



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

COURSE CODE: MAC341

**COURSE TITLE: Developmental Journalism and Broadcasting
(Development Communication)**

NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

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Course Title: Development Journalism and Broadcasting*
(Development Communication)

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NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

MAC341: DEVELOPMENT JOURNALISM AND BROADCASTING

DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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MODULE 1: DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION-MEANING AND PARADIGMS

Unit 1 The concepts of communication, development and development communication

Unit 2 Paradigms of development communication

Unit 3 Development Journalism

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UNIT 1: THE CONCEPTS OF COMMUNICATION, DEVELOPMENT AND DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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1.0 Introduction

The relevance of communication to development is an established paradigm in development studies. It is borne out of the realisation that development is human-centred and thus requires communication for its full realisation. FAO (1994:5) points out that “communication is the key to human development and the thread that binds people together”. This corroborates Moemeka’s (1991) view that development efforts cannot be successful without planned communication because its flow determines the direction and pace of dynamic social development. It is the agglutination of communication and development that birthed the word development communication. It is to emphasize the kind of communication that is done for development purposes. It is also known as communication for development. Some scholars call it communication in development, while others refer to it as "development support communication", that is, communication in support communication of development. These nomenclatures establish that there is a close relationship between communication and development.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to

- Define communication
- Explain the process of communication

- Define development
- Explain different dimensions of development
- Highlight the objectives of development
- Define development communication
- Establish a relationship between communication and development

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Communication

There exist various kinds of definition for communication, as there are different disciplines. While some definitions are human centred, others are not. For example, communication system may incorporate procession like computers, as well as less sophisticated reproducing devices such as photocopiers. A photocopier may see communication as meaning different thing from the way a marketer perceives it. Similarly, a gospel preacher may think communication is something, which is of course different from what a journalist thought it is.

Therefore, there is no single definition of communication agreed upon by scholars. Psychologists, sociologists, medical practitioners, philosophers and communication specialists, all define communication based on their orientations and perspectives. Psychologists define communication as "the process by which an individual (the communicator) transmits stimuli (usually verbal symbols) to modify the behaviour of the other individuals (communicates)." This definition describes what many extension workers and change agents hope to achieve. Sociologists see communications "as the mechanism through which human relations exist and develop." Some people limit their definitions of communication rather narrowly, saying "communication is the process whereby one person tells another something through the written or spoken word." This definition, from a book written by a journalist, seems reasonable for those in that field. So, there are definitions of communication as there are various disciplines.

Communication is from a Latin word- *COMMUNIS*, which means *common* or *shared understanding*. Communication therefore is a purposeful effort to establish *commonness* between a source and receiver (Schramm 1965). Whatever is being shared could be associated with knowledge, experience, thought, ideas, suggestion, opinions, feelings etc. We will define communication here as the process of exchanging or sharing information, ideas and feeling between the sender and the receiver. It involves not only the spoken and written word by also body language, personal mannerisms, and style - anything that adds meaning to a message (Hybels & Weaver II, (2001). Baran (2003) has defined communication as the process of creating shared meaning. This is because the participants in communication encounter are interested in obtaining messages that are understandable. That is why they have to negotiable, seek clarification and ask for explanation to ensure that they have obtained the meaning intended in the message.

Elements of Communication

Communication as a system means that it works through interrelated set of elements. We can identify about seven elements that are involved in communication process. They are:

1. **Stimulus:** This is the impulse that triggers off the communication exchange. It takes place at the ideation stage of communication. We can also call it the reason one has for communicating, which may be to inform, educate, entertain etc.
2. **Source:** This is the person who begins the communication process. He is the one triggered by the stimulus and from him begins the communication activity. He could be referred to as the initiator, encoder or sender. He is the initiator because he begins the communication process. As the encoder, he packages the message in a way that it can be communicated and as the sender when he passes across the message by himself.
3. **Message:** This could be the idea, feelings, information, thought, opinion, knowledge or experience etc. that the source/sender wants to share.
4. **Medium/Channel:** Medium and channel are generally used interchangeably. But here, a distinction is made between the two. Medium could be regarded as the form adopted by the sender of the message to get it to the receiver. It could be oral or written form. The channel then is the pathway, route or conduit through which the message travels between the source and the receiver e.g. the channel of radio, television, newspaper, telephone etc. Channel provides a link that enables the source and the receiver to communicate. It may also be seen in term of the five physical senses- sight, sound, touch, taste and smell-through which messages can be sent, received, understood, interpreted and acted upon.
5. **Receiver:** This is the person to whom the message is sent. He is the target audience or the recipient of the message. All the source/sender effort to communicate is to inform or affect the attitude of the receiver. That is why communication must be receiver-centred.
6. **Feedback:** This is the response or reaction of the receiver to the message sent. Communication is incomplete without feedback. It confirms that the message is well received and understood. Feedback guides the source in communication process and helps him to know when to alter or modify his message if not properly received. A feedback is positive when it shows that the message has been well received and understood and it could be negative when it shows that the intended effect has not been achieved
7. **Noise:** Noise is interference that keeps a message from being understood or accurately interpreted. It is a potent barrier to effective communication. Noise may be in different form:
 - I. **Physical Noise:** This comes from the environment and keeps the message from being heard or understood. It may be from loud conversations, side-talks at meetings, vehicular sounds, sounds from workmen's tools etc.
 - II. **Psychological Noise:** This comes from within as a result of poor mental attitude, depression, emotional stress or disability.

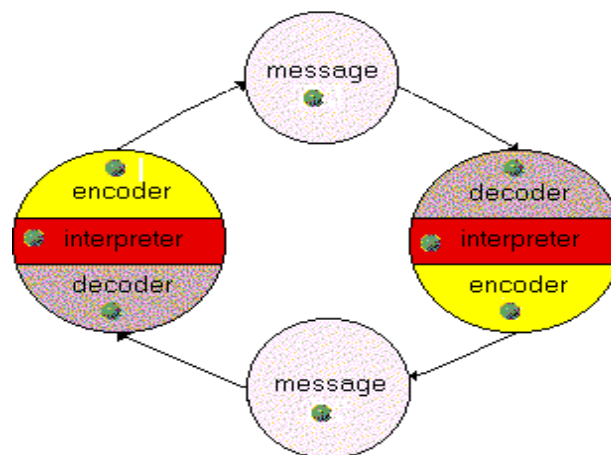
- III. **Physiological Noise:** Results from interference from the body in form of body discomforts, feeling of hunger, tiredness etc
- IV. **Linguistic Noise:** This is from the source's inability to use the language of communication accurately and appropriately. It may be a grammatical noise manifested in form of defects in the use of rules of grammar of a language, and faulty sentence structure. It may be semantic as in the wrong use of words or use of unfamiliar words, misspelling, etc. And it could also be phonological manifested in incorrect pronunciation.

The Process of Communication

Communication is a process because it is dynamic, recursive, on-going, continuous and cyclical. There is no recognizable beginning and end, neither is there a rigid sequence of interaction. But we may try to identify how the process begins.

- **Stimulation:** This is the point at which the source sees the need to communicate. He receives stimulus that triggers him to communicate.
- **Encoding:** The source processes the message he want to communicate into a form that will be understandable to the receivers. This may be a feeling, opinion, experiment etc.
- **Transmission:** The message is passed across to the receiver through a chosen medium or channel.
- **Reception:** The receiver gets the message that is sent from the source
- **Decoding:** The message is processed, understood and interpreted by the receiver.
- **Response:** This the reaction of the receiver to the message received, in form of feedback

The Osgood model of communication presented below shows that communication is both a system and process.



Contexts of Communication

Contexts here mean the different levels at which communication occurs. It can also be referred to as the kinds of communication that are available.

1. **Intra-personal Communication:** This is essentially a neuro-physiological activity which involves some mental interviews for the purposes of information

processing and decision making. The basic operations of intrapersonal communication are to convert raw data from environment to information; to interpret and give meaning to that information and to use such meaning. In other words, it is communication that occurs within you. Because interpersonal communication is centered in the self, you are the only sender-receiver. The message is made up of your thoughts and feelings and the channel is your brain, which processes what you are thinking and feeling. There is also feedback because you talk to yourself, you discard certain ideals and replace them with others.

2. **Interpersonal Communication:** It occurs when you communicate on a one-to-one basis usually in an informal, unstructured setting. It occurs mostly between two people, though it may include more than two. Each participant functions as a sender-receiver; their messages consist of both verbal and non-verbal symbols and the channels used mostly are sight and sound. It also offers the greatest opportunity for feedback.
3. **Group Communication** This form of communication occurs among a small number of people for the purpose of solving a problem. The group must be small enough so that each member has a chance to interact with all the other members. The communication process in group communication is more complex than in interpersonal communication because the group members are made up of several sender-receivers. As a result, there are more chances for confusion. Messages are also more structured in small groups because the group is meeting for a specific purpose. It uses the same channels as are used in interpersonal communication, and there is also a good deal of opportunity for feedback. It also occurs in a more formal setting than in interpersonal communication.
4. **Public Communication:** Here the (sender-receiver) speaker sends a message (the speech) to an audience. The speaker usually delivers a highly structured message, using the same channels as in interpersonal or small-group communication. The channels here are more exaggerated than in interpersonal communication. The voice is louder and the gestures are more expansive because the audience is bigger. Additional visual channels, such as slides or the computer programme Power Point might be used. Opportunity for verbal feedback is limited in most public communication. The setting is also formal.
5. **Mass Communication:** Mass Communication is a means of disseminating information or message to large, anonymous, and scattered heterogeneous masses of receivers which may be far removed from the message sources through the use of sophisticated equipment. It is the sending of message through a mass medium to a large number of people.

3.2 Development

Rogers (1976) sees development as a widely participatory process of social change in a society, intended to bring about social and material advancement (including greater equality, freedom, and other valued qualities) for the majority of the people through their gaining control over their environment. Rogers stressed the endogenous dimension of development. It must be through people's participation, exploiting their own environment to improve their situation rather than expecting development to "fall from heaven" as it were. Inayatullah (cited in Soola 2003:13), for example, says "development is change toward patterns of society that allow better realization of human values, that allow a society greater control over its environment and over its political destiny, and that enables its individuals to gain increased control over themselves".

Moemeka (1991) observes that:

...the two definitions show that development is a multifaceted concept. It generally means different things to different people, ranging from the psychologist's preoccupation with individual or personality variables as self reliance, achievement motivation, self worth and self-actualization, to the communicator's concern for acquisition of new knowledge and skills, increased self confidence, control over oneself and one's environment, greater equality, freedom, ability to understand one's potentials and limitations, and willingness to work hard enough to improve on existing conditions (p.4).

Todar and Smith (2003) stress that development involves both the quality and quantity of life. Quality of life refers to opportunities and availability of social, health and educational concerns. Quantity of life involves the amount of economic and political participation of the people. This definition shifts the attention and aim of development away from an economic to a more humanizing conceptualised one. In line with this, Oladipo (1996:1) notes that development is:

a process of economic and social advancement which enables people to realize their potentials, build self-confidence and lead lives of dignity and fulfilment. It is a process aimed at freeing people from evils of want, ignorance, social injustice and economic exploitation.

Todar and Smith (2003) identifies three objectives of development:

1. To increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life sustaining goods such as food, shelter, health and protection.
2. To raise levels of living in addition to higher incomes, the provision of more jobs, better education, and greater attention to cultural and human values, all of which will serve not only enhance material well-being but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem.
3. To expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence, not only in relation to other people and nation- states but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery.

3.3 Development Communication

Development communication can be looked at from two perspectives in terms of the use of communication channels. The narrower concept of "development journalism" refers to the use of mass communication (the mass media) in the promotion of development. Development communication on the other hand is broader in shape and makes use of all forms of communication in the development process. In other words, it employs not only the mass media, but also interpersonal channels, group or public means of communication and the traditional channels of communication.

Quebral (1975) cited in Anaeto & Anaeto (2010), defines development communication as the art and science of human communication applied to the speedy transformation of a country and the mass of its people from a state of poverty to a more dynamic state of economic growth which make possible greater social equality and the larger fulfillment of the human potentials. It is observed that development communication is a purposeful communication effort geared towards realisation of human potentials and transformation from a bad situation to a good one. That is why Moemeka (1991) defines development communication as the application of the process of communication to the development process.

Coldevin (1987) notes that development communication mobilises people to participate in development activities. He defines development communication as "the systematic utilisation of appropriate communication channels and techniques to increase people's participation in development and to inform, motivate, and train rural populations, mainly at the grassroots level. This is in line with Balifs (1988:13) definition, which sees development communication as a social process aimed at producing a common understanding or a consensus among the participants in a development initiative.

Some definitions specifically emphasise on social change. Okunna (2002) sees development communication as the entire process of communication with a specific group of people who require development (target audience), with the purpose of achieving the social change that should change their lives in a positive way, thus giving them better living conditions. Similar point was emphasised by Middleton and Wedeneyer (1985), describing development communication as any series of planned communication activities aimed at individual and social change; and by Rogers (1976:93) as the application of communication with a view to promoting socioeconomic development.

As for the expression "development communication", it was apparently first used in the Phillippines in the 1970 by Professor Nora Quebral to designate the process for transmitting and communicating new knowledge related to rural environments (Srampickal, 2006). The fields of knowledge were then extended to all those likely to help improve the living conditions of the disadvantaged people.

4.0 Conclusion

The concepts of communication and development are central to our understanding of development communication. In development communication, the main reason of communication is to bring about or expedite the process of development. Communication is necessary for development because it helps to mobilise people's participation. Communication is a common denominator for development and participation. It is for this reason that FAO says that communication is the key to human development and the thread that binds people together (1994:5).

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- Communication involves an exchange of information, ideas, feeling rather than a mere transmission of information. It is a two-way process between the sender and the receiver of the information.
- Development is all about transformation from a state to another that is better. It is human centered and ensures that human basic needs are met. It affects the economic, social and mental improvement of human condition.
- Development communication has to do with the use of communication methods, forms and channels in the process of development. Its purpose is to bring about social change through people's participation.

Self Assessment Exercise 1.1

Development is complex and interdisciplinary; discuss this in line with your understanding of development.

6.0 Tutorial Marked Assignment

1. How would you define development communication based on your own understanding of what it is?
2. Moemeka (1991) said that development efforts cannot be successful without planned communication. Do you agree? Why?
3. Why do people need to participate in the development process meant for them?

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UNIT 2: PARADIGMS OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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1.0 Introduction

The paradigms of development communication have evolved along the lines of shifts in paradigms of communication and development. In other words, the initial understanding of the ability of communication, especially the mass media and that of development impacted greatly on the thinking of what development communication was and is now. As new knowledge emerged on the power of communication and people have better understanding of what development is, new understanding of development communication also emerged.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the paradigm shift in communication
- Explain the paradigm shift in development
- List the elements of modernisation paradigm
- Highlight the components of self reliance
- Discuss the shift in paradigms of development communication.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Communication Paradigms- From All-Powerful media to Limited Effects Perspective

The initial understanding of communication and the media was that the media were all-powerful. The mass media were seen as supremely effective and that all human beings responded the same way to the powerful influence of the media (Baran & Davis, 2003). The media were called the magic bullet, transmission belt or hypodermic needle as they convey external stimuli that can condition anyone to behave in whatever way a master propagandist wanted. People were viewed as powerless to consciously resist manipulation no matter their level of education or

social status. The rational mind was viewed as a mere façade, incapable of resisting powerful media messages.

New knowledge, one of such foregrounded by Paul Lazafeld, revealed that media were not as powerful as it was earlier believed; and that certain variables limit the influence of the media. It was revealed that individual differences, the social categories that we belong to and the social relationships that we engage in impact and limit the influence of the media on us (Baran, 2009). Besides, people also possess selective abilities by which they allow some media content that are suitable for them while others are discarded; this ability which Klapper calls selective process does not allow the all-powerful influence of the media.

3.2 Development Paradigms- From Modernisation to Participation

Modernisation Paradigm

In the 1960s, development meant a process of modernisation modelled on the industrialised societies of the North. The measure of progress in this direction was economic growth. Industrialization and cash crop agriculture were the means to achieve it. The concern then was to reduce the gap between the North and the South and the answer to that was to go through the process of modernisation. At the social system, modernisation refers to the intense application of scientific technology, specialisation of labour, interdependence of markets, large concentrations of capital and rising levels of material well being (Ward and Rustow, 1964). At the individual level, modernisation is informed contact with the outside world, a sense of personal efficacy, openness of opinion and readiness for social change (Inkeles and Smith, 1974). Modernisation proposed some principles for the Third World countries to move from their traditional level of development to the modern stage:

- a high level of technical assistance is needed for development;
- interaction between developed and developing countries should be sustained to bring about greater development;
- developing countries are to adopt the political institutions of developed countries; and
- developing countries should practice free and open economy where developed countries can participate (Anaeto & Solomon-Anaeto, 2010).

The dependency theory

In the 1960s, strong opposition to the modernisation paradigm led to the emergence of an alternative theoretical model rooted in a political-economic perspective: the dependency theory. The proponents of this school of thought criticised some of the core assumptions of the modernisation paradigm mostly because it implicitly put the responsibility, and the blame, for the causes of underdevelopment exclusively upon the recipients, neglecting external social, historical, and economic factors. They also accused the modernisation paradigm of being very Western-centric, refusing or neglecting any alternative route to development. The modernisation paradigm did not

lead to development and in fact the countries of the South were sliding down further and further into poverty, low salaries and poor living conditions.

This criticism, which was developed above all in Latin America emphasised the link between this situation and the situation of economic dependence on the industrial North: the countries in the North were conditional on the underdevelopment of the countries of the Third World, and the 'centre' developed at the expense of the 'periphery'. According to the dependency paradigm, obstacles to development come first and foremost from external, not internal: that is to say, the international economic system.

Participation Paradigm

When the promises of the modernisation paradigm failed to materialise, and its methods came increasingly under fire, and the dependency theorists failed to provide a successful alternative model, a different approach focusing on people's participation began to emerge. This participatory model is less oriented to the political-economic dimension and more rooted in the cultural realities of development. The development focus has shifted from economic growth to include other social dimensions needed to ensure meaningful results in the long run—as indicated by the consensus built in the definition of the Millennium Development Goals. Sustainability and people's participation became key elements of this new vision, as acknowledged also by the World Bank (1994: 3): "Internationally, emphasis is being placed on the challenge of sustainable development, and participation is increasingly recognised as a necessary part of sustainable development strategies." Meaningful participation cannot occur without communication.

Participation paradigm is based on the assumption that the common people are intelligent and can be active agents of change. Development efforts should then be based on people's capacity to contribute and participate actively in the task of transforming their society. It emphasises the endogenous nature of development as something that must evolve from the people as opposed to 'trickle-down' belief. It also emphasizes self reliant growth, stressing that people have the ability to face their problems with resources or ideas emanating from within without relying of external help. Self reliance thus has three components:

- The development of the consciousness in people that they are in charge of their destiny;
- That people can think or reason and achieve any height by themselves; and
- That people can acquire the attitude for solving problems that confront them by their own initiative and skills (Oso, 2002:10)

3.3 Development Communication Paradigms

3.3.1 Dominant Paradigm

The dominant development communication paradigm took a queue from the all-powerful media paradigm and modernisation paradigm. The mass media were

overestimated and it was believed that they were extremely powerful in persuading audiences to change attitudes and behaviours; thus the mass media were at the centre of communication initiatives that relied heavily on the traditional vertical one-way model: Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver (SMCR). The thinking was that if the appropriate mass media strategies could be devised to diffuse pro-development innovations to the far-flung, heterogeneous, predominantly illiterate and tradition-bound 'natives' of developing countries, the modernising influence of these innovations would transform (modernise) their perception and cause them to forgo their latent productive skill (Soola 2003). This has been the model of reference for the diffusion perspective, which has often been adopted to induce behaviour changes through media-centric approaches and campaigns. This paradigm was unilinear as well as transportational. As expressed by Moemeka:

it assumed that communicating to or informing the elite, the well-to-do, the articulate and the educated was all the impetus needed to ensure communication effectiveness; that the "inevitable" benefits deriving from the responses of these highly placed members of the communities to the communication would, of necessity, trickle down to the masses.

This paradigm has been criticised by several people for its reductionism. It did not take sufficiently into account the different types of target populations (e.g., prosperous farmers who own land and are open to new techniques versus other farmers who are illiterate, poor and exploited) (Mefalopulos, 2008). It also failed to take into account the impact of the economic and political structures on the capacity to adopt innovations. The same charge of blindness where social, political and economic factors are concerned also applies to innovations that require a process of diffusion. Finally, communication channels and sources were generally used within the framework of vertical, top-down communication. There was never any mention of horizontal communication between the groups in the communities affected by the problem that the innovation was meant to resolve. There was also a lack of vertical, bottom-up communication, which would have made it possible to bring the people's problems to the attention of the decision makers and the experts.

Alternative paradigm

The alternative paradigm emphasises not only material development but also the development of values and cultures. Where development communication interventions are concerned, it emphasises the small media operating in networks and the use of grassroots communication approaches. According to this paradigm, grassroots participation reinforces the chances that communities will adopt activities appropriate for them.

