foundation' for a nation-wide library system available to all, and providing as far as possible an equal access and opportunity for all. Legislation ensures the development of a strong national infrastructure. The fear expressed
by Unesco that 'individual elements of the information infrastructure which is not based on a secure legal foundation may on occasion, become vulnerable targets for reduction in the budgets' has been vindicated by several examples in developing countries. In places where library service is put under a ministry - say the Ministry of Culture, Education or Information, unwarranted cuts in library budgets are commonplace. Similarly grants meant for school libraries are known to have been converted for other purposes like games, entertainments or science equipment. A secure legal action may prevent this happening.

What library legislation seeks to do is to define clearly the means by which its intention will be achieved: the, executive agency or agencies through which services are to be provided; the sources of financing the services; the means of keeping under review the detailed objectives of the services and the means of ensuring that library policies, guidelines or directions are observed.

The Unesco recommendation with regard to the executive agency is that it should be sufficiently large both in resources and expertise so that it could provide the required services efficiently and economically.

The contribution of Penna and others (1977)(12) to the subject of library legislation is worth considering. Some of the key elements in their contribution from the point of view of developing countries can be summarised as follows:

1. The establishment of a central authority: it is suggested the central government should assume overall responsibility for library
services because it has the resources — human and material resources — to provide nation-wide library services.

2. The development of library and information services of various kinds as an integrated system to contribute to general social and economic development.

3. Provision of legal recognition of national professional associations, which should give them a source of strength and enable them to foster awareness of library and information needs, promoting discussion of technical means of meeting these needs.

4. A high degree of centralisation of both technical services and operational responsibility.

5. Legislation should provide for legal deposit and for participation in international or regional cooperation, including adherence to international norms and standards.

6. Establishing and recognising the links between national book publishing, book sales promotion and library service and mutual representation of library and information services and book interests on appropriate national bodies such as the Nigerian National Advisory Committee On Copyright Information Centre, the Nigerian Book Development Council etc.

7. Provision for the education and training of LIS Manpower, including continuing education.

8. To accord to qualified personnel in its information field, similar status and conditions of service to those accorded to professionals of equivalent educational level in other fields.
9. To safeguard the nation's archival heritage against all endangering factors.

The Unesco public library seminar held at Enugu, Nigeria (1962)\(^{(13)}\) considered the role of public library in educational, economic and social development, and then made recommendations for 'a national plan for public library service' in Africa. One of such recommendations was the establishment of library legislation which should state clearly, which government ministry was responsible for the service. A model draft of General Law on Libraries was produced and attached to the recommendations as Appendix III, for the guidance of African governments.

Since the publication of this draft model law three major studies on library legislation in Nigeria have been done. Agidee's study (1970)\(^{(14)}\) covers the period 1948-68 while those of Akhigbe (1980)\(^{(15)}\) and Olaitan (1980)\(^{(16)}\) cover the period from 1969 to 1978. Several sources, including Agidee, point to the fact that the two library laws in Nigeria were those of Eastern Nigeria Library Board (1955) and the National Library of Nigeria (1964). 'A law to establish the Eastern Region Library Board and for the purpose connected therewith' came into force on 1 July 1955, following the Unesco Regional Seminar at Ibadan in 1953. This law established the Eastern Nigeria Library Board, defining the Board's membership, functions, finances, auditing annual reports etc. It was modelled on the Gold Coast (now Ghana) Library Board Ordinance of 1950.

'An Act to provide for the Establishment and Maintenance of a National Library and for purposes connected therewith' came into
operation in 1964. It provided for the establishment of a Board and the functions of the National Library, the Director of the National Library and the conditions of his appointment and his services; the powers of the Board, financial provisions which among other things commit the federal government to make grants to the Board.

There was no further progress in library legislation in Nigeria prior to the military intervention and seizure of power in 1966. The only exceptions are what Agidee refers to as 'non-library legislation'. These are university laws which pertain to the establishment of universities and consequently university libraries. The relationship of university laws with university libraries differ from one university to another. For example, while some universities' laws are silent on the position of the University Librarian others define his role and status in relation to other categories of university staff. The University of Ife, for example, designates the University Librarian as an academic staff. Others like Ahmadu Bello University Zaire, recognise the University Librarian as one of the principal officers of the university, others being the Vice-Chancellor, Registrar, Bursar and Director of Works. In all universities the University Librarian is a member of the Senate of the institution. What is not clear in most of the universities is the status of the other library staff in the university library as well as the university library itself. Whereas the University Librarian may be designated as an academic staff as at Ife, there is a general tendency to regard the library itself as an administrative unit within the general administrative set up of the institution.
Of particular significance is the law providing for a library Board at the University of Nigeria Nsukka (UNN). No other university has this sort of proviso. In other universities it is only conventional to provide for library committees.

7.3.1.0 The National Library Decree 1970

Since 1970 when the Nigerian civil war ended there has been further progress in public library legislation. The National Library Act (No.6 1964) was repealed by the National Library Act No. 29 1970, which now establishes a body to be known as the National Library Board, a body corporate with perpetual succession. The Decree empowers the National Library Board to establish, and maintain in accordance with the Decree, the National Library of Nigeria, to provide such services as in the opinion of the Board are usually provided by national libraries of the highest standing, and to establish and maintain a branch of the National Library in each state. The National Library Decree 1970 is therefore an improvement on the 1964 Act. The National Library Act 1964 although entitled 'national', did apply only to the Federal Territory of Lagos. The Board composed of interested Federal Ministries which sent their representatives to the meeting of the Board. The 1964 Act did not have any legal depository provisons. The 1970 Decree has expanded the scope of the National Library and its Board. The Board now comprises representatives from all the States of the Federation and other interests including the library profession. The Decree has also empowered the Board to establish a branch of the National Library in each state. Finally the Decree has designated the National Library as a depository library, a function formerly assigned to the Ibadan University Library.
Besides the National Library legislation, seven other states have enacted library laws. These are East Central State (now Anambra State); Rivers State; Mid-West (now Bendel) State; South Eastern (now Cross River) State; Kaduna State, Imo State and Benue State. (See Appendix below:

The East Central (now Anambra) State Library Board Edict, 20 July 1971.
Rivers State Library Board Edict, 1 April 1971.
Mid-West (now Bendel) State Library Board Edict 1971.
South Eastern (now Cross River) State Library Edict 1 August 1973.
The Library Board of Kaduna State Edict 1 October 1976.
Imo State Library Board Edict 1 March 1977.

7.3.2.0 General Observations

From two library laws between 1955 and 1964, there has evolved eight public library laws in Nigeria, while others are in the pipeline. It is interesting to note that besides the former Eastern Nigeria Library Law of 1955 (later superseded by East Central State Library Edict, and now by Anambra State Library Board Edict,) and the National Library Act of 1964 (also superseded by the National Library Decree No.29of 1970), nearly all the library laws in Nigeria today were enacted by the successive military regimes. Since the new civilian regime came into power in October 1979, there has been no significant development in library legislation. Only one state, Benue State, has created a library Board by legislation during the current civilian administration.
There are certain common features in all the library laws in Nigeria. Each law has created a library board as a statutory, executive agency responsible for establishing, equipping and maintaining library services in the state to which the law applies. All but one state - South East (Cross River) State, have provided for financial sources for library services. The conditions for the appointment of the Chief Librarian - Director - have also been defined. In all the states except Imo, the appointment of the Director is by the Chief Executive of the State - the Governor. The functions of the Director and those of the Board are also clearly defined. All the states edicts have provided for legal deposits, designating the state Library Board as the legal depository for all the publications in the state to which the law applies.

What is however lacking in all the edicts is the concept of a 'free library' as required by Unesco. All the laws are silent on this very important issue. Perhaps it could be assumed to be incorporated in the edicts? Furthermore, nearly all the state edicts and the National Library edict have empowered the Boards to establish, equip and maintain library 'services of the highest standing'. But so far no library board, including the National Library Board, has been able to achieve this objective. The constraints are the usual lack of funds and qualified staff, and in the case of the National Library, lack of accommodation. Finally, none of the edicts provide for library cooperation with other libraries in other states. This perhaps confirms the strong state autonomy which has prevented equitable distribution of such social services as education, health and information.
In conclusion one can say that there is an abundance of library laws in Nigeria to serve as a basis for a national library legislation in the context of a National Information Policy. Nigeria need not look far away for model library legislation. The existing library laws have many flaws, but they do provide a useful framework within which planning can start. All that is needed is to improve on the existing ones especially that of the National Library.

7.4.0 Legal deposit and copyright

These two concepts require separate treatment from the general concept of library legislation because in operational terms they are a different kind of law. Whereas library legislation is generally concerned with the creation of a secure foundation for national library systems, legal deposit and copyright are limited in application to the problems of publication and authorship. Legal deposit and copyright are therefore not mutually exclusive, although it is helpful to distinguish operationally, between the two concepts.

Legal deposit is concerned with mandatory acquisition of a published material within a territory in which the depository law is applicable. It is a method whereby a publisher or printer of any artistic, literary or scientific work is required by law to deposit at his own expense, a specified number of such works to a designated national institution or institutions, within a specified period after publication. One important objective of this legal provision is the awareness it creates of the publishing output of a country. It is hoped that if the publishing output of a country can be properly and adequately documented in the form of a national bibliography, the wider
concept of UBC could be achieved. The second objective is that it facilitates the building up of a national collection which reflects the nation's intellectual and cultural heritage. Copyright on the other hand is concerned with the protection of rights of creators of intellectual activity. In other words, copyright laws provide protection to authors and other creators of literary, artistic or scientific works. Authors of such works need protection against piracy, against unauthorised use of the works of their mind.

7.4.1 Legal deposit in Nigeria

Most countries have some kind of legal arrangements to ensure that their publishing output is acquired and properly documented in a national institution designated for this purpose by law. The first law in Nigeria dealing with legal deposit came into force in 1950 as the 'Publications Ordinance of 1950'. The Ordinance stated:

The publisher of every book published in Nigeria shall within one month after publication, deliver at his own expense, two copies of the book to the Minister who shall arrange for their preservation in such a manner and in such place as the Governor-General in-Council may direct, and two copies to the Library of the University College Ibadan....

The Ordinance thus designated the library of the Ibadan University College as the nation's depository. The other depository, according to Esezobor(17) was the Secretariat Library Lagos.

This Ordinance applied throughout Nigeria until 1955. In that year the Eastern Region enacted its own publication's law known as the Eastern Nigeria Publications Law 1955. The Western Region followed in 1956 with the Western Nigeria Publications Act 1956. Both regions
however conceded the depository rights to Ibadan University College, and the Eastern Nigeria Publications Law even extended the depository rights to institutions outside Nigeria, namely, University College Ghana, Fourah Bay College, Sierra Leone in addition to those of Eastern Region Library Board, the University of Nigeria, Nsukka and the University College, Ibadan.

It is interesting to note that the University of Nigeria Nsukka had only just been proposed when it was made legal depository for Eastern Nigeria.

These developments notwithstanding, Ibadan University Library continued as the nation's legal depository laying a firm foundation for a national bibliography of Nigeria.

However, in 1964 the Northern Regional government established its Northern Nigeria Publications Law (1964) and repealed the Publications Ordinance of 1950. Ahmadu Bello University Library was designated as legal depository for all publications put out in the region. Henceforth Ibadan University Library ceased to exercise its legal deposit rights over Northern Nigeria. The federal government, by a legal notice (number 112 of 1964) amended the original Publications Ordinance of 1950 and made it applicable only to the federal territory, designating the University of Lagos Library as the Legal depository.

The situation as at 1964 was as follows:

Only the East and West (including the Mid-West) designated Ibadan University Library as the nation's depository. Northern Nigeria designated Ahmadu Bello University Library its legal depository. The federal government empowered Lagos University Library to be the legal depository for all publications in the federal territory of Lagos.
The National Library which was established in that year was not legally constituted a depository.

The situation became further complicated when twelve states were created out of the four regions. However, a new law reconstituting the National Library has rectified the confused situation. The new National Library Decree 1970 provides that:

The publisher of every book published in Nigeria shall within one month after the publication deliver at his own expense to the National Library three copies of the book, two of which shall be kept in the National Library for permanent preservation, and one of which shall be sent by the Director to the Ibadan University Library.

The 1970 law therefore has restored the dual depository position as it was in 1955, by granting both the National Library and Ibadan University Library the status of legal deposit.

7.4.2 Copyright: an overview

Copyright is about the rights of creators of literary and artistic works. It seeks to provide protection to the authors' works of intellectual creativity. The United Nations Charter recognises copyright as a fundamental human right. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted in 1948 by the General Assembly of the UN states in paragraph 27, thus:

1) Everyone has the right freely to participate in the culture of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.
2) Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific production of which he is the author.

