PUBLIC PROGRAMMING OF PUBLIC ARCHIVES IN THE EAST AND SOUTHERN AFRICA REGIONAL BRANCH OF THE INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL ON ARCHIVES (ESARBICA): TOWARDS AN INCLUSIVE AND INTEGRATED FRAMEWORK

by

NAMPOMBE PEARSON SAUROMBE

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF LITERATURE AND PHILOSOPHY

in the subject of

INFORMATION SCIENCE

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROF P NGULUBE

FEBRUARY 2016
SUMMARY

Public programming initiatives are considered as an integral part of archival operations because they support greater use of archival records. This study investigated public programming practices in the ESARBICA region. The findings of the study were determined after applying methodological triangulation, within a quantitative research context. This included the use of self-administered questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and the analysis of documents and websites. Participants in this study were ESARBICA board members, Directors of the National Archives and archivists from the ESARBICA region. Nine (69.2%) national directors representing different member states completed the questionnaire and eight archivists from the same region were interviewed. Furthermore, three ESARBICA board members were also interviewed. Legislation and country reports from ESARBICA member states were reviewed, together with websites of institutions within the ESARBICA region that offered archival education and training.

Findings of the study indicated that public programming initiatives were not a priority. Reasons for this included lack of public programming policies, budgetary constraints, shortage of staff and lack of transport. Furthermore, the national archives were reluctant to rope in technology to promote their archives. Collaboration efforts with regard to promoting archives were shallow. Moreover, the investigation of user needs was restricted to existing users of the archives. In addition to all this, the archivists felt that they needed to improve their public programming skills.

The study therefore suggests that the national archives of ESARBICA should focus on: legislation, public programming policies, advocacy, users, partnerships and skills. Taking these factors into consideration, an inclusive and integrated public programming framework was developed and proposed as a possible measure for improving public programming efforts in the ESARBICA region.
KEYWORDS
Access to Archives; Advocacy; Archives; Archival Legislation; Archivists Skills; Archives and Social Media; Botswana; ESARBICA; Kenya; Malawi; Mozambique; Namibia; National Archives; Outreach; Public Programming; South Africa; Swaziland; Tanzania; Uganda; Zambia; Zanzibar; Zimbabwe.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor, Prof. Patrick Ngulube, for his skilful guidance, provision of resources, patience and support throughout this research journey. He had faith in me, and encouraged me to venture into the world of archives and records management. I am knowledgeable in this area of expertise because of his mentorship and guidance.

This research project would not have been possible without the support of the ESARBICA Board. I would like to thank them immensely for granting me the permission to conduct this study. I encourage them to continue supporting other researchers in the region.

I would also like to express my gratitude to the Research and Innovation Portfolio at UNISA for awarding me the Academic Qualification Improvement Programme (AQIP) Grant. The provided funds and research leave contributed to the completion of my doctoral study significantly.

A special thanks goes out to my mentor and Chair of Department, Prof. Bosire Onyancha, and my colleagues at the Department of Information Science, University of South Africa for their continuous encouragement and support.

My heartfelt appreciation goes out to Ms Koketso Mokwatlo for her assistance with the fieldwork.

I would not be where I am today without my family. I am indebted to my husband, Prof. Amos Saurombe, and our precious girls, Gianna and Joylyn. They stood by me through the highs and lows of this journey. My parents, Prof. Pearson Mnkeni and Dr Astereda Mnkeni, siblings Amani and Felicia and their families, my mother-in-law, Mrs Gladness...
Saurombe, and our extended family; your prayers and encouragement are what made this research project a reality.

Last, but not least, I am eternally grateful to the Lord Almighty for His providence through this doctoral journey. As it is written in Jeremiah 29:11, “His plan for me is to prosper… and so it has happened.” Glory, honour and praise be unto my Lord for this great manifestation of one of the many blessings in my life.
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my daughters, Gianna and Joylyn.

“We all have dreams. But in order to make dreams come into reality, it takes an awful lot of determination, dedication, self-discipline, and effort.”

Jesse Owens (American track and field athlete ~ 1913-1980)
DECLARATION

Student No: 46262385

I declare that this study, “Public programming of public archives in the East and Southern Africa Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ESARBICA): Towards an inclusive and integrated framework”, is my own work and that all the sources used or cited in this study have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

……………………………………..

22 March 2016

Signature

Nampombe Saurombe

Date
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUMMARY</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KEYWORDS</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATION</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DECLARATION</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>xvi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>xvii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS</td>
<td>xviii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF APPENDICES</td>
<td>xix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER ONE</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0 Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 The rise of public programming</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1 The link between access to the archives and public programming</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Background to the study</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.1 ESARBICA</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.2 Public programming in ESARBICA</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Research problem</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.1 Research purpose</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.2 Research objectives</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.3 Research questions</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Justification of the study</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.5 Originality of the study ........................................................................................................... 19
1.6 Significance of the study ........................................................................................................ 21
1.6.1 Definition of terms ............................................................................................................. 22
1.7 Research methodology and design ...................................................................................... 24
1.7.1 Population ......................................................................................................................... 29
1.7.2 Data collection methods ................................................................................................... 30
1.7.3 Research instruments ....................................................................................................... 31
1.7.4 Data Analysis ................................................................................................................... 32
1.8 Ethical considerations ............................................................................................................ 32
1.9 Scope and limitations of the study ....................................................................................... 34
1.10 Organisation of the thesis ................................................................................................... 35
1.11 Summary of the chapter ....................................................................................................... 35

CHAPTER TWO .......................................................................................................................... 37
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY 37
2.0 Introduction .......................................................................................................................... 37
2.1 The significance of a literature review .................................................................................. 38
2.1.1 Organisation of the literature review ............................................................................... 40
2.2 Theoretical framework of the study ..................................................................................... 43
2.2.1 The records life cycle model and the records continuum model ................................... 46
2.2.2 The link between the theoretical framework and the research problem of the study ... 50
2.3 Public programming in archives .......................................................................................... 55
2.3.1 Public programming as a means of promoting access to the archives ....................... 61
2.3.2 Marketing archives versus promoting access to the archives ....................................... 65
2.3.3 Advocacy ........................................................................................................... 67
2.3.4 A worldwide perspective on public programming .............................................. 69
2.3.5 The ICA’s perspective on public programming ................................................... 72
2.3.6 Public programming in ESARBICA ....................................................................... 74
2.4 Factors that influence the development and implementation of public programming strategies in public archives .................................................................................................................. 76
2.5 The role of legislation in public programming ....................................................... 76
2.5.1 Archival legislation in ESARBICA in relation to accessing public archives ........ 81
2.6 Public programming policies ................................................................................... 82
2.7 Public programming activities in the ESARBICA region ....................................... 85
2.8 User studies and customer focus as an essential part of public programming initiatives ................................................................................................................................. 89
2.8.2 Evaluation of archival services ........................................................................... 95
2.9 The use of technology in promoting access to public archives ................................ 96
2.9.1 The World Wide Web (WWW) ........................................................................... 98
2.9.2 Web 2.0 and public programming ...................................................................... 99
2.9.3 The use of Web 2.0 tools for public programming initiatives within ESARBICA . 104
2.10 Collaboration as an enabling factor in organising public programming activities . 105
2.10.1 Collaboration in public programming ventures in the ESARBICA region .......... 109
2.11 The relevance of archivists’ knowledge and skills in planning and executing public programming activities .................................................................................................................. 110
2.11.1 Different roles played by archivists in the changing information landscape ...... 111
2.11.2 Public programming as part of archival education and training for archivists ... 113
2.11.3 Public programming as part of archival education and training for archivists in the ESARBICA region .......................................................................................................................... 117
2.12 Related studies on public programming ................................................................. 119
2.12.1 Worldwide Studies ....................................................................................... 119
2.12.2 Local studies ................................................................................................. 122
  2.12.2.1 West African studies ............................................................................... 122
  2.12.2.2 East and southern African studies .......................................................... 124
2.13 Synthesis of the literature review ....................................................................... 129
2.14 Summary of the chapter ..................................................................................... 130

CHAPTER THREE ........................................................................................................ 132
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY ......................................................................................... 132
3.0 Introduction .......................................................................................................... 132
3.1 Research paradigms ............................................................................................. 133
  3.1.1 Key social science research paradigms .......................................................... 134
  3.1.2 Selected research paradigm for the study ..................................................... 136
3.2 Research methodology ......................................................................................... 137
  3.2.1 Research methodology selected for the study .............................................. 140
  3.2.2 Research design ............................................................................................ 141
3.3 Population of the study ....................................................................................... 144
3.4. Data collection methods .................................................................................... 147
  3.4.1 Survey research ............................................................................................ 149
  3.4.2 Methodological triangulation ....................................................................... 151
  3.4.3 Research instruments .................................................................................... 153
    3.4.3.1 The questionnaire .................................................................................. 153
      3.4.3.1.1 Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires .............................. 154
      3.4.3.1.2 Questionnaire construction ............................................................. 155
      3.4.3.1.3 Open-ended questions .................................................................. 156
      3.4.3.1.4 Close-ended questions .................................................................. 157
      3.4.3.1.5 Questionnaire layout ..................................................................... 158
      3.4.3.2 Interview guides ................................................................................ 160
3.4.3.3 Content analysis .................................................................................................................. 162
3.4.4 Data collection procedures .................................................................................................... 165
3.5 Validity and reliability ................................................................................................................ 166
3.6 Data analysis .............................................................................................................................. 169
3.6.1 Quantitative data analysis ..................................................................................................... 170
3.6.2 Qualitative data analysis ........................................................................................................ 172
3.7 Ethical considerations ................................................................................................................ 173
3.8 Evaluation of the research methodology .................................................................................... 175
3.9 Summary of the chapter ............................................................................................................ 177

CHAPTER FOUR ............................................................................................................................. 178

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA ................................................................................. 178

4.0 Introduction .............................................................................................................................. 178
4.1 Data presentation ......................................................................................................................... 179
4.2 Response rate and background of participants .......................................................................... 180
4.3 Institutional and participants' profiles ........................................................................................ 183
4.3.1 Institutional profiles .............................................................................................................. 183
   4.3.1.1 National archives mission statements .......................................................................... 183
   4.3.1.2 Staff working in the national archives ........................................................................... 185
   4.3.1.3 Number of staff in the different archival capacities ..................................................... 185
4.3.2 Archivists profiles ................................................................................................................. 186
4.3.3 ESARBICA Board Members ................................................................................................. 186
4.4 Public programming in the ESARBICA region .......................................................................... 186
4.4.1 Existence and frequency of public programming projects in the ESARBICA region .......... 187
   4.4.1.1 Archivists’ response on the existence of public programming programmes in the ESARBICA region .............................................................................................................. 188
   4.4.1.2 Public programming initiatives as reported in the country reports .............................. 189
4.4.2 Budgetary support for public programming projects ........................................ 191
4.4.3 Raising awareness about the national archives ............................................. 191
   4.4.3.1 Linking public archives with the people’s needs .................................... 197
4.4.4 Factors that influence public awareness of National Archives ....................... 199
4.4.5 Obstacles faced when conducting public programming projects ..................... 201
4.5 Role of legislation and policy in rendering public programming strategies in the ESARBICA region .................................................................................................................. 203
   4.5.1 Archival legislation in ESARBICA in relation to promoting access to public archives ................................................................................................................................. 203
   4.5.2 National archival legislation and policies that govern public programming in the ESARBICA region .................................................................................................................. 206
      4.5.2.2 Support from governing authorities ......................................................... 209
4.6 Archivists’ knowledge and skills about public programming in the ESARBICA region ................................................................................................................................. 210
   4.6.1 Archivists’ knowledge and skills about public programming ....................... 211
      4.6.1.1 Knowledge or skill gaps with regard to public programming .................... 212
      4.6.1.2 Education on public programming in the ESARBICA region .................... 215
      4.6.1.3 Public programming training in the ESARBICA region ......................... 216
4.7 The role of user studies and customer focus in public programming initiatives ..... 219
   4.7.1 User studies and customer satisfaction in the ESARBICA region ............... 220
      4.7.1.1 User needs .............................................................................................. 220
      4.7.1.2 Customer satisfaction ............................................................................... 223
      4.7.1.3 Identification of new users ...................................................................... 224
      4.7.1.4 Duration of open hours .......................................................................... 226
      4.7.1.6 Attracting potential users ...................................................................... 228
4.8 Collaboration as a means to further public programming in the ESARBICA region ................................................................................................................................. 229
4.9 The use of social media to raise awareness about the archives ......................... 232
4.10 Summary of the chapter .................................................................................. 235
CHAPTER FIVE .............................................................................................................. 238

INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS ........................................ 238

5.0 Introduction ........................................................................................................... 238

5.1 The National Archives of ESARBICA .................................................................. 242

5.1.1 Institutional and archivist profiles .................................................................. 242

5.2 Public programming in the ESARBICA region .................................................... 244

5.2.1 Frequency of public programming activities .................................................. 245

5.2.2 Budgets for public programming plans .......................................................... 246

5.2.3 Raising an awareness of the national archives ................................................. 248

5.2.3.1 Use of premises for public services ......................................................... 250

5.2.3.2 Promotional material .............................................................................. 251

5.2.3.3 Linking public archives with the people’s needs ..................................... 253

5.2.4 Factors that influenced public awareness of national archives ....................... 255

5.2.4.1 Skills and human resources ..................................................................... 255

5.2.4.2 Public image of the national archives ..................................................... 256

5.2.4.3 Financial means and development .......................................................... 257

5.2.4.4 Fees and services ................................................................................... 257

5.2.4.5 Obstacles faced when conducting public programming initiatives .......... 258

5.3 The role of legislation and policy in rendering public programming initiatives in the
ESARBICA region ...................................................................................................... 260

5.3.1 Archival legislation in relation to promoting access to public archives in the
ESARBICA region ................................................................................................. 260

5.3.2 Policies that govern public programming in the ESARBICA region ............... 264

5.3.2.2 Support from administering authorities ................................................... 265

5.4 Archivists’ knowledge and skills about public programming in the ESARBICA region
....................................................................................................................................... 266

5.4.1 Archivists’ knowledge and skills about public programming ......................... 267

5.4.1.1 Knowledge or skill gaps with regard to public programming .................... 268

5.4.1.2 Education on public programming in the ESARBICA region .................... 272

5.4.1.3 Customised public programming training in the ESARBICA region .......... 276
5.5 The role of user studies and customer satisfaction in public programming initiatives
........................................................................................................................................278

5.5.1 User studies and customer satisfaction in the ESARBICA region ............... 279
  5.5.1.1 User needs.............................................................................................................. 279
  5.5.1.2 Customer satisfaction..................................................................................................... 282
  5.5.1.3 Providing feedback to users of the archives............................................................. 283
  5.5.1.4 Duration of open hours............................................................................................. 284
  5.5.1.5 Identification of new users......................................................................................... 286
  5.5.1.6 Attracting potential users....................................................................................... 287

5.6 Collaboration as a means to further public programming in the ESARBICA region
........................................................................................................................................288

5.6.1 Barriers to collaboration ........................................................................................... 291

5.6.2 Collaboration continuum............................................................................................ 292

5.7 The use of social media to raise awareness about the archives ......................... 295

5.7.1 The use of social media in the ESARBICA national archives ......................... 295

5.7.2 Social media: Is this the answer to extending the reach of archival institutions in
the ESARBICA region? .......................................................................................................... 297

5.8 Summary of the chapter .............................................................................................. 302

CHAPTER SIX .................................................................................................................. 307

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ........ 307

6.0 Introduction .................................................................................................................. 307

6.1 Summary of the study’s findings ............................................................................... 308

6.1.1 Public programming activities in the ESARBICA region ........................................ 309

6.1.2 Legislation and policy ................................................................................................. 310

6.1.3 Archivist’s skills and knowledge about public programming .................................. 311

6.1.4 User studies and the focus on customer satisfaction ............................................... 312

6.2 Conclusions regarding the research objectives ....................................................... 312
6.2.1 Public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region .................................................. 313
6.2.2 Archival legislation and policy with regard to public programming ...................... 313
6.2.3 Public programming training and education ................................................................. 314
6.2.4 Investigation of user needs ......................................................................................... 314
6.2.5 Collaboration in promoting cultural heritage .............................................................. 314
6.2.6 The use of technology in increasing the awareness of the national archives .... 315
6.3 Conclusion on the research problem .............................................................................. 315
6.4 Recommendations ........................................................................................................... 317
6.5 Proposed integrated and inclusive framework for public programming in the ESARBICA region ........................................................................................................ 322
6.5.1 Proposed framework ..................................................................................................... 323
6.5.2 Justification for the framework ..................................................................................... 324
6.5.3 Explanation of the framework ....................................................................................... 328
6.6 Implications for theory, policy and methodology ........................................................... 334
6.7 Further research ............................................................................................................... 336
6.8 Final conclusion ............................................................................................................... 340

REFERENCES .......................................................................................................................... 342

APPENDICES .......................................................................................................................... 366
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Literature Review Map ................................................................. 43

Figure 2.2: The continuum approach to managing records through the life cycle (Roper and Millar 1999a:22) ........................................................................................................ 49

Figure 3.1: Research design for the study (Adapted from Cecez-Kecmanovic and Kennan (2013:133)) .................................................................................................................. 143

Figure 4.1: Frequency of public programming activities ........................................ 188

Figure 4.2: Means used to conduct public programmes ......................................... 192

Figure 4.3: Use of premises for public services ................................................... 193

Figure 4.4: Format of promotional information .................................................. 194

Figure 4.5: Format of promotional information .................................................. 195

Figure 4.6: Obstacles faced when conducting public programmes ...................... 202

Figure 4.7: National Archives Wish list .............................................................. 210

Figure 4.8: Best methods to equip archivists with public programming skills ........ 217

Figure 4.9: Institutions that offer training in public programming to the National Archives of ESARBICA .................................................................................................................. 218

Figure 4.10: Methods used to determine user needs .......................................... 221

Figure 4.11: Methods used to determine customer satisfaction ......................... 224

Figure 4.12: Duration of open hours .................................................................. 226

Figure 4.13: Collaborators in public programming initiatives ............................ 229

Figure 4.14: Collaboration programmes ............................................................. 231

Figure 4.15: Advantages of using social media .................................................. 233

Figure 6.1: Proposed public programming framework for the ESARBICA region .... 327
LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Common Web 2.0 tools as described by SAA (2009) .......................... 101
Table 2.2: The four paradigms of the archival changing environment ................. 112
Table 3.1: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches .................... 139
Table 3.2: Advantages and disadvantages of qualitative and quantitative research methods (Miller & Brewer 2003: 327) ................................................................. 152
Table 4.1: Summary of the composition of the participants ................................... 182
Table 4.2: No. of staff in different archival positions at the national archives ....... 185
Table 4.3: Different factors that influenced the public’s awareness of the national archives ........................................................................................................... 200
Table 4.4: ESARBICA member states archival legislation with reference to access and promoting access to their public archives ................................................. 204
Table 4.5: Areas and levels of training required to improve public programming projects in the national archives ................................................................. 213
## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACA</td>
<td>Association of Canadian Archivists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACARM</td>
<td>Association of Commonwealth Archivists and Records Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASA</td>
<td>Australian Society of Archivists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESARBICA</td>
<td>East and Southern Africa Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOI</td>
<td>Freedom of Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICA</td>
<td>International Council on Archives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICTs</td>
<td>Information Communication Technologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFLA</td>
<td>International Federation of Library Associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNADS</td>
<td>Kenya National Archives and Documentation Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NARSSA</td>
<td>National Archives and Records Service of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAZ</td>
<td>National Archives of Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSS</td>
<td>Really Simple Syndication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAA</td>
<td>Society of American Archivists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWW</td>
<td>World Wide Web</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNISA</td>
<td>University of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XML</td>
<td>Extensible Mark-up Language</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Table of objectives ....................................................... 366

Appendix 2: Self-administered questionnaire ........................................ 370

Appendix 3: Archivist interview guide .................................................. 382

Appendix 4: ESARBICA Board members interview guide ........................ 384

Appendix 5: Pre-test questionnaire ......................................................... 385
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

Public programming is a function that is of importance to archival institutions across the world because it encourages more people and organisations to access archival records and make use of the information for various reasons such as decision making or knowing their cultural heritage. Harris (1993:105) explains that public programming is a “group of activities whereby archival institutions secure both responsiveness to user needs and public participation in all their functions ...arguably the clearest manifestation of archivists having embraced the notion that use is indeed the goal of all their endeavours.” Though use of the archives resources is described by Harris (1993) as the main goal of archivists, Bance (2012: ii) asserts that public programming activities such as marketing, advocacy and outreach that encourage and promote the use of archives have not always been a priority.

1.1 The rise of public programming

The pivotal role of public programming became more prominent in the 1980s in the West (Bance 2012; Blais and Enns 1991; Craig 1991; Dearstyne 1987; Grabowski 1992), while Groenewald (n.d.), Harris (1993) and Ngulube (1999) seem to indicate that public programming became a contentious matter in east and southern Africa in the 1990s. There is no doubt that archives play an important role in society as they enable people and organisations to connect their present with the past and decide upon what should happen in the future (Groenewald n.d:3). Likewise, Bance (2012) contends that archives
are valuable and that archivists worldwide understand the importance of preserving records for the future; however they have not always been successful at persuading society to accept this fact.

Archives are described as objects in any form that record information which is preserved for the future as a memory aid (Van Garderen 2007). These resources serve as records of the past or as evidence of history. These materials therefore promote accountability, foster justice and preserve societal memory. What makes societal memory important? Societal memory fulfils an integral role in our present and future as Menne-Haritz (2001:57) explains:

Memory is a social, not a technical phenomenon. Memory is needed, when activities are about to be undertaken...it uses all sorts of resources that are available and that can tell its history. Archives do not store memory, but they offer the possibility to create memory. Their function is that of amnesia prevention. The main service that archives offer is access to the raw material for memory in a way that helps us to understand present problems and prepare us for the future.

Archives therefore have an important role in society’s current and future actions; however, if not accessed and used by the organisation or society they were created for, they will not fulfil this mandate. It is for such reasons that public programming is identified as a means of promoting access and communicating the value of archives to society. Dearstyne (1987:76), a member of the Society of American Archivists, challenges
archivists to determine ‘what are the use of archives?’ After evaluating efforts of this particular society to educate the public of America on the importance of archives to society for a decade, he noted then that American archivists had not entirely succeeded in their mission of encouraging more public use of the archives.

The same question can be posed today; do archives have an important role in society? Harris (2007:173) reminds us again that ‘archives hold the memory of the nation’. However, do we as a society consider archives as important gateways to information? Public archives do have an important role in society because the resources kept and preserved feed into social memory. The period that we find ourselves in is increasingly harnessing the power of information and knowledge in key areas of personal, government, civil and business development. Furthermore, the development of information communication technologies has enabled people to have access to vast volumes of information.

More information is now available in a variety of locations, but the challenge that remains for many is how and where to locate the information they need. In the midst of challenges such as information overload or information explosion, public archives should feature as institutions of choice where one can find credible information to address different needs. Archivists should also take advantage of recent developments such as social media to reach out to users and potential users of the archives (Crymble 2010; Lacher-Feldman 2011).
Conducting research on public programming requires determining the exact archival function in the archives administration it is related to. Archives administration is described as “the professional management of an archival institution through the application of archival principles” (Roper and Millar 1999a:107). These authors state that public programming and outreach are reference-related projects of an archival institution. Reference and access are important administration functions within archives, as they facilitate the use of the important records held in these institutions.

Trace and Ovalle (2012:78) explain that access refers to “terms and conditions of availability of records maintained or held by an archive while reference services is an umbrella term given to facilities and services afforded to researchers and users of the archives and its records once access to them has been approved.” Therefore public programming is a service which forms part of the access and reference function in archives administration.

1.1.1 The link between access to the archives and public programming

Ceeney (2008:58) states that, ‘the most common role for archives internationally is a combination of record keeping and access’. However, for some reason access has been limited to a few researchers and historians with genealogists being labelled as the most favoured clientele. Blais and Enns (1991) argue the necessity to spread out to individuals beyond these specialised groups; this can only happen if archives increase their visibility and accessibility in the societies they serve.
The notion of educating the public about the importance of archives became a debatable issue among archivists in North America during the 1980s and 1990s (Blais and Enns 1991; Cook 1991; Craig 1991; Ericson 1991; Dearstyn 1987; Grabowski 1992). Since then more and more archivists have been encouraged to improve public programming (Bradley 2005). For a long time, the main focus of archivists had been acquisition, appraisal, arrangement and description of resources, while marketing of the preserved resources was not considered a priority (Blais and Enns 1991; Cox 1993; Ericson 1991). Dearstyn (1987), Grabowski (1992), Cook (1991), and Bradley (2005), mention the following as reasons that could have led to the neglect of promoting archives:

- Lack of interest from potential users who are not cognisant of the importance of archival institutions;
- Lack of knowledge on users and use and matching them to relevant services;
- Archivists being more 'material centred' rather than 'client centred';
- Lack of funding;
- The exclusion of public programming or outreach initiatives in strategic plans of the institution;
- Non-existent outreach or public programming and lobbying skills that are required to lead such initiatives;
- The exclusion of archival institutions and their resources in information literacy training at foundation, intermediary, and tertiary levels of education;
- Archivists lacking the enthusiasm required to embark on outreach or public programming initiatives;
- No cooperation between archives and other cultural institutions; and
Invisible archives – lack of websites or other online platforms for archival institutions, as well as archival institutions not taking advantage of information communication technologies to promote archives

Mason (2011) points out the necessity for archives to develop programmes and services that will increase the use of the resources. Information is worthless if it is not accessible and used; in view of this it is becoming more apparent that public archives need to market their services. Cook (1991) explains that this requires a change in mind-set and relevant skills that will enable archivists to study their clientele and devise means of reaching out to them. The Universal Declaration on Archives of 2010 that most archival institutions adhere to emphasizes that one of the vital roles of archivists is to make archival resources available for use. Therefore archivists, especially those in public archives, are compelled to make their archival resources accessible. This can be achieved through public programming and outreach initiatives.

Access to the archives, particularly public archives, is crucial as the resources within these institutions are preserved and held in reserve to inform the public. These records serve as evidence to the public on matters relating to their history, governance, civic engagement, the development of society and other related societal issues. Referring to the Principles of Access developed in 2012 by the committee on best practices and the standards working group on access, the matter of access to the archives has become a priority for the current information or knowledge society. The first three principles state that:
1. The public has a right of access to archives of public bodies. Both public and private entities should open their archives to the greatest extent possible.

2. Institutions holding archives make known the existence of closed materials and disclose the existence of restrictions that affect access to the archives.

3. Institutions holding archives adopt a proactive approach to access.

This committee accentuates the fact that promoting access is to the advantage of the public and the archival institution. The public will benefit from the provision of information while the archival institution will prove its important role in society as ‘the keeper of the records’. This has become a critical factor for public entities in the face of financial turmoil in the global economy, the reasons being that in certain spheres of public service budget cuts have become a norm to sustain other government or public services. Therefore, in the wake of financial turmoil, archives need to justify their importance to society, and this most probably will lead authorities to provide more of the necessary resources required to support public archival institutions (ICA Principles of Access, 2012).

Murambiwa and Ngulube (2011) argue that access is very important, and it is for this reason that they recommend the development of a tool or index that can evaluate access at archival institutions and therefore enable them to improve their services. In view of this public programming and outreach, plans can be incorporated into these amendments and assure the public and organisations of a competent service. Consequently, the connection between access and public programming or outreach is inevitable. Promoting
access in this regard subsequently points out to the need for more public programming and outreach initiatives.

1.2 Background to the study
Public programming is described as a function performed by archivists to create awareness of the archives. Gregor (2001: i) elaborates that it enables archivists to ‘promote the use of archives and educate their sponsors and users on how to use them’. Finch (1994: v) describes that using archives is not an easy task for the actual and potential user; therefore she asserts that use must be intentionally and actively encouraged. The interest of this particular study lies in the public archives of east and southern Africa. Public archives in this region are affiliated to the East and Southern Africa Regional Branch of the International Council of Archives (ESARBICA).

1.2.1 ESARBICA
ESARBICA stands for the East and Southern Africa Regional Branch of the International Council of Archives. The twelve active member states of ESARBICA are: Kenya, South Africa, Mozambique, Angola, Malawi, Namibia, Swaziland, Botswana, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Tanzania and Zanzibar (ESARBICA 2011). Garaba (2010) narrates that this organisation originated in Kenya in 1969, and it serves as the regional branch of the International Council on Archives (ICA). Sibanda (2011:43) further explains that the objectives of ESARBICA are:

- To advance archives through regional cooperation;
- Provide a forum for the exchange of professional ideals and expertise;
• Carry out the aims and objectives of the ICA; and
• Facilitate continuing education through professional attachments, study visits, seminars and workshops.

1.2.2 Public programming in ESARBICA
Ngulube (1999:19) points out that the public archives in the ESARBICA region offer a range of products and services to the citizens of the ESARBICA member states; however, ‘their level of utilisation is low’. Due to this fact, Ngulube (1999) as well as Blais and Enns (1991) stress the importance of marketing archival services and products to the people. Moreover, Ngulube (1999:24) also reiterates the necessity to understand and develop relevant marketing strategies that will promote access to public archives in ESARBICA, for without this promotion these institutions will be deemed worthless. This could affect the support of public archives in terms of funding and use.

Archives exist for the people; as a result archivists must strive to make known what is available and facilitate access to these resources. Likewise Finch (1994: v) explains that the people will only use archives when they understand that ‘archives exist to be used for reasons that affect their lives, property, civic well-being and political influence’. Challenges that have hindered access to archives in society today have been identified in the literature (Dearstyne 1987; Grabowski 1992; Jimerson 1989; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003). A few of these reasons vary from lack of recognition of the archives by governing authorities to inadequate resources, poor organisation, lack of training and low level of awareness.
Ngulube (1999:19) argues that challenges such as low level of awareness and lack of recognition by authorities can be dealt with by marketing the archival services to the people. This could lead to increased use and thus provide the evidence to justify their existence and seek more funding. Therefore public programming as a tool for communication can serve as a solution to some of these challenges as well.

Despite the fact that public programming became prominent in the past 30-40 years, it would seem that not a lot of empirical research has been done on the topic, especially in east and southern Africa. Ngulube (1999) made known that marketing of archives was not a priority in ESARBICA, and later studies by Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011) in South Africa, Kamatula (2011) in Tanzania and Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila (2012) in Zambia still confirm that outreach and public programming initiatives are inefficient and ineffective in these particular countries.

Ngulube and Tafor (2006) in their study on the management of public records and archives in ESARBICA noted that most member states complained of a decline in visits from clientele; considering this bleak situation only two member states had official public programming plans. Though these studies do offer various recommendations on how to deal with this problem, none of them has gone to the extent of developing a framework that could actually guide public programming initiatives. Furthermore, these studies are limited to specific countries; a collective study of all ESARBICA members would provide an overall picture regarding public programming strategies. This pointed to a gap in the literature, which was how to ‘intentionally and actively encourage’ the public to use public
archives, especially from a collective African perspective. Therefore this study focused on public programming of archives in the ESARBICA region. It is hoped that the framework developed as a result of this investigation can guide public programming activities in this region.

1.3 Research problem

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:27) explain that the research problem is the heart of the research process so it is very important to describe the problem precisely, as the goals and objectives of the study are derived from this point. Moreover, Hernon and Schwartz (2007) state that the problem statement of any research project should communicate the study’s importance, benefits and justification.

In accordance with this study, public programming and outreach are regarded as important tools for communicating archives to the citizens and organisations within ESARBICA. Nonetheless, these tools are not fully utilised by public archives of the ESARBICA region to make people aware of their products and services to the people they serve (Kamatula 2011; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012; Sulej 2014). The citizens of eastern and southern Africa may perhaps not utilise services and resources that they are not aware of. An account by Murambiwa and Ngulube (2011:95) on trends of visitors to archival reading rooms in South Africa, Botswana, Malawi, Swaziland and Zimbabwe between 1998 and 2001 paints a fluctuating
picture. Substantial public programming projects could contribute towards a stable growth path with regards to access.

The current information and knowledge economy places high value on information; therefore it is necessary to promote archives as an institution of choice where people, governments, business and other organisations can get information. Little is known about how public archives of the ESARBICA region carry out public programming activities (Kamatula 2011; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012). This study assessed legislation, policies, skills of archivists, investigation of use, collaboration efforts and the use of technology with regard to public programming, resulting in the development of a framework for public programming activities in the ESARBICA region. Though there have been studies on public programming in some ESARBICA member states, the available literature does not mention any proposed public programming framework for the region.

1.3.1 Research purpose

Dusick (2011) asserts that the research purpose statement demonstrates why a particular research is being done. Most importantly is the fact that this purpose is developed from the research problem. For that reason if a research project lacks a clear understanding of the problem, it will also fail to develop a logical research purpose.
Neuman (2011:37-40) explains that there are three main types of purposes for research. These purposes could be exploratory, descriptive or explanatory. The research purposes are described as follows:

**Exploratory** - research whose primary purpose is to examine a little understood issue or phenomenon and develop preliminary ideas about it and move toward refined research questions.

**Descriptive** - research in which the primary purpose is to “paint a picture” using words or numbers and to present a profile, a classification of types, or an outline of steps to answer questions such as who, when, where and how.

**Explanatory** - research, whose primary purpose is to explain why events occur and to build, elaborate, extend or test theory.

Understanding the purpose of research in this instance enables one to determine appropriate research methods for the research project. Consequently the end product is a solution or recommendations on how to deal with the research problem. In this instance, the nature of the purpose for this study was descriptive.

The purpose of this study was to describe public programming activities in the public archives in the ESARBICA region. A triangulation of methods was applied to complete this study. These research methods were quantitative and qualitative. The survey method
was the main approach, and it was applied in conjunction with face to face interviews and content analysis.

1.3.2 Research objectives

This study assessed how the public archives in the ESARBICA region communicate their archives to the citizens of their respective countries and encourage use of these public archives. To achieve this, the following objectives were decided upon so as to provide a relevant response on public programming activities in ESARBICA:

1. Assess existing public programming activities in the ESARBICA region;

2. Establish the availability of legislation, i.e. National Archives Acts, that guide public programming activities in the public archives of the ESARBICA region;

3. Identify if there were policies in place that govern public programming activities in the different public archives of the member states of ESARBICA;

4. To find out whether archivists had the relevant skills and knowledge that were required to carry out public programming activities;

5. Assess the role of user studies and customer satisfaction in public programming initiatives;

6. Determine whether the public archives of the ESARBICA region collaborated with other institutions or organisations to promote and facilitate access to their resources; and
7. Explore whether the national archives of the ESARBICA region made use of emerging technologies such as social media to increase the awareness of the existence of public archives.

1.3.3 Research questions

The research questions arising from the above objectives are as follows:

1. Have there been any public programming activities implemented in the public archives of ESARBICA? When and how were these programmes implemented?

2. Does archival legislation from ESARBICA member states instruct national archives to promote or market their holdings?

3. Are there any policies in place that govern public programming activities in the different public archives of the member states of ESARBICA?

   If the archives has a policy in place, does it encompass the theoretical elements such as: ‘image’, ‘awareness’, ‘education’ and ‘use’ as described by Blais and Enns (1991)?

4. Do the archivists of ESARBICA member countries have the knowledge and skills to carry out effective and efficient public programming activities? What training is available for archivists in the ESARBICA region on public programming, marketing of archives or outreach? Are archivists in the ESARBICA region aware of available training?
5. Do the national archives of the ESARBICA member states conduct user studies? How do the national archives of the ESARBICA region conduct user studies? What do the national archives of ESARBICA region do with the results of such user studies? Are these results used in any way to inform public programming initiatives?

6. Do the national archives of ESARBICA collaborate with other institutions to market and promote use of the archival holdings? If yes, which institutions do they collaborate with? If no, why not?

7. Are archivists in the ESARBICA region familiar with emerging technologies such as social media? Which social media tools are used in the national archives of the ESARBICA region? For what purposes are these social media tools used for? Are the social media used for outreach programmes? What are the advantages and disadvantages of using social media to market archives in the ESARBICA region? In cases where no emerging technologies are used, why not?

The relationship between the research objectives, research questions, research methods and the population involved are outlined in Appendix 1.
1.4 Justification of the study

Once a research problem has been identified and the purpose for the research has been established, the next step is to convince the research community on the importance of tackling this particular research problem. Fisher and Foreit (2002:13) set out a series of questions that can help researchers in proving the justification of their research projects. Though the authors write from a health professional’s perspective, the questions seem suitable for social sciences too. The questions are listed below:

- Is the problem you wish to study a current and timely one? Does the problem exist now?
- How widespread is the problem? Are many areas and many people affected by the problem?
- Who else is concerned about the problem? Are top government officials concerned? Are other professionals concerned?
- Does the problem relate to broad social, economic and other issues such as unemployment, income distribution, poverty, the status of women, or education?

This study outlines the fact that archives are considered an important link between the past, the present and the future. In view of this, Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at (2003) and Menne-Haritz (2001) in consensus contend that the focus of archives is shifting from storage to access. Cox (1993) explains that this movement became more prominent in
the early 1980s and it continues to expand. Ceeney (2008:61) on the same note argues that “the core role of an archive today, is around enabling access”.

Blais and Enns (1991) and Craig (1991) describe public programming as an important function that can communicate the value of the archives to the public and encourage them to make use of their services. Grabowski (1992) claims that public programming does not just influence the public but funders as well. This implies that advocacy is another important aspect of public programming. Effective public programming ventures are reliant upon careful strategic planning (Ericson 1991).

Blais and Enns (1991) and Cox (1993) have identified certain theoretical elements that should be a part of any public programme. Most of this literature is based on experiences in Canada, the United States of America and the United Kingdom. Presumably what works for such countries will not be viable in Africa or specifically east and southern Africa, due to their different socio-economic contexts. Bradley (2006), Ericson (1991) and Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at (2003) therefore emphasize the need to develop public programming activities that meet the information needs of the different societies that the archives serve in their context. Likewise Ngulube and Tafor (2006) argue the necessity of including a user studies component in the planning of public programming projects or outreach initiatives.
There has been some budding interest in public programming in some member states of ESARBICA, for instance Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011), Kamatula (2011) and Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila (2012) conducted studies in South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia respectively pointing out the need for better public programming activities in their countries. According to these studies, matters that required urgent attention included inadequate funding, lack of training programmes, lack of proper strategies, the use of ICTs and social networking, the evaluation of current public programming practises and taking advantage of the media.

Some of these challenges were common across the three countries. This therefore justified the investigation into public programming activities in east and southern Africa (Kamatula 2011; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999), and it is against this background that this study was conducted. This study has generated more awareness on public programming activities among archivists of the ESARBICA region and perhaps Africa at large. Moreover, the developed framework may probably lead to the increased use of public archives.

1.5 Originality of the study
Research originality is a core aspect of postgraduate research. This can be described as original contribution to scholarship or simply something no one else has done (Cryer 2000). Guetzkow, and Lamont (2004) contend that this definition does not cover all aspects of originality in social science research. They acknowledge the role of originality in knowledge building, but explain that it goes beyond the research itself and reflects the
researcher’s authenticity throughout the research process. Their findings indicate that originality can occur in diverse forms in a social context. Investigating understudied areas was identified as a means of developing original research that could be of significance to a particular discipline.

Until now research on public programming of archives has mostly been done in developed countries in the Northern Hemisphere (Cook 1991; Cox 1993; Craig 1991; Dearstyne 1987; Ericson 1991; Evans 2007; Finch 1994; Grabowski 1992). This aspect of research remains largely unexplored in Africa and particularly east and southern Africa. Moreover, the need to investigate the marketing or public programming of archives has been suggested in previous research (Kamatula 2011; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012).

Areas of interest included:

- How to plan comprehensive and inclusive public programming projects.

- Identifying staff training needs and availability of training programmes.

- How to evaluate public programming projects that are in place to determine their effectiveness.

- How to use ICTs, the media and social networks to promote public archives.

This study therefore extends previous research on public programming activities in the ESARBICA region. It is hoped that the developed framework will make a significant contribution to public programming activities in the ESARBICA region. Most likely, it will also inspire others to do further research regarding outreach and public programming on the continent of Africa.
1.6 Significance of the study

The significance of the study shows the contribution of the study to a particular field of knowledge. Identifying who will benefit from the study and how they will benefit is the key point. This can be done by highlighting how a study can: address gaps in a particular field of knowledge, develop better research strategies in a field of knowledge, influence policy or change the way people do things (Smith 1998).

This study is of significance in the field of records and archives management as it extends the knowledge base that currently exists in the area of public programming. The concept of public programming in east and southern Africa has not been widely investigated (Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999). Therefore, this study explored current practises, identified obstacles and developed a framework for public programming activities in east and southern Africa. This study is significant for:

- The national archives of member countries of ESARBICA; as custodians of the social memory of their nations, they would like to see these preserved collections used by more of the people they are kept for. The provision of a framework could accelerate this process.

- National archives of other countries who share the same socio-economic characteristics of east and southern Africa; results from this study may be used as a framework in these countries.

- Archival literature; the findings of this study could shed light on public programming practises from an east and southern Africa perspective.
• Academics, researchers and archival students; the findings of this study could trigger further interest on the topic, and encourage further research on public programming practises to encourage greater use of the archives.

• The findings of this study could influence policy or legislation relating to access to the public archives in the ESARBICA region.

### 1.6.1 Definition of terms

The inclusion of definitions of key terms in a research study is an important aspect of the research as it makes the concept or concepts explored within the study more comprehensible. Moreover, it eliminates ambiguity as certain terms can vary in meaning due to the different contexts they can be applied to. Therefore key terms in this study are defined as follows:

**Archives**

Records, usually but not necessarily non-current records of enduring value selected for permanent preservation. Archives will normally be preserved in an archival repository (Roper and Millar 1999a:5).

**Archival institution**

An agency responsible for selecting, acquiring, preserving and making available archives. Also known as an archival agency or archives. To avoid confusion, the term ‘archives’ is used to refer to an institution only in formal titles such as records and archives institutions or National Archives (Roper and Millar 1999a:7).
Public archives

A storehouse of national history, containing documents from both public and private spheres. The main mission of such an archive is to acquire and organise records of national historical significance and make them available to society (Blais and Enns 1991).

National archives

A national archive refers to a national organisation with the authority to take care of archives of a state (ICA 2004). The national archives that form part of this study serve as such national organisations for the member states of ESARBICA.

Public programming

Public programming initiatives are planned sequences of community outreach programmes and promotional activities which inform the wider community about archival holdings and services and involve its members directly in the documentary heritage (Koopman 2002:7).

Outreach

This includes public programming projects, educational programmes and public relations. Outreach activities can take the form of lectures, seminars, workshops, exhibits, displays, tours and film shows. Other forms of outreach are publications and newsletters. Websites provide outreach on the internet (Koopman 2002:7).
1.7. Research methodology and design

Creswell (2009) explains that there are three major research approaches: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. It is important to understand what each approach entails in order to select the best approach for a study. These approaches are described as follows:

**Qualitative research**: is a means of exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to social or human problems. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, data building from particulars to general themes.

**Quantitative research**: a means of testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables in turn can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures.

**Mixed methods research**: this is an approach to inquiry that combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative forms. It involves philosophical assumptions, the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches and mixing both approaches in a study, so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research (Creswell 2009:4).

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:184) describe the quantitative approach as descriptive and the qualitative approach as exploratory. The research questions set out by this study,
required the use of both approaches. This provided an overall picture with regard to public programming initiatives within the ESARBICA region.

A research design serves as a road map for the research project. It outlines the type of study being planned and how the desired outcomes will be achieved. The research design is guided by the research problem and the research questions.

Public archives of the ESARBICA region are the essence of this study. The study focused on public programming activities in this region and resulted in the development of a framework that may guide these activities throughout the region. To achieve this, a triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative procedures was utilised. Other researchers such as Bance (2012), Bradley (2005) and Kamatula (2011) have used a triangulation approach to conduct investigations into public programming. The same triangulation approach was utilised by Garaba (2010) and Ngulube and Tafor (2006) in their studies regarding archives in the ESARBICA region.

Jack and Raturi (2006:345) describe triangulation as a combination of several research methodologies to study the same phenomenon. Neuman (2011:164) elaborates that triangulation in social research offers one the opportunity to view one phenomenon from multiple perspectives. This approach improved the accuracy of the research findings. Guion, Diehl and McDonald (2011) explain that the advantages of using triangulation include: “increasing confidence in research data, creating innovative ways of
understanding a phenomenon, revealing unique findings, challenging or integrating theories, and providing a clearer understanding of the problem”. These authors caution other researchers to avoid thinking that triangulation is used only to prove consistency within the data, rather, even if inconsistencies emerge, let them be noted as providing an in depth description of the phenomenon studied.

There are different types of triangulation approaches; Guion, Diehl and McDonald (2011:1-3), Jack and Raturi (2006) as well as Neuman (2011) describe five types:

Data triangulation - the use of different sources of information in order to increase the validity of the study.

Investigator triangulation - this involves using several different investigators in the analysis process.

Theory triangulation - this requires the use of multiple theoretical perspectives to plan a study or interpret the data.

Methodological triangulation - mixes the qualitative and quantitative research approaches and data.

Environmental triangulation - this involves the use of different locations, settings, and other key factors related to the environment in which the study took place, such as time, day or season.
The methodological triangulation approach was utilised to complete this study. Neuman (2011) relates that mixing these approaches can take place sequentially, in parallel or simultaneously. The quantitative and qualitative approaches adopted for this study were used simultaneously to obtain data that would address the identified research problem. Creswell (2006) claims that though triangulation has its advantages it also has its disadvantages. These vary from lack of expertise to handle the different data collection methods and interpretations, and obtaining results that are not consistent. Guion, Diehl and McDonald (2011) disagree with Creswell (2006) on the last point as they state that it is such data that makes research intriguing and encourages further research.

This study was both descriptive and explanatory; and for that reason the methodological triangulation approach provided sufficient data that was required to respond to the set research questions for this study.