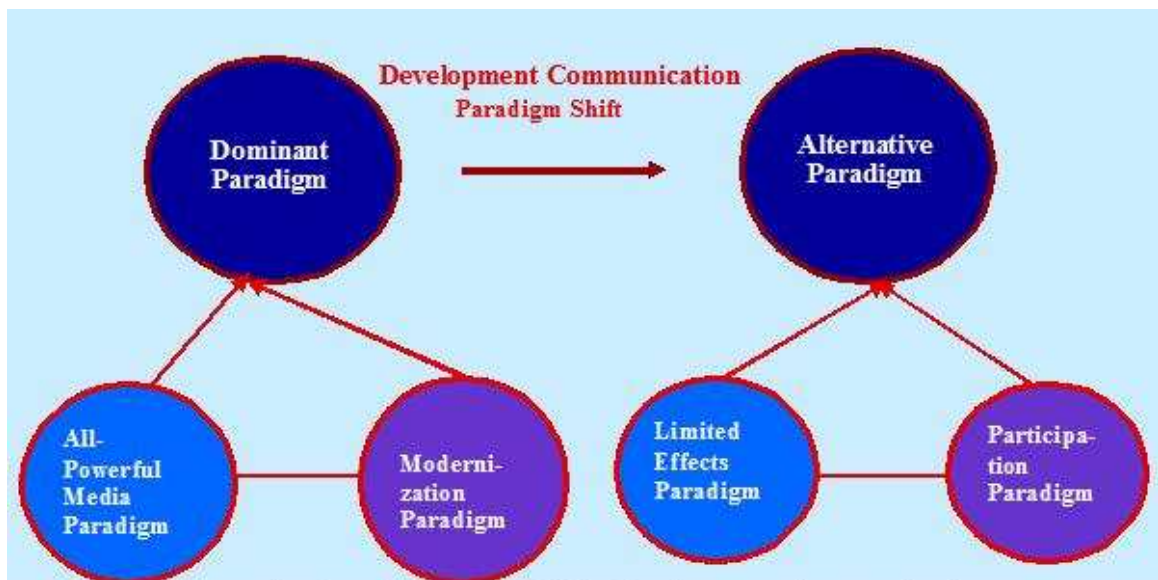
One of the models attached to this paradigm is the methodology of community media. "Wherever carefully developed programs have failed", states a UNESCO study, "this approach, which consists in helping people to formulate their problems or to acquire an awareness of new options, instead of imposing on them a plan that was formulated

elsewhere, makes it possible to intervene more effectively in the real space of the individual or the group" (Berrigan 1981:13).

The concept of interactivity, with the small media as its operational instrument, makes possible the endogenous acquisition of knowledge and skills within the framework of a search for solutions and the communication process. This is referred to as a recourse to a methodology of community media, whose principal elements are:

- identification of needs by means of direct contacts with the groups;
- concretisation: examination of the problem identified by the groups in the light of local conditions;
- selection of priority problems by the groups;
- formulation of a durable methodology for seeking solutions;
- identification of the amount of information required and access to this information;
- action: execution by the groups of the projects they have designed;
- expansion toward the outside to make known the points of view of the groups to other groups or to the authorities;
- liaison with the communication system to make known their action (Berrigan 1981).

The diagram below shows how development communication paradigms evolved from the paradigms of communication and development.



Source– Author: Paradigm Shift in Development Communication

4.0 Conclusion

Here we highlight the factors responsible for the failure of dominant paradigm which include:

- Emphasis on civilization at the expense of basic needs and poverty alleviation
- It is one way, top down, vertical information transmission

- Persuasion rather than cultivation of trust and mutual understanding
- It is ethnocentric
- Religious bias
- Cultural imperialism
- Exaggerates the power of mass media
- Overlooked the importance of interpersonal communication
- Ignores ecological issue
- National-level programs rather than local-level actions

The major reasons for the adoption of participatory/alternative paradigm include:

- More will be accomplished.
- Services can be provided at a lower cost.
- Participation has intrinsic values for participants, alleviating feeling of alienation and powerlessness.
- Participation is a catalyst for further development efforts.
- Participation leads to a sense of responsibility for the project.
- Participation guarantees that a felt need is involved.
- Participation ensures that things are done the right way.
- Participation ensures the use of indigenous knowledge and expertise.
- Participation brings freedom from dependence on professionals.
- Participation brings about “conscientisation” i.e. it helps people understand the nature of the constraints which are hindering their escape from poverty.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- Development communication paradigms are precipitated on the paradigms of communication and development.
- The initial understanding of communication and the media was that the media were all-powerful and supremely effective, and that all human beings responded the same way to the powerful influence of the media. This thinking was jettisoned when new knowledge revealed that media were not as powerful as it was earlier believed; and that certain variables limit the influence of the media.
- The earlier development paradigm was modernisation of Third world countries, an idea borrowed from the development experience of the North. It was however dropped for participation paradigm which emphasises social, human and cultural realities of development.
- The shifts in communication and development paradigms invariably led to shift in development communication paradigms.
- The dominant paradigm of development communication was dropped due to its unilinear, top-down approach; and a new paradigm which stresses participation in communication activities and relevance of content to the socio-cultural context was embraced.

Self Assessment Exercise 2.1

Against the backdrop of development and development communication paradigms vis-a-vis the development realities of Africa, what problem(s) can you identify as the development bane of Africa and what development communication approach will you recommend to solve the problems?

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What are the elements of modernisation paradigm of development and its communication counterpart?
2. Discuss the factors responsible for the failure of modernisation paradigm of development and its communication counterpart
3. Provide justifications for the adoption of participatory/alternative paradigm of development communication.

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UNIT 3: DEVELOPMENT JOURNALISM

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1.0 Introduction

Development journalism refers to the practice of journalism concerned with gathering, packaging and disseminating development-oriented news and information (Adebayo, 1990: 45). The concept emanated from efforts by scholars from developing countries to cut the 'umbilical chord' that had tied them to western communication scholarship, since it had been discovered that western models of journalism and journalism related scholarship were not in fact transferable to developing countries. The term 'development journalism' emerged around the mid-1960s as a descriptive term for a type of journalism which demands that news reporting be constructive and geared toward development ends. Development journalism is thus a consequence of the disillusionment created by dependency syndrome arising from Western dominance of the international flow of information. It is an offshoot of the New International Information and Communication Order (NIICO). This reaction was spearheaded by developing countries which felt that their interests were not being served by Western news agencies. Such a departure was needed to break the vicious circle of dependency through ownership of the mass media. In additions, developing countries' governments found a ready tool in a tightly control electronic and, to a less extent the print media to legitimate and perpetuate their hold on their people (Soola, 2003).

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Define development journalism
- Explain the tenets of development journalism
- List the attributes of development journalism
- Discuss the roles of development journalism
- Explain the variant of development journalism

- Differentiate development journalism from conventional journalism

3.0 Main Content

3.1 What Development Journalism Is

Development journalism involves reporting on ideas, programmes, activities and events, which are related to an improvement of the living standard of people. In other words, the media ought to be committed to contributing to the overall goal of development, to promote cultural and informational autonomy, to support democracy and solidarity with other developing nations (McQuail 2005). Basically, it is assumed that journalism is able to influence the development process by reporting on development programmes and activities. Accordingly, it is the journalists' duty to 'critically examine and evaluate the relevance of a development project to national and local needs, the difference between a planned scheme and its actual implementation, and the difference between its impact on people as claimed by government officials and as it actually is' (Aggarwala 1979: 181). This means that news should not only be defined in terms of conflict, timeliness and unusualness, but rather in terms of commitment and participation (Okigbo, 1991:9).

Kunczik (in Wimmer & Wolf 2005) represents development journalism as an intellectual enterprise in which the journalist should form a kind of free intelligence and should critically examine the aims of national development and the applicable instruments in a rational discourse and solve them by reasonable criteria free of social constraints. Accordingly, development journalism has the following tasks:

- (i) to motivate the audience to actively cooperate in development; and
- (ii) to defend the interests of those concerned.

The credibility of journalism is crucial for the success of this project. Journalism thus needs to be 'decentrally and participatively structured to counteract the metropolis-trend in the various social processes' (in Wimmer & Wolf 2005: 2-3).

This view of a journalism that is socially and intellectually engaged is supported by Shah (1996: 146) who represents it as 'emancipatory journalism', which he claims offers a 'more complete and complex' perspective on the relationship between mass media and society in the context of the Third World. It is more complete because it provides a theoretical link between citizen access to mass media and social change and because it articulates a specific mechanism by which journalists can participate in social change. It is more complex because it incorporates principles of diversity and fluidity in the process of building cultural identities and communities and because it challenges journalistic practice by abandoning the idea of objectivity.

The foregoing notion of development journalism actually resonates with other forms of journalism invoked in academic literature. For example, one can readily detect the notion of a subjective journalistic engagement in the emergence of the so-called 'public' or 'civic' journalism movement in the early 1990s. This was in response to the widening gaps between government and citizens, and between news organisations and their audiences. Declines in voter participation in political elections, and in civic

participation in local community affairs, were cited as evidence of widespread withdrawal by citizens from democratic processes. Those scholars and journalists who were critical of news organisations' horse-race approach to political campaigns saw this trend as proving widespread public disaffection with mass-mediated political discourse. In response, many news organisations began to experiment with ways to enhance civic commitment and participation in democratic processes and to think of their audiences not as 'consumers' but as 'citizens' (Haas & Steiner 2006: 238-239).

3.2 Tenets of Development Journalism

Drawing from development media theory, the tenets of development journalism include:

1. Media must accept and carry out positive development tasks in line with nationally established policy.
2. Freedom of the media should be open to economic priorities and development needs of the society
3. Media should give priority in their content to the national culture and language(s) priority of coverage to other development countries.
4. Media should give priority in news and information to links with other developing countries that are close geographically, culturally or politically.
5. Journalists and other media workers have responsibilities as well as freedoms in their information gathering and dissemination tasks.
6. In the interest of development ends the state has a right to intervene in, or restrict, media operation; and devices of censorship, subsidy and direct control can be justified.

3.3 Two Types of Development Journalism

Development journalism has not developed in a straight-jacked direction. It has developed into two basic types which may be characterised as:

1. Investigative development journalism or Liberal development journalism
2. Benevolent-Authoritarian development journalism or Conservative development journalism (Folarin, 2005).

3.3.1 Investigative or Liberal development journalism

This type of journalism focuses on critical questioning and evaluation of the usefulness of development projects and the efficiency of control by the authority concerned. It 'x-rays' public complaints of misgovernment and probes allegations of corruption both of which may stand in the way of development.

One will note that investigative development journalism respects some of the tenets of outlined above, especially the one that obliges the media to accept and carry out positive development tasks in line with nationally established policy. It also emphasizes the tenet that vaguely admits that journalists and other media workers have freedoms as well as responsibilities; and defies the more authoritarian tenets which seek to justify censorship, subsidy and direct control as means of ensuring press compliance.

3.3.2 Benevolent-Authoritarian or Conservative development journalism

This type of journalism is espoused by scholars, media practitioners, leaders and others who believe that selective handling of information is justified in developing countries, which are often ridden with crises. The important thing they hold is to ensure that public welfare is kept in mind at all times. Exponents of Benevolent-Authoritarian or Conservative development journalism tend to view democracy as an unproductive luxury in developing countries. Holding on to the most authoritarian tenets of development media theory, they are prepared to assign to the national news agencies the function of censorship in addition to their normal function of news distribution. The pervading, freedom inhibiting tradition of exaggerated respect for national leaders is best exemplified in benevolent-authoritarian or conservative media which, like erstwhile socialist media are subject to 'democratic centralism' and self-censorship. Running through such media and the attendant scholarship is a common belief that economic development cannot take place in developing countries without the short term sacrifice of political liberty and press freedom (Folarin, 2005).

3.4 Attributes /characteristics of Development Journalism

Development Journalism is characterized by:

- Purposefulness
- Pragmatism
- Relevance
- Mass-oriented
- Scientific outlook
- Technical subject matter oriented
- Participatory and
- Process- oriented.

- a) **Purposefulness:** Development Journalism is purposive and goal oriented. It is a kind of journalism that is aimed at enhancing and fostering development in a country or society. The writer consciously works towards an objective improvement in the socio-economic conditions of the people. The development journalist bears in mind that his writing must contribute to development. The development journalist does not merely report and interpret the facts. He also promotes them to help bring about positive social change. Nwosu (2000: 72-73) in apparent agreement states that development journalism has a definite effort to help in improving the quality of life in the rural areas by reporting and commenting upon such issues as health, agriculture, education or literacy, culture, family planning, government, transportation, festivals and religions. In writing the development journalist formulates one or more specific behavioural objectives explicitly or implicitly. For example, what do I want to happen as a result of this writing? In what way do I want the receiver to be different after reading the story? The journalist may write about a high yield variety of cassava so that farmers will learn about a new way to get higher yields.

- b) **Pragmatism:** Development Journalism is pragmatic, that is, it is result oriented. It seeks to achieve tangible development goals. It also implies that the media perform a role beyond that of conventional journalism. The Development Journalist takes up issues and relates them to happenings in the society that will enhance development. The writer's aim is to elicit actions from the target audience, government and other stakeholders.
- c) **Relevance:** Development Journalism focuses on things that affect the people and can help improve their conditions. Instead of sensationalised reporting, development journalism focuses on stories that enhance people's lives, particularly the poor. It reports on topics and issues as agriculture and industrial growth, education, health and welfare services, community development, social welfare, public health and other ingredients of national life as they affect the life of the people.
- d) **Mass-Oriented:** Development Journalism is basically targeted to the mass of people. It is concerned with the rural poor who are more in number than the urban dwellers. It seeks to serve them and their needs. It aims at addressing common problems in society that affect majority of the citizens.
- e) **Process-Oriented:** Development Journalism endorses process reporting. It reports an event together with actions, thoughts and activities that have led to the build up. Process reporting points out events, the causes, the consequences and the possible solutions to the problems. This is unlike conventional news writing that is event-oriented. For example, if there is an epidemic outbreak, the development journalist discovers and describes a process. His writing answers what led to the epidemic? What does it mean to the people and the communities affected? What can be done now to remedy the situation by the people, government? How can future occurrences be averted?
- f) **Scientific in Outlook:** Development Journalism is not based on hunches but on researches and facts. It makes use of social science tools such as survey, sampling to gather accurate and reliable data to guide development programmes.
- g) **Technical subject Matter Oriented:** Development Journalism deals largely with information, knowledge and products generated by research and development. It seeks to communicate them to the common man in the simplest possible way.
- h) **Participatory:** Development Journalism is participatory. The development journalist involves the people whom he is writing for. He interacts, discusses and plans with them to be able to affectionately report their situations and suggest solutions. At times, community members may be involved in sourcing news and information. This gives them a sense of belonging.

Okigbo (1991:9) itemized some of the roles that mass media must perform in development process. These include:

- Providing access to a wide variety of the people;

- Determining the people's needs for development information and programming for these needs;
- Supporting horizontal and vertical flows of information;
- Supporting cultural communication;
- Raising the people's awareness and adoption of new methods that promote development.

Soola(2003) added to this list that the media should-

- Provide a convergence between government and people's agenda for development;
- Exploring and integrating the potentials of traditional and interpersonal networks into mass media development and activities;
- Mobilising resources for development programmes and projects.

3.5 Development news defined

Shah, following his 'emancipatory journalism' perspective, sees development journalism as consisting in 'news' that:

should examine critically, evaluate and interpret the relevance of development plans, projects, policies, problems, and issues. It should indicate the disparities between plans and actual accomplishments, and include comparisons with how development is progressing in other countries and regions. It also should provide contextual and background information about the development process, discuss the impact of plans, projects, policies, problems, and issues on people, and speculate about the future of development. And development news should refer to the needs of people, which may vary from country to country or from region to region, but generally include primary needs, such as food, housing, employment; secondary needs such as transportation, energy sources and electricity; and tertiary needs such as cultural diversity, recognition and dignity (in Wimmer & Wolf 2005: 3).

This hierarchical conceptualisation of 'development news' by Shah seems to relegate some societal needs to the 'tertiary' level, in contradistinction to what is an increasingly less econometric view of development. For example, Amartya Sen sees the expansion of freedom both as the primary end and primary means of development. He calls for 'social development' – enhanced literacy, accessible and affordable health care, the empowerment of women, and the free flow of information - as necessary precursors of the kind of development most economists are concerned about, namely: increase in gross national product, rise in personal incomes, industrialisation, and technological advance (Human Rights Watch 2006).

It can be argued, therefore, that development journalism, following Sen's observation, should also focus on the extent to which 'freedom' (of conscience, expression, assembly, media, etc.) is actualised in the lives of citizens. This will clearly be a

departure from the kind of development journalism envisaged by postcolonial political elites in the Third World. But it is a fuller expression of development journalism. This holistic approach to development seems consistent with the ten proposals of development journalism posited by Galtung and Vincent (in Gunaratne 1996: 7-8):

1. Whenever there is a reference to development, the development journalists should try to make it concrete in terms of human beings. They should report people as subjects, actors and agents rather than as objects or victims with needs deficit.
2. Development journalism should focus on more than economics because all other factors – military power, political power, cultural power, etc. – have to do with development in some way or other.
3. Mere economic growth data will never do without accompanying dispersion data. In other words: development journalists must look at the income of the bottom 50 percent or 10 percent, as well as of the top percent or 1 percent.
4. Development journalism should focus on both differences and relations within and between countries. For example, journalists should substantiate the relationship between the rich and the poor. How, for example, does a wage freeze affect wage earners in relation to business people?
5. Development journalism should focus on the totality of concrete life situations – the rich, the middle class, the working class, the poor, the dirty poor, etc. In other words, human life is rarely captured in black and white; there are always shades of gray.
6. Development journalism should dwell on the dimension of democracy. Investigative journalism, for example, can serve as an aspect of the developmental role of the media.
7. Development journalism should sometimes engage in ‘constructive’ criticism, highlighting success stories, where necessary.
8. Development journalism should allow for people to talk. A useful approach is for journalists to sit down with people from high to low discussing the meaning of development thereby generating an enormous range of visions as well as how-to insights.
9. Development journalism should sometimes let the people, more or less, run the media. This means giving people some media control, by, perhaps, enabling them to produce their own programmes.
10. Development journalism lets people run more of society, and then reports on what happens. In other words, development journalists should report on people’s movements and organisations, on people’s struggles to construct, deconstruct and reconstruct social meanings for themselves. In a sense, development journalism becomes a recording of human existence, in all its manifestations.

3.6 Differences between Development Journalism and Conventional Journalism

Development Journalism	Conventional Journalism
Purposive; seeks to achieve specific goals	Non purposive; concerned with mere information dissemination
Concerned with stories that are of direct relevance and usefulness to the public	Concerned more with new and unusual occurrences.
Concerned with follow up of events and projects for policy action and immediate decisions.	Concerned with one time reporting of events and projects.
Takes a prescriptive approach; proffers solutions to societal problems.	Merely descriptive; tells the story of an event.
Reports social, economic and cultural matters of relevance to the people.	Favours political, economic and entertainment reports.

(Source: Gunaratne cited in Anaeto and Solomon-Anaeto, 2010: 66)

3.7 Development Writing

Development writing is the purposeful sharing of information to bring about desirable changes in the society. Development writing is concerned with how information can enhance the well being of individuals, the community and the country.

In writing, the development journalist considers the potential effects of issues and events and how they can contribute to development. Jamias explains that in development writing, the journalist inquires into, analyses and reports on the problems of people and society and seeks as well as promotes solutions to them. The end goal of development writing is that of social, economic, political and cultural development.

Due to the unique nature and goal of development journalism, the following techniques are employed when writing:

- i. Translation: since the purpose of development writing is to provide information to drive the development process, it is written in simple style. Technical terms and jargons are translated and simplified into language more like ordinary speech. The writer brings the story to the knowledge level of the readers. He explains facts or processes by putting them in terms that the readers know and understand, for example; simile and metaphors can be used to achieve this.
- ii. Visualisation: in development writing, the writer helps words with visuals. Drawings and illustrations are used to complement the text of an article. This includes the use of pictures, charts, diagrams, comics and others to illustrate the text/ words. Readers are able to grasp the ideas easier and faster with visuals than just mere words.

Jamias (n. d.) notes that graphics can be used to illustrate materials difficult to present in words, give information, focus attention on crucial points, attract attention, decorate, amuse and entertain.

- iii. Humanising: humanisation is translating materials in terms of people. Human beings are involved in any story to be reported, whether directly or indirectly. They should be played up. Relate the story to the audience either in terms of how it affects them, what they are able to benefit or what they can do.
- iv. Localised and Personalised Approach: the development journalist is to present information in a very personal way, in a way that such information will apply to the locality. Localisation and personalised approach increase the immediacy of such stories.
- v. All facts surrounding a story should not be brought out. Facts should not be presented in isolation; they should be explained in terms of the relationship with other elements in life of the people. A balanced picture of the story should be presented. The good, the bad, the strengths and weaknesses of development programmes should be highlighted.

3.0 Conclusion

Development journalism is a departure from everyday journalism. Its purpose is to facilitate development. Thus, to be effective in the developing countries, it will have to combine the elements of both the Investigative or Liberal development journalism and that of Benevolent-Authoritarian or Conservative development journalism.

4.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- Development journalism refers to the practice of journalism concerned with gathering, packaging and disseminating development-oriented news and information. It involves reporting on ideas, programmes, activities and events, which are related to an improvement of the living standard of people.
- The attributes of development journalism include purposefulness, pragmatism, relevance, mass-oriented, scientific outlook, technical subject matter oriented, participatory and process- oriented.
- Development journalism is of two types: Investigative or Liberal development journalism and Benevolent-Authoritarian or Conservative development journalism.
- Development journalism is different from conventional journalism.

Self Assessment Exercise 3.1

Assess the practice of development journalism by the Nigerian media? What suggestions would you make to make it optimally rewarding?

5.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What do you understand by development journalism? In what ways is it different from conventional journalism?
2. Discuss the tenets of development journalism

3. List and explain the attributes of development journalism.
4. What roles is development journalism should perform in the process of development in Africa?
5. Discuss the two variants of development journalism. Which of them will you recommend for journalism practice in Africa and why?
6. What should be the focus of development news and development journalists in the performance of their duties?
7. As a budding development journalist, what are the issues you will take into consideration in your style of writing development-oriented stories?

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UNIT 4: PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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3.2 Steps in Planning and Implementation of participatory development communication

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1.0 Introduction

The idea of ‘participatory development communication’ draws attention to the emphasis on two-way communication processes, and a departure from one-way communication approaches that involve disseminating messages, transmitting information, or persuading people to change their behaviour.