Similarly recognition is accorded to the author's moral and economic rights. The moral right is founded on the basis of the author's personality, which is reflected in his intellectual property, the creation of the mind. The economic rights of the author are those enabling him to earn a living from the works of his mind. Unesco has summarised in a beautiful manner, the underlying principles of copyright thus:

Copyright is based on the premise that no property is more peculiarly the individuals than the products of his or her mind. Copyright is an assertion in law that writers and artists have the right to ownership in their works. They are entitled to protection against unauthorized use of their work as well as share in any earnings from its use by the public. (18)

Copyright has evolved from being sacrosanct, absolute and exclusive in the eighteenth century to the modern world of economic, political and social structures linked to scientific and industrial development where the need for co-existence is recognised and appreciated. On the one hand there is the author's moral right to be protected, on the other, there is the right of the public to research, free flow of information, scholarship and knowledge. This co-existence poses the problem of determining the relationship between owners of copyrights (authors and publishers) and the users. Accordingly, copyright law is concerned about norms applicable to copyright which will clarify this relationship.
Unesco has been mandated 'to promote the free flow of ideas by word and image' and to 'give the people of all countries access to the printed and published materials produced by any of them, by encouraging cooperation among the nations in all branches of intellectual activity'. But while Unesco has a duty to encourage creative work by safeguarding the professional dignity and economic security of the creators of such works, it is incumbent on the organisation also to see that the legitimate protection of the authors does not prevent the dissemination of information or of protected works, especially those of educational, scientific and technological nature. While copyright provides protection to authors and other creators of intellectual activity, it is designed at the same time to encourage the creation and dissemination to the public the original works of the authors.

7.4.2.1 Development in Technology

Copyright has always been linked to technological advance. Although there is no universal agreement on its origin, it is generally accepted that the evolution of modern copyright began with the invention of printing in the fifteenth century when it was possible to produce and disseminate several copies of literary work. With further technological advancement, copyright law has moved away from being merely concerned with books and magazines to include more sophisticated communications technology such as films, radio and television, video recorders, phonograph records, computers, earth satellites, magnetic tape reproduction equipment, cassette tapes etc. Computer technology in particular has created a new dimension in communications and
information storage and retrieval.

Thus new technologies have provided opportunities for fast communications between people, but because they utilise copyrighted works, they present opportunities for piracy. This is worrying to the authors and it has led to a situation whereby new forms of legislation are being sought and copyright laws of several countries are being revised.

7.4.2.2 Copyright and the Developing Countries

We have seen in the chapters dealing with development and national planning that the most urgent need in developing countries now is the improvement in the living conditions of their people. To achieve this objective, it has often been emphasised that progress in education, science and culture is required. How can such progress take place? Unesco's answer is that it 'is made possible through the dissemination of information and knowledge and its application to national development'. This assertion rests on the firm belief that 'intellectual production is as important for development as material production.' In order to stimulate the production of knowledge and to provide access to the world sources of information in science and technology as well as administration, many countries have embarked on a number of measures including the stimulation of local book industry, the development of modern communications e.g. earth satellites, computers, etc. They are also trying to create conducive atmosphere for national intellectual production and free exchange of ideas between nations. In this direction national and international copyright laws are vitally needed.
Copyright has a crucial role to play in national development. It ensures uninterrupted access to the best works of other nations needed for development. It always enables developing countries to export their intellectual products to other countries. Therefore their citizens (authors) need protection and necessary guarantees. Copyright has critical impact particularly on the flow of scientific, literary, musical and artistic works from other countries.

Developing countries have a special need in the area of education. Educational materials have continued to be in great demand in developing countries since the end of World War II. Because most developing countries lack strong local publishing industry, they have depended on the book imports of industrialised countries. In a number of cases foreign copyrighted works may be required for translation, reproduction or adaptation. In the past, developing countries have had difficulty obtaining favourable rights to translate and reproduce needed educational materials. Pressures from them led to the two meetings of international copyright experts at Brazzaville in 1963 and of the Intellectual Property Conference at Stockholm in 1967. These meetings afforded the major publishing nations an opportunity to come to grips with the needs of developing countries, and so in 1971 the two copyright conventions - the Berne Convention and the Universal Copyright Convention (UCC) were revised at the Paris conferences in favour of developing countries. The revisions removed any obstacles that could prevent developing countries from gaining access to materials needed for educational purposes. In particular, the revisions provided for 'a limited compulsory licensing system for translation and reproduction of literary, scientific or artistic works needed by developing countries.'
7.4.2.3 Copyright in Nigeria

The copyright law now in force in Nigeria is the Copyright Decree No. 61 of 1970. This law repeals the Copyright Act 1911 of the United Kingdom (s.18(1)).

Section 19(1) defines in elaborate terms what constitutes artistic work, authorship, literary work, among other things. Although this law has been in existence for more than ten years, it has not been effective nor known by many people. Ignorance about its existence is even expressed by some Nigerian authors. A study undertaken by a Unesco consultant (19) revealed that the Ministry of Trade which is responsible for implementing the copyright law has been ineffective 'because of the pressure of other work'. The Paris revisions of 1971 have not even been adopted by Nigeria. To make this law widely known to people and more effective, efforts are being made by the Nigerian government under the direction of the National Library, to set up a national copyright information centre.

7.4.2.3.1 National Copyright Information Centre

The need to make the Nigerian Copyright Law more effective was expressed in the form of a request by the Nigerian government for a Unesco assistance in establishing a national information centre which would not only disseminate information about the existing copyright but also take steps to administer the law itself. The mission was undertaken as part of Unesco's programme of participation in the activities of member states during the 1977/78 biennium.
The background to the study and its subsequent recommendations can be summarised as follows:

**Ideological.** It is a national policy of the Nigerian government that every Nigerian citizen has a right to develop his/her fullest potential, and literacy and education are emphasised as being indispensible in the full development of the individual.

**Universal Primary Education (UPE).** To back up this national policy, the introduction of the UPE was inevitable. Since its introduction in 1976 the annual expenditures on education have been increasing yearly. The estimated number of children attending primary school at the end of 1981 was 18m.

**Manpower.** The training of Nigerians in basic industrial skills to provide the required manpower for economic development has been accorded high priority.

These developments in education have created a demand for new kinds of educational materials in consonance with the new techniques in education being employed. What these developments amount to is the fact that special demands will be made on Nigerian authors, and as Wagner observes in her report 'greater numbers of students will seek instruction in the crafts of editing, writing and translating. The country will develop a corps of skilled writers, editors and translators.' These are perhaps hypothetical statements, but there is no doubt that Nigeria wishes to encourage local publishing and to create good conditions for its development. Copyright plays an important role in this process by ensuring against piracy. Furthermore, as it is revealed in Wagner's report, the provisions of the 1970 Copyright law are probably
not known by many people. This is evident from a number of requests the National Library has received from authors and publishers for information on the subject. The report recommended as a first step, the setting up of advisory body comprising the relevant interests, to advise the federal government on the establishment of a National Copyright Information Centre.

Following this recommendation, an Advisory Committee on National Copyright Information Centre has been set up by the National Library on behalf of the Nigerian government. This committee comprises representative interests from the Federal Ministries of Commerce, International Affairs, and Justice; the Nigerian Book Development Council; the Nigerian Educational Research Council; the Nigerian Library Association; the legal profession; the Nigerian Publishers' Association; the Nigerian Association of Translators and Interpreters, and the National Theatre. (Cultural Department). The writer has the privilege to represent the Nigerian Library Association on this Advisory Committee.

At the inaugural meeting of the Advisory Committee on 10th July 1981, the Director of the National Library of Nigeria urged members to concern themselves initially with 'an examination of our Copyright Act 1970; some familiarization with the International Convention and Agreements and some awareness of the various guidelines already developed by ICIC in many aspects of copyright', and to produce 'a working blueprint' for the federal government.

Conclusion

Copyright is not strictly part of the library legislation discussed earlier. However, from the point of view of NATIS requirements
it is not totally out of place to include the concept of copyright in this discussion. The concept of NATIS requires the harmonisation of all information infrastructures, and copyright is part of this infrastructure.

In Nigeria today, the potential for a national library service exists. Information infrastructures have begun to develop but a great deal is uncoordinated, unrelated to one another and haphazard. What is required is a central governmental agency to harness all the sub-systems - libraries, archives, documentation services, data banks, computer centres, book industries, satellites etc., into one national system, hence the need for planning.

7.5.0 Centralised Planning

The problems of library development in Nigeria have been discussed in an earlier section. Among them are illiteracy, ethnicity and lack of literature in the vernacular languages. These problems of course relate to the general problem of library development, and not necessarily centralised planning. The problems of the size of the country and communication on the other hand pose a serious threat to centralised library services and planning. With a land area of 356,660 sq.miles, it is often wondered whether centralised planning of library services is feasible. The problem of size is further compounded by poor communications system, particularly telecommunications. But people who are pessimistic about centralisation of library and information services should realise that other public services such as Telecommunication Department, National Electric Power Authority etc.,
are centrally planned and controlled. Moreover, National Economic Planning itself is a central government responsibility, with participation from all the states of the federation. The other factor is of a political nature. Information and library services are concurrent legislative subjects which means that state governments as well as the federal government, can and do legislate on them. We have seen in the last section the evolution of library legislation and library development in Nigeria since 1955. It is evident from that survey that although in those states that have created library boards following the establishment of library laws, library services have improved somehow, the general situation is unsatisfactory. The majority of the states are without library boards. In those states, library services are almost non-existent.

It is envisaged that centralised planning will do the trick. Fortunately the concept has been accepted by developing countries and is already being applied to national planning to harmonise and integrate the scarce resources of these countries. The case of the prosecution throughout this investigation has been integrated library development planning, and a corollary to this approach is centralised planning. In other words what is being suggested is the transfer of responsibility for library and information services from local and state governments and other bodies, to the federal government to be integrated into the overall national development plans. It is only the federal government that has enough resources to meet the very rapid growth in volume and expansion in library and information services and the consequent increase in costs. As Ranganathan once remarked, it is only the federal government that is 'able to stand out and spot gaps'
in library and information services.

There are no accurate statistics on library provision and library resources in Nigeria, but there is no doubt that imbalances exist in the provision of library services. We shall be looking at three kinds of imbalance or inequality in library services, and it will become clear that the book resources of Nigeria are as unevenly distributed as are its economic resources. These imbalances are:

a. inequality between geographic regions/states.

b. inequality between urban and rural centres.

c. inequality between library needs of the scholar and student and the general reader.

That is, inequality between public and college/academic libraries.

7.5.1 Inequality between geographic regions

The latest statistical information on Nigerian libraries is provided by the National Library of Nigeria in its 1982 Official Diary. The information, although by no means comprehensive, does reveal significantly, geographical imbalances in library provision and library resources in the country. The survey shows a total number of 135 major libraries in Nigeria. This figure excludes branch/divisional libraries. Of the 135 libraries in the survey, 89 are located in the 9 Southern States of the country, that is an average of about 9.8 libraries to each state, and only 46 in the 10 states of the North (twice the size of the South) which is an average of 4.6 libraries per each Northern State. Within states there are great disparities in the provision of library services. For instance, while states like Kaduna and Oyo have 17 and 14 libraries respectively, others like Bauchi, Borno and Gongola have 2 each. The heaviest concentration
of libraries is in Lagos which has 38 libraries. The reason for this is simple. Lagos is both the Capital of Lagos State and that of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and it has a high concentration of research institutes with their special libraries. Of the 38 libraries to be found in Lagos, 28 represent special libraries (See Table II). 7.1.

7.5.2 Inequalities between urban and rural areas

There are striking imbalances in the supply of libraries between urban and rural areas. Of the 135 libraries in the survey, more than 90% are located in the cities and other major towns of the country. Only a very small proportion of them, representing College and research libraries, can be found in the rural areas. This concentration of libraries in urban centres reflects the elite nature of library services in Nigeria, but it also reflects the general pattern of development orientation in all developing countries. Most of the social services such as education, health, pipe-borne water supply, electricity etc., are located in the major cities where the elite population is concentrated. Lack of social amenities in the rural areas has led to an unprecedented migration of rural population to the cities. The result is a continuous decline in rural population and overcrowding in the cities, and a further stratification between urban and rural areas.

During the past few decades new paradigms for development have emerged. A number of studies have been made with regard to rural development. Olatumbosun's 'Nigeria's Neglected Rural Majority' (1975) is unequalled as a classic critique of Nigeria's development strategies.
The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has devoted a large portion of its budget and efforts to the development of Third World countries with increasing emphasis on rural development, particularly agricultural development. Governments in developing countries have paid lip service to rural development, although they have recognised the role of information in rural transformation. Rural development is ideally concerned with the development of agriculture, education, health, nutrition, and family planning among the rural poor majority. Communications researchers have therefore turned their attention to this target group to assess what impact information has on development in these sectors of rural life. McAnany has presented enough evidence in his 'Communications in the Rural Third World' (1980) to show that there is a positive correlation between development information and agricultural productivity and improvement in health, nutrition etc., although he admits that "information is not an independent variable in the development process" since it 'is dependent upon other factors in the larger political and economic context of a particular society'. Researchers are now concerned about delivery of information to the rural poor, and in particular, about its selection and social outcomes. Selection refers to questions of accessibility or 'equity', i.e. who gets information or message, while outcomes refers to change in 'attitudes' as a result of information. Governments in developing countries assume that development information can reach rural communities more effectively via the mass media such as radio and television, newspapers, and even cinema houses. But as McAnany has shown there is almost a
negative correlation between the mass-mediated, information and rural development, because with the exception of the radio, the other mass media are almost non-existent in rural areas and even where they are available (in limited numbers) the content of their message may be so irrelevant to stimulate behavioural change (development). A number of studies have shown that rural farmers' contact with 'change agents' - (extension workers) has produced more positive results than the role of the mass media, and that there is a high correlation of change agent contact with the print media - especially the newspaper. Governments of developing countries should therefore reassess their priorities in planning communications projects for development and rather than invest in sophisticated, electronic media as channels of development information, more extension workers should be trained and rural libraries provided to cater for their literature needs.

