

BOOKS AND READING IN INDIA

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FOREWORD

This document is one of a series of national monographs that Unesco is publishing on the state of books and reading in a number of countries. The aim is to provide book professionals, and more generally, all who are interested in promoting books and reading in the world, with as detailed as possible a survey of matters relating to authorship, publishing, material production and distribution of books, and reading in the countries concerned.

The publication of this series of monographs forms part of Unesco's programme, adopted by the General Conference at its twenty-first session (1980), to identify obstacles to book production and distribution so as to contribute to activities planned for the development of cultural industries and to country programming. It is hoped that the information obtained will be useful in indicating areas where efforts are needed at the national level to improve book production and increase reading activities in the countries concerned. Unesco has asked the authors to follow the same pattern, as far as possible, so that their research findings may appear in a comparable form.

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I. AUTHORSHIP

The book situation in India, its problems and promises, are inseparably related to the multi-lingual, multi-cultural and multi-ethnic realities of the country. Moreover, India has had a long-standing tradition of oral transmission of knowledge until a relatively recent period with the introduction of textbook-oriented schooling. The impact of the written word and the question of authorship acquire a special significance in a society that has been basically non-literate but where literacy norms are sought to be established.

a) Multi-lingual reality

The Eighth Schedule of the Indian Constitution specifies and gives national status to as many as fifteen languages. They are, alphabetically, Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu and Urdu. To these, the Sahitya Akademi, which is India's National Academy of Letters, has added, for implementing its programmes, seven more, which are Dogri, English as written by Indians, Konkani, Maithili, Manipuri, Nepali and Rajasthani.

It is important to remember that these are not dialects, but full-fledged languages, each spoken and cultivated for centuries by millions, and some, like Tamil, a contemporary of the classical Sanskrit, having a rich and continuous literary history of over two thousand years. The Rigveda, composed in Vedic Sanskrit, is the earliest known literary record of the world. The Sanskrit language itself, especially its ancient forms preserved and recorded in so perfect a manner, provided the ingredients in international academic circles, for comparative philology and linguistics pertaining particularly to the ancient and vastly widespread Indo-Iranian groups of languages.

However, from the point of view of their importance in publishing matters, there are twelve major modern languages, in addition to Sindhi and Urdu, which are spread over many Indian States. Excepting Hindi, which is spoken in the six States of Himachal Pradesh, Haryana, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar, the remaining eleven languages have their own home states and belong to two of the four language families prevalent in the country, Indo-Aryan and Dravidian.¹ Among these Indo-Aryan languages are Oriya, Assamese and Bengali in the East, Marathi and Gujarati in the West, and Punjabi and Kashmiri in the Central North, while Telugu, Kannada, Tamil and Malayalam are Dravidian languages spoken in the South. The two other language families of the country, Austric (Munda) and Tibeto-Chinese, are neither strong numerically nor have any literary tradition significant enough to deserve recognition as major languages. While the Munda language speakers are mostly concentrated in the hilly regions of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Andhra Pradesh, the northern and north-eastern frontiers of the country form the cultural periphery of the Tibeto-Chinese languages.

Another important feature having special relevance to the question of books and publishing in India is that all the states and union territories are multi-lingual as the major language speakers are not solely confined to particular places or areas. Hindi-Urdu is the largest language amalgamation, spoken and understood by about 46 per cent of the total population. As regards English, which was imported into the country barely two hundred years ago, it is,

according to the 1961 census, claimed by a number of people as their mother tongue and by 10.9 million Indians as their first subsidiary language. Bilingualism in English, which is used by a minority élite constituting the most privileged and influential section of the society, is fifty times more than the number claiming it as their mother tongue.²

The complexity of the Indian linguistic scene is further illustrated by the fact that there are nearly four hundred tribal mother tongues in the country, most of them exclusively oral.

In addition to Perso-Arabic and Roman, eight major script systems are used. They are Nagari, Bengali, Assamese, Manipuri, Oriya, Telugu, Kannada, Tamil, Malayalam, Gujarati and Gurumukhi.

The written word, specially its widespread use, is of relatively recent origin in India. The ancient lore of the country, including all its glorious pronouncements, was transmitted orally from generation to generation. What may be mentioned as especially relevant in this connection is the fact that the enormous body of expression contained in all these lores and recorded in languages of ancient, medieval and current times, forms part of a continuing civilisation which, in the history of the world, is recognised as a phenomenon rarely seen anywhere else.

b) The case of English

This, in short, is the background against which the current publishing prospects and problems in Indian languages, including English as written by Indians, need to be viewed. Needless to say, such prospects and problems are not confined to publishers alone, but pertain to authorship, production and distribution.

A theory, often heard, provides a glimpse into the complexities of such problems. It is said that in these days of growing universalisation of ideas, experiment and knowledge, when due to spectacular scientific and technological advancements the physical barriers among countries are disappearing at a fast rate, a country with the reality and problems of multilingualism may have an unnecessarily hard and long road to travel. The example of India, where due to historical and other reasons, English has deeply entrenched itself in various spheres of national life and consciousness, is cited in this connection. The argument apparently is that English being the most important international language today and since a large number of educated Indians have a remarkable proficiency in it, the case for India's national languages may only have an emotional and political content, though in reality it may do little more than complicate the country's already formidable task of achieving progress in several desired directions.

The arguments of the opponents of such a theory can also be easily imagined. They will point to the fact that the innermost thoughts and experiences of the spirit can be expressed only in a mother tongue and not in a borrowed language. As tools of global national development, India's own languages would certainly have proved much more adequate than an alien tongue if only they had the full capacity to develop. To say this should not amount to undermining the role played by the English, particularly since the 19th century renaissance days, not only in India's development in general but also even in the development of most of the major Indian languages in a contemporary context.

c) 'Reading' and 'Listening' tradition

Printing and publishing as they are known today can be said to have started in India thanks to the efforts of a Jesuit Missionary who is credited with the first use, in 1557, of movable metal type for the purpose of printing.³ Much of the printing of this earlier period pertained to religious matters and was conducted by several Christian missionary groups. It is only in the 18th century that books of a secular nature started making their appearance in the vernacular languages including notably Bengali, which pioneered the new social and cultural re-awakening in India. The example of Bengal was soon followed by the country's other provinces and provincial languages.

This, of course, belongs to the domain of the 'reading' tradition as against that of the much prevalent 'listening' tradition of the earlier days, though 'talking' or 'speaking' books never really went out of circulation. Wandering minstrels, at places in the countryside, are still a familiar sight. What is most astonishing is the fact that in the millennium prior to the 5th century B.C., a particularly glorious period in Hindu history, incomparable achievements were made in several branches of knowledge and learning such as religion, philosophy, theories of art, literature, grammar, etc., without the help of the printed word.⁴

It is in a Buddhist canon of the 5th century B.C. that the first known reference to writing and writing materials occurs. The work mentions kinds of writing materials then in use: leaves, wood or board, bamboo chips and metals. Among the most frequently used materials were varieties of palm leaf which were introduced in northern parts of India as early as the 3rd century B.C., and 'Bhurja patra', the inner bark of a birch tree of the Himalayan type. A reed with ink was often used to do the writing. Another much-used technique which continued to be in vogue in the eastern province of Orissa till the 19th century was inscribing the palm leaf with a stylus and then smearing the engraved letters with ink. The other normal writing materials used until paper was introduced in the 13th century A.D. included cloth and sometimes, on special occasions and for particular purposes, even sheets of gold, silver and ivory. Stone became a favourite when durability was the prime factor.

The art of writing was resorted to in the beginning by the Jains and the heterodox Buddhists who, by the first century A.D., had written their complex canonical texts. The Hindus took to writing later, mostly as a defensive measure. The tradition of illustrated manuscripts also started with the Jains and the Buddhists. Among the earliest and celebrated examples are the two beautifully-illustrated Buddhist manuscripts of Prajñāparamita belonging to circa 1087 A.D. and circa 1130 A.D. of the Pal period. Until about the 10th century A.D. the early Jain and Buddhist manuscripts were without illustrations.⁵

The illuminating tradition of illustrated manuscripts in India reached its summits of glory in the Mughal period. It ended with the modern invention of the printing press and camera.

The early printing activities in India were restricted in scope, contents and volume and the emergence of publishing houses in the modern sense was then a far cry, and took place only recently, shortly after the beginning of the 20th century, mainly through the initiative of some of the British-owned firms in India such as Macmillans, Longmanns and the Oxford University Press.⁶ Even then, publishing activities, for quite some time, remained sporadic and haphazard, depending almost exclusively on the exigencies of the colonial times and situation. Some of India's great national authors belonged to this period. They wrote in their own mother tongues and were also published in their respective regions. But except for one or two institutions which made the works of some of them

available to a larger public, the publishing activity in Indian languages looked more like a cottage industry than a thriving business based on professional principles and traditions which, in many parts and barring again a few exceptions, is the situation even today.

The development of publishing in India became much more marked with the attainment of the country's independence in 1947. With its long history of endogenous publishing already behind it, India now has one of the largest and most efficient publishing infrastructures in the Third World. India possesses the necessary prerequisites for any successful publishing endeavour: a healthy climate for authorship, well-equipped printing plants, availability of locally produced paper, editorial expertise, a functioning network for the distribution of books and, most important of all, a community of readers. According to recent statistics compiled by Unesco, India is among the eight largest book-producing countries in the world and ranks third in terms of the number of titles published in English annually. The first and second positions in the latter category being occupied by the United States of America and the United Kingdom respectively, India, in the production of English titles, tops not only all the non-English speaking nations but also a few others with English as their State language.

d) Importance of translation and encouragement to languages

Because of the size of the country, the complexity of its linguistic scene and the varying levels of education among the population, communication becomes a paramount need and poses some serious problems. Along with writing and publishing, translation is another sphere of activity which assumes a crucial significance in such a situation, the need being to translate books from English into Indian languages on the one hand and, on the other, from one Indian language into another. Direct translation in the latter case - for example, from a language like Malayalam into Assamese, or from Bengali into Kannada, to cite at random only two examples out of an enormous variety of possible situations - is often solved by resorting to a via media like Hindi. That Hindi translation then becomes the basis of translation of the book into other Indian languages.

For the development and spread of Hindi, which is the sole Indian language to be declared as the official language at the central level and such state levels where Hindi is the state language, the government of India, for a number of years, has been engaged in implementing several significant programmes,⁷ which include evolution and finalisation of Hindi terminology, preparation of dictionaries, linguaphone records, language lessons and tapes; and in collaboration with publishers in the private sector, publication of popular books. In pursuance of the same objectives, the central Ministry of Education renders financial assistance to governments of non-Hindi speaking states to train Hindi teachers for appointment in schools located in such states. It encourages the learning of Hindi on a voluntary basis by running correspondence courses, provides financial assistance to voluntary organizations in non-Hindi speaking states to enable them to hold Hindi teaching classes, gives awards to Hindi writers of non-Hindi speaking states; and propagates the study and teaching of Hindi in other countries. Kendriya Hindi Sansthan, located in Agra, is one such institution through which the central government fosters the development and application of improved methodology for teaching Hindi to non-Hindi speaking students. The Central Hindi Directorate is another government organization with programmes related to the publication of Hindi books and their free distribution in non-Hindi speaking states.

Simultaneously, steps are taken for the development of modern Indian languages other than Hindi.⁸ The central government has a scheme under which voluntary organizations receive financial assistance for undertaking the publication of reference works like encyclopaedias, dictionaries, books of knowledge and of scientific interest. For the promotion of Indian languages, grants are given to organize literary conferences, seminars and exhibitions of books. Bulk purchase of printed publications is another method used to give financial aid. State governments are encouraged and offered special assistance for bringing out university-level textbooks in regional languages. Sindhi and Urdu, the two stateless languages, also receive governmental assistance for their development. A Taraqui-e-Urdu Board, set up for the production of educative literature, has been doing valuable work in Urdu. A similar scheme is also in operation to encourage the publication of such books in Sindhi.

Study of languages other than one's mother tongue is also encouraged, for which the government provides special facilities. The Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore, has been engaged in developing improved teaching methodology, preparing teaching materials and training second language teachers at the various Regional Language centres of the Institute. It has also done some pioneering work for the study of tribal languages.

A counterpart of this institution is the Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages, located at Hyderabad, which trains instructors in the teaching of English and foreign languages. It also develops improved teaching methodology and teaching materials in these languages for the benefit of Indian teachers and students. The Institute, which now has acquired the status of a university, has set up a regional centre at Shillong for pursuing its programmes in the eastern region.

There are also a few other important institutions set up at central as well as regional levels for the promotion of Indian writing in general and for projecting the basic cultural unity of the multi-lingual country.

Translation, as a means to foster interregional understanding, forms an important part of their activities. Particularly notable among these institutions are the Sahitya Akademi and the National Book Trust.

e) Authors and translators: Professional organizations

Some of the main functions of the Sahitya Akademi established in New Delhi in 1954 for the development of Indian letters are: translation of representative literary works from one Indian language into another and from non-Indian to Indian languages; publication of biographies of eminent writers, national bibliographies, reference works on literary history and criticism, and works in Devanagiri and other Indian scripts; and popularisation, among the general public, of the reality that Indian literature is one, though written in many languages. Another important activity of the Akademi is the annual presentation of awards to works of outstanding literary excellence in the major Indian languages and English as written by Indians. The Akademi which in addition to its headquarters in New Delhi has regional offices in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras, also honours eminent men and women of letters by electing them as Fellows.

There are several other awards given at national, state and regional levels, by governments as well as private bodies, to encourage writing in Indian languages

and reward outstanding authorship in these languages. The most prestigious of these literary prizes is the annual Jnanpith Award of one hundred and fifty thousand rupees and honouring an author writing in any of the major languages of the country. For the promotion of Indian writing in general and protection of authors' interests in particular, an institution like the Authors Guild of India, set up in New Delhi, deserves a special mention. It publishes a quarterly journal entitled Indian Author and has a large number of members drawn from all parts of the country. In pursuance of its objective to promote and protect professional and economic interests and rights of authors it has drawn up a model contract and taken effective steps, for the benefit of its members, to settle outstanding claims and obtain compensation from defaulting publishers.

The interests of authors are also protected and promoted through the establishment of writers' co-operatives. The most important institution of its kind in the country is the famous co-operative of Malayalam writers in Kerala known as the SPCS (Sahitya Pravartaka Co-operative Society) which was created in 1945 with a share capital of only Rs. 120/-, has so far published 8,000 titles and is now in a position to pay its member-writers a royalty of 30 per cent, which is probably the highest royalty paid to authors anywhere in the world.

Another important institution which serves the cause of books and, through its multifarious programmes, lays emphasis on the promotion of reading habits, is the National Book Trust, India, set up in New Delhi in 1957. It has undertaken translation as one of its major publishing activities to stress the need for interregional understanding in a vast and multi-lingual country like India. For the fulfilment of its objectives to foster bookmindedness, it has launched a great variety of projects in many directions, including production of good literature and making it available at moderate cost; organization of book fairs and book exhibitions at national, regional and international levels in collaboration with the Indian book trade; and organization of seminars, workshops and short-term training courses on the problems of writers, translators, publishers and distributors. Recently, it has added a new dimension to its activities by undertaking a pilot publishing project meant for rural areas to produce, in collaboration with local writers and illustrators, neo-literate reading material in select languages of the country.

The NBT's publication programme, in the major Indian languages and in English, is meant for educated lay readers of all age-groups. Instead of competing with private publishers it seeks to fill in the gaps in Indian publishing. Planning for children marks many of its activities, for whom, as well as for young adults, it has an important publishing programme.

Since 1970 it is also operating a subsidy scheme which has certain features deserving special mention. Broadly, the objective of the scheme is to produce and make available, to students pursuing higher studies at the university level, books of adequate standard at reasonable prices. Such books can be textbooks, reference works or supplementary reading material pertaining to particular disciplines. Until recently confined to books written in English, the scheme has now been expanded to include those written in Hindi and other Indian languages as well. The subject areas chosen for the implementation of the scheme are those where books answering the needs of the situation and of acceptable standard are either not available or, if they are, are priced so highly that the majority of the students find them beyond their means.