Participatory development communication gives preference to horizontal approaches that involve encouraging dialogue centred on problem analysis and a search for solutions, as well as bottom-up approaches that aim to raise the awareness of decision-makers. These approaches are based on a process of community communication.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Define participatory development communication
- Identify the function of communication planner in participatory development communication
- List the stages involved in participatory development communication
- Highlight the task involved establishing a relationship with a local community
- Summarize the process involved in participatory development communication.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Meaning and Functions of Participatory development communication

Participatory development communication is a planned activity, based on the one hand on participatory processes, and on the other hand on media and interpersonal communication, which facilitates a dialogue among different stakeholders, around a common development problem or goal, with the objective of developing and implementing a set of activities to contribute to its solution, or its realisation, and which supports and accompanies this initiative.

Functions of the Communication Planner in Participatory Development Communication

In participatory development communication, the communication planner assumes different functions according to Bessette (2004:16). These functions include

1. Facilitating dialogue and the exchange of ideas among different groups and specific individuals;
2. Encouraging thinking about local development problems and possible solutions or about a common goal to achieve the desired result;
3. Supporting the identification and realisation of a concrete set of actions for experimenting or implementing the solutions identified for achieving specific development goals; by facilitating the different groups involved in those actions to share their views;
4. Supporting efforts at awareness-building, motivation, learning and implementing the development action; by communication strategies appropriate for each group of participants;
5. Ensuring effective circulation of information among different participants, by using communication tools and channels appropriate to the groups involved;
6. Supporting decision-making, by facilitating consensus among different categories of players;
7. Developing local collaboration and partnerships by establishing alliances with local resource persons and agencies and serving as a conduit between the groups and these partners;
8. Monitoring the development initiative, by ensuring that actions taken are followed and evaluated; and
9. Making sure that the authorities or resource agencies are in position to assist the development action and are aware of local viewpoints and needs.

3.2 Steps in Planning and Implementation of participatory development communication:

Step 1: Establishing a relationship with a local community and understanding the local setting

At the beginning, it refers to collecting preliminary information on the community and its environment, entering the community, getting to know the people and the resource persons in the community, developing a more thorough collection of information with the participation of the local people and resource persons, and facilitating a dialogue with them. But what it really means is building a relationship, developing collaboration mechanisms, facilitating and nurturing the exchange of information and knowledge, negotiating roles and responsibilities, and most importantly, building mutual trust.

The tasks involved here include:

- 1) Choosing a particular community to work with-Considering the agreement of a community to work with a research or development initiative and the link between working with a specific local community and the possibility of extending results either to other communities, or to the policy environment.

- 2) Consulting existing information by visiting resource persons knowledgeable of the community setting or of the problem involved should complement and supplement the secondary information at the possession of development agents.
- 3) Before going to the field, researchers and practitioners should develop a prior understanding of the local setting before going to the field and conducting formal meetings with a given community. Without such prior knowledge, it is often very difficult to build a sound understanding of the setting, even by conducting participatory rural appraisal activities.
- 4) Introducing the research or development initiative to the community
- 5) Attitudes should also be given proper attention: it is not the same thing to identify three or four different field sites where a research team will work and establish a working relationship with a certain number of communities.
- 6) Conducting a visit to the authorities: In many settings, a visit to the authorities in the community is part of what is required in order to enter the community. It is often important to visit both political authorities and traditional authorities, in order to inform them of the research or initiative, ask for their cooperation, and understand their perspective on what is being initiated. This should be done modestly and respectfully and is often better achieved with the help of someone from the community making the introductions.
- 7) Attitudes and perceptions: Community members must be seen as stakeholders in the development process, not as beneficiaries. So approaching a community also means involving people and thinking in terms of stakeholders' participation in the different phases of the research process as a whole.
- 8) Discussing agendas: The interests of communities, researchers and development practitioners are not similar. Development practitioners must fully explain and discuss the scope and limitations of their mandate with community members.
- 9) Avoiding the danger of raising expectations: It is important for development practitioners to make the community members understand clearly their mandate.. They should discuss possible negative and positive outcomes of what they will be doing together, and to involve community members in activity planning.
- 10) Finally, there is the issue of financial and material advantages for participating in research or development activities. Agreement should also be made to recognize whenever compensation is justified and what form it should take. It is important here for research teams and development practitioners to be clear on this issue in order not to raise the financial expectations of community members.
- 11) Understanding culture of the community is crucial.
- 12) Using local language: Language barriers are another difficulty. The use of a local interpreter can help, but a local moderator may also be needed to facilitate group discussions in the local language.
- 13) Taking time into consideration: Attitudes change and the need for community members to develop confidence and skills that will help them participate meaningfully and effectively in research or development initiatives participation demand time.
- 14) A general knowledge of the local setting: The following questions will help to understand the local setting:

- What is the history of that local community?
- Who are the different groups composing it and what are the main characteristics of those groups and of the relations between them?
- What is its social, political and administrative organisation?
- How does this local community relate to the different orders of authority at the local, regional and national level?
- What are the major power relations and existing or latent conflicts in the community?
- What are the main socio-economic activities?
- What about health and education?
- What are the main development problems and the main development initiatives?
- What are the main customs and beliefs regarding the research team or practitioner's topic of interest, etc.

15) Collecting information on communication issues

The following information will be very useful:

- How could we identify and describe the different groups composing the local community?
- What are the main characteristics of these groups and the state of the relations between them?
- What are the main customs and beliefs concerning the management of land and water (or other topic associated with the research or development intervention)?
- What are the effective interpersonal channels of communication (views expressed by opinion leaders or exchanged by people in specific places) and the institutional channels (local associations or institutions which play an important role in circulating information) that are used locally by people to exchange information and points of views?
- What modern and traditional media are utilised in the community?

Developing collaboration and partnership, as well as building trust is crucial for successful development initiatives

Step 2: Involving the community in the identification of a problem, its potential solutions, and the decision to carry out a concrete initiative

A second step consists of involving the community in the identification of a problem and potential solutions, and in making a decision to carry out a concrete initiative. This means that as a facilitator of the participatory process you will help community and other stakeholders to:

- Identify a specific development problem, discuss its many dimensions, its causes and potential solutions; **OR**
- A common goal that the community identifies for itself and the prerequisites or essential conditions to reach it;
- Identify a concrete initiative or set of actions that the community wants to experiment or realize;

- Identify the necessary conditions in terms of knowledge, partnership and material conditions (assess the feasibility);
- Take a decision to carry out the initiative.

Step 3: Identifying the different community groups and other stakeholders concerned with the identified problem (or goal) and initiative

At this stage, the research team or the development practitioner needs to identify the different community groups or categories of people concerned with a given problem or with a given development action, and to identify the best way of making contact and establishing dialogue with each of them. The same applies to the other stakeholders involved in the given problem and solution to experiment.

It can be useful here to draw up a profile of each group as if we were trying to describe the group to an outsider. This profile should specify:

- Physical characteristics: age, sex, etc.
- Ethnic and geographic background.
- Language and habits of communication.
- Socio-economic characteristics: lifestyle, income, education, literacy, etc.
- Cultural characteristics: traditions, values, beliefs, etc.
- Knowledge, attitudes and behaviour with respect to the development problem to be dealt with through communication.

Step 4: Identifying communication needs, objectives and activities

Communication needs: Any given development problem and attempt to resolve it will present needs relating to material resources and to the conditions to acquire and manage these. However, we will also find complementary needs which involve communication: for sharing information, influencing policies, mediating conflicts, raising awareness, facilitating learning, supporting decision-making and collaborative action etc.

Communication objectives: Communication objectives are based on the communication needs of each specific group concerned by a specific problem or a set of research activities. These objectives are identified and then prioritised. The final choice of objectives may be made on the basis of the needs that are most urgent, or those most susceptible to action. They are then defined in terms of the action which needs to occur for the objectives to be achieved. Generally, the objectives are linked to one or several of these communication functions: raising awareness, sharing information, facilitating learning, supporting participation, decision-making and collaborative action, mediating conflicts, influencing the policy environment.

Activities: It is on the basis of such strategic considerations that communication activities are then identified and ranked by order of priority.

Step 5: Identifying appropriate communication tools

Everyone is familiar with the notion of communication “media”. Generally, we distinguish between the mass media (newspapers, radio, television), the traditional

media (storytelling, theatres, songs), “group” media (video, photographs, posters), and community media such as short-range rural radio broadcasting.

The media, and the different forms of interpersonal communication, are our communication tools. If we use the expression “communication tools” here, it is to stress the instrumental nature of these media: their purpose in this case is not to disseminate information, but rather to support the process of participatory communication. In that perspective it is important to choose those communication tools which will support two-way communication and which are in relation with what we want to do and the people we want to work with.

Three essential criteria should be considered in selecting the appropriate communication tools:

1. Community use: We should adopt the communication tools already in use in the local community for exchanging information and points of view or the ones they are most comfortable with.
2. Cost: Consider the cost of using the tools, the time needed to prepare the materials and the technical environment in which they are to be used (availability of electricity, appropriate premises, accessibility to participants, etc.).
3. Kind of utilisation: Select communication tools in the light of the different kinds of utilisation.

Step 6: Preparing and pre-testing communication content and materials

Before finalizing any communication content or material that is to be produced, or selecting existing materials, it is important to pre-test them. Pre-testing is a way of improving ideas and prototypes for materials by submitting them to participating group representatives and obtaining their feedback before the final production stage (or checking whether materials already produced are appropriate to the group). This will allow us to gauge their reaction, to revise the concepts and communication materials, or perhaps to amend our strategy, if it seems unlikely to produce the desired results.

We need to be able to tell whether the concepts put forward in the communication materials are well understood by participants. We also need to know if the material is suitable and if it evokes the expected types of reactions. After pre-testing, we may want to produce more realistic illustrations, simpler texts or more explicit images. To ensure that the communication concepts and materials are well adapted to the different groups of participants, we may ask five or six representatives from each group to give their opinion on aspects such as the following:

Content

- Understanding the content
- Accuracy of information presented
- Credibility of the people expressing themselves through the material
- The kind of reactions induced by the content

Form

- Interest evoked
- Technical quality

Materials

- Reaction to formats used
- The technical environment necessary to use the material
- The useful life of the material

Feedback

- Usefulness of the material for evoking reactions and expression of viewpoints from participants.

Step 7: Facilitating partnerships

We can identify five types of partnerships to be developed around participatory development communication activities:

- with the community groups themselves,
- with local authorities,
- with local technical services and specialised agencies (like NGOs working in the area).

Step 8: Producing an implementation plan

Producing an implementation plan includes planning to undertake specific activities, identifying responsibilities and tasks, establishing the time line for the communication strategy and preparing the budget for each activity.

Step 9: Monitoring and evaluating the communication strategy and documenting the development or research process

Evaluation is a judgment based on the information collected. There are two main reasons for conducting an evaluation:

- To find out if we are on the right track or whether we need to adjust our course during the execution of the activity.
- To find out if we have achieved our original objectives, and if the results have had an impact on the problem identified at the outset.

During the implementation period evaluation allows us to:

- Determine whether we are on track toward achieving the initial objectives.
- Identify the major difficulties encountered and the corrective actions required.

This evaluation is generally done at the same time as monitoring, which assesses the progress and realisation of activities and the participation in the activities. Many researchers and practitioners address the two sets of considerations within the same process, since they can be done at the same time.

At the end of the process evaluation allows us to:

- Determine whether we have achieved our objectives and to what extent.
- Assess the degree to which our activities have had the desired impact on the problem or the development initiative that we wanted to address.

- Draw lessons from the experience, identify ways of improving performance, and make recommendations for future activities.

We may consider three levels of evaluation:

- The process: everything that was done from the outset: planning and implementation of activities.
- The results of communication activities.
- The observable impact of activities on the problem or on the development initiative: do the results contribute to resolving the problem that was posed at the outset, or to supporting the development initiative that was identified?

Step 10: Planning the sharing and utilization of results

At the end of the participatory research or development cycle, community members, researchers and practitioners assess together the results of their work. Sometimes, this assessment will point to a redefinition of the problem or solution identified at the beginning of the cycle. Or it may lead them to reconsider some of the choices made during the planning phase. When the intervention has led to the desired results the next step involves the sharing of this knowledge with different groups of stakeholders as well as scaling efforts with other communities or other groups of stakeholders.

Knowledge sharing refers to making information available in different formats to different groups of users and asking for their feedback. It is one step ahead of a simple dissemination of information. Scaling efforts usually focus on one of the following activities of extension, outreach or advocacy: extending the process to other groups in the community or to another community; replicating the process at a larger scale, involving a larger number of communities; using the knowledge produced at the community level to act on a policy level (influencing policymakers or networking with organizations).

5.0 Summary

Participatory development communication is a planned activity, based on the one hand on participatory processes, and on the other hand on media and interpersonal communication, which facilitates a dialogue among different stakeholders, around a common development problem or goal, with the objective of developing and implementing a set of activities to contribute to its solution, or its realization, and which supports and accompanies this initiative.

Stakeholders comprise community members, active community groups, local and regional authorities, NGOs, government technical services or other institutions working at the community level, policy makers who are or should be involved with a given development initiative.

This kind of communication means moving from a focus of informing and persuading people to change their behaviour or attitudes, to a focus on facilitating exchanges between different stakeholders to address a common problem. This could lead to a common development initiative to experiment with possible solutions and to identify

what is needed to support the initiative in terms of partnerships, knowledge and material conditions.

Self Assessment Exercise 4.1

Think of a development idea for a named local community. How would you use the participatory development communication approaches for the development of the idea in the community.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What do you understand by participatory development communication?
2. What are the functions of the communication planner in participatory development communication?
3. Briefly discuss the stages involved in participatory development communication.

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UNIT 5: COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

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1.0 Introduction

An important aspect of development is the development at the local community level. This is against the belief that development should come from the people. "Community development is a structured intervention that gives communities greater control over the conditions that affect their lives. This does not solve all the problems faced by a local community, but it does build up confidence to tackle such problems as effectively as any local action can. Community development works at the level of local groups and organisations rather than with individuals or families. The range of local groups and organisations representing communities at local level constitutes the community sector.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Define community development
- Explain what community development involves.
- Identify and explain community development resources
- List the components of community capacity building
- List and discuss the process of community development

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Understanding Community development

Community development is a process whereby community members come together to take collective action and generate solutions to common problems (Frank & Smith, 1999). Community development is a skilled process and part of its approach is the belief that communities cannot be helped unless they themselves agree to this process. Community development has to look both ways: not only at how the community is working at the grass roots, but also at how responsive key institutions are to the needs of local communities.

1. Community Development is crucially concerned with the issues of powerlessness and disadvantage: as such it should involve all members of society, and offers a practice that is part of a process of social change.
2. Community Development is about the active involvement of people in the issues which affect their lives. It is a process based on the sharing of power, skills, knowledge and experience.
3. Community Development takes place both in neighbourhoods and within communities of interest, as people identify what is relevant to them.
4. The Community Development process is collective, but the experience of the process enhances the integrity, skills, knowledge and experience, as well as equality of power, for each individual who is involved.
5. Community Development seeks to enable individuals and communities to grow and change according to their own needs and priorities, and at their own pace, provided this does not oppress other groups and communities, or damage the environment.
6. Where Community Development takes place, there are certain principles central to it. The first priority of the Community Development process is the empowering and enabling of those who are traditionally deprived of power and control over their common affairs. It claims as important the ability of people to act together to influence the social, economic, political and environmental issues which affect them. Community Development aims to encourage sharing, and to create structures which give genuine participation and involvement.
7. Community Development is about developing the power, skills, knowledge and experience of people as individuals and in groups, thus enabling them to undertake initiatives of their own to combat social, economic, political and environmental problems, and enabling them to fully participate in a truly democratic process.
8. Community Development must take the lead in confronting the attitudes of individuals and the practices of institutions and society as a whole which discriminates unfairly against black people, women, people with disabilities and different abilities, religious groups, elderly people, lesbians and gay men, and other groups who are disadvantaged by society. It also must take a lead in countering the destruction of the natural environment on which we all depend. Community Development is well placed to involve people equally on these issues which affect all of us.

9. Community Development should seek to develop structures which enable the active involvement of people from disadvantaged groups, and in particular people from Black and Minority Ethnic groups.

Community

Often when we think of the term community, we think in geographic terms. Our community is the location (i.e. city, town or village) where we live. When community is defined through physical location, it can be defined by precise boundaries that are readily understood and accepted by others.

Defining communities in terms of geography, however, is only one way of looking at them. Communities can also be defined by common cultural heritage, language, and beliefs or shared interests. These are sometimes called communities of interest. Even when community does refer to a geographic location, it does not always include everyone within the area. For example, many Aboriginal communities are part of a larger non-Aboriginal geography. In larger urban centres, communities are often defined in terms of particular neighbourhoods. Most of us belong to more than one community, whether we are aware of it or not. For example, an individual can be part of a neighbourhood community, a religious community and a community of shared interests all at the same time. Relationships, whether with people or the land, define a community for each individual.

Development

The term development has been well discoursed in the previous unit. It implies change. The community development process takes charge of the conditions and factors that influence a community and changes the quality of life of its members. Community development is a tool for managing change and, therefore, is not: (1) a quick fix or a short-term response to a specific issue within a community, (2) a process that seeks to exclude community members from participating, or (3) an initiative that occurs in isolation from other related community activity. Community development is about community building as such, with the process as important as the results. One of the primary challenges of community development is to balance the need for long-term solutions with the day-to-day realities that require immediate decision and short term action.

3.2 Community Development Resources

The term 'resources' is not limited money. In the context of community development, it includes natural, human, financial and infrastructure resources. Natural resources are all the things that nature provides. Part of effective community development is to be good stewards of the land and maintain a healthy balance between the environmental, economic and social undertakings in the community.

Natural resources include things such as:

- land, air and water;
- minerals and surface/subsurface metals and ores;
- oil, gas and petroleum;

- trees and other plants;
- wildlife; and
- the standards, legislation and policies relating to the above.

Human resources are about people. People are at the heart of all community matters and, as such, they are critical to success. But just having people involved is not enough. In community development, it is important to have the right people in the right jobs with the right skills, knowledge and abilities. Human resources include things such as:

- healthy families and lifestyles;
- skills building, education and training;
- career planning and employment;
- effective and legal hiring practices;
- workers compensation and pensions; and
- human rights and labour laws.

The term financial ‘resources’ is well understood. We know that it means money and it often implies having the ability to acquire it. What gets complicated is how to locate and successfully attract the type and amount of financial resources to community development initiatives. Financial resources include things such as:

- fundraising and grant-seeking;
- banks and other financial institutions;
- community loan funds and lending circles;
- access to capital and investment funding;
- government loans and program funds;
- cooperatives and other forms of investment; and
- policies and guidelines related to finance lending and reporting.

Infrastructure is part of the resources needed to be effective in community development and includes such obvious things as:

- physical buildings and structures;
- transportation and access;
- communication systems; and
- electrical, hydro, sewage, garbage and heating.

However, infrastructure also refers to the political systems and leadership needed to support a community, as well as the policies, standards and laws established in the community. Without infrastructure there would be no physical community. When considering resourcing a community development initiative it is important to consider what infrastructure is required, what the relationship is to what currently exists and whether or not there are policies or existing support systems to which contact or adherence are required. A community development undertaking often has its own infrastructure, such as leadership or a physical building, but it should exist within a healthy relationship to that which exists.

3.3 Community Capacity Building

All people and communities have a certain amount of capacity. No one is without capacity but often we need to develop it. What is important to realize is that the heart

of capacity building is people. Healthy communities are made up of healthy people and families. The creation of healthy environments will encourage healthy economies and sustainable development. It takes capacity to do this as well as good leadership, a viable plan, motivation and the support of the community.

Basically, it takes capacity to build capacity, and it takes a well-thought-out process to start both capacity building and effective community development. Capacity is simply the ways and means needed to do what has to be done. It is much broader than simply skills, people and plans. It includes commitment, resources and all that is brought to bear on a process to make it successful. Most often, capacity is referred to as including the following components:

- people who are willing to be involved;
- skills, knowledge and abilities;
- wellness and community health;
- ability to identify and access opportunities;
- motivation and the wherewithal to carry out initiatives;
- infrastructure, supportive institutions and physical resources;
- leadership and the structures needed for participation;
- economic and financial resources; and
- enabling policies and systems.

3.4 Community Assets and Capacity Assessment

The following are assets in a community and should be assessed when considering a community's assets and capacity:

- human assets and liabilities;
- environmental resources;
- economic opportunities and limitations;
- cultural and recreational facilities, programs and services;
- financial, political and security systems;
- infrastructure in existence and needed; and
- communication processes.

3.5 Developing a Process of Community Development

As community development is dynamic, a fixed blueprint for the perfect community development process is unrealistic. It is better to plan a framework that provides guidance and adapt it as the situation evolves.

The following framework provides some broad-based direction and identifies key process issues. This framework is based on the real-life experience of community development practitioners and communities themselves. The main components of the community development framework are outlined in the following four sections(Smith & Frank, 1999):

1. Building Support
2. Making A Plan
3. Implementing and Adjusting the Plan

4. Maintaining Momentum

3.5.1 Building Support

Fundamental to community development are community enhancement and capacity building. Both are processes that involve learning and inclusion and, in most instances, the process is as meaningful as the results. To begin with, all communities have a history that it is important to understand and honour. For many of us, our excitement and enthusiasm for community development can make us impulsive. We want to rush into action and see results. It is, however, better to take stock of what has been done, acknowledge and recognize the contributions of others, build on previous community success, and involve a wide range of members and interests.

The first step is to create awareness, understanding and support for the community development process. To build support for community development in your community, you should know the answers to the following questions:

- Why do you believe a community development approach should be initiated?
- What are the benefits that will result from this approach?
- What first steps need to be taken?
- Who are the key people and/or organizations that should be taking a leadership role?
- What are the longer-term implications of the initiative?

Commitment to any long-term process or action should not be made without understanding what is to be done, why it is being done, the anticipated benefits and who will be involved. Community development is a broad concept, so people may have difficulty knowing where to start and what is expected of them. This is why identifying the first steps in the process is very important. When interest is created, you want an immediate way to turn this interest into further exploration and commitment. Building support for a community development initiative is an on-going task.