The researcher made use of quantitative and qualitative methods as described by Neuman (2011). A survey and two interview schedules were developed. Thereafter, the questionnaire was distributed to Directors of the National Archives, while archivists and ESARBICA board members participated in face to face interviews. These actions took place at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference in 2013, 3-6 June 2013. This was done with permission from the ESARBICA board.
Neuman (1994:254) explains that the survey approach can be used for purposes of exploration, description and explanation. Therefore, this approach was used to describe the state of public programming activities in the public archives of ESARBICA. The questions were based on the objectives of the study. The analysed data provided answers for the research questions set for the study.

The second phase involved face to face interviews with archivists and ESARBICA board members attending the XXII ESARBICA Biennial conference. ESARBICA invites selected archivists to attend key workshops for a period of two days as a means of improving these individuals’ expertise.

The face to face interviews offered participants the opportunity to share their understanding of public programming, describe existing programmes, challenges and views on how the region can improve such initiatives. As for the survey, the questions in these sessions were also based on the objectives of the study; Chapter Three of this thesis provides more details on the research methodology applied in this study.

Document or content analysis was another form of data collection that was employed for this study. This involved analysing archival legislation, mission statements of the national archives, archival curricula from different institutions, and country reports from ESARBICA member states. Bryman (1984:78) claims that qualitative approaches are much more ‘fluid and flexible’ than quantitative research because it emphasizes discovering new or unanticipated findings. The face to face interviews and content
analysis provided clarity on the emerging concepts from the quantitative data. The qualitative and quantitative data combined provided comprehensive details that were useful in the development of the framework for public programming activities for the ESARBICA region.

1.7.1 Population
The units of analysis for this study were the national archives of the ESARBICA region. All the national archives in the ESARBICA region were approached and requested to take part. The Directors of the National Archives of these institutions were requested to complete the survey. There are 12 consistent member states that form part of ESARBICA; these are Lesotho, Tanzania and Zanzibar, Kenya, Mozambique, South Africa, Botswana, Namibia, Angola, Swaziland, Zambia, Malawi and Zimbabwe (Ngulube and Tafor 2006).

Due to the loyalty of these nations and participation in ESARBICA activities, the researcher purposively selected the national archives of these countries to take part in this study. Furthermore, the number of these archival institutions was considered as a manageable number. This fact also supported the reasoning behind the inclusion of all the 12 national archives in the study. This type of sampling is identified as the census approach (Daniels 2012; Garaba 2010).

Archival legislation, websites of national archives and archival education institutions, and country reports that referred to public programming activities were analysed too.

The researcher involved archivists who attended the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference in face to face interviews. At a previous conference attended by the
researcher in Maputo, Mozambique (XXI ESARBICA Biennial Conference, 6-10 June 2011), it was noted that each member country sent two or three archivists to take part in the pre-conference training programme. This group provided a pool of participants with the right expertise and background to address the research questions.

The researcher had the privilege of interviewing ESARBICA board members as well. It was felt that the experience of these leaders made a valuable contribution towards the development of the public programming framework.

1.7.2 Data collection methods

The use of the methodological triangulation design led to the collection of different types of data in this study. Researchers such as Garaba (2010) and Ngulube and Tafor (2006) used similar approaches in previous studies.

Quantitative and qualitative methods were utilised to address the above objectives. This included a survey, face to face interviews and content analysis. As indicated earlier, the data was collected using these methods at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference.

The survey included closed and open ended questions. This approach enabled the participants to offer a description of the public programming activities that took place in their respective countries. Directors of the National Archives completed the survey.
Archivists and ESARBICA board members took part in face to face interviews with the researcher. The interview schedule was based upon the objectives set out by the study. Websites of the national archives and institutions of learning (archival), archival legislation and country reports were analysed. This was done to determine whether public programming of archives forms a part of the management or administration of archives in ESARBICA.

The information obtained using the different methods provided detailed information on public programming initiatives in ESARBICA, leading to the development of a public programming framework for the ESARBICA region.

1.7.3 Research instruments

Biddix (2009) explains that a research instrument is a generic term that researchers use for a measurement devise, for example, surveys, interview schedules, observation schedules and others. It is advisable to establish whether the answers to the research questions in a study can be addressed with the use of a single or multiple research instruments.

Due to the nature of the research objectives for this study, a self-administered survey or questionnaire and two interview schedules were developed.
1.7.4 Data Analysis

The quantitative data obtained from the survey was analysed with the aid of the Microsoft Excel Software. Frequencies and percentages of the survey items were presented in bar charts, pie charts and tables.

Archival legislation, websites of national archives and education institutions, and country reports were analysed carefully providing answers to the research questions. The qualitative analysis involved thematic analysis of the content from the face to face interviews. Leedy and Ormrod (2010) explain that qualitative data, such as the information obtained through interviews, is analysed by constructing interpretive narratives from this information. Similarly, Thorne (2000) argues about the importance of not just grouping the information, but also of deriving a variety of meanings, attitudes, and interpretations found within each category or theme identified.

1.8 Ethical considerations

Resnik (2010) describes ethics as a method, procedure, or perspective for deciding how to act and for analysing complex problems and issues. He further contends that different professions, disciplines and institutions have a set of ethical norms that they agree upon and provide guidelines for research activities. This makes researchers accountable to the public. These ethical norms are to “support knowledge, truth and avoidance of error”. Moreover adherences to ethical norms help to build public support for research.

The University of South Africa (UNISA 2007) has a code of ethics with regard to research. As a student of UNISA, the researcher’s planned research was in accordance with the
UNISA Research Ethics Policy. This policy provided clear guidelines with regard to how to deal with research activities. For instance, it outlines the importance of integrity, transparency and accountability. To uphold this, the researcher strived to remain unbiased and refrained from fabricating the results obtained from this study. The policy also reiterates the importance of getting informed consent in writing from the participants. For this reason, the researcher sought permission from ESARBICA to conduct this study. The letter requesting consent clearly stated the benefits and risks of doing the study as stipulated in the policy.

This study involved collecting data in different stages, matters of anonymity and confidentiality applied differently in the different stages. For instance, though the Directors of the National Archives questionnaires were easily identifiable, these details were reported anonymously in the findings. The researcher made sure that the participants were informed that the data gathered would be treated as confidential and used for research purposes only.

The second phase involved face to face interviews. Though permission was provided by the ESARBICA board to conduct the study, the interviewees were given the choice to participate or not. The participants were informed that the information obtained would also be treated as confidential and used for research purposes only. The audio files generated from the interviews and the completed questionnaires will be kept under lock and key for a period of five years.
This study aimed at developing a framework that can guide public programming activities in the ESARBICA region; it would, therefore, be unethical to keep these findings from the participants of the study. For that reason, these findings were shared in the form of conference papers at the ESARBICA conference as well as the publication of journal articles.

1.9 Scope and limitations of the study
This study focused on the national archives of the member states of ESARBICA. The national archives were purposively selected because they keep resources that are of value to citizens of each country. The main focus of the study were the national archival institutions of each country. These institutions are designated by their governments to oversee the management and administration of public archives in their respective countries. These institutions were thus able to provide credible information for the purpose of this study.

The study covered a wide geographical area consisting of east and southern Africa; it was not possible to travel to each country. However, since archivists in the region met at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial conference it was easier to collect data at this event. The assumption was that the Directors of the National Archives and the other archivists attending the conference had the necessary knowledge to participate in the study.

The focus of this study was on how public archives work on increasing societal engagement with archival holdings; however, users of the archives were not included as
participants. This was due to limiting factors such as travelling logistics and the high costs involved if users from the 12 east and southern Africa countries were to be included as participants. Previous studies that have involved users were done on a much smaller scale, that is, provincial or country wide and not region wide (Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012).

1.10 Organisation of the thesis

- Chapter One introduces the study together with the inclusion of a background to the study, the research problem, objectives, research questions and a brief overview of the research methods used to attain the outcome of this study.
- Chapter Two consists of the review of literature on public programming and the theoretical framework for this study, the contents of this chapter adhered to literature related to the objectives of this study.
- Chapter Three dwells on the research methodology that guided this study, including details on the research design and research methods.
- Chapter Four presents the findings of the study.
- Chapter Five discusses the findings of the study as described in chapter four.
- Chapter Six discusses the public programming framework as the main outcome of this study and together with the recommendations and conclusion to the study.

1.11 Summary of the chapter

The focus of this study was to identify and highlight means of enhancing or introducing public programming activities that could help promote access and use of the archives by
society. This chapter, therefore, outlined the importance of archives and the necessity to communicate them to society. It provided a brief overview of public programming initiatives in ESARBICA and the need to improve such activities in the region so as to directly or indirectly facilitate increased access and use of public archives. Consequently, the research problem explained the necessity to investigate public programming activities in the ESARBICA region and why a public programming framework could be the solution to encouraging more use of public archives. The significance, justification and originality of the study have been argued here to provide sound reasoning on the need to pursue this research project. Every research project needs a detailed plan, so the objectives, research questions and a brief overview of the research method have been included and described in this chapter to indicate how the project unfolded.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

2.0 Introduction

This literature review explores the dominant theme of this study which is facilitating access to records through the provision of public programming activities. As a way of introduction, the significance of a literature review in research is included in this chapter. Furthermore the theoretical framework that guided the study is presented within this chapter as well.

In striving to contextualise this study a background on access to archival records and public programming is provided. The scope of this literature review is guided by the objectives for this study, which focus on the status quo of public programming strategies in the ESARBICA region, the link between legislation and policies and facilitating access, archivists skills and archival education with regard to public programming, collaboration as an enabling factor in facilitating access to the archives and the utilisation of Web 2.0 tools to promote access to the archives.
The examined literature was not limited to available information emanating from the ESARBICA region and the field of archives and records management. As a result different experiences and research findings were presented that later on proved that this study has the potential to make a significant contribution to the topic of public programming in public archives.

2.1 The significance of a literature review

Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (1996:110) describe a literature review as “a critical summary of the range of existing materials dealing with knowledge and understanding in a given field…its purpose is to locate the research project, to form its context or background, and to provide insights into previous work”. Furthermore the Sage Dictionary of Social Research Methods (2006) points out the fact that there is a vast amount of information available in different formats; it is therefore the researcher’s responsibility to be selective and provide specific information for the research project. The purpose of conducting a literature review is to:

- Clarify and conceptualise the research question, pointing out gaps in the existing literature;
- Improve the methodology, which is done by observing how other investigators have studied the same topic; and
- Widen the researcher’s knowledge in the chosen area.

(Sage Dictionary of Social Research Methods 2006:2)
Leedy and Ormrod (2010:51) describe the literature review process as a way to “look again at what other researchers have done on your topic of choice”. They outline the following as benefits of conducting a literature review:

- To ascertain whether other researchers have already addressed and answered the proposed research problem.
- Offer new ideas, perspectives and approaches that may have not occurred to you.
- Inform about other individuals who conduct work in this area.
- To show how others have handled methodological and design issues in similar studies.
- To reveal sources of data you may not have known existed.
- Introduction to measurement tools that other researchers have developed and used effectively.
- To reveal methods of dealing with difficulties similar to those faced in tackling similar research.

In short, the literature review provides the researcher with the opportunity to locate his or her work within the work of other researchers. Hofstee (2006) explains that this will not just be of significance to the researcher, but also fellow researchers as it will enable them to understand the context and direction of the particular study. To achieve this it is crucial to consult a variety of sources within a field of knowledge, which in this instance is public programming and access to archival resources. The following range of sources was consulted to complete this literature review:

- Printed Journals: for example *ESARBICA Journal.*
Online Gateways and Databases: for example EbscoHost, Emerald and others.

Books in the context of archives, public programming, marketing public services, social marketing and social research methods.

Government and other regulatory body publications: for example archival legislation, ICA and ESARBICA policies and documentation.

Reference texts: for example *The Sage Dictionary of Social Research Methods* and others.

The information included in this chapter of the thesis provides an overview of the concepts that affect public programming initiatives or practices in ESARBICA and other regions as described in available literature. This was done with the hope of contributing to a better understanding of public programming and this practice in the ESARBICA region.

2.1.1 Organisation of the literature review

Public programming is not a new concept (Blais and Enns 1991); however, such activities are carried out differently. This provides a sound reason for focusing on the experiences of ESARBICA. The objectives of this study outlined in Chapter One guided the structure of the literature review with the inclusion of a theoretical framework that the study is based on.

The task of compiling a literature review for a research topic involves reading and synthesizing information from numerous sources (Leedy and Ormrod 2010). The challenge at hand therefore became how to structure the literature review in such a way
that it does not come across as a disorderly collection of ideas on a research topic but rather a streamlined narration of what is known and what is not known regarding the research topic. To avoid cluttering ideas Creswell (2009) advises researchers to make use of concept maps to develop a literature review map. Creswell (2009:33) suggests that this will help to “organise the literature and help others to understand the contribution of the current study”. Adam (2012) argues that concept maps can:

…facilitate the organisation and extraction of key information from very many sources with a view to assimilate the material in a structured manner. The objectives are to determine the main concepts underpinning the study, to establish how they are interlinked and to enhance this understanding with further detail on those areas of particular interest.

Likewise Alias and Suradi (2008:2) explain that students make use of concept maps to develop research reviews because the maps help them to “extract and summarise the important points from articles, to synthesize and organise information”. Concept maps are graphic tools that help people to comprehend concepts easily (Daly and Torre 2010). Daly and Torre (2010:441) therefore suggest that when developing concept maps, the identified concepts should be organised by starting from the ‘most general’ to the ‘more specific’, showing how each concept is linked from the beginning till a conclusion is reached.

In view of the above suggestions, a literature review map was developed for this study. The main aim was to outline how the objectives of the study as portrayed in Chapter One

41
are linked to the theoretical framework that underpins this particular study. Though public programming is not a new concept (Blais and Enns 1991), it is not always implemented in the same way in different contexts. Therefore the literature review starts off from a general perspective on public programming and ending with a more contextualised perspective on the ESARBICA experience and the various factors that influence public programming projects. These factors are clearly outlined in the map, with the intention of justifying why undertaking a study on the ESARBICA public programming experience was important. The literature review map for this chapter is portrayed in Figure 2.1.
This section explains the theoretical foundation for this study. Theories form the basis for any research endeavour. Makoe (2014) portrays theories as concepts that are well defined. Consequently theories as part of the theoretical framework give the researcher an opportunity to link these defined concepts to the identified research problem and research questions that will eventually guide the research process. Before explaining the

Figure 2.1: Literature review map

2.2 Theoretical framework of the study

This section explains the theoretical foundation for this study. Theories form the basis for any research endeavour. Makoe (2014) portrays theories as concepts that are well defined. Consequently theories as part of the theoretical framework give the researcher an opportunity to link these defined concepts to the identified research problem and research questions that will eventually guide the research process. Before explaining the
theories or models that have informed this study it is imperative to understand the concept of models, as models feature in this literature review. Kemoni (2008:106) describes models this way:

Models can be used to explain theories…A model is a simplified representation of a real situation, including the main features of the real situation it represented…The goal of the scientist is to create simple models that have a great deal of explanatory power… theories play a key role in scientific research, reasons being that they fulfil the following purposes: description, explanation, prediction, and control.

The University of Southern California (2013) further explains that:

Theories are formulated to explain, predict and understand phenomena and in many cases to challenge and extend existing knowledge within the limits of certain assumptions….the theoretical framework is the structure that can hold or support a theory of a research study. The theoretical framework introduces and describes the theory which explains why the research problem under study exists.

Nalzaro (2012:17) describes a theoretical framework as a “vision to which the problem is directed”. This can be understood as a way we think of different phenomena in the world. In trying to prove whether these assumptions are valid or not, researchers have the opportunity to engage with these ideas, experiment with them, discuss and debate. Ngulube, Mathipa and Gumbo (2015:47) further explain that “a theory is chosen for its ability and elegance to explain social phenomenon”. These researchers point out that a theory/ies which form a theoretical framework should address the following questions:
• Where is the research coming from?

• How valid is a theory’s proposition in the problem being investigated or which theory is more robust than the other in explaining the phenomenon under investigation?

• How can the theory’s propositions be utilised in the design and conduct of a study?

Kemoni (2008:105) further clarifies that a sound theoretical framework enables researchers to:

…generate new knowledge and new hypotheses about behaviour, which could be confirmed or contested through research, and research could reveal weaknesses in a theory and force researchers to modify or develop a new and more comprehensive theory.

Since this study is based on public programming, which in turn promotes access to and use of archival material, theories regarding the management of records and archives were consulted. Kemoni (2008:106) acknowledges that there are various models or theories that have been developed by national archival institutions, archive schools, international professional records and archives management organisations as well as records and archives scholars.
As in other fields of knowledge there are models that have been developed to describe phenomena within the field of archives and records management (Kemoni 2008). This study focused on two such models. The next section provides an overview of the records life cycle model and records continuum model and their relevance to this study.

### 2.2.1 The records life cycle model and the records continuum model

Chachage and Ngulube (2006) narrate that of all the theories in archives and records management, the records life cycle model and the records continuum model are the most dominant. The records life cycle model developed by Schellenberg in the 1950s set the groundwork for other theories in records and archives management. Schellenberg's 'lifecycle concept' describes the life span of a record that involves its creation, capture, storage, use and disposal (Kemoni 2008; Shepherd and Yeo 2003).

Kemoni (2008:108) explains that "perceived weaknesses of the records life cycle led to the development of the records continuum model". These weaknesses included the failure of the cycle to integrate the work of archivists and record managers in all stages of the cycle and its lack of direction on how to handle electronic records (Chachage and Ngulube 2006; Kemoni 2008).

Ian Maclean and Jay Atherton are noted in the literature as the first scholars that pointed out the weaknesses of the records life cycle model (Flynn 2001). Atherton (1985:47) argued against the split between records management and archives administration
phases, in addition to pointing out that the records life cycle model did not support cooperation and coordination between record managers and archivists. In view of these debates scholars such as Atherton and others modified the records life cycle model which led to the conception of the records continuum model (Flynn 2001). Shepherd and Yeo (2003:10) argue that the records continuum provided a more holistic way of dealing with management of records and archives. According to Flynn (2001:80) the records continuum model has four stages, described as follows:

1. Creation or receipt
2. Classification
3. Establishment of retention or disposal schedules and their subsequent implementation.
4. Maintenance and use

These stages are connected, forming a framework in which both records managers and archivists are involved to varying degrees in the on-going management of recorded information.

Why was this development crucial? McKemmish (2001:338 & 349) contends that the records continuum model approach became a necessity because the framework enabled “accountable record keeping regimes that enabled access to essential useable evidence”. She differentiates between the two models as follows:

In the life cycle model, there is a theoretical assumption that the best approach to the management of records is a staged one, and that stages match recurring
events in the life history of the records. The stages might be as elementary as creation, maintenance and disposition. Records endure through these stages as if each one is sharing a common, natural recurring pattern. In the continuum approach, records continue through space-time and the stages blur and relate to each other according to the contingencies of the situation.

Roper and Millar (1999a:5) provide a clear description of the continuum model by showing how the four functions apply to the different phases of recorded information. They diagrammatically show that these four actions continue or recur throughout the life of a record. Their portrayal of the continuum model is as follows:

- The creation or acquisition of the record.
- Its placement within a logical documented system that governs its arrangement and facilitates its retrieval throughout its life.
- Its appraisal for continuing value, recorded in a disposable schedule and given effect at the due time by appropriate disposable action.
- Its maintenance and use, that is whether it is maintained in the creating office, a records centre or an archival repository, and whether the use is by its creator or a successor in function or by a third party, such as a researcher or other member of the public.

Figure 2.2 illustrates the continuum model (Roper and Millar 1999a)
Figure 2.2: The continuum approach to managing records through the life cycle (Roper and Millar 1999a:22)
Referring to Figure 2.2, it is clearly shown that records should be managed and stored in an organised manner to ensure their accessibility. For this reason the gist of this study lies within the function of use. As portrayed in the model, public access or utilisation can be boosted with the help of outreach programmes. Roper and Millar (1999a) clearly outline the need for archivists to facilitate public access to recorded information within their care. Furthermore, outreach is also mentioned as a means of garnering more interest in the information kept within the auspices of the archival repository. The next section explains the link between the theoretical framework and the research problem for this study.

2.2.2 The link between the theoretical framework and the research problem of the study

The theoretical foundation for this study lies within record continuum’s model function on use. The model clearly stipulates the importance of going beyond preserving and storing records, which involves enabling access to the stored records. Public programming projects can serve as a means of enabling access to such records.

Public programming emerged as an important archival function in the 20th century (Cox 1993). In his article ‘The concept of public memory and its impact on archival public programming’, Cox (1993) explains most archivists before the 20th century perceived their basic functions without any inclusion of public service. The literature proves this as most of the literature on the topic was published after 1982 (Dearstyne 1987; Blais and Enns
describes this social-cultural paradigm shift as follows:

There has been a collective shift from a juridical-administrative justification for archives grounded in concepts of the state, to a social-cultural justification for archives grounded in wider-public policy and public use... Archives traditionally were founded by the state to serve the state, as part of the state’s hierarchical structure and organisational culture. Archival theory not surprisingly found its early legitimization in statist theories and models, and from the study of character and properties of older state records. Such theory has been widely adopted in many other kinds of archival institutions around the world. Public sanction for archives late in the twentieth century, or at least for taxpayer funded non business archives in democracies, has changed fundamentally from this earlier statist model. Archives are now of the people, for the people and even by the people.

The records continuum clearly emphasises the importance of access to records. Roper and Millar (1999a) suggest that outreach, which forms part of public programming, should be a means of facilitating access to the archives. There is no doubt that public programming is an important function in facilitating access to the archives. However, the challenge is how to conduct these programmes or agreeing on suitable criteria. Blais and Enns (1991) emphasise the importance of focusing on use and the user and providing a service that is centred on the user. Craig (1991) and Jimerson (1989) consent to this approach. Blais and Enns (1991:104-106) outline image, awareness, education and use as important elements of any public programme.
Blais and Enns (1991:104-106) argue that the image of a public archive is affected by the way resource allocators view them. Governments are the main resource allocators for public archives; therefore their perception of the public archives will impact on their use. They link the awareness of the services and products offered to public programming skills of the archivists. This remains important as it is a potential means of getting more people to appreciate and use archives. Education is outlined as an important means to provide researchers with the necessary tools to help them find what they need within the archives. Lastly investigating use relates to finding out what the users need and offering a service that matches this need.

Cook (1991) acknowledges that public programming remains an important archival function; however, he cautiously questions Blais and Enns’ (1991) user centredness approach. He points out that the views of Blais and Enns (1991) together with Jimerson (1989) imply that functions such as description and arrangement should change to accommodate user needs. He opines that changing archival theory for the sake of pleasing users will not work.

Eastwood (1994:126) concurs that archival theory remains important as archives have special characteristics. He argues that “archival documents attest facts and acts, and that their trustworthiness is dependent upon the circumstances of their generation and preservation”. These facts cannot be overlooked to address easy means of retrieval and use; therefore Cook (1991) advises archivists to find means of educating the public about
the systems in place rather than changing them. Bradley (2006:180) takes note of this
debate and comments that public programming should connect archival functions rather
than disconnect them. She argues that:

Since postmodernism reminds us that relationships between all things are rarely
simple, it is not surprising that public programmer’s connections to their colleagues
operate in both directions. While work of appraisal, processing, and reference
archivists has a significant impact on public programmers, the reverse is also true.
Public programmers should have a solid understanding of the unique aspects of
the work of their counterparts in other units...we must also pass on this
understanding to future users of archives and make them understand in turn why
the archives were formed in a certain way and not only what happened. While this
is a challenging objective, it presents an exciting opportunity to enhance public
understanding about the nature of archives.

Archivists should therefore work in unison to satisfy their clients. This debate offers an
opportunity to investigate means of offering public programming projects without
neglecting archival theory. Nesmith (2010:183) calls for a new public programming model
that has two interrelated dimensions, “greater commitment to the history of records and
archives and more active pursuit of a wider role for archives in public affairs”. The two
come together as archivists employ their knowledge of records and archiving to help
identify and contextualise records for public affairs purposes”. This idea opens another
interesting avenue for research in public programming, as it could improve the ‘image’ of
the archival institution as described by Blais and Enns (1991) and help society understand more about the history of records and their importance to their lives.

In view of the fact that archivists need to improve their interaction with the public, Kemoni (2004:173) argues that archivists require core communication skills that will assist them to “market archives to enhance their exploitation and use” among other important administrative duties. He further explains that this involves deciding on what should be communicated, selecting a suitable channel to communicate this message, identifying any barriers in this process, getting feedback from the users and evaluating the effectiveness of the whole process.

Blais and Enns (1991) and Kemoni (2004) highlight key issues such as evaluating the status quo of the archival service, investigating users and use, the knowledge and skills of archivists, together with educating the user as important when planning, implementing and evaluating public programming projects.

As mentioned earlier, the theoretical framework for this study is based on the records continuum model’s function of ‘maintenance and use’. It also integrates the following theoretical elements: image, awareness, education, use and communication as emphasised by Blais and Enns (1991) and Kemoni (2004). Figure 2.1 outlines how this theoretical framework is linked to a variety of factors. These factors which are linked to
the objectives of this study influence the effectiveness and efficiency of public programming initiatives. The factors are:

1. Legislation
2. Policies
3. Public programming activities
4. The concept of the user
5. The use of technology
6. Collaboration
7. Knowledge and skills of archivists

The discussion will therefore shift now from the theoretical framework to explaining how each of these factors influence public programming in detail.

2.3 Public programming in archives
Archives have been described as one of the many probable information sources that can address information needs of the people. However, as explained by Dearstyne (1987:82-83), Grabowski (1992), Cook (1991), Bradley (2005), Jimerson (1989), Nesmith (2010), Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011), people will not make use of the records within public archives if they are unaware of the products and services offered by public archives.
Therefore prioritising public programming could lead to increased use of public archival records and contribute to the continued existence of these national institutions.

Prioritised public programming calls for a proper understanding of the term itself. Scholars define public programming as follows:

Koopman 2002:7 argues that public programming is:

A planned sequence of community outreach programmes and promotional activities which inform the wider community about archival holdings and services and involves its members directly in the documentary heritage.

Likewise, Bance (2012:1) describes this function as:

The function of educating people about the existence, services and documentary resources of archival institutions.

While Gregor (2001:1) explains that public programming is:

A function performed by archives in order to create awareness of archives within society as well as to promote their use and educate their sponsors and users in how to use them.

These definitions have the following concepts in common: function, services, and educating people. The common purpose is to promote access to and use of the archives.
As Kamatula (2011: 75) argues:

Archives belong to the people’s lives as they may contribute to their enjoyment, inspiration, cultural values, learning potential, economic prosperity and social equity. As such, they need to be brought out of the shade because there is not much public awareness of their value… there is a need for the general public to be made aware of the treasures the archival institutions are holding on behalf of the society.

Referring to the above definitions and the literature, a working definition for the study was developed; therefore public programming could also be referred to as:

A tool that enables public archives to communicate archives to citizens and receive feedback on services offered through a body of coordinated activities with the aim of developing an effective and efficient archival service.

Consulted literature revealed that terms such as ‘marketing’, ‘outreach’, ‘advocacy’, ‘publicity’, and ‘public relations’ can be linked to public programming. These are also defined to avoid confusion.

**Marketing**

Marketing is described as the activity set by institutions and processes for creating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners and society at large (American Marketing Association 2012).
Outreach

This includes public programming, educational programmes and public relations. Outreach activities can take the form of lectures, seminars, workshops, exhibits, displays, tours and film shows. Other forms of outreach are publications and newsletters. Websites provide outreach on the internet (Koopman 2002:7).

Advocacy

Advocacy is a state-of-mind and set of infrastructure tools that support an array of outreach programmes and activities. As a framework, it supplies the attitudes, knowledge and techniques that are prerequisite to undertaking individual outreach or public programme (Pederson 2008:435).

Publicity

Publicity is getting a message across to an audience in an accurate, well-presented and timely manner. There are two basic ways of communicating with an audience: the direct method using mail, internet or a specialised distribution system; and the indirect approach, which works through an intermediary, usually an affiliated professional association or a radio, television or newspaper journalist (Pederson 2008).

Public relations

This is a strategic communication process that builds mutually beneficial relationships between organisations and their public (Public Relations Society of America 2012).
All these terms are linked with connecting people with the archives and in certain instances terms such as ‘outreach’, ‘marketing’ and ‘public programming’ are used interchangeably (Kamatula 2011).

Wosh (2011: xiii) contends that public relations and marketing are an essential part of any archival service, to the extent that every mission statement of such a service should include a statement like:

The archives shall collect, preserve, maintain and make available to the public materials of an historic nature that express and evidence the history of the local community. Through marketing and public relation activities, the historical materials will be made accessible to the public.

There is no doubt that information is a crucial part of our personal and official activities. Information has turned out to be one of the key drivers in the knowledge economy. However, the challenge many are faced with today is not the availability of information but rather how to deal with information overload. Jimerson (1989:333) describes this situation as ‘drowning in information, but being starved of knowledge’. Not all sources of information are credible and trustworthy; therefore, proper orientation is required to attain the right information at the right time and at an optimal cost. Archives as derivatives of events, actions or activities (McKemmish 2001; Ngulube 2002) fall under this category of trustworthy information sources; however, when people seek for information archives do not feature on many lists as promising sources of information.
Nesmith (2010) cites a study that was conducted in the United Kingdom to determine prominent sources of information people approach when in need of information on public issues. Findings indicated that archives were the least used sources of information, falling behind libraries and museums. News media and the internet were the most favoured source of public information or knowledge.

Nesmith (2010:175) reports this situation as regrettable, because archives, museums and libraries “provide a historical context and varied interpretations that go beyond day to day headlines”. According to this study (Nesmith 2010), it would seem that people did not make use of the archives because they were unaware that they could help them meet their information needs. Similarly, Ghosh (2010) asserts that archives to most people represent an obscure and remote institution which is narrowly specialised in its organisation and serves relatively few people. According to Schwartz and Cook (2002) one of the many reasons for this could be that the impact of archives and records management on society has not been widely documented as compared to history museums, libraries, and historical monuments.

Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at (2003:38) further explain that archives are important sources of information for different people, such as government representatives, professional or academic researchers from different disciplines, amateur researchers, genealogists and members of the public. Each of these categories of people use these records to address different needs. In this instance they refer to Kenya as an example,
where archival records were used to help the government in the process of reviewing the constitution of that country. Examples of other public archive records that have been used to address national interests are the records from the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission, The Nuremberg Trial after the fall of the Nazi regime and The Civil Rights Movement in America to mention a few (Nesmith 2010).

Seemingly, there is a consensus among researchers such as Jimerson (1989), Nesmith (2010) and Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011) that there is a need for more outreach and public programming initiatives that will educate the public on what is available in the archives and how these resources can address their information needs. Nesmith (2010) acknowledges the fact that public programming has been a part of archival management over the decades; however, developments in technology and research, not forgetting the competition archives face in the information arena, confirm that there is a dire need for assertive archival public programming.

2.3.1 Public programming as a means of promoting access to the archives
The *Encyclopaedia of Jrank* (n.d.) expounds that the term ‘access’ has three dimensions: intellectual, legal and physical. Intellectual access is ensured through the arrangement and description of the records, and the reference service provided by the archives personnel. Legal access is linked to authority and permission; consideration is, therefore, given to privacy, confidentiality, copyright, preservation and freedom of information. Lastly, physical access regards matters such as the building, signage or street directions, space to do research, opening hours and online presence on the World Wide Web.
Promoting access to the archives thus means targeting all these dimensions. Different approaches have been used by archives to achieve this, such as advocacy, outreach, publicity, public programming projects and public relations.

Tener (1978) and Seipel (2010) explain that the preservation of written information dates as far back as the first Babylonian empire in 3300BC which used clay tablets and later on papyrus to record information. However, access to these records was limited, in most cases used only by those who created them such as rulers and governors. The concept of public access to the archives is credited to the French revolutionary government. In 1789 this government formed the *Archives Nationales* and later on the *Archives Départementales* in 1796 (Tener 1978:17).

Moving beyond the establishment of these institutions, legislation was also set to guide their responsibilities which included allowing citizens access to the records. The United Kingdom afterwards in 1838 passed the Public Records Act of 1838. Evidently access to the archives grew with democratisation efforts (Cook 1997). Apparently more countries opened up their archives after the end of World War II (Tener 1978). In 1948 the ICA was founded with the mandate to facilitate access to the archives as part of its constitution (Seipel 2010). This contributed to more progress where accessibility to the archives is concerned. The ICA in collaboration with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), national archives and other institutions continue to promote the preservation of and access to documentary heritage.
Duchein (1983:2) maintains that history shows that records were created and preserved so that they could be consulted in the future for various reasons. This would not be possible if these records were not accessible. However, the issue of ‘who had access’ and ‘how these records were accessible’ is an experience that has changed over time in history. Valge and Kibal (2008) provide a similar account on the accessibility of archives as Duchein (1983). They (Valge and Kibal 2008:200) agree that the “rapid liberalisation of access conditions in western countries” happened during 1945-1980.

Furthermore, this is the period where ordinary citizens started to be fully appreciated as users of the archives. The ICA advocates that access to the archives is a fundamental part of the archival service; this was established in 1966 when the ICA convened an extraordinary archival congress in Washington DC, in America (Valge and Kibal 2008). Moreover, the principle of free access was declared for the first time on a worldwide level (Valge and Kibal 2008). Since then different working groups have been established to facilitate access to the archives worldwide. For example, the best practices and standards working group on access, compiled the ‘Principles of Access’ in 2012 that implored archival institutions to make access a matter of priority. The link between public programming and access is outlined in section 1.1.1 of the first chapter of this study.

To appreciate the need to facilitate access, it is important that archivists remember that archives as records of continuing value, were created so that they can be referred to in the future. As Mockford (2013:3) insists:

Supporting greater use of archives can only occur when users understand how archives are valuable in their lives. Archival records are meant to be used by
anyone who can make use of them. Many people are still unaware that archives exist.

The question at hand may be: does public programming play an effective role in promoting access to the archives? Seemingly the literature answers this question in the affirmative; Ericson (1991:117) argues that “for an archive to have staying power it has to matter to the people”. Public programming activities offer an opportunity to get people to appreciate and use their archives. In many instances, public programming initiatives are seen as an added responsibility rather than a normal function within many archive institutions (Ericson 1991).

Though many challenges exist, Ericson (1991) advises that it is important to focus on the goal of public programming ventures and not the means. This approach could lead to the development of different strategies despite existing challenges to reach out to the people. Blais (1995) echoes Ericson’s (1991) sentiments in that public programming projects have been relegated for a variety of reasons, making archives more obscure to the public. Blais (1995:3.1) therefore argues that:

Archival institutions have been severely criticised for their inactivity in the field of self-promotion and education. They have failed to foster, among the population at large, an appreciation for the importance of archives in society and for their relevance in individual’s daily lives. In too many cases, archives do not even anticipate interest in their holdings, preferring instead to wait for
users to find them. This situation must change if archives are to play a greater social role.

2.3.2 Marketing archives versus promoting access to the archives

Morgan (2010) explains that many archivists think that marketing does not apply to archives as it is a concept that involves making and selling tangible products in the private sector. Likewise Kotler and Lee (2007) reached the same conclusion; they advise public agencies such as public archives to think differently. Instead of the ‘make and sell’ philosophy, they should focus on ‘sensing and responding’ to customer needs. Morgan (2010:12-13) describes marketing this way:

The true emphasis of marketing is not on the mechanics of selling a product or service, but rather focus on establishing what the customer wants, prioritising it and delivering as much of it as possible…an archival marketing programme will ensure that the archive delivers and promotes services and resources that are tailored to meet the needs of each of its audiences.

In essence Morgan (2010) is arguing that promotion is just one part of the marketing process, what is important is to determine who you serve, what they need, evaluate current services, improve where necessary and communicate these changes to society.

Referring to the literature it can be noted that the term ‘marketing’ has been used when discussing how to facilitate access to the archives (Ngulube 1999; Hallam-Smith 2003; Smith and Saker 1992). Though different terms were used to describe such activities, the goal has remained the same, which is to encourage more people to interact and make
use of records. Perhaps this is the reason why terms such as ‘outreach’, ‘promotion’ and ‘marketing’ have been used interchangeably.

Hallam-Smith (2003) and Smith and Saker (1992) like Morgan (2010) argue that the marketing of public institutions such as public archives and libraries is not always a priority because these institutions do not generate revenue. This should not be the case as any organisation that deals with people and products or services should consider instituting a marketing strategy. Smith and Saker (1992:6) describe marketing of public services as social marketing. Lukenbill (2002:162) further describes social marketing as

…a means to influence behaviour in several ways with the aim of doing the following: (a) changing an action (b) changing individual or group behaviours, attitudes or beliefs and (c) behaviour reinforcement by encouraging behaviours, attitudes, beliefs that are necessary for social progress.

In view of this Hallam-Smith (2003:36) claims that archives should not overlook marketing archives because such strategies provide these institutions with a chance to link their holdings with the people. She also stresses the need to determine customer needs first so that appropriate programmes can be designed and implemented. The concept of the user is further discussed in section 2.8 of this literature review. Ericson (1991) underscores the fact that evaluating public programming projects is just as important as their implementation, as he points out that the archival institutions will be able to determine whether they are satisfying targeted clients. Similarly to Hallam-Smith (2003),
points out the need to identify users’ interests to develop relevant public programming ventures. Barrett, Cannon and O’Hare (2009) also mention the necessity to evaluate target audiences, public archives need to determine whether they are serving the same audience time and again or if they are actually reaching out to other people.

Therefore, marketing or public programming initiatives, in as much as they can encourage use of the public archives, they concretize the value of archives in society. Smith and Saker (1992:14) explain that institutions such as public libraries or archives should have a basic marketing plan that outlines the objectives, resources and how the plan will be implemented. They acknowledge that this is not always an easy task as these public organisation face challenges such as weak support from immediate and top management, lack of funding, insufficient expertise and staff turnover.

2.3.3 Advocacy
Advocacy is another element that frequently features in the literature regarding access to the archives. Pederson (2008:435) portrays advocacy as “relationships between people and influencing people”. Compatibly, Hackman (2011:vii) describes advocacy in the field of archives as “an investment that we intentionally and strategically educate and engage individuals and organisations so they will in turn support archival work”. This is a crucial part of archival work as it provides the public archives with the opportunity to communicate their effectiveness to management of the host organisation and the community it serves.
As a result garnering support for present and future programmes becomes an easier task (Brett and Jones 2013).

Brett and Jones (2013) point out that archival organisations function in a difficult economic environment. Effective and efficient archival services (such as public programming) require resources but budget cuts and redirected funding are a reality that archives and other information services are forced to contend with. Wandel (2013) therefore states that the right influence can help steer such resources in the direction of archives. Brett and Jones (2013:53) argue that archival outreach should not be confused with advocacy. According to these researchers, “archival outreach is a public relations process while advocacy is a political process…advocacy expounds the value of archival materials and services for communities”. Advocacy can lead to the decisions, resources and support required to make public programming projects happen.

Hedlin (2011:298) explains that most archives are part of a larger body; in the case of this study public archives fall under the administration of a government. Therefore funding, resources and decision making on various factors affecting archival work are influenced from within government spheres. Advocacy in this regard is related to garnering the government’s understanding, use and support for archival programmes. Hedlin (2011:298) advises archivists to consider the following key issues when planning advocacy initiatives:
• Recognise and understand the overarching culture and practises of the organisation of which you are a part.

• Tie your archival functions, services and activities to your parent organisation’s (or government’s) need to act.

• Support rather than compete with other parts of the organisation.

This will enable public archives to remain relevant within their organisations and the communities they serve. Pederson (2008:473) also recommends that archivists should report achievements regularly to superiors and other significant stakeholders inside and outside the organisation. Consequently, these decision makers and supporters will be able to establish the tangible results of an effective archival service and most possibly the support they have provided.

2.3.4 A worldwide perspective on public programming

Public programming has been a matter of concern in archival spheres since the 1980s (Blais and Enns 1991; Wosh 2011). Most of the available literature on the topic emanates from developed countries such as Canada, the United States of America, Australia and the United Kingdom (Cox 1993; Dearstyn 1987; Grabowski 1992; Finch 1994; Evans 2007). Barret, Cannon and O'Hare (2009) explain that the emphasis of most of these studies has been on “the archivist’s role in public service, public service training, archival outreach and archival marketing”.
Barret, Cannon and O'Hare's (2009) findings are echoed in the ethos of the archival associations or societies found in the abovementioned countries. For instance, the Association of Canadian Archivists (ACA: 2014) states that “It recognises that archivists are influential to educate citizens about the value of archives... (Therefore) they provide information sheets and technical booklets to help archives to do outreach”.

The Society of American Archivists (SAA: 2014) has a section on reference, access and outreach which assists archival institutions with training and resources to carry out effective public programming programmes. On the other hand the Australian Society of Archivists (ASA: 2014) describes a digitisation initiative that enables their public archives to promote and improve the use of their collections by more people in the vast country of Australia.

There may probably be a vast amount of literature on the topic from Europe or other non-English speaking countries. As the researcher uses English as a medium of expression, such literature will not be referred to in this study. Available literature did not reveal much on public programming endeavours from other continents such as Asia and South America. As stated earlier the language barrier could have limited the accessibility of such findings.

Nevertheless referring to the third edition of the Encyclopedia of Library and Information Sciences (2011), it revealed a brief overview of the different national archives from various countries in the world. The common factor amongst most of the entries was the
existence of legislation that regulates archives and records management within the countries. The national archives in Germany, Japan, Serbia and Israel oversee the collection, utilisation and protection of archives (Lux 2011; Milojevic 2009; Shoham and Schenkolewski-Kroll 2009; Takayama et al., 2011). In other instances the national archives in Tunisia and China also do the same; however, accessibility is not as straightforward as with their foreign counterparts, as certain authorisation is required (Homissa 2009 and Yu & Chiou-Peng 2011). Particularly, of all these entries in the Encyclopedia of Library and Information Sciences (2011), it is only the National Archives of Serbia that reports on how they actually promote their archives to their citizens. This is accomplished through film screenings, lectures, round tables and exhibits (Milojevic 2011).

Haider (2005) provides a contrary account from Pakistan, claiming that the National Archives of Pakistan is underdeveloped and undermined because the institution has failed to justify its role in nation building. Therefore, Haider (2005) argues that the National archives needs to promote archives more aggressively to the people of Pakistan.

While the literature shows that most of the nations today have a national archives that oversees the collection, organisation and preservation of records, little is said on promoting access to these records (Encyclopaedia of Library and Information Sciences 2011). To get more clarity on the worldwide perspective on public programming the ICA’s point of view on promoting access to the archives was sought, the reasons being that it
is an international body that represents the world community of records and archives managers. Furthermore the core aim of this organisation is to promote the preservation and use of archives worldwide (Canavaggio and Caya 2009).

2.3.5 The ICA’s perspective on public programming

Most national archives are affiliated to the ICA, and therefore regional structures such as ESARBICA and others exist. Consultation of the ICA (2013) website section on regional branches revealed that there are thirteen (13) such regional branches.

These thirteen (13) branches cover the globe, enabling the ICA to deliver its mission (ICA 2013). In view of that, it can be assumed that the principles adopted at the ICA should offer guidance on archival administration worldwide.

As mentioned earlier, public programming is a means of facilitating access to the archives. In view of this, the principles of access to the archives adopted by the ICA in August 2012 (ICA 2012) were referred to. The ICA (2012:6) states that:

> Archives are preserved for use by present and future generations. An access service links archives to the public; it provides information for users about the institution and its holdings; it influences whether the public will trust the custodians of the archives and the services they provide.

A public programming project can be identified as an access service, as stipulated by the ICA (2012). The principles outline a framework that different archives in the region can use to benchmark their own practises with regard to facilitating access to their holdings. The principles of access are as follows (ICA 2012: 8-11):
1. The public has the right of access to archives of public bodies. Both public and private entities should open their archives to the greatest extent possible.

2. Institutions holding archives make known the existence of the archives, including the existence of closed materials, and disclose the existence of restrictions that affect access to the archives.

3. Institutions holding archives adopt a pro-active approach to access.

4. Institutions holding archives ensure that restrictions on access are clear and of stated duration, are based on pertinent legislation, acknowledge the right of privacy and respect the rights of owners of private materials.

5. Archives are made available on equal and fair terms.

6. Institutions holding archives ensure that victims of serious crimes under international law have access to archives that provide evidence needed to assert their human rights and to document violations of them, even if those archives are closed to the general public.

7. Users have the right to appeal a denial of access.

8. Institutions holding archives ensure that operational constraints do not prevent access to the archives.

9. Archivists have access to all closed archives and perform necessary archival work on them.

10. Archivists participate in the decision-making process on access.
The essence of this study is based upon principles one to three. Upon consulting the explanation provided for principle three (ICA 2012:9) ICA clearly pointed out that:

Archivists have a professional responsibility to promote access to the archives. They communicate information about the archives through various means such as internet and web based publications, printed materials, public programmes, commercial media and educational and outreach activities…They proactively provide access to the parts of their holdings that are of wide interest to the public. Archivists consider user needs when determining how the archives are published.

Noticeably, there is a worldwide consensus that facilitating access to the archives is an important aspect of the archival service. These principles also advise archivists to adapt a variety of means, for example, digital, print, web based and other means to achieve this mission. Public programming in the ESARBICA region is the focus of the subsequent section of this literature review.

2.3.6 Public programming in ESARBICA

ESARBICA member states acknowledge the fact that public archives play a crucial role in society. Consultation of the ESARBICA constitution (ESARBICA 2011) proved that the organisation’s objectives are in line with the ICA’s Principles of Access. Referring to Objective II (c) it states that:
ESARBICA aims to facilitate the use of archives of the region by making these more widely known and by encouraging greater ease of access.

Moreover, after examining the minutes of a meeting of Permanent Secretaries from the National Archival institutions that fall under ESARBICA in 2007 (ESARBICA Permanent Secretaries Meeting 2007), it is clearly stated that public archives fulfil the following roles:

- Heritage - for the preservation of historical and cultural heritage
- Education - over 50% of archival usage is related to education
- Information - provides information on development, infrastructure, citizen rights, genealogy, etc.
- Governance - for running the current affairs of government for accountability, transparency and good governance. This is particularly important in this electronic age where national archives need to be involved throughout the life cycle of the records.