The most important aspect of the scheme, however, is that it is designed to encourage and promote endogenous authorship in the vitally important area of university-level textbooks. In the sixties, when with the rapid expansion of

educational facilities an acute need was felt for standard study material for students all over the country, the gap was sought to be temporarily filled by entering into collaboration agreements with some foreign governments for making available in large numbers low-priced students' editions, particularly in the domain of science and technology. This temporary experiment, however, soon led to the realisation that such arrangements, as a long-term measure, were not adequate and that a lasting remedy to such situations lay only in encouraging endogenous authorship and publication of university-level books of acceptable quality.

Taking into account all these factors, before the Ministry of Education launched this particular scheme in 1970 to subsidise publication of university-level books and entrusted its administration to the National Book Trust, the planners, engaged in the formulation of the National Policy on Education, which was announced in 1968, urged, while placing special emphasis on production of high quality textbooks, that the quality of books in this important domain could be improved only when the best academicians and talented authors in the country were motivated to write in their respective fields of specialisation through a liberal policy of incentives and remuneration. It was also felt necessary, for any such endeavour to succeed, that the prices of books to be produced should be low enough, thus enabling students of modest means to buy them.

Apart from its obvious usefulness for the student community, the subsidy scheme, the rules of which have recently been further revised and liberalised in consultation with all concerned, is equally attractive to authors and publishers. These revised rules include the enhancement of the percentage of subsidy to publishers, representing 70 per cent of the total manufacturing cost calculated on a schedule of rates approved by NBT, for the first edition of a book. The higher subsidy is in addition to the royalty which is paid by the Trust to authors directly and based not on the subsidised sale price of their books which is one and a half times the unit cost, but on their market-related or 'notional' price representing two and a half times the unit cost. The scheme, therefore, benefits all the three arms of the triangle - students, authors and publishers.

From April 1970 to March 1983 a total of 509 books have been subsidised under the scheme.

The need, however, remains constantly greater as does the challenge. In a country of India's diversity and vastness, the issues relating to authorship are more intricate than they are in many other countries.

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II. PUBLISHING

As it has been elsewhere since the advent of printing, in India too, publishing has proved to be one of the most important factors of cultural awareness and the spread of knowledge. Its progress in India, though spectacular and rapid, has not always been regular, due to some problems which are peculiar to the country. They include the slow and retarded growth of literacy and the collapse of its centuries-old social system, which nurtured a tradition of oral transmission of knowledge.

Yet there are several factors which make India's case in this respect noteworthy. Among the developing countries, India has the largest publishing infrastructure. It publishes in English, which was a 'colonial' language until recently but in which its publications have now grown to overwhelming proportions, and also in a great diversity of Indian languages, all known for their tradition and active participation in the promotion of culture and knowledge. There are publishing activities both in the private sector and in the well-defined educational and other programmes undertaken in the public sector. Though the general underdevelopment in the semi-urban and rural areas may often present a dismal picture, the urban areas have achieved a high degree of sophistication in several fields of industrialisation and education. Much before the country gained its independence in 1947, it could already boast of a fairly long tradition of endogenous publishing, producing visionaries and writers of considerable significance. In 1913, it even brought before the world a Nobel Prize-winning author, Rabindranath Tagore, writing in an Indian language. The quantity alone of his publications would make publishing history anywhere. Independence accelerated the pace of development, and the generation that has passed since 1947 has witnessed the foundation of many distinctive institutions, created with the understanding of the country's special characteristics, scope and needs. All these signify a healthy climate for the growth of Indian publishing.

a) Historical perspective

Printing and publishing in India in the modern sense first flourished in the nineteenth century, when a synthetic cross-fertilisation with the West through English education started bearing its early fruits and a cultural reawakening, pioneered in Bengal, soon spread to the other regions. A few decades later, with the spread of the English educational system and textbook-oriented learning, arose an increasing need for reading materials at the school as well as at college levels. Such educational materials were imported from England in the beginning and, later, reprinted in India or written afresh to suit the Indian requirements and published. The British-owned publishing firms included Macmillan, Longmans and Oxford University Press.

Though these concerned only books written in English, publishing in Indian languages also flourished, centering mainly round the social, political and nationalistic awakening of the days. Soon, with the growth of Indian authorship in English, the first generation of Indian publishers issuing books primarily in English came into being. But lacking the experience of their British rivals and suffering also from inadequate financial resources, most of these ventures did not last long.¹

To succeed, publishing of purely Indian origin had to wait until the post-Independence period when the market for books of all kinds expanded rapidly. By

far, the greatest factor to contribute to this expansion was, of course, the textbook market which could not but rise to the occasion to cope with the dramatic increase in the student population at the college as well as school levels. In a brief span of thirteen years, between 1947 and 1960, for example; this population at the college level only grew from 225,000 to 1,000,000. On the other hand, the number of educational institutions in India registered an impressive increase and the country's overall expenditure on elementary education alone, rose from Rs. 165 crores in the First Five Year Plan (1951-1956) to Rs.2,524 crores in the Sixth Plan (1980-1985), maintaining a continuous upward trend.² Viewed from another angle and talking of the goal of universalisation of elementary education, the enrolment over successive Five Year Plans has registered an impressive increase from about 22 million to over 100 million.³ These figures indirectly point to the importance that educational publishing has recently assumed in trying to meet the ever-growing demand for textbooks and other supplementary reading material at all levels.

Going back to the early days of post-Independence publishing in India, the British firms were soon joined by their American counterparts,⁴ but their role in the field experienced a progressive decline. With multinational arrangements, quite a few of them are still very active in India, though they are no longer the rival they used to be to the endogenous publishing enterprise. In a way, they can be said to have played a role in helping the quick growth of the latter.

b) 'Private' and 'Public'

The great bulk of Indian publishing is, of course, in private hands, although since Independence the contribution of the public sector to the country's total publishing effort has never ceased to grow. The largest single publishing agency is, in fact, the central government itself, responsible for about 20 per cent of the entire book production in the country. Among the developing nations, India has been particularly effective in focusing the importance of an ideological commitment to the role the public sector can play in employing books as tools of national development.

About 450 agencies in the public sector, ranging from ministries of the central as well as state governments to research institutes and semi-autonomous bodies are engaged in the publishing field on a more or less regular basis. The largest of these publishing organizations functioning at an all-India level include, prominently, the Publications Division, a government department under the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, and the National Book Trust, an autonomous body set up and wholly financed by the Ministry of Education and Culture. Though book publishing is not the sole function of either of these two organizations - the NBT, particularly, has a varied programme - the variety and volume of what they publish are counted as significant enough to mark the overall Indian book situation.

Another autonomous organization at the national level created and fully financed by the central government, the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), similarly, as its very name suggests, functions in a wide variety of fields, but its publishing activities in the textbook field make it one of the largest publishers in the country. Among other such public sector institutions with more or less regular publishing operations are the Sahitya Akademi or National Academy of Literature, the National Museum, the Archaeological Survey of India, the Indian Council for Cultural Relations, the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, the Indian Council of Historical Research, the Indian Council of Agricultural Research, etc.

The universities and allied institutions of higher learning are also in the category of autonomous bodies, all wholly or substantially funded by government.

Among those of them having important publishing activities of a regular nature are Calcutta University; the Indian Statistical Institute, Calcutta; the Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Bombay; the G.B. Pant Agricultural University, Pantnagar (U.P.); the Punjab University, Chandigarh; the Punjabi University, Patiala; the National Council of Applied Economic Research, New Delhi; and Indian Institute of Public Administration, Delhi.

Thus the publication activities in the public sector constitute a substantial part of the operations of the Indian publishing industry as a whole. Apart from these direct activities, the government also plays a crucial part in shaping the realities and exigencies of the book trade in general, through its policies and decisions involving a variety of issues such as the import and export of books, manufacture and prices of paper, credit regulations, grants to libraries, etc.

In a democratic country like India the role of the government in publishing is often a subject of healthy debates.

About 20,000 titles are annually published in India. The figure is impressive, and makes India the eighth largest book producing country in the world. Its performance in the production of titles in English is seven times superior, ranking third in the world, after the United States and the United Kingdom. But the glory of these statistics is, in fact, a bit deceptive since the per capita publishing figures in India remain far below the world average. For example, as against the world average of 127 titles and the general Asian average of 48 titles published in 1963 per million, the average in India was only 27 titles per million for the corresponding period. To this day, this situation has not improved since then in any appreciable manner.⁵

On the other hand, the consumption of books per person per year in India is as little as 32 pages, amounting in abstract terms to no more than a pamphlet per individual, whereas the comparable figures for the industrially advanced nations are 2,000 pages per person per year. In the matter of print-runs per title, the average figures from India, according to statistics collected in 1963, are similarly far below the international average of 13,000 copies per title.⁶ The average print-run of titles published in the major Indian languages hardly ever exceeds one thousand copies; in most cases, it is even lower. Books in English, however, do generally better, though even their average print-run fluctuates between one thousand and two thousand copies. There are certainly cases of individual titles, in English or in some of the Indian languages, reaching print-run figures of 50,000 copies or more. But they have so far failed to make any appreciable impact on the average figures.

c) Reading population

A country's publishing statistics are naturally governed by its rate of literacy, the size and nature of its educated population, its educational policies and programmes, and so on. While literacy and reading habit are not synonymous, the former is the first necessity for any reading programme to grow.

According to the 1981 census, India's overall literacy is about 37 per cent whereas its population figures are a little over 683 million. Though there has been an increase of about 7 per cent in literacy rates since the last census was taken in 1971, what is important to note in this connection is that, due to appreciable increase in population, the stock of illiterates, in terms of sheer numbers, has never ceased to grow. During the decade 1971-81, as many as 48 million people have been added to the stock of illiterates.⁷

Another basic characteristic of Indian population to be considered in this context is its rural-urban distribution. As recorded by the 1981 census, 23.73 per cent of the country's total population live in urban areas. In other words, as much as 76.27 per cent of this population is rural.⁸ This has a direct bearing on the publishing situation of the country in the rural areas. It is confined exclusively to textbooks for the use of primary school children and is estimated at less than even 10 per cent of that in the urban areas.⁹ Seventy-five per cent of the Indian villages are beyond the reach of a newspaper or magazine, and sources of any exposure to the printed word are often limited to such objects as currency notes, soap-wrappers, invitations, matchboxes or the large family planning hoardings.¹⁰

d) Book production figures

The annual book production figures, quoted earlier as about 20,000, is only an approximation, calculated on the basis of statistics compiled by the National Library, Calcutta. These statistics may not be absolutely correct as it is common knowledge that, contrary to what is required by law, quite a large number of books published in the country are never deposited with the National Library, Calcutta.

There is also the fact that in recent years the figures of the country's book production have tended to fluctuate considerably. Thus it is found that according to figures made available by the same National Library, Calcutta, the number of book titles published in India and received by the Library under the Delivery of Books Act was 18,305 in 1970-71, 17,557 in 1971-72, 17,000 in 1972-73, 17,600 in 1973-74, 16,192 in 1974-75, 21,957 in 1975-76, 21,922 in 1976-77, 19,659 in 1977-78, 18,584 in 1978-79, 16,392 in 1979-80 and 17,168 in 1980-81.

A language-wise break-up of any of these annual figures points to an interesting fact of the multi-lingual nature of Indian publishing. Any annual figures of a recent year will indicate the same pattern. Quoted here, to illustrate the point, are the figures of 1980-81. As the Library source indicates, the country produced during that year a total number of 17,168 titles: 196 titles in Assamese, 1,046 titles in Bengali, 7,655 titles in English, 767 titles in Gujarati, 2,225 titles in Hindi, 500 titles in Kannada, 757 titles in Malayalam, 1,361 titles in Marathi, 445 titles in Oriya, 308 titles in Punjabi, 43 titles in Sanskrit, 1,135 titles in Tamil, 389 titles in Telugu, 286 titles in Urdu, and an assorted total of 55 titles in other languages.

Even a short glance at the above figures will make the fact obvious that the titles produced in English far outnumber those in the other languages, representing about 40 per cent or more of the entire book production in the country. In fact, in recent years, the annual book production figures in English have consistently shown such an upward trend as to make one realise that in spite of far-reaching social and economic changes brought about in the country during the last few decades, increasing enormously the need and scope for authorship in the Indian languages, English continues to dominate written expression and influence the country's intellectual thinking in a manner vastly disproportionate to the numerical strength it has in the population. As it is, according to the latest census figures of 1981, India's literacy rate is about 37 per cent while only two per cent of the country's total population of over 683 million is literate in English.

This points to another interesting aspect of the reading situation in the country. Judging by the statistics quoted, for the 15 million English-reading population of India, as many as 360 new English titles, all produced in the

country alone, are annually available per million persons, which, in terms of per capita publishing figures, is almost three times the world average of 127.¹¹ And to this number must be added the very substantial quantity of books in English of foreign origin which the country has at its disposal. It can thus be seen that books in the English language, whether of Indian or foreign origin, tend to monopolize the country's important book distribution channels at national levels.

Among the Indian languages, Hindi is spoken by the greatest number of people. Having been declared as the official language of India, it also enjoys some special patronage. It is also a fact that in terms of sheer numbers, the book production figures in Hindi occupy a position immediately after English, though the efforts of recent years have not achieved any appreciable results to reduce the uncomfortable gap between the two. And if it is considered, that judging by the numerical strength of the population speaking it, Hindi is also the country's most important language, a close comparative look at the multi-linguistic population of the country and the division of the book production language-wise will reveal that in spite of the apparently prestigious position of Hindi over the other Indian languages in publishing matters, in comparison to quite a few of these languages - such as, notably, Marathi, Tamil, Bengali, Malayalam and Gujarati - fewer books are produced in Hindi per million of the population.

For a proper appreciation of the situation, the number of titles published in a language should be related not only to the population speaking that language but also to the literacy rate of that population. An example of such an analysis is provided by Survey of Indian Book Industry (National Council of Applied Economic Research, New Delhi, 1976) in which the number of titles published during 1971 in eleven major Indian languages is viewed against the total population as well as the total literate population speaking those languages and their respective literacy rates. According to the figures quoted in that survey, a total of 8,176 titles published in those languages during the year in question had Hindi as the top of the list with 1,871 titles, which was followed by Bengali (971 titles), Marathi (966 titles), Tamil (895 titles), Gujarati (710 titles), Teluga (663 titles), Malayalam (660 titles), Kannada (490 titles), Punjabi (389 titles), Oriya (194 titles), and Assamese (59 titles). The figures of population (in thousands) per title were 119 for Hindi, 46 for Bengali, 52 for Marathi, 46 for Tamil, 38 for Gujarati, 65 for Telugu, 32 for Malayalam, 60 for Kannada, 35 for Punjabi, 113 for Oriya and 252 for Assamese. Since higher literacy percentages are reflected in smaller populations per title, the highest literacy rate is indicated for Malayalam (60 per cent), followed by Marathi and Tamil (both 39 per cent), Gujarati (36 per cent), Punjabi (34 per cent), Bengali (33 per cent), and Kannada (32 per cent). Hindi, according to this survey, occupies in this field the lowest position with 21 per cent literacy.¹²

Though these figures are old, they do indicate a pattern which is still valid to a large extent, notwithstanding the fact that in recent years the book production figures in the Indian languages have not always followed a uniform pattern.

Be that as it may, what is certain is that in Hindi as well as in the other major Indian languages the current publishing scene has much to warrant optimism. It is also equally certain that for many more decades to come, English will continue to enjoy a very important position in Indian publishing matters. The greatest difficulty faced by publishing in Indian languages is, of course, its restricted market in comparison to the vast opportunities that exist for publications in English. The English titles produced in the country command an

all-India market and can even look forward to markets beyond India, while publishers in Indian languages, generally, must remain satisfied with their own linguistic regions.