3.5.2 Making a Plan

Developing a community plan involves systematically assessing alternatives and making choices in the context of a defined community vision. Planning is a process that assists community members in translating knowledge, concerns and hopes into action. A community plan is a written document created by community members. It outlines the following things:

- where you are now (community strengths, weaknesses, resources);
- where you want to be (the ideal future for your community);
- the general direction you want to take to close the gap between where you are now and where you want to be;
- the specific actions within each general direction required to close the gap;
- the resource and capacity issues that need to be addressed; and
- what success will look like, and how to tell when you have been successful.

Community development planning is useful for a number of different things, such as bringing a community together and finding solutions. The plan and the process should be:

- integrated,
- inclusive,
- realistic,
- appropriate,
- results-based,
- community-based and
- easy to understand.

The Benefits of a Community Plan

The benefits of a community plan are that it:

- creates a long-term framework for decision-making and action;
- provides a holistic and comprehensive approach to community development;
- enhances the community's ability to make informed decisions about its development;
- provides a valuable resource for communicating vision and actions to individuals inside and out of the community;
- identifies objectives and actions that can be measured over time; and
- integrates the perspectives of various community members

The Seven Steps in a Community Planning Process

The planning process involves the following seven steps:

1 Create a Community Vision — which will help create a picture of where you want to be. A community vision describes what is hoped for and valued by the community by creating a picture of the ideal future. Choose a visioning process in which all ages and abilities can participate, as the vision will build support and ongoing interest.

2 Assess the Current Situation — which will tell you where you are now and determine existing community capacity. Assessing the current situation involves factors outside the community as well as factors within. This process involves identifying strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and challenges. Build on past efforts and strengths as the basis of the assessment.

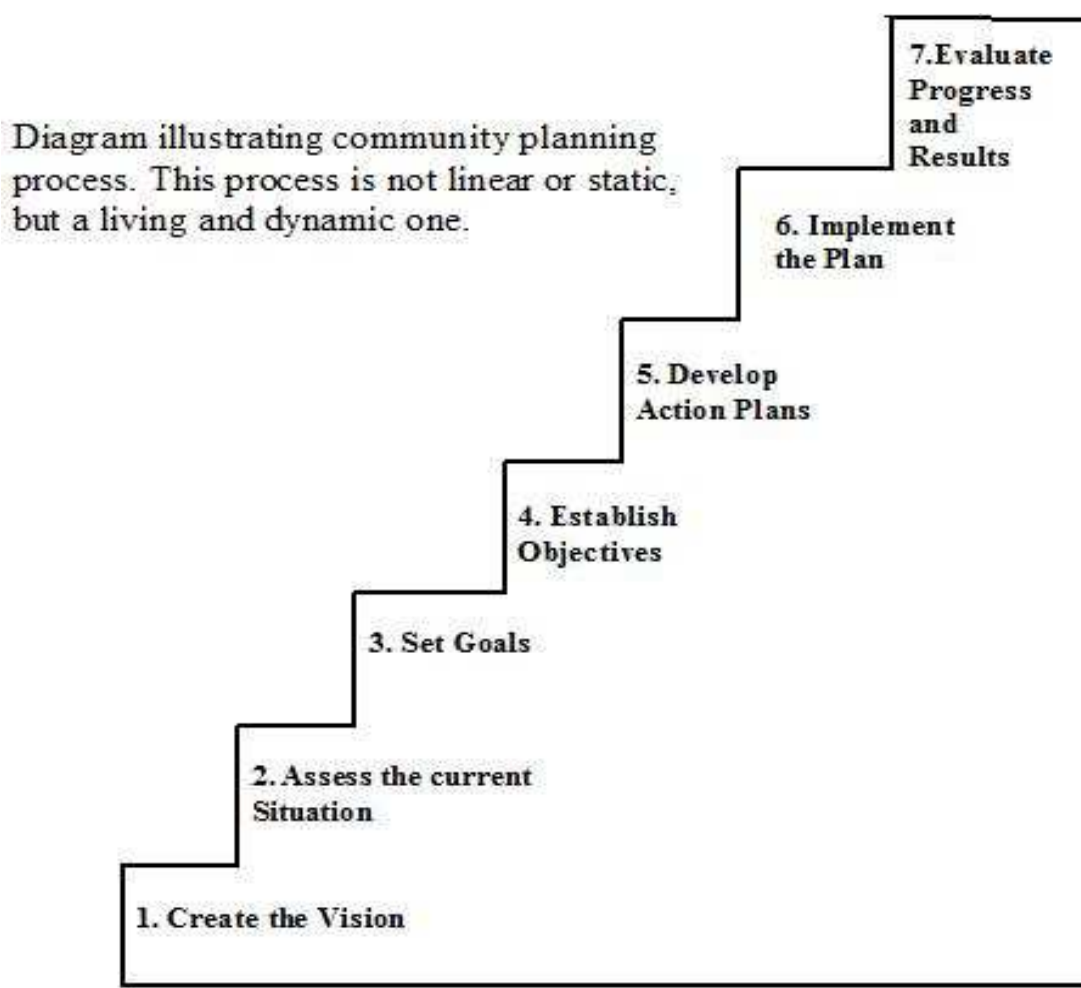
3 Set Goals — which are broad directions for closing the gap between where you are now and where you want to be. Goals outline the means by which you will reach your vision. If you think of the vision as a destination, the goals are the pathways to reach the destination. They should be clear and easy to understand.

4 Establish Objectives — which are specifics that outline how goals will be reached. Objectives are specific, measurable and interconnected statements of the action needed to achieve goals. Usually several objectives are necessary to reach a goal. When we consider goals as the pathway to reaching the vision, objectives are the stepping stones used to create these pathways.

5 Develop Action Plans — which are the who, what, when and how around the plan. Action plans provide the concrete steps required to fulfil each objective. They outline the individuals who are responsible for the action, the time frame for implementation and the resources that are required.

6 Implement Action Plans-Implementation involves undertaking the commitments and activities outlined within your action plans. A plan is just a plan until it is implemented — then it is community development.

7 Evaluate Progress and Results — which is a way to ensure you are on track and reaching the goals. Evaluation is the assessment of progress and results which helps to determine if you are moving toward your objectives, goals and vision. It is important to think about what success will look like and what outcomes are desired in advance as well as during the activities.



Factors That Contribute to Successful Planning

The following are needed to ensure the successful development of a community plan:

- a shared vision;
- long-term commitment;
- leadership;
- resources — financial, physical and human;

- support — community and political;
- a realistic appraisal of the current situation;
- a desire to build on the accomplishments and efforts of the past;
- an inclusive process and the ability to work as a team; a strong commitment and the discipline to take the time needed to work through the logic of a planning process;
- a push beyond traditional approaches and that which is comfortable in order to identify innovative possibilities and options for consideration; and
- a commitment to use the plan as a tool and to modify and make adjustments as needed.

3.5.3 Implementing and Adjusting the Plan

Creating an inclusive community development plan can be a time-consuming process. The pay-off for investing this time and energy comes as you begin to implement the plan. Implementation, however, has its own challenges. The implementation process must be well-planned and well-managed if it is to be successful. Implementation challenges include:

- integrating and coordinating a variety of tasks and activities,
- being a good steward of resources,
- helping individuals keep focused on the big picture,
- remaining positive and not getting discouraged by the unexpected or by the fact that things may not be working out as envisioned,
- identifying and building on community capacity,
- making hard decisions when resources are limited,
- timing actions so they build upon rather than compete with the actions of others,
- keeping community members motivated and connected,
- ensuring community ownership remains strong, and
- communicating and celebrating results.

Successfully managing the activities listed above requires strong leadership and a structure to support implementation. When you started the community development process, you may have found that there was a core of individuals who were very active in almost all the activities being undertaken. As a small group, informal communication and organizational arrangements were probably all that were needed to work together effectively. As you move to implementation of the community development plan, the level and the nature of your activities may no longer make this casual approach possible. A structure or organization that supports your efforts could be necessary.

Failing to have a solid structure can lead to:

- burnout of your community leaders,
- wasted effort,
- confusion,
- conflict and/or
- loss of credibility and legitimacy.

3.5.4 Maintaining Momentum

Creating a firm foundation for community development and taking the first steps in a long-term process is exciting. Equally exciting, but more challenging, is building and maintaining momentum. This section outlines seven key areas that require careful thought when developing an approach to maintaining momentum for your community development efforts. These key areas are:

- leadership,
- partnerships,
- building on community capacity,
- funding,
- reviewing and adapting the community development plan,
- communication and
- using technical support and expertise.

Leadership

Consistent and skilled leadership is essential for effective community development. The role of the community development leader(s) is to build community capacity over time that is open to change and adaptation. The goal of the leader is to encourage empowerment of the community, not control over it. It is the leader who:

- effectively communicates the vision of the community,
- focuses energy on results and inclusion,
- motivates individuals and organizations to act together for a common purpose, and
- develops effective processes to work through issues of concern and conflict.

As a community development leader, you must consciously build and maintain relationships in the community. If community members perceive that you represent a particular set of interests or have a hidden agenda, they will not view your efforts as legitimate. Openness is a key ingredient for community development leadership. To be successful, you must not only communicate the values of the community development process, you must live them. For the process to work, you must "walk the talk". To ensure your community development initiative has strong leadership the following should be considered:

- identify the leadership skills that you require and seek out individuals who have these skills and abilities;
- ensure that those in leadership roles have a clear understanding of what is expected of them and what can be delegated to others;
- work to ensure that community expectations are in line with what can be reasonably accomplished;
- support leaders with good processes, appropriate organizational structures and skill development — form sub-committees where appropriate;
- ensure the vision, goals and objectives of the community development plan are clear and well-understood;
- provide constructive feedback to those in leadership roles;

- acknowledge successes and discuss what may not have worked out and why;
- develop ongoing leadership capacity in your community; and
- do not expect those in leadership roles to do it all.

Lack of leadership or poor leadership can put the whole community development process into jeopardy and can occur for several reasons, such as:

- burn-out,
- lack of skills and abilities,
- lack of support,
- changing circumstance of the leader and/or the community,
- lack of clarity with respect to vision and goals,
- lack of continuity, and
- people volunteering or being selected for the wrong reasons (i.e. favouritism, because the individual needs work, or the individual has volunteered and no one knows how to say no). Leaders must take care of themselves.

Community development can be an intense process and much is expected of the leaders. To be effective, ensure that:

- expectations are realistic;
- you have the support and resources needed;
- you do not take personal ownership for the process, but build community ownership; and you develop potential leaders for the future (Smith & Frank, 2000).

4.0 Conclusion

Community development affords every member of a community to contribute to the development effort of a community. It places people at the centre of development and make them work out their own development. It thus provides opportunity for leadership, partnerships, building of community capacity and communication.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- Community development is a process whereby community members come together to take collective action and generate solutions to common problems
- Community Development is about the active involvement of people in the issues which affect their lives.
- Community development needs to explore community resources-natural, human, financial and infrastructural in the process of developing the community.
- The heart of capacity building is people; so, people's capacity need to be built in order to develop the community.
- The main components of the community development framework include: building Support, making a plan, implementing and adjusting the plan and maintaining momentum.
- Building support for a community development initiative is an on-going task.

- Successfully management of community development plans requires strong leadership and a structure to support implementation.

Self Assessment Exercise 5.1

As a member of a community who is in dire need of development, how would you mobilise the members of the community to embark on development initiative?

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What is community development? What does it entail?
2. What resources are required for community development?
3. What are the components of capacity and what is the importance of capacity building in community development process.
4. Discuss the plans involved in community development.
5. What are the elements of a community plan and what should characterize such plan?
6. Itemize the benefit of community plan.
7. Explain the steps involved in community plan process
8. What are the factors that will ensure that community development initiative has strong leadership?

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MODULE 2: ISSUES AND ROLES OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

Unit 1 Issues in development and communication for development

Unit 2 Roles of communication in development

Unit 3 Key Facts and Appellations of development communication

Unit 4 Understanding the Scope and Uses of Development Communication

Unit 5 Advocacy journalism

UNIT 1 ISSUES IN DEVELOPMENT AND COMMUNICATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

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- 3.5 Women in development
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- 3.7 Health
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1.0 Introduction

Development is complex and involves so many things. While it is difficult to identify all the issues that development entails, we will highlight some of them and underscore how they relate to development. However, the focus here is to bring to the fore those issues that development communication can be applied.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Identify development issues
- Establish how they are development communication issues

3.0 Main Content

3.1 The environment

The environment and its relation to development present an enormous challenge. A prime consideration is the proper use and conservation of natural resources. These

resources are often degraded at the hands of impoverished rural people who have no immediate alternative for meeting their needs for land on which to grow food, and for fuel-wood. Their abuse of forest areas, with the negative consequences of soil erosion and dwindling water resources, will only be halted through new schemes of employment and income generation and through applying conservation techniques. Such solutions, however, will have to be made acceptable to local people, many of whom will need considerable encouragement and training in new skills. The provisions of Agenda 21, which emerged from the UN Conference on the Environment and Development held in Rio de Janeiro (1992), will only become a reality through large-scale changes in attitudes and behaviour in societies worldwide.

Environmental issues have political, sociological, economic, ethnic, public health and even religious implications. On the global plane, issues such as climate change and ozone layer depletion have received attention. At the local level, like in Nigeria, problems like desert encroachment, flooding, bush burning, dumping of toxic waste by technologically advanced nations of the world, gas flaring, improper refuse disposal, motor vehicle and generating sets emission of poisonous substances, indiscriminate felling of trees, land reclamation etc are in urgent need for solution. Besides, the degeneration of environmental problems into crises, as the case in Niger-Delta of Nigeria, has underscored the environment as a development issues, and thus needs to tackle using development communication strategies approaches.

3.2 Population growth

Population growth is exerting pressure on natural resources, on food production and on the ability of governments to provide basic services and employment opportunities. Population growth depends on choices made by individuals. Helping people to make more informed choices by raising their awareness of the implications of family size and unwanted pregnancy, and of methods of contraception, requires much more than simply sending out messages. Instead it requires learning, from people and their leaders, how to make such issues socially acceptable and worthy of urgent action. Insights into people's underlying attitudes are needed before they can be helped to change their views.

3.3 Poverty

Poverty continues to increase in many countries, accelerating urban migration and creating intolerable economic and social problems. The solution, of course, lies in the development of rural areas. Most rural communities are characterised by reliance on traditional knowledge and production systems, based strictly on what has worked for survival in the past. This has led to a view that rural communities are resistant to change, even though their traditional wisdom has been hard-won and its reasoning is sound. Planners need to take this into account, as the first step of any planning exercise. For this, and for all rural development activities, communication between local communities and national planners and policy-makers is of vital importance but, unfortunately, in rural areas is at its weakest.

3.4 Agriculture and Malnutrition

A local adage says “when the problem of hunger is solved, then poverty problem is to a large extent resolved. This shows the importance of agriculture as a development issue. Putting food on the table on everyman is a major mission of any developing country. A country that cannot feed itself is not worthy to be one.

Malnutrition is both a cause and a consequence of underdevelopment. Recent decades have seen consistent reductions in the daily per caput supply of calories in many countries. The International Conference on Nutrition held in December 1992 drew attention to the fact that more than 780 million people in the world suffer from chronic malnutrition and that, each year, some 13 million children below the age of five die from infectious diseases that can be directly or indirectly attributed to hunger or malnutrition. Nutritional well-being is not just a question of food availability and economics among families; however, it also depends on sufficient knowledge and acceptance of appropriate diets. At the planner's level, incorporating nutritional concerns into development initiatives for agriculture, food security, forestry, land use, exports and so forth requires an increased awareness of nutritional priorities since these are not spontaneously identified in such disciplines.

3.5 Women in development

Women in development is another priority issue. Roberts (1997) notes that the masculine gender is socially valued more highly than the female gender. This is very true of African societies. Ejemibi also reports that gender discrimination was found to start right from birth. Since gender role has both psychological and social implications as it influences an individual's relationship with others, gender, should therefore be considered a development planning issue.

In many countries, women shoulder most of the work in rural areas. Women perform both reproductive and productive roles but the process of development, particularly in developing countries, has marginalized women and deprived them of their control over resources. UN statistics indicate that women do two-thirds of the total hours of work done in the world but receive only one tenth of the world's income and own only one-hundredth of the property in the world (Bhasin 1992: 16).

Since women are the poorer, more vulnerable, always the worse suffers from any social evil or economic constraints, women's concerns, perspectives and visions are necessary in development issues. Thus sustainable development has to be women centred. Given the opportunity, women have shown themselves again and again to be highly responsive and responsible when helped to mobilise themselves, build upon available resources and produce sustainable results. Women need to learn additional technical and organisational skills and more women are needed at the centre of decision-making. Specific challenges where communication is vital include helping

women's groups to increase their self-determination and to broaden the dialogue between the sexes regarding rights, privileges and responsibilities.

3.6 Child rights

The issue of child rights has become a development issue. Sustainable development is defined in the 1987 report of the WCED as “development that meets the need of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs”. Thus sustainable development places emphasis on the future which belongs to children. It means that part of the goals of sustainable development is to empower the future generations to meet their own needs. Therefore, any development mission that comprises the future generations’ needs was automatically.

To emphasize this, UNICEF (2003) pointed out that the Millennium Development Goals are about children. Its position is that six of any eight MDGs can best be met at the right of children to health, education, protection and quality, and that they will only be sustained as the rights of every child are realized.

3.7 Health

HIV/AIDS, breastfeeding, family planning, polio, tuberculosis etc are all health issues that have become centred on development spectrum. WHO (1993) defines “health as a state of complete physical, mental, and social well being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity” (p.5).

This stresses the central role of health to development as a concept. It means that health has physical, spiritual, financial and material dimensions. Besides, the position confirms with the view of Moemeka (1998) on development as a change at the group or societal level, from one state to a more desirable state, which is more compatible with the goals and aspirations of society. In other words, the issue presupposes, in health terms for instance, a minimum standard of individual, governmental or societal commitment to assuring a quality of life where health-care is a key indicator. This is a society whose citizens are healthy that can actually develop. Health is wealth; ultimately wealth is health or should assure health.

3.8 Economic Programmes

Economic programmes such as Green Revolutions. MAMSER, OFRI, BETTER life for rural women, PAP, NAPEP and the current NEEDS are all development projects. They directly impact on raising the standard of living of individual members of the nation. Therefore, there is need for development communication strategy in the implementation of the programme.

3.9 Education

Education is a fundamental human right: Every child is entitled to it. It is critical to our development as individuals and as societies, and it helps pave the way to a successful and productive future. When we ensure that children have

access to a rights-based, quality education that is rooted in gender equality, we create a ripple effect of opportunity that impacts generations to come.

Education enhances lives. It ends generational cycles of poverty and disease and provides a foundation for sustainable development. A quality basic education better equips girls and boys with the knowledge and skills necessary to adopt healthy lifestyles, protect themselves from HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases, and take an active role in social, economic and political decision-making as they transition to adolescence and adulthood. Educated adults are more likely to have fewer children, to be informed about appropriate child-rearing practices and to ensure that their children start school on time and are ready to learn.

In addition, a rights-based approach to education can address some of societies' deeply rooted inequalities. These inequalities condemn millions of children, particularly girls, to a life without quality education –and, therefore, to a life of missed opportunities.

Too many of the world's children are out of school or receive spotty, sub-par educations. Each one of these children has dreams that may never be fulfilled, potential that may never be realized. By ensuring that every child has access to quality learning, we lay the foundation for growth, transformation, innovation, opportunity and equality. Whether in times of crisis or periods of peace, in cities or remote villages, we are committed to realizing a fundamental, non-negotiable goal: quality education for all.

3.10 Water and Development

Consider the following:

The 2006 United Nations Development Report: (see pages 6, 7, 35) notes the following

- Some 1.1 billion people in developing countries have inadequate access to water
- 2.6 billion people lack basic sanitation
- Lack of water is closely related to poverty-
 - almost two in three people lacking access to clean water survive on less than \$2 a day, with one in three living on less than \$1 a day.
 - More than 660 million people without sanitation live on less than \$2 a day, and more than 385 million on less than \$1 a day.
- Some 1.8 million children die each year as a result of diarrhea
- Access to piped water into the household averages about 85% for the wealthiest 20% of the population, compared with 25% for the poorest 20%
- Close to half of all people in developing countries suffer at any given time from a health problem caused by water and sanitation deficits

The UNICEF State of the World's Children (2004) also has it that 400 million children (1 in 5 from the developing world) have no access to safe water. 1.4 million children will die each year from lack of access to safe drinking water and adequate sanitation.

Corporations own or operate water systems across the globe that bring in about \$200 billion a year. Yet they serve only about 7 percent of the world's population, leaving a potentially vast market untapped" (Tagliabue, 2002). Already some one third of the world's population is living in either water-scarce, or water-short areas. It is predicted that climate change and population growth will take this number to one half of humanity. Yet, as Maude Barlow has commented, it is not necessarily over-population causing water shortages: "12 percent of the world's population uses 85 percent of its water, and these 12 percent do not live in the Third World." (Barlow 2001).

The foregoing shows that water has become a critical issue in the world's development and in particular for the developing countries. Urgently resolving key issues such as access to safe water, efficient and sustainable use will definitely involve a number of actors, including governments, corporations, activists, and local people who directly feel the implications of decisions made on such issue. Without understanding or common goals towards the resolution of water crisis, the environment, the lives of people and prospects for a healthy future are at risk.

4.0 Conclusion

The development issues are not limited to the ones highlighted above; other issues such as energy, human rights, governance etc are also critical areas of development. Since development is not just one thing, all of these will need to grow before we can say that we have achieved development.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, you have seen the various issues of development, which are also the issues that development communication engages with. While these issues are not primarily communication issues, communication plays some vital roles of different dimensions in bringing solutions to the problems.

Self Assessment Exercise 6

How do you think communication can help in environment's sustainability?

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. In what ways are environment, child rights and education development issues?
2. How can health affect national development?