These roles cannot be fulfilled without linking society to the archives. The constitution gives the impression that facilitating access is a matter of necessity; however, word on paper does not make much of a difference, but it is the translation of such statements into action that matters. So one may ask, ‘What kinds of public programming activities take place in the ESARBICA region’? ‘How effective are these interventions’? Section 2.7 of this literature review discusses public programming activities in ESARBICA in more detail.
2.4 Factors that influence the development and implementation of public programming strategies in public archives

The literature review map for this study as displayed in Figure 2.1 highlights a variety of factors that influence the functioning of public programming initiatives. These factors include legislation, policies, public programming activities, the user, technology, and collaboration, together with knowledge and skills of archivists. These factors are discussed as portrayed in available literature with reference to facilitating access to the public archives and public programming.

2.5 The role of legislation in public programming

The ICA (2004:5) describes legislation as a “set of binding principles and rules stipulated through formal mechanisms to grant power, confer rights and specify limits that regulate the conduct and behaviour of a society”. Referring to archival legislation this would be set principles that guide the management of the archives. The ICA (2004:5) defines archival legislation as:

A legal and administrative base that allocates functions, power and responsibilities among accountable bodies within the country, and expresses right and expectations of citizens with respect to recorded information and documentary heritage. Archives legislation provides the mandate of the archival authority, sets out the rules for its operation, defines what part of the collective memory of the country should be retained and preserved, and for whom and under what conditions the preserved records could be made available.
Roper and Millar (1999b:4) contend that such legislation provides a “framework for preservation and provision of access to records”. Then this implies that the lack of archival legislation can lead to the loss of records or worse yet prevent citizens from accessing their documentary heritage. Ngulube, Sibanda and Makoni (2013:136) correspondingly argue that:

Archivists are bound to fail to make documents in their custody available for consultation if there is no legal authority to access information.

Public programming promotes access to resources kept within the archives; therefore legislation outlining how the archives should be accessed presents archival institutions with a better chance to develop outreach and public programming projects.

An example can be drawn from the National Archives of South Africa Act (Act No. 43 of 1996) which states that the Act exists to ensure the proper management and care of documentary heritage. It clearly stipulates that the objects and functions of the national archives among others include to:

a) Preserve public and non-public records with enduring value for use by the public and the state;

b) Make such records accessible and promote their use by the public;

c) Promote an awareness of archives and records management, and encourage archival and records management activities;

d) Generally promote the preservation and use of a national archival heritage.
The objectives from this example highlight the necessity to promote access to archival heritage in South Africa. Noting the importance of the South Africa context, Roper and Millar (1999) explain that such legislation is always guided by the general political, economic, social, cultural and administrative environment. The current information society we find ourselves in calls for the addition of a technological intervention to Roper and Millar’s (1999) list. They do, however, insist on the importance of modernizing out of date legislation, such as legislation set in the colonial era for some countries.

Dube (2011) narrates the example of the National Archives of Zimbabwe Act of 1986. The argument here is that the Act has been overtaken by technological advancements in society. The legislation apparently does not address how electronic and audio-visual resources should be kept and accessed. Consequently this author calls for the necessity to update this Act and to improve operations at the National Archives of Zimbabwe. Hamooya, Mulauzi and Njobvu (2011: 122) concur with Dube (2011) relating to the National Archives Act of Zambia arguing that the archival legislation in Zambia “does not reflect the changing aspects of archives and records management”. These two cases indicate the need for legislation to address how to preserve and facilitate access to electronic records. Hamooya, Mulauzi and Njobvu (2011) point to National Archives of South Africa Act as an example of legislation that encompasses electronic records.

It would seem that even though many countries do have archives and records legislation, not all of them sufficiently tackle the current records and archives needs in those particular
countries (Roper and Millar 1999b; Hamooya, Mulauzi and Njobvu 2011). Kemoni and Ngulube (2007) also report that certain members of ESARBICA have weak archival legislation. Ngulube and Tafor (2006) in their study on the management of public records and archives also discovered that four of the ESARBICA member states had archaic and out dated legislation.

Kabata and Muthee (2013) explain that the reasons behind these weak legislations are due to the fact that most of them are modelled on old Canadian or United Kingdom archival legislation. These legislations do not factor in the records continuum concept that enables archivists and records managers to handle records in a changing environment. An example of Kenya is provided, whereby current archival legislation does not incorporate how to manage electronic records and the freedom of access to information concept. Matongo, Marwa and Wamukoya (2013) therefore argue that many African nations need to review and update their archival legislation to integrate the following:

- Electronic records management.
- Record keeping principles, particularly the records continuum concept.
- Freedom of information, privacy and archives legislation to accommodate the sharing of information across organisations.
- Rapid administrative changes resulting from modern management practice and the need for stricter accountability.

Ngulube and Tafor (2006) advise ESARBICA countries to make use of archival legislation models designed by UNESCO. The UNESCO model designed after a study by Ketelaar
(1985) emphasises the rights of individuals and citizens in accessing records and archives; it further describes the promotion of the educational value of archives in appropriate ways that include exhibitions. Parer (2001) from the Association of Commonwealth Archivists and Records Managers (ACARM) did a similar study on archival legislation in Commonwealth countries and concurs with Ketelaar (1985) with regard to promoting access. In addition, he speaks of archivists considering access and promotion conditions in an electronic environment.

Referring back to Duchein's (1983) narration on the developments with regard to access, he highlights the notion of ‘freedom of information’ (FOI) that became prominent in the 1960s in the West. This is the time when most African countries got independence from their colonial masters. This led to the establishment of legislation on freedom to access information in many western countries, affecting archival institutions as well (Valge and Kibal 2008). Khayundi (2013) argues that though freedom of information law has been accepted in sub-Saharan African countries only eleven countries have enacted legislation to facilitate access to information. Mnjama (2005) pointed out that in 2005 South Africa was the only country that had legislation on freedom of access to information in the east and southern African region. There seemed to be no interest in other countries to follow suit at that time. Mnjama (2005:465) argues:

…If the nations of this region are to become more democratic and accountable to their citizens, there is dire need for them to formulate laws and policies that guarantee the nationals the right of access to vast quantities of government held information.
Lowry (2013) investigated the implementation of FOI in East Africa and found that Tanzania and Kenya have yet to incorporate this in archival legislation, and while Uganda has done so, there is no evidence of implementation. Khayundi (2013) stipulates that archival legislation should be reviewed to enable the public to access information from the standpoint of FOI.

It is known that countries have different restrictions on what holdings are accessible and when. Valge and Kibal (2008) explain that the following reasons are some of the conditions that restrict access: protection of personal data, protection of the interests of the state and security, protection of economic interests and copyright. On the contrary Roper and Millar (1999b) argue that with the adoption of FOI views, clauses such as the ‘thirty or twenty year rule’ and the conditions expressed by Valge and Kibal (2008) become irrelevant. The ICA principles of access to archives take into account that different legislation will affect access; still they encourage archives to open their holdings to the greatest extent possible (ICA 2012: 9).

2.5.1 Archival legislation in ESARBICA in relation to accessing public archives

Notably, archival legislation provides a framework on how National Archives should function in different countries. In light of the fact that such legislation should stipulate how records should be accessed (ICA 2004), archival legislation from Kenya, Zambia, Namibia, Malawi, Uganda, Tanzania, South Africa, Swaziland and Botswana was reviewed.
Archival legislation from these member states mandate the respective national archives to promote their archival holdings and facilitate use of these records. Table 4.4 in Chapter Four of this thesis outlines how legislation is linked to promoting access to the archives.

2.6 Public programming policies

Bullen (2012) describes policy as the organisation’s principles; policy sets out the way things are done and sets a framework for how work is done. In brief archival policy is a set course of actions derived from archival legislation. Koopman (2002:25) describes policy as follows:

A set of principles which guide a regular course of action. A policy consists of:

a) An image of a desired state of affairs, as a goal or set of goals which are to be achieved or pursued.
b) Specific means by which the realisation of the goals is to be brought about.
c) The assignment of responsibilities for implementing the means.
d) A set of rules or guidelines regulating the implementation of the means.

Policies are important as Hamooya, Njobvu and Mulauzi (2013) explain, that archival legislation and policy enables the archival institution to operate their activities with authority. Richards (2009:20) further clarifies that though public programming projects are important, “they need to be conducted in tandem with archival functions, and this
balancing act can only be achieved with the provision of clear operating policies”. Therefore, a policy on public programming eases the planning, funding and implementation of such programmes without compromising other archival functions.

Okello-Obura (2011) argues that a proficient archival service relies upon an effective legislative and policy framework. He explains that most developing countries such as the ESARBICA member states have weak laws or inactive legislation; therefore he emphasizes the need for ‘functional legal and policy provision’. In a study on the role of national archives in the promotion of documentary national heritage in Tanzania, South Africa and Botswana, Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu (2013) highlight that Botswana and South Africa have official plans that guide outreach and public programming. As stated earlier, Kotler and Lee (2007) argue that the chances of implementing successful marketing strategies rely heavily upon the availability of a plan. A public programming policy should give the directive to develop such plans.

Similarly, Weir (1991) emphasizes this point referring to his own experience in a local county in the United Kingdom. He strongly discourages archives from carrying out public programming activities impulsively. Arguably, he states that such programmes are not always effective. He suggests that a policy or strategy eases planning, funding and evaluation, ensuring that public programming projects are a part of the archives’ long term plans. Hackman (2011: vii) indicates that the existence of legislation and strategies does not guarantee application; this requires engaging staff to get their buy-in.
Planning for public programming activities as per archival policy helps public archives to determine what they want to achieve and how to achieve such goals (Pederson 2008). As stated by Weir (1991) impulsive programmes do not always guarantee desired results, and at times works against requests for the support of future programmes.

Archival researchers such as Kamatula (2011) and Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila (2012) have referred to marketing literature, to seek suggestions that may assist in the development of public programming projects. Kotler and Lee (2007) specifically write on marketing from a public sector perspective that includes public archives. They argue that a marketing plan provides proof of strategic thinking, clearly outlining what, how and when the marketing will take place and of evaluation of the entire exercise. From an archival perspective raising awareness would be the main focus of the plan. Such plans can therefore be used to advocate for funding public programming as described by Hackman (2011) and Wandel (2013).

Hiam (2009) argues that though marketing plans benefit organisations, only a few organisations take the time to develop and implement such plans. He refers to the fact that advances in technology have led to the availability of planning software and online marketing planning templates. He further advises organisations not to neglect their marketing plans as they have proven to save organisations money and improve creativity levels. Public archives can take advantage of these software and templates to develop their own marketing plans.
2.7 Public programming activities in the ESARBICA region

After considering the different archival legislations that govern access and promoting archival holdings in this region, it was of importance to highlight the type of public programming projects that are utilised. To achieve this archival literature pertaining to public programming and the websites of the national archives within ESARBICA and other regional studies on public programming were consulted.

Before describing the different public programming projects that the ESARBICA members embark on, it is important to highlight that archival institutions should adhere to the following basic principles to ensure that those targeted by public programming projects are not disappointed with the services offered, should they be attracted to make use of archival services (Kamatula 2011). Kamatula (2011:77) describes these principles as follows:

(a) Having consistent regular and convenient opening hours, (b) avoiding discrimination with respect to access, (c) no fees or affordable fees where necessary, (d) effective and efficient services, (e) suitable environment for all users to read records in, (f) clear indication of which records are available or otherwise, (g) a detailed description of what is available, (h) competent staff and a commitment to improved services.
Weir (1991) and Yates (1986) list exhibitions, publications, media, lectures and talks, conferences and seminars as means that have been utilised to get people interested in the holdings of public archives.

Pederson (2008:447-464) concurs with the above authors; however, she also includes user education and student activities. She argues that very few citizens have had the opportunity to learn how they can benefit from and use the archives. The few who have been privileged rarely get the opportunity to provide feedback on the services rendered to them. Furthermore in most cases patrons of archival institutions are adults; Pederson (2008) argues that children as young as ten (10) can make use of the archives. Therefore this group of users should not be undermined or excluded in outreach or publicity efforts by archival institutions.

Weir (1991) and Nesmith (2010) acknowledge that these methods have had an impact in creating public interest and increasing use. However they also claim that archivists need to keep up to date and conduct these programmes in line with actual events and current approaches such as the inclusion of ICTs in their functions. This will make it simpler for their intended audiences to appreciate their work and service to society.

Some of the abovementioned methods are utilised by the public archives of ESARBICA (Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012; Kamatula 2011 and Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013). According to the national archives
websites and various literatures ESARBICA member states practise the following methods to raise awareness about their archives:

a) Kenya National Archives and Documentation Services: Brochures to schools and other institutions, a website, and a Facebook page (KNADS 2014).

b) National Archives of Malawi: Public awareness campaigns and publishing of the Malawi National Bibliography online (Lihoma and Gondwe 2006).

c) National Archives of Namibia: No indication of public programming projects on their website, though they support education and research by providing access to resources (Namibia National Library and Archives Service 2014).

d) National Archives of Zambia: Website does not mention any public programme initiatives. However Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila (2012) report that the national archives makes use of exhibitions during World Archives Week and the Zambian National Library Week.

e) Records and Archives Management Division of Tanzania: Their website is also silent, nonetheless Kamatula (2011) reports that this institution uses cultural activity exhibitions, Archives Week, as well as school and college visits.

f) Botswana National Archives and Records Service: The website as all the others provides details on accessibility of records only; nonetheless a study by Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu (2013) also revealed that exhibitions, word of mouth, tours, seminars, workshops, television and radio were utilised to raise awareness about the archives.
g) National Archives of Swaziland: The website indicates that this institution promotes awareness of the archive but did not go into detail on how this happens (Swaziland Government Portal 2014).

h) National Archives and Records Service of South Africa: The website indicates public programming as a means of raising awareness in this archival institution (NARSSA n.d.). This includes a national oral history programme, heritage month or day activities, exhibitions, seminars, workshops and a newsletter.

i) National Archives of Lesotho: No website was available at the time of this study. Lekoekoe (2012) attributes this challenge and others due to budget constraints.

j) National Archives of Zimbabwe: The website offers in depth information on what is available and how it can be accessed. Means of promotion include a newsletter, exhibitions and workshops (NAZ 2012).

k) Uganda National Archives: No website was available at the time of this study. A study by Luyombya (2012) indicates that very few members of the public use the National Archives and thus she insists on the need to develop programmes that will raise awareness about the significance of archives to society.

Due to a language barrier the information from Mozambique and Angola National Archives websites was not included.

Public programming initiatives are developed and done to raise the awareness of users on services offered by an archival institution. Consequently, the intention is to encourage
greater interaction between the public and the archival holdings. Users as the customers of the archival service are a key part of planning, implementing and evaluating services (including public programming programmes) of the archival institution. As the adage goes ‘the customer is king’. The following section therefore focuses on the concept of the user in public programming initiatives.

2.8 User studies and customer focus as an essential part of public programming initiatives

Taking archives to the people should also involve investigating the people’s information needs and educating them on how to access and use the resources or services. Ngulube and Tafor (2006:74) affirm that user studies are an important part of knowing who your clients are and what they need. In their article, they report on a decline in the use of the public archives within ESARBICA; moreover, they assert that this challenge could be tackled by conducting user studies and identifying the obstacles to access and utilisation of the archives. Dearstyne (1987:77) complains that:

Archivists have given relatively little attention to, the issue of who uses their materials and what difference that use makes. The profession has concentrated on developing and refining a body of theory and techniques on appraisal, arrangement and description, physical preservation, and reference services to researchers. Yet the ultimate goal of archival work is to identify and preserve information that is put to use by people for some deliberate purpose.

Craig (1991:138) likewise reiterates the necessity to focus on the user of the archives service or use, and points out the importance of archivists acquiring proper managerial
skills. In her argument such training will include empirical tools of marketing analysis. Marketing skills are essential in public programming as the priority is set upon the user of the service rather than the organisation’s goals. In her opinion a user-centred approach will get more people to appreciate and use the archives rather than an organisational-centred approach.

In addition to focusing on the user Jimerson (1989:338) points out that archives should strive to be user friendly, “…archivists should adopt a marketing orientation to attract users and satisfy their needs for information”. He further advises that user studies should go beyond the current or frequent user and focus on the potential user as well. Such efforts will result in obtaining factual information explaining why archives are important and probably convince others to make use of the facility or its services. This information can also be used to justify funding requests and elaborate on budgetary reports required by governing bodies that public archives report to.

2.8.1 Reconnecting people with their heritage and social memory

Wilson (2005:339) claims that most archival institutions know the fact that their holdings are “the gift of one generation to another”; however, in reality he argues that though the archivists have been entrusted with these treasures they appear to be the only people with access to it. Rather than the treasure being a gift from one generation to another, it ends up being a gift to an obscure profession. Therefore he argues the challenge for archivists is to reconnect people with their heritage and social memory. Acknowledgement is given to the fact that it is not an easy task, and a lot of resources
and time are required, but in the end this needs to be done or else the whole purpose of keeping archives is defeated.

Public programming initiatives are one way of reconnecting people with their heritage; however, such initiatives need to be planned carefully and, as the literature has stated (Craig 1991; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Dearstyne 1987; Wilson 2005), focus on the users with the intention of running programmes that address their information needs. Maher (1986) and Conway (1986) over a decade ago argued that little is known about the archival users. Yeo (2005:25) years later maintains that “the archival community does not have a good understanding of its current user or potential users”.

Duff et al. (2008) also outline the need to understand archival users in a changing information landscape. Seemingly they propose that archivists do have the will but are not really sure of how to go about investigating their users’ needs. This is an observation that Conway (1986:394) also had, when he claimed that “archivists are unsure of how to design useful user studies, especially ‘who’, ‘what’, ‘when’ and ‘where’ user studies should be conducted.” Conway (1986) contends that archivists’ understanding of the user has to change from ‘people who seek information in archival materials’ to ‘all beneficiaries of historical information’.

Battley and Wright (2012:109) relate that most of the available research on the users of the archives has been on ‘archivists’ perceptions of reference encounters and
examination of user behaviours’. They observe that there is little published information of users’ perceptions or archival services and the evaluation of archival services. In view of this they argue:

Effective outreach allows archivists to make the incredible richness of archival holdings available to more users, as well as elevating the profile of the archives, educating the public and enhancing public support for our institution…If we have a better understanding of our users and the way they perceive us (archivists), we can provide a better service to allow them to access and interpret the information we (archives) hold and its context.

In trying to understand archival users, Bradley (2006) advises that a postmodern approach should be used. Acknowledging the fact that archival public programming projects have been offered over time; however, as Duff et al. (2008) explained, the changing information landscape requires including non-traditional approaches brought about by the proliferation of information technologies. This aspect of technologies and public programming is further tackled in section 2.9 of this literature review.

Providing appropriate public programming activities for a particular user group requires a lot of information on the user. To achieve this, Yeo (2005) argues that archival users are not the same; rather they fit within different categories due to a variety of reasons such as information needs and ethnicity. Freivogel (1978:148) also pointed out this fact, arguing that archivists think of their patrons as a single body of clients. She therefore advises archivists to take the time to know who they serve and can potentially serve.
Archive users vary from general users, teachers, students (primary, secondary, tertiary), genealogists, avocational historians, government employees, media professionals and the merely curious.

In view of this, Yeo (2005) therefore suggests that the market segmentation approach could help archives to understand the different categories of people they serve or can serve and provide relevant public programming projects. Market segmentation can be described as “a process of splitting customers into different groups or segments within which customers with similar characteristics have similar needs…this offers a better understanding of customers and their needs…and more effective targeting of resources” (Yeo 2005:27). He provides an example of demographic segmentation that groups people according to geography and location, age and sex. This information can be drawn from national census reports.

Hallam-Smith (2003) provides an example from the National Archives of the United Kingdom, which has followed the market segmentation model. This has allowed them to group their users into two main groups and design services and marketing programmes that are appropriate for them. The first group is that of family historians, which includes genealogists, personal interest researchers, academic and educational researchers. The general public is categorised in the second group as leisure historians with an interest in history.
Determining user needs requires archivists to interrogate the users of the service using a variety of means. Duff et al. (2008) argue that a lot of registration information is collected by archivists, but not all of it is fully utilised to comprehend users of the service. Battley and Wright (2012:130) propose that archives ask the following questions when trying to connect or reconnect more users to their holdings:

**Current users:** Who are they? How satisfied are they with our services?

**Potential users:** Why are they not here? How could we help them? How does the way we describe and promote our archives and services bias the possible views of our holdings and their potential use?

Condous (1983:407) also proposes a framework of questions that can enable non-profit information providers such as public libraries and public archives to identify their users and design appropriate marketing programmes. These are:

- What important trends are affecting the information industry?
- What is the (archive's) primary market?
- What are the major market segments in the information industry?
- How much awareness, knowledge, interest and desire is there in each market segment concerning the (archives)?
- How do our public see us (archives) and our competitors?
- How do potential users learn about our (archives) and make decisions to make use of our services?
• How satisfied are our current users?

Condous (1983) is of the opinion that answering these questions will enable information providers such as public archives to identify their frequent or constant users of the service and potential users as well, thereafter directing appropriate marketing programmes for each group.

Ngulube and Tafor (2006:73) highlight the need for user studies in the ESARBICA public archives, indicating that this will enable the public archives to determine whether the number of researchers is increasing or if these archives are serving the same clientele now as before.

2.8.2 Evaluation of archival services

Maher (1986:25) indicates the importance of determining the effectiveness of archival services. In his opinion this can only be achieved by beginning a dialogue with the users to find out how they view the service, their challenges with accessing the holdings and to learn more about how they seek information. Conway (1986:396) also reiterates that evaluation of services provides the archives with a better opportunity to “develop a greater balance between archival materials and those who use them”.

Duff et al. (2008) also argue that archival institutions do not take evaluation seriously, yet it is the best way to determine whether they are offering a competent service to their community of users. Duff et al. (2008:145) therefore explain that “evaluation is essential
to enable archivists to design services and systems that meet user needs and preferred ways of seeking information”.

As much as public programming ventures draw more users to the archival institutions, it is critical that the service and product that they find is of a certain standard that the archival institution can be proud of. Since the archival users are the key clients, they are the most suitable to evaluate the service. Kotler and Lee (2007:1108) explain that it is important to be aware of “customer satisfaction levels of current offerings and determine what product improvements would increase satisfaction and product performance”. The product in this case would be the archival holdings and the services offered. Senturk (2012: 67) likewise explains that “providing and improving service quality is important for archival institutions as service companies and user satisfaction is a strategic element to improve service quality in archival institutions”.

After acknowledging the importance of the user and conducting user studies, the next section in this literature review tackles the use of technology in the implementation of public programming projects.

**2.9 The use of technology in promoting access to public archives**

Information communication technologies (ICTs) have had an impact on the different functions of archival management (Roberts 2008:329). Roberts (2008) explains that digital technology has enabled archival institutions to prepare documentation and finding
aids, offer reference services, develop collection management systems, distribute and publish information and digitise records. He explains that the digitisation of records has made it possible to “preserve the original record, make records more accessible and it serves as a means of security in the event of loss”.

Garaba (2010) similarly to Roberts (2008) explains that the proliferation of ICTs has had a huge impact on how information can be accessed. Garaba (2010) argues that though ICTs have made information more accessible, one still needs to focus on other challenges such as the digital divide that still hampers this development, particularly in Africa. Jimerson (1989) comments on the impact ICTs have had on archival practices, particularly that these technologies have eased seeking and retrieval processes. Jimerson (1989) explains that archival institutions of the 21st century compete with other information services such as cultural organisations, libraries and museums. In his article, it is pointed out that these other information services are striving to adapt their services with rapid changes such as technological advancements to meet their customers’ needs. As a result there has been an increased use of their services as compared to archival institutions. He therefore questions whether archives are moving fast enough. Could these approaches be used to improve public programming activities? To answer this, he advises archives to “enter into the information mainstream, to mould it to our needs, and to be a part of the contemporary process instead of just a passive custodian of the past”.

97
Likewise Crymble (2010: 127) argues that times have changed and more people seek information online. Therefore it has become a necessity for archivists to find out how their users and potential users seek information online. This should help them to determine which online tools are most suitable (and affordable) to disseminate information to society. This can also be achieved by learning from the experience of others in the information fraternity.

2.9.1 The World Wide Web (WWW)

The WWW has enabled archival institutions to let more people know who they are, the reason for their existence and improve the accessibility of their resources. Establishing presence on the WWW has also assisted archivists to provide a service at a reduced cost for both clients and institutions (Roberts 2008). Theimer (2011) narrates that many archival institutions worldwide make use of websites to publish their information online, and this made a significant difference in terms of putting these organisations on the map. For example, the National Archives and Records Service of South Africa (NARSSA) use their website to inform the public of their services. This section clearly outlines: how to use the archives, reading room rules, how to contact the National Archives and Records Service, genealogical research and a list of publications for sale (NARSSA n.d.).

Though a positive move, websites are known to be developed on Web 1.0 platform that offers little room for interaction. This led to the development of Web 2.0 features that allowed more interactivity (Theimer 2011:338).
2.9.2 Web 2.0 and public programming

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD: 3) defines Web 2.0 as an “internet –based philosophy of mutually maximising collective intelligence and added value for each participant by formalised and dynamic information sharing and creation”.

Garaba (2012:25) further elaborates that Web 2.0 is:

…a term used to refer to changes in the way that WWW technology is used; in order to enhance creativity, information sharing and functionality in a web based environment. Computer tools created to support Web 2.0 information sharing include social networking sites, wikis, blogs, social bookmarking sites, and syndication and notification services.

The features described by Garaba (2012) show that Web 2.0 technologies are designed with the user in mind; moreover they encourage a lot more interaction as compared to Web 1.0 features of the WWW. Theimer (2011) describes that Web 1.0 brought archives out of the basement, while Web 2.0 enabled users and archivists to get to know each other better. The Web 2.0 technologies are a key feature of the ‘identity paradigm’ as described by Cook (2013) that is characterised by increased societal engagement. Daines and Nimer (2009) state that:

…Archivists can use Web 2.0 to tell users about collections, how better they help us to understand a topic, lectures or events to be hosted, how best to use materials and why they need to be handled with care. They can be matters of professional importance or local issues.
The SAA (2009) describes Web 2.0 technologies as access enablers that all archival institutions should take advantage of. Table 2.1 exhibits the most common Web 2.0 technologies.
Table 2.1: Common Web 2.0 tools as described by SAA (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Web 2.0 Technologies</th>
<th>Capabilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blogs</td>
<td>Websites designed to allow users to easily share content on the web. They are arranged in reverse chronological order and allow visitors to interact with content on various postings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mashups</td>
<td>Web applications that aggregate data from different websites, recombining it to provide new interfaces.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo sharing sites</td>
<td>These sites allow users to upload and distribute digital images in a shared environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podcasts and downloadable video</td>
<td>A podcast is a digital recording of audio or video content which is distributed over the internet by a syndicated download to portable media players and personal computers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Really Simple Syndication (RSS)</td>
<td>These are web feeds that include a suite of Extensible Mark-up Language (XML) standards that allow content providers to push their content to their users as syndicated or RSS feeds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Newsreaders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social networking sites</td>
<td>A social network service enables the creation of online communities of individuals who share common interests or activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wikis</td>
<td>Collaborative websites that are designed to allow users to add or modify content.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Though these tools provide a range of advantages, archival institutions are advised that it is not necessary to make use of all these tools. Rather plan carefully, determining user needs, capabilities and available resources (Garaba 2012; Theimer 2011; Crymble 2010).
If planned and implemented effectively, Leonard (2009) asserts that these technologies offer archival institutions a cheaper option of reaching a wider audience.

Essays in Theimer (2011) provide numerous case studies on how different Web 2.0 tools are used by archival institutions to promote access to their holdings. A few are listed below:

- The use of a processing blog at the University of North Carolina to manage the expectations of users of a special photographic collection (Fletcher 2011).
- Posting of videos on You Tube at Iowa University, enabling access to a collection that was not easily accessible in the past (Christian and Zanish-Belcher 2011).
- The creation of virtual archives in Second Life at Stanford University. This has enabled this institution to teach archival literacy and facilitate browsing on a platform that is seen as more appealing to their student body (Taormina 2011).
- Facebook has been utilised at the University of Alabama to raise awareness among their student body (Lacher-Feldman 2011).
- Interaction among Jewish women with particular interests, who use the Jewish women’s archive, became more feasible with the use of Twitter. This was seen as positive way of reaching out to a specific audience (Medina-Smith 2011).

These accounts outline the planning, implementation and challenges encountered when embarking on the use of these different Web 2.0 tools. Nevertheless, increased
interaction, search visits and uses of the holdings are reported as the benefits of using Web 2.0 tools in the archives.

Jimerson (2011) reminds archivists not to get carried away and forget that these technologies are tools and not goals. In his opinion, archivists should take note of the benefits and limitations and determine which tool will work most favourably in promoting access to the archives. Archivists should also consider the option of using both traditional methods and technology to facilitate access to their holdings. The benefits of applying Web 2.0 tools in promoting access include offering people new ways to connect, access and interact with the archives’ holdings. However, it is critical to take note of limitations such as the digital divide, in case such initiatives disregard the fate of the underclass, sub literate and minorities. Jimerson (2011:315) also lists the following as limitations of using Web 2.0 tools:

- Finding a balance between the archivist gatekeeper and the user who wants direct accessibility and control of what they see, when and how.
- The false notion that everything is available on the web. The quest for answers may require one going beyond the web, i.e. visiting the archive.
- Technological obsolescence - rapid changes render software, equipment and skills useless within a short period of time.
- Preservation of digitised information can be tricky due to the obsolescence of technologies.
- Privacy concerns
The use of Web 2.0 tools in the marketing of archives is a relatively new field of interest; further research will shed more light on how to effectively use these tools to promote access to archival holdings (Fereiro 2011).

2.9.3 The use of Web 2.0 tools for public programming initiatives within ESARBICA

In a study by Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu (2013) on the promotion of documentary heritage by the National Archives of Tanzania, South Africa and Botswana (members of ESARBICA), findings revealed that none of these countries made use of Web 2.0 tools to promote their holdings. Limitations such as the digital divide are alluded to in this instance, but it is important to take note that mobile technology has made web access more affordable in developing countries (Jimerson 2011). Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011) also conducted a similar study in Pretoria, South Africa, and noted that the national archives did not make use of social networking tools to market the archives. Likewise as in Fereiro’s (2011) observation, Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011) agree on the fact that more research should be done on the utilisation of Web 2.0 tools in the archives.

ESARBICA as an organisation has its own Facebook page, but out of all the member states of ESARBICA it is only the Kenya National Archives and Documentation Service that had a Facebook page. However, there is very little interaction that takes place between this institution and its users on this site (KNADS 2014).
The use of technology is not the only approach that can be used to enhance public programming; collaboration with other institutions or individuals can also play a positive role in raising awareness about archives. The next section delves into how collaboration can fulfil this need.

2.10 Collaboration as an enabling factor in organising public programming activities

Marcum (2014) points out that the fear of being rendered irrelevant and the competition for public attention as some of the reasons information providers such as archival institutions embark on public awareness campaigns. Some of the most common competitors in the information fraternity for public attention are libraries, archives and museums. In the recent past collaboration amongst these institutions has been encouraged for the mutual benefit of these institutions and the communities they serve (VanderBerg 2012; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008 and Marcum 2014). Robinson (2012:416) argues that “libraries, archives and museums are certainly aligned in the basic function of accumulation and preservation of information, much (but not all) concerns the past”.

Norman (2013:225) describes collaboration as “the act of working with others in a joint project”. Yates (1986) and Hedlin (2011) argue that archives can benefit from working with organisations with similar interests. Weir (1991) and Nesmith (2010) allude to the fact that public archives function within a competitive information fraternity. In view of this Hedlin (2011) states that it is better to collaborate rather than compete for the interest of
the same clientele. Marcum (2014) further argues that clientele interest is not the only worry for these institutions but stretched budgets as well.

Advocating for joint projects that will ensure optimum use of limited funding could have more impact on decision makers governing information institutions. Barret, Cannon and O'Hare (2009:14) are of the opinion that libraries and archives should work together and develop integrative outreach programmes that will support a wider audience such as children. Partnerships between local or community organisations and the archives are also encouraged, the reasons being that this could lead to extra funding, records donations and increased usage.

Focusing on libraries, archives and museums, Yarrow, Clubb and Draper (2008:3) describe that such collaboration could benefit these three types of institutions by:

- Strengthening their public standing
- Improving their services and programmes
- Better meeting the needs of larger and more diverse cross sections of users
- Supporting lifelong learning or community development
- Optimising services provided
- Broadening the customer base in the community
- Enabling universal access to community resources

VanderBerg (2012) reports how ICTs have enabled libraries, archives and museums to develop integrated networks that allow simultaneous searching in all three institutions. He
narrates the example of the BAM network in Germany that facilitates integrated access. As a result libraries, archives and museums in this country have improved their visibility in the digital environment. Yarrow, Clubb and Draper (2008) report on a similar common portal called NOKS in Denmark.

The literature does not portray integrated access networks as the only means of collaboration for these institutions. Yarrow, Clubb and Draper (2008:3-7) were commissioned by the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA) in 2005 to find out how these public institutions are collaborating all over the world. Their findings indicated that these institutions are collaborating in three common ways:

a) Collaborative programming: Community heritage programmes and sustainability themed programmes. For example, museums and archives set up exhibits in local libraries, who in turn offer story hours, lectures and workshops related to the exhibits. Other programmes include reaching out to the underprivileged by taking such exhibits to communities using the library mobile bus.

b) Collaborative electronic resources: this is done through the use of common digitisation projects and common web portals. The development of integrated networks such as BAM from Germany and NOKS in Denmark. An example of the Kimberley Africana Library in South Africa is also mentioned. This institution collaborates with Kimberley Public Library, the McGregor Museums and De Beers Archives to offer historical information on the area.
c) Joint use or integrated facilities: This relates to co-located facilities with individual services maintained or sharing of specific projects or departments.

Marcum (2014) contends that though collaboration has its benefits it should not be taken lightly. First it should be acknowledged that though these institutions serve as information providers, they do so in different ways. For instance the organisation of information in libraries is not the same as in archives and museums. Other challenges may include: lack of commitment from participating institutions, unclear and misunderstood communication, and lack of capacity, together with internal and external resistance.

Yarrow, Clubb and Draper (2008) do acknowledge that, as in any initiative, there will be challenges. Therefore they advise institutions to pre-plan, plan, implement, and evaluate such initiatives very carefully. For the betterment of the profession they also encourage institutions to share their experiences at conferences, in newsletters or publishing articles as there is limited information on such experiences. According to Marcum (2014) successful collaborations have helped these institutions to save money, enlarge their collections, simplify access, have greater outreach, increase their visibility and change public perceptions. These are some of the intended outcomes of archival public programming projects.
2.10.1 Collaboration in public programming ventures in the ESARBICA region

There was limited information in this regard in the literature. This is also reflected in a study by Ngulube and Sibanda (2006) who acknowledge that collaboration among information providers had become a serious trend at that time internationally; however, there seemed to be little information on what was happening in the ESARBICA national archives. A study by Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu (2013:121) sought to find out whether the national archives of Tanzania, South Africa and Botswana (ESARBICA members) collaborated with any other institutions in their pursuit to promote documentary heritage. Their findings revealed that legislation in South Africa mandated the National Heritage Council and the National Archives and Records Service of South Africa to work together to promote heritage.

Moreover, it was noted that television stations and institutions of higher learning did collaborate with their respective public archives. However, the respondents of this study indicated that more could be done with regard to collaboration to help public archives to attain better results in their quest to collect, preserve and facilitate access to records.

Mnjama (2005:469) has also called for greater collaboration to enable national archives within ESARBICA to become relevant within their societies. This researcher distinctly states that information professionals such as librarians and computer scientists should collaborate in areas regarding information collection, processing, storage and dissemination. Marcum (2014) states that perhaps this is not occurring at a larger scale because archivists, librarians and museum curators were not encouraged to do so in the different training or education systems they have been a part of. Consequently, she
argues that this should be included in curricula to boost creativity and innovation in this regard. Seemingly by working together with other institutions, national archives can benefit in terms of increasing their visibility, raising awareness about their holdings and encouraging more people to engage with archives. The following section looks into how archival skills and knowledge can also contribute to effective public programming initiatives.

2.11 The relevance of archivists’ knowledge and skills in planning and executing public programming activities

A competent service requires relevant knowledge and appropriate skills. This applies to any archivist that strives to conduct public programming projects. Weir (2004:74) advises that any archival institution embarking on any outreach initiative should do an audit of staff skills to determine if they have the right expertise to execute such programmes. He refers to skills such as writing press releases and giving presentations as examples. Once these gaps are identified, the archival institution can facilitate training to ensure that the quality of programmes provided is not compromised.

Identifying training gaps is not a new concept; Edwards and Olawande (2001) also did a study for the Society of Archivists in 2001, with the aim of identifying training gaps. Their findings indicated that outreach and how to handle the public image of archives as some of the key areas that required attention. Nesmith (2007:2) similarly argues the fact the archivists function in a changing environment; this calls for knowledge and relevant skills that will help them adapt or evolve in these changing circumstances. Archivists striving to
remain relevant to their societies can therefore not ignore the environments they function in. The next section provides an overview of this changing archival environment.

2.11.1 Different roles played by archivists in the changing information landscape

As stated earlier Nesmith (2007:2) explains that archivists function in a dynamic environment; therefore, the type of education and training provided for these professionals should empower them to adapt to these changes. He identifies two key features: “the increase in volume, variety and complexity of institutional and personal documentation… secondly, greater public awareness of the central and powerful role of records in society”. Consequently, Nesmith (2007:12) argues:

Archival education should have archival, historical, conceptual, collegial and research emphases. This will enable archivists to research and tackle changes that happen in the changing archival environment.

Cook (2013) explains the different paradigms in which archivists have found themselves, starting from 1798, in an interesting manner. Table 2.2 provides a summary of these four paradigms.
Table 2.2: The four paradigms of the archival changing environment  
(Cook 2013:107-116)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paradigm</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Role of archivists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;- Evidence</td>
<td>1798-1930s</td>
<td>This paradigm was centred on keeping records as evidence. They kept everything therefore focusing on arrangement and description.</td>
<td>The professional impartial custodian of the records who guards records as a juridical legacy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;- Memory</td>
<td>1930-1970s</td>
<td>The volume of information increased after two world wars and the Great Depression. Therefore the concept of keeping all records was no longer viable. Appraisal became a defining characteristic of this paradigm. Selection of records was memory-focused.</td>
<td>Archivists became active selectors of what should be kept for posterity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;- Identity</td>
<td>1980s</td>
<td>Archivists are increasingly recognised as professionals during this paradigm as a result of archives being acknowledged as a societal resource. Records help societies to shape their identities.</td>
<td>Archivists as mediators leading society to find its identity through shared memories grounded in evidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; – Community participatory archiving</td>
<td>On the horizon (not fully formed)</td>
<td>The proliferation of ICTs has led to everyone keeping records, calling for archival institutions to empower society with relevant skills on how to participate in the act of record keeping for posterity and sharing records.</td>
<td>Archivists move a step forward from encouraging societal engagement to becoming community facilitators.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seemingly each paradigm required archivists to equip themselves with different skills and knowledge. This study corresponds with the third paradigm that encourages more societal engagement. The following section explores what the literature reveals about the type of education and training required to plan and implement public programming strategies.
2.11.2 Public programming as part of archival education and training for archivists

It is important to note that there is a difference between education and training. Theron (1998:111) distinguishes between the two concepts as follows:

Education is often regarded as the opposite of training…with education more likely to transfer concepts, intellectual abilities and behaviour based on acquired insight with training being closer to coaching and drilling. During training the emphasis is on the technique rather than the ‘why’ of the task.

The Society of American Archivists - SAA (2013) similarly states that:

Graduate education, in contrast to training, is both academic and professional…ultimately archival education creates an intellectual framework that enables students to understand the ideas on which their profession is founded. In contrast, archival training focuses on building skills or acquiring practical knowledge according to a replicable pattern or on developing a specialisation in certain areas.

Nesmith (2007:12) explains that key areas that form this intellectual framework (SAA 2013) include archival, historical, conceptual, collegial and research emphasis, but changing environments and other factors lead to the need for training programmes to ensure a relevant service at archival institutions (Edwards and Olawande 2001; Bastian and Yakel 2006).

Since archival education has been identified as the foundation for the profession (Nesmith 2007; SAA 2013) literature was consulted to determine whether there is a core archival
curriculum followed by institutions. The ‘core’ is described by Kigongo-Bukenya (1993:359) as “part of the curriculum that must be taken by all archivists regardless of their specialisation”. In addition to this, the aim was also to find out whether public programming is included as a core concept of what every archivist should know. A search on the SAA (2013) website indicated that archivists should receive an education that addresses all archival functions, and their proposed core curriculum includes:

- The nature of records and archives
- Appraisal and acquisition
- Arrangement and description
- Reference and access
- Outreach and advocacy
- Management and administration
- Records and information management
- Digital records and access
- Preservation

The Australian Society of Archivists - ASA (2013), which serves as an accreditation body for archival programmes, recommends a similar programme framework as the SAA. However, their framework does not include outreach and advocacy. Michetti (2013) provides an overview of the European archival education framework. The European framework calls for archival education to fulfil three important missions that include (i) managing archives, (ii) communicating archives and (iii) running an archival service. To achieve this, archival education should empower professionals to fulfil the following
functions: records management, protection, appraisal and disposition, arrangement and
description, preservation, appraisal of information systems and applications, user
services, promotion, training and education, research, management and finally
administration.

Moreover, Anderson, Bastian and Flinn (2013) in their study on ‘mapping international
core curricula’ for archivists investigated three programmes from universities in the United
States of America, the United Kingdom and Sweden. Their findings indicated that archival
access and use form part of the core curriculum. Referring back to Cook’s (2013)
description of the changing archival paradigms, these findings prove that archivists do
require certain skills to improve societal engagement.

This has not always been the case. Freeman (1991:88) argued that for a long time
archival education and training has been ‘self-serving’ rather than ‘client-serving’, with
more emphasis on standardised skills such as arrangement, description and how to
handle records in different formats. Distressed by this fact, she became a proponent for
public programming initiatives, appealing to the profession to conduct more training on
user studies, the different uses of records, the reference process and descriptive
techniques (creativity and innovation) with the aim of drawing more users to the archives.

Similarly Eastwood (1997) argues that archival education and training at that time did not
sufficiently reflect a public service ethos. He recommends archivists to compare
themselves with librarians, who have taken the matter of public service more seriously. In his opinion, a public service ethos will help archivists understand that their main goal is to make archival holdings accessible. Thereafter this could result into a determination to "develop and implement programmes that will promote greater appreciation and use of the archives" (Eastwood 1997:29).

Tibbo (2006:233) highlights the need to restructure archival education and develop programmes that will help archivists function in an environment characterised by rapid development in ICTs. On the other hand, Wamukoya (2013) argues that African archives are not taking full advantage of ICTs, implying that many archivists need to embrace this change and upgrade their ICT skills where necessary. The core curricula outlined by the SAA (2013), ASA (2013) and Michetti (2013) all include features related to digital media, electronic records and so forth. Digital natives are increasing in number; more people prefer to search for information online or via news networks and social media. Archivists need to learn how to tap into these technologies and use them to their advantage to increase accessibility of archives (Nesmith 2010).

As much as archival education and training is a crucial part of the archivists' careers, the SAA (2013) contends that it is not possible for any institution to teach or train archivists in everything they need to know so as to offer an effective and efficient archival service. Thomassen (2005) then advises archival education institutions to “train archivists to learn things, more than they will need to train them to do things”. Lifelong learning is a critical skill that will help the archivist to remain relevant. This links to the need to develop
archivists who can do research to tackle change and other challenges in their careers (SAA 2013).

2.11.3 Public programming as part of archival education and training for archivists in the ESARBICA region

Ngulube and Tafor (2006:63) contend that the skills and knowledge of archivists affect the services they provide. Their study which was conducted among the public archives of ESARBICA indicated that few staff had the appropriate qualifications and training to conduct archival services. Outreach ranked as one of the important areas that required additional training. As a result of this, they point out that ESARBICA should do more with regard to facilitating and implementing relevant training on public programming within this region.

Section 2.11.2 of this literature review shows different core curricula from some countries that include archival use and access as part of their archival education (SAA 2013; ASA 2013; Michetti 2013; Anderson, Bastian and Flinn 2013). Finding similar information from archival associations in ESARBICA proved problematic. Katuu (2013) argues that seemingly this is an area of research that has been under studied, leading to little or no information on core archival curricula in Africa. Kigongo-Bukenya (1993:359) in 1993 described that an archival education in Africa should shape archivists to be “sensitive to users’ needs and a strong tradition of service”.

117
Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at (2003) point out that inadequate skills, high turnover of qualified staff and few archival training schools as obstacles to the use of archival holdings. Katuu (2009) however states that the number of archival education institutions has increased in Africa between the 1990s and the 2000s. Nonetheless, Katuu (2009) is in agreement that with other archival scholars (Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003 and Mnjama 2005) that archival training and education needs to adapt to the changing information landscape to improve the competency of archivists.

Okello-Obura (2009) describes a situation in Uganda where many records and archives managers after professional degrees still fail to carry out particular duties. As a result, he puts emphasis on the need for further training after completion of formal programmes. This is similar to Ngulube and Tafor’s (2006) findings that indicated that personnel in archives required training on outreach. According to Khayundi (2013) the archivists that we need in sub-Saharan Africa are professionals who are proactive; this will include developing public programming strategies that will make records and archives more visible. This kind of paradigm shift will require not just the right zeal, but appropriate skills and training.

After discussing the seven factors that influence public programming from different perspectives, the next section highlights other research or studies that had a bearing on how this study was conducted.
2.12 Related studies on public programming

Referral to related studies in research helps to avoid duplication and establish which theories, main research methods and research techniques have been utilised by other researchers interested in the same phenomena (Randolph 2009). The intention was to learn and determine an appropriate research strategy for this study. The related studies referred to in this literature review are categorised geographically, as outlined in the literature review map provided in the beginning of this chapter.