7.5.3 Inequalities between public and academic libraries

Problems of public library development have already been identified. Some of these include high illiteracy rate, the size of the country, poor communications infrastructure, government apathy etc. These factors account for the very slow development of public libraries which is reflected in our survey. Of the 135 libraries in the survey only 28 represent public and national libraries, 50 represent special libraries. For the purpose of this investigation, special libraries will be grouped together with academic libraries since they both perform similar functions. This would bring the total number of academic libraries to 107 as against 27 public libraries. As was
discovered in section 5.2 the non-availability of public library services in the rural areas also account for the small proportion of public libraries in the survey. The high proportion of academic libraries cannot, however, be explained in terms of overall educational planning. In fact the development of academic libraries (including special libraries) has been accidental, or 'project-supportive'. While governments are committed to rapid educational expansion at all levels, academic libraries have not been consciously planned as integral parts of the educational programme. Once the institutions are established by the governments, the development of libraries within the institutions becomes the sole responsibility of the authorities of the institutions concerned.

Finally, the most striking inequality is between public and school libraries. In most parts of Nigeria school library services are almost non-existent despite the government's declared policy of providing school library services to improve the quality of instruction in schools.

It is because of the existing inequalities in the provision of library and information services that a centralised approach to the planning of the services is recommended. This recommendation is made on the firm conviction that only a 'National Commission', adequately funded and backed by legislation, can coordinate the policies and procedures for library development in Nigeria. Apart from the general government apathy, inequality in public and school library services is caused by variations in the wealth among states, more than any other single factor. This was the view expressed by Joeckel(1938)(21)
when he commented on the library situation in the United States forty years ago. Joeckel believed that disparities in income among states accounted for lack of adequate minimum national standards of library services. If Nigeria is to achieve the most effective use of national and international information resources and the largest return for funds invested in them, common goals, objectives, methods and standards are needed now for the coordinated development of information facilities. A 'National Commission' on Library and Information Services, similar in status to the National Universities Commission, should be the agency responsible for national library planning in Nigeria.

The experience of other countries should guide us in the national planning of information services. The Soviet experience of centralised planning is a useful illustration. The First Soviet Library legislation - the Decree of the Council of People's Commissars on the Centralization of Libraries in the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republics - was enacted in 1920. Planning was directed by Lenin himself. The first Soviet development plan - Soviet First-Five-Year Plan 1929, embracing library planning, led to an increase in the number of Soviet libraries by more than 6,000 to a total of about 33,000. Today Soviet libraries(22) are running to hundreds of thousands. In 1973 the country had a total of 360,000 libraries. Of these, 129,000 were public, 171,000 school, about 60,000 research and other specialised libraries and about 7,000 children's libraries. In fact since the Great October Revolution of 1917, library development has become an integral part of the cultural structure of Soviet life, and government has been the leading influence in the planning and
development of libraries at all levels.

In India Ranganathan (1950)\(^{(23)}\) had bought the philosophy of centralized planning from the Soviet Union, and by 1933 had developed a 30-year development plan for an accelerated library development 'to leap ahead of others' whose development had been 'casual' and has led to many wasteful traditions and practices.

There are similar examples elsewhere. In the United States there is a National Commission on Libraries and Information Science established on 20 July 1970, by the U.S. government. The establishment of this Commission was preceded by a National Advisory Commission on libraries, set up by President Johnson to investigate the library and information requirements of the United States in the light of the 'knowledge explosion'. It was this advisory commission that recommended the setting up of a permanent independent body or agency 'to advise the President and Congress on the needs of the nation'.\(^{(24)}\)

In the United Kingdom no such independent agency exists but by the Public Libraries and Museums Act of 1964, the Department of Education and Science has become the main planning machinery for all libraries in the public sector, with the exception of special libraries maintained by other government departments.

Conclusion

In summary, centralized planning of library and information services means:

1. preparation and costing a coordinated development plan for all types of library and information services within the national development plans of Nigeria;
2. Harmonizing the allocation of resources - both human and material - for library development, from both internal and external resources. The new type of library service will function as a national network, bringing all types of library under unified adminis­trative, financial, and methodological guidance;

3. Establishing and providing for regular review of national standards for efficient and effective library and information services.

7.6.0 Proposed Programme for a National Information System in Nigeria

National library planning is a relatively new theme in the literature of librarianship. Therefore few planning models exist for the guidance of developing countries where planning is most needed. A national programme for national library development for a developing country like Nigeria, should consist of the following elements:

1. To ensure that all communities are provided with basic, adequate library and information services. In particular local communities should be provided with library and information services not only for educational and recreational purposes, but also for development and to strengthen their links with the rest of the people.

2. To provide adequate special services to special groups or 'user constituencies' - the blind, and physically handicapped, the poor, the illiterate, ethnic minorities, etc.

3. To strengthen the existing state systems to attain at least minimum standards of service within a national framework.

4. To assess manpower requirement, and take steps to develop the human resources needed to implement a national information programme. To adopt a realistic approach to
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of State</th>
<th>No. of Libraries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Academic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ANAMBRA</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. BAUCHI</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. BENDEL</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. BENUE</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. BORNO</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. CROSS RIVER</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. GONGOLA</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. IMO</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. KADUNA</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. KANO</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. KWARA</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. NIGER</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. Ogun</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. ONDO</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. OYO</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. PLATEAU</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. RIVERS</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. SOKOTO</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. LAGOS</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total         | 50         | 27       | 57  |   1    | 135    |

Source: Compiled from the National Library of Nigeria Official-Diary 1982 by the author.

Notes: * figures excludes branch libraries
        f these libraries include foreign agency libraries
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Group B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Southern States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>No. of Libraries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anambra</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benue</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross River</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benue</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imo</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ogun</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ondo</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oyo</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 89

Total 46
KEY:
1. States with more than 30 libraries
2. States with 11-20 libraries
3. States with 5-10 libraries
4. States with 0-4 libraries
5. F.C.T. New Federal Capital Territory (Abuja)
the education of information personnel, bearing in mind new development in information technology and the expansion of knowledge generally.

5. To coordinate all existing libraries - National Special, Public, School and Academic - in a coherent national network.

6. To make the private sector a more active partner in the development of a national programme of information. Consequently, the resources of the publishing industry, professional associations and other related bodies will be taken into account when planning a national library and information system.

7. To carry out regular research or surveys in order to assess the information requirements of Nigeria and their supply mechanisms to different categories of information users. Surveys of information requirements of rural people will be particularly encouraged with a view to reaching them most effectively and economically.

Problems of Federalism

National library planning in a federation especially one as large as Nigeria, must have certain unique characteristics. State autonomy, the pluralistic nature of the Nigerian society with diversified interests, will often create tensions and confusion in planning. In Nigeria where there are already several independent library authorities - some eight state library boards - these problems are particularly enormous. The most crucial problem to solve is the one of funding. What proportion of library budget should come from the federal government,
states and local authorities? How will funds for library services be dispersed anyway? It is a well known fact that revenue sharing does not work well for libraries. Only a small proportion - usually about 1 percent of the funds dispersed goes to library support, and even this small percent is usually used to offset routine operating expenses rather than provide new materials, programmes and services.

It is proposed here that a national independent agency - the proposed National Commission on Library and Information Services - should be the main library authority disbursing funds for library services. The federal government should be the main source of library funds, but state and local governments should also contribute to the fund on proportional basis. This of course would require a re-adjustment of revenue-sharing formulae of the federal government.

The second problem to resolve is the organisational structure of the planning mechanism. It is wondered whether such a highly centralised bureaucracy would work in Nigeria, particularly for the fear of local and state loyalties. A lot of Nigerians will not work in states other than their own. To solve that problem, one writer has suggested a 'maximum centralization of functions and decentralization of services'. In Nigeria the infrastructure is already there. The central agency can operate in the states through the existing state library authorities - the State Library Boards, which will operate within the framework of the national agency's policies.
NOTES


19. Susan Wagner was the Unesco expert who undertook a study on behalf of the Unesco to assist Nigeria in setting up a National Information Centre. *Aid to Member States in the field of Copyright. National Copyright Information Centre. Report prepared for the Government of Nigeria by Unesco, Paris. 1979.*


8.1. Manpower development: the state of the arts

A review of library literature on manpower for information reveals a general agreement on the shortage of library personnel at all levels of information work in Nigeria. There are a few who do not believe this, instead they argue that what is lacking is the personnel with the technical and managerial skills and experience 'necessary to carry out an accelerated programme of library development'. Such views are usually held by people whose preoccupation is with graduate professional training at the highest specialist level, as if middle management and technical assistant levels did not matter in the performance of library work.

Another reason perhaps, is the lack of a central planning body for library and information services resulting into diverse uncoordinated manpower plans by different states in the country. This point is quite significant because as was seen in Chapter 5 one of the problems of planning library services in a federation is that each state develops its own library services without regard to what other states are doing. The supply of manpower for library and information services is therefore the responsibility of each state but the federal government also has a scholarship or bursary scheme for the training of librarians, documentalists and archivists. In states where scholarship schemes are based on stated areas of need such as medicine, engineering, architecture, education etc., scholarships for
library and information studies are severely limited because these areas rank very low on the scale of priorities of government. A few states have a more liberal bursary/scholarship policy known as 'automatic scholarship' which means that any citizen of that state who gains admission to the university to do a degree course will automatically qualify for the state scholarship award. This liberal policy is however limited to first degrees tenable only in Nigerian institutions. In such states scholarship awards for library science candidates would be more liberal but they would be limited by the two factors of venue and type of programme. It is because of this liberal policy that a state like Benue with the least developed library services is one of the two states with the highest number of diploma and B.L.S. graduates. (1)

What this means is that library and information manpower is not planned in a coherent manner as is manpower for medicine education etc., and is never related to the overall national planning. The situation is further complicated by the non-inclusion of manpower planning in national development plans. That aspect is usually left to be taken care of in Recurrent and Capital Budgets of the individual states.

The federal government policy for the training of doctors, scientists/technologists is more precise and articulated. Nigerian Universities were required to produce some 700 research zoologists by 1980 and admit not less than 1000 medical students from that period. There is no such clear cut guideline for library and information service. Instead the federal government has embarked upon a federal scholarship scheme whereby deserving candidates will be assisted to
pursue courses of study both in Nigeria and overseas, but awards for overseas studies are only made for post-graduate courses.

Under this scheme therefore, the federal government has made a few post-graduate awards for library and information studies for courses in Nigeria, the United Kingdom and U.S. These awards include courses for the degrees of MLS, M.Phil., M.Sc.(Inf.Science) and Ph.D. For the 1972/73\(^2\) session twenty-seven post-graduate awards have been made. It is not however known what target the federal government has set for manpower supply in the field of information. If such a target were set it would seem appropriate to suggest that state governments should concentrate on the education and training of librarians at the undergraduate level including intermediate levels, while the federal government concentrated on the post-graduate programmes. Of course the difficulty about such an arrangement would be what Professor Havard-Williams describes as "lack of clarity of thought in defining just what levels of professionalism are required"\(^3\) and this touches on the very basis of library education in Nigeria which we shall return to later in this chapter.

A survey by the National Manpower Planning Board in 1977\(^4\) revealed an estimated stock of librarians in Nigeria to be 750 with a reported vacancy rate of 45.3 percent. This means an estimated manpower requirement of some 900 librarians as at 1st April 1977.

This figure is significant for the purpose of this investigation for the following reasons. First it means that manpower requirement for information work is great, therefore something must be done about it urgently. Since 1977 there has been a steady increase in the number
of libraries especially university college and research libraries, without a corresponding increase in the number of trained personnel. The requirement is therefore expected to rise even higher now than it was in 1977. Secondly, the survey does not specify the requirement for the different categories of information personnel as it does in other areas. e.g. manpower requirement for architecture is given under architects, architectural assistants and technicians. Similarly the requirement for education is given under graduate teachers with their specialisation such as Science teachers, Arts teachers and N.C.E. On the contrary manpower requirement for information is simply stated under 'librarians and archivists'. This does not give a true picture of manpower shortage for the various categories of information personnel. It is possible that non-professional staff have been classified together with librarians. This is not unlikely in Nigeria where the term librarian is applied to anyone who works in the library. What is more library officers (para-professionals) holders of non-graduate diploma in library science, are heads of libraries in Nigeria. In such a confused situation manpower planning for information work should be top priority in Nigeria.