A look at the statistics by subject of book production in India is no less revealing. For example, about 35 per cent of books published in India pertain to various social sciences while the pure and applied sciences account for only about 10 per cent of books. Here again, Indian figures do not compare favourably with those obtaining in some industrially advanced nations. In the USSR, for instance, 54 per cent of the books published deal with scientific subjects while the corresponding figure in the same field in the United States is 25 per cent.¹³ An analysis by subject of book production figures in Indian languages compiled annually by Calcutta's National Library will invariably show an overwhelming percentage of purely literary titles.

The Unesco Statistical Yearbook dated 1981, gives the global Indian book production figures by subject group for the year 1980 in the following manner. The total number of titles, including books and pamphlets, published in the country during that period is stated as 13,148 which, when divided subject-wise, reveals titles as follows: 159: Generalities; 427: Philosophy and Psychology; 773: Religion and Theology; 434: Sociology and Statistics; 1,835: Political Science; 818: Law and Public Administration; 16: Military Art; 276: Education and Leisure; 234: Trade and Transport; 84: Ethnography and Folklore; 134: Mathematics; 630: Natural Sciences; 176: Medical Sciences; 1,182: Engineering and Crafts; 183: Agriculture; 60: Domestic Science; 107: Management and Administration; 103: Performing Arts; 164: Games and Sports; 161: Linguistics and Philology; 4,278: Literature including literary texts proper as well as history and criticism; 695: Geography and Travel, and 219: History and Biography.

As regards the total number of titles, the Unesco figures seem appreciably lower than those issued by the National Library, Calcutta. The situation is a little perplexing for various reasons. For one thing, while the former relate to the calendar year, January - December, the latter correspond to the financial year which starts in April and ends in March. The discrepancy remains striking even after taking into account that what Unesco gives as figures for 1980 may cover partly the figures for 1979-80 and partly those for 1980-81 which are quoted by Calcutta's National Library. Against the 1980 Unesco figures of 13,148 titles, the number quoted by the Calcutta institution is 16,392 titles for 1979-80 and 17,168 titles for 1980-81.¹⁴

The inclusion, by Unesco, of pamphlets in the total figures is no less perplexing. Does it suggest that the Calcutta figures, though they do not mention it specifically, also included pamphlets? Or, while issuing the figures, has the Calcutta institution followed strictly the Unesco definition of a book according to which it must have a minimum of 49 pages of matter excluding the cover page?

These may be questions characteristic of the Indian situation in which statistical data on many issues of national importance are yet scientifically collected and studied on a regular basis.

e) Publishing Houses

When one moves from a consideration of the general and particular issues relating to publishing in India to a discussion of the nature, number and variety

of Indian publishers, one is again confronted with difficulties of many kinds, a few of which stem from the fact that very little work has so far been done in the country to collect, analyse and disseminate, in a systematic and regular manner, information on its book industry. A few individual efforts, sporadic and of varying merit, may have been made, but no organization worth the name has been known to have seriously and professionally engaged itself in this important task.

The Book Promotion Division of the Ministry of Education and Culture is certainly doing valuable work in this field. The same may also be said of the effort made by the National Library, Calcutta, to prepare some annual statistics of book production in the country. But much more needs to be done to fill the vast information gap pertaining to all sectors of the book industry.

For example, how many and what kinds of publishers does the country have? Claims which are more in the nature of guesses, some wild, some reasonable, have been occasionally made. But in the absence of any central machinery making it obligatory on the part of publishers to register themselves with it, any correct enumeration and categorisation of Indian publishers will not be complete.

The first serious effort was made a few years ago, when, at the instance of the Ministry of Education, the Federation of Publishers and Booksellers Associations in India agreed to prepare a list of publishers by language all over the country. The result of this effort was a compilation entitled Directory of the Indian Publishing Industry which appeared in 1973.¹⁵ According to this Directory, the total number of publishers in India including those who are no more than author-publishers, exceeds 11,000, with 171 publishers in Assamese, 1,419 in Bengali, 1,709 in English, 371 in Gujarati, 2,490 in Hindi, 564 in Kannada, 377 in Malayalam, 988 in Marathi, 256 in Oriya, 309 in Punjabi, 452 in Sanskrit, 36 in Sindhi, 365 in Tamil, 596 in Telugu, 170 in Urdu and 993 publishers representing government or institutional publishers. These figures suggest the number of commercial publishers in the country to be about 9,000.

The Directory, though the first important publication of its kind, suffers many defects. For instance, it lists everyone who has been engaged in the publishing field in the recent past, including even those whose total output may not be more than a single volume and also those who, after one or two recent attempts, may have abandoned publishing altogether. Moreover, as the Editor of the Directory himself acknowledges,¹⁶ there may be as many as 2,000 commercial publishers publishing in more than one language, which brings down the number of commercial publishers from the originally suggested 9,000 or so to about 7,000. Even this figure, the knowledgeable circles believe, is a bit exaggerated.

So far, the most important work attempting to present the picture and problems of the Indian book industry in all its facets has been a Survey of the Indian Book Industry which, undertaken again at the instance of the Ministry of Education, was carried out and published in 1976 by the National Council of Applied Economic Research (NCAER). The survey reveals that the number of active publishers in India is likely to be around 3,000, including about 2,700 small, about 200 medium and about 100 large publishers. According to the estimates of the survey, small publishers are those who bring out on an average a minimum of 5 but not exceeding 11 new titles per year, while the corresponding figure for medium publishers is between 12 and 49 titles and for large publishers 50 titles or more.

There is little evidence of specialization in much of the commercial publishing in India. In a large measure this commercial sector still presents the picture of an integrated industry in the sense that the same organization often undertakes a variety of activities like printing, publishing and distribution. Quite a few of them, before becoming publishers, started as printers, or importers of books from abroad and distributors. The above-mentioned survey conducted recently by the NCAER revealed that 40 per cent of Indian publishers in general, and more than 50 per cent in the case of large publishers, benefited from the advantage of having their own printing presses. Moreover, of the 128 publishers the NCAER study team particularly surveyed, 84 were also distributors, either wholesale or retail.¹⁷

The most profitable publishing, understandably, is publication of textbooks, followed by that of fiction. A third of the units studied by the NCAER team was found to concentrate on textbooks which accounted for as much as about 75 per cent of their total turnover. The fact is that the profit earned from textbooks enables many a publisher to carry on with the business of their other slow moving and low profit general books.¹⁸

Here again, vis-à-vis the situation obtained in publishing in English, a special difficulty is found by Indian language publishers, a large number of whom depend for their survival on textbooks of high school and middle school levels and light reading materials. As it has already happened in some parts of the country, those state governments which have not yet done so are likely to take over the preparation and publication of such textbooks in the near future. Unable, because of their small size and the relatively underdeveloped market for books in Indian languages, to employ trained editors and competent proof-readers and without the means to take advantage of an extensive distribution system, most Indian language publishers, though aware of the danger of losing the textbook market, find it difficult to switch over from textbooks to other potentially profitable areas like publication of general books and paperbacks.

As an example of successful publishing in the private sector, here is a brief profile of a few Indian publishers, who, competing with their multi-national counterparts, have not only managed to survive but have also made their unquestionable mark. They include, prominently and among others, Asia Publishing House, P.C. Manaktala and Sons, Allied Publishers, Popular Prakashan, Hind Pocket Books, and Vikas. One significant feature about them, which is also a comment on Indian publishing in general, is that barring a few exceptions, most of them have achieved success by publishing general books in English.

Asia Publishing House, which was founded in 1943 and came into prominence shortly after Independence, is generally recognized as the first Indian firm to put publishing on professional lines. Its founder, Peter Jayasinghe, is a much renowned pioneer in the field who realized for the first time in the country the difference between editorial and production techniques and functions and was also instrumental in training a group of professionals some of whom currently occupy senior editorial positions in well-established publishing firms. Apart from a few negligible publishing efforts in Hindi, the bulk of its publications is in English and devoted to fields like sciences, politics and current affairs. Until a few years ago, before its decline started seriously, Asia used to have an annual turnover of approximately Rs.6,400,000,¹⁹ a substantial part of it representing earnings from sales of books from the firm's back-list. In all, some 4,500 titles have been published by the firm.

However, in spite of the vision of its founder and its very impressive record of performance, Asia Publishing House could not maintain its status and

in recent years experienced a sharp and steady decline. One of the main reasons of its fall is that it grew a bit too fast and in later years accepted too many titles for publication, at times even a little indiscriminately. Shortage of working capital followed a declining tempo of sales.

However, both its spectacular rise and subsequent sharp decline have important lessons for the newly emerging Indian publishing industry as a whole. Asia demonstrated the vast scope that Indian publishing could have, when marked by a combination of imagination, drive and professional skills. Maintaining offices simultaneously in places like London and New York, as Asia did, speaks eloquently of the strength of the firm which made it rise so high. But these strengths as well as the weaknesses which, later, were responsible for its fall, are both indicative of the possibilities and limitations of Indian publishing in general.

P.C. Manaktala and Sons, in a way, is a similar example of success and failure. It is again a case of imagination, coupled with drive and professional skills, that led to the foundation of a distinguished publishing firm producing serious books of high quality in English. Apart from a few college textbooks which it also published, most of its publications are again general books, on subjects like politics, society and current affairs. The high production standards of its books drew applause from national and international circles. P.C. Manaktala was closely associated with Allied Publishers for quite some time. In 1964, he decided to enter the publishing field himself. When he did so, Allied Publishers became the distributors for the firm created by and named after him.

During the three years he remained in active business, from 1964 to 1967, he brought out as many as 70 general books and 7 textbooks, all marked by a rare excellence in design and production. But shortage of capital and desire to expand publishing operations a bit too fast are once again factors which led to the fall of this firm also. Since Manaktala had a highly trained editorial and production staff, his overhead costs proved understandably a little too high to enable him to earn, through sales of his books, enough money which he could re-invest in new publications.

Profiting from a large distribution network - it is one of the country's leading wholesale stockists - the firm going by the name of Allied Publishers concentrates on academic and scholarly books in humanities and social sciences, and on dictionaries and journals. It also publishes original and reprint editions of school as well as college level textbooks and operates a photo-composing unit and a large capacity offset press of its own. Until recently, like most of the other well-established publishing firms in the country, it had its headquarters in Bombay, but has now moved to Delhi which, lately, stealing the limelight, has become the main centre of the Indian book trade. It has five branch offices in Calcutta, Madras, Bangalore and Hyderabad.

Another notable example of Indian publishing is Popular Prakashan of Bombay, which, founded as a bookstore in 1924, has been publishing books in English and Marathi since 1928. Run by the same family since its inception, both the bookstore and the publishing firm work in close collaboration with each other, the former playing a key part in the total business operations and acting as a distributor for books brought out by the latter as well as other publishers. Popular Prakashan has more than 600 titles to its credit, covering a wide range of subjects such as sociology, politics, history, religion, philosophy, economics and biography. Currently, with a production rate of about 100 titles a year and an average annual turnover of about Rs. 800,000, it also publishes textbooks in physics, chemistry, mathematics and medicine and, in addition, has been the

publisher for a number of institutions like the Indian Council of Social Science Research, New Delhi; Tata Economic Consultancy Services, Bombay; Administrative Staff College of India, Hyderabad; University of Bombay; International Institute of Population Studies, Bombay; and some universities in North America.

The bookstore part of its business, one of the largest in India, attracts institutional buyers of many kinds and has built up a reputation for itself throughout the country. Similarly, in the context of modern India and its book needs, the publishing role of the firm has been equally pioneering.

In another direction, that of the paperbacks, the achievements of Hind Pocket Books of Delhi has been unique in the Indian context and acclaimed in knowledgeable publishing circles everywhere. Started in 1958 with the objective of producing low-priced quality paperbacks, it publishes fiction and non-fiction in Hindi, Urdu, Punjabi and English. Its pioneering role in Indian publishing includes the operation of two book clubs - one for books in Hindi called Gharelu Library Yojana (Home Library Plan) and the other for English books known as Clarion Book Club. Each year Hind Pocket Books brings out more than 150 new titles and over 200 reprints. Its parent firm is Rajpal & Sons, founded in 1981 and its associated firms are Clarion Books and Saraswati Vihar, both producing hardcover books, the former in English and the latter in Hindi.

However, perhaps the most successful example is provided by a late entrant in the field, Vikas Publishing House, whose imaginativeness, vigour, dynamism, as well as professional acumen have placed it on the top of the list. Established in 1969, this firm has ventured into almost all fields of publishing in the English language and its spectacular progress in recent years has made publishing history in the country. Its list has a wide range of titles varying from serious studies of the problems of the developing world to 'instant' best selling 'publishing coups' on topics of current political interest. It has an annual production rate of about 500 titles, its publications including textbooks in science, engineering, social sciences and humanities. Until recently, it was also publishing a few academic journals of distinction. The paperback series introduced by it includes Tarang Paperbacks, incorporating Bell Books, and a children's series, Madhuban Books. Though publishing predominantly in English, it also has quite a few publications in Hindi.

However, the key to its spectacular publishing success lies in a highly sophisticated distribution network, UBS Publishers Distributors Limited, its parent organization and one of the topmost distributors in the country representing some 250 publishers from India and abroad.

Though this profile of publishers has been deliberately intended to include a few of the larger firms publishing mostly in English, a number of other publishers doing excellent work in their own specialised fields also exists, Munshiram Manoharlal and Motilal Banarsidass, both renowned publishers are among such examples. Similarly, there are also firms specialising exclusively in books on law and medicine. And, of course, hundreds of publishers in Indian languages, spread all over the country, which include quite a few who have achieved distinction, though due to limitations posed by languages in which they operate, their impact on the country as a whole may not be as wide as is the case with English language publishers. The limited market and financial constraints limit their performance considerably, both in terms of quality as well as quantity. And professionalism, particularly concerning trained editorial personnel, is rare. The problem of trained professional staff exists very much among the English-language publishers also and only the more established and successful among them can afford to employ well-trained staff in their

editorial and production departments. In fact, quite a few of even those firms employing professional staff do not have any clear-cut editorial departments and editors are required to handle many jobs at the same time.

Most often, a typical Indian publisher is one who takes to the publishing business only as a sideline but whose primary concern may be bookselling or printing or distribution of books. He is obviously not in a position to employ any professional staff and publishes only one or two books in a year with little care taken to publicize or distribute them effectively. Notwithstanding these limitations and also the fact that publishing in India is yet to establish itself as a fully rewarding and profitable commercial enterprise, in an overwhelmingly large number of cases, the successful examples bear ample testimony to the professionalism and efficiency which have unquestionably marked the field since the country achieved its Independence in 1947.

f) Textbooks, children's books and books of other kinds

If, financially, textbooks have traditionally been the mainstay of Indian publishing, the production and distribution of textbooks at the school level in particular have accounted for the largest business transacted in the publishing field. According to a rough estimate, in 1980-81, there were some 149 million students on the rolls in the country, their gross demand for textbooks being about 1908 million copies. In commercial terms in the Indian context, this means a business of gigantic proportions, constituting the rolling finance of the trade.

However, school textbooks have now been nationalized throughout the country, a process initiated in 1942 and completed in 1968. Primary school textbooks were nationalized in all the states, while in only a few of them have the middle level textbooks also been nationalized. The states which have nationalized their school textbooks at the higher secondary level are still fewer in number. However, though the extent of nationalization is not uniform, differing from state to state, the Government is in effective control of the functioning of various agencies set up specifically for the purpose of regulating the preparation and production of school textbooks in all the states of the country.

The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), set up in 1961 as an academic adviser to the Ministry of Education for implementing its policies and major programmes in the field of education, particularly school education, has a vast publication project in this field, publishing school textbooks, workbooks, teachers' training guides, textual materials for teacher training institutions, supplementary readers for the 14-17 age group, research monographs as well as yearbooks on education. It is also the publisher of five educational journals. The various factors on which the policy decision of the government to nationalize school textbooks is based have been summed up by NCERT experts in this manner:²⁰ (i) while nationalizing such textbooks, the state is discharging its duty under the Constitution to provide universal elementary education to children of the 6 - 14 age group; (ii) it is trying at the same time to improve the quality of education provided in the school system; and (iii) education being an investment in development, it considers the programme of nationalizing school textbooks as an attempt to achieve the goal of universal elementary education.