2.12.1 Worldwide Studies

The studies under this section were categorised as research that was conducted outside the continent of Africa.

Enns (1993:3) claims that archival work consists of three basic aspects, to be exact ‘acquiring, conserving and providing access’. This concurs with the ICA’s (2012) principles of access to archives. Providing access incorporates public programming activities; according to the following researchers this is an area where most archival institutions are still found wanting.

According to Gregor (2001) in her study on public programming in Canada, public programming has not always been considered as a core archival function, and as a result for a while most archival institutions have been more concerned with acquiring and facilitating the arrangement and description of records. Bance (2012) also from Canada,
in agreement with Gregor (2001), explains that public programming only became prominent after the 20th century; this postmodernism period saw archivists reconsidering the role of records in society leading archival institutions to focus on how to facilitate access to these records.

Richards (2009) whose focus was on community archives in Manitoba, Canada, contends that archival institutions are playing a passive role in society, and therefore many government organs consider them as irrelevant. If ever archives are to change this, more societal engagement is required. Similarly Morgan (2010) in her study on marketing institutional archives from the United Kingdom argues that for archives to be taken seriously they will be required to demonstrate their relevance to the clients they serve.

Hagedorn (2011) in her thesis entitled *Archival education and outreach*...in the United States of America purported that archivists are not doing enough to educate the public and therefore argues that a paradigm shift is required. Koester (2011) who advocates for starting archival literacy at an early age in the United States of America echoes Hagedorn’s (2011) sentiments claiming that traditional outreach methods are inadequate to produce an archival literate society. Therefore Koester (2011) advocates for “catching them young” - meaning that an early start at school will result in archival literate citizens that other traditional outreach methods have failed to produce. In planning such programmes she advises archives to focus on the strength of the institution, cooperation between the archival institutions and education authorities, producing an affordable product and critical evaluation (Koester 2011:40).
Lawrie (2012) on the other hand focuses on a different category of users - the “Born Digitals” - arguing that they are a misunderstood group in society. Archives have failed to address their needs and even tapping into their potential in the preservation and dissemination of information.

Mockford (2013) who speaks from an angle of academic public programming in Canada states that increasing archival visibility and use will only happen if archivists make archival records more useful, while Thorman (2012) and Sinclair (2012) from the United States of America argue this will only happen if archivists embrace Web 2.0 technologies to promote their holdings.

Collaboration between libraries, archives and museums is purported by Froese-Stoddard (2014) as one way to strengthen the position of archives in society. She reports that such efforts have enabled these institutions to share scarce resources and reach more people. One of the most discouraging factors in such initiatives is the fact that these professions are very different; however, she reports on various projects that have succeeded in focusing on the strengths of each profession.

All of these studies suggest that archival institutions from these various countries could do more with regard to public programming projects to increase societal engagement.
They recommend different approaches from education opportunities, lobbying, collaboration and the use of Web 2.0 technologies to overcome this challenge. These studies and the period in which they were conducted prove that there is more to explore, learn and implement in terms of public programming. Moreover, this substantiates the interest to conduct research on public programming from the ESARBICA perspective.

2.12.2 Local studies
The studies in this section were categorised as studies that were conducted within the African continent.

2.12.2.1 West African studies
Maidabino (2010) investigated the use of archival records in the public archives of the North Western states of Nigeria and discovered that none of the public archives had public relations or publicity services. This researcher found this fact very worrying as such functions enable the public to understand how archives fit in to their daily lives. Lack of financial support was mentioned as the reason behind the lack of publicity programmes. This is a reality most public archives face; therefore public archives are advised to be creative and innovative by incorporating publicity functions regardless of their limited budgets.
In Ghana, Borteye and Maaseg (2012) conducted a case study focusing on users of the archives. Their findings reveal that archivists hardly use administrative statistics produced as a result of ‘use’ of the archives for decision making. In their opinion:

…a greater understanding of users and use would also inform and focus public programming activities that could be the core of a new, more synergetic relationship between archival functions (Borteye and Maaseg 2012:46).

Records are kept for the users; therefore these researchers advise archivists to pay more attention to use patterns and the users. Such information should inform the institution on who their users are, what they need and how services can effectively and efficiently be implemented to achieve a high level of customer or user satisfaction. Like Maidabino (2010) in Nigeria, Borteye and Maaseg (2012) also argue that more funds are required to sensitize the public about public archives in society.

Akussah (2011) based in Ghana states as well that most public archives fail to make an impact in West African societies because of ‘changing’ governments. According to Akussah (2011) you will find that the support of archives depends on how ‘information or archival literate’ those in power are. Akussah (2011) states that this can be tackled by developing an information culture across government. Archivists thus should not neglect educating this special group of people who wield so much power over the archival institution itself and the community at large.
Abioye (2009 from Nigeria highlights the fact that access legislation has a huge impact on what is available to the public and how it should be accessed. He argues that the then access legislation in Nigeria should be reviewed because it hindered access to information. This included factors such as: not opening on a Saturday, users submitting notes for scrutiny before leaving the building, forbidding use of archives elsewhere in the building except the search room and students not being allowed to use the facility if they lack a letter of recommendation from their professors.

Legislation should be in place to promote access to information and not the opposite. Consequently Abioye (2009) states that the legislation in Nigeria should be reviewed to reflect the characteristics of the information society in which we find ourselves.

The next section explores studies done within the ESARBICA region.

2.12.2.2 East and southern African studies

According to the literature (Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011) there is consensus that records are important to society, particularly societies that fall within ESARBICA. However, it is up to the public archival institutions within ESARBICA to communicate this fact to the public, with the aim of facilitating access to these important records. Ngulube and Tafor (2006:73) report public programming as a challenging task for public archival institutions in the ESARBICA region. They argue that archivists within these institutions are more concerned with collection management and preservation rather than providing reference services. This is in consensus with Ngulube’s findings (1999:24) where he articulates that “for users to be aware and utilise the
information resources (within archival institutions), and thus maximise the return on investment, marketing strategies must be adopted”.

In the ESARBICA region there have been a few studies that have examined the marketing of archives or public programming from a holistic view or to a certain extent (Ngulube 1999; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Kamatula 2011; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012; Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013; Simbawachi 2013). Seemingly there is indication that public programming, marketing or outreach does take place to a certain extent in the national archives of the ESARBICA member states, but very little is said on the availability of public programming policies and plans, user studies and evaluation of these practises.

Moreover, all of the studies emphasize the need for further research to start or boost public programming in public archival institutions. Concerns brought about by these investigations are listed below:

- *Ngulube (1999)* - This region-wide study indicated that only one core member of ESARBICA seemed to have a marketing strategy and budget. Lack of comprehensive user studies in the region hindered public archives to address their users’ needs effectively. Furthermore this study also established that the utilisation of the archival information and products from the ESARBICA public archives was low. This study calls for prioritising marketing strategies and budgets in ESARBICA.
• **Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at (2003)** - These researchers conducted a review of literature to determine obstacles that needed to be dealt with to improve access to the records. Their findings identified professional and technical problems such as lack of skills, inadequate staff, lack of adequate archival training schools, out-dated legislation, and non-utilisation of information technology as reasons for the inability to access archival holdings. One of their recommendations includes the need to market archives. In their opinion, marketing the archives involves: analysing communities served, identifying target groups, designing and promoting appropriate programmes and managing this process effectively and efficiently.

• **Ngulube and Tafor (2006)** - This study investigated the management of public records and archives in the member countries of ESARBICA. Their findings allude to the fact that most of the archives do not market their holdings sufficiently. Furthermore, they argue that any countermeasures in this regard should also consist of user studies that will determine user needs and thereafter this could result in appropriate marketing strategies.

• **Hlophe and Wamukoya (2007)** – These researchers argue that the knowledge and skills of archivists on how to promote access to archival resources influences the utilisation of archival resources. In their investigation at the Swaziland National Archives, they discovered that low utilisation of the resources was caused by lack of skilled personnel. Ngulube, Sibanda and Makoni (2013) echo these findings in their investigation done at Bulawayo Archives in Zimbabwe. In this case it was noted that there were no structures or processes to enable staff to effectively and efficiently promote the archives. In their opinion skilled personnel should be able
to promote access to the archives regardless of the availability of resources such as finance.

- **Murambiwa and Ngulube (2011)** - The ICA’s sentiments on access to records are reiterated by these researchers. They are of the opinion that not much has been done to measure or determine who is using the services and for what reasons. This opinion is to a certain extent similar to that of Borteye and Maaseg (2012) from Ghana. In view of this argument Murambiwa and Ngulube (2011) recommend the development of an index or tool that will assist with the evaluation of archival services. The information generated through this index will help archival institutions to determine how best to improve their services and to market relevant services to their clientele.

- **Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011)** - This investigation highlights the challenge of getting more South Africans to make use of archival resources. They argue that this can only be achieved by the national archives marketing themselves to society. To determine the extent to which the national archives of South Africa had achieved this, these researchers interviewed 120 tertiary students and 100 people from the Pretoria (South Africa) community and officials from the national archives. Their findings pointed out that the National Archives of South Africa had a draft plan for public programming and it did not have adequate resources for their programmes. Ninety-two per cent (92%) of their interviewees indicated that they had never visited the national archives. Concluding that robust public programming should be a priority for the national archives of South Africa. Their recommendations include the need for user studies and advocacy programmes.
• **Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila (2012)** - This study portrays a bleak picture of Zambia with regard to public programming. This is mainly attributed to lack of funding, lack of marketing skills and the absence any strategic marketing plan. They call for the need to market the Zambian archives by using multiple methods, more funding and equipping staff with relevant marketing skills.

• **Simbawachi (2013)** - This researcher argues that the research value of the holdings of the National Archives of Zambia is not communicated effectively, and hence linking the role of this archival institution with initiatives regarding national development remains problematic.

• **Kamatula (2011)** - To describe the public programming scenario in Tanzania, Kamatula (2011) investigated marketing and public programming activities in Tanzania. He outlines that the Records and Archives Management Department of Tanzania’s public programming activities are insufficient and ineffective as they target a small section of the wider Tanzanian community. This study recommends reaching out to a larger audience by not shying away from the use of media and current information technologies.

• **Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu (2013)** - This group of researchers conducted a study that looked into the role of the National Archives of Tanzania, Botswana and South Africa in promoting their documentary national heritage. They discovered that these archives did have holdings of value to the public, but the number of professionals and strategies in place to collect, preserve and facilitate access was inadequate.
These findings, as in the case of other studies from different parts of the world, put emphasis on the need for further investigation into public programming particularly in the ESARBICA region, suggesting that the findings of this study could be of significance to this body of literature.

The following section provides an overview of the key findings that were discovered as part of the exploration process of consulting different literature on this topic.

2.13 Synthesis of the literature review

Key findings in the literature indicate that:

- Though archival legislation is a common feature in most countries, many of them are weak and not updated to accommodate current trends such as promoting access in an online environment (Mnjama 2005; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Matongo, Marwa and Wamukoya 2013; Kabata and Muthee 2013);

- Despite user studies and evaluation being noted as key aspects of archival services, many archives are still found wanting in this regard (Maher 1986; Cook 1997; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Yeo 2005);

- Whereas public programming and advocacy play a pivotal role in archival management; these subject areas do not feature significantly as part of the core archival curricula in many institutions that offer archival education (Freeman 1991; Kigongo-Bukenya 1993; Tibbo 2006; Nesmith 2007). In addition, there is a need for archival education and training with a strong public ethos to encourage more

- While emerging technologies such as Web 2.0 tools can be used in various ways to create interest in the archives, they still are a fairly new concept that requires further research (Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Jimerson 2011; Ferreiro 2011).

- In as much as collaboration is considered as a way to overcome challenges such as budget cuts, lack of expertise, staff and space shortages in the promotion of information institutions such as archival institutions, not much is reported in this regard from the ESARBICA region (Mnjama 2005; Ngulube and Sibanda 2006; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008 and Marcum 2014).

2.14 Summary of the chapter

This chapter provides a discussion of the literature in the area of public programming as a means of facilitating access to archival holdings. This involved providing a historical overview on how access to records has changed over time. It started from a perspective where access was prohibited to a point where more societal engagement with the archives is encouraged through a variety of factors. A literature review map was provided to show how the theoretical framework, objectives of the study or factors, the literature (archival and otherwise) and related studies are linked together. Consequently public programming is purported as a means to encourage society to interact more actively with archival holdings.
Since this study focused on public programming initiatives within the ESARBICA region, the literature available on this topic from ESARBICA and elsewhere was reviewed and presented. It would seem that there is interest in the topic with published articles and theses from various countries. (Ngulube 1999; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Garaba 2010; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Kamatula 2011; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012; Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013 and Simbawachi 2013). The review of related worldwide and local studies indicates that public programming as a means of promoting access to the archives is a matter of concern worldwide. This discovery, therefore, certainly supports the justification and significance of this study, in that there is still more that we need to learn and share to ensure optimal societal engagement with the public archives of ESARBICA.
 CHAPTER THREE
 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter provides information on the research methods used in this study. Babbie (2011:482) argues that “a research report containing interesting findings and conclusions will frustrate readers if they cannot determine the methodological design and execution of the study. The worth of all scientific findings depends heavily on the manner in which the data were collected and analysed”. As in all doctoral studies, it is pertinent to describe and explain how the findings and conclusion for this study were reached (Garaba 2010; Sibanda 2011).

The information to answer the major research questions was obtained through the application of the survey research method which is underpinned by positivism. The research philosophy and methodology that guided this study are discussed in sections 3.1 and 3.2 of this chapter.

Since the objectives and research questions of this study were described in Chapter One, this chapter describes the research paradigm, methodology and procedures applied to get the answers for the research questions. Therefore the purpose of this chapter is to:

a) describe the research paradigm and methodology this study subscribes to;

b) expound on the research methods adopted for this study;
c) explain how the research instruments were developed and used to collect the data required for this particular study; and
d) discuss the data analysis procedures that enabled the conversion of the collected data into information that was used to determine the findings of this study.

3.1 Research paradigms

Bryman (2012:714) defines a research paradigm as:

A term deriving from the history of science, where it was used to describe a cluster of beliefs and dictates that for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done, and how results should be interpreted.

Research paradigms are also referred to as assumptions (Miller and Brewer 2003), worldviews or beliefs (Creswell 2009), and approaches (Neuman 2014). Babbie (2011:31) provides a more detailed explanation as he argues that a paradigm is “…a model or framework for observation and understanding which shapes both what we see and how we understand it”. While Neuman (2014:96) states that a “paradigm is a general organising framework for theory and research that includes basic assumptions, key issues, models of quality research, and methods for seeking answers”. Therefore a paradigm serves as the foundation of any research practice and, as in the building of any structure, if the foundation is not done properly the whole structure or study in this instance is doomed. It is therefore pertinent for every researcher to find out which paradigm will be most appropriate in obtaining the correct answers for the established research questions.
Creswell (2009:5) contends that many researchers do not always clearly state which particular paradigm guided their research. Babbie (2011) concurs with Creswell (2009) and argues strongly against this non-disclosure because the research paradigm influences the whole research plan. Reasons for non-disclosure could be a lack of understanding, which could later on lead to the findings being challenged. Babbie (2011) therefore advocates for a better understanding of research paradigms, which will in the end allow researchers to justify their choice of research design. Creswell (2009) elaborates that these worldviews are normally shaped according to different disciplines, and they will lead a researcher to favour certain research methods and avoid others.

### 3.1.1 Key social science research paradigms

Before outlining the particular paradigm this study adhered to, a brief overview of all the alternatives is provided. There three common paradigms are positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism (Babbie 2011; Creswell 2009; Neuman 2014; Williamson 2013). Positivism is acknowledged as the key paradigm that guides quantitative inquiry; it is linked to the natural sciences. According to Neuman (2014:97) positivism focuses on “discovering causal laws, careful empirical observations and value free research”. Cecez-Kecmanovic and Kennan (2013: 121) further explain that:

> Positivist researchers generally aim to answer questions about relationships among well-defined concepts with the purpose of explaining, predicting and controlling phenomena. The main reason for research is to discover regularities and causal laws so that people can explain, predict and control events and processes.
Creswell (2009:7) in short describes positivism as a philosophy that seeks to “identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes”. In the positivist sphere such information can be obtained only through observation and measurement. As a result findings are quantifiable and communicated numerically. Positivism is associated with experimental design, social surveys and questionnaires. These methods are normally used in studies focusing on theory verification, determination, empirical observation and measurement (Creswell 2009:6).

Williamson (2013:7) describes interpretivism as an approach that is linked to naturalistic inquiry. This is the paradigm that guides qualitative inquiry. The main concern of this paradigm is to seek social meaning as experienced by human beings. Creswell (2009:8) argues that the interpretivist researcher seeks to “make sense of or interpret the meanings of others”, while Neuman (2014:104) describes interpretivism as:

The systematic analysis of socially meaningful action through the direct detailed observation of people in natural settings in order to arrive at understandings and interpretations of how people create and maintain their social worlds.

While positivist research focuses on theory verification, interpretivism seeks to generate theory and therefore it is also termed as constructivism (Creswell 2009). This is usually achieved through research methods such as ethnography. Pragmatism is described by Creswell (2009:10) as “the philosophical underpinnings of mixed methods research”. He further explains that pragmatism is:
A worldview based on actions, situations and consequences. It is more problem oriented rather than being philosophically oriented. There is less emphasis on methods and more on the research problem employing all approaches possible to get the solution (Creswell 2009:10).

The term ‘pragmatism’ can be described as doing what works best. As a result Creswell (2009:11) states that “pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis”. In this case the main focus is the research problem and how best to get the solution for this problem. When one paradigm cannot sufficiently attain the desired results, the strengths of the two paradigms are combined. Romm and Ngulube (2015:167) explain that:

Bringing together both quantitative and qualitative research so that the strengths of both approaches are combined leads to a better understanding of the research problem than either alone.

3.1.2 Selected research paradigm for the study
Creswell (2009:10-11) explains that positivism aims to “identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes”. This research strived to establish whether the under-utilisation of public archives was a result of weak public programming initiatives and other factors outlined in the research questions. This study also sought to explain what should be done to improve public programming initiatives in the region. Arguably access to and the use of public archives can improve with the application of appropriate public programming
strategies. Nevertheless, based on the findings in the literature, this study followed the positivist approach. The findings of the study are discussed in detail in Chapter Four.

Referring to the literature, other researchers have used research methods guided by positivism to study public programming and marketing of public archives in the ESARBICA region as a whole, or individual member states (Kamatula 2011; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012). However, as Creswell (2009) and Babbie (2011) have argued, not all of these studies articulate that the research design was guided by positivism.

3.2 Research methodology

According to Miller and Brewer (2003:192):

> Methodology connotes a set of rules and procedures to guide research and against which its claims can be evaluated…methodology is a form of communication. In order to be able to communicate with others, especially one’s peers, one follows certain conventions.

There are two major approaches to research methodology (Bryman 2012; Neuman 2014). This is quantitative and qualitative research. However, Romm and Ngulube (2015) argue that in the past 50 years another approach has become more dominant, and this is the mixed methods approach which is underpinned by the pragmatic paradigm (Creswell 2009; Morse and Niehaus 2009). To grasp the notion of pragmatism, it is necessary to describe these two major approaches that preceded it.
Bryman (2012:35) describes quantitative research as a strategy that sets to quantify the collection and analysis of data. This deductive approach adheres to the natural scientific model which is founded upon positivism.

While the qualitative strategy (Bryman 2012:36) is described as a strategy that emphasises words rather than the quantification in the collection and analysis of data. More or less it rejects the norms of the natural scientific model and prefers the interpretation of individuals regarding their social reality. As a result it is regarded as an inductive approach.

The mixed method strategy is described as a strategy that combines forms of both the quantitative and qualitative strategies. Creswell (2009) as well as Romm and Ngulube (2015) argue that many researchers confuse this strategy with the triangulation of research methods. According to these authors the mixed methods strategy does not just include the combining of research methods only (as this can occur within a single paradigm), but the combination of philosophical views or paradigms too. In Creswell's (2009:4) terms, this involves “the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research”.

As a summary Creswell (2009: 17) provides a table that shows what each of these three approaches entails starting from the worldview it is grounded in and the methods employed.
Table 3.1: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tend to or typically…</th>
<th>Qualitative approaches</th>
<th>Quantitative approaches</th>
<th>Mixed method approaches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Use these philosophical assumptions</td>
<td>• Constructivist/advocacy participatory knowledge claims</td>
<td>• Post-positivist knowledge claims</td>
<td>• Pragmatic knowledge claims</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Employ these strategies of inquiry</td>
<td>• Phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case study, and narrative</td>
<td>• Close ended questions, predetermined approaches, numeric data</td>
<td>• Both open and close ended questions, both emerging and predetermined approaches, and both quantitative and qualitative data analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Use these practises of research as the researcher</td>
<td>• Positions him-or herself, Collects participant meanings, Focuses on a single concept or phenomenon, Brings personal values into the study</td>
<td>• Tests or verifies theories or explanations, Identifies variables to study, Relates variables in questions or hypotheses</td>
<td>• Collects both quantitative and qualitative data, Develops a rationale for mixing, Integrates the data at different</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*
| Studies the context or setting of participants | Validates the accuracy of findings | Makes interpretations of data | Creates an agenda for change or reform | Collaborates with the participants | Uses standards of validity and reliability | Observes and measures information numerically | Uses unbiased approaches | Employs statistical procedures | Presents visual pictures of the procedures in the study | Employs the practises of both qualitative and quantitative research |

(Creswell 2009:17)

### 3.2.1 Research methodology selected for the study

This study followed a quantitative approach, which is broadly described as a theory testing approach. Theory testing implies that the researcher starts off with a theory and through deductive reasoning seeks to identify the relationship between this particular theory and the social reality or research problem that is being investigated (Bryman 2008; De Vaus 2001).

Referring back to the theoretical framework outlined in Chapter Two, the records continuum model is the theory that guided this study. It states that records are acquired, organised, preserved in a unique manner to be used for current and future reference. Facilitating access includes the implementation of public programming strategies, and
therefore a set of objectives and research questions were developed (guided by the theory). Public archives in the ESARBICA region are underutilised as outlined in Chapter One. The literature in Chapter Two indicated that public programming in the ESARBICA region is a concept that has been understudied, yet it plays an important role in facilitating access. In light of all this a quantitative approach that could be used for a descriptive and explanatory study such as this one (Neuman 2014) was selected. Bryman (2012) elaborates that the key concerns of quantitative research are: measurement, causality, generalisation and replication.

3.2.2 Research design
The link between public programming and facilitating access to public archives is the essence of this study. This section provides details regarding the research design and the research methods that were employed.

Bryman (2012:46) describes a research design as a “framework for the collection and analysis of data”. A choice of research design reflects decisions about the priority being given to a range of dimensions of the research process”. Babbie and Mouton (2009:74) simply define a research design as a “plan, or blueprint of how you intend conducting research”. Therefore the research plan clearly outlines the targeted sample, research methods utilized to collect data, the research instruments and how the collected data was analysed. Considered as a critical part of any research, De Vaus (2001:10) argues that the research design enables the researcher to determine what evidence is required to answer the research question in a convincing way. Logically it contributes to the validity
and reliability of the study, as Jupp (2006:266) asserts that “an effective research design will demonstrate that the research will produce valid and credible conclusions that flow logically from the evidence generated”.

Prior to describing the methods and techniques used within this study’s research design in detail, an illustration is provided to demonstrate the logical flow from the assumption stage to the various techniques utilized to complete this study.

Figure 3.1 was adapted from Cecez-Kecmanovic and Kennan (2013), in an attempt to show the methodological choices for this positivist study.
Figure 3.1: Research design for the study (Adapted from Cecez-Kecmanovic and Kennan (2013:133)
3.3 Population of the study

The population of a study can be described as the “total number of cases that can be included as research subjects” (Matthews and Ross 2010:154). According to Ngulube (2005:133) it is important to define the population of the study prior to collecting data as an appropriate sample size will reflect the population as precisely as possible. The units of analysis for this study were the national archives of the ESARBICA region. Therefore the directors of the national archives, archivists from this region and ESARBICA board members who were attending the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference of the ESARBICA region participated in this study.

There are 12 consistent member states that form part of ESARBICA; these are Lesotho, Tanzania and Zanzibar, Kenya, Mozambique, South Africa, Botswana, Namibia, Angola, Swaziland, Zambia, Malawi and Zimbabwe (ESARBICA 2011). Due to the small size of the population, the census approach was adopted and therefore all the 12 consistent ESARBICA members were approached to participate in the study.

This approach was also used by Garaba (2010) in his study on the management of the records and archives of former liberation movements in east and southern Africa held by national and private archival institutions. According to Garaba (2010) the census approach reduces sampling errors. Daniel (2012) further clarifies that the use of a census approach largely depends on the research problem and the nature of the population. In a study such as this Daniel (2012) suggests that the other researchers could find the findings from a census approach more credible rather than what could be gathered from
just a sample. Reasons are that a census through the use of tools such as a questionnaire normally gathers in-depth information from the research subjects.

The national archives were seen as best suited to describe public programming initiatives as they provide guidance to public archives within their respective countries. The census approach is not an error-free approach. Cantwell (2008:92) states that “missing data such as unit non-response or item non-response due to failure to reach the respondent or the respondent’s unwillingness or inability to provide information”, are some of the challenges one may encounter.

The Directors of the National Archives who also form the ESARBICA Board were requested to participate in the study at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference held from 3 to 6 June 2013 in Nairobi, Kenya. As highlighted by Cantwell (2008), non-response is one of the challenges one faces in a census approach. Approaching these individuals at this particular location contributed towards improving the respondents’ response rate. All directors were in attendance except for the Director of the National Archives of Malawi. Directors from Tanzania, Zanzibar, Kenya, South Africa, Zambia, Namibia, Swaziland and Zimbabwe responded while no responses from Botswana, Angola, Malawi and Mozambique were received. In addition to those present, the National Director from Uganda was also present and agreed to take part in the study.

Archivists who attended the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference were also interviewed to enrich the findings of this study (Jupp 2006). At the previous XXII ESARBICA Biennial
Conference attended by the researcher in Maputo, Mozambique, it was noted that each member country sent two or three archivists to take part in a pre-conference training programme. This group provided a pool of participants with the right expertise and background to address the research questions. In light of this archivists representing their national archives at the pre-conference in Nairobi, Kenya, were interviewed during tea and lunch breaks over the duration of the two day pre-conference that preceded the main conference. In accordance with UNISA research ethics policy (UNISA 2007), permission was sought from the ESARBICA Board before the conference to collect data for this study. This communication is attached as Appendix 6 in the appendices.

Even though permission was granted, the interviewees were also requested to consent to participating and were given the choice to decline. Each of the 12 countries sent two archivists to participate in the pre-conference workshop. The list of names of these participants was provided to the researcher by the conference organisers. Archivists from Botswana, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique and Swaziland agreed to be interviewed, while individuals from Zambia, Angola, Lesotho, Uganda and South Africa declined.

Three ESARBICA Board members were also interviewed to get the board's perspective on public programming in the region. Two of these participants were the incoming and outgoing ESARBICA Board presidents.
Babbie (2011) stresses the fact that findings derived from any other type of sampling other than probability sampling cannot be used to generalise the findings of any study. Nevertheless the gathered information can provide an overall description of public programming initiatives in ESARBICA. It was felt that the directors, ESARBICA Board members and professionals (archivists) who participated in the study offered a valuable contribution towards the development of a public programming framework.

Accessible archival legislation from the ESARBICA member states were analysed to determine whether any reference was given to the development and implementation of public programming initiatives. The websites of the different institutions in the ESARBICA region that offer archival training were also investigated to establish if their curricula included any aspect of public programming. In addition to this, ESARBICA members’ country reports were also reviewed with the aim of identifying any programmes that were related to promoting access to the archives.

3.4. Data collection methods

Taking into account that this is not the first study to be conducted on a region-wide scale in ESARBICA, the literature was consulted to determine how best to gather evidence. Section 2.12 of Chapter Two provides details of these related studies. The next step was to determine what kind of research strategies made this possible. Garaba (2010) explains that due to the fact that the ESARBICA member states are geographically dispersed at a great distance, different methods were triangulated. This included a self-administered questionnaire, interviews and observation. According to Garaba (2010) the triangulation
of quantitative and qualitative methods ensured that the findings were valid and reliable. A similar approach was followed by Ngulube and Tafor (2006) whereby their data was obtained through mailed self-administered questionnaires, interviews and content analysis of documents.

Sibanda (2011) on the other hand used a two phased approach to obtain information for her doctoral study. The first phase was a qualitative approach whereby she interviewed experts attending the XX Biennial ESARBICA Conference in Windhoek, Namibia, from 1 to 3 July, 2009. The data from this phase was utilised to develop a questionnaire for the second quantitative phase of the study that was carried out later on in that year. The conference availed experts from different parts of the region for this study, saving this researcher time and money.

In 2005, Mnjama (2005) analysed ESARBICA member country reports and visited certain national archives in his attempt to describe the archival landscape in east and southern Africa.

Koopman (2002) followed a survey approach to investigate staff attitudes and outreach in forty-five (45) archival institutions in KwaZulu Natal. The survey approach has also been favoured by other small scale studies in Tanzania, South Africa, Botswana and Zambia (Kamatula 2011; Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe, Mosweu 2013; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012).
Based on these research findings, this study utilised methodological triangulation in the bounds of the survey approach. The survey approach, as experienced by Garaba (2010) and Ngulube and Tafor (2006), was deemed the best way to obtain data for this study. The selected research instruments were a self-administered questionnaire, a semi-structured interview guide and content analysis of documents and websites. The study followed the precedent set by Sibanda (2011), in that data from the questionnaires and interviews were collected at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference held in Nairobi, Kenya, from 3 to 7 June, 2013.

3.4.1 Survey research
Tanner (2013:142) explains that this type of research involves the “collection of primary data from all or part of a population to determine the incidence, distribution and interrelationships of certain variables within the population”. Abbott and McKinney (2013:206) further elaborate that survey research is …

a non-experimental design that uses a series of written and verbal prompts items to quantify the personal opinions, beliefs and ideas from a group of respondents…the survey instrument (typically a questionnaire or interview schedule) translates order to observe patterns across a group of respondents.

As any other research method, this type of research has its advantages and disadvantages. Some of the advantages include cost-effectiveness, rapid turnaround time, useful in describing huge populations and flexibility. On the other hand surveys hardly deal with the context of real life, are weak on validity and are not always flexible (Babbie 2011; Creswell 2009).
Considering the vastness of the ESARBICA region and the costliness of visiting the 13 member states, the survey method was selected as the most suitable method to collect data. Other researchers have set a precedent in the use of this method and attained credible results (Garaba 2010; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006). A questionnaire was developed that was to be completed by all of the national archives within ESARBICA. The questionnaire is discussed in more detail in section 3.4.3.1 of this chapter. Sampling for the study is discussed in more detail in section 3.3 of this chapter.

Babbie (2011) and Creswell (2009) argue that one of the weaknesses of the survey method is ensuring validity. The selected instrument was a self-administered questionnaire that proved to be an economical and convenient tool. However, the validity of these findings relied heavily on the individuals selected to complete the questionnaire. It was therefore decided that the integrity of the findings cannot be based upon one group of respondents; as a result a second group of respondents was interviewed and documents analysed to boost the validity of the study.

This multi-method approach is also known as triangulation. Neuman (2014:166) defines triangulation as a way of learning more about a phenomenon by observing it from multiple perspectives and not just one perspective. This study employed methodological triangulation within the survey method. The dominant approach is quantitative while the qualitative approach served as a less dominant lens (Schulze 2003).
3.4.2 Methodological triangulation

Jupp (2006) and Neuman (2014) describe triangulation as a way of observing a particular phenomenon from different angles. Zauszniewski (2012:40) claims that the advantages of applying triangulation in research include “providing confirmation of findings, (obtaining) more comprehensive data, increased validity and an enhanced understanding of studied phenomenon”.

Triangulation is also applied to take advantage of the strengths of the different research methods. To understand this clearly Miller and Brewer (2003) outline the strengths and weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative approaches in Table 3.2.
Table 3.2: Advantages and disadvantages of qualitative and quantitative research methods (Miller & Brewer 2003: 327)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main advantages of research method</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
<th>Quantitative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holistic, detailed view</td>
<td>• Holistic, detailed view</td>
<td>• Representativeness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactivity</td>
<td>• Reactivity</td>
<td>• Possibility of impartial disproof</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naturalism</td>
<td>• Naturalism</td>
<td>• Control (rigour)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main disadvantages of research method</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
<th>Quantitative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-representativeness</td>
<td>• Non-representativeness</td>
<td>• Limited scope of data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of bias control (interviewer</td>
<td>• Lack of bias control (interviewer effect)</td>
<td>• Artificiality (instrument effect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effect)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jupp (2006:306) describes the four forms of triangulation that occur in social science research as follows:

The *triangulation of data* combines data drawn from different sources and at different times, in different places or from different people. *Investigator triangulation* is characterised by the use of different observers or interviewers. *Triangulation of theories* means to approach data from different theoretical angles which are used side by side to assess their usefulness...Most often triangulation is seen as *methodological triangulation* either within-method or between-method. The intention here is to maximise the validity of research by playing the methods off against each other.
Ngulube (2010:255) explains that the triangulation of methods can also be used to enhance results, seek reasons behind existing inconsistencies in a study, expand the findings and serve as groundwork for further investigation on phenomena. Casey and Murphy (2009) summarise all these reasons stating that triangulation serves two purposes, which is confirmation or completeness of the data.

This study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods with the aim of validating the evidence gathered and obtaining comprehensive information with regard to public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region. As stated earlier a self-administered questionnaire was developed for the member states’ national archives, together with an interview guide for archivists working at these archives as well as the analysis (content analysis) of archival legislation, archival school websites and country reports from the ESARBICA board.

3.4.3 Research instruments

The selected instruments used for this study was a self-administered questionnaire, interview guide and content analysis.

3.4.3.1 The questionnaire

Survey research can be conducted in a cross-sectional or longitudinal design. Bryman (2012:58) refers to the cross-sectional design as a method that “entails the collection of data on more than one case at a time in order to collect a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with two or more variables which are then examined to
detect patterns of association”. Oppositely, Neuman (2014:44) portrays longitudinal research as “any research that examines information from many units or cases across more than one point in time”. Cross-sectional surveys are considered as one of the simplest and cost-effective way of collecting data as opposed to the longitudinal approach which is somewhat complicated and expensive (Neuman 2014).

This study employed the cross-sectional design, and it proved an effective way to get data from the various national archives in the ESARBICA region. The data from the survey was collected at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference in June 2013.

3.4.3.1.1 Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires

Abbott and McKinney (2013:206) assert that questionnaires are a cost-effective way to conduct research. Similarly Ngulube (2003:201) states that survey research is a well favoured approach due to its economy of design and a rapid turnaround in data collection. Babbie (2011:294) further explains that questionnaires are useful when it comes to describing phenomena, especially in situations where large population samples are involved. Questionnaires are also considered flexible because one can ask many questions on a topic, and the respondent can complete it at leisure.

Questionnaires can prove to be disadvantageous if respondents lose interest in completing them. Moreover, they do not allow any form of observation and in most cases have a lower response rate as compared to interviews (Abbott and McKinney 2013:210).
In this instance the pros of using a questionnaire to conduct this research outweighed the cons. As a descriptive and explanatory study with positivist underpinnings, the questionnaire was best suited to describe public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region.

3.4.3.1.2 Questionnaire construction

A questionnaire is one of the common tools used to collect data as part of the survey approach (Bryman 2012; Neuman 2014). Fowler (2014:4) acknowledges the fact that survey research has improved over the years due to advancement in research methods.

Studies by Garaba (2010), Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu (2013), Ngulube (1999), and Ngulube and Tafor (2006) made use of questionnaires to investigate public programming and marketing of archives or certain aspects of it. This demonstrates that the questionnaire has served as a practical way of collecting data for this type of research in the ESARBICA region. Neuman (2014:321) advises researchers to follow two key principles when developing a questionnaire that is to avoid possible confusion and to keep the respondent’s perspective in mind at all times.

Neuman (2014:326) suggests that a good questionnaire should avoid: jargon, vagueness, emotional language, double-barrelled questions, leading questions, issues beyond the respondent’s capabilities, false premises, distant future intentions, double negatives and unbalanced responses. These guidelines were taken into consideration and applied while
developing the questionnaire for the respondents. Powell and Connaway (2004:139) further advise that the first draft of the questionnaire should be checked by someone more experienced before the pre-testing of the instrument. This helps to avoid the errors highlighted by Neuman (2014). The questionnaire (see Appendix 2) was discussed with the supervisor of the study before sending it out for pre-testing.

Babbie (2011:263) explains that when developing questionnaires a researcher has the option of including close-ended or open-ended questions. Respondents can give any answer to an open-ended question while a close-ended question confines the respondent to a set of fixed options (Babbie 2011; Neuman 2014). The following sections provide an overview on these types of questions.

3.4.3.1.3 Open-ended questions

Open-ended questions afford the respondent the opportunity to respond in the manner that they wish (Bryman 2012:247). Advantages of incorporating such questions in a questionnaire include the opportunity of letting respondents answer on their own terms, allowing unusual responses to be derived, the questions do not suggest certain kinds of answers to respondents and they are useful for exploring new areas of knowledge. However, they can be time consuming to answer and code for data analysis, and they require more effort from the respondent (Bryman 2012; Neuman 2014:333; Powell and Connaway 2004).
3.4.3.1.4 Close-ended questions

Close-ended questions are “a type of survey research inquiry in which respondents must choose from a fixed set of answers” (Neuman 2014:333). According to Neuman (2014:333) the advantages of using close-ended questions are that:

- they are easier and quicker for respondents to answer;
- the answers of different respondents are easier to compare;
- answers are easier to code and statistically analyse
- the response choices can clarify a question’s meaning for respondents
- respondents are more likely to answer about sensitive topics
- there are fewer irrelevant or confused answers to questions
- less articulate or less literate respondents are not at a disadvantage
- Replication is easier.

Further on Neuman (2014:333) outlines the disadvantages of using close-ended questions as:

- They can suggest ideas that the respondent would not otherwise have
- Respondents with no opinion or no knowledge can answer anyway
- Respondents can be frustrated because their desired answer is not a choice
- It is confusing if many response choices are offered
- Misinterpretation of a question can go unnoticed
- Clerical mistakes or marking the wrong response is possible
- They force respondents to give simplistic responses to complex issues
• They force respondents to make choices they would not make in the real world.

Both types of questions were used in the questionnaire for this study (see Appendix 2). Likewise researchers such as Abankwah (2008) and Garaba (2010) also utilised such questions in their own research on archival matters in the ESARBICA region.

3.4.3.1.5 Questionnaire layout

Holyk (2008) argues that the layout of the questionnaire has a huge impact on the completion and response rate of any questionnaire. Holyk (2008:658) states that:

…the layout of a questionnaire, no matter what type should reduce the cognitive burden of respondents and contain intuitive and logical flow. Questions should be numbered individually, clearly spaced and visually distinct… self-administered questionnaires (should) provide clear and concise instructions and have a simple layout…professional appearance are taken seriously by respondents. Refusal rates rise with the length of the questionnaire. Social validation is an important factor, end by thanking respondents for their time and effort.

Williams (2003) also argues that most researchers under estimate the effect the appearance of the questionnaire has on the respondent, and therefore such researchers contribute to low completion rates. These are the generic guidelines he provides to boost the appearance of any questionnaire:

• Do not try to get too many questions on a page.
• Do not use a busy design with lots of arrows and boxes.
• Use the largest typeface practical.

• Use a typeface that is easy to read; Arial is often a good choice.

In view of these suggestions by Babbie (2011) and Neuman (2014), a self-administered questionnaire was developed based on the research objectives of this study. These objectives were converted into themes, and questions were developed as measures to gather evidence for each theme. This self-administered questionnaire included both open and close-ended questions as a means of gathering in-depth information on public programming.

When it comes to the use of questionnaires, researchers have the option of developing one for the study, utilising a previous questionnaire, or modifying a questionnaire that has been previously used (Creswell 2009:149). In instances where previously developed questionnaires are utilised, permission needs to be sought from the creators of the tool (Neuman 2014).

The self-administered questionnaire used in this study was developed purposively for this research project. A set of 53 questions were developed and categorised under the following themes: institutional data, public programming activities, user studies and customer satisfaction, archivists’ knowledge and skills, national archival legislation and policies that govern public programming, collaboration in public programming and the use of social media to increase the awareness of archives. These themes are closely linked to the objectives of this study as demonstrated in the Table of Objectives which is
Appendix 1 in the appendices. The questionnaire is also attached to the appendices as Appendix 2.

3.4.3.2 Interview guides

Semi-structured interviews were utilised as another research method to gain comprehensive information on the topic and to validate the information obtained from the questionnaire and ESARBICA country reports. Bryman (2012:471) elaborates that in a semi-structured interview the researcher would use a list of questions or topics related to the research problem. He calls this list ‘the interview guide’. As opposed to a structured interview, the interviewer may add questions as a way of probing for more clarification or details. Nevertheless, the list of questions or topics remains as the key guide and must be completed.

Creswell (2009:179) describes interviews as a useful approach especially in instances where participants of the research study cannot be directly observed. It also allows the researcher some form of control over the data gathering process. However, he also points out that despite these advantages, there are disadvantages that include obtaining filtered information through the interviewees’ perspective, the inability to take note of the actual environment, interviewer bias and not all interviewees being equally articulate and perceptive.
As an attempt to provide a holistic picture with regard to public programming in the ESARBICA region, archivists who work in the national archives of ESARBICA member states and three ESARBICA Board members were interviewed. Interviews have been used as a means for data collection by other researchers in the ESARBICA region too. Garaba (2010) interviewed National Directors of the National Archives to describe the management of records and archives of former liberation movements in this region, while Sibanda (2011) interviewed archival experts attending the XX Biennial ESARBICA Conference in Windhoek, Namibia, from 1 to 3 July, 2009 to develop a service quality measurement instrument for archival institutions in the region.

Two interview guides were developed to guide this process. Mason (2007:519) asserts that an interview guide helps the researcher to align the questions to the objectives of the project. The first interview guide was developed for gathering information from the archivists, while the other interview guide was used for the discussion between the researcher and ESARBICA board members. Given that the information required was needed to respond to the same research questions, the same themes that were developed for the questionnaire were used. These interview guides were pre-tested on another colleague who teaches archives and records management and later they were modified accordingly.

The archivists were asked twelve questions with allowance for probing questions as well. The interviews ranged from 20-30 minutes over a period of a week at the XXII ESARBICA
Biennial Conference that took place in Nairobi, Kenya, from 3 to 6 June 2013. The ESARBICA Board members were only asked seven questions.

The interview guides are attached as Appendices 3 and 4. The Table of Objectives (Appendix 1) also shows the link between each objective and the questions.

3.4.3.3 Content analysis

According to Colorado State University (n.d:3-4), content analysis can be described as:

…a research tool used to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within texts or set of texts. Researchers quantify and analyse the presence, meanings and relationships of such words and concepts, then make inferences about the messages within the texts, the writer, the audience, and even the culture and time which these are a part.

Babbie (2011:341) argues that texts may include items such as books, websites, paintings and laws. This method is categorised as non-reactive because the creators of the content were unaware that the content would be analysed as part of a research project at the time of creation (Neuman 2014).

Units of analysis and what should be counted are determined by the research questions (Bryman 2012:295). Babbie and Mouton (2009) as well as Colorado State University (n.d.) point out that content analysis can be carried out as conceptual analysis or relational analysis. According to Colorado State University (n.d.) conceptual analysis occurs when a “concept is chosen for examination and the analysis involves quantifying and tallying its
presence…relational analysis goes beyond presence by exploring the relationships between the concepts identified”.

The tool selected for this study was conceptual analysis. Babbie and Mouton (2009:492) state conceptual analysis involves the following steps:

- Deciding on the level of analysis.
- Deciding whether to code for existence or frequency of a concept.
- Deciding how to distinguish among concepts.
- Developing rules for coding text.
- Deciding what to do with irrelevant information.
- Coding texts.
- Analysing results.

Like other research instruments or tools, content analysis has its pros and cons. Pros include: low cost, safe to conduct and it gives the researcher the ability to study documents ranging over a long period of time. On the other hand, the researcher is limited to what exists and this can affect the reliability and validity of the findings.

The units of analysis selected for content analysis in this study included archival legislation from the ESARBICA member states, websites of institutions in the ESARBICA region that offer archival education and training and ESARBICA country reports presented to the ESARBICA board. In a similar fashion researchers such as Mnjama (2005) used ESARBICA country reports to describe the archival landscape in east and
southern Africa. Likewise, Ngulube and Tafor (2006:61) used content analysis to determine how archival legislation in the ESARBICA region steered the management of records and archives.

Concepts relating to promoting access to the archives were identified. These are identified in Chapter Two as: outreach, publicity, marketing, promotion and public programming. This was done in accordance with Babbie and Mouton’s (2009) outline of the content analysis process. The emphasis was more on the existence of these terms rather than their frequency of appearance to determine the following:

- Archival legislation provided any guidance to national archives with regard to promoting access to the archives.
- The curriculum of the archival education institutions covered the aspect of promoting access to archival institutions.
- The ESARBICA country reports indicated the efforts of the respective countries concerning promoting access to their public archives.

Downe-Wamboldt (1992:313-314) argues that content analysis is often confused with counting concepts. Though she agrees that this method can ensure external validity, she explains that it is also concerned with connecting these concepts to meanings, intentions, consequences and context. Therefore the method has attributes of both qualitative and quantitative methods. Research validity is explained in more detail in section 3.5. In
consideration of this study, seemingly the method was more qualitative in nature than quantitative.

As in the case of the questionnaire and the interview guides, these concepts are in line with the objectives of this study.