Another survey undertaken by Edoka (1979)\(^5\) represents only 13 libraries - 5 academic, 3 public and 5 special libraries - and covers a period of five years - 1976 - 1980. This survey is certainly not representative of libraries in Nigeria, but it does show a general trend. Manpower requirement is classified under Junior Management, Middle management and Senior management. The study reveals that personnel requirement is higher at the junior management level - comprising
Assistant Librarian, Librarian grade II, Sub-librarian II and Librarian I. Of the estimated vacancies in the 13 libraries reported, junior management accounts for 71% of the shortage. The middle management Sub-Librarian I, Senior Librarian, Senior Sub-Librarian and Principal Librarian — account for only 24% of the shortage while the Senior Management Cadre — Deputy Librarian, Deputy Director, Librarian and Director — account for just 5%. Although the author agrees that the study represents only 25 percent of the employers of librarians in the country, a conservative estimate based on the study would give a total of 627 additional librarians during the period 1976-1980. Judging by the rate at which librarians are produced in Nigeria, that figure could not be met by 1980. From 1976 to 1980, both Ibadan and Zaria together produced about 340 graduate librarians. That figure plus another unknown one from overseas institutions would still not give as anything approaching six hundred. So demands for librarians remains on the increase.

8.2 Manpower Planning for library and information service

8.2.1 Analysis of manpower resources

Unesco's concern for the supply of adequately trained personnel for library and information and archives services has been well documented both in official and non-official literature. The official literature comprises mostly Unesco's own publications or publications sponsored by the organisation. The non-official literature consists mainly of reviews of Unesco's activities by individual scholars and international, non-governmental organisations such as IFLA, FID, ICA etc.
The series of regional meetings in Africa, Asia and Latin America have given adequate attention to the subject of education and training of personnel for these services. The Unesco Meeting of Experts on Planning Documentation and Library Networks in Africa (NATIS) held at Brazzaville in July 1976 reviewed the progress made in the development of libraries and documentation services in Africa since the Kampala meeting of 1970. Although Unesco was of the view that the general library situation was 'very unsatisfactory' it was the lack of trained and experienced personnel which was felt to be the greatest hindrance to the creation, organisation and development of libraries in these countries. In Nigeria many programmes of library expansion have been retarded by the lack of qualified personnel. The expansion programme of the National Library has been severely affected by this factor, so are those of State Library Boards, University and College Libraries, departmental and special libraries. Unfortunately the absence of a central co-ordinating body for library development makes assessment of manpower resources of Nigeria absolutely difficult, if not impossible. Such surveys as have been done by Edoka (1979) and National Manpower Board (1980) already discussed, do not provide accurate and up to date figures for the reason that many libraries do not answer research questionnaires. Out of 51 libraries served with Edoka's questionnaire only 19 responded after several months, and of these only 13 or 25.5 percent contained 'usable data'. In this case Edoka's analysis can only be regarded as revealing a general trend but not an absolute quantification of manpower requirement in Nigerian libraries.
The Brazzaville conference recommended that a national policy of staff training for information work presupposes that a 'high priority should be given to bringing to reality objective 6 of the Inter-governmental Conference on the Planning of National Documentation, Library and Archives Infrastructures (Paris) 1974. Objective 6 states: 'Comprehensive surveys should be undertaken of existing national manpower resources as a basis for the planning of manpower provision and the forecasting of future needs for NATIS'. This recommendation goes on to say that 'the survey promoted by the central body should analyse existing manpower resources in relation to the estimated growth of information activities to determine the availability of trained personnel at the various levels of professional and non-professional duties.' The available manpower can then be related to national needs as indicated in the national plan for information work. It is only then that programmes for education and training can be drawn up on the basis of the survey data so as to supply manpower required for the satisfactory performance of the information tasks. The basis of manpower planning for library and documentation work is therefore to ensure both adequate supply of qualified staff and to avoid over-production. The training of manpower must be a priority to be given both financial and legislative support.

8.2.2 Education and Training

The origin of library education in Nigeria is discussed in my M.A. Loughborough (1979) (6) dissertation. A number of other studies in the area can be found in the library literature, especially the
various editions of the *Nigerian Libraries* bulletin of the Nigerian Library Association (NLA). Here only a summary of the main points discussed in my dissertation will be given. There is no general agreement on when exactly professional education and training for librarianship began in Nigeria. Some authors say that it began in the 1940s with the arrival of the British Council in Nigeria in 1943, and with the establishment of a library school at Achimota Ghana in 1944. The most current and more strongly held view is that which attributes professional education in Nigeria to the establishment of the Institute of Librarianship, Ibadan in 1960. In terms of indigenousness the latter view can be accepted, and indeed validated, but the fact also remains that prior to the establishment of the Institute of Librarianship at Ibadan, the British Council staff in Nigeria were training Nigerians for the Library Association's Registration examination both locally and abroad, mainly in the United Kingdom. This trend continued for sometime, with more and more Nigerians obtaining the Association's qualifications (ALA, and FLA). Fellowships were awarded to a few deserving Nigerians to study in the United Kingdom. Sponsors included the British Council, the Unesco, the Foundations and the Nigerian governments.

The Unesco Conference of 1953 - *Seminar on the development of public libraries in Africa* - held at Ibadan, Nigeria, brought a new dimension to library education and training to the entire West Africa. The Conference recommended "a limited number of library schools of high calibre be established in Africa to provide full-scale professional training at the leadership level". It recommended further that
"Library Schools located in Africa should require university graduation or its equivalent for admission to the programme of full-scale professional training at the leadership level."

As a result of this recommendation, the West African Library Association (WALA) persuaded the Carnegie Corporation of New York to fund a library school in West Africa. The Corporation commissioned Harold Lancour to conduct an evaluative study of the library situation in West Africa. Lancour recommended among other things that a local institution be established but that it "be connected with a university level institution", and that it should 'be at a post graduate level' to provide full-scale professional training at the leadership level. Lancour recommended specifically that this institution should be established at the University College - now University of Ibadan - because the University library was 'outstanding' and provided the necessary infrastructure for the training of librarians. Lancour's recommendations were accepted by the Carnegie Corporation and in 1960 the Institute of Librarianship was opened at the University College Ibadan. Its first students were admitted in the 1961/62 academic session.

Opposition to the introduction of post-graduate education for librarians was immediately registered by J.Carnell and Evelyn Evans, both British Council librarians working in Ghana. They both doubted the wisdom of giving priority to post-graduate training for African librarians at that stage of development. Jessie Carnell's opposition was expressed in unequivocal terms:

....It is difficult to understand how anyone who has worked in Africa can support the statement that 'the basic objective of full-scale library training in Africa should be to
train leaders for the library profession. The basic need is workers. Leaders, in any case, are not produced by the library schools, full-time or other, the essentials are certain qualities of character, a high level of intelligence, the discipline of work and the experience of responsibility. (7)

Evans was even more pessimistic about the value of a post-graduate school to public libraries. She was to be vindicated later when in 1965 the distribution of the Institute's graduates showed that of the 52 graduates, only 12 were employed in the public libraries, 26 were employed in university libraries. The rest were distributed as follows: 3 to the National Library, 6 to special libraries, 1 to school/College libraries, and 4 to other libraries. The dissenting views of Jessie Carnell and Evelyn Evans probably represented the conservative British tradition while those of Lancour represented the American tradition.

Lancour's recommendations were reinforced by the arrival of John Harris as the Director of the Institute and a powerful protagonist of post-graduate training for librarians. His views greatly influenced the development of library education programmes at Ibadan when the institution became fully operational in 1961/62.

Two years later the government of Northern Nigeria invited Mr.F.A.Sharr from Australia to study the library needs of the region and make recommendations to the government. Sharr arrived in Nigeria in 1962 (November) and carried out a survey of library needs in Northern Nigeria for about three months. He returned to Australia in February 1963. Sharr's recommendation in respect of library education recognised 'a dual need' namely:
for in-service training which is the responsibility of each library and depends on good organisation and sufficient senior staff; and for professional education which could best be given in a school of librarianship at Ahmadu Bello University providing a combined course of general education and professional studies. (8)

Sharr’s understanding of the educational problems of Northern Nigeria proved a great asset to him in making his recommendations. He strongly rejected the practice in America where a University degree 'is the prerequisite for entry to a professional school, and the prerequisite to study librarianship' in most other countries of the commonwealth. His view was that such a practice was 'impracticable' in Northern Nigeria where few schools had sixth forms.

The government of Northern Nigeria accepted the Sharr Report but unfortunately it had not implemented the recommendations before the military seized power in 1966. However in May 1967 the National Universities Commission (NUC) approved a new library school, the second in Nigeria to be established at the Ahmadu Bello University Zaria. The School was opened in 1968 and has since become known as the Department of Library Science within the Faculty of Education. This Department commenced with two programmes in the 1968/69 academic session, a two-year non-graduate diploma in library Science and a three-year bachelor's degree in library Science - a combined degree with two other academic subjects taken from the faculties of Arts, and Social Sciences in the first two years. A higher degree - the Master of Library Studies (MLS) has also been introduced. The department also offers library science as subsidiary for students in the department of education to equip the graduate teachers who might be
in charge of school libraries in Teacher Training Colleges.

The establishment of a library school at Zaria has led to greater controversies on library education in Nigeria. Controversies already existed prior to the establishment of the school. When the Institute of Librarianship (now the Department of Library Studies) University of Ibadan, began a post-graduate diploma in librarianship in 1961/62, holders of the non-graduate ALA felt insecure. Their fear was not altogether unjustified when no attempt was made by the school to upgrade them. Controversies arose over the pros and cons of a post-graduate qualification for librarianship, and the Institute was accused of being 'impractical' and not flexible. But these controversies were heightened with the establishment of Ahmadu Bello University library school, and they are based on a perceived notion of 'a graduate profession', a rather ambiguous phrase. The concept of a graduate profession was sold to Ibadan library school by the pioneer leaders of the library profession in Nigeria with John Harris as the most uncompromising protagonist. Since then Ibadan library school has accepted the philosophy of graduate training and education for librarians. Naturally when a library school was established at Zaria offering undergraduate programmes the reaction of Ibadan was that of open ridicule. There is a feeling among pro-Ibadan programme that the qualifications offered at Ahmadu Bello University (A.B.U.) library school are inferior. A series of articles on education for librarianship in Nigeria have been written by the staff of Ibadan library school, or other librarians trained at Ibadan. Most of these articles tend to deride Ahmadu Bello University Library School. The medium has
been whole editions of the 'Nigerian Libraries', a journal of the Nigerian Library Association, particularly the 1960s and 1970s editions. To quote one example - Adetunji Akinyotu, apparently reviewing the programmes of the two library schools commented that:

undergraduate programmes leading to the BLS degree as obtains in Ahmadu Bello University has very little to recommend it, and should, in fact, be discouraged. (9)

Two of his other comments about ABU MLS and Diploma L.S. vis-a-vis those of Ibadan have similar culpable inuendoes.

These controversies came to a climax in 1974 when a Colloquium on Education and Training for Librarianship was held at the University of Ibadan under the auspices of the Department of Library Studies University of Ibadan. Participants at the Colloquium included the heads of the two library schools at Ibadan and Zaria, eminent librarians representing universities, public libraries and the Nigerian Library Association, as well as representatives of other related bodies.

The main theme of the Colloquium was to review recent development in library education internationally, and to make recommendations for improvement in library education in Nigeria. Quite a number of useful issues were raised at the Colloquium, such as the need for a survey to determine job descriptions for various levels of personnel in different kinds of libraries; developing a common curriculum to reflect the needs of the Nigerian society etc. But as can be expected the vexed question of a post-graduate profession featured prominently at the Colloquium while the ABU BLS came under attack once again. The
protagonists of post-graduate education defending the status quo
expertly quoted recommendations of various international conferences
like the Unesco Seminar at Ibadan in 1953; the Inter-governmental
Conference in Paris 1974; and the Dakar Seminar of Library Schools
in Africa in 1974 as well as international norms and standards in-
cluding United Kingdom and United States standards. Some participants
even suggested that the qualifications being offered at Zaria were
borrowed from countries which were already phasing out those same
qualifications. For instance, they said in US BLS was already being
discouraged, and in Britain the non-graduate ALA was being phased out.

Altogether 16 papers were presented at the Colloquium. At the
end of five days of cross fire-works from both camps the pro-Ibadan
and pro-ABU, the following recommendations were drawn up:

1. That library schools courses should include courses to meet
   specialist interests.

2. That the facilities for the training of library technicians
   might be better provided for in technical college situation
   than in a university situation as at present.

3. That an active policy of continuing education be adopted by
   libraries.

4. That library schools should organise continuing education programmes
   on a regular basis.

5. There is a need for a survey to determine job description for
   various levels of personnel in different kinds of libraries in
   Nigeria.

6. That the profession should develop a career structure and appropriate
   remuneration for library technicians as supportive staff.

7. That the profession should aim at a school library service in
   each state manned by fully qualified librarians.
8. The idea of an internship system should be investigated as a means of integrating theory with practice.

9. That library school teachers should avail themselves of opportunities to improve the effectiveness of their teaching.

10. That there should be mobility between the teaching and practising sides of the library profession.

11. That librarianship in Nigeria must move towards a postgraduate profession.

12. That curriculum development must reflect the needs of the Nigerian society.

13. That note should be taken of the termination of the British A.L.A. course in 1980 and that attention should be drawn to opportunities offered by the external degree programmes of Nigerian universities.

14. That Nigerian library schools should investigate the possibility of starting courses for experienced librarians who hold the British A.L.A. or F.L.A. qualifications to enable them to acquire master degrees in librarianship.

15. That library schools should investigate the possibilities and avenues for cooperation among themselves.

16. That library schools should maintain relevant statistics on library education and these should be comparable.

17. That the papers and recommendations of this Colloquium be passed on to the Nigerian Library Association for information and necessary action.