The private sector, however, contributes substantially to the production and supply of textbooks and other academic publications for education at higher levels. Even at the school level, a large number of commercial publishers throughout the

country have a lucrative business of publishing notes and other materials to supplement nationalized textbooks. The impressive achievements of the Competition Success Review, a magazine started in 1964 can be cited here as a case in point. The magazine as well as its sister concerns bringing out books to equip their readers, specially young adults, for competitive examinations of all kinds, including school examinations.

As regards subsidized university-level books, the role of the National Book Trust, India has already been discussed earlier in detail. There are also three other schemes in particular, all operated by the Ministry of Education, relating to the publication of low-priced university-level books of foreign origin. These are the English Language Book Society Series, operated since 1960 in collaboration with the Government of the U.K., the Joint Indo-American Standard Works Programme operated since 1961 in collaboration with the Government of the United States; and the Joint Indo-Soviet Textbook programme operated since 1965 in collaboration with the Government of the USSR. For coverage under these programmes, latest editions of books are assessed by expert agencies from the point of view of their suitability for Indian students and the non-availability of comparable books of Indian origin on the same subjects. Until March 1983, 715 British, 1,620 American and 430 Soviet books have in all been brought out under these programmes to make low-priced editions of standard university books and reference materials of foreign origin available to the Indian student community.²¹

In addition, the Ministry is also considering a proposal to chalk out a similar Indo-GDR programme for translation and low-priced publication of university-level textbooks including teaching aids and materials of the same standard, particularly in the fields pertaining to natural sciences and technology. Similarly, programmes of low-priced editions of suitable university-level books of foreign origin translated and published in Indian languages are carried on by various state governments. In such cases, the government at the centre comes to the aid of the state governments for facilitating and co-ordinating the task of obtaining translation rights from the foreign copyright owners with regard to such university-level books as may have been selected by the state governments in question under these programmes.

Simultaneously, some years ago, for promoting Indian authorship in the field of university-level books, the government adopted a national policy, to be implemented in collaboration with the state governments, for a co-ordinated development of such textbooks in all the major regional languages. Under this programme an amount of Rs.1 crore was allotted to each state which was asked to form a Book Production Board to review the whole question of textbooks for university-level education and bring out such books in the regional languages. Though the main concern of these Boards was the production of original titles in the regional languages, there was also a provision for translation of books authorised by eminent educationists and considered essential for the student community.

The programme, though begun with a lot of enthusiasm, was never evaluated. Titles numbering about 6,000 or more were claimed to have been produced under the programme in several languages of the country including, notably, the four South Indian languages - Kannada, Malayalam, Tamil and Telugu. The general feeling is that the progress anticipated under this scheme has not been fully achieved. However, with the increasing emphasis on the regional languages as mediums of instruction at higher levels of education including university education, the future of such books written in the regional languages cannot but be bright.

In the field of children's books also there has been an increasing involvement of the public sector in recent years. With the advent of Independence and expansion of the book market, the national book industry felt compelled to adjust itself to a rapidly changing scene. Education, a prerequisite for national development, must start with the child and books are the essential tool of that educative process. In the field of formal education, the NCERT, a government agency, was then established to undertake the task of producing new textbooks suited to the requirements of the country. A logical corollary to the textbook programme was the publication of supplementary reading material for children, which was later undertaken by the NBT. Still later, the Publications Division of the Government of India also joined to include in its publishing programme a children's series.

Since children's books, specially for pre-school and primary age-group levels, must be well produced and illustrated, the public sector publishers, with no personal stakes, are generally in a better financial position than small publishers in the private commercial sector to undertake their publication. They can also afford to keep the price of their publications for children low, often lower than the actual production cost of these publications which is not the case with the private sector publishers.

A unique feature of the children's books published by the NBT, which is the largest publisher for children in the public sector, is that all titles are published simultaneously in 12 major Indian languages and in English. This series of NBT books for children, Nehru Bal Pustakalaya, was named after Jawaharlal Nehru, known for his love for children. While undertaking the scheme, the objective was to produce and make available at a low cost good reading material which the children all over the multilingual country could read in their own respective languages. Apart from its other educational merits, it is a scheme designed to promote national integration. Among its authors are well-known writers for children from all parts of India and its illustrators also equally include some of the most distinguished artists of the country.

For pioneering work accomplished in India for illustrated children's books in English and some Indian languages the credit must go to Children's Book Trust, an institution in the private sector set up by K. Shankar Pillai. It also publishes a monthly magazine for children, Children's World, and Shankar's Children Art Number. It has done much to promote reading habits in children and get quality books to them.

However, in terms of the country's needs in the field, the total picture relating to the publication of children's books in India is rather dismal. According to the survey conducted by NCAER, of which mention has been made earlier, India produced a total of 285 new titles for children in 1970, while in 1971, even that very unsatisfactory figure dropped to 231.²² In subsequent years, some improvement seems to have been observed as the Unesco Statistical Yearbook for 1981 and 1982 quotes the figures of the first edition of children's books published in India in 1979 and 1980 as 611 and 482 respectively. Even then, these figures are woefully low.

Because of the high cost of production and at the same time the necessity to keep sales prices within the reach of common buyers, very few publishers in India find the proposition to publish children's books a viable one. Those who can successfully bring out well-produced books and still keep their sale price low are almost invariably public sector publishers as the government subsidy supports the production of books.

Private publishers publishing exclusively for children are few in number and publish mostly in English. Very often it is the general publishers who, as

a sideline, also take to the publication of children's books. These latter, particularly in the regional languages, do not employ a separate editor for their children's books. If editorial facilities are at all available in a particular house, the general editor in such cases also takes care of the children's books, an arrangement which is not always a satisfactory one as editing children's books requires special skills and aptitudes.²³

It may be mentioned here that it is in the field of children's books that one finds the only significant example of co-publication and regional co-operation in India. It concerns the Asian Co-publication Programme sponsored in 1973 by the Asian Cultural Centre for Unesco (ACCU), Tokyo, with the participation of 16 Asian countries including India. Since the National Book Trust was nominated as the national agency in India for this co-publication programme, national editions of publications brought out under the Tokyo programme are normally published by the NBT. However, with the concurrence of the ACCU, the NBT is also entitled to entrust the publication of Indian editions of these books to any other Indian publisher of its choice. The Indian editions in Hindi and English of Folktales of Asia (Vol. 1 and 2), Festivals of Asia and More Festivals of Asia, all published originally by the ACCU, were entrusted to private publishers in India.

In the field of children's literature, translation as a planned and systematic endeavour to foster regional understanding and national integration, was insignificant before publishers like the National Book Trust and Children's Book Trust came into being. While steps taken in the direction have yielded good results, much more remains to be achieved.

g) Professional organizations

Several important publishers' associations are working all over the country as professional organizations to promote publishing. The most important of them, at the all-India level, are: the Federation of Publishers and Booksellers Associations in India, the Federation of Indian Publishers, and Akhil Bharatiya Hindi Prakashak Sangh. While the last named association is a representative body of Hindi publishers, concerned with issues that affect publishing exclusively in that language, both the FPBA and FIP have a comparatively larger field of operation as they look after the interests of publishing not only in the regional languages but also in English, in which the book production figures are the highest in the country.

The FPBA, the largest and oldest body of its kind in the country, was founded in 1952 and purports to promote, as its name indicates, the interest of the book trade in its entirety, including all aspects of publishing and book-selling. Among its active members are 19 publishing and bookselling associations covering all the important regions and languages of the country. It also has over 5,000 other affiliated members from the book industry.

The importance of the FIP, though speaking only for the publishers, has not ceased to grow since its inception in the early seventies. Member of the International Publishers Association and having the South Asian office of the latter on its own premises, it has 152 direct members and over 2,000 affiliated members. With its headquarters in Delhi, it has its regional offices in Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Bangalore.

The objective of all these organizations is to promote professional standards among their members and to provide a forum to discuss their problems at a national level. One of their main functions is to monitor government policy

with regard to books and keep in constant touch with concerned government officials. The Book Promotion and Copyright Division in the Ministry of Education which, in addition to its other programmes relating to book development, also formulates the country's import policy on books and looks after the book export promotional activities, works in close collaboration with such organizations.

While discussing the strides made by India in publishing matters, a fact not to be overlooked is that since publishing depends on writing and writing is not yet as important for the Indian intellectual subculture as it is for the similar subculture in the West, publishing endeavours may take a longer time here to get the support they need to achieve any spectacular success. Creative and scholarly writing is yet to play in India the important role it plays in the West because the Indian stress on traditional knowledge often communicated through non-written forms has not entirely disappeared.

These reasons have motivated a section of educational planners in India to think that the methods adopted to meet the book needs of societies which for ages have remained basically non-literate but where literacy norms are now sought to be instituted, should reflect the desirability to establish a creative link between traditional oral communication and the printed word to make the latter more easily attainable and acceptable to all.

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11. See Samuel Israel, A Career in Book Publishing, National Book Trust, India, 1983; p.99.
12. See Table 11.1, p.105, Survey of Indian Book Industry, NCAER, New Delhi, 1976.
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14. Some clarification on this point has subsequently been obtained from the National Library, Calcutta, which is found to maintain figures for both the financial year and calendar year. In this connection relevant excerpts from a letter dated 20th July 1983, and received from the Deputy Librarian of the Library are reproduced below with his permission.

'Under the provisions of Delivery of Books (Public Libraries) Act, 1954, this Library is entitled to get one copy of each of the publications published in India since May 20, 1954. The statistics of the books received in the Library under this Act is maintained. Since the Library follows the time frame of April to following March as a year, the statistics also are for the same period. The figures relate to the actual receipt of books in a particular language during the financial year under the Delivery of Books Act. The books, thus received during the year, need not necessarily be the books published during the year. For example, the Library may receive during 1982-83 a book published in 1978.

'The Library compiles other statistics strictly following the Unesco guidelines. This relates to books published during a particular calendar year. In this case care is taken to include only the books published during a particular year and not all the books received under the Delivery of Books Act during the year. The total number of books received in the Library under the Delivery of Books Act during a particular financial year invariably differs from the books produced during a calendar year.'

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III. PHYSICAL PRODUCTION

The printing industry is on the threshold of a revolution. With the advent of new technology and all that it may imply, even in a developing country like India, there is a growing demand for moving away from older machines to the more sophisticated ones. The findings of a survey¹ on the country's printing scene conducted in the late seventies indicated that the future requirements of a very large number of printing presses were in favour of high value equipment like mechanical and photocomposing machines and the more sophisticated printing plants than the ones which mostly were in use so far.

Though the printing industry was one of the earliest industries to be established in the country after the advent of European rule, there has been little effort to study in a systematic manner the progress and problems of that industry in India. In recent times, perhaps the most important and all-comprehensive study made on the subject is a Report on the Survey of the Printing Industry in India containing findings of the survey conducted by an Operations Research Group in August 1977 under the aegis of the Ministry of Industry, Government of India. Though several years have elapsed since this Report was published, much of its findings continue to be substantially valid.

The Report indicates that a total of some 43,400 printing establishments are in existence in the country including units using a wide range of machinery and equipment for every phase of the printing process but excluding security presses, survey of India presses and such other units as presses run by a few universities and industrial plants or presses in defence establishments. Also not included in this number are servicing units involving exclusively plate and block making, binding, etc.

Quite a large percentage of the total employment in the country's printing presses represents skilled manpower. However, the skill is often forced by circumstances since only one per cent of the total employment in this industry appears to have had the benefit of undergoing formal training in printing in a professional institute before they joined the profession. A little over Rs.1,060 crores represents the total turnover of the industry while the cost of investment on machinery (including some allowance made for some specific equipment) and type metal is estimated to be in the order of Rs.450 crores. According to these statistics, the turnover to investment ratio is 2.4 while the number of employees per lakh investment is 12 and the turnover per employee, Rs.20,000.

a) Nature of ownership and category of work

Among the printing presses in India, very few are public limited companies: proprietary and partnership concerns represent well over 90 per cent of the establishments. According to the Report on the survey mentioned earlier, of the total of 43,422 printing presses in India, proprietorship and partnership concerns alone number as many as 40,607, while there are 1,450 private limited companies, 504 co-operatives, 251 public trusts, 231 public limited companies and an assortment of other categories of presses numbering 379, in all.

As regards the category of work, jobbing is found to be the main source of income for over two-thirds of the printing presses in the country, representing as much as 68 per cent of the total turnover. Book printing comes next in order of importance, accounting for 14 per cent of the turnover. Packaging, periodicals and newspapers, and publicity and display material occupy, in that order,

the next important positions relating to the category of work done. As for the size of these presses, about 70 per cent employ less than 10 workers, representing less than 30 per cent of the total manpower of the industry. Almost half the number of printing establishments have a turnover of less than Rs.50,000 and nearly all of them, including others, have less than 10 persons in their employ. Of the rest, three out of five achieve a turnover of less than Rs.2 lakhs and employ less than 50 persons. The presses with turnover of above Rs.20 lakhs number less than 600 and all of them employ 50 or more workers.

b) Types of presses and geographical distribution

Generally speaking, there are three types of presses: government presses, newspaper presses and commercial presses. Those under the Directorates or Departments of Printing and Stationery, whether in the States or at the centre, are known as government presses, and they number 78 in all. A newspaper press, on the other hand, is one which prints a major newspaper or periodical and in all there are 188 such presses in the country. The third category, commercial presses, is by far the largest one, numbering over 43,150 presses and thus representing over 99 per cent of the total printing establishments in the country. The commercial presses are again sub-divided into two groups, one classified as LPHC (or presses with facility only for letterpress printing and hand-composing) and the other as 'Others'. No more than about 12 per cent of commercial presses fall into the category classified as Others.

As regards the distribution of commercial presses, the northern zone has 28 per cent of the commercial presses in the LPHC category and 20 per cent in the Others category, whereas 30 per cent in the LPHC category and 4 per cent in the Others category are located in the southern region. Twenty-three per cent of commercial presses in the LPHC category and 10 per cent in the Others category are located in the eastern region, while the western zone has 19 per cent of commercial presses in the LPHC category and 14 per cent in the Others category. These figures indicate that whereas about one-third of the total number of commercial presses are located in the North and the proportion of the presses falling in the Others category is also the highest in the region, the next highest number of commercial presses are located in the South, though the proportion of the presses pertaining to the Others category in that region is the lowest.

Tamil Nadu leads all of the other states in the country in the total number of presses, followed by West Bengal, Maharashtra and Uttar Pradesh, in that order. However, the larger presses are concentrated mainly in the following regions: Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal, Delhi, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat and Madhya Pradesh.

The commercial presses employ 89 per cent of the total personnel engaged in the field, 83 per cent of whom represent technical staff. The newspaper presses, on the other hand, employ 4.5 per cent of the total personnel and 71 per cent of their employees are technical staff. Lastly, the employment in the government presses represents 6.5 per cent of the total personnel, 70 per cent of their employees being technical staff. The average number of employees per press is 11 in the case of commercial presses, 122 for newspaper presses and 432 for government presses. Thus it can be seen that whereas the government presses employ the largest number of persons per press, the number of employees per press is the lowest in commercial presses. On the other hand, commercial presses employ the largest percentage of technical staff, followed by newspaper presses and government presses, in that order.

Not only is the Indian printing industry by and large letterpress-based but more than 96 per cent of these letterpress-based presses have facilities only for hand-composing. Presses with the mechanical composing facility represent less than 5 per cent of all the printing establishments in the country and printing processes other than letterpress are used by a little over 9 per cent of the total number of presses. The presses with facilities for mechanical composing and offset printing number less than 700 whereas plate and block-making facilities are available only in 6 presses out of 100, on an average.

c) Machinery and equipment

A wide range of printing machinery and equipment is in use in the country. More than half have been acquired after 1965 and about one-third have been bought second-hand. Of an estimated 6,100 mechanical type setting machines of all types available, about a quarter have been acquired second-hand by their present owners. All the mechanical and photo typesetters in use in the country have been imported from abroad.