3.4.4 Data collection procedures

Data for this study was collected through a triangulation of methods (Jupp 2006; Neuman 2014). The data was collected over a period of six months, with the bulk of it collected over a period of a week at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference. This was not an easy task; therefore, a research assistant was hired to assist with the distribution and collection of the questionnaires from the National Directors. Most likely this contributed to the 69.2% (9) response rate. Perhaps as Abbott and McKinney (2013) argue, poor response rates can be countered by insistent follow ups. This gave the researcher time to approach the other archivists, ESARBICA board presidents (outgoing and incoming) and one ESARBICA board member.

Interviews were conducted during tea and lunch breaks at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference. This enabled the researcher to cut out the costs of travelling to the member states. The conference venue afforded secluded areas that allowed the researcher and the interviewees to sit in an environment with minimal distractions. All the interviews were recorded with the aid of a digital recorder, and the recordings were later saved on a computer and a ‘cloud’ to ease transcription and data analysis. The following interview
protocol by Creswell (2009) was adhered to and yielded sufficient data that was required for the study:

- Heading (date, interviewer and interviewee)
- Instructions for the interviewer to follow so that standard procedures are used
- The questions
- Probes for the questions
- Space between questions to record responses
- A final thank you statement to acknowledge the time the interviewee spent during the interview

3.5 Validity and reliability
Apart from identifying a logical research design, the quality of the research is also a matter of concern. Ensuring quality is dependent upon three criteria: these are reliability, replication and validity (Bryman 2012). Babbie and Mouton (2009:646) describe these terms as follows:

**Reliability** is that quality of measurement method that suggests that the same data would have been collected each time in repeated observations of the same phenomenon.

**Replication** is the duplication of an experiment to expose or reduce error.

**Validity** is a term describing a measure that accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure.
Matthews and Ross (2010:10) maintain that research “must be robust and rigorous”. This can only be possible if the measures used to collect and analyse data are consistent, the study is capable of replication and the results are deemed as accurate. Consequently, this will improve the study's credibility, which can then withstand challenges or criticisms from other researchers regarding the way the study was conducted.

Following the assurance that the research strategy is straightforward, replicable and valid, the next step is to ensure that the research procedures are ethically sound. Bryman (2012: 135) puts forth that a researcher's project should not bring harm to participants or invade their privacy. In addition, participants should provide informed consent before participating in a study. Lastly, the researcher should strive to report the truth rather than present concocted findings. Section 1.8 of Chapter One outlines the ethical considerations for this study. In brief, this study adhered to the University of South Africa (UNISA 2007) policy on ethics with regard to research.

Every researcher must strive to develop research measurements that are reliable and valid (Fowler 2014). Babbie (2011) argues that in terms of survey research it is easier to ensure reliability than validity. The reasons are that a survey makes use of fixed measurements that can be adjusted and tested to ensure consistency.
While reliability focuses on consistency of measurement, validity seeks to determine truthfulness. Neuman (2014) and Babbie (2011) outline the following as four types of validity:

- **Face validity** - the quality of an indicator that makes it seen to be a reasonable measure of some variable.
- **Criterion validity** - the degree to which a measure relates to some external criterion.
- **Construct validity** - the degree to which a measure relates to other variables as expected within a system of theoretical relationships.
- **Content validity** - the degree to which a measure covers the range of meanings included within a concept.

No study is perfect, but the measurements in place should strive towards being error free to ensure rigour in research (Garaba 2010). This study strived to guarantee validity in the four different forms. Face validity was accomplished by ensuring the objectives of the study dictated the questions that were included in the questionnaire and interview guides.

Content analysis is concerned with what the questionnaire is comprised of. Fowler (2014:4-5) insists on the importance of evaluating set questions before using them to collect data. This is done by many researchers to ensure the reliability and validity of the research findings (Bryman 2012; Garaba 2010; Neuman 2014). The questionnaire for this study was pre-tested by four academic colleagues who have archival work experience and who currently teach archives and records management practices. The colleagues were requested to complete a pre-testing questionnaire that guided the researcher in
making corrections and developing a suitable tool for data collection. The pre-testing questionnaire is attached as Appendix 5 in the appendices.

In addition to the pre-testing of the self-administered questionnaire and the interview guide, the fact that the units of analysis were selected through the census approach also minimised sampling error (Bryman 2012).

The theoretical framework that guided this study was based on the records continuum model that purports that records are acquired, organised and kept for use (Roper and Millar 1999a). The objectives and research questions that were used to develop the research instruments are all linked to this theory. Therefore, this assured construct validity. Related studies were referred to in order to determine suitable research methods and tools that could be of benefit to this study, and based on the precedent set by Abankwah (2008); Garaba (2010); Ngulube and Tafor (2006); and Sibanda (2011) this study also utilised the survey approach, as a result of which criterion validity was achieved.

3.6 Data analysis
This study made use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches to collect data. Thus, quantitative and qualitative measures were used to analyse the data.
3.6.1 Quantitative data analysis

This study preferred the survey design due to the economy of the design and the quick turnaround time it afforded at the location of the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference. This was a cross-sectional survey as the information was collected at one point in time (Creswell 2009).

Creswell (2009:151) recommends the following research tips for the data analysis process:

- Report information on the number of members of the sample who did and did not return the survey.
- Discuss the method by which response bias will be determined…that is the effect of non-responses on survey estimates.
- Discuss a plan to provide a descriptive analysis of data.
- Identify the statistics and statistical computer programme for testing the major inferential research questions.
- Present the results in tables or figures.

Fowler (2014:127) explains that most of the data gathered through surveys needs to be transformed into data files to aid the analysis process. Babbie (2011:437) describes quantitative analysis as the “numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining phenomena that those observations reflect”. According to Chireshe (2015:109) this type of analysis uses “statistical methods to describe summarise and compare data”. Fowler (2014:127) highlights that the analysis of quantitative data involves the following steps:

- Designing the code (the rules by which a respondent’s answers will be assigned values that can be processed by machine),
- Coding (the process of turning responses into standard categories),
- Data entry (putting the data into computer readable form),
- Data cleaning (doing a final check on the data file for accuracy, completeness and consistency).

Two common errors that normally occur during this process are coding decision errors and transcription or entry errors (Bryman 2012; Fowler 2014).

Chireshe (2015:109) explains that this type of analysis is suitable for descriptive, explanatory and evaluation research as it aims to answer questions such as ‘what’ or ‘how many’.

Researchers can make use of statistical packages to aid with the analysis and presentation of data (Babbie and Mouton 2009; Fowler 2014; Neuman 2014). Abankwah (2008) and Garaba (2010) utilised the SPSS statistical package to analyse the data obtained through their questionnaires.

Data obtained for this study was coded and organised into data files with the aid of the Microsoft Excel 2010 statistical programme. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. Chireshe (2015:112) explains that descriptive statistics “provides basic summaries of individual observations or measures in a sample”. The methods or
calculations used in descriptive statistics include frequencies or numerical counts, percentages, ratios, measures of central tendency (mean, mode, and median), measures of association and measures of variability. Hardy (2004:42) claims that one of the most common ways to display the pattern of observation is to produce frequency distribution. This helps the researcher to communicate information in a clear and simple way. In view of this, this study utilised frequency distribution tables, graphs and pie charts to communicate the analysed information.

3.6.2 Qualitative data analysis
Romm (2015:136) articulates that the analysis of qualitative data involves the creation of codes, “which is a word or short phrase that is assigned to a selected segment of data”. Payne and Payne (2004) assert that normally the data collection, coding and data analysis often occurs concurrently in qualitative research. Before analysing the data all the information should be presented in a format that will ease the categorisation process; audio tapes should be transcribed into verbatim written format. The text should then be read as a whole to contextualise the information, thereafter the classification and ordering should commence (Payne and Payne 2004:38).

The interviews for the study were transcribed. Both audio and transcribed files were stored in a computer database. These were read and coded manually, key words and themes that emerged from the data were grouped or classified as guided by the research objectives. The findings are communicated in Chapter Four of this thesis.
The keywords and themes that emerged from the content analysis of the archival legislation, archival school websites and ESARBICA country themes were also categorised and reported under the respective headings that were derived from the research objectives in Chapter Four.

3.7 Ethical considerations

Fowler (2014:140) argues that “all research that involves human subjects, the survey researcher needs to be attentive to the ethical manner in which the research is carried out”. Likewise Babbie (2011:88) elaborates that “ethical issues in research mainly consist of ensuring that no one is harmed in the process of research, participation is voluntary, confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed where promised, and reporting is truthful”.

The respondents who completed the self-administered questionnaire and the interviewees were selected purposively to get their input with regard to public programming in the ESARBICA region. Nonetheless as per the UNISA policy on research ethics permission was sought from the ESARBICA Board to include, among other members, the national archives Directors from the different countries in the region. Communication was made with the Secretary General and his response is attached as Appendix 6.
Moreover, the University of South Africa requires all researchers to seek ethical clearance through the departmental Higher Degrees Committee to ensure that the research procedures are ethically sound. This study obtained this clearance before the commencement of data collection.

The questionnaire included a covering letter with information regarding the researcher, and details confirming that, in line with UNISA’s policy on research ethics (UNISA 2007), the information collected was strictly for research purposes and would be kept confidential. Interviewees were also provided with the same information. Though permission to conduct the study was granted by the ESARBICA Board, participation in the study was voluntary (Fowler 2014). Respondents were given the choice to decline to participate in the study. Interviewees were informed that the interviews were recorded and they gave consent to this before starting the interviews.

Despite the fact that it was impossible to for all the participants to remain anonymous, they were not identified in the results from the study. Abankwah (2008) followed this approach in her study on the management of audio visual materials in the ESARBICA region. In cases where direct quotes were made, pseudonyms were used.

The findings are reported as per the information collected from the respondents (Babbie 2014); however, as in all research, it was necessary to refer to the work of other researchers. Therefore all such work was cited and a reference list was provided in
accordance with the citation standards set by the Department of Information Science at the University of South Africa (UNISA 2013).

3.8 Evaluation of the research methodology

It is essential to evaluate the research methods used in the study to determine what worked or could be done differently to yield better results in future research (Abankwah 2008; Garaba 2010). According to Ngulube (2003) and Bryman (2012) all research methods have their strengths and weaknesses, so the selected methods were chosen on the premise of their strengths and their ability to address the research questions adequately. However, Abankwah (2008:189) states that the methods used by any researcher are strongly linked to the researcher’s understanding of the method and its limitations.

Methodological triangulation was employed to get answers for the research questions outlined by the study. Section 3.4.2 gives more details on triangulation. As argued by Creswell (2009); Jupp (2006) and Neuman (2014), triangulation enables a researcher to make the best out of the strengths of the different research methods while minimising the weaknesses of the same research methods. The instruments used within the survey method included a self-administered questionnaire, an interview guide and content analysis.
Most of the information for the study was collected at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference that was held in June 2013 in Nairobi, Kenya. This decision was made on the grounds that all member countries of ESARBICA attend this important event on the archives and records management. Nonetheless, this move denied the researcher the opportunity to actually observe these national archives’ public programming projects in their natural settings. Perhaps such observations would have yielded better results and strengthened the validity of the findings even more. Cost and the time to visit all member states were the limiting factors in this regard.

Though a response rate of 69.2% (nine out of thirteen) was achieved, the issue of non-response rates could not be ignored. Certain Directors of the National Archives did not complete the questionnaire. The researcher followed Babbie and Mouton’s (2009) advice on following up via email, but this did not yield any results. Garaba (2010) and Abankwah (2008) experienced similar challenges with regard to their mailed questionnaires as well. Not all of the archivists agreed to participate in the interviews as well. The researcher therefore found that in certain cases a National Director would have completed the questionnaire, but the archivist from the respective country refused to be interviewed and vice versa.

Despite all this, the findings generated from this study on public programming initiatives could be of interest to public archives and other individuals in the information fraternity. If
there was an opportunity to repeat the study, site visits would be included to enrich the context of the results.

3.9 Summary of the chapter

This study employed methodological triangulation to obtain the information required to answer the research questions. The survey method was the research method of choice; however, due to the weakness of this strategy such as proving validity a multi-technique approach was followed. A self-administered questionnaire, an interview guide and content analysis were used as data collection instruments. Matters concerning reliability and validity were discussed in the chapter.

A response rate of 69.2% was achieved with the questionnaires and 66.6% for the interviews. The data obtained from the three instruments was coded, analysed and presented by means of tables, pie charts and graphs. The Microsoft Excel statistical package was utilised to ease the analysis of the quantitative data, while the qualitative data was analysed manually. Issues with regard to research ethics were adhered to as stipulated by the UNISA research ethics policy (UNISA 2007). Lastly, the research methods were evaluated to determine their strengths and weaknesses highlighting what could have been done differently to yield better results.
CHAPTER FOUR
PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.0 Introduction
The findings of this study were attained as a result of the research procedures described in Chapter Three. Blum (2006:2) states that:

Chapter four of a dissertation presents the findings from data gathered by the researcher. Section titles organise the data in a logical manner. Findings are presented in detail, in a sufficient manner, and describe the systematic application of methodology.

Chapter Three of this study outlined that a triangulation of quantitative and qualitative methods that included a self-administered questionnaire, face-to-face interviews and documents were used.

This study collected quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data was analysed with the aid of the Microsoft Excel Software and a number of charts were developed to make the data easily comprehensible. The qualitative data was thematically analysed and the emerging themes were used to substantiate the quantitative data. This information is presented in the form of narrative text.

Bryman (2012:13-14) describes data analysis as the “management, analysis and interpretation of the data”. He provides examples such as the statistical analysis of the quantitative data and thematic analysis of the qualitative data. The reasoning behind this
is to enable the researcher to make sense of all the gathered information. Likewise Creswell (2009:152) argues that analysed data helps the researcher to draw conclusions and answer the research questions.

4.1 Data presentation

Any doctoral study involves the gathering of a significant amount of data, and if the data is not presented in an organised manner this can defeat the purpose of contributing to the field of knowledge and rather lead to confusion instead (Bryman 2012). To avoid confusion the presentation of these findings was guided by the objectives of this study which aimed at:

1. Assessing existing public programming activities in the ESARBICA region.
2. Establishing the availability of legislation that guide public programming activities in the public archives of the ESARBICA region.
3. Determining whether there are any policies in place that govern public programming activities in the different public archives of the member states of ESARBICA.
4. Finding out if archivists have the relevant knowledge and skills required to carry out public programming activities.
5. Assessing the role of user studies and customer satisfaction in public programming initiatives.
6. Ascertaining whether the public archives of the ESARBICA region collaborate with other institutions or organisations to promote and facilitate access to their resources.
7. Exploring if the National Archives of the ESARBICA region make use of emerging technologies such as social media to increase awareness of their archival holdings.

The findings do not clearly point out the views or responses of each participant as they were assured anonymity.

4.2 Response rate and background of participants

Different researchers have different views on what should be considered as an acceptable response rate. Babbie and Mouton (2009:261) advise that an acceptable response rate that is adequate for analysis starts at 50%.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2009) anything above 70% is deemed as a very good response rate. Bryman (2012:235), however, asserts that a 50% response rate is barely acceptable, pointing out that a response rate that stood at 60-69% was more acceptable. Studies in the ESARBICA region have had response rates ranging from 39% (Garaba 2010), 64.28% (Abankwah 2008) to 92% (Ngulube and Tafor 2006). Neuman (2014:342) portrays a picture of more and more people declining to take part in surveys due to survey fatigue. Non-response rates affect validity and should be reported accordingly.

The Directors of the National Archives of the twelve active members of ESARBICA and the Director from Uganda who was also in attendance at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference were approached to complete the survey. Out of the thirteen (13) questionnaires that were handed out, nine were returned yielding a 69.2% response rate.
These were from Namibia, Tanzania, South Africa, Kenya, Zanzibar, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Uganda and Swaziland.

Bryman (2012:236) advises that one way to curb non-response rates is to send out reminders to the participants. This works in cases where they have simply forgotten. In this case, the researcher sent out reminders twice via email to the National Directors who did not complete the questionnaire at the conference. Unfortunately no response was provided.

Twelve archivists representing the member countries at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference were approached for interviews; only eight accepted to be interviewed. This yielded a 66.6% response rate. These archivists were from Malawi, Swaziland, Namibia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Botswana, Kenya and Tanzania.

Three members of the ESARBICA Board agreed to be interviewed for purposes of this study. The ESARBICA Board also availed their 2013-2015 strategic plan and country reports from Swaziland, Mozambique, Namibia, Kenya, Botswana, Malawi and Zimbabwe.
Table 4.1: Summary of the composition of the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Member State</th>
<th>Director completed questionnaire</th>
<th>Archivist interviewed</th>
<th>ESARBICA Board Member interviewed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zanzibar</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 provides details regarding who participated in the study. It can be seen that all member states with the exception of Lesotho took part in this study. Notably not all the archivists and Directors of the National Archives who participated in this study came from the same countries. National Directors from Mozambique, Botswana and Malawi did not
participate in the study; nevertheless, the researcher was of the opinion that the information gathered from the archivists coupled with the country reports prepared by the National Directors would suffice in portraying an overview of public programming initiatives in these countries.

4.3 Institutional and participants’ profiles

This section provides an overview of the institutions and the interviewees who participated in the study.

4.3.1 Institutional profiles

The first section of the self-administered questionnaire required the participating institutions to provide information that would portray what the institutions stood for, the number of employees and the different capacities the employees served in.

4.3.1.1 National archives mission statements

Information regarding mission statements was not readily available from most of the national archives’ websites. Therefore, the questionnaire requested the Directors of the National Archives to provide their mission statements. Out of the nine participants only six stated their mission statements, which were described as follows:

- **Kenya** - To advise on proper records management, to acquire archives for preservation, to make archives accessible and to market archival services.
- **Zanzibar** - Preservation of documentary heritage for long future access to the public and help the government manage its business more efficiently.

- **Zimbabwe** - To acquire preserve and provide access to historical documentation in whatever format in an efficient manner.

- **Uganda** - To preserve, protect and make them available to the public the heritage of Uganda.

- **Zambia** - To effectively manage and preserve public records, archives and printed publications and to facilitate lawful access to this information to all stakeholders thereby promoting efficiency and effective government administration.

- **Swaziland** - To promote national identity, transparency, accountability, efficiency of government in the use of public records of historical value to the Swazi nation and the general public.

The mission statement for the National Archives and Records Service of South Africa was obtained from their website. This institution aims to:

- foster national identity and to ensure the protection of rights stems from the recognition that the racialised fragmentation of a South African identity and the violation of rights, which had characterised the Apartheid political system, needed to be redressed in order for a post-apartheid democratic social order to become entrenched (National Archives and Record Service of South Africa n.d.).
4.3.1.2 Staff working in the national archives

According to the Directors of the National Archives the nine national archival institutions employed a total of 923 people. One of the national archives reported that 400 record managers serving in different departments were a part of their organisational structure.

4.3.1.3 Number of staff in the different archival capacities

After determining the total number of staff, the respondents were asked to state in which capacities these employees served at the national archives. Table 4.2 portrays these details.

Table 4.2: No. of staff in different archival positions at the national archives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Total staff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Director or equivalent</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration and senior management</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appraisal</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preservation</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrangement and description</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outreach</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public programming</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Records management</td>
<td>451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These findings indicate that at the time of the study sixty-four (64) archivists were involved in the promotion of access to records in the ESARBICA region under the portfolios of education, outreach and public programming.
4.3.2 Archivists profiles

As indicated in section 4.2 eight archivists agreed to be interviewed for the study. These individuals were part of a group of archivists that were selected and sponsored by ESARBICA to attend the pre-conference workshop and conference at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference. The ESARBICA board categorised this group as emerging professionals in the field that have less than ten years of work experience. Table 4.1 indicates where the archivists who participated in the study came from.

4.3.3 ESARBICA Board members

It was believed that views of the ESARBICA Board on public programming were important to the study. Therefore, three board members were interviewed. The three ESARBICA Board members who participated in the study were from Kenya, Mozambique and Zimbabwe.

4.4 Public programming in the ESARBICA region

Public programming initiatives are seen as a means of communicating archives to the people to raise their awareness of the archives and the value it can add to their lives (Kamatula 2011). In order to describe the status quo of public programming in the ESARBICA region, the study probed Directors of the National Archives, archivists, ESARBICA Board members and the ESARBICA members’ country reports. This section outlines the findings in this regard. Section II of the questionnaire (see Appendix 2) included thirteen (13) questions that attempted to address the research questions. The following sub themes were used to present the findings in such a way that one can get a
grasp of public programming activities and other factors that influence these initiatives in the region:

- Existence and frequency of public programming projects;
- Budgetary support for public programming ventures;
- Raising awareness about the national archives;
- Factors that influence public awareness of national archives;
- Obstacles faced when conducting public programming projects; and
- Linking public archives with the people’s needs.

Questions two to five in the interview schedule afforded the participating archivists a chance to address the same issues. Country reports were checked to determine whether any public programming initiatives were reported.

4.4.1 Existence and frequency of public programming projects in the ESARBICA region

First and foremost the participants were asked whether their national archives engaged in public programming projects. All of the nine (100%) participants agreed that they did so. The next step was to determine how often these public programming activities were conducted. Figure 4.1 illustrates the participants’ responses.
Three participants (3 or 33%) stated that it took place once in the year (annually). Two (2 or 22%) participants indicated that it was a daily exercise, while the rest of the participants (2 or 22%) who specified ‘other’ described that their programmes were conducted quarterly.

4.4.1.1 Archivists’ response on the existence of public programming programmes in the ESARBICA region

In order to avoid presenting a one-sided story, it was felt that the views of archivists who worked in these national archives were also important. Therefore, as stated earlier, information was obtained from them by means of face-to-face interviews. These findings to a certain extent corroborated or negated some of the responses from the questionnaires.
Seven of the eight interviewees stated that their national archives conducted public programming ventures, while one stated otherwise. The participant who disagreed explained that the task of publicising the national archives was the mandate of the Ministry’s Public Relations Officer. This individual was from one of the archival institutions that mentioned the existence of public programming initiatives at their institution in section 4.4.1.

4.4.1.2 Public programming initiatives as reported in the country reports

This factor was also checked against the country reports to the ESARBICA Board. All reports are supposed to be aligned to the organisation’s strategic plan. The ESARBICA strategic plan for 2013-2015 (2013-2015: 3) clearly outlines that national archives should work at raising awareness about the archives they keep. It states that:

- Marketing strategies: there is a need to develop marketing strategies in national archives to educate the public on the services they provide and to facilitate access to archival materials.
- Raising awareness on the importance of archives and records: national archival institutions should raise awareness on the significance of archives and records so that they get government support and ensure their role in national development becomes relevant,
A review of the seven available country reports pointed out that only two national archives carried out outreach programmes. This was further confirmed in an interview with one of the ESARBICA Board members. As stated:

*When I look at the various country reports that have been presented at the ESARBICA board meetings in the last decade or so, you obviously see that in our individual capacities it’s an issue of concern. We are concerned about the numbers and the public that use our facilities and the individuals and members are involved in different strategies. Some are active, proactive; some are just reactive as they wait to offer the services when requested by the public.*

Another member of the ESARBICA Board believed that:

*So see we have been doing a lot of awareness raising, a lot of communication with the community, and I know that there is still a lot to do, but we also encourage board members to improve relationships with people so that people can also feel and recognise the relevance of archives. In fact we use also radio and TV when we organise our own general conferences. We bring stakeholders in, we talk to the media, so those moments are also important occasions to raise awareness to people and as you can see the number of gatherings is just increasing every year and if you bring people from provincial archives to join those meetings, when they go back they will be able to raise awareness to the local people.*

Furthermore, the ESARBICA Board members highlighted that issues relating to preservation, conservation, records management and electronic records have been more of a priority rather than raising awareness. The Board members felt strongly that more effort was needed into developing coordinated strategies that will help national archives to be more active in promoting the use of the records they kept.
4.4.2 Budgetary support for public programming projects

Financial support is a critical factor for the implementation of any programme. A question was put to the participants to establish if their national archives had a specific budget for public programming projects. Six (67%) of the participants said there was budgetary support, while two said otherwise and there was no response from one participant.

The two (2 or 22%) participants who claimed there was no funding stated that a lack of policy on public programming was one of the reasons why funding was not provided for such initiatives.

Funding was mentioned as the main reason for the lagging behind of public programming initiatives by the archivists. For instance, transport was mentioned as a key challenge for one of the national archives, and as a result many communities remained unreached. In another case the issue of space and computers was raised. One participant asked:

_We don’t have space and computers. Do you think (public programming) should be a priority?_

4.4.3 Raising awareness about the national archives

Communicating archives to the people can be done in different ways (Blais and Enns 1991). It was, therefore, important to find out what means the national archives of ESARBICA used to reach out to users. Figure 4.2 portrays the responses of the participants.
Results indicated that seminars, workshops, exhibitions and tours were the most favoured approaches used by the participants (8 or 88%) in the national archives. On the other hand, the use of newsletters was the least favoured method (2 or 22%). These findings were corroborated by some of the archivists (seven). These archivists mentioned that they had conducted public programming projects and that these initiatives were presented via radio, television programmes, exhibitions, brochures, newsletters, websites, public lectures, school tours and group visits. Interestingly, word of mouth (6 or 67%) was a more popular channel than radio and television.

The Directors of the National Archives were also asked whether they allowed the public to make use of their facilities for a variety of reasons. Figure 4.3 summarises the responses to this question.
Lectures and workshops (6 or 67%) ranked highest among the responses, while after-school and weekend clubs for children were not common occurrences (2 or 22%). Participants were afforded the opportunity to indicate any other means that were not included in the questionnaire. Only one of the respondents mentioned ‘internships’ as another way they get to let the public interact with their facilities.

Raising awareness also includes the use of promotional material. This content can be presented in a variety of formats such as print, electronic, audio-visual and others (Pederson 2008). The distribution of such resources also counts if the aim is to target as many people as possible. In light of this fact, the participants were requested to indicate which formats they preferred or were accustomed to. Figure 4.4 indicates that most of the national archives were accustomed to leaflets and brochures (8 or 88%).
Websites and posters also served as popular formats (7 or 77%) while none of the National Archives made use of social media. Since printed material featured as the most popular method, participants were encouraged to mention other forms of printed material that were used to increase awareness about the national archives. Newsletters, pamphlets, T-shirts, caps, and pens were highlighted as other printed resources.

Preparing promotional resources is important, but the distribution of these resources is another key factor. It is for this reason that the participants were asked where they distributed these resources. The results are shown in Figure 4.5.
Education institutions were the most common places (7 or 77%), followed by tourist information centres, conferences and other types of archival institutions (4 or 44%). Libraries and local museums were behind tourist information centres (3 or 33%) whereas none of the national archives used community centres to spread their printed promotional materials. The other means indicated by one of the participants was special events such as national holidays.

Two of the ESARBICA Board members referred to a meeting of Permanent Secretaries that was held in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania, in 2007. The meeting highlighted the need for national archives to make archives more relevant to societies. According to these Board members this was done through exhibitions, book fairs, tv and radio shows, public events...
and other means. They reported that this was evident in a few country reports that were
tabled at ESARBICA Board meetings. One of the directors provided an example:

_We recently commemorated the X anniversary of the death of our president,
we went to a particular rural area and produced an exhibition on the history
of this great person. So that people in this rural area would know where he
was born and who he was. A small booklet on his biography was produced
to accompany the exhibition. The current president gave a speech and I
was given an opportunity to speak about the exhibition and the archives in
general. I was emphasising on records, emphasising on documents: ‘you
people at home you should know how to keep your documents otherwise
you lose your rights’._

_Once I went out to a radio station and spoke about the military documents.
Many people who fought for the Y army did not know how to claim their
rights based on these records which would further enable them to get
compensation. I informed them that the military records were available at
the archives. A short period after that many people came to the archives to
access these records._

The comments from these ESARBICA Board members supported the findings of the
Directors of the National Archives and the archivists regarding the existence of public
programming initiatives in the region.
4.4.3.1 Linking public archives with the people’s needs

Linking archives with society’s socio-economic needs is an important part of taking archives to the people (Harris 2014). To determine whether this is happening within the ESARBICA region, the Directors of the National Archives were requested to state whether their national archives like other information institutions such as libraries had any initiatives that supported public affairs such as education, health, social inclusion, cultural identity, environmental stability, the local economy or other matters (Mnkeni-Saurombe and Zimu 2015). The following initiatives were listed:

- Working with ethics and anti-corruption commission to streamline record keeping with the view of reducing corruption.
- Oral history programmes, radio interviews and school quiz competitions.
- Publication of non-governmental archives.
- School tours, public lectures on clan history names.
- Nelson Mandela Day and hosting of exhibitions related to other public events.

These were the only activities that were listed; one national archives indicated that they have not been able to do so due to financial constraints. As societies across the region have different needs the national archives should find more ways to step in and help more people. In view of this, participants were asked if they had identified any other opportunities to conduct public programming projects. According to the participants, public programming activities could also be done through:

- Hosting exhibitions at important events highlighting the work of archivists.
• Using a marketing strategy approach.
• Radio, TV and newspapers.
• Visiting institutions where history and records management programmes are offered.
• Reach a wider population other than limiting awareness to institutions covered by the Act only.
• Using social media to engage the youth.

Seven (7) of the archivists identified terms such as ‘publicity’, ‘outreach’, ‘public awareness’, ‘research’ and ‘communication’ as other terms they use to raise awareness about the national archives. When asked whether they had participated in any public programming projects, five out of the eight participants agreed. These are some of their comments:

• I offered a lecture at X University.
• I am a former history teacher, when I joined the national archives I became part of a television programme that airs every Tuesday morning at 06:30. I talk about the tribes and clans of (Country Y) and many other issues from the national archives.
• I have participated in many events such as agricultural shows, tourism and other cultural programmes.

Two others indicated that they helped with exhibitions, the preparation of newsletters and acted as tour guides.
The interviewees were further probed to explain whether “raising awareness about the national archives” was a top priority where they worked. All of the participants stated that it was not a top priority.

Each of the archivists agreed that public programming should be a priority as the national archives belonged to the people. As described by one of the archivists:

*How are more people going to use our archives if we don’t get them interested in them? It (public programming) should be a priority.*

While another archivist thought that:

*It has to be a priority, but the challenge will come from if we are going to stick to traditional means of publicity.*

Referring to section 4.4.3 the ESARBICA Board members made reference to the meeting of Permanent Secretaries that was held in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, in 2007. These interviewees pointed out that national archives had a responsibility towards making archives a part of their citizens’ everyday life.

### 4.4.4 Factors that influence public awareness of National Archives

The Directors of the National Archives were asked how factors given in the options in the relevant question item affected the public’s awareness of the national archives. Table 4.3 gives an overview of their responses.
Table 4.3: Different factors that influenced the public’s awareness of the national archives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Positive effect</th>
<th>Neither positive nor negative</th>
<th>Negative effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Skills and Human Resources</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff knowledge and skills, e.g. customer care</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of staff on duty</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The presence of volunteers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of staff working in education programmes</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of staff responsible for outreach</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of staff involved in public programming</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public Image of the National Archives</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The brand of the national archives</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The prestige of the buildings that house the archive collection</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The active programme of events (public programming: exhibitions, lectures, study tours, etc.)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The existence of a Friends of the Archives Association</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Financial Means and Development</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The resources available for audience development and educational outreach programmes and public programming</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget allocations made on an annual basis</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The acquisition and cultivation of users</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visibility on social media, e.g. Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fees and services</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrance charges</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free entrance</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The presence of supplementary services (restaurants, cafes, shops, websites, free Wi-Fi, etc.)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Field Data 2014)
The findings indicated that a sizeable number of the participants (5 or 55%) were concerned about their visibility on social media platforms. Budget allocation and support (3 or 33%) were noted as factors with negative effects. According to all the Directors of the National Archives (9 or 100%) staff knowledge and skills ranked as the highest factor that had a positive effect on the public’s awareness of the national archives. Other factors that had a significant positive effect included the number of staff involved in outreach (7 or 77%), the prestige of the building that housed the archives and the national archives brand (7 or 77%). Most of the participants (5 or 55%) were of the opinion that the presence of restaurants, cafes, shops, websites and free Wi-Fi spots in close proximity to the national archives did not have any effect on the public’s awareness of the national archives. All of the participants (9 or 100%) felt that entrance charges did not hinder the public from making use of the facility.

4.4.5 Obstacles faced when conducting public programming projects

There can be a variety of obstacles that hinder the implementation of public programming projects (Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013). It was therefore necessary to give the participants an opportunity to highlight the different obstacles that they had encountered. The findings shown in Figure 4.6 are the views of the Directors of the National Archives.
Figure 4.6: Obstacles faced when conducting public programmes
(Source: Field Data 2014)

Budgetary constraints were seen as the main obstacle by the majority of the participants (6 or 67%). This was followed by staff shortages (3 or 33%) and the lack of transport (2 or 22%). Referring back to section 4.4.2, some of the archivists also mentioned lack of funding as an obstacle in implementing public programming projects. Lack of transport, space and computers were highlighted as some of the challenges that were brought about by financial constraints.

Though the ESARBICA 2013-2015 strategic plan outlined the necessity to have marketing strategies and raising awareness about the archives, interviews with the ESARBICA Board members revealed that public programming was not considered a priority at the time of the study. Therefore, the elevation of public programming initiatives in the region took a back seat to other issues such as electronic records management, accountability, transparency, preservation and disaster preparedness.
4.5 Role of legislation and policy in rendering public programming strategies in the ESARBICA region

A society’s laws are important because they articulate the values of society and therefore they recognise, reinforce and give permanence to society’s norms. Referring back to sections 2.5 and 2.6 in Chapter Two of this thesis, it was evident that archival legislation outlines general principles that guide the management of archives and policies set a course of action within the framework of legislation.

Consequently the study sought to determine if archival legislation in the ESARBICA region promoted the use of records and, furthermore, whether the national archives had formal or informal policies that directed public programming initiatives. For that reason, archival legislation from the different member states was reviewed. This was in addition to questions asked in the self-administered questionnaire and face-to-face interviews.

4.5.1 Archival legislation in ESARBICA in relation to promoting access to public archives

Archival legislation from Kenya, Zambia, Namibia, Malawi, Uganda, Tanzania, South Africa, Swaziland and Botswana was reviewed. Legislation from other member states was not accessible. Table 4.4 provides a summary of which sections in this legislation comment on ensuring access, promoting access and the means of promoting access.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country and legislation</th>
<th>Sections in the archival legislation on ensuring access to the archives</th>
<th>Sections in the archival legislation on promoting access to the public</th>
<th>Methods mentioned in the legislation on how to promote access to the archives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Africa: National Archives of South Africa Act No. 43 of 1996.</td>
<td>Sub section (c) of objective 3.</td>
<td>Sub section (h) of objective 3</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania: The Records and Archives Management Act No. 3 of 2002.</td>
<td>Sub section 2 of section II.</td>
<td>Section 13</td>
<td>Publications and exhibitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana: The National Archives (Amendment) Act of 2007</td>
<td>Sections 12 and 13</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda: The National Records and Archives Act of 2001</td>
<td>Section 17</td>
<td>Sub sections (d), (e), 2 (a) and 2 (b) of section 13</td>
<td>Publications and exhibitions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Act Details</td>
<td>Section</td>
<td>Subsections/Sections Details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>National Archives of Zimbabwe Acts 8/1986, 22/2001</td>
<td>Sub- section (a) of Section 9</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>The Swaziland National Archives and Records Management Bill of 2010</td>
<td>Section 4</td>
<td>Sub sections (c), (n) and (o) of section 4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>The National Archives Act 44 of 1969 and 13 of 1994.</td>
<td>Section 11</td>
<td>Sub section (j) and (m) of section 5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>The Public Archives and Documentation Service Act of Kenya 1965 (revised 1991)</td>
<td>Section 6</td>
<td>Sub sections (a) and (b) of section 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>Archives Act No. 12 of 1992</td>
<td>Sections 8 and 10</td>
<td>Sub section (2) of section 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>The National Archives Act No. 12 of 1975</td>
<td>Sections 17 and 18</td>
<td>Sub section (j) and (m) of section 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Field Data 2014)
Table 4.4 seems to indicate how archival legislation is linked to public programming in the ESARBICA region. The fact that records are kept for the people of each particular country is evident in each country’s legislation. However, the legislation of two member states did not say anything with regard to promoting access and how it should be done. The archival legislation of eight member states mentioned promoting access, and this was limited to the use of printed material and exhibitions.

4.5.2 National archival legislation and policies that govern public programming in the ESARBICA region

The Directors of the National Archives and the archivists were requested to share details on existing archival legislation and the availability of any policies on public programming at their archival institutions.

All the Directors of the National Archives (9 or 100%) stated that their countries had archival legislation in place. Further on they were required to name the particular legislation and the following were listed:

- South Africa - National Archives Act No. 43 of 1996 (As amended).
- Tanzania - The Records and Archives Management Act No. 3 of 2002 section 96.
- Swaziland - Swaziland National Archives Act No. 5 of 1971.
• Kenya - Public Archives Act Cap 19 of the laws of Kenya.
• Zanzibar- Act No. 3 of 2008, the Zanzibar Archives and Records Services Act.

The participants were thereafter asked if the mentioned archival legislation purposively directed the national archives to promote access to the archives. Once again they all (9 or 100%) responded in the affirmative, possibly confirming the findings indicated in Table 4.4. The archivists who were asked a similar question provided the same response as the Directors of the National Archives. Some of the responses were as follows:

*In our case the legislation stipulates that it is fundamental, imperative for others (national archives) to give access. It might not have the word ‘promoting’ in the wording. Promoting will probably come as a policy that supports the mandate of the institution.*

Another participant was of the opinion that it was the constitution that promoted access to information more strongly rather than the archival legislation.

*Yes it (the constitution) says every citizen has the right to access information from a public body.*

Though all of the eight participants agreed that access was mentioned in the legislation, five of these participants thought that it did not come across as strongly as it should do. Another archivist cited ‘closed periods or restricted access periods’, claiming that such rules hindered access to the records. Ngulube (2002:175) explains that this means that
the public can only access certain records after a stipulated period of time. This ranges from 20 to 50 years among ESARBICA member states.

4.5.2.1 Policies on public programming in the ESARBICA region

Archival legislation only provides guiding principles and therefore it is up to the national archives to develop policies that will put these principles into action. Accordingly the Directors of the National Archives were asked if their national archives had any written public programming policy. Only one of the national archives had a policy in place, while the majority (8 or 89%) did not.

According to each of the archivists, none of the national archives had a public programming policy. This finding corroborated the responses of the eight (89%) Directors of the National Archives. Four (4) of the archivists mentioned the existence of some guidelines.

When asked for their opinion on whether there should be a public programming policy, all of the interviewees stated that a policy would prove helpful in the running of public programming projects at their archival institutions.

In anticipation of certain national archives stating that they did not have any policy to guide public programming strategies, the Directors of the National Archives were asked
to provide reasons for the absence of such a policy. While three participants did not answer this question, the remaining five participants indicated the following reasons:

- Under preparation;
- Working on a draft policy;
- Plans to develop one in the near future;
- Need to review current legislation;
- Not provided for in the structure; and
- Not yet developed.

According to these findings, most of the national archives had plans to develop public programming policies. However, none of these participants stated when these policies would come to fruition. Overhauling legislation was noted as important by one participant.

For those who would have indicated the existence of policies, a question was included to find out what kind of issues were reflected in the policy. Publicity and advocacy were indicated by the single participant from the national archives with a public programming policy.

4.5.2.2 Support from governing authorities

Archival legislation and policies are developed within the framework of the constitution of the government of any particular country. Therefore, certain support is expected from governing authorities to ensure that the government functions smoothly meeting the needs of the people within the bounds of the laws set. In view of this fact the Directors of the National Archives were requested to indicate what kind of support from their governing
authorities would help in supporting the public programming initiatives of the national archives. Figure 4.7 illustrates their response.

![Bar chart showing wishes of national archives directors](image)

**Figure 4.7: National archives wish list**

(Source: Field Data 2014)

The need for more funding topped the list (9 or 100%), while seven of the Directors of the National Archives (78%) believed that more political support would favour their work immensely. Only a few of the participants highlighted the need to raise awareness about the archives (33%).

### 4.6 Archivists’ knowledge and skills about public programming in the ESARBICA region

Archives are made and kept for use (McCauseland 2007:1). In the case of public archives users include various groupings of people in terms of interest and expertise, as well as
the public at large. Increased societal engagement is dependent upon the archivists who keep the records.

To gain further understanding of this matter, the questionnaire for the Directors of the National Archives as well as the interview schedules for the ESARBICA archivists and ESARBICA Board members included sections with questions on archivist knowledge and skills on public programming (see Appendices 2, 3 and 4). The study sought to:

- Evaluate ESARBICA archivists’ level of skills and knowledge with regard to public programming.
- Find out what training is available for archivists in the ESARBICA region on public programming, marketing of archives or outreach.
- Determine whether public programming forms part of the core curriculum for archival education in the ESARBICA region.

The findings in this section were drawn from the self-administered questionnaire, interviews and websites of various institutions that offered archival education in the ESARBICA region.

4.6.1 Archivists’ knowledge and skills about public programming

The Directors of the National Archives were asked whether they thought that their staff had relevant skills and knowledge to conduct public programming projects. Five (56%) of the directors were of the opinion that their staff were adequately equipped with the right skills and knowledge while four (44%) disagreed.
The eight archivists that were interviewed were confident that they and their colleagues had sufficient knowledge and skills of public programming. They claimed that they were all qualified. One individual commented that at their national archives the minimum qualification for archivists was a Bachelor's Degree and, according to this person, someone at this level should be able to market the archives. Another participant stated that:

*Yes we have skills because we are trained, as much as we are technical people we are trained. I believe each one of us have skills, if we are given a chance we would be able to market.*

Subsequently another participant presented a similar argument:

*I think the skills are there, if you put me in front of a stall at an exhibition and I am supposed to talk about the archives, I will talk about the archives because I work in the archives and I know what is in the archives so I believe my colleagues back home will be able to do it.*

The three ESARBICA Board members that were interviewed also asserted that the archivists in the region had adequate skills to conduct public programming initiatives.

### 4.6.1.1 Knowledge or skill gaps with regard to public programming

The researcher thought it was necessary to give the participants a chance to identify knowledge and skills gaps regarding public programming. Therefore the Directors of the National Archives were presented with a table with various options to point out where they felt they lacked certain skills and to what degree. Their responses are summarised in Table 4.5.
Table 4.5: Areas and levels of training required to improve public programming projects in the national archives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Basic</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Advanced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mounting archival exhibitions</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public speaking</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing promotional material on archives</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing usable websites</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing use of websites</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of social media to promote archives</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocacy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using economic impact assessments to show value of the archives</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public relations</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting guided tours</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicating archives to children</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Field Data 2014)

Four (44%) of the Directors of the National Archives thought that advanced training was required in the area of writing promotional material on archives. Six (67%) of the participants pointed out the need for intermediate training on how to use social media platforms to promote the archives. Furthermore, five (56%) of the participants pointed out the need for intermediate training on analysing the use of websites, while four (44%) noted the development of websites as an area that required intermediate training.

Basic training was mostly required for how to conduct guided tours (5 or 56%). Other areas that required attention included public relations, fundraising and communicating
archives to children (4 or 44%). Areas where the need for training ranked strikingly low were in advocacy and the use of economic impact assessments.

Reverting to the archivists, their main concern was that as much as they had the skills and know-how on how to run public programming initiatives, opportunities to implement such programmes were very few. Reasons given ranged from lack of facilities and resources to handle huge number of patrons, staff shortages, and policies that strictly relegated this duty to a ministerial public relations officer. One of the participants commented on capacity as well. According to this individual there are only seven people who are qualified at this particular national archive; these people do not have enough time to plan and implement public programming projects as there are other priorities and responsibilities. To make matters worse there was a moratorium in place preventing the hiring of extra staff to lighten their work load.

The ESARBICA Board members’ perceptions seemingly concur with the views of the archivists. According to the ESARBICA Board members who were interviewed, the skills and knowledge were there; however, the national archives were not practising public programming effectively despite it being included in the ESARBICA strategic plan (ESARBICA 2013-2015). According to one Board member, more emphasis had been on aligning national archives with records management, administration, transparency and accountability issues. Further on one of the board members was of the opinion that
archivists could learn more about public programming from their counterparts in museums as they have achieved a lot in this regard. In this individual’s words:

…there is scope to learn from our counterparts (museums) especially with regards to public programming when you look at national archives in the region today, I don’t know how many actually have public galleries for example. For some it’s a place where you go in you read, you leave, but you start to see in others there is actually a small museum, a small gallery where they display historical artefacts.

4.6.1.2 Education on public programming in the ESARBICA region

Archival education has been identified as the foundation for the profession (Nesmith, 2007; Society of American Archivists, 2013). According to Michetti (2013) a well-trained archivist should be able to: manage archives, communicate archives and run an archival service. According to the ASA (2013), SAA (2013) and Michetti (2013), there is a core curriculum for archivists in countries such as Australia, the United States of America and in Europe. At the time of the study it included public programming or outreach. Finding similar information from archival associations in ESARBICA proved problematic. Katuu (2013) argues that seemingly this is an area of research that has been understudied, leading to little or no information on core archival curricula in Africa.

Though the core archival curriculum was difficult to identify within the ESARBICA region, websites of different institutions offering archives and records management education were visited to analyse their curricula. The intention was to determine whether outreach or public programming or any other course related to raising awareness about the
archives were included. An online keyword search and a list of institutions provided by the Directors of the National Archives resulted in a list of twenty-five (25) institutions that offer archives and records management training. However, only nine (9) of these provided detailed information regarding modules or courses offered.

These institutions were: Moi University in Kenya, University of Botswana in Botswana, Kenyatta University in Kenya, Uganda institute of Information and Communication Technology in Uganda, Makerere University in Uganda, Mzuzu University in Malawi, National University of Science and Technology in Zimbabwe, University of Fort Hare in South Africa and the University of South Africa in South Africa. Only one of these institutions clearly indicated the existence of a course on public programming or outreach. The National University of Science and Technology in Zimbabwe offered this course. The course name was ‘Marketing of Records and Archives Information Products and Services’. The course was offered at the fourth year level of the Bachelor’s degree programme in archival science.