The authors of the Colloquium are on record as claiming that the Colloquium was a huge success. They point out, as Professor Ogunsheye, former head of the Ibadan Library Schools had done, that Ibadan has succeeded in persuading the profession in Nigeria that a
post-graduate programme should be accepted as the normal minimum requirement for full professional status. (10) Others assess the success of the Colloquium from a different perspective. For instance, Nzotta (1978) sees its success in terms of "the welcome response it drew" - whatever that means, and the coming together for the first time of the two Heads of the library schools to discuss their common problems and seek ways of cooperation. (11) In the same contribution Nzotta expresses some pessimisms about the recommendations of the Colloquium. He argues quite rightly that the Colloquium had no executive powers to implement its recommendations so it was agreed 'that the papers and recommendations of this Colloquium be passed on to the Nigerian Library Association for its information and necessary action' (p.95). Of course the Nigerian Library Association was powerless to implement any of the recommendations. Without legal backing it could not do more than recommend in the same way as the Colloquium had done. The organisers of the Colloquium were well aware of this weakness. Nzotta comments further that some of the 'recommendations fell short of expectation' because they were 'too generalized' to be of much use. He points out particularly resolutions 11, 12 and 16 and concludes that they raised more questions than they could answer.

Reactions from ABU were sharp and pungent. Many questions of fundamental importance were raised. Was the Department of Library Studies of Ibadan University the appropriate body to organise such a Colloquium? Had Ibadan, indeed, any University, any right to question the integrity of any degree programme of another university? Whose responsibility is it to control or regulate professional education for librarianship in Nigeria? Is it Ibadan Library School or the
professional Association? The students of the Department of Library Science A.B.U. were furious. They quickly set up a ten-man student committee mainly from among the final year students who attended the Colloquium as observers to report on the Colloquium. The introduction to the Report gives a clear indication of what the students had set out to do:

The entire student body of the Department of Library Science, Ahmadu Bello University view seriously and objectively, the outcome of the recent Colloquium - its recommendations, individual contributions - verbal or written and have resolved to appoint a committee to study and recommend measures as far as the Colloquium affects the course of librarianship generally and the Ahmadu Bello University, Department of Library Science in particular. (12)

The next paragraph epitomises the seriousness of the students' reactions and how politically explosive it had become:

In coming out with our resolutions the committee has taken a serious view of the fact that something must be done now to erase the inability of an average educated southerner in Nigeria today who doubts whether anything academically worthy can come from the North, and the refusal by some Ibadan trained librarians to recognise the fact that there is a library school in Zaria....

The following set of aims and objectives were spelt out:

Aims and objectives:

1. To give a comprehensive analysis of the course structure and contents of the Ahmadu Bello University Library School Degree programme.

2. To correct all doubts expressed at the Colloquium about the worth of the Ahmadu Bello Library school products in any given library situation.
3. To show to the appropriate authorities that questions of academic standards, status and competence cannot be based on voting supported by lobbying, as obtained at the Colloquium.

4. To draw attention to the fact that a new proposal for a new structure of library education should have been organised and planned by a joint working committee of the two library schools with the active and official participation of the NLA.

5. To point out with facts and figures, wrong assumptions, contradictions, ambiguities and inadequacies in some of the papers presented at the Colloquium.

6. To draw attention to the fact that since the Colloquium was non-mandatory, its recommendations cannot provide a framework for the NLA.

7. To show that the lack of objectivity was due to the fact that most of the participants were Ibadan products.

8. To show that there is still an attitude held by some of the participants that anything from the North cannot compete favourably with its southern counterpart, that is not of the same standard.

9. To show that the Colloquium was an organised forum to bring certain cadre of the library profession to the limelight to the detriment of the other cadres.

10. To draw attention to the indiscriminate importation and usage of foreign terms and trends without sufficient consideration for local trends and aspirations.

11. To show the trend of professional education in Nigeria today and to advance reasons why librarianship in Nigeria has to follow the general trend.

12. To demonstrate that some of the resolutions adopted at the Colloquium are unrealistic, questionable and unattainable in the foreseeable future.
13. To show that the purpose for which the Colloquium was held has been lost - instead of bringing the two schools together, they have been further driven apart.

It is necessary to go to this great length only to disprove the claim by certain members of the profession that the Colloquium was a huge success, and that it managed to bring closer together the two older library schools. If anything, the two schools were further polarized after the Colloquium as can be seen from objective 13 above. Both schools have continued to claim that their own degree programmes have been accepted as the minimum professional qualifications in Nigeria. Referring to resolution 11 of the Colloquium, Dorothy Obi (1975) expresses the view that

the recommendation of the Colloquium represented the majority professional opinion in Nigeria but has been challenged by a strong minority opinion which holds that the undergraduate programme as presently offered at Ahmadu Bello University is relevant to the conditions in the Northern States (as well as Nigeria as a whole) and was established in particular response to those needs. (13)

One of these conditions has already been referred to, lack of sixth form schools in Northern Nigeria. Secondly there were few graduates in Northern Nigeria at the time, and they were all absorbed in the Northern Civil Service - mainly in public administration and teaching. The few school leavers who wanted to study for the British Library Association Registration examination could quite easily get a scholarship to study in the United Kingdom. The post-graduate school of librarianship at Ibadan therefore did not appeal to Northerners. This is evident from the cumulative figures for Ibadan School of librarianship from 1960-1969. Of the 115 graduates produced from 1961
to 1969 only 8 students came from Northern Nigeria (see Table 81). The establishment of a library school at Zaria was therefore a welcome relief to many Northerners who had no opportunity to go to Ibadan to study for librarianship.

**TABLE 8:1**

Distribution of students admitted at Ibadan Library School by State of origin 1960 - 1969+

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>No. of Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western State</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-West</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Central</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Eastern</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Kwara</td>
<td></td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* North Central</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* North Western</td>
<td></td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* North Eastern</td>
<td></td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Kano</td>
<td></td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Benue Plateau</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside Nigeria</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>115</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTES:**

+ Nigeria, 12 States Structure

* Northern States of Nigeria
TABLE 8.2

Distribution of graduates produced by the Department of Library Science, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria by State of origin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State*</th>
<th>Dip.L.S.</th>
<th>B.L.S.</th>
<th>M.L.S.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anambra (s)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bauchi (n)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bendel (s)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benue (n)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross River (s)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gongola (n)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imo (s)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaduna (n)</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kano (n)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwara (n)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos (s)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger (n)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ogun (s)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ondo (s)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oyo (s)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plateau (n)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers (s)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sokoto (n)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTES: (s) represents Southern States  
(n) represents Northern States.  
These figures represent graduate turnout from 1970-1978.  
* Nigeria, 19 State Structure
As Table 8.2 shows Zaria Library School reflects a fair geographical distribution although in terms of numbers there is a clear weighting on Northern States.

In a recent contribution Mohammed and Afolabi (1979)¹⁴ have asserted that "library education in Nigeria is strongly geared towards undergraduate training", although they admit that a need exists for more local post-graduate training for the leadership cadre. So while these conflicting claims continue more library schools are being established, apparently without consultation with the Nigerian Library Association. Bayero University, Kano, started a library school in 1977, and the University of Maiduguri in 1978, both are offering bachelor's degree programmes. A fifth school has been established at the University of Benin, Benin City during the 1983/84 academic session. Plans are underway to open two other library schools at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, and the University of Sokoto.

The picture that has emerged from the above discussion is that more library schools will sprout out in Nigeria within the next 5-10 years. In view of this, and in recognition of the fact that holders of the BLS degrees are taking professional positions in libraries right now, "the profession would do better to improve the training they get and recognise it, than to permit inadequate preparation to dominate by default". That was an argument by some participants at the Conference on Library Manpower Needs and Utilization organised by the American Library Association on March 9-11, 1967. The American Library Association faced a similar problem - that of accepting either the M.A. or Undergraduate degree in librarianship as the first professional
qualification. That argument is today as relevant to Nigeria as it was to America nearly twenty years ago.

8.2.3. The Present Structure

There are two aspects of the structure of education for librarians in Nigeria. The first concerns the general structure of education and training for librarianship. This consists of a three-tier structure, namely professional, sub-professional and non-professional or technician education. The second aspect concerns the structure of professional education itself, and this can be divided into post-graduate, undergraduate and associateship qualifications.

8.2.3.1 Professional Education and Training

The main controversies about education for librarianship in Nigeria have centred on what should be the 'normal minimum' qualifications for entry into the library profession in the country. Prior to the establishment of the Institute of Librarianship now Department of Library Studies, Ibadan, the basic minimum professional qualification was the British Library Association (ALA) qualification. For senior administrative and managerial positions an F.L.A. qualification was required. Many Nigerians travelled abroad, mainly to Britain and the United States for their professional training. Short courses were also organised at home, such as those organised by Jean Parkes and John Harris for the training of Native Authority librarians and for school librarians. Large libraries also undertook in-service training to improve their basic manpower requirement.
The University of Ibadan

The advent of the Institute of librarianship Ibadan changed the course of library education and training in Nigeria. The institute introduced for the first time the concept of 'a post-graduate education' and 'training the leadership level'. Initially the aims and objectives of the institute consisted of the following:

To help the development of libraries by training librarians and investigating problems of librarianship and bibliography with special reference to West Africa and with particular attention to the leadership level. 

During the first two sessions 1960/61 - 62/63 enrolment in the school consisted of both graduate and non-graduate students who studied for the Library Association examination for one academic session. The non-graduates were those who had at least two years full-time experience in a recognised library. On successful completion candidates were awarded the Association's qualification (ALA). From 1963/64 academic session to 1965/66 the Association qualification was discontinued having been replaced with the Ibadan Diploma - at the post-graduate level. By this time Ibadan had trained some 70 professionally qualified librarians.

In the 1966/67 session, the Ibadan Diploma was replaced with the Ibadan Post-graduate Diploma in Library Studies (PGDLS) which was of one academic year duration. In that year too approval was given by Senate for the introduction of higher degrees. Consequently two post-graduate programmes - the Master of Library Studies (MLS) and the Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) were introduced. The MLS degree
was of not less than two years while the Ph.D. was of not less than three years duration.

As from the 1970/71 academic session the aims and objectives of the University of Ibadan library school were expanded:

1. To educate the leadership for the profession
2. To train supporting para-professional staff for libraries.
3. To conduct research into the problems of libraries and library operations in Africa.
4. To provide further education opportunities for experienced members of the profession.
5. To provide a forum for the discussion on problems of African librarianship.

At Ibadan emphasis has always been on educating the leadership, not training, and so a 'liberal education' at the first degree level is required in order that professional attitudes, rather than techniques, will inculcate and the development of the understanding of the philosophy of librarianship can be promoted.

In the 1977/78 session, a third higher degree by research - M.Phil. - was introduced. From that session too the PGDLS was discontinued. So what has emerged from this discussion can be summarised as follows: At the professional level the following qualifications are offered at Ibadan library school:

1. A 2-year MLS degree as a first professional qualification.
2. A 2-year M.Phil as a research degree.
3. A 3-year Ph.D. as a higher and specialist qualification.
The Curriculum

The curriculum of Ibadan library school has been revised several times to reflect constant changes in the programmes of the department. The first curriculum was geared towards the Association's registration examinations. Subsequent curricula have been subject to regular revision but these changes have been more of structure than of content. Basically the post-graduate programmes are made up of the following:

1. Historical, social, economic and administrative background of libraries.
2. Book arts.
3. Bibliography and readers' services.
4. Technical services - theory and practice.
5. Type of library - University libraries
   Public libraries.
   School libraries.
   Special libraries.
### TABLE 8.3.

Profile of Ibadan Library School graduates 1960/61 - 1982/83

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960/61</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>1961/62</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>1962/63</td>
<td>11*</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963/64</td>
<td>25*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964/65</td>
<td>24*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965/66</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966/67</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967/68</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968/69</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>1969/70</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>1970/71</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971/72</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972/73</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973/74</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974/75</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975/76</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976/77</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977/78</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978/79</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979/80</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>1980/81</td>
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<td>22</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>1981/82</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982/83</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>586</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The objective of the Zaria Library School is 'to train professional and para-professional library staff at all levels with well rounded education up to the international standard for all states of the federation, while placing emphasis on the problems facing libraries in Africa'. (16) In a way the development of the Zaria library school is less complex than that of Ibadan. Whereas Ibadan library school has changed from one programme to another several times, Zaria programmes have remained basically stable with only a few changes in the curriculum. There are only two professional degree programmes at the Ahmadu Bello University, Department of Library Science, namely, the Bachelor of Library Science (BLS) and the Master of Library Science (MLS). The BLS was introduced when the department came into being in 1968/69. It is a 3-year degree programme with library science as major and two other subsidiary subjects chosen from degree courses in other departments mainly from the faculties of education, Arts and Social Sciences. In the early years of the department French was taken as a compulsory subject but from the 1973/74 academic session, it has become optional.

The MLS programme is run for three categories of students: First degree from a recognised university in a subject area preferably with first or second class honours, or BLS with similar class of degree. In either case the duration of the course is not less than two academic years full-time or three academic years part-time. The third category is non-graduate holders of the ALA whose programme consists of 2 subsidiary subjects:
1 year course work in library science, thesis to be completed and defended within two years.