Platens, mostly handfed, represent almost half the total number of printing machines in use and over 90 per cent of all printing machinery are manually operated treadles, platens and cylinder machines. The rest are, in a large measure sheetfed offset machines, mostly single colour. About 40 per cent of the letterpress machines and over 35 per cent of the offset machines in use in the country have been acquired second-hand. More than half the letterpress machines and almost the totality of the existing litho and gravure machines have been imported from abroad. However, excepting highly sophisticated machinery and inputs like films, India is now manufacturing a large variety of printing presses. Letterpress machines, for example, are being manufactured by Hindustan Machine Tools in collaboration with an Italian firm. Similarly, for the manufacture of offset machines, a major importer has entered into collaboration with the German Democratic Republic.

For binding, a large number of paper-cutting and wire-switching machines are used, though the existence of other binding and furnishing machines is very limited. While a little less than a quarter of the machines of the latter category have been purchased second-hand, more than 70 per cent of all binding machines in use have been manufactured in India.

As regards process equipment, the plate, or block making departments of presses which have this facility seem to be well equipped with tools like cameras, contact printers, whirllers, grainers, arc lamps, etc. Though the precision equipment in use is mostly imported, a sizeable proportion of the cameras, enlargers and etching machines are of Indian origin.

d) Future needs

If the present trends are any indication, the need for all types of printing presses is expected to grow at about four per cent annually. Given the socio-economic conditions of the country, the publishing problems peculiar to it and the generally low print-run of its publications, over 90 per cent of this growth is likely to be accounted for by small commercial presses having facility only for letterpress printing and hand-composing.

However, for a country of India's size and needs, the revolutionary developments changing the face of printing technology worldwide have a particular

relevance since the adoption of the latest technology will enable it to meet its requirements of a huge market which, in its structure, differs substantially from that of many industrialized countries. Keeping this requirement in view, the Government of India has liberalized imports to allow appropriate technology to reach the country's needy printing industry. Moreover, taking note of the growing importance of scientific and progressive development of the graphic communications industry, the government has come forward to support the industry by including it in the First Schedule of the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, thus facilitating its access to wider research and also to the procurement of necessary foreign exchange.²

For the progress of the industry, adequate training facilities and up-grading of skills of those working for the industry are essential. In five urban centres in the country - at Allahabad, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras - a 3-year course for a Diploma in Printing Technology or Licentiate in Printing Technology is conducted. Students eligible for the course are those who have passed their higher secondary examination. There is also an active All-India Federation of Master Printers which is a representative body with branches in all the regions of the country. The Federation, since its inception in 1953, has progressed much in its aims and activities to further the cause of the printing industry in the country in all possible directions.

e) Cultural paper

For some time in the past, the acute and consistent shortage of cultural paper (newsprint, printing and writing paper) at a reasonable price has been posing a major obstacle to the growth of the national book industry. Though the production of paper and board in the country rose from 9.38 lakh tons to 13 lakh tons during the last five years, the domestic production of newsprint during this period has remained static at 55,000 tons a year. To meet the requirements of newspapers alone, India currently imports more than 300,000 tons of newsprint. Such a situation has led to the undertaking of a number of new projects such as the Mysore Paper Mills project with a capacity of 75,000 tons per annum and the Kerala Newsprint Project with a capacity of 80,000 per tons per annum.

India's share in the consumption of cultural paper continues to remain woefully below the world average. The per capita consumption of paper in India is less than 2 kilograms as against the Asian average of 3.1 kilograms and the world average of 9.4 kilograms. For any substantial improvement of the situation, it may be necessary to mobilise resources not only at the national level but also at the regional and international levels. Such resources may involve the setting up of sub-regional and regional projects aimed at ameliorating the situation and the financing of research for the production of paper from such raw materials as may be locally available.

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IV. DISTRIBUTION

Distribution has often been described as the weakest link in the book chain almost anywhere in the developing world. In India, the problem is further aggravated by the country's size, its complex linguistic character and the general communication gap it encounters at almost all levels, especially in the vast semi-urban and rural areas.

The customers of books are of two broad types: individuals and institutions. These latter include particularly libraries which, accounting for the purchase of almost 80 per cent of all books published in the country, have remained the mainstay of Indian publishing. To reach these customers, books pass, when published, through several middle stages. They are distributed either by the publisher himself or through wholesalers or retailers or both by wholesalers and retailers. Publishers with their own retail selling points, though not large in number, also exist.

The average print-run of an English title published in India is 1,500; it is less in the case of books written in Indian languages. Since the pricing of a book is related to discounts allowed to middle men for distributing it, the many ways in which the cost of a book may figure have a relevance here. A common pattern followed in deciding the sale price of a book,¹ is the one according to which 20 per cent of the total cost represents production costs while 35 per cent of it represents discounts (to wholesalers, retailers, etc.), 15 per cent royalty, 20 per cent overheads and 10 per cent the net profit of the publisher.

a) Importance of selling through regular channels

There is a general feeling that much of the problems affecting the distribution of books in India can be solved if the importance of selling through regular channels of wholesalers and retailers is properly recognized. It is not uncommon for an Indian publisher to try to sell his books direct to libraries and other customers, ignoring the arrangements he himself may have made with his wholesalers and retailers. The reason for his doing so is that he makes a big saving in discounts, as the normal discount allowed to a wholesaler is around 40 per cent and to a retailer around 25 per cent, whereas the libraries are generally entitled to a discount of 10 per cent on the price of books they purchase. Thus a publisher selling his titles directly to libraries makes a saving of about 30 per cent by way of discount which he would have allowed to his wholesaler had he decided to pass through him. Under ideal situations, publishers would have distributed books only through wholesalers, who in turn would have sold them only to retailers, through whom the books would then have reached their ultimate destination in the form of libraries or other institutions or individual customers.

Among the publishers in India, specially those dealing with books in various Indian languages, there are many who do not go through wholesalers at all for distribution of their books. Some prefer to sell to retailers only and still some others make direct sales to libraries and other customers.

Publishers by-passing wholesalers and selling to retailers direct have their parallels in retailers who, by-passing wholesalers, prefer to buy direct from publishers, as by doing so the rate of discount such retailers get is higher than

what the wholesalers would have allowed them. There is a general feeling that if both the publisher and the wholesaler allow the same discount to the retailer, the unhealthy tendency to by-pass the wholesaler can be checked.

Library orders being essential for the survival of retailers, there is occasionally cut-throat competition among them to secure such orders. Such unhealthy competition is generated by what is known as the 'tender' system under which books are purchased from the retailer offering the highest discount. Even the wholesalers, if they have a chance, join this system and supply direct to libraries, or to individuals, ignoring the retailers. Book-sellers, therefore, are generally critical of the libraries for the following reasons: (1) the system of allowing discount to libraries brings down their profit; (2) timely payment is often not made for books accepted by libraries; and (3) at times, books sent for approval and not purchased are nevertheless used by libraries for long periods before they are returned.²

As to the charge of not making prompt payment, the libraries say in their defence that they do not receive their funds on time, which, however, is largely true of public libraries to whom grants are often made available only towards the end of the year, obliging them to buy books in a rush before such grants lapse. It is, therefore, generally believed that for an over-all improvement of the situation, (1) libraries should purchase their books only from retailers, (2) the current system of library discount should be discontinued, and (3) prompt payments should be made by libraries for books purchased by them.³

What seems essential for any successful sales promotion of books in the country is a well-marked and scrupulously respected interrelationship between publishers, wholesalers and retailers based on mutual interest.

b) Methods used for promotion

The promotional means generally adopted by publishers are, in the order of their importance and use, mailing, advertisement in newspapers and journals, publication or broadcasting or telecasting of book reviews, and visits by sales representatives to possible customers and retail points. Though the need for pre-publication publicity is often felt, it is rarely done. Mailing, the most popular of the promotional means, is undertaken periodically, bringing to the notice of the addressees new titles and reprints. Mailing lists are carefully built up over long periods and frequently revised and updated. Mailing differs from person to person, and from book to book, depending on the subject. Thus, for example, while retailers on the mailing list will be posted with up-to-date information on all new and old titles, a university professor or a librarian will be mailed only such items as may interest him. Larger units often print bulletins or include such publicity material in their house magazines or newsletters which they mail at concessional postal rates allowed for such categories of publications.

In spite of its growing cost, the effective means of advertising in newspapers and journals continues to be used widely. As regards book reviews, the space allotted to them in newspapers and magazines is often so meagre that very few books can be reviewed. However, even getting a book merely listed in a newspaper under the heading 'Books Received' normally helps its publisher to get orders for 20 to 25 copies.⁴ There are a few professional journals of the book industry (for example, The Indian Book Industry, The Indian Publisher and Bookseller, Indian Book Chronicle, etc.) which can be and are often used to publicise new titles. However, in proportion to the need, book-reviewing media are few in number.

Lack of information about new publications adds to the problem of distribution. In India there is as yet no adequate national bibliography serving as a guide to materials in print. National Book Trust, India, periodically prepares and publishes catalogues of newly published books under the title 'Books from India' which is mainly meant for distribution to visitors to exhibitions of Indian books abroad. The organisers of the annual Calcutta Book Fair also bring out, on the occasion of the fair, checklists of new titles published in the region. Such efforts remain sporadic, and need to be consolidated and systematised.

There are also other serious gaps. Bookshops, for example, are few and far between. The existing ones are often undercapitalized and poorly and unimaginatively organized with few return privileges, and consequently, with few books in stock.⁵ Much of the vast semi-urban and rural areas of the country are virtually devoid of any bookshop. Employing sales representatives is an expensive proposition for many publishers. Sale or return, another dependable strategy of book promotion, could have more adherents than it has now. According to a survey made recently, only about 50 per cent of the publishers approached offer this facility to their wholesalers or retailers.⁶ In another sphere, though some concession has been allowed, high postal charges substantially add to book distribution problems.

c) Various selling points

According to a list compiled in 1982 in the All India Directory of Book Trade (Atlantic Publishers and Booksellers, New Delhi), there are about 15,000 booksellers and publishers in the country, over 95 per cent of that number representing booksellers only. At present, the chains of retail bookshops having sales outlets in various parts of the country are very limited in number, the most important among them being the ones operated by Higginbothams in the south and Wheelers in the northern region. There is a need for the establishment of more such chains as also for strengthening the existing ones. Another very important distributor is the UBS (Universal Book Stall), the parent organization of Vikas located in Delhi, representing some 250 publishers from India and abroad and having about 2,000 regular agents handling their publications.

In the public sector, the sales emporia set up and operated by the Publication Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting in a few important cities scattered all over the country, display and sell books published by all public sector agencies. National Book Trust, India, has also opened its own Book Centres in various parts of the country. A particularly heartening example of good distribution is the chain of bookstores operated by the privately-run Writers Co-operative of Kerala.

In a country of India's diversity and problems, unconventional channels of distribution for promoting books can also be explored. Petrol pumps, grocery shops, block development offices, textile retail outlets, etc. have been mentioned as possibilities in this connection.

Book clubs, particularly, can prove to be a profitable experiment in this matter. Among the successful experiments made in India in this direction are the book clubs started in Andhra Pradesh by M. Sheshachalam & Co. mainly with Telugu books; Gharelu Library Yojana operated by Hind Pocket Books mainly in the Hindi speaking region; and the book club which Orient Paperbacks operates, catering to readers in English. But the concept of book clubs need to be developed more fully in India.

d) Postal rates

Postal problems exist, since the book clubs in particular have to depend, for supplying books to their members, almost exclusively on the postal service. There is some concession allowed for postal despatch of books, though that concession is found to be far from adequate by the parties concerned.

For example, according to the regulations (1983) pertaining to registered book post, the postal charges for the despatch of the first 100 grams of article or parts thereof are Rs.2.90 and thereafter a surcharge of 10 paise is added for every additional 50 grams of article or parts thereof. These rates will have to be compared with those of other registered parcels for an understanding of the quantum of concession allowed to books. A registered parcel of articles other than printed books, weighing from 50 to 500 grams, costs Rs.5.75 and thereafter a surcharge of Rs.3 is added for every additional 500 grams of articles or parts thereof. It can thus be seen from a comparison of these rates that whereas a registered parcel of articles other than books weighing up to 1,000 grams costs Rs.8.75, a registered book post for the same weight costs only Rs.4.60.

Considering the importance of postal services as a means of communication in a country of India's size, with almost 77 per cent of its population living in rural areas, the existing postal concessions for the internal despatch of books need to be considerably extended for making the post a major and effective channel for the mass distribution of books.

e) Book fairs and exhibitions

Though selling books is not like selling any other commodity, the wide familiarity of Indian masses with festivals and fairs of all kinds organized in the country throughout the year has contributed to the quick popularity of book fairs, the concept of which seems to have caught on with the public. Apart from bringing individuals to books, book fairs are also occasions for negotiating sales of translation or reprint rights of books. Among all other promotional means, therefore, it has perhaps proved to be the most effective and, as selling point, the most spectacular.

There are also examples of pre-publication sale of books offering attractive discounts, specially in the case of reprints of classics in a few regional languages like Bengali.

What remains certain is that the distribution problems of Indian books are vast and varied. They can never be effectively solved without the establishment of libraries - perhaps one in every Panchayat - throughout the length and breadth of the country and the setting up of an extensive network of bookshops covering every block.

f) Import and export

The question of the circulation of books is also intimately related to their import and export. According to the Unesco publication International Circulation of Books, quoting figures taken from the 1979 United Nations Yearbook of International Trade Statistics, the value of book exports from India in 1977 totalled \$3,541,000 of which \$2,572,000 accounted for books exported to developing countries.⁷ The share of developed nations came to only 26 per cent of this

total export value, of which almost 20 per cent was accounted for by exports to just two countries: The United States of America and the United Kingdom, importing Indian books worth \$372,000 and \$320,000 respectively. Two thirds of these book exports went to other Asian countries including the Middle East and represented a total of \$2,173,000 worth of books. Africa's share was \$390,000, of which Nigeria alone took \$114,000.

Though the quantities sold are always large, the figures of book exports from India nevertheless reveal the beginning of interregional trading by a developing country. Indian books go not only to Nigeria but also to Iraq and the United Arab Emirates.⁸

According to the same statistics and during the same period India imported four times as many books as it exported. Of this total value of imports amounting to \$12,000,000, the United States of America supplied \$5,000,000 and the United Kingdom \$4,530,000.⁹

However, as is the case with most developing countries, the book trade as such represents a very small part of the total Indian budget. Its book exports in 1977, for example, came to only 0.5 per cent of its total exports whereas its book imports represented only 0.05 per cent of its total imports of the same period.¹⁰

Under the Open General Licence of its import policy, the Government of India allows import of educational, scientific and technical books and journals, news magazines and newspapers, and recorders for learning of languages. However, permission of the Ministry of Education is needed in cases involving import of over 1,000 copies of a single title. The Open General Licence also permits recognized institutions to import teaching aids, microfilms and microfiches of educational nature. What is not allowed is import of those foreign editions of books of which editions of Indian reprints are available.¹¹

For importing books not covered by Open General Licence, dealers whose purchase turnover is of the order of Rs.300,000 or more are eligible to apply for import licences on the basis of 10 per cent of their purchase turnover. Recognized schools, colleges and libraries desirous of importing licenceable items are also eligible to apply for import licences up to a value of Rs.25,000 per institution.¹²

Importers are not required to produce import licences before post-parcels of books, magazines and periodicals addressed to them can be released.

Participation in international book fairs is one of the principal ways adopted by India to secure printing jobs from abroad and promote its books thereby arranging the sale of their translation or reprint rights. Some of the other ways adopted for such purposes include organization of special exhibitions of Indian books in particular countries, conducting market studies, ensuring adequate commercial publicity through the publication of annotated catalogues, brochures, etc.