7.0 References/Further Readings

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UNIT 2 ROLES OF COMMUNICATION IN DEVELOPMENT

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1.0 Introduction

The importance of communication to development is borne out of the realisation that development is human-centred and thus requires communication for its full realisation. FAO (1994:5) points out that “communication is the key to human development and the thread that binds people together”. This corroborates Moemeka’s (1991) view that development efforts cannot be successful without planned communication because its flow determines the direction and pace of dynamic social development. We thus examine the various roles that communication can play in the process of development.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Identify the two important themes in development
- Enumerate and explain the roles of communication in development
- Recall some cases of successful use of communication in development

3.0 Main Content

The first common theme running through the development issues is the human factor. For development to take place, people have to be involved because they are actually at the centre of meaningful development. Communication is the second common theme in the issues outlined. For if development can be seen as a fabric woven out of the activities of millions of people, communication represents the essential thread that binds them together.

On the one hand, communication as dialogue and debate occurs spontaneously in any time of social change. The increased freedom of expression in recent times has been almost simultaneous with changes in the global political structure. On the other hand, it is communication as a deliberate intervention to affect social and economic change that holds the most interesting possibilities. A development strategy that uses communication approaches can reveal people's underlying attitudes and traditional wisdom, help people to adapt their views and to acquire new knowledge and skills, and spread new social messages to large audiences.

The planned use of communication techniques, activities and media gives people powerful tools both to experience change and actually to guide it. An intensified exchange of ideas among all sectors of society can lead to the greater involvement of people in a common cause. This is a fundamental requirement for appropriate and sustainable development.

The following are the roles that communication plays in development:

3.1 Better planning and programme formulation

Any development programme that regards people as mere recipients, rather than as the actual creators of change and progress, usually fails. Consulting the people and actively involving them in making the decisions that will affect them virtually ensures the programme's success.

In practical terms, effective planning must make a deliberate effort to determine what people want to do, can do and can continue to do in a sustainable way. To find this out, communication techniques go far beyond the simple question-and-answer survey. Meaningful discussion, generated by people trained in interpersonal communication skills, and audiovisual tools, such as video or radio, can help the community to identify its true problems and priorities and where its capabilities and needs lie. This self-analysis can help a community to generate realistic proposals for new development initiatives and stimulates tremendous interest to have these initiatives succeed.

The views of rural people can also guide prospective work plans, preventing them from moving in the wrong direction. For example, agricultural research can be tied directly to what farmers really want and are capable of using. A systematic communication process brings researchers and practitioners together.

A policy of communicating with people intensively before a development programme is even drafted, and taking into account their views, capabilities and needs as they see them, is the best insurance a planner can have.

3.2 People's participation and community mobilisation

The dynamic strategy behind people's participation and community mobilisation is to - release the energy of rural people by building their confidence to make decisions and

carry them out - as a community in a self-reliant way, and to prove that they benefit from such efforts.

Communication activities can help people, even those from different social groups within a community, to share information and exchange ideas in a positive and productive fashion. This dialogue can be enriched by understanding how development issues affect them, discovering what others think in other communities, and seeing what other communities have achieved. These are effective methods to help people to reach a consensus and find common grounds for action, based on their own needs and capabilities.

Dialogue can be initiated and guided by field staff who have good interpersonal communication skills. Discussion tools such as flipcharts, audio-cassettes, slides and even video, can be used to help people visualize and reflect upon their own reality. Rural radio too can be a popular forum where local people do most of the talking about technical and cultural topics. These activities can lead to a serious diagnosis of problems and a search for solutions.

Gaining people's participation always requires much face-to-face work within the community in order to make a bridge of understanding. Communication skills and media help people to visualize and cross that bridge more swiftly.

3.3 Changing life-styles

Rural populations and women in particular, find it increasingly difficult to cope with rapidly changing social conditions, which often lead to the development of unsettling life-styles. For instance, in societies where marriage and childbearing no longer go together, the social and economic cost of teenage pregnancies weighs heavily on people's, and the nation's, resources. In others, rural youth, often from fatherless homes, increasingly rebels against parental poverty. Pressed by peers, teenagers often drop out of school, fall for drugs, or end up in the gangs of city slums.

Communication can focus on the long and sensitive process of changing behaviour and life-styles. Quite recent communication research methodologies make it possible to gain insight into the underlying reasons why people adopt a certain life-style.

Once this understanding is acquired, communication approaches can respond in a combination of ways. Mass media can raise awareness and public understanding of the social implications of problems such as adolescent fertility, AIDS or drug abuse. Other communication activities can bring about informed processes of change among the audiences they intend to reach. Interpersonal communication techniques such as peer counselling have the capacity to develop coping mechanisms, self-esteem and images of a better future among teenagers, especially if combined with group discussions and other tools which create a dialogue. Social communication activities based, for example, on street and village theatre, and using truly participatory

methodologies, can pioneer attitudinal changes at the community level and stimulate nonthreatening environments in which teenagers wish to learn about life.

3.4 Improved training

Colourful, even dramatic, audiovisual tools bring alive new ideas and techniques; they energise programmes of training and human resource development whenever they are used. Audiovisual materials can be produced locally at a reasonable cost. Then, duplicated in quantity, they can help to train large numbers of people.

Audiovisuals have many additional advantages for users. Trainees - even if they are illiterate - can see and discuss quite complex techniques and procedures before practising them. This audiovisual training method improves mental retention enormously: making it four or five times better than just hearing a lecture, and nine times better than merely reading the information.

In just one sitting a training group using audiovisuals can explore, for example, improved agricultural practices from sowing to reaping, the problem of deforestation and the solution of afforestation, or the symptoms of under-nutrition and how people can obtain a better diet. Trainees can travel - through pictures - to places that are otherwise too distant and expensive to visit. Limits of time and space can be overcome, thanks to the skillful use of communication media.

The trainers and field staff themselves also benefit from using audiovisual training packages. The technical information presented is standardised and of high quality, coming directly from technical specialists without any intervening distortion; the presentations are attractive and interesting; and the training packages guide dialogue from beginning to end. Overall audiovisuals allow trainers to be more confident and professional.

3.5 Rapid spread of information

Often the news, as well as information on new techniques and issues of development should be made known to people throughout a region or an entire country. Used with skill, the mass media can provide a powerful service to spread this information far and wide.

The use of radio, television, other electronic media and newspapers has grown considerably in many developing countries. The cost of using these media to spread information to large numbers of people can be low. For example, studies have shown that radio broadcasts are 2 000 to 3 500 times less expensive per contact hour than extension workers are. Of course, extension workers do much more than pass messages, but the cost-efficiency of the mass media can be indisputable for certain purposes. One example comes from Turkey where free-of-charge "public-service" television time was given to air spots and programmes on health and social themes

such as teenage pregnancy. This resulted in reaching every person in the entire country at the extraordinarily low cost.

3.6 Effective management and coordination

When a new development orientation is being introduced within a ministry, when strengthened teamwork is needed, or when planners and policymakers need to keep abreast of the field situation regarding the social effect of their development programmes, communication approaches are crucial.

Workshops that bring together different levels of officials can be the best way to create common understanding and to obtain acceptance for change and a commitment to work together.

Such workshops, if well run, can be a rewarding exercise in communication skills. Participants from various levels can explore problems and opportunities in their development work and look for solutions, in a brain-storming atmosphere. Informal discussions allow centrally based managers to hear about the field situation in ways that are perhaps more meaningful than official reporting often is. They can also enter into the spirit of teamwork by helping to suggest new approaches and learning to work in a participatory way among staff of all levels. This experience boosts morale and commitment and provides insights into how participatory planning can work in practice.

Media materials, such as rural radio and video programmes, which feature rural people themselves as a prime source of information, can have an additional purpose beyond their use in rural areas. They can provide management with direct raw information and a barometer of people's concerns, which otherwise might not pass so quickly through an administrative reporting process.

Field staff, too, greatly appreciate the higher quality of information which communication techniques can provide as a supplement to the existing system of reports, memoranda and directives. Regular, accessible and credible communications can narrow the gap between headquarters and the field. Used for reporting purposes, video, photographs, sound recordings and printed materials can bring the field situation alive to managers who may not have the means or the time to visit project sites.

3.7 Generating the support of decision-makers

Decision-makers in government, technical agencies and donor countries should be well informed about the progress and achievements of new programmes in order to sustain, and even expand them when justified. Communication tools can be a dynamic means to gain the attention and support of decision-makers.

For presentations in meetings and displays at conferences, the use of video programmes, photographs, audiovisual programmes and overhead projections helps participants to visualize the otherwise dry statistics and data typed in reports. Video programmes are especially useful because they can be given to decision-makers to view individually at a convenient time, away from the pressures and distractions of office hours.

Interesting programmes aired on national television and radio, and informative articles newspapers are often noticed by decision makers. Newsletters too, while primarily intended for people within development programmes, also keep decision-makers informed about achievements and needs.

3.8 Some Case Studies of Successful Role of Communication in Development

3.8.1 *Programme of Integrated Rural Development in the Tropical Wetlands in Mexico*

FAO (1994) reported on a Programme of Integrated Rural Development in the Tropical Wetlands. Planners in Mexico in 1975 contemplating a large-scale integrated rural development project wished to avoid the bitter experience of a prior agro-industrial project in the 1960s which drained 83 000 hectares, built roads, bridges, new villages, schools and medical centres, and yet met with serious resistance from local residents, causing the massive effort to fall far short of its objectives. How could a similar new project, budgeted at US\$149 million, be ensured of success?

The new project, the planners determined, should be designed with the proposed beneficiaries themselves, the rural communities, in the hope of securing their active participation.

A communication process was initiated. Local people's attitudes and needs were elicited using video and audio recordings that were then played back to the communities themselves as a basis for discussion. People began to articulate more clearly the realities of their situation, their priorities and what they felt capable of achieving.

A true dialogue between the rural communities and planners resulted in the birth of the first phase of an extraordinary project in 1978-84: PRODERITH (Programme of Integrated Rural Development in the Tropical Wetlands). This development programme went on to increase the income of 3 500 farming families in a 500 000-hectare zone by 50 percent. It also trained 500 development professionals. Most significantly, it developed a methodology for rural development which was applied in a successive phase to a 1.2 million-hectare area affecting 650 000 people.

Communication played a decisive role at every stage of the project - planning, increasing people's participation, training and evaluation. The World Bank, which helped to finance PRODERITH, considered it to be among the most successful programmes they supported, attributing much of its success to its rural communication

system. This system had absorbed only 1.2 percent of the total cost of the large infrastructure project by the end of its first phase in 1983. PRODERITH achieved an internal rate of return, which measures the economic success of the venture, 7.2 percent higher than originally foreseen.

3.8.2 Communication for Improved Livestocks in Parakou, Benin

In Benin in early 1992 a government veterinarian visited a village near the town of Parakou with a number of good ideas to help the community improve its livestock production. Sheep and goats, many sickly and thin, wandered everywhere, stripping the land bare. The veterinarian advised local residents to plant fast-growing fodder crops, build enclosures in which to keep the stock and have the animals vaccinated. The people, however, rejected his ideas immediately and absolutely. They had trust neither in the government official himself, nor in his untraditional ideas.

Not one to give up, the veterinarian managed to have the village - and himself - included in a new communication project. Before long, he had been trained to use better interpersonal communication skills and tools, and the village was soon erupting into lively discussions about his proposals almost every night.

Today in this village one sees large and healthy sheep and goats. Almost every home has an enclosure to keep the animals, and fodder gardens to feed them. Owners sell the sheep for triple the price they obtained before. Many use the profits to buy buffaloes to plough their fields for the first time.

However, the main talk is not about new buffaloes, or ploughs, or the labour saved or even whatever happened to the veterinarian (who moved on to another village); instead it is about marketing, genetic improvement, flock size and feed.

To an outsider, credit for all these improvements in living standards might seem due to the Veterinarian or perhaps to the "communication process" itself. Residents would probably disagree-they praise the sheep.

3.8.3 Communication helped stopped the scourge of locust

When a scourge of locusts invaded the Sahel in 1987 to devour all vegetation in sight and threaten the very survival of humans and animals throughout the area, a refusal to stamp out the menace would have seemed inconceivable to an outsider.

However, such a refusal did occur in the important Kalait region which formed the frontline against desertification of the country and was the site of major agricultural projects. There, local livestock owners were determined not to risk poisoning their herds with insecticide. Also, because of the ongoing conflict with a neighbouring country, they strongly disliked any low-flying aircraft, such as were needed to spray the insecticide, and so effectively blocked emergency action across 3 800 hectares, endangering the entire region.

Before it was too late, the Rural Radio Service of Chad was called upon to change the herders' minds - somehow. Instead of commanding them to cooperate by issuing increasingly dire threats over the radio - a tactic used by the government, which had already failed - the rural radio producers knew how to write a message which would appeal to the sense of dignity and responsibility of their loyal listeners. The broadcast made a simple proposition: to move the herds out of one zone for three days so that it too could be treated with insecticide. Then it would be safe to re-enter that zone: and vacate another so that it too could be treated.

Within 24 hours the herders across the large area had met and agreed. The plane was allowed to fly. The locusts were sprayed and destroyed. Good communication skills had helped to overcome this scourge.

4.0 Conclusion

The point has been well presented that communication and people are the two most crucial themes in development. Development must evolve from the people, but take communication to mobilise and engage people for development purposes. The cases cited emphasized what communication can do in getting people's attention and participation for development.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that

- Communication and people are central to development
- Communication helps in the planning, formulation and execution of development programmes
- Communication works to create awareness, to change lifestyles and manage development programmes.

Self Assessment Exercise 7

What specific inputs can you infer that communication contributed to the success of the projects cited in this unit?

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. In what ways are people and communication central development?
2. Enumerate the roles of communication in development.
3. How does communication help to change people's lifestyle?

7.0 References/Further Readings

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UNIT 3 TEN KEY FACTS AND APPELLATIONS OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

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2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

 3.1 Ten key facts about (development) communication

 3.2 Appellations of development communication

4.0 Conclusion

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7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

We presented here some facts about communication, especially when related to the field of development. This is necessary to give proper understanding and avoid misunderstandings which often lead to inconsistent and ineffective use of communication concepts and practices. The appellations will boast your understanding of development communication as we give the identifying name or title that reveal what development communication represents.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1.0 Differentiate between development communication and other types of communication.

2.0 Describe the limit of the mass media in development communication efforts.

3.0 Enumerate and explain the appellations of development communication.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Ten Key Facts about (Development) Communication

Mefalopulos (2008) identifies ten key points about development communication. The first two points on this list are about communication in general, while the others refer to development communication in particular.

1. *“Communications” and “communication” are not the same thing.* The plural form refers mainly to activities and products, including information technologies, media products, and services (the Internet, satellites, broadcasts, and so forth). The singular

form, on the other hand, usually refers to the process of communication, emphasizing its dialogical and analytical functions rather than its informative nature and media products. This distinction is significant at the theoretical, methodological, and operational levels.

2. *There is a sharp difference between everyday communication and professional communication.* Such a statement might seem obvious, but the two are frequently equated, either overtly or more subtly, as in, “He or she communicates well; hence, he or she is a good communicator.” A person who communicates well is not necessarily a person who can make effective and professional use of communication. Each human being is a born communicator, but not everyone can communicate strategically, using the knowledge of principles and experience in practical applications. A professional (development) communication specialist understands relevant theories and practices and is capable of designing effective strategies that draw from the full range of communication approaches and methods to achieve intended objectives.

3. *There is a significant difference between development communication and other types of communication.* Both theoretically and practically, there are many different types of applications in the communication family. In this publication, we refer to four main types of communication, which are represented significantly in the work of the World Bank: advocacy communication, corporate communication, internal communication, and development communication. Each has a different scope and requires specific knowledge and skills to be performed effectively. Expertise in one area of communication is not sufficient to ensure results if applied in another area.

4. *The main scope and functions of development communication are not exclusively about communicating information and messages, but they also involve engaging stakeholders and assessing the situation.* Communication is not only about “selling ideas.” Such a conception could have been appropriate in the past, when communication was identified with mass media and the linear Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver model, whose purpose was to inform audiences and persuade them to change. Not surprisingly, the first systematic research on the effects of communication was carried out soon after World War II, when communication activities were mostly associated with a controversial concept—propaganda. Currently, the scope of development communication has broadened to include an analytical aspect as well as a dialogical one—intended to open public spaces where perceptions, opinions, and knowledge of relevant stakeholders can be aired and assessed.

5. *Development communication initiatives can never be successful unless proper communication research is conducted before deciding on the strategy.* A communication professional should not design a communication campaign or strategy without having all the relevant data to inform his or her decision. If further research is needed to obtain relevant data, to identify gaps, or to validate the project assumptions, the communication specialist must not hesitate to make such a request to the project

management. Even when a communication specialist is called in the middle of a project whose objectives appear straightforward and clearly defined, specific communication research should be carried out if there are gaps in the available data. Assumptions based on the experts' knowledge should always be triangulated with other sources to ensure their overall validity. Given its interdisciplinary and cross-cutting nature, communication research should ideally be carried out at the inception of any development initiative, regardless of the sector or if a communication component would be needed at a later stage.

6. *To be effective in their work, development communication specialists need to have a specific and in-depth knowledge of the theory and practical applications of the discipline.* In addition to being familiar with the relevant literature about the various communication theories, models, and applications, development communication specialists should also be educated in the basic principles and practices of other interrelated disciplines, such as anthropology, marketing, sociology, ethnography, psychology, adult education, and social research. In the current development framework, it is particularly important that a specialist be acquainted with participatory research methods and techniques, monitoring and evaluation tools, and basic principles of strategy design. Additionally, a good professional should also have the right attitude toward people, being empathic and willing to listen and to facilitate dialog in order to elicit and incorporate stakeholders' perceptions and opinions. Most of all, a professional development communication specialist needs to be consistently issue-focused, rather than institution-focused.

7. *Development communication support can only be as effective as the project itself.* Even the most well-designed communication strategy will fail if the overall objectives of the project are not properly determined, if they do not enjoy a broad consensus from stakeholders, or if the activities are not implemented in a satisfactory manner. Sometimes communication experts are called in and asked to provide solutions to problems that were not clearly investigated and defined, or to support objectives that are disconnected from the political and social reality on the ground. In such cases, the ideal solution is to carry out field research or a communication-based assessment to probe key issues, constraints, and feasible options. Tight deadlines and budget limitations, however, often induce managers to put pressure on communication experts to produce quick fixes, trying to force them to act as short-term damage-control public relations or "spin doctors." In such cases, the basic foundations of development communication are neglected, and the results are usually disappointing, especially over the long term.

8. *Development communication is not exclusively about behaviour change.* The areas of intervention and the applications of development communication extend beyond the traditional notion of behaviour change to include, among other things, probing socioeconomic and political factors, identifying priorities, assessing risks and opportunities, empowering people, strengthening institutions, and promoting social change within complex cultural and political environments. That development

communication is often associated with behaviour change could be ascribed to a number of factors, such as its application in health programs or its use in mass media to persuade audiences to adopt certain practices. These kinds of interventions are among the most visible, relying heavily on communication campaigns to change people's behaviours and to eliminate or reduce often fatal risks (for example, AIDS). The reality of development, though, is complex and often requires broader changes than specific individual behaviours. Module 2 explains this in more detail.

9. Media and information technologies are not the backbone of development communication.

As a matter of fact, the value-added of development communication occurs before media and information and communication technologies (ICTs) are even considered. Of course, media and information technologies are part of development communication, and they are important and useful means to support development. Their application, however, comes at a later stage, and their impact is greatly affected by the communication work done in the research phase. Project managers should be wary of "one-size-fits-all" solutions that appear to solve all problems by using media products. Past experience indicates that unless such instruments are used in connection with other approaches and based on proper research, they seldom deliver the intended results.

10. Participatory approaches and participatory communication approaches are not the same thing and should not be used interchangeably, but they can be used together, as their functions are often complementary, especially during the research phase. Even if there are some similarities between the two types of approaches, most renowned participatory approaches, such as participatory rural appraisal (PRA) or participatory action research (PAR), do not usually assess the range and level of people's perceptions and attitudes on key issues, identify communication entry points, and map out the information and communication systems that can be used later to design and implement the communication strategy. Instead, these are all key activities carried out in a participatory communication assessment.

3.2 Appellations of development communication

Loudspeaker: The concept of loudspeaker here is used as part of radio receiving apparatus that converts electric impulse into audible sounds. Development communication as loudspeaker is used to compel attention to something very crucial. It involves adequate supply of information about development issues to the point of saturation. Thus, development messages are made creatively redundant and highly available to the target audience via the interpersonal and mass media.

Reformer: A reformation is about change. In essence, development is all about positive change in the living conditions of the people. So development communication plays the role of reformer in the society. It carries the message of change in the right direction. Sometimes, the messages could be for a change of attitude or canalised

behaviour pattern considered to be primitive. At other times, it could be mobilising support for communal work that will better the lot of people. In some other situations, it could be canvassing for the adoption of certain ideas meant for self preservation. In all, development communication helps to bring about positive change in the society.

Accelerator: Development communication accelerates development. When people get to know the benefits of a given development project through interpersonal and/or mass communication, they tend to show interest in the project. This interest, when sustained can bring about greater participation in the project and by extension, accelerate the speed of the project since more hand will be on deck.

Legitimiser: Development communication often helps to confer legitimacy on certain practices that ordinarily may have been considered as barbaric or old-fashion. Take for example the campaign on exclusive breast feeding. From time immemorial, African mothers are known for their ability and willingness to ensure that a new born baby receives breast milk for a year or more. But with the influence of western civilization and the fact that many African women are now becoming career women, many of them hardly breast-feed their babies beyond one month. But emphasis on at least six months exclusive breast feeding, many contemporary nursing mothers are now adopting the new idea. By so doing, development communication has conferred a reasonable degree of legitimacy on prolong breast feeding, which before now was considered a primitive practice meant for primitive women.

Organiser: Effective development communication certainly calls for greater sense of organisation. The message of communication has to be strategically woven and delivered in an organised manner in order to achieve the desired goal. Besides, development communication when properly designed can serve as an organiser. This is so because organised communication for development is needed by the change agent to bring the target group together for the purpose of healthy participation in the desired development project. It is not enough for people to merely come tighter for development efforts, people must be properly organised before they can participate in the development exercise. The organisation needed here comes from development communication.