**Curriculum**
The MLS programme consists of the following courses:

- Methods of research
- Book production and publishing
- Organisation of knowledge
- Reference and information service
- Book selection
- Library administration
- Bibliography.

The BLS curriculum consists of the following courses in librarianship:

- Bibliography - General, Analytical and Descriptive, and Historical
- Book Selection and acquisition
- Organisation of knowledge (cat.& class)
- Documentation
- Sociology of library science (formerly library and community)
- Library education
- Methods of research
- Administration of libraries
- Library management
- Reference
- History of libraries
- Book Production
- Children's literature

Apart from Ibadan and Zaria library schools, two other library schools - Bayero University, Kano and the University of Maiduguri have been offering library science at the under-graduate degree level since 1977 and 1978 respectively. Like A.B.U. Bayero University library school also has non-graduate diploma in library science for para-professional library personnel.
Meanwhile with three universities offering under-graduate degree programmes of library education, it is safe to conclude that education for librarianship in Nigeria "is geared towards under-graduate training", a claim made recently by the department of library science Ahmadu Bello University Zaria. Whether this development is good for librarianship in Nigeria or not is quite a different matter.

My personal view is that at our present stage of political, social, economic and cultural development undergraduate degree qualifications are desirable in Nigeria to be able to cope with the manpower needs of the country for library and information services. Of course post-graduate qualifications are needed as specialist qualifications for the various specialist areas of librarianship archives and documentation. It is also necessary to train the leadership for the information work but the need to train workers is no less urgent. Post-graduate programmes in any case are expensive both in terms of the resources to run them and the recruitment of candidates with appropriate qualifications, aptitudes and interest to fill the vacancies. In developing countries particularly in Nigeria, where resources are scarce but where the economy is expanding requiring enormous skilled manpower, post-graduate qualifications alone will not produce sufficient numbers of the personnel needed for the services and for development. Professor Benge's (1979) (17) observation is quite relevant here.

American and other experience has shown that undergraduate or first degree programmes for education of librarians become necessary in
any country where there is a rapid expansion of library development and where a large number of library staff are required.

This is the stage at which we are in Nigeria today - a rapid expansion of library development. In economic parlance, this is the 'take-off stage' in Nigerian librarianship in the 1980s. This point can be illustrated by comparing the graduate turn-out from the two library schools of Ibadan and Zaria in their first ten years to assess in quantitative terms how much each school has tried to meet the manpower needs of Nigeria. It can be observed from Table 8.3 (page 27) that Ibadan produced just about 126 graduate librarians during its first ten-years - 1961/62 - 1969/70. On the other hand, Zaria produced about 279 BLS graduates - more than twice the number of post-graduates produced by Ibadan - during its first ten years - 1971-1980. As a matter of fact Ibadan produced in its first twenty years just about 300 post-graduate librarians, i.e. post-graduate ALA, PGDL and MLS, just slightly above what ABU produced (first degree) in ten years. It was because the output of the two library schools was insufficient to cope with the increasing demand of libraries that two new library schools were opened at Kano and Maiduguri in 1977 and 1978 respectively, and yet another one at Benin in 1983.

Criticisms of undergraduate degree as a first professional qualification arise out of the fear that it might lead to a lowering of standards. Many argue that no sufficient background of general education can be encompassed in the three year BLS programme if it is also expected to provide the academic and professional foundations needed to qualify for a first professional job. While there is a
a general agreement and considerable support for the idea that "more general education is required by today's librarian rather than less", supporters of the undergraduate degree argue that 'the accelerated educational process in today's universities makes it possible for present day students to cover a great deal more content in general education in a shorter time. They are unconvinced by the argument that more content in general education could be achieved by more years in the university. The tutorials in the present day universities provide a possibility for sufficient background in general education within a shorter rather than longer time in the universities. Moreover undergraduate degrees in Nigerian universities have been rated very high and can compare favourably with any others in the world. Writers who quote mythical international standards often do not realise this point, fewer still consider as important, the concept of local relevance. The writer believes that basically opposition to undergraduate qualification for librarians arises out of the fact that a post-graduate qualification was first introduced in Nigeria. He shares Professor Benge's view that "a degree inevitably becomes a vested interest to be supported against others". But as Benge also suggests 'a qualification is recognised when there are enough people to hold it and defend themselves, BLS graduates appear to be holding their own and defending themselves quite successfully. A number of them have held positions of responsibility in public and college libraries while others have distinguished themselves in professional activities both at the national and international levels.
The trend in Nigeria now certainly seems to be the setting up of more national schools of library and information science with programmes of study ranging from first degrees up to the highest level ultimately. The development of both undergraduate and post-graduate degree programmes in each library school becomes necessary to produce a large number of professional staff as well as provide opportunities for staff and students to be involved in the right kind of research for the investigation of local library problems. Until a large pool of personnel for the information work is available, and until the library situation in Nigeria has developed beyond a rudimentary level, it will be unwise to insist on post-graduate degrees as the minimum entry qualifications to the library profession. First degree qualifications ought to be accepted as the absolute minimum qualifications for entry into the profession of librarianship.

**TABLE 8.4**

Breakdown of graduates produced by the Department of Library Science
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria 1970 - 1980

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Dip.L.S.</th>
<th>B.L.S.</th>
<th>M.L.S.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 281 269 10

*Notes:* n.a. - figures not available.
8.2.3.2 Sub-Professional education and training

In Nigeria the title sub-professional or para-professional is usually designated to those members of the library staff who have received formal library training and education below a first degree level. They are sometimes referred to as supportive staff. Because too much attention has been paid to post-graduate courses, the education and training of this category of library personnel seems to have been neglected although a lot of the essential library work is performed by this group of library staff. The first programme of formal library studies for para-professional staff was introduced in Nigeria in 1968 with the establishment of the Department of Library Science Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. A.B.U. started simultaneously a non-graduate Diploma in library science and the Bachelor of Library Science (B.L.S.) in the 1968/69 academic session. Ibadan was unconvinced about the value of training workers rather than leaders so it was after ten years of the existence of the Library School that a programme for para-professional staff was introduced in the 1970/71 academic session.

Recruitment

The entrance requirement for the training of para-professionals is the West African School Certificate (WASC) or its equivalent with 5 credits including English language. Both Library Schools insist on this qualification but in addition Ibadan requires candidates to sit and pass an entrance examination conducted by the school. A working experience in a library is also required by Ibadan Library School. A.B.U. on the other hand conducts an oral interview instead of a written
entrance examination but a previous working experience is not required as is the case at Ibadan. There are a few other discrepancies in both programmes. At Ibadan the duration of the course is one academic year and leads to the award of Ibadan Certificate in library studies; while at A.B.U. the course lasts two academic sessions and leads to the award of Diploma in library science (Dip.L.S.) Ibadan adopted the title of Certificate in Library Studies to distinguish this qualification from the post-graduate diploma in library studies.

Graduates of the two library schools are accorded the status of library officers on a salary grade level lower than that of first graduate professional librarian.

One of the criticisms of library education in Nigeria has been that there is no clear-cut delineation between graduate professional education programmes and those of sub-professional ones. At both Ibadan and Zaria library schools courses offered at the professional level are also offered at the Diploma/Certificate level. This raises the question of what kind of duties are non-professional staff expected to perform in libraries. It is often assumed that para-professional staff are expected to do mainly routine duties. Some writers argue that if this is the expectation why should sub-professional programmes encompass so much theoretical aspects of librarianship instead of concentrating mainly on the practical aspects? The teaching of such subjects as the history of libraries and Library and Community are usually regarded as irrelevant at the sub-professional level. However, the opinion of those who support the existing structure is that although the training of para-professionals is geared toward actual library
routines, some of them find themselves managing small departmental libraries or school libraries without any guidance or direction from professional staff. The confusion in the curriculum of para-professional staff is even reflected in their library duties. Many of them are assigned duties which are normally the responsibilities of the professional staff. Librarians are therefore responsible for the claim by some non-librarians that librarianship can never be a profession because a lot of what the librarian does are not professional duties and most of what he should do is done by non-professional staff. Yet sub-professional library staff can never be accorded professional status. In Nigeria their condition has been further frustrated by the inability or unwillingness of the profession to allow for an educational ladder for those people to move upward. Ibadan library school is the worst offender. It has no programme of up-grading even its own diploma graduates. Instead they are advised to study for their Advanced Levels in order to further their education or 'take advantage' of the correspondence degree programmes of some of the countries' universities. Ahmadu Bello University has a more flexible approach to the continuing education of its own Diploma graduates. Opportunities exist for those diploma holders who do exceptionally well i.e. pass with distinction or credits - to be admitted for the BLS degree for three years. Because of the two factors mentioned above - assigning library officers to professional duties in addition to their normal routine duties, and not providing them opportunities for advancement in education, sub-professional staff in Nigeria are trying to form a pressure group within the Nigerian Library Association. The situation
almost came to a crisis point in 1981 when the Council of the NLA received a strong protest letter from the group threatening to form their own association to be known as 'Association of Professional Library Officers'. At the Council Meeting held at Ilorin in May 1981 (at which the writer was Chairman) two decisions were taken to try to find a solution to the problems of library officers. The first was to draw the attention of the library officers to the constitution of the NLA and to remind them that they could form any group or division with the NLA as the main professional body as long as their group was not a rival to the main body. In other words while advising them to form their own group (rather than association) they must never regard themselves as belonging to an association different from or as rival to, the NLA. The second and long-term decision was about further education and training of library officers. An Education Committee was set up made up of prominent librarians including representatives from the library schools. Their task was to study the problems of library officers and their career and educational prospects and make recommendations to the Council. Surprisingly the reaction of some of the senior members of the profession was that of indifference.

It is ironical that these same people that our library schools reject can go to the United Kingdom or US and obtain a master's degree and return home only to be accorded the status of professional librarians.

It is time our library schools, especially Ibadan, adopted a more flexible attitude to the education of library personnel. Library officers and library assistants form the bulk of the library personnel in any library. Their services are vital. The saying that a
library is only as good as its own staff does not refer to professional staff only. It embraces the whole spectrum of library personnel including the cleaners and messengers.

### TABLE 8.5

Courses for Para-professional education at Ibadan and Zaria library schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ibadan</th>
<th>Zaria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Libraries and Society</td>
<td>1. Cataloguing and classification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Knowledge and use of library resources</td>
<td>2. Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Classification and cataloguing</td>
<td>3. Administration of libraries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Library routines</td>
<td>4. Book selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Library and the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(now Sociology of library Science)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Technical services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Bibliography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. History of libraries.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This category of library personnel perform mainly technical routine duties essential for efficient library services. Unfortunately their training is not as organised as that of professional or sub-professional staff. Their training is the responsibility of individual libraries especially large libraries. How well their programmes of training are organised will depend on the size of the library in terms of qualified senior staff, and other training facilities. Ahmadu Bello University Library has a well organised training programme for its library assistants and attendants, having created the post of training officer in the library. The National Library of Nigeria (NLN) also has a well organised training programme under its Staff Development Scheme.

Usually new entrants are expected to work in the various units or departments of the library during their period apprenticeship. This will enable them to familiarise themselves with routines in each of the units of the library as well as enable them to decide which of the departments or units appeal to them most. It will also enable them to decide in time whether the library is the right place for them or not.

Recruits into this category of library personnel are expected to be holders of School Certificate. My experience in two types of library - one year in public library and over five years in academic library - convinces me that the greatest problem of recruitment comes from library assistants cadre. Nearly four out of every five assistants employed have left the library barely three months after employment.
In one extreme case one assistant left a library less than one month after he had taken his salary. The writer cannot pronounce on this matter conclusively because he has not investigated the causes of these desertions. However it does seem to me that the young school leaver is usually bored with repetitive library routines. Moreover with the vast expansion in educational opportunities - more colleges of education, more teacher training colleges, more schools of agriculture, schools of preliminary studies etc. the young school leaver can quite easily find alternatives to a boring and unchallenging job in the library, where prospects of further education and training are limited. This brings us to the problem of career opportunities for clerical/technical staff in libraries. Since formal, institution-based training is not available, the upward mobility of library assistants, determined by certification, is severely retarded. For many of them the attainment of senior assistant library officer means the ceiling to their upward mobility, unless perhaps they can produce certificate of further training. But how? It is such a frustrating experience which unfortunately has not been fully appreciated by the profession. Experience shows that the only people in this category of staff are those without school certificate who were promoted from the rank of library attendants. The reality is that by the time they attain the position of senior library assistant they may have spent over ten years in the library. With no prospects of further training and promotion they can present enormous problems of discipline and control.

So far we have been discussing library education as though it had no relation with the main theme of this investigation. Traditionally
we could say that the function of library education is to produce the needed manpower for information work. Unesco's philosophy of regional meetings and seminars on the national planning of library, documentation and archives has already been discussed. The concept of overall planning calls for skilled manpower. The consequence of this is what Keresztesi describes as 'remodelling' the curriculum of library science. "Remodelling implied, among other things, the infusion into the curriculum of the theory and methodology of planning, and the introduction of training in sophisticated information handling, and computer techniques". (19) Furthermore, library schools have the 'potential to develop valid philosophies and testable methodologies of library and information services in pre-literate and technologically unsophisticated societies'. The role of library schools in good quality research is even more important in developing countries than in developed ones. More than the redefinition/reinterpretation of library theory and practices, research is needed to take account of for example, development in technology.