Book fairs in which India participated in 1982-83 alone included those held in Thailand, Leipzig, Singapore, Frankfurt, Ghana, Bahrain, Manila and Cairo. During the same period India also took part in the Third Annual International Exhibition of books on Islam and the Muslim World held in London. In addition, special exhibitions of Indian books were organized in Kenya, Fiji, Nepal and Thailand with the assistance of local Indian Missions. A book exhibition of a very special kind was also organized by National Book Trust, India, as the concluding programme of the Festival of India held in London in 1982.¹³

All these fairs and exhibits facilitate the flow of books across borders. They help the import and export of books. Such efforts resulted, during 1981-82, in the Indian export of books (including periodicals and journals) of a total value of about Rs.100 million.¹⁴ According to export statistics compiled in the April 1983 issue of Home Bulletin of Capexil (Chemicals and Allied Products Export Promotion Council, India), the Indian exports of printed books, excluding newspapers, magazines and periodicals and pertaining to the month of January 1983 alone, totalled Rs.4,220,933.¹⁵

g) Libraries

Not only the repository of a nation's history and culture, libraries, specially in India, have also been the mainstay of the country's publishing activities. As in many other allied fields, the statistics that are available in this field are so scanty that it is not possible to have a definite idea of the number of existing libraries in the country. For example, the Unesco Statistical Yearbook of 1982, quoting figures of 1977, mentions that India has one national library with 1,608,000 volumes and 48,000 metres' length of shelving, and 93 libraries belonging to institutions of higher education and containing a total of 12,536,000 volumes. If these statistics are silent, about the existence of any other libraries pertaining to other categories, the obvious reason must be that the full information on the subject has not been made available to Unesco. An All India Directory of Book Trade, on the other hand, in its first part published in 1980 (Atlantic Publishers and Distributors, New Delhi) lists a total of some 12,250 libraries under the various categories of (a) university and college libraries, (b) government libraries, (c) public libraries, (d) Embassies and High Commissions Libraries, (e) academies, archives, and museums libraries, and (f) libraries belonging to research laboratories, research institutes, and professional societies and institutes. In addition, there must be a number of rural libraries, municipal libraries and those run by voluntary organizations and clubs in every part of the country, which are not mentioned in this volume.

Still a third source, India 1982, a reference manual compiled, edited and published by the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, speaks of the existence of over 60,000 libraries of all descriptions in the country including ten libraries pertaining to institutions declared to be of national importance by Parliament and more than 5,000 libraries of a specialised nature attached to the various departments of the central as well as state governments.¹⁶

Aware of the importance of the subject, the government of India in its overall educational programmes has included the development of the library system as a significant component of the scheme of non-formal education and continuing education. Though the central government exercises its jurisdiction only over such libraries as have been established either by itself or by institutions it has declared to be of national importance, it takes steps to ensure the voluntary co-operation of the state governments in promoting a co-ordinated development of the national and state library system. In addition, it also gives financial assistance to libraries run or sponsored by voluntary organizations throughout the country. The public library movement programme also receives its full financial support. Among the pioneer professional bodies in the field receiving the government's support and encouragement for their programmes are the Raja Rammohun Roy Library Foundation, Indian Library Association, Indian Association of Special Libraries, various information centres run by the Government of India, Libraries Association, etc.

Among the libraries either substantially aided by the central government or under its jurisdiction are the National Library of Calcutta, Central Library of Bombay, Delhi Public Library, Central Reference Library of Calcutta, Indian Council of World Affairs Library, Central Secretariat Library of New Delhi, and the Raja Rammohun Roy Library Foundation of Calcutta.¹⁷

The National Library of Calcutta, a recipient library under the Delivery of Books Act of 1954 having exchange relations with 144 foreign countries, serves as a permanent repository of all reading and information material relating to India and produced in India or abroad, written either by Indians or foreigners in any language of the world. Its rich collection includes rare books in many languages and priceless manuscripts in Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic and Tamil.

Due to the never-ending flow of new acquisitions, it is currently facing an acute shortage of shelf space. A 3-storey building will be constructed in the same compound as an immediate remedial measure. However, as a long term solution, the construction of a second annexe consisting of 16 storeys has been included in its future programmes.

The Central Reference Library of Calcutta, located in the National Library premises, implements the following schemes: (i) compilation, editing, printing and sale of Indian National Bibliography containing entries of such current publications in major Indian languages and in English as have been received in the National Library under the Delivery of Books Act of 1954; (ii) creation of a Book Exchange Unit to serve as National Exchange Centre; and (iii) compilation, editing, printing and sale of Index-Indiana, a quarterly index to articles published in the current periodicals in major Indian languages. The preparation of the Indian National Bibliography is much behind schedule. Its last annual volume contains entries pertaining to the year 1976. Index Indiana, similarly, also needs to be updated, as its last number brought out in cyclostyled form pertains to the period October-December 1977, covering only six languages: Bengali, Hindi, Gujarati, Marathi, Malayalam and Tamil.

The Central Library of Bombay, another recipient library under the Delivery of Books Act of 1954, receives financial assistance both from the central as well as Maharashtra governments. The Delhi Public Library, on the other hand, has grown into a metropolitan public library system consisting of a central library with four branches and 20 sub-branches, a Braille department for the blind, 11 deposit stations and 5 book mobiles serving 52 areas. It has a collection of about 665,000 volumes.

The Indian Council of World Affairs Library of New Delhi, designed to provide research facilities on international and area studies, possesses a very rich collection of books, documents, periodicals and press clippings relating to these fields. It also has an important collection of microfilms and maps.

The Raja Rammohun Roy Library Foundation of Calcutta was established in 1972 with the special purpose of supporting and promoting library services in the country. The assistance it renders pertains broadly to the following schemes: (1) building up of stock of books as well as of reading and visual materials; (2) development of rural book deposit centres and mobile library services; (3) preservation of textual materials including books, journals and manuscripts; (4) organization of book exhibitions, library workshops, seminars, etc.; and (5) storage of books.

Lastly, the Central Secretariat Library of New Delhi is a premier institution of its kind providing research, reference and lending facilities to

government organizations, registered members, general public and scholars alike. It has a very rich collection of over 700,000 volumes in all the major Indian languages as well as in English and stores also all important official documents, gazettes, legislative acts, reports, etc.

In addition to these, there are well equipped libraries pertaining to specific subjects and belonging to various universities, research institutes or laboratories and other institutions of higher learning. However, for promoting the reading habit among the people and ensuring a better system of distribution of books, educational planners need to pay greater attention to library development. The home library scheme and library service to rural areas are among the most immediate needs of the day.

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V. READING

Though the ability to read does not necessarily ensure the formation or development of the reading habit, it goes without saying that illiteracy is the greatest stumbling block to any such formation. Two broad aspects of the problem are: (1) the society's ability to guarantee at least primary education for all children; and (2) the adult illiterates.

a) Importance of the child

Since children are the book consumers of the future, the promotion of the reading habit among young people must play a crucially important role in educational planning. In spite of the promises contained in Article 45 of the Constitution of India to provide free and compulsory education for all children in the 6-14 age-group by 1960, that laudable target remains yet to be achieved. First revised to 1970 and then to 1976, the original target date of 1960 has now again been revised to 1990.¹

It is also a fact that the budgetary allotment for elementary education in the country has not followed a unified pattern through the six Five-Year Plan periods and that its quantum has fluctuated from one plan period to another. Thus, it can be seen that while the outlay on elementary education during the First Plan (1951-56) represented 55 per cent of the total outlay on education during that period, in the Second Plan (1956-61) the corresponding percentage came down to 31.8 before rising again to 36.1 during the Third Plan (1961-66). In the Fourth Plan (1969-74) it was as low as 28.6 per cent although in the two subsequent plan periods a continuing rise in the percentage has been noticed. The outlay on elementary education during the Fifth Plan (1974-78) came to represent 31.9 per cent of the total outlay on education and during the current Sixth Plan period (1980-85) the corresponding percentage has further risen to 35.9 per cent.² The enrolment in the field of elementary education, on the other hand, has increased, through successive Five-Year Plans, from about 22 million to over 100 million.³

To achieve the target of universal elementary education, the various school committees of the country have been asked to take adequate steps to serve the following objectives: (1) as instances of parental apathy towards the education of children, especially girls, still persist, the ways and means for removing such apathy should receive due attention; (2) for physical requirements of the school the contribution of the community as a whole will need to be mobilised; (3) universal enrolment of all children, either in a formal school or in a non-formal educational centre, as well as ensuring their regular attendance; and (4) to ensure proper functioning of the school and teacher attendance, regular checks need to be made.⁴

There is an Indian Reading Association, affiliated to the International Reading Association, which, with its particular concern for streamlining the problems of reading at schools, examines and suggests ways and means to improve and develop the instructional material and strategies as well as evaluation techniques to help the students to become good readers.

b) Illiteracy

The latest census carried out in 1981 puts the literacy rate in the country at a little over 36 per cent. An interesting fact to be noted here is that

through the successive census years from 1901 onwards, the literacy rates in the country have continued to show an upward trend. Due to the steady increase in population, illiterates, in terms of sheer numbers, has also never ceased to grow. Thus, for example, while with a little less than a 30 per cent illiteracy rate, the country, in 1971, counted 156,440,275 literates and 372,145,203 illiterates; in 1981, with the increased literacy rates of a little over 36 per cent, the literates numbered 237,991,932 and the illiterates 419,933,693.⁵

The question of specific sectors of society, especially women, has a particular relevance here. In the overall development programmes undertaken in any given area, particularly in rural areas where family planning and health care projects need special attention, the role of female literacy plays an important part. As the successive census figures show, the rate of female literacy in the country until the 1920s was so much below that of male literacy that the ratio was nearly 1:10 in favour of males. Since then, however, there has been a noticeable improvement in the situation, although as late as 1971 almost 200 literate men could be found for every 100 literate women. In 1981, the year of the most recent census, the position is found to be only slightly better. Of the current total Indian population of about 683 million, nearly half of the male population and almost 75 per cent of the female are illiterate.⁶

The rural-urban distribution of the Indian population is another interesting characteristic of the situation. The 1981 census figures show that nearly as much as 77 per cent of the total population is rural and includes most of the country's adult illiterates. The diffusion of printed material in these areas, which is restricted mostly to textbooks for the use of primary school children, is considered to be less than even 10 per cent of the printed material available in the urban areas. Apart from the low rate of literacy, the obstacles to reading stem from such additional factors as transport problems in rural areas, poor or non-existent roads, insufficient railway networks and other difficulties faced by the potential reader in his search for access to supply sources. It is estimated that about 75 per cent of the Indian villages do not get any newspaper or magazine and that the exposure to printed material there is largely confined to currency notes, cinema posters, soap wrappers, match boxes, and family planning hoardings.⁷

In such circumstances, it is understandable that the adult education programme deserves to be accorded a very high priority. The various agencies through which this programme is implemented include specific departments in state governments and union territories, voluntary agencies, universities and colleges, Nehru Yuvak Kendras, etc. These agencies are currently running nearly 130,000 centres including over 63,000 rural functional literacy programme centres.⁸ The main objective of the programme is to impart literacy and non-formal education to adult illiterates, especially in the productive age group 15-35, among whom abound, in addition to women, scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, agricultural labourers, slum dwellers, drought-prone area residents, etc. No longer confined to traditional literacy in the 'three R's' alone, the aim of the programme is to upgrade the functional skills of the illiterate masses and create social awareness among them.⁹

There is also the awareness that if the literacy programmes undertaken are to be made effective and lasting, they will need to be supported and sustained by an infrastructure capable not only of providing neo-literates with a steady flow of cheap, simple and abundant reading material - without which such neo-literates will soon relapse into illiteracy - but also of maintaining their taste for learning and broadening their mental horizon in such a way that they ultimately come to think of themselves as belonging to a growingly vaster world.¹¹

In this connection mention may be made of a pilot project undertaken by National Book Trust, India, to produce reading material for neo-literates in a few select areas and languages of the country. The project consists mainly of two phases, the first of which lasts about 10 days and concerns an on-the-spot survey of reading habits in a particular block situated in a particular district of a particular state. Based on the findings of the survey, possible topics for booklets to be produced are chosen. The second phase of the project consists of a workshop lasting about a week and organized about a month after the completion of the first phase of the project, in a suitable building at a place inside the same block, during which, with the collaboration of rural writers and artists assembled for the workshop, the preparation of the graphic and textual matter of the proposed booklets is completed. The manuscripts are given a final form and sent to press for printing only after they have been pre-tested before the intended audience.

This project has so far been successfully carried out in chosen rural areas of Gujarat, Orissa and Andhra Pradesh.

c) Education of the handicapped

There are also programmes intended to educate, train and rehabilitate handicapped persons: the blind, the deaf, the orthopaedically handicapped, and the mentally retarded. For the blind, for example, there are 140 schools and training centres in the country, including the National Institute for the Visually Handicapped of Dehra Dun which provides integrated services and manufactures Braille appliances. The National Library for the Blind, forming part of this latter institute, circulates Braille literature in the other parts of the country.¹⁰

d) Enquiries on the reading habit

Surveys of reading habits are undertaken from time to time by organizations like the National Book Trust, India. For production of reading material in rural areas, the NBT, at the instance of Unesco, has also recently prepared a feasibility study on the establishment of rural printing workshops in the country.

Among the surveys recently conducted by the NBT is one conducted during the 1978 World Book Fair in New Delhi on reading and book-buying habits, an analytical study on reading habits in general and on purchasing patterns of children's books. Another survey of what children read or may like to read was conducted during the 1982 Children's Book Festival in New Delhi. A third survey concerning reading habits of college students was conducted during the 1983 National Book Fair at Chandigarh.

e) Promotion campaigns

The book fairs have been found convenient occasions for conducting such surveys, though surveys of reading habits relating to other specified groups and to be conducted in other areas of the country are also in the NBT programme.

The book fairs, themselves have proved to be an important means to generate interest in reading. Apart from organizing an international book fair, which

is the largest in Asia, every alternate year and one national book fair, the NBT, in various parts of the country and throughout the year, organises many other book festivals and exhibitions at various regional and semi-urban levels. The NBT, with its mobile van, even takes its publications to participate in the rural fairs of very different kinds - for example, agricultural fairs, religious fairs - organized by other bodies in remote areas of the country.

There are also important book fairs organized periodically by local associations of publishers in cities like Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

During such book fairs and exhibitions, various seminars, symposia, workshops, etc. relating to individual aspects of book publishing and reading, as well as other programmes like story-telling sessions to children are planned.

An Annual National Book Week has also been recently launched by the NBT to highlight the importance of books and reading.

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VI. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

Though restricted mainly to books in English, a growing percentage of Indian publishing enterprises show signs of professionalism in spheres of editing and production standards as well as in those relating to organizational structure: employment and placement of personnel in specific departments. However, since any book development plan to be successful, must also depend on the development of human resources engaged in the book industry, adequate training facilities for publishing personnel remain an essential requisite. The need is all the more relevant in a country like India in which publishing is often a family profession in which the sons normally succeed their fathers as a matter of hereditary right, without any formal training in techniques of publishing or bookselling.

The question that may be asked here is whether the industry has the potential and material resources to absorb in the near future an increasingly large number of trained personnel and pay them at professional rates.

It is true that however impressive the overall book production figures in India may appear, the talk of its being one of the eight largest book producing countries in the world and ranking third in the matter of annual production of titles in English may sound a little hollow when one considers that in spite of such achievements its per capita publishing figures remain woefully below the world average, that its average print-run per title, even in English, hardly exceeds 2,000 copies as against the international average of 13,000 and so on.