4.6.1.3 Public programming training in the ESARBICA region

Moving from public programming education in the ESARBICA region, the study tried to identify available training on public programming in the same region. The Directors of the National Archives were given options to select what they thought would be the best way to equip their archives’ staff with public programming skills on a question item. Figure 4.8 illustrates their responses.
Short courses and workshops (6 or 67%) were seen as the most appropriate way to train archivists. On the job training, mentorship and formal qualifications were the least favoured methods (3 or 33%). The use of training and internships were also considered as suitable ways to train archivists on public programming (4 or 44%).

Once these preferred methods of training were established, the next step involved asking the Directors of the National Archives where such training was offered. Figure 4.9 illustrates their views.
According to five (56%) of the Directors of the National Archives the most prominent service provider for training programmes were universities, while three (33%) indicated colleges and two (22%) mentioned private organisations and in-house training. When asked whether staff were aware of these available training options, seven (78%) responded in the affirmative while two (22%) stated otherwise.

The archivists were also asked whether they were aware of any training on public programming, outreach or any course related to raising awareness about archives. Only two individuals agreed while the rest mentioned that they were not aware of any public programming training. These views differ from those of the Directors of the National Archives.
The two individuals who were aware of available training said that it was offered as a course’s unit in a particular Masters’ programme. One of them also indicated that customer care workshops were offered at their national archives and outreach formed part of this short course.

The ESARBICA board members indicated that though ESARBICA implemented training programmes for the region, none of the training programmes have been on public programming. This prompted one of the board members to say:

As I have said there has been too much emphasis really on issues related to records management, electronic records at the expense of these issues (public programming) which are very important… I believe now with the FOI legislation coming up, it can also drive the need to share archives in a way which is interactive and attractive to the public.

4.7 The role of user studies and customer focus in public programming initiatives

Focusing on the working definition for public programming developed for this study in Chapter Two, it states that public programming is:

A tool that enables public archives to communicate archives to citizens and receive feedback on services offered through a body of coordinated activities with the aim of developing an effective and efficient archival service.

Citizens are important and, as the records are kept for them to use for professional, personal and other reasons, it is pertinent to ascertain whether their needs are met or what can be done to ensure a fruitful experience when using the archives.
A section of the Directors of the National Archives questionnaire and the archivists’ interview schedule was dedicated for this purpose (see Appendices 2 and 3).

4.7.1 User studies and customer satisfaction in the ESARBICA region

This section presents findings from the study related to user studies and customer satisfaction.

4.7.1.1 User needs

Determining needs of the users was deemed as an important part of rendering an effective archival service; therefore the Directors of the National Archives were asked if they determined the needs of their users.

The majority of the Directors of the National Archives (6 or 67%) confirmed that they did investigate the needs of their users, while two (22%) did not. One participant refrained from answering the question. Determining how they investigated these needs was also important. Figure 4.10 shows the responses of the Directors of the National Archives.
Most of the national archives (5 or 56%) relied on the evaluation of reading room statistics (5 or 56%). The review of information requests was considered as a feasible method by four participants (44%) while three (33%) used interviews and evaluation forms. Once again under the option of 'other' methods suggestion boxes were mentioned.

Only one of the interviewed archivists indicated that their national archives did not have mechanisms in place to determine user needs and customer satisfaction; however this individual mentioned that this issue had been discussed in meetings at their institution.
The remaining seven archivists mentioned questionnaires, guest books, suggestion boxes, surveys and evaluation forms as the measures they used to determine user needs and customer satisfaction. Some of the comments stated:

… We have a suggestion box for comments from our users, and we normally have a guest book where every person who uses the archives leaves a comment.

Another archivist said that:

…when you visit the national archives we have a questionnaire so at the end of the day we look at the questionnaire and we are able to see which area people were interested in by just looking at the questionnaire.

One of the archivists related an example whereby different needs were uncovered while carrying out public programming projects via the public media. Radio and television shows that allow calls from viewers or listeners resulted in people asking many questions - like the origins of certain clans. This particular institution was therefore able to address a specific need.

In addition, another archivist raised the issue of the different types of users that visited their national archives. In that person’s opinion it had been difficult to keep track of user needs due to staff shortages. In this case this person categorized users as traditional (frequent users) and referrals (once-off). According to this interviewee, traditional users relied heavily on archivists to get information, and would not comment negatively on anything to ensure continued assistance. Referrals, however, who did not understand the
archives were in some cases frustrated and commented more freely about their disappointment.

4.7.1.2 Customer satisfaction

Kotler and Lee (2007) argue that it is crucial for any public service to be aware of customer satisfaction levels so that they can decide on the success or shortfalls of the service offered. Consequently, the same customer satisfaction question was put to the Directors of the National Archives.

The majority of the Directors (7 or 78%) confirmed that they conducted customer satisfaction services, while two (22%) did not. The Directors who agreed were further asked to state how they went about achieving this. A number of options were presented to them in addition to the option of adding any other method that was not mentioned by the questionnaire. Their responses are shown in Figure 4.11.
Figure 4.11: Methods used to determine customer satisfaction
(Source: Field Data 2014)

Interviews (4 or 44%) were the most favoured method, followed by evaluation forms and user satisfaction surveys (3 or 33%). Focus group discussions were used by two national archives while those who indicated ‘other’ mentioned suggestion and visitors’ boxes as tools used to determine customer satisfaction as well. Two (22%) national archives did not have methods in place to establish customer satisfaction.

4.7.1.3 Identification of new users

Identifying new users and providing them with relevant information is important for any information service. It was therefore necessary for the study to determine whether the national archives engaged in identifying new users.
The majority (8 or 89%) indicated that they identified new users. Moreover, it was also necessary to find out what kind of assistance was provided, and so the questionnaire gave leeway for comments. These were the comments of the Directors of the National Archives:

- New users are given rules/regulations for the search room, guided on how to use the finding aids.
- New users are assisted to identify the materials through the online retrieval service.
- New researchers are inducted on the use of our reference services.
- We always provide awareness talks to our new users. We also educate them on the archival holdings and how to get what they want.
- Users are advised on the rules regulations and procedures.
- There are staff members who help researchers in the search and help them in using the catalogues, transmittal lists, etc.

The Directors of the National Archives were further asked whether they organised any programmes to help regular users in their quest for information at the archives. Five (56%) of the Directors of the National Archives agreed while four (44%) said their national archives (44%) did not have such programmes in place. Those who responded positively were also asked to indicate how often such programmes took place. Out of the five (56%) participants who responded in the affirmative, four (80%) stated weekly, while one (20%) indicated that this exercise took place monthly.
4.7.1.4 Duration of open hours

After establishing that users did get assistance in navigating the archives, the duration of opening hours of the national archives was the next thing that had to be determined. The study had to find out the number of hours users had access to the national archives. Figure 4.12 portrays the response of the Directors of the National Archives.

![Duration of open hours chart](chart.png)

**Figure 4.12: Duration of open hours**
(Source: Field Data 2014)

More than six (67%) of the national archives remained open between eight to ten hours per day, while the remaining three (33%) only opened for four to six hours per day. It was also established that the users of the national archives did not need to book for an appointment to use the facilities and consult records. This was confirmed by all the participants in the questionnaire.
4.7.1.5 Providing feedback to users of the archives

Gathering information on user needs and determining their levels of satisfaction is one thing; what is done with the information at the end of the day is also important. For that reason, the Directors of the National Archives were asked if after establishing these needs they had put any measures in place to address them. Furthermore, in the presence of such measures the researcher wanted to determine whether these measures were communicated to the public. Most of the national archives (5 or 56%) did not use the information to improve their services and provide feedback to the public. Three (33%) of the national archives did make use of this information, while one (11%) national archive did not respond to this question.

While the majority (5 or 56%) of the Directors of the National Archives stated that they did not use the information on user needs and customer satisfaction to improve services, all of the archivists confirmed otherwise, explaining that the information was referred to and services improved where possible. Two examples were offered:

In 2010 if I am not mistaken we had a cultural exhibition in Province X…So there were people who said you have come to Province X, why are you bringing stuff on Province Y? (a different tribe) and there are those ethnic and tribal differences. Next time when we know we are going to Province X we will be well aware not to disappoint our clients from Province X, so we would really consider that.

While another archivist stated:
…We are obligated to write a record of what has happened, so we have a meeting and we discuss what went wrong (from suggestion box) in order to prevent something like that happening, that is how we work.

4.7.1.6 Attracting potential users

Feedback is usually of more value to individuals who have made use of services offered by the national archives. Most probably the national archives did not just focus on their existing users, but attempted to reach out to potential users as well. In view of that, it was necessary to determine the type of initiatives used to reach potential users of the service.

The Directors of the National Archives highlighted the following initiatives:

- Establishment of ‘Friends of the Archives’ programme.
- Opening on the last Saturday of the month to encourage use of archives by members of the public/researchers, etc.
- Use of the website.
- Calling and conducting meetings with users.
- Visiting and inviting learning institutions.
- Newsletters, radio and television talk shows.
- Reports on user satisfaction.
- Public media.

The Directors of the National Archives were not asked to mention which strategies were the most successful.
4.8 Collaboration as a means to further public programming in the ESARBICA region

Referring to Chapter Two, collaboration was identified as an enabling factor that could advance the efforts of raising awareness about public archives (VanderBerg 2012; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008 and Marcum 2014).

The Directors of the National Archives were therefore asked if they had collaborated with other information services to promote the use of the national archives. All nine (100%) participants specified that indeed they worked with other information services. It was also necessary to identify the institutions that collaborated with the national archives. Figure 4.13 relates the responses of the Directors of the National Archives.

![Figure 4.13: Collaborators in public programming initiatives](Source: Field Data 2014)

Seemingly Institutions of higher learning were the most common collaborators (7 or 78%) with the national archives. Other sections of government (6 or 67%) were also considered
as joint partners in collaborative efforts with the national archives. According to the Directors of the National Archives these sections were identified as ministries, the Bureau of Heraldry, government communication units and national trust institutions.

According to the archivists, their national archives collaborated with other information services to promote the archives. The findings were different from the Directors of the National Archives in that two of the interviewed archivists claimed that no collaboration took place.

The institutions that these archivists highlighted were:

- The Office of the Prime Minister
- Department of Arts and Culture
- Schools
- Television and radio stations
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs

After establishing that collaboration did happen in the ESARBICA region, the Directors of the National Archives were probed on how such programmes were carried out. Figure 4.14 summarises the responses of the Directors of the National Archives.
Lectures, seminars and workshops (4 or 44%) were the most favoured ways of collaboration. Joint exhibitions and student tours were also popular (3 or 33%); while only one national archive participated in special projects.

Compared to the Directors of the National Archives’ responses, no institutions of higher learning were mentioned by the interviewed archivists. These participants mentioned schools as their biggest clients. Libraries and museums were also not mentioned at all. Exhibitions, school tours and talk shows were highlighted as preferred ways of collaboration.
All of the participants agreed that collaborative efforts would help their national archives to reach more people. One participant also indicated that it alleviated budget challenges as well. These are the views of some of the participants:

*Collaboration is a good thing; it really saves in terms of resources for example like the previous week when we were celebrating our X anniversary I was part of the committee. We had an event that was organised by the ministry of foreign affairs, it was foreign affairs sponsoring everything and we had to come up with an exhibition and we partnered with them.*

Another participant’s view:

*…And it (collaboration) helps in promoting because you know, especially in Country W, when you talk about national archives, most people do not know what it is about so I felt that the collaboration between Country W's national archives, the radio station and television had really marketed the national archives. Even the royal family is now watching those programmes.*

4.9 The use of social media to raise awareness about the archives

Daines and Nimer (2009) explain that archival institutions can make use of social media to raise awareness about the archives. For that reason the Directors of the National Archives were asked whether they utilised social media to promote the national archives. The majority of the national archives (7 or 78%) did not use social media. Facebook and Twitter were identified as the preferred social media platforms by the two (22%) national archives that made use of social media.
Even though not all of the national archives used social media, the Directors of the National Archives were asked what they thought were the advantages of using social media. Six (67%) of the participants were of the opinion that social media could help the national archives to reach a wider audience. Figure 4.15 illustrates their opinions.

![Figure 4.15: Advantages of using social media](Source: Field Data 2014)

Most of the Directors of the National Archives (6 or 67%) were in agreement that social media could reach more people. Two of the participants went further and explained that social media were more appealing to the youth as well. The fact that most people access social media over their cell phones was pointed out by two (22%) of the participants.

When asked about the disadvantages, six (67%) declined to answer, while three of the participants offered the following reasons:

- Social media only reaches the elite,
- It allows distortion and manipulation, and
- Some users may introduce petty issues.

Out of the eight archivists who were interviewed only one mentioned that they made use of social media to communicate and raise awareness about the archives. Seven of the interviewees indicated that their national archives had websites while one did not. This particular national archives has a link within their governing National Department’s website. The archivists shared similar views as the directors regarding the disadvantages of using social media. One participant shared that:

There are a lot of challenges with regards to using social media as a tool of communication, we are talking about issues of privacy, and we are talking about public records. Do you know what to share out to the public, there is also the question of how do you treat those records through social media?

Most of the participants have personal Facebook accounts. Two of the interviewees mentioned that they did talk about national archives on their pages; however this was done in their personal capacities.

All the archivists highlighted that their national archives websites were used to market different programmes.

The Directors of the National Archives who did not make use of social media were asked to give reasons why their national archives did not do so. The results were as follows:
There are stringent procedures to be followed considering the fact that we belong to the Ministry of Home Affairs (Security ministry).

Social media are used by people to share issues like politics and social issues.

Lack of creativity (exposure).

It is something in the pipeline.

The archives need to get permission from the department which it falls under.

The ESARBICA Board members and the available country reports did not mention the promotion of public archives by the use of social media. Since most of the national archives did not make use of social media, there was not much to report on in this section.

4.10 Summary of the chapter

The findings presented in this chapter were derived from questionnaires, interviews and analysed documents. The main issues that emerged from the findings of this study can be summarised as follows according to the objectives of the study:

a) Assessment of existing public programming activities in the ESARBICA region:

- Public programming strategies did form part of services offered by national archives of the ESARBICA region;
- Though raising awareness about the archives formed part of the ESARBICA 2013-2015 strategic plan, the implementation of such initiatives lagged behind other priorities;
• The use of printed material was established as a common method used by the national archives to raise awareness about the archives;
• Budgetary constraints was the main obstacle in the planning and implementation of public programming projects.

b) The availability of legislation that guides public programming activities:
• Archival legislation from the ESARBICA member countries did highlight the need to ensure access to the archives, but the outlined methods of promotion were limited to the use of printed matter and exhibitions;
• The majority of national archives in the ESARBICA region did not have policies on public programming matters.

c) The assessment of the role of user studies and customer satisfaction in public programming initiatives:
• The national archives did make the effort to identify user needs and determine customer satisfaction; however, little was done regarding the analysis of this gathered information to improve services.

d) Archivists’ knowledge and skills regarding public programming:
• Archivists in the region and the ESARBICA Board believed that they have the know-how and skills to run public programming projects, but there were not enough opportunities to do such programmes;
- Findings indicated that at the time of the study there was inadequate public programming training and information regarding such training in the ESARBICA region;
- Public programming did not clearly form part of the core curriculum for archival education or training offered by some institutions offering archival programmes in the ESARBICA region.

e) Collaboration with other organisations to promote and facilitate access to the archives:
- Collaboration efforts in most of the national archives of the ESARBICA region were evident. However, archivists felt that more could be done in terms of seeking for more collaboration opportunities.

f) Social media as a means to increase awareness about the archives:
- The majority of the national archives in the ESARBICA region did not use social media to raise awareness about the archives.

The findings seemingly indicate that public programming is not a foreign concept in the ESARBICA region. In other words, the foundation is there but it is apparent that certain issues seem to affect the implementation and effectiveness of such programmes. Chapter Five discusses the interpretation of these findings in detail.
CHAPTER FIVE

INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter interprets and discusses the findings that are presented in Chapter Four. According to Creswell (2009:153), this section of the thesis enables the researcher to report on how the results answered the research questions. Perry (2012:30) likens this exercise to the completion of a jigsaw puzzle:

The research begins like a jumbled jigsaw puzzle at the research problem stage. Chapter Two’s literature review starts putting the pieces together trying to uncover a picture, but shows that some pieces are missing...Then Chapters Three and Four describe the hunt for the missing pieces, and the matching together of newly found pieces. Finally Chapter Five returns to the puzzle, briefly describing what the picture looked like at the end of Chapter Two and then explaining how the old and new pieces fit to make the whole picture clear.

In light of Perry’s (2012) explanation, it would be important to revisit the purpose of the study, the objectives of the study and what the reviewed literature has stated with regard to public programming in the ESARBICA region. Blum (2006) states that revisiting these points ensures that there is a connecting thread starting from the beginning of the thesis to the end. The University of Southern California (2013) points out that the objectives of the interpretation and discussion chapter should be to:

- Reiterate the research problem.
- Explain the meaning of the findings.
- Relate the findings to similar studies.
- Consider alternative explanations of the findings.
- Acknowledge the study’s limitations.

Although in Chapter One public programming initiatives were acknowledged as suitable methods to take archives to the people, it was noted that they were not fully used to make the citizens of ESARBICA aware of the products and services that the public archives in this region have to offer (Kamatula 2011; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; and Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012). A study by Murambiwa and Ngulube (2011) also indicates a fluctuating number of people who make use of the national archives in some of the ESARBICA countries.

Therefore this study aimed at describing the status quo of public programming in the region at that particular point in time and formulating a framework to guide public programming initiatives in the region.

A combination of quantitative and qualitative methods were used to gather data to answer the research questions. Findings of the study are described in Chapter Four. To ensure that the flow of information in this chapter is not confusing, corresponding section titles with Chapter Four were used in both chapters as suggested by Blum (2006).
This study was based on a set of factors that were believed to influence public programming. The factors were derived from the objectives of the study. Notably, the organisation of chapters two, three and four has been done according to these factors. This practice is continued in Chapter Five. These factors serve as the golden thread that connects the chapters of this thesis from the beginning to the end. The factors are:

1. Public programming activities;
2. Legislation;
3. Policies;
4. User studies and customer satisfaction;
5. Knowledge and skills of archivists;
6. Collaboration; and
7. The use of technology (social media).

Through the review of literature on public programming and related studies some key issues were identified.

First and foremost, public programming projects were evident in the ESARBICA region, but the influence of these programmes was low (Kamatula 2011; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube and Tafor 2006). Customer satisfaction and user studies, though important, did not play a significant role in helping clients or attracting new users (Battley and Wright 2012; Maher 1986; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Yeo 2005).
Public programming or outreach as a key aspect of archival service did not feature in the core curricular of certain archival institutions (Katuu 2013; Khayundi 2013; Nesmith 2007; Wamukoya 2013). Likewise, technologies such as those with Web 2.0 functionality, for example social media, were not always used to create interest about the archives (Ferreiro 2011; Jimerson 2011; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011).

Legislation from the different ESARBICA member states highlighted the need to promote access but the legislation of most member states limited promotion to the use of print media and exhibitions, thus making it difficult to accommodate current trends related to promoting archives such as social media (Kabata and Muthee 2013; Matongo, Marwa and Wamukoya 2013; Mnjama 2005). While collaboration was considered as a means to overcoming challenges related to promoting archives (Hedlin 2011; Marcum 2014; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008), it was rarely reported on in the ESARBICA region (Mnjama 2005; Ngulube and Sibanda 2006).

This chapter, therefore, strives to link the discoveries found through the review of literature with the findings described in Chapter Four. The interpretations and discussions in this chapter provided the opportunity to highlight similarities, differences and new concepts related to the topic of public programming.
5.1 The National Archives of ESARBICA

The participants of the study were the national archives of the ESARBICA region. These participants are briefly described and discussed in this section.

5.1.1 Institutional and archivist profiles

Nine (9) out of the thirteen (13) national archives that were approached participated in the study. This yielded a 69.2% response rate, which was regarded as appropriate for the study (Bryman 2012). Table 4.1 in Chapter Four provides a summary of all the participants of the study. Seemingly, there was a reasonable representation of all member states. Only one member country (Lesotho) was not represented by any group of respondents that were selected for this study.

Seven mission statements from the national archives were made available for analysis. These are listed in section 4.2.1.1. The concept of preserving, managing and providing access to information comes out clearly in each of the mission statements. Furthermore, it was established that these mission statements were linked to the legislation of the respective countries. This is discussed further in section 5.3 which is based on the role of legislation and policy in rendering public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region. Making reference to section 2.5 of the literature review, Roper and Millar (1999b) state that the legislation should provide a framework for the functions of any national archive. The mission and the functions of the national archives should be linked. Furthermore, the mission should influence the implementation of the functions of the national archives.
The Directors of the National Archives reported that a total of 923 people were employed in their archival institutions. However, it should be noted that one Director explained that 400 people working as record managers in other organisations were a part of their organisational structure. In the absence of these 400 individuals, the total number of people employed at the national archives shifts down to 523.

Referring to Table 4.2 which describes the number of people according to the different capacities they served in, it was noted that a total of 493 people worked at the national archives. The difference between the two figures stands at 30 people, which could be considered as minimal. This could mean that the ESARBICA region is served by a sizeable number of archivists. Whether this number of archivists was adequate to provide services to the citizens they serve, was a matter that was beyond the scope of this study.

Assessing the findings in Table 4.2 again, it is probably possible to point out positions which were more demanding than others based on the number of people who were employed in those positions. Archivists employed to deal with appraisal of records were the highest in number with 106 employees. This was followed by those responsible for reference services (74) and administration (45). If one was to consider the number of archivists per position, standing out with the least number of employees would be those responsible for public programming with a figure of 17 employees. Combined with other portfolios such as outreach and education, the number then rises to 64. Perhaps this
confirms the views of other researchers on this topic that promoting access has been considered as peripheral compared to other archival functions (Blais and Enns 1991; Cox 1993; Finch 1994; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube, Sibanda and Makoni 2013).

Nevertheless, it was noted that 64 archivists in the ESARBICA region were tasked with functions that related to raising an awareness of the archives. The national archives could be commended for adding these portfolios, but matters relating to competency and experience can also influence the manner in which they fulfil their responsibilities. Studies by Ngulube, Sibanda and Makoni (2013) as well as Saurombe and Ngulube (2014) showed that some archivists in the region felt that they did not have the adequate skills to do public programming projects. This factor is discussed in more detail in section 5.4 (Archivists’ knowledge and skills about public programming in the ESARBICA region) of this thesis.

5.2 Public programming in the ESARBICA region

According to Ericson (1991:118) “any public repository has an obligation, both ethical and practical to inform its constituency about its holdings and services”. Public programming initiatives were not a foreign concept in the ESARBICA region, as determined by the literature (Kamatula 2011; Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube and Tafor 2006). All of the Directors of the National Archives disclosed that their respective archival institutions implemented public programming activities. Perhaps this implies that the national archives realise their responsibility of making the archives known to the public.
5.2.1 Frequency of public programming activities

Public programming initiatives are designed to influence behaviour (Lukenbill 2002; Morgan 2010). Thus it can be argued that the frequency of such programmes could interest more people to make use of archival services. The study established that the frequency of public programming programmes varied from country to country. Figure 4.1 shows that, at the time of the study, there were archival institutions that took part in these activities only once per year. There were other cases where it happened monthly and weekly, while others reported it as a daily or quarterly exercise. It is difficult to believe that supporting greater use of the archives (Mockford 2013) could occur if public programming projects only happened once per year.

Interestingly, there was an archival institution that had daily programmes. Unfortunately, the questionnaire did not give this institution the opportunity to explain how this was done. This matter could be taken on as a potential case study for further research.

Seven of the archivists also stated that they conducted public programming projects at their national archives. However, one archivist disagreed, stating that this was the responsibility of the Public Relation’s Officer in their ministry. Though it is good to get assistance with promoting archives (Hedlin 2011), it should not remain the sole responsibility of a third party (Blais 1995; ICA 2012).
Raising an awareness of the archives is part of the ESARBICA Board’s strategic plan (ESARBICA 2013-2015). Nevertheless, according to reports provided by this Board for this study only two member states conducted public programming projects. One ESARBICA Board member pointed out that the number of users was an issue of concern. In a way, this points out the need for more public programming ventures. According to the ICA Principles on Access (2012), “archivists have a professional responsibility to promote access to the archives”. As members of ESARBICA, each member state abides by these principles. Probably, with more emphasis at every board meeting, member states could be encouraged to develop, implement and report on public programming initiatives.

5.2.2 Budgets for public programming plans

The majority of the Directors of the National Archives (6 or 67%) stated that funding was made available for public programming projects. However, considering the views of the archivists, it would seem that this funding was not sufficient. Reports on lack of transport, space and computers were provided. This caused one of the archivists to question that, in the absence of funding, should public programming really be a necessity?

Ericson (1991:118) tackles such questions by cautioning archivists not to refrain from outreach efforts. In his argument, increased demand will enable the deficiencies in the archival institutions to become more visible and, therefore, contribute towards decision making in favour of more funding for archival institutions. He further explains that the
rewards may not be immediate and so archival institutions should come up with ideas on how to handle increased demand.

The issue of financial constraints is a proverbial problem that few organisations can escape in the current economic environment (Brett and Jones 2013; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003). Hedlin (2011) and Wandel (2013), therefore, advise archivists to lobby for the support of their programmes. This is also known as advocacy. Hedlin (2011) argues that if archival institutions can make themselves relevant by linking their records to the needs of those in power and in the community, seeking funds could be an easier task. Hedlin’s (2011) views are similar to those of Haider (2005). Haider (2005) reports from Pakistan, a developing country, where he argues that archives need to prove their role in the development of the country. Thereafter funding could be provided to sustain the archival service.

Notably, two of the Directors of the National Archives reported that they did not have a budget for public programming initiatives. One stated that in the absence of a policy on public programming it was difficult to allocate funding. In accordance with Brett and Jones’s (2013), Haider’s (2004) and Hedlin’s (2011) views, these institutions should not give up on their public programming plans. Ericson (1991) stresses that though financial challenges may exist it is more important to focus on the goal of public programming and not the means.
Sulej (2014:30) reports on a project in South Africa that involves archival staff operating under difficult circumstance such as inadequate funding. The programme gives these archivists an opportunity to network and learn from their experiences. According to Sulej (2014:30), “there are some archives that are succeeding regardless of many challenges”. Sanford (2011) states that this may require archivists to “take risks and move out of their comfortable confines of their vaults and profession to interact with others”. This could help build an understanding of archives and increase the support that archival institutions need.

5.2.3 Raising an awareness of the national archives

According to Ericson (1991:115) public programming projects should not be limited to a single activity. A variety of methods should be employed to reach out to different groups of people in society. Ericson (1991) mentions the following methods as examples of public programming projects: public presentations, workshops, brochures, guides, media features, displays, curricular exercises, and news releases.

Previous sections of this chapter have ascertained that the national archives of ESARBICA conducted public programming initiatives. The discussion in this section delves into how it was done.

Section 4.4.3 shows that seminars, workshops, exhibitions and tours were the most favoured ways (8 or 88%) of conducting public programming at the national archives of
ESARBICA. Websites (7 or 78%), television and radio (56%) were also popular to a certain extent. The archivists indicated that they offered lectures, participated in exhibitions and took part in television and radio shows. These methods were also identified in the literature (Pederson 2008; Weir 1991; Yates 1986). Most likely these methods are considered as “tried and trusted” methods.

However, the effectiveness of these methods could be questioned given the fact that the literature still reports on the under-utilisation of archives in the ESARBICA region (Kamatula 2011; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012; Sulej 2014). Most probably this could be linked to the argument outlined in 5.2.1, stating that the frequency of the programmes was not sufficient. As with Ericson (1991), Sulej (2014) is of the opinion that using a variety of public programming activities could address the different interests of people in society.

The archivists were of the opinion that public programming was not a top priority at their archival institutions. This could further affect the planning and implementation of public programming projects. These findings are similar to those of Blais and Enns (1991), Bradley (2005) and Ericson (1991), who stated that the promotion and use of archives were deemed a luxury in certain public archives. There was a common consensus among the archivists that public programming should be a priority, but other matters seemed to supersede public programming. The ESARBICA Board pointed out that issues that were
prioritised included electronic records management, transparency, administration and accountability matters. Kotler and Lee (2007) as well as Morgan (2010) argue that promotion initiatives such as public programming require careful thinking, planning and implementation. This will not happen if public programming is considered marginal in comparison with other functions of the archival institutions.

5.2.3.1 Use of premises for public services
Sanford (2011) shares that an archival institution can get the public more interested in their services by allowing them on the premises to do other activities. These activities do not necessarily need to be related to the use of the records. Figure 4.3 indicates that the premises of the national archives were mostly used by the public for lectures and workshops (6 or 67%). Only two (22%) Directors stated that their facilities were used by children for after school or weekend club activities.

Pederson (2008) laments that most archival services disregard the needs of children. She argues that children as young as ten can make use of the facilities. Van der Walt (2011) has a similar outlook on the exclusion of services for children at archival institutions. Weekend club activities or other children activities could be a creative way of getting communities to feel valued and interested in the service (Sulej 2014).
5.2.3.2 Promotional material

The Directors of the National Archives indicated that the most common format for promotional material was the print format. These resources were leaflets and brochures (8 or 89%). This was followed by websites and posters (7 or 78%). Websites emerged again as a second best option, behind print resources. This finding was an interesting discovery, because in section 2.7 of this thesis it was mentioned that a review of the various national archives websites indicated very little information regarding public programming. Only two countries made use of their websites to promote the archives. Perhaps circumstances changed between the period the literature review was completed and the data was collected.

Another outstanding finding was that only two (22%) of the national archives made use of social media to create interest in the archives. Many archivists argue that Web 2.0 technologies such as social media afford the archives a chance to interact with more users than they did in the past (Cook 2013; Garaba 2012; Jimerson 2011; Roberts 2008; Theimer 2011). Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011) in 2011 drew attention to the need for further research on how social media could promote the holdings and services of the National Archives and Records Service of South Africa. A few years later, it seems the stance is still the same among the national archives. Probably, social media is not considered by archivists as a feasible method to reach the public in the ESARBICA region.
Harris (2014) argues that more African societies are getting connected via mobile technology. This could imply that many current and potential users of archival institutions use mobile platforms for communication, information and transactions in their daily lives. He therefore suggests that archival institutions should make use of such platforms to raise awareness of the archives.

Printed resources were the dominant forms of promotional materials. The distribution of these resources was also a matter of interest since the influence would be lessened if done incorrectly. Most of the promotional material was distributed at educational institutions (7 or 78%), followed by tourist centres and other archival institutions (4 or 44%). Education institutions were also revealed as popular places to conduct public programming projects in the literature (Kamatula 2011; KNADS 2014; Namibia National Library and Archive Service 2014). Possibly, it was easier to target this group of society because the resources offered addressed curricula needs.

Referring to Sanford’s (2011) argument on archivists leaving their comfort zones, educational institutions could be one of them. The national archives need to widen their reach to the rest of the public spaces or places where citizens are found in significant numbers.

None of the national archives mentioned the use of community centres, yet efforts were made to distribute the resources at tourist centres. Since tourist centres are well
established offices in strategic points of towns, this could have been another convenient place to distribute these resources. Archival institutions can serve as tourist attractions but serious effort needs to go into attracting the general public (Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013).

Surprisingly, libraries were not as popular as the tourist centres. Since these organisations serve similar interests (Marcum 2014), it could be assumed that they would top the list as distribution points. This was not so in this case, perhaps indicating lack of cooperation between these institutions. Collaboration is discussed further in section 5.6 of this chapter.

5.2.3.3 Linking public archives with the people’s needs

Archives are considered as credible information sources that can address the different information needs in society (Bradley 2005; Grabowski 1992; Nesmith 2010). It was mentioned earlier that archives can fulfil educational needs. However, the study wanted to determine whether the national archives addressed other needs such as health, social inclusion, cultural identity, environmental stability and the local economy (Mnkeni-Saurombe and Zimu 2013; Venson, Ngoepe and Ngulube 2014).

According to Harris (2014), archival institutions need to play an important role in the development of society. He argues that this will not happen if archival institution do not link the records and services they offer to socio-economic needs. Venson, Ngoepe and
Ngulube (2014:57) state that the records kept by the national archives can help governments and society to address issues such as “poverty, crime, social grants, AIDS, land rights and even provision of basic services (water and electricity)”.

Seemingly, the responses from both groups of the respondents (Directors and archivists) did not clearly mention services offered to meet the needs listed in this section. This outcome in some way supports the findings of a study by Venson, Ngoepe and Ngulube (2014:63) which stated that the link between the archival institutions and the National Development Plans of some ESARBICA member states was obscure. Since archival institutions do not educate society on how to address their needs using the records they keep, they remain unknown to the people who matter most - the general public. According to the responses in section 4.4.3.1, it would seem that most of the national archives’ efforts were geared towards organisations and education institutions.

Blais and Enns (1991:103) argue that “archives must shape the services they provide to the specific needs and expectations of their users; not only fulfil information needs but also guarantee public support”. Supporting greater use of the archives requires a wider reach into society. Therefore, national archives might have to find more ways to step in and address key issues in society. This may involve thinking out of the box, for example, collaboration with libraries and other organisations or individuals engaged in initiatives related to developing society (Hedlin 2011).
5.2.4 Factors that influenced public awareness of national archives

Various factors may influence the public's awareness of the national archives. The Directors of the National Archives were therefore asked to point out whether the factors listed in Table 4.3 had a negative, positive or neutral impact on how people came to know about these institutions. Table 4.3 was divided into four sections. These factors were categorised according to: skills and human resources, public image of the national archives, financial means and development and, lastly, fees and services.

5.2.4.1 Skills and human resources

Blais and Enns (1991) argue that archivists are famous for their curatorial abilities. However, they argue that this could work against them as the archival institutions do not only keep records but also facilitate access to these records as well. Findings of the study indicated that all of the Directors of the National Archives (9 or 100%) thought that the skills and knowledge of their staff were important. Nesmith (2010) contends that effective public programming requires archivists to contextualise their records with public affairs. Such initiatives require certain acumen, and would in a way improve the image of archives in the public sphere. Kemoni (2004) points out that communication skills are a necessity for all archivists.

In addition, Ericson (1991:119-120) argues that some archivists lament about their repositories being under-utilised and under-funded but they also turn out to be very fussy with the clientele they serve. He therefore advises archivists to remember that they will
not always serve scholars. Certain people would like to make use of the facilities but do not know how to. Therefore, archivists need to be ready to educate such individuals to search for the information they need. This could consequently mean that archivists need to establish a rapport with their clients, be patient and develop a customer-oriented attitude.

5.2.4.2 Public image of the national archives

Blais and Enns (1991) argue that public archives tend to ignore the importance of their image in the communities they serve. These authors advise that public institutions such as public archives could learn more about the importance of an organisation’s image from the private sector. They point out that the private sector normally spends a significant amount of time and money on establishing a reputable and visible image for an organisation.

Blais and Enns (1991), Ericson (1991), Evans (2007) and Reid (2010) speak about how public archives have suffered due to their invisibility to those in authority. For that reason Craig (1991), Ericson (1991) together with Blais and Enns (1991) insist that public archives should improve their public image, so as to make budget meetings or requests and other funding endeavours much easier.

Seemingly, the Directors of the National Archives were of the opinion that the building and the brand (7 or 78%) were of importance. Six (67%) of the respondents also indicated
that public programming did help to improve the image of the archives in society. It would seem that the public image of the archives did concern the national archives in the ESARBICA region. Yakel (2005) and Reid (2010) explain that it is necessary for archives to move from their traditional ways of thinking and adapt to current trends in society. This could include considering ways of how to improve the image and visibility of the archives in society.

5.2.4.3 Financial means and development

Referring to section 5.2.2, it would seem that the Directors of the National Archives believed that the funding provided for public programming made a difference. However, four (44%) thought that their visibility on social media platforms was affecting them negatively. Evans (2007:388) explains that “the internet promises to increase the public's awareness and use of public archives and historical records”. Most likely, the four (44%) Directors had the same sentiment as Evans (2007). Theimer (2011) asserts that the use of social media is one way of creating more interest in the archives. Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011) and Garaba (2012) report that this is an avenue that has not been ventured into by many archival institutions. Most likely this is one platform that might help the national archives to increase their visibility (Reid 2010).

5.2.4.4 Fees and services

In accordance with the ICA’s Principles of Access (ICA 2012), entrance charges should not affect the accessibility of records. This finding of this study showed that the entrance
charges did not affect the promotion and use of the national archive holdings. It was noted that certain national archives did not charge entrance fees. Those that charged entrance fees did not deter the public from visiting their archives as the charges appeared to be minimal.

Surprisingly, the proximity of the national archives to amenities did not have any effect on the use of the archives (5 or 55%). The assumption was that proximity to amenities would attract the same people on other errands to visit and perhaps engage with the archives. It would seem that such proximity did not guarantee access and use of the archives.

Carotenuto and Luongo (2005) observed that the vicinity of the Kenya National Archives in the city centre (Nairobi, Kenya) did not attract many users to use the facility. Most probably, the position of the national archives close to amenities is not a sufficient reason to get more of the public interested in archives. Perhaps signage, distribution of brochures, public invitations to special events at the national archives, eye-catching noticeboards outside the building, and other joint initiatives could get more people interested.

5.2.4.5 Obstacles faced when conducting public programming initiatives

The findings revealed in section 4.4.5 showed that budgetary constraints were the main obstacle in conducting public programming projects. Seemingly funds provided were not sufficient. The archivists highlighted that the budgetary constraints led to lack of transport,
space and computers. This is a common experience in different parts of the world. Hedlin (2011); Grabowski (1992); Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu (2013) and Reid (2010) explain that archival institutions function in a difficult economic environment. Reid (2010:240) describes public archives as institutions that are invisible to “devisers of policy and strategy” in governments. As a result, their budgets are very low. To change this perhaps more archivists need to take part in advocacy initiatives as explained in section 5.2.2.

Shortage of staff (3 or 33%) was also identified as a matter of concern. Yakel (2005) argues that this could be attributed to the invisibility of archives. In her opinion, not many people are aware of the profession and therefore it is not always considered as a career option. Archivists who participated in the study also commented on the shortage of staff, with one institution pointing out that there was a moratorium in place severely affecting other functions such as public programming.

Blais and Enns (1991) state that the professionalism and service offered by archivists reflects on the organisation in a positive or negative way. Shortage of staff may prevent these institutions from functioning at optimal level, therefore defeating the purpose of keeping records for use. It would be of no use to invite users to the national archives if that institution cannot guarantee them a satisfactory service. The matter of skills and knowledge of the archivists is discussed in more detail in section 5.4.1.
5.3 The role of legislation and policy in rendering public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region

This section attempts to show the influence of legislation and policies on public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region.

5.3.1 Archival legislation in relation to promoting access to public archives in the ESARBICA region

According to Roper and Millar (1999b) archival legislation provides a “framework for preservation and provision of access to records”. Therefore, since public programming facilitates access, archival legislation should provide the legal grounds to ensure the planning and implementation of such programmes (Ngulube, Sibanda and Makoni 2013).

Table 4.4 outlines archival legislation from nine (9) out of the thirteen (13) ESARBICA member states. Presenting this information in a table format enabled the study to provide a summary of which sections in these legislation commented on ensuring access, promoting access and the means of promoting access.

Archival legislation from Lesotho, Mozambique and Angola was not obtainable (in spite of efforts do so) and hence not reviewed. An assessment of the available legislation revealed striking resemblances in content and wording, confirming Kabata and Muthee’s (2013) findings that most archival legislation is modelled on other laws. For instance, sub section 2 of section II of the Records and Archives Management Act, 2002, of Tanzania (Government of Tanzania 2002) reads:
The Department shall preserve and make available for consultation public records selected for preservation in the National Archives or any other archival repository under the control of the Director.

Sub section (d) of section 13:

The Director will ensure that reasonable facilities are available to the public for inspecting and obtaining copies of public records in the National Archives or any other archival repository under his control, in so far as such records are open for inspection...

Verbatim is used in the Ugandan National Records and Archives Act of 2001 (Government of Uganda 2001).

Clearly, all of these national archives are commissioned by law to acquire, organise, preserve and make records accessible to the public. Promoting access to the records is specified in all legislation with the exception of Botswana and Zimbabwe. Furthermore, methods of promoting access are suggested in all laws with the exception of South Africa, Botswana and Zimbabwe.

The common methods of promotion mentioned were printed publications and exhibitions. These are established public programming methods (Pederson 2008); however, other means such as use of ICTs could also be adopted. Blais and Enns (1991), Bradley (2005), Craig (1991), Ericson (1991) Evans (2007) and Theimer (2011) point out the need for
archives to be more user-centred and, therefore, they should adapt to methods that will have a greater impact when promoting archives.

According to these authors (Blais and Enns 1991; Bradley 2005; Craig 1991; Ericson 1991; Evans 2007; Theimer 2011), ICTs could help archives increase their reach in society. This supports Matongo, Marwa and Wamukoya’s (2013) views that most archival legislation in the ESARBICA region are not progressive to enable archives to adapt to new approaches that can benefit their institutions.

Ngulube, Sibanda and Makoni (2013:140) also pinpoint the need to review legislation. In their study they argue that a review of legislation in Zimbabwe would help the Bulawayo archives adapt to changes that will result in improved services to the public. In contrast to other legislation, Swaziland’s archival legislation gives leeway for other methods to be used while the rest are restricted to printed matter and exhibitions. We live in a dynamic society; though printed matter is still very much a part of our society, it is not the only means to reach the public.

All of the Directors of the National Archives acknowledged that the archival legislation in their respective countries mandated them to promote the archives. In a way this substantiates Ericson’s (1991) view that all public archives should promote their collections. All of the archivists corroborated the views of the Directors of the National
Archives. One of the archivists argued that it was the constitution that had a stronger say with regard to citizens access to information in the archives. Section 2.5 mentioned the issue of Freedom of Access to Information Act (FOI) and the fact that it has not been effectively implemented in certain countries in east and southern Africa.

Lowry (2013) points out that at times FOI laws contradict other archival legislation and policies. According to Lowry (2013:25):

A question could arise for instance, concerning the extent to which an FOI law that provides right of access to government information overrides an existing requirement not to open government records for 30 years. Failure to resolve these issues can lead to confusion and undermine efforts by governments to demonstrate that they are supporting access, openness and transparency objectives.

The ICA Principles of Access (2012) state that access to records should be provided to the greatest extent possible within the legal framework set in a country. This statement, somehow, does not clearly provide a solution to the confusion Lowry (2013) points out. Seemingly, ESARBICA member states faced with the same challenge still need to work towards clearing this confusion.
5.3.2 Policies that govern public programming in the ESARBICA region

Ngulube, Sibanda and Makoni (2013: 139) argue that it is very unlikely for organisations to function optimally in the absence of policies. From these authors’ standpoint, policies guide the actions that take place in an organisation such as a public archives.

Arguably, if access is the major purpose of National Archives, legislation should clearly state this (Khayundi 2013). An example can be drawn from the National Archives of South Africa Act No. 43 of 1996. Section 3 (h) of this Act states that among other functions this service strives to “promote an awareness of archives and records management, and encourage archival and records management activities”.

The application of such legislation is made possible by the development of policies by the national archives which will stipulate what can or cannot be done concerning promoting access and use of archival holdings. Archival policies on promoting access should be enabling and feasible to allow archival institutions to plan, implement and evaluate public programming projects (Singh 2004).

According to the Directors of the National Archives, only one ESARBICA member state had a policy on public programming. Unfortunately, the archivist from this particular member state with an existing policy declined to participate in the study. The remaining archivists reported that none of their institutions had a public programming policy; however, four of them mentioned that there were guidelines on how to conduct these
initiatives. In keeping with Ngulube, Sibanda and Makoni’s (2013) argument, it could be difficult to run public programming projects in the absence of a public programming policy. In section 5.2.2 it is reported that allocating funds for public programming projects was difficult because there was no policy. The archivists all agreed that for public programming initiatives to be taken seriously, a policy guiding its implementation should be developed.

Directors of the National Archives that did not have policies (5 or 55%) indicated that plans were underway to do so. No completion date was provided. In light of the necessity to increase the public’s awareness of the archives, it is hoped that this will not be put on hold for a very long time.

5.3.2.2 Support from administering authorities

Administrating authorities function within the legal framework set by legislation and policy (Khayundi 2013). In line with this fact, the Directors of the National Archives were given the opportunity to indicate what kind of support would have greater effect with regard to supporting public programming plans. Funding (9 or 100%) was first, followed by political support (7 or 78%). Promotion did not rank highly with the Directors (3 or 33%).

Funding is critical in the running of any operation, public programming projects included. However, the recession, budget cuts and other financial challenges have made budget allocations tougher for administering authorities (Hedlin 2011; Grabowski 1992; Reid 2010; Wandel 2013).
Reid (2010) emphasises that archives need to change their traditional way of thinking to prove their usefulness to governing authorities. Gone are the days when statistical data such as, “the number of users” or “requests received and answered” can be accepted as enough. Reid (2010:226) argues that measuring outputs is not enough; archives need to answer the question “so what?” For example, Reid (2010:230) claims:

If an archive service is providing educational resources for school visits, it is not just a question of how many visits there were, or how many children attended, the real question is, what difference did this make to the children? Did their grades improve? Did they gain a better understanding of the subject as a result of their visit? How do we know?

According to Reid (2010), it is such information that will get administrating authorities to take archival institutions more seriously. Probably, if the national archives could show these decision makers how they impact society, they could benefit from greater support. Collaboration could also be another measure to tackle shortage of resources, where institutions with similar interests work together rather than battle for scarce resources (Hedlin 2011). Section 5.6 provides more details regarding collaboration as a means of strengthening public programming initiatives.