Informer: Development communication ensures effective circulation of information among different participants, by using communication tools and channels appropriate to the groups involved. The spread of information is an important part of development communication activities.

Educator: Development communication as an educator impacts knowledge to people. Acquisition of knowledge makes people to live a better life as they improve in their way of doing things. For instance, through campaigns people have come to know about the reality of HIV/AIDS, how people are infected and how to avoid it. It generally includes educating masses about their socio - economic environment, and how they can explore it to better their living conditions.

Equalizer

Development communication tries to equalize every segment of the society. This operates at several levels; at the level of knowledge in trying to impart information on development issues to those who were uninformed. It tries to give information on poverty reduction thus bridging the gap between the rich and the poor. It gives information on good health practices thus making up for the lack of access to health care facilities.

Enricher

Development communication enriches the people through education and information. Through development communication people acquire new behaviour and to work together for local and national development. Campaigns on HIV/AIDS have made people to be aware of the reality of the pandemic, and several have been able to take precautions from being inflicted. Those already living with the disease have also known how to manage it and live a normal life through the use of retroviral drugs. Campaigns on family planning, polio eradication vaccination, breast cancer awareness etc, have made people knowledgeable and thus enriched to live better in the society.

Research

A major aspect of development communication is research. Research plays a role from the planning stage of communication programme, helping to have a better planning through participatory research that elicit information on the needs and communication behaviours of the target audience. At material development stage, plays a role in developing relevant and appropriate communication materials. At the implementation stage, research helps to monitor the progress of communication programme for necessary adjustment to ensure effective communication programme.

Mobiliser

Development communication helps to gather and involve people in development programmes. It motivates, arouse interest and inspires people's consciousness to take up responsibilities for their own future. Development communication brings together stakeholders, to ensure that all hands are on deck to carry out a development project. Those who are hither to lackadaisical on a project are encouraged to participate.

Advocate

Development communication serves as an advocate by championing a cause of development. It ensures that the authorities or resource agencies are in position to assist the development actors by making them aware of local viewpoints and needs. Through various channels of communication- both the interpersonal and mass media channels, government support is obtained by way of appropriate policies, funding and endorsement for development programmes.

4.0 Conclusion

Having the right understanding of what development communication means is necessary in order to be well equipped for task it involves. The facts about development communication and the appellations are well spelt out in order to the right understanding.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- there is a sharp difference between everyday communication and professional communication.
- there is a significant difference between development communication and other types of communication
- development communication initiatives can never be successful unless proper communication research is conducted before deciding on the strategy
- the development communication has different identifying names which give understanding of development communication represents.

Self Assessment Exercise 8

How is development communication different from other types of communication?

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Differentiate between development communication and other types of communication.
2. In what ways does development communication serve the following: Loudspeaker, Reformer, Accelerator, Legitimizer, Educator, Advocate

7.0 References/Further Readings

Fraser, C., and Restrepo-Estrada, S. (1998). *Communicating for Development: Human Change for Survival*. London: I. B. Tauris.

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UNIT 4 UNDERSTANDING THE SCOPE AND USES OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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1.0 Introduction

To fully understand the way development communication can be effectively applied in operations, it is necessary to have clearly in mind how its scope has broadened. Even the media-centric MacBride report (1980) indicated that the communication role was not restricted to media and dissemination—that it should also be concerned with “involving people in the diagnosis of needs and in the design and implementation of selected activities.”

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Identify the two types of communication approaches adopted in the unit.
- Explain the uses of the two typology of communication.
- Enumerate the misconception about development communication.

3.0 Main Content

To be effective in that task, and to be true to the interdisciplinary nature of communication, a specialist in this field should be familiar not only with communication do's and don'ts but should have broad analytical skills and be able to use communication methods to assess the cultural, political, and social context.

A communication specialist, when called in to assist in development projects and programmes, should always ask why a certain issue is occurring and what kind of

communication is needed to address it effectively. Is communication mostly used to inform and promote project activities and objectives? Or is it to engage stakeholders in the investigation and assessment of priorities for change, thus enhancing the design of the initiative? Managers and decision makers want communication, but too often it is the first kind of communication, referred to as monologic that they want, and they tend to neglect the importance of the other type of communication, here referred to as dialogic (Mefalopulos, 2008).

The typology adopted here divides development communication into two basic modes, or families of approaches: the “monologic” mode, based on the classical one-way communication model associated with diffusion, and the “dialogic” mode, based on the interactive two-way model, associated with participatory approaches. Being familiar with these two modes helps one to better understand which to apply under what circumstances. They serve different purposes, but they are not mutually exclusive and can often be used in a complementary way.

3.1 Monologic Mode: One-Way Communication for Behaviour Change

The monologic mode is linked to the development communication perspective known as “diffusion.” It is based on the one-way flow of information for the purpose of disseminating information and messages to induce change. Its main intentions can be divided into two different types of applications:

- 1) Communication to inform and
- 2) Communication to persuade.

“Communication to inform” typically involves a linear transmission of information, usually from a sender to many receivers. It is used when raising awareness or providing knowledge on certain issues is considered enough to achieve the intended goal (for example, informing a community about the activities of a project or informing the public about a reform coming into effect). In other instances, the dissemination of information is only a temporary stage to be reached in a longer process aimed at achieving behaviour changes. This modality can be labelled “communication to persuade.”

Approaches in communication for behaviour change use methods and media to persuade individuals to adopt specific practices or behaviours. These approaches are frequently used in health initiatives. The Family Health International Web site (www.fhi.org) states that communication for behaviour change aims to foster positive behaviour; promote and sustain individual, community, and societal behaviour change; and maintain appropriate behaviour. Its underlying assumption is that individual attitudes and behaviours can be changed voluntarily through communication and persuasion techniques and the related use of effective messages. Since the approaches, methods, and media used for this modality rely mostly on the one-way model, the mode of reference is monologic communication.

In many cases, approaches to persuade still rely on the classic notion of one-way communication. The primary objective is for the sender to be able to persuade the receivers about the intended change. In this model the feedback is a sort of tune-up, allowing the sender to refine its persuasive message. A common approach closely associated with this communication mode is strategic communication, which is often used in development initiatives to support management objectives.

3.2 Dialogic Mode: Two-Way Communication for Engagement and Discovery

On the other hand, the dialogic mode is associated with the emerging participatory paradigm. It is based on the horizontal, two-way model of communication, creating a constructive environment where stakeholders can participate in the definition of problems and solutions. The main purposes of this model can be divided into two broad types of applications:

- 1) Communication to assess; and
- 2) Communication to empower.

This categorisation helps one to understand the way in which the ultimate scope of the communication interventions shapes the choice of communication approaches, methods, and models of reference. Both of these types of applications take a radical turn away from the common conception of communication, since they do not involve any dissemination of information or messages. Even if these two types of communication cannot be easily positioned in a sequence because their scope is often closely intertwined, the use of dialogic communication to ensure mutual understanding and explore a situation often becomes the best tool to facilitate empowerment.

“Communication to assess” is used as a research and analytical tool that, (thanks to its interdisciplinary and cross-cutting nature), can be used effectively to investigate any issue well beyond those strictly related to the communication dimension. The power of dialogic communication is applied to engage stakeholders in exploring, uncovering, and assessing key issues, opportunities, and risks of both a technical and political nature.

As an illustration, take an initiative that at the surface does not appear in need of communication, such as building a bridge to link two areas and their communities separated by the river. A communication-based assessment prior to the project would probe the knowledge, perceptions, and positions of local stakeholders on the intended initiative. Unless probed through two-way communication, the identified technical course might neglect important aspects that could lead to problems or conflicts, for example by local fishermen who see their livelihoods endangered.

This use of two-way communication engages experts and local stakeholders in the problem-analysis and problem-solving process leading to change. Active listening becomes as important as talking. In a way, it could be said that dialogic communication is not used to inform but to truly “communicate”—that is, to share

perceptions and create new knowledge. Dialogue should be understood not as a broad form of chit-chat, but as a process where “participants come together in a safe space to understand each other’s viewpoint in order to develop new options to address a commonly identified problem.”

This assertion is put forth by Pruitt and Thomas (2007: 20) in a publication on the virtue of dialogue in development, commissioned jointly by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the International Institute for Democracy and Electorate Assistance (IDEA), Organization of American States (OAS), and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). The same publication states, “In dialog, the intention is not to advocate but to inquire; not to argue but to explore; not to convince but to discover.”

The same notion is also included in the other typology of the dialogic mode, that is, “communication to empower.” When used to facilitate the active engagement of stakeholders, the dialogic feature of communication enhances the capacities of all groups, especially the most marginalized ones, and addresses the issue of poverty as explained below.

Dialogic communication is not only effective as a problem-solving tool, but it also builds confidence, prevent conflicts, and addresses the issue of poverty by engaging the poorest and most marginal sectors in the process concerning issues of relevance to them. Sen (1999), a Nobel Prize winner in economics, highlights how the poverty dimension goes beyond the notion of lacking sufficient income to address basic needs. Poverty is also about capabilities deprivation and social exclusion. By involving the poor in the assessment of problems and solutions, by engaging them, and not just the experts, in the decision-making process, and by making the voices of the poor heard, the dialogic mode can address and reduce one key dimension of poverty: social exclusion.

The overall goal of the dialogic mode is to ensure mutual understanding and to make the best use of all possible knowledge in assessing the situation, building consensus, and looking for appropriate solutions. By facilitating dialogue with key stakeholders, this type of communication enhances the analysis and minimizes risks. On the other hand, the primary scope of the monologic mode emerges especially when information needs to be packaged and disseminated to address specific needs and gaps. Table 4.1 provides a further clarification of the two approaches by contrasting their scope, basic functions, and main differences.

Development is about change and about people. Each of the communication types presented in table 4.1 is a means to bring about change. Methods to achieve change, however, may vary according to the perspective, situation, and overall scope of the initiative. Even if past experiences indicate that the mere dissemination of information seldom achieves the intended change, properly packaged message dissemination may be effective in a number of cases, such as the prevention of the spread of pandemic

illnesses or for explaining the benefits of a public reform. On the other hand, two-way communication is more indicated in achieving mutual understanding, building trust, and uncovering and generating knowledge, leading to better results.

Table 4.1- Basic Features of Communication Modes

	Monologic Mode		Dialogic Mode	
Compare and contrast	Communication to inform	Communication to persuade	Communication to assess	Communication to empower
Main purpose	To raise awareness or increase knowledge of key audience	To change attitudes and behaviours key audience	To assess, probe and analyse the situation	To involve stakeholders in decisions over key issues
Mode of reference	One-way model (monologic)	One-way model (monologic)	Two-way model (dialogic)	Two-way model (dialogic)
Preferred methods and media	Predominant use of mass media	Predominant use of mass media	Wide range of methods to investigate issues.	Use of dialogue to promote participation

(Source: Mefalopulos, 2008)

3.3 Misconceptions about Development Communication

Attitudes of development managers and decision makers toward communication were studied in a survey commissioned by the Development Communication Division of the World Bank (Fraser, Restrepo-Estrada, and Mazzei 2007). The findings indicated that while many managers and decision-makers are fully aware of the importance of communication in development programmes, most of them use it in a broad and at times confused way. They usually conceive communication mostly in terms of public relations, media production, information dissemination, or corporate communication. The study clearly indicates the need for positioning and clarifying the scope, body of knowledge, and practical applications of the field of development communication.

Since the use of communication in development has been associated historically with information dissemination and one-way persuasion, it is not surprising that many managers and decision makers involved in development focus primarily, or even exclusively, on these aspects. This leads many of them to seek communication interventions only halfway through the project cycle, rather than as part of the project's initial conception when it is more strategic and cost-effective.

When discussing persuasion, it should be noted that in addition to the commonly conceived one-way modality, which often carries a negative connotation, there is also

a wider conception, where persuasion is used in two-way communication among two or more parties who are exchanging opinions and knowledge in order to uncover and agree on the best option. Jacobson (2003), for instance, refers to the philosopher Jurgen Habermas's concept of communicative action to address this issue at different levels of scale. He claims that persuasion can also take place in dialogic/participatory communication as "large-scale political discourse requires mass media, whereas interpersonal and small-group communication do not. Nevertheless, the principles of reciprocity, the equal distribution of opportunities to contribute, and the freedom to raise any proposals are common to participatory communication at both levels" (108).

Distinguishing development communication from other areas of communication is essential—failure to do this leads to misconceptions and wrong expectations. Its analytical focus and its embrace of a number of principles from other disciplines, such as anthropology, sociology, adult education, and marketing, are signature features. The interdisciplinary nature of development communication is defined by its dialogical focus, which becomes a crucial feature to explore and uncover risks and opportunities. It is important to remember that the concept of "dialogue," when used in the context of development communication refers to more than just engaging people in a conversation or discussion. It is about the professional facilitation of dialogic methods among stakeholders to explore and identify priorities and best alternatives leading to change.

Another prevalent misconception in this context equates discussion with dialogue. When engaged in a discussion, the goal is usually to prove the superiority of one's point of view, and at the end, winners and losers emerge. Alternatively, in a genuine dialogue, nobody is trying to win. As Bohm (1996: 7) states, "Everybody wins if anybody wins. In genuine dialogue there is no attempt to gain points, or to make one's particular view prevail. Rather, whenever any mistake is discovered on the part of anybody, everybody gains." Conceived in this way, dialogue becomes instrumental in setting the groundwork for any successful development initiative. It becomes a heuristic method, striving to seek and to sustain the best possible solution or change. When all parties involved feel that their contribution is part of the solution, it is more likely that everyone will put forth their best effort to support the initiative.

A further misconception surrounds the qualifications for development communication work. Once the scope, range of functions, and multifaceted nature of a project are fully understood, the depth of the communication discipline needed becomes apparent. At this stage, it is difficult to support the argument that anyone who "communicates" well can be considered a communication specialist, without specific studies or in-depth expertise on the subject (an assertion that is implicitly and tacitly accepted too often in development circles). To be applied effectively, especially in the complex development context, communication strategies and approaches require a specialist's in-depth knowledge, at both the theoretical and applicative levels.

3.4 Two-Way Communication-Based Assessment: First Step to Mutual Understanding and Strategy Design

The first step in a communication intervention always should be based on empirical research through the use of two-way communication investigative methods. In order to assess and minimize risks, Development communication stresses on-site research as the basis of any communication intervention and consequently as the basis for the success of any development intervention. Depending on the scope of the intervention, various communication approaches can be adopted to address a given situation. Yet, accurate measuring of the effectiveness of specific communication approaches can vary considerably. Assessing if and how much the level of awareness and knowledge of a certain issue has increased is not a particularly difficult matter; the same applies when measuring changes in attitudes and behaviours. Evaluating the impact of dialogue, empowerment, joint analysis, and consensus, however, is a much more complex issue—one that some argue cannot be accurately measured, at least in a rigorous quantitative manner.

The question of whether such “preventive functions” can be measured or accounted for is not an easy one to answer. Maybe it should be acknowledged that, given the complexity of the human dimension, not everything can be accurately measured. Or perhaps measurements can be carried out in more creative ways, such as assessing projects that have failed because of the lack of communication intervention at the initial stages. This would measure the costs of non-communication, which in many cases are evident and easy to quantify.

Moreover, people’s participation has gradually become a pillar of the current development conception, and a number of studies, including some by the World Bank, demonstrate the positive impact of participation in development projects. And participation cannot occur without two-way communication. There is a growing international consensus considering participation not only as a means, but also as an end in itself (Sen 1999). UNDP (1993: 21) asserts that “Participation, from the human development perspective, is both a means and an end.”

For the purposes at hand, participation is treated primarily as a means, a valuable element to meet development objectives. Communication is not only considered as a necessary ingredient for meaningful stakeholders’ participation in development initiatives, but it is often paired with the term “strategy.” An effective strategy based on two-way communication increases a development project’s success and sustainability. Communication strategies need to be professionally designed and prepared to avoid some of the problems found most frequently in projects and programs: inadequate diagnosis, flawed or ill-conceived design, or inappropriate timing (Hornik 1988).

When designing a strategy, communication professionals should be clear about the specific objectives and the communication mode required for the intervention. The temptation to jump into the design of messages or into the production of audiovisual

materials without carefully assessing what is really needed or what the benchmark is to assess the intervention should be resisted. To be effective, a communication strategy should always be based on the findings of a two-way assessment.

Whenever the term “communication strategy” is used, managers’ attention almost automatically goes to the search for a solution—what do we need to do or say to achieve the intended change? The focus, instead, should be first on the search for the root of the problem, on what different stakeholder groups think, and on what elements impede the desired change. Since most of the causes are usually created by or related to people, communication is the best and perhaps the only tool to investigate them comprehensively and effectively. There are a number of methods providing guidelines to follow, usually starting from the causes of the problem to the outputs needed for addressing the situation successfully.

4.0 Conclusion

The complex nature of development communication has necessitated the use of combination of approaches in development programmes. Thus, no single medium is adequate in achieving development communications ends.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- monologic mode in development communication is meant to inform and communication to persuade.
- dialogic mode or two-way communication is meant to assess and empower.
- many managers and decision-makers are fully aware of the importance of communication in development programmes, but most of them use it in a broad and at times confused way, conceiving it as public relations, media production, information dissemination, or corporate communication.

Self Assessment Exercise 9

What are the differences between monologic mode and dialogic mode of communication?

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What is monologic mode of communication in development and what are its purpose?
2. Explain “Communication to assess”
3. Highlight the misconceptions about development communication

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UNIT 5 ADVOCACY JOURNALISM

CONTENTS

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
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 - 3.4 Ways of using the media for advocacy
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1.0 Introduction

One of the activities in development communication is advocacy. Development communication engages the stakeholders in order to get their support in executing any development programme. The media of mass communication are one of such stakeholders instrumental to carrying out a successful development project, their special assignment in mobilising support for development has been seen as unique and thus been recognised as advocacy journalism.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Explain what advocacy journalism is
2. Enumerates the functions of advocacy journalism
3. List the factors that should guide advocacy journalists in their duty
4. Highlight how to use the media for advocacy

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Advocacy Journalism: What it means

The dictionary defines advocacy journalism as journalism in which the writer or publication expresses a subjective view or promotes a particular cause. This is the most common view of advocacy journalism – the subjective coverage of an issue. The definition expresses the most extreme view of advocacy journalism and does not acknowledge the more common values of good journalism (e.g. fairness, accuracy, balanced reporting). Jensen (n. d.) describes it as the use of journalism techniques to promote a specific political or social cause. Unlike propaganda, advocacy journalism is fact-based, but supports a specific point of view on an issue.

Advocacy journalists might be expected to focus on stories dealing with corporate business practices, government policies, political corruption, and social issues. It is arguable that advocacy journalists serve the public interest in a way similar to muckrakers or whistle-blowers. Most advocacy journalists reject the supposed objectivity of the mainstream press as a practical impossibility, and some others take the position that the economic censorship exerted by corporate sponsors is no different than political censorship.

Advocacy is the promotion of a position on an issue or cause in a single-minded manner, or tackling an issue by highlighting reporter's position in relation to it. It is therefore, easy to see how the idea of advocacy journalism as the subjective coverage of an issue came about. Advocacy, although promoting a certain position, does so with the aim of achieving certain goals, usually influencing 'public policy and resource allocation decisions within political, economic, and social systems and institutions - that directly affect people's lives' (Advocacy Institute, 2001). In many cases, the aim is to provide a voice for those without one and to highlight certain issues to create social change and bring about improvement to people's lives.

Positive advocacy journalism abides by the values of good journalism- fairness, balanced reporting, accuracy, and operating in the public's interest. All the principles and values seen by society as the ideal for journalism, are in fact the values that drive advocacy journalism. What usually sets advocacy journalism apart is the fact that it is undertaken for a cause, often one involved with human rights and social change. 'A journalist applies excellence of craft in fulfilling a societal mandate to tell the community about significant issues so people can make important decisions in their lives - important decisions about their children's schooling, about their personal safety, about the people they choose to hold office, about the choices their government makes, and on and on' (Steele, 1996).

While mainstream journalism and journalists often claim to be unbiased and independent of outside influence, the truth is usually very different. The decision to cover a particular story, the prominence it is given or the choice of an angle automatically results in bias. In this respect, advocacy journalists are unlike traditional journalists in their willingness to declare their position on an issue and pursue it in order to bring about change. By highlighting an issue in a responsible and fair manner, advocacy journalists hope to bring about social change. They are often explicit in their pursuit of an issue, and use the values of good journalism to explore issues affecting their community or audience.

It is vital for policy and societal change that policy makers and the public understand the issues facing their communities today. This can only be done through quality information made available through the media who play a powerful role in shaping public dialogue. The aim of media advocacy and advocacy journalism is to increase

the capacity of groups within society through in-depth and contextualized reporting, and in doing so to bring about social change.

3.2 The Role of Advocacy Journalism

According to Advocacy Institute (2001), advocacy journalism in fulfilment of its task performs the following functions:

Information: Advocacy journalists aim to inform their community or audience about the issues affecting it. This means informing them in such a way that informed debate can be facilitated in order to solve problems. In order to inform community members adequately, advocacy journalists have to understand and communicate the underlying and often invisible systems behind the issue.

Alternative to the mainstream: The mainstream media cannot always be trusted by their audience and the community they serve, often because of their commercial interests. We've all heard stories about newspapers or magazines wanting to run a controversial story but being unable to because of pressure from advertisers, funders or owners. This pressure, along with the mainstream media's claims of objectivity, means that audiences are becoming less trusting of what they read and see. In some countries, journalists have grown so close to their government and corporate sources that their reporting resembles a conversation among powerful 'insiders' more than an effort to watch over government and business on behalf of citizens. This is less true of advocacy media and journalists who openly pursue an issue and who are more honest with their audience, bringing back an element of trust. In addition, the fact that community members are offered an alternative to mainstream media provides them with more information and a different type of coverage.