Indeed, such figures do appear discouraging. Nevertheless, it is equally true that if the book needs of a country are going to increase by leaps and bounds in the next two or three decades, far surpassing its past expectations and performances, that country again is India. With the universalisation of primary education, even the demand for textbooks alone will be of a staggering proportion. Books of other kinds, whether professional or literary or providing light or serious reading, will also be in great demand.

a) Present and future needs and the potential

Of the estimated 3,000 or so active publishers in India, the majority are small scale publishers producing from 5 to 12 titles a year. The medium-sized publishers number about 300 and issue between 12 and 50 titles a year. About 100 large publishers bring out 50 or more titles a year.¹ The English language publishing in India, already considerable both in its size and importance, speaks of growing professional accomplishments. With an unlimited scope for advancement and growth, it can, in the years to come, offer opportunities to many more professionals, either on the editorial side or in the departments of production, sales or in publishing management. What is to be specially remembered in this connection is that with the advent of new technology, the demand for professional competence in book publishing is bound to grow. The services of competent book professionals at all levels and in all individual departments of publishing will be required to counteract the thrust from the mass media, including not only the popular magazines but also the cinema and TV.

Apart from publishing in the English language, even the regional language publishing in India, now functioning under severe limitations, has immense scope for growth. There are as many as 12 major languages, all spoken by millions, representing the nucleus of as many as 12 publishing industries.² Given the

necessary support and the due direction, and also the government's current determination to increasingly employ these languages as a media of instruction up to the university level, there is no reason why a bright future for publishing in these languages cannot be envisaged.

Among these languages the strongest, undoubtedly, is the case of Hindi, the declared official language of India and also the country's most important language in terms of the numerical strength of the population speaking it. In the book production figures of the country, its position is already immediately after English. Its progressive use can legitimately lead to a day when, sooner or later, the volume of publishing in it may surpass even the number of titles in English published in the country.

At present there are both external as well as internal obstacles to the growth of the publishing industry in India. While, externally, there are rising costs and the low purchasing power of those needing books, among major internal obstacles are lack of correct understanding of book needs of the country in several desired directions, ignorance of or disregard for professionalism in editorial and production matters, and a highly inadequate distribution system. All these represent challenges that need to be faced to enable the Indian book industry to reach its goals of fulfilment.

b) Training courses

The College of Vocational Studies, affiliated to Delhi University, offers a B.A. Pass course with Book Publishing as one of the subjects, as well as a fuller 2-year post-graduate diploma course in Book Publishing. The latter course, held in the evening to enable persons working in publishing houses to take advantage of it, also offers a choice of specialization in the fields of Editing, Production and Promotion and Sales. For some years in the recent past, the Madras University also ran a B.A. course in Book Publishing but it has now been discontinued.³

A correspondence course in Book and Periodical Publishing is offered by the Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan (Bombay), which, like the B.A. Pass course in Book Publishing offered by the College of Vocational Studies (Delhi), is of a general nature providing the students with only a broad acquaintance with the principal aspects of book publishing.

In addition, quite a few institutions run courses in journalism and other specified fields of mass communication which, though not totally useful for acquiring professional skills in book publishing, impart knowledge and skills in related fields which aspiring book personnel may find particularly valuable.

In this connection the regular training courses as well as various short-term refresher courses offered at the Indian Institute of Mass Communication of New Delhi have some relevance. The Institute's instruction covers a wide area and a number of interrelated subjects like developmental journalism, the print media, audiovisual aids and films, radio and TV, oral communication, traditional media, advertising, campaign planning and communication research. Some of these courses, specially those related to the new areas of communication, help the students to acquire a deep knowledge of the growth of the electronic media of communication on the one hand and, on the other, its impact on the book as it is known today.

For printing and binding as well as other aspects of production, on the contrary, the available training facilities are numerous, ranging from courses offered at vocational schools which may become Industrial Training Institutes (IITs) to diploma courses. Publishers in the public sector like the Publications Division or the National Book Trust, fill vacancies in their Production Sections, with candidates who possess diplomas in printing technology, though in much of the private sector solid experience in the concerned field, and the ability to produce is insisted upon. However, a good academic background in publishing, like a diploma in printing technology, will be an asset to those engaged in the Production units of all publishing houses worth the name, whether in the private sector or in the public sector.

In addition to these, one can take advantage of in-service training facilities, such as seminars and workshops held on special occasions like book fairs, etc., some of them destined for editors, some for booksellers and some again for production personnel. The various federations of publishers, particularly the Federation of Publishers & Booksellers Associations in India, also organize such training courses from time to time, not only for the personnel employed by their members but also for those working in publishing houses of neighbouring countries like Nepal, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka. But as they are often of short duration and organized hurriedly, they fail to achieve anything substantial.

c) The ACCU example

The most important example of regional co-operation in this field is provided by the Asian Cultural Centre for Unesco (Tokyo) which sends its mobile team of experts to select Asian regions to organize on-the-spot training courses on different aspects of the book industry and trade as may be available. The ACCU conducted two such courses in two different cities of India in 1981, New Delhi and Madras, one concentrating on Book Promotion, Marketing and Distribution and the other on Book Publishing⁴. Even a cursory glance at the list of topics chosen for lectures and panel discussions during these training courses will convince one of the comprehensive and effective way in which they are planned. The seminar on Book Promotion, Marketing and Distribution conducted by the ACCU in New Delhi in 1981 had, for example, as its course contents, the following topics grouped under three broad divisions:⁵ (a) Book Promotion: (1) Promoting Books in India, (2) Book Promotion Activities of ACCU, (3) Book Promotion through Book Fairs and Exhibitions, (4) Promoting the Reading Habit, (5) Publicity and Sales Promotion, (6) Export Promotion; (b) Marketing: (1) Marketing and Market Research, (2) Running of Retailer Bookshops, (3) Distribution through Non-conventional Channels, (4) Selling of Specialised Books, (5) Book Clubs and Mail Order selling, (6) Sales to Libraries and Institutions; (c) Distribution: (1) Distribution - the Asian Scene, (2) Distribution - the Indian Scene, (3) Publisher-Wholesaler-Retailer Relationship, (4) Distribution of Indian Language Books, (5) Wholesaling - Role and Functions, (6) Stocking, Sale and Distribution of Government Publications.

Such examples of training courses with the help of a mobile team of experts from a neighbouring country provide an opportunity for collective thinking in the crucial task of taking the books to the masses. That exercise, in this particular case, was undertaken, as all such exercises are required to be, in the content of the Indian socio-economic cultural environment.

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VII. LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

There is enough legal provision in India to protect the interests of authors. Internally, however, whether such provisions are always implemented to the best interests of the authors is another matter. There is a general feeling that a large majority of the authors in the country, including particularly those who write in the various Indian languages, fail to get from their publishers what is due to them materially.

It seems to be an unending debate in which publishers and authors are often seen as contending parties trying to press their own arguments, in defence of themselves. However, weighing both contending views, an impartial observer is quite likely to come to the conclusion that the lot of the authors in India and the way they are generally treated by their publishers need to be improved and their interests better protected. All over the country several organizations have come into being with the avowed purpose of giving moral, material and legal support for the promotion of writing. Particularly notable among such organizations is the Authors Guild of India which keeps its members informed of their rights and interests and offers to help to settle differences or disputes between its members and their publishers by collective bargaining, agreement or other such appropriate measures. It has also prepared a model contract to be signed by the publishers and authors, drafted in a manner which reduces to the minimum the chances of the author's exploitation by his publisher.

In much of the published writings in the various Indian languages, however, even signing an Agreement is not a widespread practice. Though the law is very much present to protect the interests of the authors, few seem to be aware of its existence. Some may also feel reluctant to have recourse to the law to seek justice.

a) Legal deposit and the copyright law

There is also a system of legal deposit for new publications including books and periodicals. The four libraries entitled to receive a copy of every new book and magazine published in the country, under the Delivery of Books and Newspapers (Public Libraries) Act, 1954, are the National Library, Calcutta; Central Library, Bombay; Connemara Public Library, Madras; and Delhi Public Library, Delhi.¹

At the international level, for facilitating a two-way flow of books across borders, India has become a member of two International Conventions on Copyright, which are the Berne Convention (1948) and the Universal Copyright Convention (1952). These Conventions were subsequently revised in Paris in 1971 to include some special concessions to developing countries to enable them to issue compulsory licences under certain conditions for reproduction and/or translation of books of foreign origin in cases where such rights could not be obtained on the existing terms. Such compulsory licences relate mostly to educational material. The Indian Copyright Act, 1957, is being amended to derive suitable benefit from the concessions the Paris meeting of 1971 added to the original text of the Berne Convention and the Universal Copyright Convention. Steps have also been taken to remove from the Indian Copyright Act, 1957, some lacunae observed in the administration of the Act since its inception.²

Since 1958 a Copyright Board with powers of adjudication and a Copyright Office set up under the Act, have also been functioning. The main purpose behind

the setting up of the Copyright Office is to register works in which copyright exists, in order to enable the concerned owners of copyright to have a prima facie evidence of their ownership under the Copyright Act, 1957.³

India is also an active participant in discussions held and decisions taken at many international gatherings convened on the subject of copyright and allied matters. In 1983, for example, at the invitation of the Government of India, the 5th session of the Permanent Committee of the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) was held in New Delhi. On this occasion, the Permanent Committee of WIPO discussed a number of important issues pertaining to WIPO's fellowship programmes and training projects. Some of the other issues discussed related to the strengthening and modernising of national infrastructure for protection of authors' rights, protection of expressions of folklore, establishment of national chambers of copyright in developing countries, etc.

b) National Book Development Council

An inter-disciplinary approach for an integrated growth of the book industry is a need which has been felt in many countries. In a multi-lingual country of India's size, such a need has a very particular relevance. A central agency like a National Book Development Council, competent to fix targets and priorities for providing reading material in accordance with the current needs of the country, can go a long way in solving the pressing problems pertaining to the creation, manufacture and distribution of books.

A National Book Development Board functioned in India from 1967 to 1974. Set up to lay down guidelines for the development of the Indian book industry and trade, the Board, during the seven years of its existence, identified vital areas needing attention and development and made a number of far-reaching recommendations for the overall improvement of the book situation in the country. Among the many notable achievements made possible as a result of the Board's recommendations are a 20 per cent tax concession to publishers of books since 1970-71; introduction of Book Publishing as a course of study in the university curriculum; organization of seminars and short-term training courses for book personnel; reduction in postal rates for despatch of books by registered parcels; introduction of a massive publication programme of university-level textbooks in Indian languages; undertaking of a comprehensive survey of the Indian book industry and trade; reduction in taxation of royalties remitted abroad; supply of printing paper at concessional rates to educational publishers; a liberalised import policy relating to the supply of newsprint to actual users; rationalization of the policy relating to the whole question of book imports; organization of book fairs and exhibitions in the country at national and regional levels; and India's participation in a large number of international book fairs to project the pre-eminent position it enjoys in publishing matters among the countries of the Third World.

Since it ceased to function in 1974 and in spite of the repeatedly felt desire to reconstitute it, the Board was not revived. However, the desirability and urgency of reviving such a central agency has recently been stressed with much vigour and following an announcement made to that effect by the Prime Minister of India at the inauguration of the 5th World Book Fair in New Delhi in 1982, much progress has been made towards the reconstitution of a new National Book Development Council which is expected to begin functioning very shortly. The Council will be a compact body with its membership limited to about 35 members consisting of eminent individuals concerned with the production and promotion of books and selected experts drawn from various segments of the book industry, the

major government departments connected with the book trade and semi-official and voluntary agencies working in the fields. It has also been decided that since the National Book Trust is at present the major public sector agency with aims and functions similar to some of the objectives of the proposed Council, the latter will be administratively serviced by a small unit in the National Book Trust.

With the expected formation of the Council in the very near future, it will be possible to ensure a pragmatic and integrated approach to national book development plans of the country.

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APPENDICES

STATISTICAL TABLES

While presenting here whatever statistical information that could be collected, it is to be recorded that there is a near absence of statistical data in India in quite a few vital fields, including the subject of the present publication. In this connection, libraries may be particularly mentioned as a case in point where information relating only to a few states and one Union territory, almost all of them containing outdated figures, could be collected. Grateful acknowledgement is made here of the help received from S.C. Biswas, Director, Central Secretariat Library, New Delhi; M.N. Nagaraj, Deputy Librarian, National Library, Calcutta; and Abul Hasan, Special Officer (Books), Union Ministry of Education and Culture, New Delhi - L.B.

TABLE 1.1 - STATISTICS OF PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED UNDER THE DELIVERY OF
BOOKS ACT BY LANGUAGE

	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82
Assamese	194	259	142	196	193
Bengali	1104	1039	1025	1046	1025
English	9922	7089	7512	7655	6983
Gujarati	673	979	495	767	677
Hindi	2382	2966	2191	2225	2556
Kannada	888	823	919	500	502
Malayalam	547	819	815	757	913
Marathi	1118	1345	1058	1361	1138
Oriya	245	270	402	445	248
Punjabi	380	273	277	308	325
Sanskrit	129	111	70	43	104
Tamil	1319	1595	900	1135	1315
Telugu	586	414	388	389	392
Urdu	152	401	198	286	388
Other languages	52	201	-	55	39
	19691	18584	16392	17168	16798

Source: National Library, Calcutta

TABLE 1.2 - BOOK PRODUCTION IN INDIA BY LANGUAGE

<u>Language</u>	<u>1973</u>	<u>1975</u>	<u>1977</u>
Assamese	259	95	105
Bengali	1140	943	1031
English	6183	4700	5663
Gujarati	630	565	690
Hindi	1814	1697	1858
Kannada	616	867	888
Malayalam	478	430	417
Marathi	1085	1180	1098
Oriya	113	321	384
Punjabi	138	346	368
Sanskrit	54	52	61
Tamil	1089	675	825
Telugu	327	255	259
Urdu	103	511	92
Other Languages	35	71	34
	<hr/>		
TOTAL	14064	12708	13773
	<hr/>		

Source: National Library, Calcutta

TABLE 1.3 - BOOK-PRODUCTION STATISTICS
TITLES BY LANGUAGE

	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Assamese	108	147	101	80	117
Bengali	1030	858	888	965	834
English	4393	4264	5595	5145	4313
Gujarati	972	490	724	645	726
Hindi	2179	753	1379	1276	1221
Kannada	784	919	751	-	468
Malayalam	345	686	772	552	443
Marathi	1117	1210	1292	1112	1134
Oriya	216	35	442	127	15
Punjabi	222	277	308	325	308
Sanskrit	45	39	20	15	36
Tamil	1083	815	549	787	548
Telugu	303	420	167	355	309
Urdu	93	131	142	155	146
Other languages	42	43	27	23	31
	12932	11087	13157	11562	10649

Source: National Library, Calcutta

TABLE 1.4 - DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLISHED TITLES - 1977, BY SUBJECT

	<u>Books</u>	<u>Pamphlets</u>	<u>Total</u>
Grand total	12081	804	12885
of which:			
Philosophy, psychology	366	4	370
Religion, Theology	886	36	922
Sociology, Statistics	403	18	421
Politics, Economics	1847	20	1867
Law, Public Administration, etc.	523	244	767
Military Art & Sciences	18	-	18
Education, Teaching, Training, Leisure	257	8	265
Trade, Communication, Transport and Tourism	205	10	215
Ethnography, Cultural Anthropology	96	-	96
Mathematics	129	3	132
Natural Sciences	647	6	653
Medical Sciences, Public Health	146	10	156
Engineering, Technology etc.	399	381	780
Agriculture, Forestry, etc.	167	11	178
Managements Administration etc.	53	2	55
Music, Performing Arts, Theatre, Film and Cinema	156	3	159
Language, Linguistics, Philology	221	4	225
Literature	4224	9	4233
Geography	232	7	239
History, Biography	744	4	748