In effective terms, underlying library development is the need

a. to determine how far the principles and practices of librarianship in the developed world are suitable for export. This relates to the concept of relevance - appropriate theory, appropriate technology etc.

b. to provide suitable local versions of some of the standard tools of the trade. e.g. straight translations of or extensions for local needs of such tools as LC, DDC. AACR etc.

c. To consider, and produce appropriate solutions to, special local problems related to the practice of librarianship.
such as mass adult literacy and literacy programmes, indigenous publishing, and book selling etc.

d. To consider local implications of overseas/ international developments such as the various data bases, MARC, lockheed, UBC. etc.

Library schools need to undertake research for several reasons:

a. the remoteness of teaching from practical problems of library work is made worse and their teaching can become ineffective if they undertake no research;

b. if students are to be effective librarians, they need exposure to the research process, both personally and indirectly through staff research;

c. research is a necessary part of the university system, and if a department of library science is to be recognised and respected within the university, its staff (and students) must be seen to be advancing knowledge as in other departments of the university;

d. also the department's reputation in the library profession can be greatly advanced in this way.

It is for these reasons that international gatherings of experts have recommended that library education particularly at the professional level, should be given in universities or equivalent institutions. There are several advantages in this approach, e.g.

a. trainees contact with members of the other professions of equivalent status can be greatly enhanced - researchers, teachers etc;

b. costs can be reduced by using already existing facilities and staff;

c. it will be possible to integrate programmes with those of other academic disciplines;
d. to provide access to library accommodation and archive resources for training and practical work.

It is important to mention these points as they relate to library development because the new concept of planning has brought the librarian under severe criticisms — somehow the criticisms have been fair. Max Broome's charge that 'in the face of the trend towards development planning librarians have displayed surprising timidity' (20) is typical of such criticisms. Broome's argument is that librarians are often 'ill-equipped by education and training', that the professional education and training they have received have not succeeded in making them numerate. "To our skills as librarians we must add the skills of the social scientists, the statistician and the economist" (21) It has thus become desirable to integrate planning techniques into library management and more sophisticated research techniques particularly at the post-graduate level of education.
### TABLE 8.6
Summary of library education programmes at Ibadan and Zaria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Cert. Awarded</th>
<th>Entrance qual.</th>
<th>Duration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Para-professional</td>
<td>Ibadan</td>
<td>Dip.Lib.</td>
<td>WASC with 5 credits including English or GCE with 5 subjects including English or Gr.II Teacher's Certif. with merit in 5 subjects including English plus minimum of 1-year full-time library employment plus success in Entrance Exam.</td>
<td>2 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zaria</td>
<td>Dip.L.S.</td>
<td></td>
<td>WASC with not less than 5 credits or GCE with 5 subjects or Gr.II Teacher's Cert. with merit or credits in 5 subjects other than teaching practice and University's requirements in English</td>
<td>2 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First professional</td>
<td>Ibadan</td>
<td>PGDL</td>
<td>First degree of an approved university</td>
<td>1 year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zaria</td>
<td>B.L.S.</td>
<td></td>
<td>WASC with 5 credits including 2 A/ls (HSC) or GCE with 5 passes of which 2 must be A/ls plus Faculty or Dept. degree requirements plus university requirements in English or Teacher's Cert. Grade II with 5 merits or credits other than teaching practice incl. English lang. in addition to 2 A/L subjects.</td>
<td>3 yrs. of which librarianship is roughly 2/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>School</td>
<td>Cert. Awarded</td>
<td>Entrance qual.</td>
<td>Duration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist Professional</td>
<td>Ibadan</td>
<td>M.L.S.</td>
<td>Normal university of Ibadan requirements for admission to a masters' course, plus the P.G.D.L. (Ibadan) or an equivalent professional qualification</td>
<td>Not less than 2 yrs. (full-time) or 3 academic yrs. part-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ibadan</td>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>Normal university of Ibadan requirements for admission to a Ph.D. course plus the P.G.D.L. (Ibadan) or an equivalent professional qualification</td>
<td>Not less than 3 academic years (full-time) or minimum of 4 yrs. (part-time)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zaria</td>
<td>M.L.S.</td>
<td>First degree from a recognised university (preferably first or second class honours) OR B.L.S.</td>
<td>Not less than 2 academic years (full-time) or 3 academic years (part-time)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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9.3.0 The Role of the Professional Associations

The literature on the professions is replete with 'ideals' of a profession, i.e. what attributes any profession should possess. There have also been discussions and controversies about whether librarianship meets all the requirements of a profession. Anyone interested in these discussions can look elsewhere (e.g. Carroll (1970)(22), Jackson (1970)(23), Vollomer (1966)(24). The main concern in this section is to discuss what contributions the professional associations, in this case, the Nigerian Library Associations, can make to the development of library and information services in Nigeria. This discussion will be premised on the 'standard of excellence' and collective control both of which attributes are present in all professions. The attainment of the standards of excellence presupposes the attainment of high degree of professional education and training, which in turn ensures the provision of efficient and effective library services. Collective control refers to the monopoly which a profession enjoys in the control of standards and practice of the profession including education, entry qualifications etc. The history of the development of professional associations in the United States and the United Kingdom shows a great deal of concern for the education of members of the professions and the development and improvement of library services in these countries. The American Library Association was formed in 1876, that of the Library Association of the United Kingdom in 1877. Their activities will be briefly reviewed.
8.3.1 Contribution to Education and Training

The education of its members was given priority by the Library Association of the United Kingdom right from its inception. In 1880 a Committee on the training of library assistants was appointed, and by 1883 its report was adopted by the Association. Another report on an examination scheme was adopted only seven years after the formation of the Association, i.e. in 1884. The Association sought to fix entry qualifications to ensure that only those with the minimum qualifications were admitted into the profession. A register of Fellows and members was established in 1910, and was related to the examination system. It soon became mandatory that only people with the Diploma of the Association or those with distinguished service were admitted to the Fellowship. The syllabus was regularly revised to take account of changing circumstances in both public and university libraries.

It is pertinent to point out here that until 1946 there were no full-time library schools in the United Kingdom apart from the School of Librarianship and Archives founded in 1919 at the University College London. Even after full-time library schools began to appear in the 1940s and 1950s they were very much controlled by the Association. The examinations which regulated entry to the register of librarians continued to be set and examined by the Association. Over the years, a body of devoted teachers for library schools was built up, and in 1964 quite significant changes took place on the library scene of the United Kingdom. First a new syllabus providing for a two-year course with an emphasis on theoretical preparation for candidates who would
be full-time students, was introduced. A vivid account of what took place in 1964 and after has been given by Professor P. Havard-Williams. The main events were the establishment of three university schools of librarianship at Belfast, Strathclyde - Glasgow, and Sheffield; the establishment of the College of Librarianship at Wales, and the establishment of the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). The establishment of these institutions brought about a complete transformation of library education in the United Kingdom. Today education for librarians ranges from honours degrees through master to Ph.D. degrees. Although University library schools have autonomy and conduct internal examining of their candidates, the Association continues to influence and to maintain national standards through its Board of Assessors.

In the United States the contribution of the ALA to education is mainly by accreditation. Sarah Reed (1975) in a review of library education programmes in the U.S. has identified 3 categories of library education programmes. Of these 3, 55 are ALA accredited graduate programmes; 80 are graduate programmes not accredited; and 125 undergraduate programmes not accredited by the ALA. Of the ALA accredited schools, 24 offer only Masters degree programmes, 23 post-masters, 20 doctoral programmes of which 12 offer both doctoral and post-masters specialist or certificate programmes. Beyond this accreditation power, not much else is known about ALA's contribution to education.

In contrast, the contribution of the Nigerian Library Association to the education of its members at all levels is only minimal.
The only visible contribution one can point to is the library school at the University of Ibadan. Its establishment is usually attributed to the joint effort - the only united effort - of WALA, the predecessor of the NLA (the Nigerian Library Association), which led to a study of library conditions in West Africa by Harold Lancour on behalf of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, (27) and Lancour's subsequent recommendation that a library school be established in the region. Throughout its 20 years of existence, the NLA has been faced with many difficulties. The most significant of these is its inability to control entry to the profession and this is directly related to professional education of its members. The Association has no control over the education and certification of its members. The controversies over library education in the country cannot be resolved by the Association because of vested interests of members. Library schools are being planned and set up with different programmes without consultation with the Association. The NLA has always fallen back on the argument that it has not been given 'statutory recognition'. The fact is that the Nigerian Library Association has no legal backing. But this situation exists because the Association has been unable to present a united front. Moreover, without legal recognition the Association could still achieve some results. The Library Association of the United Kingdom got its Royal Charter some twenty years - (i.e. in 1890s) after its formation. But as we have seen on the education front, so much was achieved within a period of seven to ten years after the formation of the Association.
There has been some amount of pressure from members that the NLA should be more involved in the education of librarians. With more library schools sprouting here and there, there is some concern that the NLA should exercise some control over these institutions. The past President of the Association O.O.Ogundipe, has attacked the situation where decisions on the form of library training for the profession is left to those teaching in library schools with all their different approaches to the education of librarians. Recalling that there are different approaches to the training of professional librarians either at the bachelor's or post-graduate level, he suggests that

In coming to our own the NLA as a body representing the practitioners of the Profession should now take a decision and ask the library schools to get on with it ...... Of course each school may continue to be free to choose which of the types recommended it will choose to adopt. (28)

The more practical suggestion that has been made by Ogundipe and others in recent times is the matter of accreditation. The NLA must 'insist on a degree of approval or accreditation of library programmes both at the ground level of assistants and in the University and polytechnics'.

The problem with librarians is that we talk too much to ourselves and too little to the politicians or policy-makers. The recommendation quoted above was contained in the presidential address to a meeting of the NLA. Without passing on the recommendation to the appropriate government organs (for example), National Universities Commission) the recommendation is no more than the usual conference rhetorics.
8.3.2 Contribution to Public Policy

The capacity of a profession to influence public policy will depend on the degree of its autonomy and personal service. In Nigeria, like in many other new nations, most librarians are civil servants and so are not independent. This lack of autonomy prevents librarians as a professional body to present a united front to the government. The writer recalls an incident in 1975 while on a practical attachment to a state (public) library in Nigeria. I was preparing an article to be published in a local newspaper about the deteriorating condition of the library building - an antiquated community hall at the verge of collapsing. When the Chief Librarian saw the draft of the article he was furious, and looked as though he was going to throw me out. He did not hesitate to remind me of the Civil Service Rules which prevent civil servants from 'publishing or saying anything about the library without authorisation from the Permanent Secretary'. In another public library, the editor of a newsletter for a local division of the NLA was refused access to information about promotions, births, transfers etc. to be included in the Newsletter, because the permission of the Permanent Secretary had not been sought. There is yet another example. A local division of the Nigerian Library Association set up a committee in 1979 to prepare a memorandum for the establishment of a state library board. The writer happened to be secretary to the committee. The Chief State Librarian refused to give evidence and to cooperate in anyway with the committee. These few events illustrate the point made earlier on, that most members of the NLA lack independence demanded by professions
and this is a serious obstacle to professional development.

The history of the American Library Association and the (British) Library Association illustrates how an independent professional association can influence public opinion. The influence of the Library Association (U.K.) on the Libraries and Museum Acts, the Libraries Offence Act of 1898 etc., is well documented. Professor P. Havard-Williams, himself being involved as a member of the Library Association, in influencing public policy has paid tribute to the Library Association.

The Association, grown stronger in the meantime, played a real role in lobbying members of Parliament in influencing public opinion, to promote the objective of good public library service, which for the first time was made an obligation for Local Authorities. (29)

There is certainly a lot to be learned from the experience of the (British) Library Association, if nothing else at least for the unity of effort of the various professional Associations such as SCONUL, ASLIB, Institute of Information Scientists, the Society of Archivists, etc. It was through the unity of effort that led to the Public Libraries Act of 1934 which gave responsibility for inspection and supervision of the public library service of Great Britain to the Central government. But its most outstanding achievement has been the British Library Act 1973, which established the British Library, (with 3 branches - the Lending Division, the Reference Division and the Bibliographic Services Division).

What Professor Havard-Williams refers to as 'a unified body of evidence' by the Association to the Dainton Committee was really a
spectacular achievement of an association with various and, sometimes conflicting interests. Not only that the Association had various interests to contend with, but it was also dealing with an institution - the British Museum - with some two hundred years of history of 'innate resistance to change, its sensitivity to certain kinds of criticisms.'(30)

So it was that the Association was set against a really formidable and complex task, to bring into one national focus the British Library based on the British Lending Library, the British Museum Library, and the British National Bibliography, together with the Research and Development Department of the Office of Scientific and Technical Information (OSTI).

The Association was among several bodies which gave evidence before the House of Commons Expenditure Sub-Committee which had called for evidence on the national development of libraries, 'to examine as a matter of urgency the whole relationship between the department (of Education and Science), national, public, university and other libraries and the Library Advisory Councils'.