Media consumers are often overwhelmed by the amount of information in the mainstream media; information which, in many cases, simply assaults the senses but does little else. Advocacy journalism goes beyond providing a surface layer of information, allowing audiences to debate and address issues being raised.

Focus on audience: Many of the issues and causes pursued by advocacy media are those which affect their audience and immediate community. Advocacy journalists have to have an ear to the ground at all times in order to have a sense of the issues being raised within their community so as to be able to address them. Advocacy journalism does not play to an individual's needs or service one sector of the community; instead it digs deeper into the needs of its audience and the issues affecting the daily lives of its community. Advocacy journalism highlights those issues in order to stimulate debate and ultimately bring about change for the better.

Aim for change: As discussed above, the end-goal of most advocacy journalism is to bring about some kind of change for the better, whether social, policy, economic etc. This is perhaps the most important role of advocacy journalism. By first highlighting the issue at hand, and then creating an awareness of it with major players (community

members, policy makers, government members, civil society), the media are able to facilitate dialogue and debate in order to bring about positive change. Journalists should not simply report on the news; advocacy journalists have an obligation towards 'improving the community's capacity to act on the news, of caring for the quality of public dialogue, of helping people engage in a search for solutions, of showing the community how to grapple with – not only read about – its problems'(Lichtenberg, 1999). Change within the mindset of community members is one of the roles of advocacy journalism, as is change in the situation or environment of that community for the better. Another is policy change which positively affects community members.

Celebrate: Not all news is good news, but sometimes good news is good for news. Advocacy journalists are distinct from the mainstream traditional journalists in their willingness to cover the positive outcomes and changes which have occurred. Community members who have followed a particular issue through a publication or broadcaster will continue to follow its progress in the hope of a positive outcome. They will continue to follow other stories after that knowing that positive news does get reported.

It follows then that advocacy journalism cannot be separated from development journalism. This involves gathering, packaging and disseminating development-oriented news and information (Adebayo, 1990:5). The writing, packaging and disseminating information on development issues is therefore an advocacy duty.

3.1 Guidelines for Advocacy Journalists

In an April 2000 address to the Canadian Association of Journalists, Sue Careless gave the following commentary and advice to advocacy journalists, which seeks to establish a common view of what journalistic standards the genre should follow:

- Acknowledge your perspective up front.
- Be truthful, accurate, and credible. Don't spread propaganda, don't take quotes or facts out of context, "don't fabricate or falsify", and "don't fudge or suppress vital facts or present half-truths"
- Don't give your opponents equal time, but don't ignore them, either.
- Explore arguments that challenge your perspective, and report embarrassing facts that support the opposition. Ask critical questions of people who agree with you.
- Avoid slogans, ranting, and polemics. Instead, "articulate complex issues clearly and carefully."
- Be fair and thorough.
- Make use of neutral sources to establish facts.

3.4 Ways of Using the Media for Advocacy

There are many different ways you can use the media in advocacy. You can hold news conferences, write letters to the editor, give interviews or arrange editorial board meetings. The method you choose should be the best one to promote your issue.

American Public Health Association (n. d.) prescribes the following means of using the media for advocacy:

News Release

Many reporters gather information for upcoming stories from news releases. The news release tells the reporter the who, what, when, where and why of a news story. This information helps the reporter determine whether to write an article or otherwise cover your “news.” But remember, reporters receive many news releases over the week, so in order to get yours noticed, your release should quickly grab the reporter or editor’s attention and the rest should convince him or her of the issue’s news value. News releases generally follow a standard format. The format is designed to give the reporter or editor all the information he or she needs quickly. By following the same format, all pertinent information, such as contact information, is in the same place and easy for the reporter to find.

Letter to the Editor

A letter to the editor is the simplest way to communicate an opinion to the general public. The chances of having the letter printed greatly increases at smaller or less prominent newspapers or magazines. On average, many local papers publish up to 80 percent of the letters they receive. The most important caveat is to write a letter no longer than what the target newspaper tends to publish. A much longer letter is more likely to be discarded, and if it is not discarded, it is the editor who will decide what information will be cut in order to fit the length requirements. Short, pithy pieces are best.

Op-ed

Another way of contacting the media is by writing an opinion piece to be run on a newspaper’s opinion-editorial page. Writing an opinion article offers an opportunity to present an extended argument. They run on the page opposite the newspaper’s editorials and are typically local and timely. Unlike editorials, op-eds are written by members of the community rather than by journalists. But like editorials, an op-ed often carries more weight than a letter to the editor; it presents a point of view with much greater detail and persuasion than a short letter allows.

Careful planning will increase your chances of placing an op-ed. In addition to submitting an article, mount a campaign to get it published. Be sure to follow up within a week after submitting an article to ensure that it was received and to answer questions the editor might have.

Editorial Board Meeting

The most powerful way to win support for your issue or reach your member of Congress or local official through the media is to gain the editorial support of your newspaper. Arranging an editorial board meeting will take more time than writing a letter to the editor, but the results are worth the effort. This will give you the chance to persuade the editor why the newspaper’s readers would be interested in your story and this could increase the likelihood of more coverage by the newspaper of your issue.

Interview

Another way of working with the media is to give interviews. There are many television and radio stations nationwide, each with producers constantly on the lookout for story ideas and guests to have on their shows. Local talk shows have also become a significant force in national politics. As a development agent, you know more about

The development project that you are undertaking than most people in your community and can credibly share your concern and knowledge on a local talk show.

Media Event

In some cases, you may want to consider holding a media event to disseminate your information. The two most common media events are the press briefing and news conference.

A press briefing is held to provide journalists with background information on an issue. A briefing is a good way to provide journalists with an update of key developments and issues, as well as your organization's work and policy, on a certain topic. These meetings can be informal and are a good way to make contacts with the media. A news conference is held to announce a major story — such as the release of a report, a new policy that has been developed or your organization is taking a new major initiative on an issue.

Press briefings and news conferences are major undertakings and require a lot of work and preparation. But they can be very valuable when you have important information to release, a critical situation has developed, an important speaker has become available or you have a dramatic point of presentation to make on an important issue. Most often, contacting reporters individually or holding a briefing for a small group is a better use of time and resources. But on occasion, you may need to hold a news conference to draw attention to a particular public health issue.

4.0 Conclusion

Advocacy journalism entails media efforts in promoting a particular cause. But you will also realise from the above that the media need to be engaged before they can do this task.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that advocacy is one of the activities in development communication is advocacy. It is journalism techniques to promote a specific political or social cause. It aims at bringing about change and as such may sacrifice the journalism principle of objectivity on the alter of achieving its goals.

Self Assessment Exercise 6

As a development communicator, how would you use the media for advocacy for a stated development task?

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Explain as much as you can what advocacy journalism entails.
2. Enumerate the functions of advocacy journalism
3. What factors should guide advocacy journalists in their duty?

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MODULE 3: MEDIA FOR DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

Unit 1 The use of interpersonal channels for development communication

Unit 2 The use of print media for development communication

Unit 3 The use of radio for development communication

Unit 4 The use of television and video for development communication

Unit 5 The use of folk-media media for development communication

Unit 6 The use of New media technologies for development communication

Unit 7 Community Media in Development Communication

UNIT 1: THE USE OF INTERPERSONAL CHANNELS FOR DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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4.0 Conclusion

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7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

Interpersonal channels operate on a one-to-one basis and in group situations. Interpersonal communication occurs when you communicate on a one-to-one basis usually in an informal, unstructured setting. It occurs mostly between two people, though it may include more than two. Each participant functions as a sender-receiver; their messages consist of both verbal and non-verbal symbols and the channels used mostly are sight and sound. It also offers the greatest opportunity for feedback (DeVito, 1998). Flipcharts and picture codes are interpersonal tools mostly used in group setting (also referred to as group media) that enhance face-to-face discussion thus facilitating the investigation of critical issues and the exchange of knowledge.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Enumerate the strengths of interpersonal communication to development communication.
- List the characteristics of effective interpersonal communication
- Discuss the skills for engaging in interpersonal communication.
- Highlight the benefits of flipcharts to development communication.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Interpersonal communication

Interpersonal communication may be described as face-to-face communication. It may occur between two people or in a group in which the people involved have eye-to-eye contact with each other. Interpersonal communication settings involve people relating in close proximity. The people involved maintain eye contact, hear each other, observe and respond to each other's non-verbal reactions and exchange ideas, views and experiences at quite a deep level (Hybels, & WeaverII, 2001).. The interactive nature of interpersonal communication gives it many advantages.

3.1.1 Strengths of interpersonal communication

Interpersonal communication is strong in supporting the behaviour change process. In particular, it is strong in:

- Explaining in detail, responding to questions and doubts, persuading and convincing target audiences about the value of the proposed behaviour.
- Legitimising programme ideas.
- Building consensus, bringing about behaviour change and providing support for continuation of the new behaviour.
- Addressing rumours and dealing with counter-rumours campaigns.
- Responding to issues, problems and questions of a personal nature.

3.1.2 Opportunities for interpersonal communication in development programmes

Interpersonal communication occurs in almost all areas of development programme, but is particularly important:

- During advocacy efforts (e.g. between development managers and senior policy makers).
- Between development managers and partners.
- Between development workers providing services and agents bringing in people for help like children receiving immunization.
- Between motivators and caretakers.

3.1.3 Characteristics of effective interpersonal communication

According to the Quality Assurance Project of USAID, an interpersonal communication encounter in healthcare is effective when:

- i. the patient discloses enough information about illness to lead to accurate diagnosis;
- ii. the provider, in consultation with the client, selects a medically appropriate treatment acceptable to the client;
- iii. the client understands his or her condition and the prescribed treatment regime;
- iv. the provider and the client establish a positive rapport;
- v. the client and provider are both committed to fulfilling their responsibilities during treatment and follow-up care.

3.1.4 Skills for engaging in effective interpersonal communication

Skills for engaging in effective interpersonal communication may be divided into three categories according to UNICEF (2000):

- Skills for caring communication
- Skills for problem-solving
- Skills for counselling

I. Skills for caring communication

This refers to skills needed to make the client feel welcome and appreciated. They include skills for:

- **Welcoming the client:** Welcoming skills include the capacity to greet a client warmly, offer her/him a seat and carry out other preliminaries as the culture may demand. These preliminaries are important, especially at the health facility, and are helpful in establishing a relationship and making the client feel at home.
- **Empathising with the client:** Empathising with the client: Empathy refers to the ability to step into the shoes of the other person in order to see issues from his/her perspective. When you see issues from the other person's perspective, you are able to understand the other person better and show more sympathy towards his/her views.
- **Praising and encouraging the client:** Caretakers need to be praised for the little they know and the efforts they make to keep immunisation cards and bring in children for immunisation. Praise and encouragement increase caretakers' resolve to continue the practice.

II. Skills for problem-solving

Apart from making clients feel at home and appreciated, health workers carrying out inter-personal communication need to effectively use the skills of asking and listening. The two skills will not only lead to understanding clients better, but they will also facilitate identification and solution of issues that may hinder positive response to the recommended health behaviour.

- **Asking:** Asking skills help individuals engaged in a conversation to verify information, observations and impressions. Asking skills also help people to find out how much has been understood and appreciated or rejected during a conversation. By asking, the communicator gets to know the difficulties the target audiences may be having with the messages and the help that may be needed to act positively on them.
- **Listening:** Listening is a crucial skill in a conversation. Practice active listening to encourage the person you are communicating with to volunteer more information. In active listening, the people engaged in a conversation give gestures that show that they are listening and are following what is being said. These include hand or head movements and remarks such as "yes," "I am listening" and "good."

III. Skills for counselling

Counselling skills include the following:

- i. Speaking simply and directly: It's important to explain things in a simple, clear and direct manner. Use familiar words and imagery. Ask checking questions and repeat the explanation if the other person has difficulties understanding.
- ii. Explaining logically and systematically: People understand things better when they are explained in a logical and systematic way. Illogical explanations confuse people and make understanding difficult.
- iii. Exploring clients' beliefs: Beliefs stand in the way of acceptance of a message and positive action. It is, therefore, important to understand what the client believes about the message. When his/her beliefs are known, they can then be discussed with a view to leading the client to a decision. The client's beliefs may be known through careful use of the skill of asking.
- iv. Correcting misconceptions: A client may refuse to bring his/her child for immunization because he/she believed that vaccines contain family planning substances. The health worker should establish misconceptions such as these and find a skillful way of correcting them. Good listening and asking skills should help the communicator to become aware of such misconceptions.
- v. Using visual aids: Health workers should learn how to use teaching aids effectively in order to improve communication with clients (see Chapter Four for the benefits of teaching aids).
- vi. Motivating clients and discussing concrete behaviour change: The ultimate purpose of communication for development is to bring about behaviour change. A caretaker will
 - need to be convinced that immunisation is good for his/her child and
 - take a decision to take his/her child for immunization before taking the step of
 - taking the child for immunisation. During conversations, health workers and other motivators should, therefore, motivate caretakers to take a definite decision to act (e.g. take the child for the next immunization).
- vii. Summarising key information: Summarising skills help a person engaged in a conversation to find out if he/she understood what the other person said. Summarising also helps people engaged in a conversation to check and confirm areas of agreement and disagreement.
- viii. Checking for understanding: It is important to check from time to time to find out if the person you are in a conversation with is understanding you or not. From time to time, ask questions such as: Do you understand what I am saying?
- ix. Giving clients a chance to ask questions: At appropriate moments in the conversation, give the client an opportunity to ask any questions he/she may have so that you can respond and help the client to understand better.
- x. Confirming follow-up steps: State and explain the next steps, what needs to be done and when. It could be helpful to give the client a memory aid with simple and easy-to-understand instructions. Memory aid with figures and images could be developed for illiterate clients.

3.2 Group Media- Flipcharts and Picture Codes

3.2.1 Cloth Flipcharts: stimulating discussion

Flipcharts are one of the best interpersonal communication tools for creating dialogue and rapport between development workers and target audience. They are effective in remote areas with groups large and small, and also work well in schools, clinics, and markets and staff meetings (Mefalopulos & Kamlongera, 2004).

Benefits of flipcharts

- The large pictures attract attention stimulating interactive discussion.
- Illiterate people clearly see important ideas for discussion.
- Discussions are relevant because the pictures show local people and their situations, etc.
- Both problems and solutions are seen.
- Problems can be further discussed, probed and sometimes even solved.
- Peoples' values of a particular subject can be raised because positive benefits are seen.
- Technical details can be examined.
- Technical information is consistent.
- The presenter can easily check to see whether or not the interaction group has understood each point.
- Feedback is immediate as questions can be raised and answered on the spot.
- A whole story (or series of linked events) can be seen picture by picture in one short session.
- The story can be adapted to examine local situations to create consensus for action.
- Pictures of the problems stimulate a search for solutions.
- Field staff and rural people gain confidence to exchange ideas.
- Interaction between field-staff and the beneficiaries is immediate and guaranteed.

On the practical side, clothe flipcharts...

- Keep information in the correct step-by-step sequence, to aid the presenter;
- Allow the presenter to select certain pictures to reinforce a point of view;
- Are durable for field conditions and resistant to tearing, heat, dust and rain;
- Are washable for use over many years;
- Are portable, lightweight and do not break down easily;
- Unlike projectors, they do not need a darkened room or electricity;
- Can be printed in sufficient quantities so that all field staff and key people in the community may have copies to use.

3.2.2 Flipcharts user's guide: Enhancing practical communication skills

For field staff, teachers and other community mobilisers, a guide booklet tells how to turn a simple flipchart into a dynamic discussion tool. It interprets the meaning of the pictures, explains the story line possibilities and suggests interpersonal communication techniques.

The guide describes how to:

- plan and conduct productive meetings with rural people;
- set up the meeting place;
- tell the flipchart stories, stressing important information;
- adapt the flipchart messages to local needs;
- ask leading questions;
- encourage the interaction group to join in with questions, answers and points of view;
- identify problems or obstacles;
- steer the discussions toward positive decisions;
- assist rural communities to make practical plans that will support development objectives.

On the practical side, the booklet is printed in sufficient quantity so that field staff and others can use it as a general communication guide.

The guidelines presented here are necessary in preparing flipcharts. Remember to sketch the entire group of flipcharts, before drawing full sized versions. This shows planners that all main themes are covered. In summary you should observe the following:

- **Visualise for the interaction group.** Imagine each picture revealing the story in a step-by-step sequence so that the interaction group has no doubt about what is happening.
- **Sequence.** Good sequence is achieved when the interaction group is comfortable looking at the next picture, and not disoriented, asking, “What happened?”
- **One picture for one thought.** Assign a new picture to show each new action, thought or technical theme. If a message has multiple topics, split it up into separate pictures.
- **Number of pictures.** Plan a minimum of three pictures and maximum of eight pictures per story.
- **“Write pictures” or “draw sentences”.** Let the subject be revealed in pictures, one after another. The pictures should be self-explanatory. Draw as you are narrating a story, keeping in mind topical questions to help the interaction group explore the content of the pictures more deeply.
- **Keep it brief.** Avoid writing long technical descriptions in the narrative (the pictures should be self-explanatory). The style should be conversational to stimulate discussion. Avoid a lecture.
- **Make it worthwhile.** Let the interaction group know from the very first picture that it is worthwhile to see more. This is accomplished by showing people like themselves involved in the story, familiar scenes of employment or leisure, or relevant concerns and interests.

For the end of the story prepare questions that help the interaction group to discuss and to give their views on what happened and what could be done. Often individual pictures are viewed again for this discussion (Mefalopulos & Kamlongera, 2004).

3.2.3 Picture Codes: stimulating discussion

Picture codes are drawings, used in a similar manner as for flipcharts. They differ from flipcharts in that they do not portray a series of events but rather a single act and that they are usually on paper. Quite often on one side of the picture code there is the drawing and on the other side there are the suggested questions to go with it. Benefits and uses of picture codes are the same as those for flipcharts.

4.0 Conclusion

The greatest asset of interpersonal communication is its capacity to bring about behaviour change and provide support for continuation of the new behaviour. Flipcharts and picture codes are veritable interpersonal/group communication tools. They are very useful in community engagement, dialogue and mobilisation.

Self Assessment Exercise 1.1

Identify and discuss the skills for engaging in interpersonal communication.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- Interpersonal communication occurs between two people or in a group and it is useful for behavioural change and modification.
- Effective interpersonal communication skills include skills for caring communication, problem-solving and counselling skills.
- Flipcharts are interpersonal communication tools for creating dialogue and rapport between development workers and target audience.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

- What are the strengths of interpersonal communication to development communication?
- Enumerate the characteristics of effective interpersonal communication.
- Highlight the benefits of flipcharts to development communication.

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UNIT 2: THE USE OF PRINT MEDIA FOR DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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1.0 Introduction

The print media consist of a variety of publication that range from daily newspaper, magazines, books, pamphlets and newsletters to period public letters. They are relatively cheap, simple and easy to produce and can be taken home, consulted, and kept as a permanent reminder. Print materials, having text, or visuals or a combination of the two, are widely used in development to make communication effective. Print materials assist facilitators in interpersonal communication during training sessions or demonstrations. Sometimes they can be used as reference materials. Overhead transparencies, posters, and other visual aids can be used to illustrate points during learning. Handouts that are used by trainees themselves to remember important points are normally illustrated – it should be noted that words are images too. Print materials are also produced to provide a set of instruction on how to do something, including how to use communication materials. Posters are used extensively where one wants to draw the attention of people to specific issues.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Identify the printed materials that are useful in development communication
- Enumerate the usefulness of newspapers, posters and leaflets and adult literacy/school books to development communication.
- List the elements of print material production
- Discuss the process of printing production.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Uses and Rationale of Print Materials

Words and images constitute the two basic elements of the print medium. Words are particularly critical where you want to provide accurate understanding of concepts, instructions and procedures. However, they can also be tedious and difficult to understand at times. In many instances, they are practically useless, as the majority of people in the developing world are illiterate. Images, on the other hand, have an easier and more direct appeal, as pictures almost naturally attract the attention of the human eye. To understand a picture (provided it is compatible with the cultural environment) you do not need to have done any particular study.

The rationale for using print materials should be seen within the larger context of the situation in the area of interest. Print materials can be relatively cheap when you want a simple product; for example, when you use cheap materials or you use two colours only. They can be quite expensive if you want a sophisticated product (e.g. high material quality, full colour, etc.). Deciding when to use what and at which level, depends on a number of factors such as the characteristics of the interaction group/s (especially their literacy level), their number, their distribution (to produce 20 booklets for the 20 teachers of a district has a lower per/head cost than producing a radio programme. If, however, you had to reach 200 teachers in the province, radio might be cheaper. Your budget and objectives determine what you are going to do in the final analysis.

Materials using text are very useful when you want to inform people about events as well as provide them with technical knowledge on specific issues. Print visual materials are on the other hand, particularly effective when used to stimulate discussion (an image appeals to everybody and its meaning can be interpreted by anybody in a variety of ways) or to draw attention to a specific subject, either by appealing to their curiosity, desires or fears. Here print materials are divided into four groups namely; text, visual materials, combined print materials and visual discussion tools. The latter is widely used in a number of communication strategic approaches because it encourages peoples' participation through dialogue.

- **Text:** Any material based exclusively or mainly on words. It includes books, leaflets, brochures, guides, etc.
- **Visual Materials:** These are drawings, pictures or photographs carrying a message or drawing the attention on one issue without the use of words. They include posters, stickers, murals, etc.
- **Combined Print Materials:** These are materials, which combine the visual element with text. Newspapers, magazines, some posters fall in this group as well as a number of brochures and guides illustrating or explaining a set of instructions.
- **Visual Discussion Tools.** Usually referred to as discussion tools. As the term implies these are visual materials aimed at generating discussions rather than passing a message. They can be standing alone as a single drawing (picture codes) or they can present a full story (flipcharts) addressing a specific issue.

Since they are mostly used in group setting, they are discussed in Unit 2 of this Module.