Source: National Library, Calcutta

TABLE 1.5 - BOOK PRODUCTION STATISTICS 1982 - NUMBER OF TITLES BY SUBJECT

Subject Groups	UDC Headings	Total number of titles of first edition and re-edition			Number of titles of first editions only		
		Books	Pamphlets	Total	Books	Pamphlets	Total
1. Generalities	0	263	5	268	249	5	254
2. Philosophy, Psychology	1	322	11	333	301	9	310
3. Religion, Theology	2	737	17	754	714	14	728
4. Sociology, Statistics	30-31	406	5	411	389	5	394
5. Politics, Economics	32-33	1751	58	1809	1693	57	1750
6. Law, Public Administration, Social Relief and Welfares, Insurance	34-351, 354-36	410	68	478	376	68	444
7. Military Art and Science	355-359	8	-	8	7	-	7
8. Education, Teaching, Training, Leisure	37	231	7	238	185	7	192
9. Trade, Communication, Transport, Tourism	38	168	11	179	155	8	163
10. Ethnography, Cultural Anthropology (Customs, Folklore, Tradition)	39	69	2	71	62	2	64
11. Mathematics	51	132	12	144	120	10	130
12. Natural Sciences	52-59	427	10	437	412	8	420
13. Medical Science	61	154	6	160	143	5	148
14. Public Health	-	296	7	303	253	6	259
15. Engineering Technology, Industries, Trade, Crafts Crafts	62-66-69	138	3	141	124	3	127
16. Agriculture, Forestry, Stock-breeding, Hunting, Fisheries	63	35	2	37	29	2	31
17. Domestic Science	64	92	1	93	84	1	85
18. Management Administration & Organisation	65	68	3	71	63	3	66
19. Physical Planning: Town and Country, Planning, Architecture	70-72 73-77	54	-	54	52	-	52
20. Music: Performing Arts, Theatre, Film & Cinema	78-791-792	64	6	70	55	4	59
21. Games and Sprts	793-799	-	-	-	-	-	-
22. Language, Linguistics, Philology	80-81	155	1	156	142	1	143
23. Literature	82	3619	15	3634	3490	10	3500
24. Geography, Travel	91	166	2	168	154	2	156
25. History, Biography	-	626	6	632	583	4	587
TOTAL:		10391	258	10649	9835	234	10069
School textbooks		543	-	543	535	-	535
Children's books		459	-	459	457	-	457

Source: National Library, Calcutta

TABLE 1.6 - IMPORT AND EXPORT OF BOOKS FOR 1971-72

TO 1977-78

Year	Value of imported books and publications excluding those imported through postal parcels	Value of exported books and publications excluding journals and periodicals
	(in Rs million)	(in Rs million)
1971-72	52.49	11.83
1972-73	45.11	12.07
1973-74	61.42	16.35
1974-75	76.85	18.03
1975-76	91.49	21.67
1976-77	71.99	26.39
1977-78	149.11	35.71

Source: Ministry of Education and Culture (as quoted in India: A Statistical Culture, p.134; Oxford & IBH Publishing Co., New Delhi, 1981)

TABLE 1.7 - IMPORT AND EXPORT OF BOOKS AND JOURNALS, 1978-79 TO 1980-81

<u>Year</u>	<u>Value of Imports</u>		<u>Value of Exports</u>	
	<u>Books</u>	<u>Journals</u>	<u>Books</u>	<u>Journals</u>
(Rupees in crores)				
1978-79	13.63	0.43	3.95	1.00
1979-80	14.61	0.34	4.52	0.76
1980-81	11.34	1.02	5.27	0.56

The above figures do not include imports and exports made through post parcels.

Source: Directorate General of Commercial Intelligence, Calcutta

TABLE 2.1 - POPULATION OF INDIA 1901-1981

Year	Population	Decadal Growth Rate		Per cent Progressive Growth rate Over 1901
		Absolute	Percentage	
1901	238,396,327	-	-	-
1911	252,093,390	+ 13,697,063	+ 5.75	+ 5.75
1921	251,321,213	- 772,177	- 0.31	+ 5.42
1931	278,977,238	+ 27,656,025	+ 11.00	+ 17.02
1941	318,660,580	+ 39,083,342	+ 14.22	+ 33.67
1951	361,088,090	+ 42,420,485	+ 13.31	+ 51.47
1961	439,234,771	+ 77,682,873	+ 21.51	+ 84.25
1971	548,159,652	+ 108,924,881	+ 24.80	+ 129.94
1981	683,810,051	+ 135,650,399	+ 24.75	+ 186.84

Source: Census of India, 1981

TABLE 2.2 - SEX RATIO 1901-1981

Census Year	Sex Ratio (Number of females per thousand males)
1901	972
1911	964
1921	955
1931	950
1941	945
1951	946
1961	941
1971	930
1981	935

Source: Census of India 1981

TABLE 2.3 - RURAL-URBAN COMPOSITION OF POPULATION 1981

Population 1981					Urban population as per cent to total population 1981	Decennial Growth Rate 1971-81		
India/State/Union Territory	Total	Rural	Urban	Total		Rural	Urban	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
INDIA*	658,140,676	501,952,169	156,188,507		23.73	+24.43	+18.96	+ 46.02
States								
Andhra Pradesh	53,592,605	41,134,896	12,457,709		23.25	+23.19	+17.19	+ 48.26
Bihar	69,823,154	61,124,141	8,699,013		12.46	+23.90	+20.51	+ 54.40
Gujaret	33,960,905	23,404,474	10,556,431		31.08	+27.21	+21.89	+ 40.82
Haryana	12,850,902	10,029,073	2,821,829		21.96	+28.04	+21.36	+ 59.16
Himachal Pradesh	4,237,569	3,910,407	327,162		7.72	+22.46	+21.50	+ 35.25
Karnataka	37,043,451	26,332,348	10,711,103		28.91	+26.43	+18.74	+ 50.39
Kerala	25,403,217	20,632,288	4,770,929		18.78	+19.00	+15.39	+ 37.63
Madhya Pradesh	52,138,467	41,549,814	10,588,653		20.31	+25.17	+19.16	+ 56.07
Maharashtra	62,715,300	40,748,494	21,966,806		35.03	+24.40	+17.43	+ 39.82
Manipur	1,411,375	1,038,160	373,215		26.44	+31.57	+11.48	+163.77
Meghalaya	1,328,343	1,088,842	239,501		18.03	+31.30	+25.95	+ 62.74
Nagaland	773,281	653,101	120,180		15.54	+49.73	+40.44	+133.84
Orissa	26,272,054	23,166,419	3,105,635		11.82	+19.72	+15.26	+ 68.29
Punjab	16,669,755	12,049,260	4,620,495		27.72	+23.01	+16.59	+ 43.66
Rajasthan	34,108,292	26,967,871	7,140,421		20.93	+32.38	+27.07	+ 57.15
Sikkim	314,999	263,889	51,110		16.23	+50.11	+38.76	+159.86
Tamil Nadu	48,297,456	32,369,504	15,927,952		32.98	+17.23	+12.65	+ 27.78
Tripura	2,047,351	1,822,470	224,881		10.98	+31.55	+30.74	+ 38.51
Uttar Pradesh	110,885,874	90,912,651	19,973,223		18.01	+25.52	+19.70	+ 61.22
West Bengal	54,485,560	40,052,074	14,433,486		26.49	+22.96	+20.11	+ 31.61
Union Territories								
A. & N. Island	188,254	138,622	49,632		26.36	+63.51	+55.90	+ 89.31
Arunachal Pradesh	628,050	588,335	39,715		6.32	+34.34	+30.68	+129.73
Chandigarh	450,061	28,805	421,256		93.60	+74.95	+18.49	+ 80.84
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	103,677	96,763	6,914		6.67	+39.78	+30.46	. .
Delhi	6,196,414	443,876	5,752,538		92.84	+52.41	+ 6.02	+ 57.73
Goa, Daman and Diu	1,082,117	730,882	351,235		32.46	+26.15	+15.83	+ 54.88
Lakshadweep	40,237	21,604	18,633		46.31	+26.49	+32.08	. .
Mizoram	487,774	365,009	122,765		25.17	+46.75	+23.89	+225.13
Pondicherry	604,182	288,097	316,085		52.32	+28.08	+ 5.37	+ 59.41

* Excludes Assam and Jammu & Kashmir

Source: Census of India, 1981

TABLE 2.4 - LITERACY 1901-1981

Year	Persons	Males	Females
1901*	5.35	9.83	0.60
1911*	5.92	10.56	1.05
1921*	7.16	12.21	1.81
1931*	9.50	15.59	2.93
1941*	16.10	24.90	7.30
1951+	16.67	24.95	7.93
1961	24.02	34.44	12.95
1971	29.45	39.45	18.69
1981++	36.17	46.74	24.88

* For undivided India

+ Excludes Jammu & Kashmir

++ Excludes Assam and Jammu & Kashmir

Source: Census of India, 1981

TABLE 2.5 - PROGRESS OF FEMALE LITERACY 1901-1981

Year	Number of literates		Literate males per 100 literate females
	Males	Females	
1901	11,870,758	809,580	1466
1911	13,552,737	1,298,484	1043
1921	15,690,428	2,221,499	1208
1931	22,274,035	3,977,034	560
1941*	-	-	-
1951	46,272,335	13,916,683	332
1961	77,906,038	27,565,962	283
1971	112,012,994	49,423,270	227
1981	158,837,215 ++	79,154,717 ++	201

* Figures not available

++ Excludes Assam and Jammu & Kashmir

Source: Census of India 1981

TABLE 2.6 - LITERACY RATE AND NUMBER OF TITLES BY LANGUAGE 1971

Languages	Total population (thousands)	Literate population (thousands)	Number of titles	Population per title (thousands)	Literate population per title (thousands)	Literacy (percentage)
Hindi	221,832	46,984	1,871	119	25	21
Bengali	44,440	14,687	971	46	15	33
Marathi	50,295	19,645	966	52	20	39
Tamil	41,103	16,191	895	46	18	39
Gujarati	26,661	9,518	710	38	13	36
Telugu	43,395	10,658	663	65	16	25
Malayalam	21,280	12,802	660	32	19	60
Kannada	21,224	9,197	490	60	19	32
Punjabi	13,730	4,656	389	35	11	34
Oriya	21,935	5,729	194	113	30	26
Assamese	14,857	4,270	59	252	72	29

Source: Survey of Indian Book Industry, NCAER, New Delhi 1976

TABLE 4.1 - PRINTING INDUSTRY: GROWTH OF PRINTING ESTABLISHMENTS:

1977 FIGURES

	1977 Estimate	Growth % per year	1982 Projection
Commercial LPHC	37820	3.5	45000
Commercial Other	5336	2.4	6000
Total Commercial	43156	3.5	51000
Newspaper	188	2.3	205
Government	78	2.3	88
All Presses	43422	3.4	51300

Source: Ministry of Industry

TABLE 4.2 - GROWTH OF NUMBER OF PRINTING ESTABLISHMENTS: 1977 FIGURES

Year	Commercial Presses			NP	Govt.	Total All Presses
	CP-LPHC	CP-Others	Total			
1940	3724	525	4249	28	31	4308
1945	4179	810	4989	38	33	5060
1950	7224	1698	9922	69	38	9229
1955	10202	2102	12304	78	43	12425
1960	14646	2868	17514	112	48	17647
1965	19548	3618	23166	141	54	23361
1970	27929	4520	32449	173	64	32686
1975	36659	5112	41771	188	74	42033
1976/ 1977	37820	5336	43156	188	78	43422

Source: Report on Survey of Printing Industry in India, Ministry of Industry

TABLE 4.3 - PRINTING INDUSTRY: CATEGORY OF WORK: 1977 FIGURES

	<u>Nos.</u>	<u>%</u>
Jobbing*	29652	68
Books	5994	14
Packaging	3414	8
Periodicals & Newspapers	2096	5
Publicity & Display Material	1750	4
Others	516	1
Total	43422	100

* Classification is based on the category of work reported as the one contributing the largest portion of the turnover

Source: Ministry of Industry

TABLE 4.4 - PRINTING INDUSTRY: NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 1977 FIGURES

	Number of Employees			Tech.
	in	% of	per	Staff
	000's	Total	Press	%
Commercial Press*	476	89	11	83
Newspaper Press	23	4.5	122	71
Government Press	34	6.5	432	70
Total	533	100.0	12	82

* Government owned presses coming under Textbook Corporations and other autonomous bodies have been considered as Commercial Presses

Source: Ministry of Industry

TABLE 4.5 - PRINTING INDUSTRY: PRINTING FACILITY: 1977 FIGURES

	Commercial	Newspaper	Government	All
Total Number	43156	182	78	43422
Presses with LPHC*	37820	31	15	37866
Mechanical Composing	1861	158	54	2043
Printing Processes other than letterpress	3854	70	36	3990
Plate Block Making	2586	104	15	2705

* Letterpress printing and hand composing facility only

Source: Ministry of Industry

TABLE 5.1 - STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF
LIBRARIES (MANAGEMENT-WISE) IN ANDHRA PRADESH

AS ON 31.03.1981

S.No.	Type of Libraries	No. of Libraries
1.	Government Libraries	8
2.	District Central Libraries	22
3.	City Central Library	1
4.	Branch Libraries	791
5.	Village Libraries	199
6.	Book Deposit Centres	602
7.	<u>Other Public Libraries:</u>	
	i. Panchayat Libraries:	1540
	ii. Private Libraries	708
	iii. Co-operative Libraries	67
	Total	<u>3938</u>

Source: State Administration Report, Department of Public Libraries,
Government of Andhra Pradesh

TABLE 5.2 - LIBRARY SERVICES IN DADRA & NAGAR HAVELI - 1969

Number of Public Libraries	-	2.
Number of books in libraries	-	3000 (approx).

Source: Statistical Outline of Dadra & Nagar Haveli, 1969.

TABLE 5.3 - EXISTING LIBRARIES AND NEWSPAPERS IN GOA, DAMAN AND DIU, 1977-80

Sl. No.	Item	Year		
		1977-78	1978-79	1979-80
1	2	3	4	5
1.	No. of libraries	64	83	152
2.	No. of books:			
	Existing	173091	244879	295725 (P)
	Consulted	407466	412861	405921 (P)
3.	No. of readers	901486	850288	949792 (P)
4.	No. of newspapers and other periodicals in Goa, Daman and Diu	20	26	64
	(a) Konkani	2	5	8
	(b) Marathi	4	6	18
	(c) English	6	6	21
	(d) Portuguese	-	-	2
	(e) Portuguese and English	1	1	1
	(f) Konkani, Portuguese and English	4	3	4
	(g) English and Konkani	-	1	-
	(h) English, Marathi and Konkani	2	1	4
	(i) Marathi and English	-	1	3
	(j) Marathi and Konkani	1	-	-
	(k) English, Hindi, Marathi, and Konkani	-	-	2
	(l) Telugu, Kannada and Marathi	-	-	1

Source: (1) Directorate of Planning, Statistics and Evaluation, Panaji for Sl. No. 2-4

(2) Office of the District Magistrate, Panaji for Sl. No. 5.

Quoted in Statistical Pocket-Book of the Union Territory of Goa, Daman and Diu, 1980

TABLE 5.4 - DISTRICT-WISE NUMBER OF LIBRARIES, MEMBERSHIP AND BOOKS IN KERALA IN 1973-77

Name of Districts	Number of Libraries				Members (in '000)				Number of books (in lakhs)			
	1973	1974	1975	1976	1973	1974	1975	1976	1973	1974	1975	1976
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	74	75	76	77	74	75	76	77	74	75	76	77
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Trivandrum	395	401	413	418	68.2				27.6			
Quilon	552	515	528	530	68.1				23.5			
Alleppey	386	394	398	403	66.5				27.5			
Kottayam	347	352	358	358	66.5				24.7			
Idukki	149	156	159	163	60.1		N.A		8.5		N.A	
Ernakulam	367	373	382	384	70.2				24.8			
Trichur	349	335	338	338	69.1				27.0			
Palghat	212	222	233	236	64.7				20.1			
Malappuram	280	211	216	216	63.1				14.5			
Kozhikode	229	258	266	266	69.0				10.2			
Cannanore	395	435	449	452	67.1				17.4			
STATE	3661	3652	3740	3764	732.6				225.8			

Source: Statistical Handbook of Kerala, 1979, Government of Kerala

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