### 5.4 Archivists’ knowledge and skills about public programming in the ESARBICA region

This section points out how the knowledge and skills of the archivists about public programming affect the way they run public programming programmes in their respective countries.
5.4.1 Archivists’ knowledge and skills about public programming

Weir (2004) and Nesmith (2010) are of the opinion that the success of outreach or public programming initiatives is dependent upon the knowledge and skills of archivists. Five (56%) of the Directors of National Archives were of the opinion that their staff members are adequately equipped with the right skills and knowledge while four (44%) disagreed. Therefore, this could be the reason why all the national archives conducted public programming projects.

On the other hand, all of the eight archivists who were interviewed were confident that they and their colleagues had sufficient knowledge and skills about public programming. However, these archivists argued that they rarely get the opportunity to conduct such programmes. Reasons given ranged from a lack of facilities and resources to handle huge numbers of patrons to staff shortages and policies that strictly relegate this duty to ministerial public relations officers.

ESARBICA executive board members were also of the opinion that archivists in the region were aware of what public programming was and what it entailed; sadly, they echoed the archivists’ views in that, despite having sufficient skills and knowledge, it was not practised effectively in the region. The reason was that in the past decade the main focus in the ESARBICA region has been preservation, conservation and aligning national archives with records management administration, transparency and accountability.
Referring to section 5.2.1, it was noted that though public programming projects did occur, they were not conducted frequently. Probably, these infrequent opportunities have not given these archivists a proper chance to contemplate the skills and know-how required to provide outreach services. Therefore, reports on under-utilisation of the archives still surfaced from different ESARBICA member states (Kamatula 2011; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Murambiwa and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube and Tafor 2006). Furthermore, the ESARBICA Board reported that very few reports on outreach were submitted at their meetings, most likely making it difficult for this Board to critically speak on this matter. The study did not determine whether the reports on public programming initiatives were voluntary or a standing matter on the ESARBICA’s Board agenda.

5.4.1.1 Knowledge or skill gaps with regard to public programming

Identifying training gaps is not a new concept; Edwards and Olawande (2001) also did a study for the *Journal of the Society of Archivists* in 2001 with the aim of identifying training gaps. Their findings indicated outreach efforts and how to handle the public image of archives as some of the key areas that required attention. Once these gaps are identified, the archival institution could facilitate training to ensure that the quality of programmes provided is not compromised.

Weir (2004:74) advises that any archival institution embarking on any outreach initiative should do an audit of staff skills to determine if they have the right expertise to execute
such programmes. He refers to skills such as writing press releases and giving presentations as examples.

According to accounts given by the Directors of the National Archives, archivists and the ESARBICA Board members, it seems that there have not been enough opportunities to conduct public programming projects to allow serious evaluation regarding the relevancy of their skills and knowledge. Nevertheless, this study offered them an opportunity to draw attention to areas of knowledge they thought required training or other interventions. Perhaps this would contribute to improved public programming projects. Table 4.5 provides a summary of the Directors' views.

**Writing of promotional material**

The writing of promotional material (4 or 44%), was indicated as an area that required advanced training. Nesmith (2010) and Sulej (2014) claim that writing promotional materials on archives is an essential skill for archivists. Nesmith (2010) argues that archivists rarely seize the opportunity to link the records they have with current affairs in society. The development of brochures, guides or other resources on historical events, civil rights, environmental issues and other matters might help the public comprehend the relevance of archives in their lives.

This type of writing may require a certain skill or talent. Bradley (2005) argues that sometimes archivists forget that they are writing for the public. They often develop
resources that can be easily understood by fellow archivists and not their intended audience, the public.

The use of technology

Other areas where a significant need for training was acknowledged included: developing usable websites (4 or 44%), analysing use of websites (5 or 55%) and the use of social media to promote the archives (6 or 66%). Training for these areas was required at intermediate level. Evans (2007) states that the internet offers public archives an opportunity to promote archives and increase the use of the records kept there. This seems to be in line with the Directors’ views as they saw the need to develop and analyse their respective websites. Social media platforms which go beyond the act of informing, but allow interaction are other avenues that show promise in encouraging greater use of the archives (Jimerson 2011; Theimer 2011). These technologies are discussed further in section 5.7 of this chapter.

Advocating the national archives

The Directors of the National Archives thought that areas where basic training was required were: fundraising (4 or 44%), public relations (4 or 44%) and conducting guided tours. Pederson (2008) outlines these as important aspects of any archival service. Improvement in these areas may lead to more funding and further result in better services and increased interest in the archives.

Advocacy (3 or 33%) and the use of economic impact assessments (3 or 33%) ranked low as compared to other skill areas. Brett and Jones (2013), Hedlin (2011), Reid (2010),
as well as Wandel (2013) argue that these are crucial skills for archivists working in archival institutions that function in a competitive economic environment.

Brett and Jones (2013) point out that one way of reassuring continued support or funding is to show evidence to the governing authority of how archival institutions add value to their society. This can be done through economic impact assessments.

Effective and efficient archival services (such as public programming initiatives) require financial resources and other means of support, but then budget cuts and redirected funding are a reality that archives and other information services are forced to contend with. Wandel (2013) therefore states that the right influence can help steer such resources in the archives’ direction. Brett and Jones (2013:53) maintain that archival outreach should not be confused with advocacy. According to these researchers, “archival outreach is a public relations process while advocacy is a political process…advocacy expounds the value of archival materials and services for communities”. Advocacy can lead to the decisions, resources and support required to make public programming projects happen.

*Attracting children to the national archives*

Children also attracted the attention of the Directors of the National Archives (4 or 44%) indicating the need to develop archival patrons at an early age. Cook (1997) argues that children are often forgotten, despite the fact that, once they benefit from the service, they will most likely end up being lifetime patrons. Research has also shown that exposure to
archival resources helps learners to develop critical thinking skills that are crucial to all spheres of life (Onyancha, Mokwatlo and Mnkeni-Saurombe 2013). Van der Walt (2011:124) argues that archivists in collaboration with educators and computer specialists can possibly create educational kits that would bring the past to life in an exciting way for children. Van der Walt (2011) also argues that the use of photographs, cartoons, paintings, drawings, recorded interviews, speeches, posters, private letters, government documents and previously published literature based on documents, for example clips of newspaper articles, can help children at school level to develop high order thinking skills.

5.4.1.2 Education on public programming in the ESARBICA region

Since archival education has been identified as the foundation for the profession (Nesmith 2007; Society of American Archivists 2013), literature was consulted to determine whether there is a core archival curriculum followed by institutions. The “core” is described by Kigongo-Bunkenya (1993:359) as “part of the curriculum that must be taken by all archivists regardless of their specialisation”. In addition to this, the aim was to also find out whether public programming is included as a core concept of what every archivist should know. Some contexts were reviewed on the matter as described hereafter.

A search on the website of the Society of American Archivists (SAA 2013) indicated that archivists should receive an education that addresses all archival functions. Their proposed core curriculum included: the nature of records and archives; appraisal and acquisition; arrangement and description; reference and access; outreach and advocacy;
management and administration; records and information management; digital records and access; and preservation.

The Australian Society of Archivists (2013), which serves as an accreditation body for archival programmes, recommended a similar programme framework to the SAA. However, their framework did not include outreach efforts and advocacy. Michetti (2013) provides an overview of the European archival education framework. The European framework calls for archival education to fulfil three important missions that are (i) managing archives, (ii) communicating archives and (iii) running an archival service. To achieve that the European archival education framework states that archival education should empower professionals to fulfil the following functions: records management, protection, appraisal and disposition, arrangement and description, preservation, appraisal of information systems and applications, user services, promotion, training and education, research, management and finally administration.

Finding similar information from archival associations in the ESARBICA context proved problematic. Katuu (2013) argues that seemingly this is an area of research that has been under-studied, leading to little or no information on core archival curricula in Africa. Kigongo-Bukenya (1993:359) in 1993 described that an archival education in Africa should shape archivists to be “sensitive to users and a strong tradition of service”.
Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at (2003) point out that inadequate skills, high turnover of qualified staff and few archival training schools are obstacles to the use of archival holdings. Katuu (2009), however, states that the number of archival education institutions increased in Africa between the 1990s and 2000s. Katuu (2009) is in agreement with Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at (2003) and Mnjama (2005) on the fact that archival training and education needs to adapt to the changing information landscape to improve the competency of archivists.

Though the core archival curricula could not be identified within the ESARBICA region, websites of different institutions offering archives and records management education were visited to analyse their curricula. The intention was to determine whether outreach efforts or public programming, or any other course related to raising awareness about the archives were included.

An online keyword search and the list of institutions provided by the Directors of the National Archives resulted in a list of twenty-five (25) institutions that offer archives and records management training. However, only nine of these provided detailed information regarding modules or courses offered. These institutions were: Moi University, Kenya; University of Botswana, Botswana; Kenyatta University, Kenya; Uganda institute of Information and Communication Technology, Uganda; Makerere University, Uganda; Mzuzu University, Malawi; National University of Science and Technology, Zimbabwe; University of Fort Hare, South Africa and the University of South Africa, South Africa.
Only one of these institutions indicated that there was a module or course on public programming or outreach efforts. This was the National University of Science and Technology, Zimbabwe. Perhaps the other institutions offered the subject of public programming as part of other modules as indicated by two of the interviewed archivists. Notably so, this study could not access details of the programmes offered by the remaining 16 institutions; probably they offered such courses. Nevertheless, the accessible details seem to suggest that outreach efforts or public programming are considered to be a peripheral matter in archival education.

Nesmith (2007:2) explains that archivists function in a dynamic environment; therefore, the type of education and training provided for these professionals should empower them to adapt to these changes. He identifies two key features: “the increase in volume, variety and complexity of institutional and personal documentation… secondly, greater public awareness of the central and powerful role of records in society”. Consequently, Nesmith (2007:12) argues:

Archival education should have archival, historical, conceptual, collegial and research emphases. This will enable archivists to research and tackle changes that happen in the changing archival environment.

According to Khayundi (2013), the archivists that are needed in sub-Saharan Africa are professionals who are proactive; this will include developing public programming initiatives that will make records and archives more visible. This kind of paradigm shift will require not just the right zeal, but appropriate skills and training too.
Thomassen (2005) also argues, however, that there is no archival education institution that is able to teach archivists everything they need to know. Rather, archival education institutions should train archivists to learn things, more than they will need to train them to do things. In line with the views of Thomassen (2005), Nesmith (2007) explains that archivists need to be proactive in identifying problems and proposing solutions. It is this kind of creativity and innovation that could enable national archives such as those in ESARBICA to develop contextualised public programming initiatives for their region.

5.4.1.3 Customised public programming training in the ESARBICA region

With reference to Figure 4.9, it would seem that short courses and training workshops (6 or 67%) were the preferred methods of training people on public programming skills. Most likely the brevity of these programmes meant cheaper costs as compared to a formal qualification such as a degree or diploma. Furthermore, the fact that workshops and short courses emphasise learning techniques rather than theory (Theron 1998) could be what attracted most national archives. Training manuals and internships (4 or 44%) were also popular to a certain extent. However, it was not mentioned whether any of these were provided or took place at the national archives.

Only two archivists out of the eight were aware of available training on public programming. Therefore, this might mean that public programming training was not a common occurrence at the national archives. One of the mandates of ESARBICA is to offer training within the region on matters related to the profession. The ESARBICA
executive board members were therefore asked whether the organisation had offered any workshops or courses on public programming. Their response highlighted the fact that a number of pre-conference workshops have been offered by different experts on various issues such as preservation, disaster management and others; however, none of these has been based on public programming or outreach efforts. In a way it supports the views of Blais and Enns (1991); Cox (1993); Finch (1994); Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011) and Ngulube, Sibanda and Makoni (2013) that public programming is considered as a marginal archival function.

Universities (5 or 55%), followed by colleges (3 or 33%) were said to be the most common institutions that offered public programming training. Probably, these institutions offer appropriate expertise and a setting required for such training. While seven (78%) of the Directors of the National Archives stated that their staff were aware of available training, six of the archivists stated otherwise. Possibly, this information had not filtered down to all staff members in the national archives. This may well be a matter that is related to organisational communication challenges. Nonetheless, though organisational communication is important, it is beyond the scope of this study.

Cook’s (2013) description of changing archival paradigms together with Tibbo’s (2006) and Wamukoya’s (2013) views on the changing ICT landscape in a way advocate for the need for further training. Failure to do so will see archivists become more self-serving rather than client-serving as per Freeman’s (1991) argument. Infrequent public
programming ventures as described in Section 5.2.1 may perhaps be a result of few training programmes. ESARBICA’s strategic plan (2013-2015) stands for facilitating access and use; then again the Board members admitted that no training had been provided to boost the efforts of the national archives. Increased interest in the area of public programming from this body could possibly have a significant influence on the national archives.

5.5 The role of user studies and customer satisfaction in public programming initiatives

Wilson (2005) claims that one of the greatest challenges that archival institutions face is reconnecting people with the records in the archives. It would seem that many archivists are viewed as gatekeepers to information by society rather than information providers (Ceeney 2008; Wilson 2005). These records could be of heritage, cultural, identity or administrative value to society (Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013). It appears that archivists have been more focused on procedures or functions rather than use (Craig 1991; Duff et al., 2008). This may also be a result of the influence of classical archival theory such as the Jenkinsonian tradition (Ceeney 2008).

Ericson (1991) explains that public programming is one way of educating the public on the relevance of archives and, furthermore, these initiatives teach them how to make the most of these resources. Archivists should understand that public programming enhances other functions of the archives, therefore contributing to a better service. In Ericson’s (1991:115) words:
The goal is use. We need to continually remind ourselves that; identification, acquisition and description are simple means we use to achieve this goal. Outreach should be integrated with other archival functions. In such a way [that] provided feedback can improve the way they work.

5.5.1 User studies and customer satisfaction in the ESARBICA region

The concept of the user is an important aspect of public programming. To gain a better understanding of user studies and customer satisfaction in the ESARBICA region, this section was sub-divided into six sections.

5.5.1.1 User needs

Knowing your users is an important part of any archival service (Conway 1986; Craig 1991; Duff et al. 2008; Maher 1986; Yeo 2005). Ericson (1991) further argues that knowledge of archival users will help develop relevant public programming strategies. Ngulube and Tafor (2006) then pointed out that the investigation of user needs in the ESARBICA region would help in determining exactly who the archival institutions are serving.

The majority of the Directors of the National Archives (6 or 67%) stated that they investigated user needs. Likewise, seven of the archivists also mentioned that their national archives took time to determine user needs. Assumedly, the national archives are invested in their clients. According to the Directors of the National Archives the
methods used to determine these needs included: evaluation of reading room statistics (5 or 56%), review of information requests (4 or 44%), interviews (3 or 33%) and evaluation forms (3 or 33%). The seven archivists mentioned questionnaires, guest books, suggestion boxes, surveys and evaluation forms. The interviews also revealed that archivists encountered different types of users, and that user needs could also be determined while conducting outreach programmes. Ericson (1991:118) cautions archivists from being fussy with users, because they may come across people who want to use the archives but do not know how to do so. The ESARBICA strategic plan (2013-2015) emphasised the need for increased use of archival institutions; however, the concept of user needs and customer satisfaction did not come out strongly.

This information supports the view that the national archives made the effort to seek out user needs but it also seems to indicate that the focus of the national archives is really on existing users of the archives. This is good, but encouraging greater use of the archives will involve targeting more groups of people in society (Battley and Wright 2012; Hallam-Smith 2003; Yeo 2005).

Dowler (1988) argues that information gathered from existing users only may present a biased view of needs as it is highly influenced by past experiences and expectations. According to Dowler (1988:79) reporting of actual and potential use will have a greater impact on archival services. Consequently, the focus could be on: Who is using the archives? Who might use the archives? and Who should use the archives?
Yeo (2005: 26-28) on a similar note argues that:

Understanding users is seen primarily as a pre-requisite for effective access systems...however, users are multifarious, gaining an understanding of them is likely to be a process of some complexity. The concept of the single generic user is a fallacy.

Hallam-Smith (2010) and Yeo (2005) advise archivists to follow the market segmentation approach as explained in section 2.8.1 (Reconnecting people with their heritage and social memory) of the literature review. This would involve identifying different groups of society such as children, young adults, and senior citizens or according to occupation. The next step would be figuring out their needs and providing resources or services that address those needs.

Duff et al. (2008) and Battley and Wright (2012) seem to agree with Yeo (2005) that the process of gathering information on user needs is complex. For this reason, a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods is recommended (Battley and Wright 2012; Duff et al. 2008). Battley and Wright (2012) report that this task was so overwhelming for their public archival institution in New Zealand that it had to be outsourced to an external company.
5.5.1.2 Customer satisfaction

Battley and Wright (2012:130) advise archival institutions interested in determining the satisfaction level of their patrons to ask the following questions: Who are our users? and How satisfied are they with our services? Blais and Enns (1991:106) further argue that:

It is the user who pronounces the final judgement concerning the importance of archival documents, blending the information contained therein into a coherent pattern of understanding.

In light of this it was necessary to determine whether the national archives let their users evaluate their services. Seven (78%) of the Directors confirmed that they evaluated their services. This was done mainly through interviews (4 or 44%), evaluation forms (3 or 33%) and user satisfaction surveys (3 or 33%). According to Duff et al. (2008:145), the information gathered from the users can help archival institution to “design services and systems that meet user needs”.

Maher (1986) and Conway (1986) maintain that allowing users to evaluate services could lead to uncovering challenges and understanding how users look for information. Public programming initiatives could, therefore, serve as an education tool teaching users who are struggling to find information in the archives how to have a more fruitful experience in the archives.
5.5.1.3 Providing feedback to users of the archives

Referring to section 5.5.1.2, it would be useless to gather information regarding customer satisfaction if it would not be used to improve archival services. For that reason, it was necessary to determine whether feedback was provided to users and used to improve archival services. Only three (33%) of the Directors said their National Archives provided feedback to users, while five (56%) said they did not. On an interesting note, all of the archivists stated that they used the gathered information to inform their services. Examples on previous exhibition experiences and records from meetings were provided to substantiate some of the comments.

Probably, this is could be a matter of communication bottlenecks in the archival institution. Otherwise, if this is not the case, the whole exercise of gathering customer satisfaction information could be defeated.

Analysis of the information and feedback is necessary (Battley and Wright 2012; Condous 1983; Conway 1986; Duff et al. 2008; Maher 1986). It helps the archival service to evaluate their services and ensure that services offered meet the standards set by their organisation. For example, Battley and Wright (2012:111) report that their user needs study revealed that their organisation needed to work on:

a) their ability to personalise the experience of the user;

b) easing the process of locating information;

c) encouraging users to ask for help; and
d) providing detailed finding aids.

The article did not comment on their feedback mechanisms in detail but they reported that there was a drop in complaints and there was a significant increase in feedback from their users (Battley and Wright 2012). Probably, in this case, feedback to the public could be offered in the form of public programming initiatives such as archival literacy courses for first time users and other means. This form of education may have a positive impact on users’ experience, therefore, making the chance for future visits a possible reality.

Increased use of the archives by certain users such as students and scholars could attract more people to the institution. Dowler (1988) states that scholars look at the citations of their colleagues and are convinced to use these sources. Research by Onyancha, Mokwatlo and Mnkeni-Saurombe (2013) revealed that sub-Saharan African researchers rarely cited archival resources. Therefore, in accordance with Dowler’s (1988) argument, other researchers in the region also might not consider archives as potential resources for their research. Most of these countries are members of ESARBICA so national archives need to find out and address the needs of this particular group of users.

### 5.5.1.4 Duration of open hours

Section 4.7.1.4 indicates that most (6 or 67%) of the national archives remained open between eight to ten hours per day. This could be identified with regular working hours. A study by Ngulube, Sibanda and Makoni (2013) stated that this duration prevented
working individuals from making use of archival information services. In light of this argument, the remaining national archives that opened for four to six hours made access and use of their facilities even more difficult.

Public archives hold precious records for the benefit of their communities, therefore access in terms of the duration of open hours should not be taken lightly (Moss 2005). Failure to do so could result in such durations serving as a deterrent rather than encouraging people to make use of the service. Most probably the shortage of staff could have resulted in fewer open hours as staff would need to balance other functions with service to the public. Kamatula (2011) also contends that archival institutions should make their opening hours known to the public; this should be done in addition to making sure that the duration of open hours are regular, convenient and consistent.

In section 5.2 it was noted that very few (2 or 22%) national archives allowed their premises to be used over weekends, and in those instances the focus was on children. Perhaps weekend services could contribute towards increased use of the archives such as with library and museum services. Weekend closures could be a result of laws or regulatory frameworks of the member countries; yet again, this was an issue that was not included in the questionnaire.

All of the national archives confirmed that users did not need to book for an appointment to make use of the facilities and consult records. This is a commendable move as the
institution exists for the community (Moss 2005); however, the quality of service could be affected if there is a shortage of staff and a sizeable number of people and queries to attend to.

### 5.5.1.5 Identification of new users

The majority (8 or 89%) of the Directors of the National Archives stated that they put efforts into identifying new users. Section 4.7.1.3 outlines what the national archives do to ensure a smooth experience for this particular group of users.

Referring to Battley and Wright (2012), Dowler (1988) and Yeo (2005), it is necessary to address the needs of the different groups of individuals who approach the archives. This helps archivists to address their needs more specifically rather than providing a broad overview of the holdings.

It is encouraging to note that there were means in place to help new users at the national archives. However, archivists should think of evaluating these methods regularly to ensure that they remain relevant and make a difference in the users’ quest for information (Cook 2013).
5.5.1.6 Attracting potential users

Section 5.5.1.1 (user needs) emphasised the importance of providing a holistic picture of user needs (Dowler 1988). According to Dowler (1988:78) this could include people who might and should make use of archival information services. In section 4.7.1.5, the Directors of the National Archives mentioned a number of efforts they used to attract new users. This included the friends of the archives programme, opening the archives one Saturday per month, use of the website and other methods.

The question at hand could be: Are these methods enough? This is especially so when studies by Kamatula (2011); Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011); Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila (2012); Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu (2013) and Sulej (2014) give the impression that more needs to be done to attract more people to use the archives.

Nesmith (2010) claims that the current information and knowledge economy calls for a new type of archival public programming. According to this author, traditional methods do not attract users at the rate they should. Archives are not regarded as providers of information, yet more people and organisations rely on information from a variety of information providers for their existence. Thus he calls for archival institutions to link current affairs and the needs of organisations and people to the records kept.

Likewise, Sanford (2011:216) argues “maybe one reason we (archivists) are perceived badly, if at all, is because we are not connecting to the people’s actual needs”. In that
case, it was necessary for archivists (from Vermont, USA where Sanford worked) to determine what records they had and who were they valuable to, and then reach out to these particular groups of people informing them how the records could enrich their lives. The outcome of this exercise made the archivists of Vermont realise that the records they kept were of value on matters concerning taxation, public health, economic development, crime and punishment, education, the environment and other issues (Sanford 2011:217). ESARBICA national archives could do likewise.

For example, South Africa is experiencing an energy crisis and, as a result, load shedding of electric power has been imposed on citizens in this country until the matter gets resolved. Perhaps past records on energy-related matters based on the environment, infrastructure, administrative or other decisions kept in the archives could contribute towards a solution to this problem. Linking such current or contentious matters to records in archival holdings could make archival institutions more visible (Nesmith 2010). As a result archival institutions could be considered by many as reliable sources of information for decision making purposes.

5.6 Collaboration as a means to further public programming in the ESARBICA region

Collaboration can widen the archives reach into society (Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013; VanderBerg 2012). Tanackoviae and Badurina (2008:563) state that collaborative efforts between archival institutions and other organisations dates back to the late 1930s. These authors maintain that the following agencies are possible partners
for collaboration with archival institutions: libraries, museums, other archives, schools, academic institutions, theatres, government agencies, non-governmental organisations, tourist offices, local history associations and other interested parties. Some of the benefits of collaboration efforts include:

- Larger user community;
- Improved relationships with partner institutions;
- Better services for users;
- Maximum usability of their potential;
- Visibility of their institution;
- Possibility to get finances for collaborative activities; and
- Financial savings.

(Tanackoviae and Badurina 2008:569)

Findings in section 4.8 (Collaboration as a means to further public programming in the region) indicate that the national archives collaborated with other institutions in an effort to increase interest in the archives. Interestingly, though the literature states libraries and museums as the archives’ natural partners (Hedegaard 2004; Marcum 2014; Tanackoviae and Badurina 2008; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008), they did not feature as the most common partners for the national archives of ESARBICA (Museums - 3 or 33% and Libraries - 2 or 22%). According to Hedlin (2011) and Marcum (2014) this could be a result of competition for the public’s attention that could occur between these institutions. Yates (1986) and Hedlin (2011) explain that archives benefit more from collaborative efforts rather than working against other information providers.
It would seem that most collaboration took place between institutions of higher learning and government agencies. The archivists added schools (primary and secondary) to this list. Probably, it was more convenient to work with these institutions rather than libraries and museums.

Lectures, seminars and workshops (4 or 44%) followed by joint exhibitions (3 or 33%) and student tours (3 or 33%) were mentioned as common means for collaboration. Archivists commented on programmes such as TV shows and exhibitions in which they participated. These methods are also reflected in the literature; however, none of the national archives commented on collaborative electronic resources (Marcum 2014; VanderBerg 2012; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008). Ngulube and Sibanda (2006) call for national archives to find ways to collaborate with other agencies for them to participate more effectively in the information society. This may mean that the national archives need to be more creative and form partnerships which will extend their reach into society beyond their common clients - schools and institutions of higher learning.

One of the objectives of ESARBICA (2013) is to promote cooperation and collaboration as far as records and archives management is concerned. Ngulube and Sibanda (2006:24) mention that ESARBICA has worked collaboratively to achieve the following:

- Sponsoring biennial conferences and workshops;
- Promoting and popularising the region’s archival heritage through joint programmes and special events;
• Capacity building in records and archives management; and
• Lobbying governments to support archival institutions.

Increased collaboration at national to local levels of the archives could happen with more support from the ESARBICA board. Perhaps the exposure to other successful ventures could encourage more national archives to participate in collaborative public programming ventures. The ESARBICA board could use their communication platforms, for example newsletters, social media, the website and others, to let archival institutions share best practice. Conference meetings could also be considered as relevant avenues to share such information.

5.6.1 Barriers to collaboration

One of this study’s shortcomings is the fact that participants were not asked to mention barriers to their collaboration activities. Some factors are evident elsewhere in the findings of this thesis, though, for example the lack of funds and the shortage of staff. Tanackoviae and Badurina (2008:565) and Marcum (2014) highlight that some of the challenges most archival institutions face include:

• Additional workload for partners;
• Lack of human resources;
• Poor communication between partners;
• Lack of guidelines for partnerships;
• Financial burden;
Different organisational cultures;

Inter-institutional competitiveness; and

Physical distance from partners.

Suggestions from the literature state that support for such programmes should start from top levels in the organisation; agreements should be written as well as organisations initiating long term projects in addition to the common short term projects (Hedegaard 2004; Hedlin 2011; Tanackoviae and Badurina 2008; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008). Referring to section 5.6, it is noted that most of the collaborative practices are short term projects. The literature advises archives and other collaborating bodies to embark on long term programmes because the strategies for such programmes make it easier to rally for more support from governing bodies. Furthermore, common practice developed over a long period of time could result in guidelines or policies on collaboration ventures (Hedegaard 2004; Hedlin 2011; Tanackoviae and Badurina 2008; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008).

5.6.2 Collaboration continuum

VanderBerg (2012) explains that collaboration can take place at different levels which may be simple interaction with a once off project or deeper collaboration, also known as ‘convergence’. Convergence is a transformative action that involves breaking down the divide between disciplines (Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008).
Waibel (2010:7) therefore describes the collaboration continuum as a process that includes the following procedures: contact – cooperation – coordination - collaboration and lastly convergence, thus:

…contact, cooperation or coordination, foster a working relationship among partners, yet remain distinct projects easily separable from the core functions and workings of the organisation…Deeper collaborations trend towards convergence, a transformative process that will eventually change behaviours, processes, and organisational structures and lead to fundamental interconnectedness and interdependence among the partners (Waibel 2010:7-8).

Waibel (2010) is therefore arguing that there is shallow and deep collaboration. He also advises information providers such as libraries, archives and museums to work towards convergence. Regarding the discussion in section 5.6, it would seem that in accordance with Waibel (2010) and VanderBerg’s (2012) argument, these efforts were of a shallow nature. Greater use of the archives will require the national archives to invest more efforts in collaboration projects, ultimately aiming for convergence. Hedegaard (2004:291) mentions that it is not an easy task but satisfying the user’s information needs should remain the primary goal. According to this author:

People seeking information do not care where they find it. Whether it is in a book or a leaflet in the library, from a description from an artefact in the museum, or from an organisation’s protocol in the archives, as long as they do find it.

Most examples of convergence projects are based on the collaborative use of ICTs. Databases such as BAM from Germany and NOKS from Denmark are used as flagships
to show how one database can facilitate the searching of information stored in libraries, archives, museums and other cultural institutions in these countries (Hedegaard 2004; VanderBerg 2012). The readiness of ESARBICA national archives for such databases is discussed in section 5.7.

The International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA 2014) has for the past decade organised symposia for libraries, archives and museums to discuss convergence. The target audience for most collaborative activities is the public. A satellite meeting organised by IFLA took place in Turin, Italy, in 2014. It looked into collaborative experiences worldwide. The IFLA Library Theory and Research Section, the main organiser for this event, pointed out the need for research to establish a theoretical and applied agenda for convergence (IFLA 2014).

Although ESARBICA national archives seem to be lagging behind in terms of reaching convergence, Waibel (2010:8) argues that “contact, cooperation and coordination are pre-requisites for reaping the benefits of deep collaboration”. In view of this fact, the national archives should possibly engage themselves more in collaborative efforts rather than remaining invisible. Ngulube and Sibanda (2006:23) argue that many archives could point out that certain challenges keep them from achieving convergence with fellow information providers. These challenges are the very same reasons that provide grounds for extensive collaboration in public programming projects.
5.7 The use of social media to raise awareness about the archives

Social media platforms are described as user centred, an approach that can encourage more interaction between the archives and society (Garaba 2012; Crymble 2010). According to Theimer (2011:341), “Web 2.0 tools or social media provide the means of reaching new kinds of audiences and becoming part of their social networks”. Liew, King and Oliver (2015) conducted a worldwide study on social media in archives and libraries, and had similar findings as Theimer (2011).

5.7.1 The use of social media in the ESARBICA national archives

The findings in section 4.9 indicated that the majority of the national archives (7 or 78%) did not make use of social media to raise awareness about the archives. Only two (22%) national archives made use of social media. This finding is in line with the findings of Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu (2013) and Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011) that social media was not a part of some national archives’ outreach strategies. Reasons for not using social media included bureaucracy and security fears. The archivists corroborated the Directors of National Archives’ opinions with regard to social media. The archivists claimed that they did use social media such as Facebook in their personal capacity.

Liew, King and Oliver (2015:3) describe the uptake of social media in archival institutions and libraries worldwide as slow. According to these researchers, North America has been in the forefront but, surprisingly, they explain that only a third of Canadian archives use
social media. The same study points out that it is mainly libraries and not many archival institutions in sub-Saharan Africa that have taken up social media as a means to enhance their operational functions.

Though most of the Directors of the National Archives (7 or 78%) did not make use of social media, they were of the same view as Theimer (2011) and Garaba (2012) that social media does capture a wider audience. However, Liew, King and Oliver (2015) caution archives and libraries that it is very difficult to distinguish existing users from new users on social media. The mechanisms set up by social networks such as Facebook and Twitter are limited. Therefore, they advise institutions that choose to use social media to do research on this matter using a mixed method strategy.

This approach may ensure credible information that can be confidently used in decision making. This may seem as an appropriate method but, in reality, most archives and libraries do not have the funds or time to delve into major research projects (Liew, King and Oliver 2015:7). This could be an initiative that could be led by ESARBICA rather than an individual national archives as part of their research, skills and training mandate in the region.

All of the archivists pointed out that their national archives used their websites to promote their archives. This contradicted the observations outlined in section 2.7 of this thesis, which pointed out that most of the national archives websites did not speak about or use
the space for outreach. Theimer (2011) explains this type of platform excludes the ability to interact with users. It would seem that ESARBICA national archives are stuck in the Web 1.0 environment, which could mean they are more comfortable with providing information and not overly concerned about feedback or comments from the public. Possibly, social media is not the only way to get feedback; however, it has been proven that it is one of the quickest means to do so (Kim et al. 2014).

5.7.2 Social media: Is this the answer to extending the reach of archival institutions in the ESARBICA region?

Holmner and Britz (2013) as well as Kim et al. (2014:29) argue that development in the information society has seen the increase of mobile based services over web based services. This is also reflected in Africa, “with mobile internet in Africa rapidly overtaking fixed internet access” (Stork, Calandro and Gamage 2014: 76). It is important to also note that, though there has been an increase in mobile technology and broad band availability, progress in this regard differs from country to country in southern Africa (Holmner and Britz 2013).

Increased accessibility to social media can be attributed to the rapid development of mobile internet platforms; as a result many people can access information and perform different transactions (Holmner and Britz 2013). This is also possibly linked to e-governance initiatives and strategies taking place in most African countries (Holmner and Britz 2013). The World Bank (2004:1) describes e-governance as:
the use by government agencies of information technologies (such as Wide Area Networks, the Internet, and mobile computing) that have the ability to transform relations with citizens, businesses, and other arms of government. These technologies can serve a variety of different ends: better delivery of government services to citizens, improved interactions with business and industry, citizen empowerment through access to information, or more efficient government management. The resulting benefits can be less corruption, increased transparency, greater convenience, revenue growth, and/or cost reductions.

Onyancha (2010:33) describes e-governance simply as “being online and providing the public with relevant information”.

Social media platforms offer archives an opportunity to facilitate access to information. Theimer (2011) provides examples such as Facebook, Twitter, Wikis and Blogs as social networking services that could be used by archival institutions. Kim et al. (2014:30) agree with Theimer (2011) but caution archival institutions to understand that they do not have full control over what is shared due to terms and conditions set by these social networking services. They further highlight that these platforms can also cause problems such as distribution of malware, invasion of privacy, violations of intellectual property rights and other problems.

Kim et al. (2014) maintain that due to developments in the field of ICTs, it is possible for organisations to develop their own social networking services via mobile platforms on their own terms. For such reasons, Kim et al. (2014:33) advise archival institutions to
develop their own social networking services. This will enable archivists, experts and users to interact within a controlled environment which is safer as compared to public platforms such as Facebook. This could work for the national archives in the ESARBICA region as people in this region have access to mobile internet (Stork, Calandro and Gamage 2014:76). Some of the archivists who participated in this study were concerned about issues such as privacy, but the development of an archival social network could alleviate their fears of sharing archival information online.

Kim et al. (2014) report on the use of social networks by archival institutions from South Korea, a country that is more developed than most ESARBICA member states. However, other sectors in the economy of sub Saharan Africa have developed mobile platforms for service delivery. For instance, the banking sector in Africa has empowered many people to transact via mobile technology (Okwii 2014). For example, Standard Bank in South Africa (Standard Bank 2015), has developed a mobile application that can be used on a phone or a tablet. Could a similar product be developed for the national archives? Challenges such as skills and staff shortage as well as funding identified by participants could work against such an initiative. Nonetheless, as Ericson (1991) argues, archives should not let such challenges prevent them from developing new ways to reach out to people. Possibly the national archives could initiate a joint project with a university department specialising in information systems and computer programming to develop a mobile application for the archives. The university benefits in terms of offering their students a practical learning experience and research, while the mobile application could entice more citizens to use the archives.
Holmner and Britz (2013) acknowledge the strides that Africa (including the ESARBICA region) has made in terms of ICT infrastructure so far. On the other hand, they argue that little has been done to develop human capacity to benefit from these developments. They argue that:

A society does not become a knowledge society by merely being connected to the flow of global knowledge via technology networks. People need to be able to know how to access relevant information, how to put it to use and how to generate new knowledge that is essential to problem solving, economic growth and sustainable development (Holmner and Britz 2013: 119).

In other words, these researchers call for extensive information literacy interventions that will empower the African society to function effectively in the current knowledge and information economy. This may include the use of social networking services as explained by Kim et al. (2014). The question, therefore, is what role do archival institutions play in empowering people to access information in this environment? For example, the introduction of e-governance initiatives seem to imply that archival information should also be found online by citizens. However, according to Holmner and Britz’ (2013) argument, if national archives do set up customised social networking services, and the citizens do not know how to access this information, it would be a waste of resources. The people need to be educated on how to access and use such information.
Kallberg (2012) explains that many governments are implementing e-governance strategies, but complains that archivists have seemingly taken a back seat letting other information professionals perform their important roles. Kallberg (2012) is of the opinion that archivists must acquire the necessary skills and take their rightful position in facilitating access to information in both paper and electronic formats. ESARBICA national archives could also seek the means to be involved in e-governance initiatives. This could result in public archives acquiring more recognition in government and the public sphere.

Though more archival institutions and libraries are incorporating social media in their operations, Liew, King and Oliver (2015) argue that most of it is experimental. In their opinion, very little research has gone into evaluating the use of these platforms and determining their impact on attaining organisational goals. They seem to echo the views of Ngoepe and Ngulube (2011) and Fereiro (2011) that more research on the use of social media is required.

Referring to Cook’s (2013:107-116) four paradigms of the archival changing environment, it would seem that the present information and knowledge economy calls for archivists to be pro-active. This would involve playing a greater role in society, embarking on archival literacy initiatives at different levels in society (Yakel 2004). According to Kallberg’s (2012) opinion, archivists should thrive rather than take a back seat in the development, implementation and evaluation of online services such as social networking services.
The best way for ESARBICA national archives to determine how social media services could work may be to try and learn from the experiences of other archival institutions. Liew, King and Oliver (2015) advise that planning should not be overlooked because this will ensure that the service is in line with the objectives of the archival institution, thereby making it easy for the archival institution to evaluate the success or failure of the service.

5.8 Summary of the chapter
This chapter discussed the findings that were presented in Chapter Four and how overall public programming was part of the operations of the national archives. However, it appears as if the findings of the study concur with findings in the literature in that public programming initiatives are considered marginal when compared to other archival functions. The interpretations can be summarised as follows:

a) Public programming in the ESARBICA region
According to the findings of the study, it appears as if public programming is not considered as one of the core functions of the archival service by the national archives of ESARBICA, the reasons being:

- Fewer staff served in the positions of outreach, education and public programming;
- Public programming projects were conducted infrequently, with some institutions treating such programmes as annual events;
- Budgetary constraints;
- Reluctance to utilise newer methods such as social media to reach more people;
- Public programming initiatives were not considered as a priority at national archives and ESARBICA Board levels;
- Promotional material on the national archives is not widely distributed in the society; and
- Failure to link records to socio-economic needs of society.

b) Legislation and policy

- The archival legislation that was accessible in this study does point out the need to promote records for use by society. However, the methods mentioned do not conform to current trends in society. It is apparent that FOI laws and archival legislation are not in harmony with the constitution of some member countries.

- Only one country had a policy on public programming. It was reported that the lack of policies has led to difficulties with regard to budget allocation and implementation of programmes. Policies are a necessity as they serve as benchmarks for the implementation and evaluation of public programming endeavours.

- The current economic environment calls for archival institutions to put more effort into proving their usefulness or value to the authorities and citizens they serve.
c) Archivists’ skills and knowledge about public programming

- The archivists in the ESARBICA region believed that they had the right skills and knowledge about public programming. However, there were not many opportunities to put these skills into action. The Directors of the National Archives were of the opinion that skills were lacking in the areas of: writing promotional material, the use of technology to promote archives, advocacy and attracting children to the archives.

- Review of accessible curricula on archival education in the region revealed that at the time only one institution offered public programming as a standalone module. Training on public programming also seemed inconspicuous with contradicting reports from the Directors and the archivists. Education and training on public programming is important to ensure successful implementation.

d) User studies and customer satisfaction

- User needs were investigated at the national archives. The archives went to the extent of identifying new users and assisting them to find resources. It appears that most of the effort went into existing users. Increasing engagement with the archives will require tapping into the needs of potential users as well.

- Evaluation was also done, but providing feedback to users was not a strongpoint of the national archives. This should not be disregarded as it can impact the archival institution badly. On the other hand, constant interaction between the archives and users could help in developing an effective archival
service. Public programming initiatives could be used as tools of education to enhance the user’s experience at the archives.

e) Collaboration

- The national archives collaborated with other institutions; strangely, museums and libraries did not feature as their main partners. Compared to other information providers in other parts of the world, the ESARBICA national archives are at an elementary level. More commitment is required to make these ventures more successful.

f) The use of social media to increase interests in the archives

- Though the national archives agreed that social media has the ability to reach a wider audience, only two of the national archives used this platform to reach out to their users. Public social networking services such as Facebook could limit the control archival institutions have over their information. Current technology allows for the development of customised social networks on mobile platforms that could be used by the national archives.

- Archival institutions and archivists need to be in the forefront of rendering information online as well as educating people on how to access and benefit from the information.

The discussion in this chapter gives the impression that there is a need for a paradigm shift with regard to public programming in the ESARBICA region. Though public
programming strategies exist to a certain extent, these efforts have seemingly had little impact with regard to encouraging more people to access and use the archives.

Chapter Six concludes this study and provides recommendations that may contribute towards enhancing public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region.
CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

The findings of this study are presented in Chapter Four, whereas Chapter Five dealt with the interpretation of these findings. On a concluding note, this chapter outlines the summary of these findings, conclusions and recommendations.

Assan (2006:1) explains that “the purpose of a conclusion is to tie together, or to integrate the various issues, research etc. covered in the body of the thesis; and to make comments upon the meaning of all of it”. Bunton (2005:208) further advices that the structure of a conclusion should include the following:

- Summary of main claims;
- Summary of main results;
- Giving implications of the findings; and
- Suggesting areas for future research.

In light of Bunton’s (2005) and Assan’s (2006) advice, the chapter has been structured to include the following: the objectives of the study, a summary of the findings, conclusions according to the objectives of the study, recommendations and implications of the findings.
6.1 Summary of the study’s findings

This study sought to investigate how the national archives of ESARBICA use public programming initiatives to encourage the public to use the records in their care. Reasons for doing so were based upon findings in the literature which indicated that public archives were underutilised by people living in the region (Kamatula 2011; Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012; Sulej 2014). According to these studies, public programming projects are intentionally designed to actively encourage the public to make greater use of these records of enduring value.

As a result of these findings in the literature, a number of objectives were developed to guide the study. These objectives sought to:

- Assess existing public programming activities in the ESARBICA region;
- Establish the availability of legislation, i.e. National Archives Acts, that guide public programming activities in the public archives of the ESARBICA region;
- Identify if there were policies in place that govern public programming activities in the different public archives of the member states of ESARBICA;
- To find out whether archivists had the relevant skills and knowledge that were required to carry out public programming activities;
- Assess the role of user studies and customer satisfaction in public programming initiatives;
• Determine whether the public archives of the ESARBICA region collaborated with other institutions or organisations to promote and facilitate access to their resources; and
• Explore whether the national archives of the ESARBICA region made use of emerging technologies such as social media to increase the awareness of the existence of public archives.

The summary of the findings are presented according to the listed objectives of the study.

6.1.1 Public programming activities in the ESARBICA region
Public programming strategies formed part of the national archives functions in the ESARBICA region. Seminars, workshops, exhibitions, tours, websites, television and radio shows were some of the means used to do so. Exhibitions, tours, seminars and workshops ranked as the most favoured ways of raising an awareness of the archives and promoting the national archives. Though public programming projects did occur, it would seem that these programmes were conducted on few occasions. Certain public programming initiatives were conducted as annual events, as reported by some participants of the study.

The archivists who participated in the study were of the opinion that public programming activities were not a priority at their national institutions. These findings were corroborated by the ESARBICA Board members too. In the few instances where public programming
projects did take place, print resources were widely used to promote public archives. Educational institutions were the most popular distribution points of these resources, followed by tourist information centres and conferences. Premises of the national archives were mainly used for lectures and workshops by the public. Furthermore, most of the national archives did not make use of social media to raise an awareness about the archives.

The issue of linking public records to socio-economic needs of the public seemingly did not come out strongly in the findings. To a greater extent the national archives’ activities were linked to the needs of education institutions, organisations and government agencies. In terms of public programming and outreach portfolios at the national archives, it seems that fewer people were employed to carry out public programming and outreach programmes as compared to other archival sections.

Budgetary constraints, shortage of staff and lack of transport to reach communities were identified as the main obstacles the national archives encountered when planning and implementing public programming ventures.

6.1.2 Legislation and policy
The legislation that was accessible to this study stated that archival institutions should promote access to the archives in their holdings. Suggested ways of doing so were restricted to print resources and exhibitions. Notably, it was highlighted that FOI laws and
the constitution of the different member states also affected access to records. It was pointed out that, in one member state, these laws contradicted each other.

Only one national archives had a policy on public programming; and other national archives pointed out that there were plans in place to develop such a policy. The lack of public programming policies was mentioned as one of the reasons behind budgetary constraints.

6.1.3 Archivist’s skills and knowledge about public programming

Participants of the study were of the belief that they had the skills and the knowledge with regard to public programming. Nonetheless, the archivists stated that they were presented with very few opportunities to plan and carry out public programming projects. This was also evident in country reports presented to the ESARBICA Board.

The Directors of the National Archives were of the opinion that archivists needed further training in the following areas: writing promotional material, the use of technology to promote the archives, advocacy and attracting children to the archives. Review of different curricula from various institutions that offered archival education and training in the ESARBICA region revealed that public programming and outreach was not considered as a core module in archival programmes. As far as public programming training was concerned, the Directors reported that it was available and mostly offered at
institutions of higher learning. However, most of the archivists stated that they were unaware of public programming training opportunities.

6.1.4 User studies and the focus on customer satisfaction

It was apparent that the needs of users were investigated at the national archives. Not only were the needs of regular users explored, but those of new users of the archival service as well. To a certain extent the findings pointed out that the focus of the national archives was on existing users and little was done with regard to potential users of the archival service.

Though, information for evaluation purposes was gathered by the archives, little was done with regard to providing feedback to their users as well as utilising the information to improve the archival service.