In the United States similar endeavours on public policy were undertaken by the ALA as early as the 1930s and 1940s. The American Library Association appointed in 1934 a National Library Planning Committee, a similar body to the US National Planning Board (1933), renamed National Resources Planning Board later. The Library Planning Committee published a National Plan for Libraries in 1935, but it was revised in 1939. The ALA acknowledged the failure of the plans as were drawn up by the various library agencies and associations from several states. They were 'isolated from the vital human forces of their day'. 
Undaunted by the lack of success initially, the ALA published standards for public library service in 1943 and in 1944 formal preparations for a national plan began. It was finally published in 1948 at a meeting in Chicago. Such have been the contributions of strong professional associations in advanced countries. There are no parallels in Nigeria. The activities of the NLA have been substantially plans and schemes, few of which have been implemented. In 1973 in a presidential address S.B. Aje sounded very reassuring on the matter of legal recognition:

As is usual with government practice when a decree is sought by a body as ours, governments and other interested or affected bodies are consulted, not only for their information but for the benefit of their comments. This is still in the process and some of the comments we have got on our own by exchanging views with others have been very enlightening and will prove profitable to us. (31)

He expressed the hope that it might be possible to report progress to Council within a year. Ten years after that address, the NLA is still struggling to get legal recognition. It was the 1982 Council that took the matter more seriously. A draft legislation for the Registration of Librarians has been delivered to the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and indications are that the legislation will be approved.

From the writer's experience on the Council of the NLA, very little can be achieved because people charged with responsibilities are not committed. The NLA has set up several committees through which it hopes to achieve some results. These committees include
Education Committee, Committee on Library Development later renamed Presidential Commission on Libraries. The latter Committee was carefully chosen, regard being had to easy accessibility of members to the National Assembly and the Office of the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The Committee was mandated to lobby Ministers, members of the National Assembly and the President of the Country. Unfortunately each time Council meets members of the various Committees are absent, so that no report is usually received on their assignments. Yet most of these members are those who trained for leadership. Perhaps they were trained as leaders of their individual libraries, not of the profession. It seems to me that the only time when the association is motivated to act on a national issue is when it concerns salaries and wages as evident in the Elwood Grading Team of 1965, and the Udoji Public Service Review Commission - Udoji Commission of 1974. Even on matters of wages the association has been unable to produce a unified body of evidence because of vested interests. In both Elwood and Udoji the association made very poor impression in the public eye. In fact its performance during the Elwood grading exercise was so disappointing that the status of librarians was reduced by the Commission. (32)

The introduction of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1976 with its implications on school and public library services and book production offered the NLA a unique opportunity to influence public opinion. There had been no plans for the improvement of these services. That opportunity was lost. Then came the new National Policy on Education, introduced in 1977. Apart from annual conference deliberations and resolutions which end up in the files of conference
delegates and media representatives, no official recommendations have been made to the appropriate organs of government. It is interesting to note that the Nigerian Publishers' Association were the first to react to the new policy on education.

It seems to me that the NLA as a professional body has abdicated its responsibilities to the National Library of Nigeria. Official matters concerning information and library services either at the national or international level are usually channelled through the National Library which then informs the NLA. On a number of important professional issues, the National Library has taken the initiative which normally should have come from the NLA. The establishment of an Advisory Committee on Copyright Information Centre, for example, was initiated by the National Library. The NLA was later informed and requested to send a representative to serve on the Committee.

The point one is making is that because the NLA is weak, the National Library has become so powerful as to overshadow the Association. Professor Havard-Williams has already warned on the dangers of a strong national library when he stated:

....for there is a danger that a strong, well financed national library may so outshine the libraries at the periphery that professional vitality will be drawn too strongly to the centre, and that those working in responsible positions in the country outside the national library network will feel devitalised, diminished and demotivated. (33)

Here of course we are comparing the strength of the National Library with that of the professional association, and not libraries at the
of what has been discussed so far:

1. The maintenance of professional standards both in terms of theory and practice.

2. The surveillance of appropriate educational programmes with a mixture of general education, professional education and training.

3. The promotion of professional services for the benefit of the community at large and the integration of such services in the overall national development planning, programming and implementation.

Having identified priorities, it must be stated that the failure of the NLA to implement them as has been discussed cannot be wholly attributed to vested or conflicting interests. There are some more fundamental causes which observers usually take for granted or overlook. First, the size of the association. Membership is small, and compared with the established professions like medicine, law, teaching etc., librarianship is relatively new. Because the association is small, it has a very shaky financial base, and without this source, the association cannot be effective. Secondly, because of the expanding economy individual members are very highly competitive and as a consequence do not cooperate for the common good. The third factor which is very unique to Nigeria is communication. Because of the vastness of the country with poor communication infrastructures there are obvious communication difficulties which retard activities of Council and Committees. As one author has observed, 'it may be possible for members to gather together for annual conferences but
the vital work of elected officials is hampered by the distance between places and their relative isolation'. Fourthly, lack of a permanent Secretariat for the NLA and an absence of full-time secretarial staff have severely limited the activities of the NLA. The final point is the role of public librarians who regard themselves more as civil servants than as librarians. Until libraries are brought under one central statutory and independent body the role of public librarians will continue to influence professional activities in a negative way.

Conclusion

The manpower requirement for information work in Nigeria has not been adequately assessed. State autonomy requires that each state plan its own services in its own way. Since there is no central co-ordinating body for library and information services it is difficult to know exactly what the manpower needs for library and information services are. Judging by the rapid expansion of educational programmes in the country especially at the tertiary level, and the increase in research activities resulting in research institutions, there is no doubt that a corresponding increase in demand for libraries, documentation and archive services exists. This demand needs to be assessed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The output of the present library schools in terms of trained librarians is certainly inadequate to meet the needs of the country. More library schools are needed, but their establishment should not be a haphazard affair. They should be well planned and integrated into the overall educational planning
of the country. The Nigerian Library Association should be fully represented at both the planning and implementation stages of the school. Henceforth it should be allowed some control of the educational programmes of all library schools in the country. The nature of control should be mutually worked out between the Association, the National Universities Commission, the Federal Ministry of Education and the library schools concerned. This control could be by accreditation, certification, setting of standards for the schools or some other influence through a recognised body similar to the Board of Assessors of the Library Association (U.K.).

The controversies over which programmes are best for Nigeria - post-graduate or undergraduate - should be resolved in the interest of the profession. If the NLA is unable to resolve them, an independent body should be set up and allowed to have the final arbitration.

My personal view is in favour of each library school running a combination of undergraduate and post-graduate programmes as is presently done at A.B.U. Zaria. Post-graduate schools alone cannot produce the required personnel for information work. A combined degree at the undergraduate level with a major in library science will attract more candidates into the profession. When library services have developed beyond a rudimentary stage, then the idea of a post-graduate qualification can be most meaningfully discussed. The reality of the Nigerian situation is that other established professions such as Medicine, law, etc., from which most of us like to draw contradicting examples, give undergraduate education and training for their members. In very few cases the period of training is what makes
the difference. Medicine for example takes five years of university education and one year of internment. Law takes three years of academic education and one year of professional education (not in University). If a longer period of education and training is required for librarians, an integrated four-year programme of undergraduate education is recommended.

The only argument in favour of post-graduate qualification is the usual 'changing role of librarians' to meet the 'new demands of the society'. What are these new demands in our society that only post-graduate librarians are able to meet? Have these demands been investigated or assessed? What are the real information requirements of Nigeria relative to the type of education librarians should receive? These are hypothetical questions which are relevant to this discussion. Librarians have an exaggerated sensitivity to the demands made by the public on libraries, a sensitivity which does not impress many people outside librarianship.

**NOTES**


16. Mohammed and Afolabi op.cit. p.35.


18. Ibid. p.212.


21. Ibid.


30. Ibid. p.9.


33. Havard-Williams, P. op.cit. p.10.
Conclusions and suggestions for further research

Since much has already been written about some of the aspects of national library development in Nigeria, such as library legislation, library technology, library manpower - education and training, etc., this work does not claim absolute originality. There are also library development models which can be found in the official literature of Unesco. What the writer has attempted in this investigation is to explore the general principles and practices of national library development planning, to piece together the various aspects of library development planning - the library infrastructure -, and to harmonise these with national plans in the context of overall economic development planning.

The main concern of the inquiry is to provide outlines for the description, analysis and planning of library and information services and for organisational structure in the context of overall national economic planning. No attempt has been made to include specific planning techniques such as costing of national planning of library and information services, nor has there been any preoccupation with planning in specific sectors (types of library).

A case has been made for relating library and information services to the government philosophy of national economic planning. To this end chapters 4, 5 and 6 discussed the place of library and information services in developing countries (as against economic development and education,) and what relations exist with the book trade, scientific services and so forth.
The problem of relating library and information services to national objectives of government "appears to be one of the obstacles to national planning of these services in developing countries partly because economic planners have not seen this relationship clearly, and partly because librarians have been unable to make the relationship practicable and attractive. As long as this relationship remains obscure, plans for national library development will continue to be mere paper work. Development objectives are political, their harmonisation with plans for national library and information systems are also political problems to be solved by politicians. They too, in fact, more than economic planners need to be convinced of the value of library and information services in the development of the nation.

In his report to the Federal Government of Nigeria (1964), Carl White warned that "no handicap is deadlier than lack of conviction that libraries ... are essential". However in Nigeria today the question is not whether or not libraries are essential. The Federal Government has stated both in the Third and Fourth National Plans that libraries are beginning to be recognised as a motive force in national development, a statement which has been given added reinforcement by Unesco's development of its General Information Programme. The main problem in Nigeria now is for the Federal Government to 'provide a bold lead' to the state governments in achieving the objectives of national library and information systems and services by coordinating the planning and development of library and information services. It is not enough for the Federal Government to
simply state that 'state governments intend to expand public
library services in their respective areas'.

What is clear is the Federal Government apathy to the
national planning of library and information services. Opposition
to national library development was first made public in 1952 when
the Council of Ministers rejected a suggestion that the Central
Government should be responsible for the development of library
services. That opposition seems to persist till today. The Federal
Library Advisers provided by the Ford Foundation of America, were
less enthusiastic in recommending a central authority for library
development for Nigeria.

Frank Rogers who advised the Federal Government on the
establishment of the National Library of Nigeria even warned against
the Federal Operations of the National Library on the model of Ghana
Library Board - a centralised operation. Although Carl White rejected
the suggestion that national library services were impossible under
the Federal Constitution, his recommendations fell short of centralised
planning. Instead he recommended that the Federal Government
should find 'a middle road' between the extremes of decentralisation
and centralisation of responsibility for library services. The
'middle road' approach required the Federal Government to support
library services for the several departments of the Federal Government
itself while the cost of university libraries and special libraries
should be included in their respective budgets. The regional Govern-
ments should be responsible for public library services in their
respective territories.
If in the 1960s it was thought "short-sighted to create a Federal Library agency", today that need is not only realistic but urgent. The absence of a Federal library agency and the absence of a Federal library policy have led to uncoordinated development of library and information services. As library development expands into a problem of national magnitude, there is a need to forestall further chaos and avoid imbalance in geographic and sectoral distribution of libraries. This calls for Federal aid to libraries where the sum of state contributions does not add up to a rational total for the nation. Already the Federal Government is forestalling chaos in other spheres such as primary education, agriculture etc., by coordinating economic planning and using Federal aid to carry out these plans.

When regional plans were launched in the 1950s there were only accidental relation with the programmes of each regional government. By the time Nigeria got her political independence in 1960, it was evident that the interests of the citizens were not being served by the regional plans which were limited by territorial boundaries. The First National Development Plan 1962-68 and the subsequent national plans which are interrelated are the result of the experience of the 1950s. Since 1962, Federal Programmes have ceased to be strictly limited to Federal subjects but have often embraced activities which are constitutionally the concern of state governments. The Federal Government has frequently earmarked sums for the development of primary and secondary schools, agriculture, veterinary services etc. Federal money for scholarship is made each
year with both state and Federal governments manpower need in mind. In short it has always been Federal Government deliberate policy to stimulate and supplement the efforts of state governments in order to minimise waste through accidentally related plans to produce a more purposeful national attack on the country's economic problems.

The cost of providing library and information services to meet the needs of millions of Nigerians is quite high. Only the Federal Government has the resources to provide these services. The establishment of a Federal Library Agency, well funded and placed high in the nation's political power structure, and responsible for coordinating nationwide library development efforts is urgently required.

Experience from the United Kingdom and the United States shows that both countries started with decentralisation of library services, which worked well in the nineteenth century. But the demands of the twentieth century have compelled the two countries to seek ways of strengthening and supplementing the efforts of local authorities and private bodies.

**Suggestions for further research**

Two areas connected with this investigation require further researching. They are a survey of information needs of Nigeria and a survey of manpower need of Nigeria.

As was asserted in Chapter 8, the information needs of Nigeria have not been thoroughly examined to ascertain what kinds of information services are required by different users in Nigeria. Only when
this is done can Nigeria determine the kind of education and training required of information personnel in the country. It is also necessary to survey the manpower requirements of the country in the areas of library and information services. This is particularly crucial at a time when library schools are being established without reference to the Nigerian Library Association. Such a survey will forestall any chaos that may arise as a result of the random establishment of schools of librarianship. It will also reveal any gaps that might exist between manpower needs in library, documentation and archives services, and this would help in planning the education and training of personnel in these fields.

The writer would have wished to investigate these areas further but inadequate funding has made this impossible.

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