6.2 Conclusions regarding the research objectives

Based on the completed investigation for this study, the following conclusions were established:
6.2.1 Public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region

Public programming activities took place in the ESARBICA region. However, the findings for this study seem to indicate that public programming initiatives were considered marginal compared to other activities at the national archives. These activities were related to preservation, conservation, records management and electronic records. Since public programming strategies were not a priority this could have led to irregular public programming events, budgetary constraints and lack of public programming training as was reported in the findings. Therefore, public programming strategies in this region possibly did not have a significant impact on encouraging more people to interact with records in the national archives.

6.2.2 Archival legislation and policy with regard to public programming

Archival legislation accessible to this study stated that the national archives must raise an awareness of the archives and facilitate access to the holdings. Nonetheless, it is stipulated in most of this legislation that only exhibitions and print media should be used to promote access to the national archives.

Public programming policies were non-existent in most of the national archives. This could have hampered the planning and implementation of public programming strategies as mentioned in section 6.2.1.
6.2.3 Public programming training and education

Public programming seemingly did not feature as part of the core curricula at some institutions that offered archival education. This supports what was discovered from the literature that protection precedes use (Craig 1991). Perhaps this type of mentality is then carried over to places of employment once students are employed. Training in the area of public programming and outreach was inadequate. This could also have happened as a result of lack of policy and opportunities to conduct such programmes.

6.2.4 Investigation of user needs

Almost certainly, most efforts of gathering information on user needs were only directed towards existing users of the national archives. Furthermore, it appeared that the collected information was not utilised effectively to improve archival services. Public programming initiatives were also not considered as likely feedback strategies that could help the national archives to inform and educate the public about their holdings.

6.2.5 Collaboration in promoting cultural heritage

Collaborative efforts towards promoting cultural heritage in the ESARBICA region were evident in the findings. However, these were considered as shallow when compared to other collaboration strategies that have or are currently taking place worldwide (Hedegaard 2004; Marcum 2014; Tanackoviae and Badurina 2008; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008).
Libraries and museums are normally considered as partners with archival institutions in promoting access to cultural heritage (Marcum 2014; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008). Findings in this study revealed a different picture in the ESARBICA region because libraries and museums were not identified as common partners.

6.2.6 The use of technology in increasing the awareness of the national archives
Most of the national archives in the ESARBICA region were reluctant to make use of technology such as social media. Reasons given were linked to inexperience, bureaucracy, budgetary constraints and the lack of expertise to do so. This is a phenomenon that was also discovered by Liew, King and Oliver (2015). These researchers in their worldwide study (Liew, King and Oliver 2015:3) argue that archival institutions have been slow in accepting social media as a tool that can enhance their operations. The Directors of the National Archives and the archivists did acknowledge that social media could help reach out to more people, particularly young people. Websites, television and radio were identified as other forms of media used by the national archives to promote their archival holdings.

6.3 Conclusion on the research problem
The research problem drew attention to the fact that the use of archival resources in most of the public archives in the ESARBICA region was low (Kamatula 2011; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Murambiwa and Ngulube 2011; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999). Public programming initiatives were, therefore, mentioned as one
of the measures that could be used to address this challenge. Contributions from the literature (Hedlin 2011; Kamatula 2011; Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013; Ngulube and Ngoepe 2011; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Ngulube and Sibanda 2006; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012) indicated that public programming initiatives could be strengthened by focusing on the use of technology, investigating user needs, advocacy, planning, collaboration and improving archivists skills and knowledge among other issues.

The study established that, though public programming projects did occur in the ESARBICA region, these actions were considered as marginal activities. As a result, most of the national archives did not have public programming policies. The lack of such policies could have contributed to: irregular public programming projects, budgetary constraints, fewer training opportunities, superficial collaboration ventures, and the minimal use of technology to promote the national archives.

Increasing an awareness of the archives and supporting greater use of archival resources would require this status quo to change. As a result, this study attempted to develop a framework (see section 6.5) that could help the national archives of ESARBICA to enhance their public programming strategies. This was done through the investigation of a number of factors. These factors were derived from the research objectives. The conclusions reached are discussed in section 6.2. The following section focuses on
recommendations set out by this study that could improve public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region.

6.4 Recommendations

In order to enhance public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region, the following recommendations are suggested:

a) Recommendations regarding archival legislation and public programming policies

Archival legislation stipulates what the national archives should do; in this case the findings indicated that, among other factors, the national archives are obligated to facilitate access to their records. Nonetheless, suggested methods in the legislation did not leave much room for adapting to current promotion trends. Therefore, this study recommends that legislation of the various national archives should be reviewed (Kabata and Muthee 2013; Khayundi 2013; Mnjama 2005) to allow the adaptation of current trends in the promotion of archives. Zulu (2015:6) puts it this way:

Laws passed in any country should not remain static, but be subject to amendments whenever the need arises, time and time again. This should be in line with the demands or requirements of the clientele and prevailing socio-economic environment of a particular country.

Archival policies are derived from archival legislation; these policies set out a course of action that should be carried out by the national archives (Koopman
This study indicated that most of the national archives did not have public programming policies. Most likely this hampered public programming efforts. The study, therefore, recommends that each national archive should develop and implement public programming policies. Effective archival programmes such as public programming initiatives rely upon a functional policy provision (Okello-Obura 2011).

A functional policy provision (Okello-Obura 2011) for public programming should aim at improving the visibility of archives in society and helping citizens understand how to address their socio-economic needs using the services and holdings of the national archives. ESARBICA could play a key role by advocating for the development of public programming policies in this region.

b) **Recommendations on public programming initiatives**

Regular public programming activities eventually may contribute to greater use of archival services (Kamatula 2011). This study revealed that these were not regular occurrences at most of the national archives. The ESARBICA Board stated that these initiatives were also not reported regularly at ESARBICA Board meetings. The ESARBICA Board could play a role by persuading the national archives to prioritise public programming initiatives. The findings indicated that the lack of funds was the main obstacle to conducting these activities.
Reid (2010) and Nesmith (2010) advise archival services such as the national archives to play a wider role in society. This would involve linking archival holdings to public affairs and the needs of the community served. Such a move could increase use, which in the end could help the national archives to justify the need for more funding. Budgetary plans and requests should be done under the guidance of a public programming policy as explained in sub-section (a) above.

c) Recommendations on the investigation of user needs and customer satisfaction

Archives are kept for use (Ericson 1991; McCauseland 2007). To ensure a satisfactory service it is necessary to investigate user needs and address these needs accordingly (Ngulube and Tafor 2006). The findings of this study revealed that most of these efforts are directed towards existing users of the archival service. Moreover, little was done regarding addressing these needs and providing feedback. For that reason, this study recommends that the national archives should pay more attention to their findings and address their users accordingly (Duff et al. 2008; Hallam-Smith 2010; Yeo 2005). Public programming initiatives could be one way of educating users (Blais and Enns 1991).

In order to encourage greater use of the archives, the study recommends that the national archives should venture into investigating the needs of potential users too (Battley and Wright 2012). For example, children constitute a group in society that is often undermined by archival institutions (Van der Walt 2011; Cook 1997).
Attracting users at an early age could result in patrons for life. Studies on potential users could shed light on what keeps them away and contemplate methods such as public programming projects that could attract more of them to use the archival service.

d) **Recommendations with regard to archivists’ skills and knowledge of public programming**

Public programming ventures require certain skills and tact. Weir (1991; 2004) states that without the right skills, knowledge and zeal public programming initiatives can fail. The findings of this study seem to indicate that there are not enough training opportunities for archivists in the ESARBICA region to hone their public programming skills. Consequently, the study recommends that the national archives, with the aid of the ESARBICA Board, should increase training opportunities in the area of outreach and public programming. This might result in regular public programming ventures and the adaptation of current trends in public programming. This may also result in empowering archivists with the knowledge they need to understand the society they serve and therefore serve them accordingly.

Regular evaluation of archival services is also critical. Information gathered from such exercises should be used to improve archival operations. Public programming projects could be considered as feedback mechanisms to communicate to and educate the public about rendered services.
e) **Recommendations regarding collaboration ventures directed towards promoting cultural heritage**

The national archives of the ESARBICA region were involved in collaborative efforts to promote cultural heritage. Strangely, most of these collaboration ventures did not involve libraries and museums. Archives, libraries and museums are normally recognised as institutions with similar interests and projects worldwide (Hedegaard 2004; Marcum 2014; Tanackoviae and Badurina 2008; Yarrow, Clubb and Draper 2008).

Collaboration with other institutions should not be discouraged; nevertheless, it is recommended that the national archives should seek for more opportunities to collaborate with libraries and museums too.

These collaborative efforts could enhance services, improve the visibility of these institutions in society, and lead to the optimal use of resources required to run effective information services.

f) **Recommendations on roping in technology to enhance public programming initiatives**

Technology has enhanced the services of many organisations in the current knowledge and information economy (Crymble 2010; Kim et al. 2014; Theimer 2011). This study revealed that most of the national archives were reluctant to use
technology, particularly social media to increase the awareness of the national archives.

Holmner and Britz (2013) and Onyancha (2010) report on the increased use of web-based services in sub-Saharan Africa; due to this fact, the national archives of the ESARBICA region are advised to rope in relevant technology such as social media together with an online retrieval system to improve their services. The archival holdings do not necessarily need to be online, but rather technology could be used to inform the public of what is available and services offered at a particular archival service. In a way, this also further improves the visibility of the archival services.

6.5 Proposed integrated and inclusive framework for public programming in the ESARBICA region

Conway (1986:394) explains that frameworks are “simplifications of reality - ways of reducing complexities to a set of meaningful manageable ideas”. Ngulube, Mathipa and Gumbo (2015:47) further explain that a framework also shows the “relationship between concepts and their impact on a phenomenon being investigated”. In light of these explanations, the current study focused on developing an inclusive and integrative framework that identifies certain factors that may contribute to effective public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region.
6.5.1 Proposed framework

The framework is based on the findings of this study presented in Chapter Four and Five as well as the review of literature as reported in the second chapter of this thesis. Referring to the working definition for public programming developed for this study, it states that:

Public programming is a tool that enables public archives to communicate archives to citizens and receive feedback on services offered through a body of coordinated activities; with the aim of developing an effective and efficient archival service.

Reviewed literature and findings of this study revealed that public programming initiatives were evident in the ESARBICA region to a certain extent. However, it would seem that these initiatives have not sufficiently persuaded more people to make use of archival products and services of the national archives in the ESARBICA region (Kamatula 2011; Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube and Tafor 2006).

The research problem outlined in Chapter One, highlights the need to enhance public programming initiatives to enable more citizens to use valuable information kept in public archives (Kamatula 2011; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012; Sulej 2014). Furthermore, the objectives of the study point out key factors that may help
develop and implement public programming initiatives. These factors were: legislation, policy, archivists' knowledge and skills, users, collaboration and technology.

The proposed framework aims at assisting national archives to enhance public programming initiatives in the region. This framework attempts to establish the link between the research problem and the proposed solution for this particular study, thereby justifying the need for this inclusive and integrated framework for public programming in the ESARBICA region.

6.5.2 Justification for the framework

Based on the findings presented in Chapter Four and the literature review in Chapter Two, the study established that:

- Public programming initiatives were not conducted regularly.
- The national archives seemingly had not succeeded at helping people understand that the records in their holdings were of value to their everyday needs.
- Fewer staff were responsible for public programming, outreach and education.
- Public programming projects were hindered by budgetary constraints.
- According to the archival legislation of most ESARBICA member states, promotion was limited to the use of print materials and exhibitions.
- Most of the national archives of the ESARBICA region lacked public programming policies.
• The majority of the national archives were reluctant to make use of Web 2.0 technology to increase the awareness of archives.

• There was a lack of certain skills and knowledge that could improve public programming efforts.

• Public programming training was not common in the region. Many archivists were not aware of public programming training opportunities in the region.

• User studies in the region were mostly geared towards existing users. Furthermore, little was done with the information gathered from these studies.

• Collaboration efforts in the region were of a shallow nature. Libraries and museums were not considered as key partners by the national archives in the ESARBICA region.

Though the national archives keep records for their citizens, almost certainly only a few citizens of the ESARBICA region benefit from archival products and services (Kamatula 2011, Ngulube 1999; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012; Sulej 2014). According to the archival legislation of most of the national archives under ESARBICA, they are mandated to facilitate access to records and encourage the use of the records in their holdings. Based on what was described in the literature and the findings of this study, probably more effort towards public programming initiatives could lead to increased societal engagement with the archives.
Weir (2004) argues that any public programming initiative requires proper planning, implementation and evaluation. This is necessary because a variety of factors and their impact on public programming need to be considered to ensure the success of such programmes. These factors which are portrayed in this framework were derived from the objectives of the study. It was felt that careful contemplation of each factor could influence public programming positively. However, it should be noted that these factors are not exhaustive. Further research on public programming could lead to the identification of more factors that may also contribute positively to public programming efforts in the ESARBICA region. Noticeably, this framework is recommended as a guide and not as a set of instructions on how to develop and implement public programming projects.
Figure 6.1: Proposed public programming framework for the ESARBICA region
6.5.3 Explanation of the framework

This framework attempts to show and link factors that could lead to effective public programming projects. It was based on information gathered from the literature review and the findings of the study. Figure 6.1 outlines that there are quite a number of issues to consider, supporting Weir's (2004) views on the need to plan such programmes meticulously. The framework clearly shows that all public programming initiatives should be geared towards facilitating access to and the use of records.

The framework points out six factors in an attempt to indicate that the success of public programming initiatives is dependent on more than one factor. Therefore, the fact that a range of factors may contribute to effective public programming supports the inclusivity description of this framework. A variety of elements are linked to each factor using lines, depicting the relationship between these factors and other elements. Each factor and its respective elements are all ultimately linked to planning, implementing, and evaluating public programming projects. The arrows indicate how information on access and use should influence public programming and vice versa. This interconnectedness can be described as integration; as a result the framework is purported as an inclusive and integrated framework.

The framework may enable national archives in the planning and implementation of their public programming activities. This should be done with the consideration of each factor
described in the top layer of the framework’s hierarchical structure and the related elements. These are described as follows:

---

**a) Review of legislation**

Based on the fact that the promotion of archival resources is stated in archival legislation, it is necessary that all public programming initiatives abide by what is stated in the legislation. It was recommended that legislation be reviewed (Khayundi 2013; Mnjama 2005) to allow:

- The integration of current methods of promoting archives. Most archival legislation states that promotion of the archives should be restricted to the use of print materials and exhibitions. The national archives operate in a dynamic information and knowledge environment, as a result of which methods of promotion change from time to time.

- The alignment of mission statements with access and use. This might contribute towards public programming initiatives becoming more noticeable on the agenda of the national archives.

**b) Development of public programming policies**

According to Bullen (2012), policies set out a framework on how work should be done. Koopman (2002) describes a policy as a set course of actions. In this case the framework advises national archives to set a course of actions that will focus on the following elements:

- Rules and regulations assist organisation to operate according to set standards and maintain order. Public programming projects should adhere
to such to avoid confusion and conflicts within the national archives’ organisational structure.

- Link archives to the needs of society. This could involve determining: What is available? Who is it valuable to? How do these resources address societal needs? This means ultimately informing these people of the available information and its benefits (Sanford 2011). Nesmith (2010:171) also advises archivists to be “in active pursuit of a wider role for archives in public affairs”.

- Public programming projects should thereafter be planned as regular features on the national archives’ agendas. These projects should focus on branding which entails establishing a positive image for the archives in society and particularly administrating authorities. Awareness of the archives should include a variety of strategies. These strategies should be user-centric, bearing in mind that archives exist for the people. The ultimate goal should be supporting greater use of the archives for the benefit of society.

- National archives should function as learning organisations. A learning culture will give room for regular evaluation and the enhancement of public programming projects.

c) Advocacy

Advocacy becomes important as it involves garnering support for public programming initiatives. According to Brett and Jones (2013) advocacy efforts are targeted towards those in influential positions such as administrating bodies of
parent organisations. As public archival institutions seek resources to implement public programming initiatives, it would therefore be necessary to consider the following:

- Demonstrate the value of archives - Hackman (2011:30) states that it is “helpful to describe and emphasize benefits and beneficiaries…decision makers and supporters will be impressed by uses that produce benefits to themselves and to people or organisations or purposes they care about.” Reid (2010) expresses the same views, stating that many managers do not understand these benefits. Archivists should therefore take on the responsibility of demonstrating the value of archives to these stakeholders. As a result, archival institutions could receive more support for public programming and other projects.

- Availability of resources - Public programming initiatives cannot be implemented or sustained in the absence of resources. It is therefore necessary to consider the following:
  - Funding - If a public programming policy is in place, it becomes easier to budget and justify the need for resources to run public programming projects. This would also involve responsible reporting on the expenditure of available funds and the outputs of such projects (Grabowski 1992; Hedlin 2011).
  - Sufficient staffing - Shortage of staff could hinder the implementation of public programming plans. A public
programming policy, advocacy efforts and substantial funding could alleviate the shortage of staff.

- **Appropriate technology** - The availability of funding could enable national archives to obtain appropriate technology to enhance public programming efforts (Evans 2007; Theimer 2011). Web 2.0 platforms such as social media could increase the interaction between techno-savvy citizens and the archives. The acquisition of appropriate technology and proper expertise could enable national archives to develop online finding aids that will better inform users of what is available in their holdings.

**d) Conduct user studies**

Since the national archives keep records for their citizens, it is necessary to determine and address their information needs accordingly (Blais and Enns 1991; Craig 1991; Ngulube and Tafor 2006). This could lead to a better experience in their quest for information at the national archives. To ensure that users can access and use information from archival holdings, the following elements should be taken into account:

- Investigate the needs of current and potential users. Information on needs could help the national archives to determine how best to serve all users of the archives. Furthermore, this includes contemplating on suitable means of communicating their services to the people they serve. This may increase the national archives’ reach into society.
• User studies would enable national archives to evaluate their service to society and address identified gaps or problems in the archival service.

• User studies should incorporate feedback to users of the national archives. Public programming projects could serve as feedback mechanisms.

• In situations where challenges are identified, the national archives should take it upon themselves to address these challenges. Educating users about the archival holdings and training them how to seek for information in the archival holdings could lead to more rewarding experiences at the archives. User education should not only take place when problems arise, they could be set as permanent programmes to assist users. Archival literacy could also be included in the curriculum of schools and other institutions so that more people become well versed with archival resources.

e) Partnerships

Partnerships enable organisations to achieve more by sharing resources and expertise. Libraries and museums are common partners in promoting access to and the use of cultural heritage. Shared resources could help these institutions to facilitate access to information in a difficult economic environment that most of these institutions find themselves in (Marcum 2014; Ngulube and Sibanda 2006).

f) Archivists’ knowledge and skills

Public programming initiatives require appropriate skills and knowledge. Findings of the study pointed out skill gaps that were possibly hampering public programming efforts in the ESARBICA region (Nesmith 2010; Weir 2004). In view of this the framework recommends that:
• More training opportunities should be organised by ESARBICA or the national archives. This could lead to the implementation of more public programming projects.

• The existence of training programmes does not guarantee attendance. Support and encouragement from ESARBICA and the management of the national archives could lead to better attendance at public programming training initiatives.

6.6 Implications for theory, policy and methodology
The findings of this study are similar to the findings of other researchers (Kamatula 2011; Kemoni, Wamukoya and Kiplang’at 2003; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012; Sulej 2014). The difference between this study and the others is that the majority of the studies were conducted at a micro level focusing on individual member states or cities within a country, while this study described an overall picture of public programming practices in the entire ESARBICA region.

The study built on the outcomes discovered by the previous mentioned researchers. As a result, it has further contributed to knowledge in the field of public programming by proposing a framework that may help in the planning and implementation of public programming activities.
The records continuum model was the theory that guided this study. The model explains the different stages in the records and archives management process (Roper and Millar 1999a:22). This model clearly shows that the ultimate purpose of these procedures is providing access to records. This study may perhaps contribute to the records continuum theory by sharpening its focus on use. The proposed framework suggested by the study is targeted at promoting and supporting greater use of archival resources in the ESARBICA region.

Most of the national archives reported that they did not have any public programming policies. One of the recommendations made by this study was the need for such policies in each national archive. This could contribute towards ending the marginalisation of public programming initiatives at the national archives. As a result, this could lead to more funds for public programming projects, public programming and outreach training, strengthened collaboration projects, the adoption of relevant technology for outreach purposes and other means that might enhance public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region.

The research methodology applied in the study had positivist underpinnings. A survey was used as the main data collection method. The triangulation of research methods (questionnaire, face-to-face interviews and content analysis) made it possible to determine the status quo of public programming in the ESARBICA region and the development of a framework that could guide public programming initiatives.
Most of the cited studies (Kamatula 2011; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012) also applied the survey method in their research. Therefore, a triangulation of methods, such as surveys, face-to-face interviews and content analysis, may be considered by other researchers as a suitable research strategy to investigate public programming.

6.7 Further research

Consulted research (Kamatula 2011; Kamatula, Mnkeni-Saurombe and Mosweu 2013; Ngoepe and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012; Onyancha, Mokwatlo and Mnkeni-Saurombe 2013; Sulej 2014) for this study showed that public programming was an issue of concern for various member states in the ESARBICA region. Recommendations offered mostly targeted individual member states. This study provided an overview on public programming practices from the whole ESARBICA region. The proposed public programming framework in section 6.5.2 might help the national archives to increase the awareness of archives and their use.

The study highlighted that public programming initiatives are influenced by legislation, policies, archivists’ skills and knowledge, investigating user needs, collaboration and technology. The relationship between these concepts are illustrated in the public programming framework (Figure 6.1). The proposed framework was developed using information gathered from the ESARBICA Board members, National Archivists,
documents and archivists. However, as in any research, it is not possible to study everything and therefore this study recommends further investigation in the following areas:

- **Users of archival services**
  This study did not include users of the archival services, even though it had a section on investigating user needs. This was not possible due to limitations of the study as explained in Chapter One. In view of this fact, it is recommended that further studies should focus on users of the archival services. This could shed light on why most people do not use archival records, what would attract them to the national archives, and probably the designing of appropriate public programming activities for different categories of people.

- **Archives as a product**
  Further studies involving users could also shed more light on the archival resources that are being promoted. Perhaps what is kept is of no relevance to the people, or the holdings could be lacking relevant resources required by the society. Archival institutions do not operate like libraries by providing what users want. However, such studies could influence archival institutions to fill in certain gaps in their holdings and educate the public on the importance of what is currently available. Certainly, it is much easier to run public programming projects for functional archives that strive to offer a satisfactory service to their patrons, rather than an inadequate service that disappoints patrons.
• **Use of qualitative research methods to enhance public programming efforts in the ESARBICA region**

The study applied a triangulation of research methods to reach the conclusions and recommendations expressed in this chapter. The survey method was the main research method. Referring to chapters four and five, it was noted that certain questions gave rise to more issues that could have added value to the findings of this study.

Perhaps if Directors of the National Archives were also interviewed, most of the arising questions from the survey could have been answered. Most of the cited studies (Kamatula 2011; Ngeoep and Ngulube 2011; Ngulube 1999; Ngulube and Tafor 2006; Njobvu, Hamooya and Mwila 2012) applied the survey method in their research. Since most studies in the area of public programming have followed a quantitative approach, this study advises that further research should be conducted using qualitative measures. Considering the above recommendation of investigating users, qualitative studies could reveal a different aspect of public programming that has failed to be uncovered using quantitative measures.

• **Public programming training and education**

This study emphasised the importance of including public programming as a core module in archival education. Furthermore, it purported for increased training opportunities based on outreach and public programming. However, the study did not deal with the content of such programmes. Further research in this area should
focus on what a public programming module or training programme should be comprised of.

- **Relevant technology that will enhance public programming efforts**
  The study reported on the possibility of archival institutions to develop customised social networking platforms (Kim et al. 2014). Further investigations in this area could assist the national archives of ESARBICA to develop an appropriate social networking service that will help more patrons to interact with their archival holdings.

- **Collaboration projects**
  Very few collaboration ventures in the ESARBICA region were reported on (Ngulube and Sibanda 2006). More studies in this area would enable archivists to share knowledge on what works or not in such projects. As a result more archival institutions might be encouraged to participate in such ventures. Libraries and museums were not key partners in the few collaboration projects that took place. Research in this area could reveal why this happened and recommend measures to encourage more collaboration opportunities for these three cultural information institutions.
6.8 Final conclusion

This study investigated the status quo of public programming initiatives in the ESARBICA region. The study established that public programming was considered as a peripheral function in most of the national archives. This was determined after the findings indicated that:

- the majority of archival legislation did not permit the integration of modern methods of promoting archives;
- most of the national archives did not have public programming policies;
- public programming initiatives were hindered by budgetary constraints;
- few staff members were responsible for outreach and public programming;
- linking the archives with community needs was not one of the national archives’ strong points;
- more training on public programming was required;
- collaboration ventures were of a shallow nature, and in many instances these ventures excluded libraries and museums;
- more emphasis on user studies and evaluation was necessary; and
- nearly all of the national archives were reluctant to use technology to enhance their public programming initiatives.

According to Cook (2013) archival institutions need to undergo a paradigm shift, with more emphasis directed towards encouraging more societal engagement with archival institutions. For this reason, the study put forth a number of recommendations that might guide the national archives in enhancing their public programming strategies. The study
also identified areas of knowledge that could further benefit public programming strategies, if more research is done.

The national archives should be commended for their efforts to acquire and preserve records of enduring value; however, it is important that this is not done at the expense of facilitating access and use of the kept resources. These archival institutions should realise that the records they keep can make a difference in personal lives, families, organisations and governing authorities (Richards 2009). Public programming initiatives could be the tool that may help archival institutions such as the national archives of the ESARBICA region to claim their rightful place in the information and knowledge-based economy.
REFERENCES


Assan, J. 2006. Writing the conclusion chapter: the good, the bad and the missing

http://www.devstud.org.uk/downloads/4be165997d2ae_Writing_the_Conclusion_Chapter,_the_Good,_the_Bad_and_the_Missing,_Joe_Assan%5B1%5D.pdf


(Accessed 10 February 2014).


Blum, K. 2006. *Teaching students how to write a Chapter Four and Five of a Dissertation*.  


Brett, J. and Jones, J. 2013. Persuasion, promotion, perception: untangling archivists’ understanding of advocacy and outreach. *Provenance* 1: 51-74. Also available:  


Bullen, P.n.d. *Writing policy and organisational manuals*.  


Duchein, M. 1983. *Obstacles to access, use and transfer of information from archives: a RAMP Study*. Paris: UNESCO.


Harris V. 1993. Community resource or scholar’s domain? Archival public programming and the user as a factor in shaping archival theory and practice. S.A. Archives Journal. 35: 105-117.


Harris, V. 2014. Twenty years of post-apartheid archiving: have we reckoned with the past, or has the past reckoned with us? Paper presented at the Annual Archives Lecture, University of South Africa, Pretoria, 06 November 2014.


Hofstee, E. 2006. Constructing a good dissertation: a practical guide to finishing a Master’s, MBA or PhD on schedule. Exactica: Sandton.

Holmner, M. and Britz, J.J. 2013. When the last mile becomes the longest mile: A critical reflection on Africa’s ability to become part of the global knowledge society. Innovation: Journal of appropriate librarianship and information work in southern Africa 46: 117-134.


http://staff-www.uni-marburg.de/~mennehar/publikationen/access.pdf
(Accessed: 20 February 2012).


Standard Bank. 2015. *Phone and tablet app*. 


Swaziland National Archives. 2014. Institutional website. 


Theron, JC. 1998. Proposed education of archivists at the University of South Africa. 
*S.A. Archives Journal* 8: 110-118.


Thorman, C. 2012. The use of Web 2.0 technologies in archives: developing exemplar 
practise for use by archival practitioners. M.Thesis, San Jose State University. Also 


Tibbo, HR. 2006. So much to learn and so little time to learn it: North American archival 
education programmes in the information age and the role of certificate 

Trace, CB. and Ovalle CJ. 2012. Archival reference and access: syllabi and a snapshot 

of Uganda.

University of South Africa- UNISA 2007. *Policy on research ethics*. Available:  
(Accessed 20 February 2012).

University of Southern California. 2013. Theoretical frameworks-libguides.  

Valge, J. and Kibal, B. 2008. Restriction on access to archives and records. 

Van der Walt, T. 2011. Re-thinking and re-positioning archives: taking archives to the 

VanderBerg, R. 2012. Converging libraries, archives and museums: overcoming 


Available:


Public programming of public archives in the East and Southern Africa Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ESARBICA): towards an inclusive and integrated framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Research question (s)</th>
<th>Research method (s)</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Assess existing public programming activities in the ESARBICA region.</td>
<td>Have there been any public programming activities implemented in the public archives of ESARBICA? When and what kind of programmes were implemented?</td>
<td>Quantitative Qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Establish the availability of legislation i.e. National Archives Acts that guide public programming activities in the public archives of the ESARBICA region.</td>
<td>Does archival legislation from ESARBICA member states instruct national archives to promote or market their holdings?</td>
<td>Quantitative Qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Are there any policies in place that govern</td>
<td>Are the policies formal or informal?</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 4 | To find out the relevant knowledge and skills archivists require to carry out public programming activities | What training is available for archivists in the ESARBICA region on public programming, marketing of archives or outreach? Are archivists in the ESARBICA region aware of available training? Do the archivists of ESARBICA member countries have the knowledge and skills to carry out effective and efficient activities? | Quantitative | National archives of ESARBICA member states
Archivists from the ESARBICA region

The curriculum of different institutions offering archival qualifications in the ESARBICA region and elsewhere. ESARBICA Board members |

| public programming activities in the different public archives of the member states of ESARBICA? | In the absence of any policy, what are the reasons why? How do the public archives of the ESARBICA member states communicate or market their archival collections and services to citizens in their countries? If the archive has a policy in place, does it encompass the theoretical elements: ‘image’, ‘awareness’, ‘education’ and ‘use’ as described by Blais and Enns (1991)? | Qualitative | Archivists from the ESARBICA region
ESARBICA Board members |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Efficient public programming activities?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Assessing the role of user studies and customer focus in public programming initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do the national archives of the ESARBICA member states conduct user studies?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How do the national archives of the ESARBICA region conduct user studies?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What do the national archives of ESARBICA region do with the results of such user studies?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are these results used in any way to inform public programming initiatives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Determine whether the public archives of the ESARBICA region collaborate with other institutions or organisations to promote and facilitate access to their resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do the national archives of ESARBICA collaborate with other institutions to market and promote use of the archival holdings?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If yes, which institutions do they collaborate with?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If no, why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Explore whether the national archives of the ESARBICA region make use of emerging technologies such as social media to increase the awareness of the existence of public archives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 2: Self-administered questionnaire

Questionnaire for National Directors of the National Archives of ESARBICA

Dear National Archives Director,

I am a Doctoral student at the University of South Africa (UNISA). I am doing research on public programming of public archives in the ESARBICA region. The title of my study is: Public programming of public archives in the East and Southern Africa Regional Branch of the International Council of Archives (ESARBICA). The aim of this research is to develop a framework that can guide public programming activities in East and Southern Africa.

I therefore will appreciate it very much if you could complete this questionnaire. Completing this questionnaire should take 20-30 minutes of your time. Your participation will make a valued contribution towards this study and recommendations on public programming endeavours in the National Archives within ESARBICA.

All the National Archives within ESARBICA have been requested to participate in this study. I should be grateful if you would complete and return it to Ms Koki Mokwatlo or myself by the 7th of June 2013 at the XXII ESARBICA Biennial Conference in Nairobi, Kenya. Should you have any queries please do not hesitate to contact me at Department of Information Science, University of South Africa, PO Box 329, Pretoria 0003. Telephone: +27 12 429 6042. Email: mnkennp@unisa.ac.za

I would like assure you that the information collected here is strictly for research purposes and therefore it will be treated as confidential. This is in accordance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics. You are welcome to view the policy at: http://www.UNISA.ac.za/cmsys/staff/contents/departments/res_policies/docs/ResearchEthicsPolicy_apprvCounc_21Sept07.pdf

Thank you in advance for participating in the survey.

Sincerely,

Nampombe Mnkeni-Saurombe
Instructions:

a) Please tick the applicable answers
b) Use spaces provided to write your answers to the questions.
c) Please do not leave blank spaces. If the question does not apply please indicate “N/A”

Public programming initiatives are a planned sequence of community outreach programmes and promotional activities which inform the wider community about archival holdings and services. Public programming is used interchangeably with marketing initiatives, advocacy, educational programmes, publicity, public relations and outreach.

Part I: Institutional data

1. Name of National Archives:

..........................................................................................................................................................

2. What is the mission statement for this National Archives?

..........................................................................................................................................................

3. What is the current total number of staff positions in the National Archives?

..........................................................................................................................................................

4. How many people are involved in these positions?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Number of Staff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top management- Director or equivalent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration and senior management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appraisal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preservation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrangement and description</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outreach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public programming</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Records management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please specify the other portfolios: .................................................................................................................................
Part II: Public Programming Activities

5. Does your National Archives engage in public programming activities?
   Yes [ ]   No [ ]

6. If your answer in Question 5 is yes, how often does your National Archives conduct public programming projects?
   (a) Daily [ ]   (b) Weekly [ ]   (c) Monthly [ ]   (d) Annually [ ]   (e) Other [ ]
   Please specify other timing:
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Does the National Archives have a specific budget allocated for public programming strategies?
   Yes [ ]   No [ ]

8. What does the National Archives use to reach out to users? (Tick all that apply)
   (a) Exhibition and Tours [ ]   (b) Word of Mouth [ ]   (c) Seminars and workshops [ ]
   (d) Website [ ]   (e) Newsletter [ ]   (f) Social networking [ ]
   (g) Radio [ ]   (h) Television [ ]   (i) Newspapers [ ]
   (j) Other [ ]
   Please explain other means that are used to reach out to users:
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

9. If your National Archives does NOT engage in public programming activities, please provide reasons behind this decision.
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
10. In your opinion, how do the factors mentioned below influence the public’s awareness of the National Archives you are employed at?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Positive effect</th>
<th>Neither Positive or negative</th>
<th>Negative effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Skills and Human Resources</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff knowledge and skills e.g. customer care</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of staff on duty</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The presence of volunteers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of staff working in education programmes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of staff responsible for outreach</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of staff involved in public programming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public Image of the National Archives</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The brand of the National Archives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The prestige of the buildings that house the archive collection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The active programme of events (public programming- exhibitions, lectures, study tours etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The existence of a Friends of the Archives Association</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Financial means and development</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The resources available for audience development and educational, outreach programmes and public programming ventures.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget allocations made on an annual basis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The acquisition and cultivation of users</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visibility on social media e.g. Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fees and services</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrance charges</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free entrance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The presence of supplementary services (restaurants, cafes, shops, websites, free Wi-Fi etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. Does the National Archives provide and organise programmes that help users of the service navigate through the holdings and get what they need?

Yes [ ]    No [ ]
12. If your answer to Question 11 is yes, how often are such programmes offered?
(a) On request [ ] (b) weekly [ ] (c) monthly [ ] (d) annually [ ]

13. Are all new users identified and routinely provided with information and assistance to understand the archives service’s procedures and help their research?
Yes [ ] No [ ]
Please comment on your answer: 

14. Does your National Archives frequently make use of its premises to provide any of the facilities listed below for members of the public? Tick the most appropriate
(a) After school or weekend clubs for children [ ]
(b) Lectures and workshops [ ]
(c) Group visits to the archives organised by educational institutions i.e. schools groups [ ]
(d) Space dedicated for volunteers to learn and help in the archives [ ]
(e) Other [ ]
Please specify any other use of premises:

15. Does the National Archives publish promotional information about the service in the following formats?
(a) Leaflets/brochures [ ]
(b) Posters [ ]
(c) Websites [ ]
(d) Social media e.g. Facebook [ ]
(e) Other [ ]
Please specify any other formats: 

16. What printed materials on the promotion of the archives and its services are distributed to the public?

.........................................................................................................................
17. Do you distribute this promotional literature to some of the following areas?

(a) Local libraries and museums [ ]
(b) Tourist information centres [ ]
(c) Education Institutions i.e. schools, colleges etc. [ ]
(d) Community centres [ ]
(e) Conferences [ ]
(f) Other archival institutions [ ]
(g) Other

Please indicate other areas:
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________

18. What kind of obstacles do you face when conducting public programming projects or planning to carry out such activities?
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________

19. Linking archives with society’s socio-economic needs is an important part of taking archives to the people. Please state any initiatives you have started or are continuing to do to support public affairs such as education, health and wellbeing, social inclusion, cultural identity, environment stability, the local economy, etc.
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________

20. Are there any opportunities that you can identify as a National Archives as a means to conduct public programming projects?
__________________________________________________________________________

Part III: User studies and customer satisfaction

21. How many hours per week is the service open to the public?

(a) Up to 20 hours per week [ ]
(b) 20-30 hours per week [ ]
(c) 30-40 hours per week [ ]
(d) 40-50 hours per week [ ]
(e) More than 50 hours per week [ ]
22. Do users need to book an appointment to use the facility?
   Yes [ ]  No [ ]

23. Does your institution embark on programmes to determine customer satisfaction of services?
   Yes [ ]  No [ ]

24. If the answer in Question 23 is yes, how does your institution achieve this?
   (a) User satisfaction surveys [ ]
   (b) Evaluation forms [ ]
   (c) Interviews [ ]
   (d) Focus group discussions [ ]
   (e) Other [ ]
   please specify..............................................................................................................

25. Does the National Archives investigate needs of users of the service?
   Yes [ ]  No [ ]

26. How does the National Archives establish the needs of the users?
   (a) Review of information requests [ ]
   (b) Evaluation of reading room statistics [ ]
   (b) Evaluation forms [ ]
   (c) Interviews [ ]
   (d) Focus group discussions [ ]
   (e) Other [ ]
   please specify..............................................................................................................

27. After identifying user needs, most likely the National Archives put measures in place to address them. Are such initiatives communicated to the public afterwards?
   Yes [ ]  No [ ]

28. What kind of initiatives does the National Archives have in place to reach out to potential users of the service?
   .................................................................................................................................
**Part IV: Archivists’ knowledge and skills**

29. In your opinion, do you think that the staff of the National Archives have the relevant knowledge and skills to conduct effective public programming initiatives?

   Yes [ ]  No [ ]

30. In what areas and at what levels does your staff have the greatest need for additional training? (Please tick all applicable options)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Basic</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Advanced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mounting archival exhibitions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public speaking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing promotional material on archives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing usable websites</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing use of websites</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of social media to promote archives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocacy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using economic impact assessments to show value of the archives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public relations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting guided tours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicating archives to children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

31. What would be the best method to equip archivists with public programming skills at the National Archives?

   (a) Short courses (1-2 weeks) [ ]
   (b) Formal Qualifications (Degrees, Diplomas etc.) [ ]
   (c) Workshops (1-2 days) [ ]
   (d) Mentorship [ ]
   (e) On the job training [ ]
   (f) Internships [ ]
   (g) Publications printed training manuals [ ]
   (h) Other [ ]

Please indicate other programmes: .............................................................................................................................................
32. Which institutions offer public programming training or marketing for the National Archives staff?

(a) In-house at the National Archives [ ]
(b) Colleges [ ]
(c) Universities [ ]
(d) Private organisations [ ]
Please mention names of institutions or organisations involved:

33. Are archivists in the National Archives aware of available training?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

Part V: National archival legislation and policies that govern public programming

34. Does your country have national legislation i.e. National Act that outlines how the archives should be accessed?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

35. If the response in Question 34 is yes, please name of this particular legislation:

36. Does this national legislation purposively direct the National Archives to promote access to the archives?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

37. Does your National Archives have a written public programming policy that guides public programming activities in the public archives of your country?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

38. If your answer in Question 37 is yes, is this policy formal or informal?
(a) Formal [ ] (b) Informal [ ]

39. If the National Archives does not have any policy on public programming/marketing/outreach/advocacy, please provide reasons why?
40. If your National Archives does have a policy on public programming/marketing/outreach, please indicate which factors shown below are reflected in the policy (You may tick more than one applicable answer):

(a) The public image of the public archive or branding [ ]
(b) Enhancing awareness of the public archive [ ]
(c) Educating users on how to seek and retrieve archival records [ ]
(d) Investigating use of the archival resources within the public archives [ ]
(e) Public relations [ ]
(f) Publicity [ ]
(g) Advocacy [ ]

41. Which of the following do you think is the most valuable action your governing authority could do to support the work of your National Archives? (Tick all that apply)

(a) Make you known to the local population [ ]
(b) Provide more funding [ ]
(c) Take over management responsibilities [ ]
(d) Give political support for your work [ ]
(e) Other (Please specify) [ ]

Part VI: Collaboration in public programming

42. Does your institution collaborate with other information services to promote use of the National Archives?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

43. If your response in Question 42 is yes, please name the institutions you collaborate with:
44. If your response in Question 42 is yes, how do you carry out such programmes?

----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

45. If your response in Question 42 is no, do you think that such collaboration could be another avenue to enhance public programming activities at your National Archives?

Yes [ ]  No [ ]

Please comment on your response..................................................................................

----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Part VII: The use of social media to market archives

Social media includes the various online technology tools that enable people to communicate easily via the internet to share information and resources. Social media can include text, audio, video, images, podcasts, and other multimedia communications.

46. Does the National Archives utilise social media?

Yes [ ]  No [ ]

47. Which social media tools are used by the National Archives?

(a) Facebook[ ]
(b) Twitter [ ]
(c) Blogs [ ]
(e) LinkedIn [ ]
(f) None [ ]
(g) Other [ ]

Please state other tools:

----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

48. For what purposes are social media tools used in the National Archives?

----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

49. Are social media tools used to promote the National Archives holdings?

Yes [ ]  No [ ]
50. What do you think are the advantages of using social media tools to market the public archives?

................................................................................................................................................

51. What do you think are the disadvantages of using social media tools to promote public archives?

................................................................................................................................................

52. If your National Archives does not make use of any social media platforms, please explain why.

................................................................................................................................................

Recommendations

53. Public programming activities should take contexts into cognizance. Consider the people you serve as a nation, how best should your institution deliver public programming projects that will have an effective impact on society?

................................................................................................................................................

Thank you for completing this survey.
Appendix 3: Archivist interview guide


Archivists Interview Guide

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Route</th>
<th>Question No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opening</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Who are you and where do you work as an archivist?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductory</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Do you have programmes for promoting archives to the public that encourage them to use the archives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>If the answer is no, do you think that such programmes should take place at the National Archives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transition</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>What do you call these programmes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key questions</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Have you been involved in these promotional programmes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>a) Do you think programmes on promoting archives to the public are a priority at your National Archives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b) Public programming is not always a priority in National Archives. What should be done about this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>a) Do you think that staff at your National Archives have the relevant skills to conduct public programming projects?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b) What kind of training in public programming is available for archivists at your National Archives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c) Are you aware of available training for archivists on marketing/public programming/outreach?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d) Where is such training offered?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>a) Does your National Archives seek to determine needs of the archives users?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b) If yes, how is this done?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c) If no, do you think that this should be done at your National Archives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d) Is determining user satisfaction a priority at your National Archives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>e) If yes, how is this done?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f) If no, do you think this should be done?</td>
<td>g) Does the National Archives use information on user satisfaction and user needs to prepare and do public programming activities?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>a) Does your country have a national archival legislation that emphasizes promoting access to the archives?</td>
<td>b) Does your National Archives have any official policies on public programming/marketing/outreach? c) If yes, what does the policy involve in a nutshell? d) If no, do you think your National Archives needs an official policy on public programming?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>a) When you conduct public programming projects do you collaborate with any other organisation or institutions? b) If yes, which organisations? c) If no, do you think collaboration could be one way to promote use of the public archives?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Is your National Archives familiar with social media tools such as Facebook, etc.?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>a) Are social media tools used to market the National Archives? b) If yes, which social media tools do you use? c) If no, do you think social media tools can be used to market the public archives?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ending question</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>I would like to develop a framework to guide public programming activities in ESARBICA. What advice do you have for me?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

383
Appendix 4: ESARBICA Board members interview guide

Interview Guide: ESARBICA Board members

1. What are the views of the ESARBICA Board with regard to promoting access to public archives?
2. What does the ESARBICA board do to encourage member states to promote archives to the public?
3. Do you think that public programming is a priority amongst ESARBICA member states?
4. Does the ESARBICA board encourage member states to develop policies on public programming?
5. Has the ESARBICA board facilitated any training programmes for archivists in the region on public programming?
   If yes, how was this implemented?
   If no, are there any plans to do so?
6. What can the ESARBICA board do to encourage member states to facilitate access and increase use of public archives?
7. I am developing a framework that can guide public programming initiatives in ESARBICA. How do you think the National Archives of ESARBICA can further play a role in promoting public archives?
Appendix 5 Pre-test questionnaire

Pre-test Questionnaire

Dear colleague,

I am a Doctoral Student with the University of South Africa. I need your assistance in pre-testing a questionnaire that I have designed as part of my research project on public programming activities in the ESARBICA region.

Your comments and contributions will go a long way in making this study a success.

1. Are there any typographical errors? Yes [ ] No [ ]
2. If your answer is “Yes”, please indicate them in the questionnaire.
3. Are there any misspelt words? Yes [ ] No [ ]
4. If your answer is “Yes” please indicate them in the questionnaire.
5. Do the item numbers make sense? Yes [ ] No [ ]
6. If your answer is “No”, please provide some suggestions below:
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
7. Is the type size big enough to be easily read? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   If your answer is “No”, please provide some suggestions below:
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
8. Is the survey too long? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   If your answer is “Yes” please provide suggestions below:
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
9. Does the survey format flow well? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   If your answer is “No”, please provide suggestions below:
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
10. Are the items appropriate for the respondents? Yes [ ] No [ ]
    If your answer is “No”, please provide some suggestions below:
    …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
    …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

Please return completed questionnaire to me at the University of South Africa, Department of Information Science, P O Box 329, UNISA 0003. Telephone: 012 429 6042 Email: mnkennp@UNISA.ac.za by 27 May 2013.

Sincerely,

Nampombe Mnkeni-Saurombe