Posters and Leaflets

Very often these utilise or adapt the flipchart images. Posters raise awareness and the value of the important “new ideas” discussed in the flipcharts. Leaflets provide reminders about the “ideas” and key technical points raised in the flipcharts.

With posters and leaflets:

- the project is more visible, dynamic and important;
- mass awareness of the “new idea” is achieved;
- vital technical information is widely distributed in a consistent form;
- various communities are informed through the use of local language versions; and
- field staff has attractive and colourful gifts to give to influential individuals and offices.

On the practical side, posters and leaflets are printed in large quantities and in local language versions without much additional expense.

Adult Literacy and School Booklets: These are often used for teaching farmers and their families. These booklets, that usually include a number of drawings and pictures, are an excellent way to encourage interaction groups, development workers and students to learn more about the intended issue. Booklets are usually in high demand among literacy programmes and individuals that do not have enough reading materials. For many individuals these serve as a starting point or reference for discussion. They can also be reused many times.

Adult literacy and school booklets serve the following purposes:

- remind people of the story discussed in the flipchart;
- provide opportunities for discussing and studying vital technical information;
- help people to learn the requirements of the project and how individuals may participate in it;
- are accessible to various communities because they use local languages; and
- provide an opportunity to the project to give something to key individuals and groups, schools, etc.

Large quantities of adult literacy and school booklets are usually distributed to rural communities in target areas where an extra effort to inform people and to ensure their participation is needed. In such circumstances local language versions should be made available for each relevant community.

Newspapers and Magazines

Newspaper is a print medium used in the spread of information and other values needed to be known by the learned members of the society. Various genres of newspaper that can be adapted for development messages include: straight news, features, picture news, comments, editorial and cartoons.

Newspaper is useful for the following purposes:

- i. Information dissemination: The print media are useful instrument in setting agenda for development. They can provide utilitarian information for both policy makers and general public.
- ii. Correlation: African countries are made up of heterogeneous communities which are distinct from each other in some identifiable and significant respects. They have different cultural and ethnic groups within their fortuitous and arbitrarily drawn national boundaries. The differences are not only in terms of religion and language but also in economic and agricultural preoccupations, technological advancements and world views. The print media is necessary in correlating the different sections of the society. This will ensure each section is informed of developments in other sections, generate and maintain feelings of belonging as well as loyalty necessary for mobilisation and maximisation of development capacity of the whole people.
- iii. Sensitisation and Conscientisation: Development behaviour entails persuasion to a particular point of view. This is preceded by a new value orientation which incorporates the right kind of attitude to the particular development subject. The print media have to serve as a channel for teaching the people to adopt social values which promote change and development.
- iv. Persuasion: The print media can persuade through detailed treatment of relevant development issues. They can also demonstrate through illustrations and graphic displays. They can adopt a chronological approach that relates the step-by-step process of social development or the before-and-after results of particular development programmes.
- v. Learning: Using the print media to foster development amount to conducting adult education programmes aimed at achieving new learning, and ultimately affecting behaviour of a particular kind. Unlike academic learning where content is translated to curricula and courses in to class sessions per term, adult education via the print media does not have to be structured as school programmes. This however does not make it less pedagogic. Print media can be applied at the three common structures of adult learning- Informal, non-formal and formal learning.
- vi. Motivation: Positive coverage of stories that deal with achievement, recognition and work itself can motivate others to tread development path.

3.2 Basic Elements of Print Materials Production

Printed materials include mass media such as newspapers, posters, pamphlets, banners, stickers, billboards, booklets, etc. and group media such as flipcharts, picture codes. The former usually intend to pass on information or messages to people while the latter enhances face-to-face discussion thus facilitating the investigation of critical issues and the exchange of knowledge. As for other media, when considering aspects related to the production process, you should assess the situation to be addressed by the communication strategy. There are a few elements you should be aware of when preparing for the production of print materials.

- **Culture:** Printed materials have to, of necessity, be culturally relevant and appropriate. From culture to culture, images or metaphors that might be

visually represented could mean different things, which are acceptable or not acceptable. Similarly, you should look at the literacy level of the interaction group critically when considering the written word. There are some literacy requirements for the visual component. People need to relate to images in order to appreciate them fully and understand the message. This is made possible if images are culturally sensitive and appropriate.

- **Educational Level:** Illustrated print materials can also have text. As mentioned above before the use of text, it is important to know whether the interaction group for which the materials are meant, are literate.
- **Content:** The content, that is what is presented by the print materials, should always be relevant and appropriate to the context. Subject matter, age, gender, and preferences for colour, appeals, and perceptions of the community determine the context, closely related to the cultural element. If you deal with visual materials you are strongly advised, wherever possible, to work with an artist from the community. This will ensure the appropriateness of the materials, encourage the community to bring out the materials associated with the topic and assist actively in the production process.
- **Language:** Communication becomes a two-way understanding if the spoken and written language and that of visualisation, is spoken and fully understood by the interaction group. Language is the first window to a people's culture. Unless one prints materials using the people's language, it might not be possible to access the people's culture.
- **Application/Technical Use:** Materials for discussion, education, information or training should be pertinent to the application, or technical use for which they are meant. Indigenous technical knowledge regarding the matter should also have been known from the participatory research.

3.3 How to Draw for Rural People

As mentioned above, because of their level of formal education, relative isolation from the media and other printed matter, rural people may have limited skills to interpret drawings. Just like reading a book, comprehending a drawing is an acquired skill, called “visual literacy”. To help such viewers, make illustrations that can be understood easily, possibly without any written or verbal explanation. The followings are some tips that can assist you when drawing for rural people:

- Make drawings simple and bold, and put the main topic at the centre as large as possible;
- Show only one topic (or idea) at a time;
- Take out unnecessary details, which do not have a purpose, as they distract people and make the main subject to become lost;
- Since perspective may confuse viewers, avoid drawing objects that are small in the background;
- Draw everything in the picture in scale to each other;
- Show whole objects, even if there are several. Put the objects in the foreground;
- Avoid overlapping or cutting off parts of objects;

- Show “detail enlargement” of a part only after the whole object is seen;
- Avoid symbols that are generally abstract;
- Help people identify with the pictures, make the characters, clothes, buildings, animals, crops, tools, and environment as similar as possible to the interaction groups;
- Use colours realistically;
- In a picture sequence present a new picture for each new action, thought or theme. This is called step-by-step sequence;
- Keep the figures and environment in the story consistent (characters, gender, age, clothing, hairstyle, animals, crops, buildings, seasons, colours, etc.).
- Use appropriate clothing for the person's social status, age, gender and activities; and
- Use the right facial and body gestures for each situation in the story.

To create effective visual materials that will meet your objectives, it is necessary to identify the various themes and ways of telling the story, as people from the community would describe it. These will be transformed into ideas, which will provide the basis for pictures and text. To be effective, ideas must be clarified. Incomplete and vague ideas will waste the time and effort of artists, writers, technicians and even the intended interaction group. Use the storyboard technique to put all ideas in a sound written and visual form.

What is a storyboard? It is a way of assisting you to organise the various aspects involved in the production of visual print materials. It allows you to match images with the text or questions accompanying them. A storyboard is made this way:

- Small rough sketches of the proposed pictures, on one side of the paper;
- Simple text explaining the graphic details of each picture, on the other side of the paper, next to the related sketches; and
- Text that narrates the main story, in outline form, but includes key questions for the interaction group.

The storyboard is the key creative planning tool. It enables easy alteration, which ensures that ideas are clear and the story sequence and technical information are complete. At this stage all concerned with the communication effort can review and suggest improvements. In production of posters or booklets, pay attention to the suggestions below:

- For posters-making the pictures bold, attention-grabbing and self-explanatory with equally simple and large headlines. The illustrations may be adapted from the flipcharts; and
- For booklets the narrative should be written simply to be read aloud easily, not like a technical document. The illustrations may be adapted from the flipcharts.

3.4 Production Criteria in Print Materials

The design and production process must be participatory. This means that at every stage of the design process the interaction group has to be involved in terms of ideas

and, if there is a local artist, in terms of drawing the illustrations. By so doing, the community perception of visual literacy is demystified. The community is empowered by virtue of being engaged from the brainstorming, to the creation of learning, discussion materials.

- During the participatory research, video footage, photographs and samples of songs, colours and so on are collected. This collection is important in the material production process particularly when using a graphic artist not familiar with the area. Aspects of culture need to be incorporated in visual materials to be relevant to the interaction group. A picture of Sudanese adult nomads wearing traditional robes was shown to Zimbabwean farmers and the Zimbabwean farmers interpreted the illustration as that of children looking after cattle. Findings of the participatory research will also assist you in choosing the appropriate media.
- Remember that the idea of print materials is to enhance communication in a face-to-face dialogue. It is not only the comprehension of the visual materials that is important but also the acceptability. Whereas one community in a sanitation campaign can accept an illustration of someone in the bush answering the call of nature using the cat method, another community might be offended by that illustration. Cultural sensitivity is a cardinal rule in producing visual materials. The communication team and graphic artist must be good observers of non-verbal cues and listeners of the interaction group's concerns in order to achieve this.
- Establish whether the purpose of the visual materials, with regards to the communication approach, is problem solving, to educate, to dialogue, or to train. A particular approach will have an impact on the type of illustration one is using. For example, an illustration informing a community about mixed cropping is different from an illustration that is intended to create dialogue on problems encountered in mixed cropping. Discussion tools will naturally always seek to promote face-to-face discussion.
- As you will see later, pre-testing is a fundamental part of the production process. It serves to ensure that the community sees what you think you are drawing. Sometimes you can have a very talented graphic artist but with no experience of the rural world. Pre-testing ensures that such an artist moves closer to the rural setting and thus avoids creating material that is meaningless or misleading to the interaction group. Drawings should be seen as evaluated by the eyes of the people they are intended for not from those of technical panel on drawings. Remember that reality is what peoples' eyes perceive regardless of how well or how accurately the artist has drawn something.
- Communities appreciate artistically profound illustrations – profound in the sense of appealing. Banal, dull, unimaginative illustrations are likely to alienate the communities' interest in learning. There are different appeals that can be used in illustrating materials. As discussed in chapter two these appeals can also be adapted for radio, theatre, video, television and other media.

3.5 The Printing Production Process

The communication strategy describes the content and direction messages and discussion themes should take. Therefore, when describing the production process you should start from the research. Also remember that before authorising mass production of the materials it is always advisable to have a prototype produced. You can follow these basic steps in the production of print materials (a similar process applicable to media production in general is presented in the last section of this chapter):

Step 1: Research: Identify objectives, messages/exchange themes by consulting field staff and interaction groups. Take photographs to help the illustrator.

Step 2: Storyboard and writing/drawing: With interaction groups, use participatory approaches to sketch individual images, and draft accompanying texts. Check materials with technical specialists. Produce illustrations, lettering and complete texts.

Step 3: Field-testing and approval: Show materials to assess effectiveness with the interaction groups, field staff and technical specialists. After field-testing, improve message content, illustrations and text. Obtain final approval.

Step 4: Preparing to print: Obtain competitive quotations, choose a printer, and produce final illustrations, typeset text and paste-up camera-ready artwork for printing. Wherever possible produce a prototype first.

Step 5: Budgeting and printing: Deliver camera-ready artwork to printer. Confirm final budget. Approve first printed samples prior to authorising full printing job. The next section deals with budgeting aspects in detail.

Step 6 Training and distribution: Train field staff to use materials at communication training workshop - do not distribute materials to field staff unless they have been trained to use them. Detail the distribution plan with field staff co-ordinators to coincide with communication activities.

3.6 Budgeting for the Production of Print Materials

Budgeting for discussion materials that usually are based on visual aids may present some differences from the one involved in print materials using text. The process however is similar, and in this section we look at the former. The budget for producing print materials, and in particular, discussion tools, can be a major cost of the communication activities. It is important to be able to make an accurate estimate by being familiar with all factors involving costs. These include:

- cost of work by production team;
- pilot-testing (transport, accommodation, allowances, etc.);
- modification related work;
- printing;
- training field staff to use the materials; and
- distribution and use.

When you start planning the production of print materials you should make sure to have all the necessary expertise on board. The Production team usually consists of a team leader, a scriptwriter, an illustrator (from the project area), technical adviser or subject specialist (from the project). The activities this team will be involved in may include:

- Planning production steps and budget;

- Establishing printing specifications and costs;
- Writing the texts for all materials;
- Collecting visual reference: taking and collecting photographs;
- Drawing all illustrations;
- Visualising and presenting storyboards for appraisal;
- Pilot-testing draft illustrations, text and themes of prototype materials;
- Modifying prototype materials after pilot-testing and seeking final approval;
- Preparing camera-ready artwork (including text type-setting) for printing;
- Liasing with selected printers and quality control of their work;
- Drawing guidelines for training field staff to use printed materials; and
- Developing the printed material distribution plan;

Once the process has reached the stage of production, you should define the specifications needed to accomplish this task. To determine costs printers must know specifications, which include:

- printing process - silk-screen or offset litho;
- page size and number of pages;
- quality of paper or cloth;
- cover material;
- type of binding (finishing);
- number of colours for printing;
- state of the camera ready artwork (drawings & text);
- quantities;
- delivery time; and
- finalise specifications after field-testing.

Determine Quantities By:

- distribution points;
- number of users;
- number of language versions; and
- minimum quantities for cost-effective printing

Finally you have to determine the quantity considering the following factors:

- **Distribution points.** Determine all likely users from field staff to key people in local communities and distribution points using a Distribution Quantity Worksheet (a list specifying places and quantities). For particularly important areas, a more intensive distribution and use of materials might be needed.
- **Number of users.** You need to know how many people are going to use the materials in order to estimate cost and inputs needed.
- **Number of language versions.** If applicable, plan to print important materials in local language versions. The printer, at little additional cost per copy, can produce different language versions of the same poster, leaflet, etc., if sufficient copies are printed.
- **Minimum quantity for cost-effective printing.** Take into account minimum printing quantities. Bear in mind that the major costs of printing are in the

preparation stages of the first batch. Additional copies are relatively inexpensive.

3.7 Pre-Testing Print Materials: Field-testing to Ensure Effectiveness

The process of pre-testing is similar for all materials. In this section, however, our focus is on discussion tools. People interpret drawings and the message behind them on the basis of what they already know and what they believe in. Their “Visual Perception” is particular to their culture, education and extent of exposure to media. It is therefore essential to test all draft media materials with the intended interaction group and users before you print, or distribute and even use them.

Testing will save money, time and effort

Field testing, or pre-testing, puts the production team in direct contact with the people that are important, i.e., the project beneficiaries. During and after field-testing the team can modify the materials to ensure effectiveness.

The viewers

Rural people often see illustrations in ways that are very different from people who live in towns. They may even interpret a drawing to mean the exact opposite of what you intended it to mean. With the illustrator, show the pictures to the intended interaction group and ask what they see. If they see something different from what you intend, ask their advice on how to make the picture better if it is to reflect what you intend it to do. The illustrator should re-sketch the subject on the spot and try it again. In just a short time you will have pictures that rural people understand and enjoy. These new sketches can be finalised back at headquarters. But if there is any doubt about rural people's comprehension of these final materials (in terms of concepts, colours, rearrangement, etc.) the materials should be field-tested again before printing. Remember you are also testing for the acceptability of the idea and not just for the comprehension of the individual pictures.

Test the materials, not the people

When field-testing materials, remember that the materials are being tested, not the people who are asked to comment and make suggestions. There are no “right” or “wrong” comments. A farmer is not “wrong” if he or she identifies a drawing of a cow as a dog! The drawing is “wrong”. The illustrator needs to redraw it to fit the farmer's image of a cow. Do not be embarrassed if the drafts of media materials “do” poorly. The challenge is to adapt these materials in order to communicate effectively with rural people.

With whom and how many people should you pre-test with?

To get a balanced view with the intended interaction group, show the drawings to different individuals across the social scale age and gender. Keep testing until you find a trend that gives you an idea of what the problems are. Consistent answers from 20 to 30 people are enough to indicate if the materials work or require changes.

Test for the meaning of the text

Get people to read aloud any text that is intended for them, for example slogans on a series of posters. If they cannot read, read it to them. Do they understand the meaning of the slogan? Can they suggest a slogan to convey the meaning better?

3.0 Conclusion

Naturally, if the whole production process has taken place in the community, with local artists, the effectiveness of pre-testing is greatly diminished as people's perceptions and suggestions will already have been already reflected in the materials.

4.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt:

- The print media consist of a variety of publication that range from daily newspaper, magazines, books, pamphlets and newsletters to period public letters.
- Materials using text are very useful when you want to inform people about events as well as provide them with technical knowledge on specific issues. Print visual materials are on the other hand, particularly effective when used to stimulate discussion (an image appeals to everybody and its meaning can be interpreted by anybody in a variety of ways) or to draw attention to a specific subject.
- Newspaper in particular is useful for information dissemination, correlation, sensitization and conscientisation, persuasion, learning and motivation.
- Print materials must be tested after development to ensure their effectiveness.

Self Assessment Exercise 2.1

Discuss how you will test a print material that you have produced for a given development campaign.

5.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments

1. Identify two print materials and discuss their uses for development communication.
2. What factors should be taken into consideration in the production of effective print material for development communication?
3. What process would you follow in producing a postal for a given development message?

6.0 References/Further Readings

Ansah, P. (1991). Broadcasting and National development. *Module on Development Communication 2*, Nairobi: African Council for Communication Education.pp33-44

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UNIT 3: THE USE OF RADIO FOR DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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1.0 Introduction

Radio is a medium widely used in development. It can cover wide areas reaching a large number of people at a relatively low cost. In this section the term radio includes:

1. the common notion of radio broadcasting, from a central station to a certain area. In the development context it is often referred to as rural radio;
2. community radio, audio programmes produced locally or by another centre and broadcast to the whole community through loudspeakers set in the village; and
3. the use of audiocassettes, both for use in the community or for producing and recording local programs on crucial issues, both for inside and outside purposes.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Enumerate the function that radio can perform in development.
- Discuss the approaches for using radio for development.
- Describe the various radio formats suitable for development communication.

- Outline the principle for radio scripting.
- Explain how to evaluate radio programme.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Nature and Purpose of Radio for Development

The nature of radio is such that it can be used easily, i.e., listened to, while doing other things. Even the poorest countries can afford to establish radio stations and produce radio programmes. Radio receivers are also quite cheap and can be afforded by many people. Batteries sometimes can be a problem as they might be expensive and/or difficult to find in certain areas. With the progressive introduction and improvement of the wind-up radio technology, this problem should be greatly reduced.

The role of radio is generally defined as to inform, educate and entertain. In development, however, radio can be multi-faceted as, among other things, it can serve to pass messages, improve the capability of calling upon and organising groups and organisations, enlarge the forum for social dialogue, provide effective capacity building of the community, raise awareness and knowledge of community issues, bring the people's voice to the higher level of their political structure and mobilise the community to tackle issues of collective interest. Radio production requirements and formats can be adapted to specific use and objectives.

Radio can fulfill a number of versatile functions according to FAO (1998: 11). Radio is:

- an important mechanism for rapid diffusion of development information in a diversity of language and to widespread, often remote geographical areas,
- a channel for interactive communication, for dialogue and debate on the major issues of rural development,
- a platform for democratic and pluralistic expression of the opinions, needs and aspirations of rural communities,
- a tool for cultural expression and entertainment, and a means of collecting, preserving and enhancing the oral and musical heritage of rural communities;
- a medium to collect local information on social issues, which is essential for defining, planning and implementing development efforts;
- a means of raising public awareness and motivation; and
- a tool which, combined with other media, can be used for training and the transfer and exchange of knowledge and technologies.

3.2 Basic Radio Approaches

Radio in the development context can be broadly divided into three categories, each of which requires a different approach:

- Educational Radio;
- Documentary and Cultural Radio; and
- Participatory Radio.

- I. **Educational Radio** scope is that of providing knowledge and instructions on specific issues. It can be used for formal education, as in Nicaragua where UNESCO assisted to establish a radio network to teach mathematics to pupils in primary schools, or to provide informal instructions for practical purposes, as used in a number of countries, especially in the agricultural field. These kinds of programmes are usually written and prepared by subject specialists after having investigated and assessed the issue in question. Distance education is another area where radio has played an important role. It has provided the possibility of progressing with the studies to people in remote areas, reducing limiting factors such as the time (programmes are usually broadcast more than once, and can be recorded) and the place (you can listen to them from your house or any other place provided you have a radio instead of going to school). Radio can also be used effectively as a support medium in educational campaigns on issues of collective relevance.

- II. **Documentary and Cultural Radio** intends to report and provide testimonials on aspects of community life. This is done to draw the attention of the community to specific issues, problems and their solutions. Journalistic investigations also fall in this approach. Journalists, social researchers and communication practitioners are the ones that usually produce this type of programme, often adopting a participant observation approach in order to document the issues accurately and objectively. These programs can be addressed to other communities having similar problems, as well as to the management of development organisations or to policy-makers.

- III. **Participatory Radio** implies the use of radio for the people and by the people. Even if in the previous two instances some degree of people's involvement is required, it is only with this kind of radio, also sometimes known as community radio, that full participation is experienced. The issues to be discussed and presented in the programme are decided by the community with the assistance of a radio producer. Zimbabwe, since 1988, has witnessed a unique media project that emphasises the two-way communication potential of radio as opposed to its traditional mass medium approach of addressing passive listeners. The Federation of Africa Media Women - Zimbabwe Chapter, conceived the Radio Listening Clubs (RLC) Experience. The project aims at providing the rural population of Zimbabwe access to radio and cross sharing of views and ideas on varied issues. People in the community have the opportunity to set the agenda and contribute to the programme expressing their needs, concerns and priority interests. With the RLC the flow of information can be either horizontal, from a community to other communities, or bottom up, from the community to policy and decision-makers. This project operates by providing a voice to the community. A co-ordinator services the RLC regularly. RCLs are formed entirely by members of the community, and the co-ordinator assists in the recording of the intended issues (even though very often the recordings are done in the absence of the co-ordinator). Having collected

the recorded cassettes, the co-ordinator seeks feedback from the relevant authorities or organisations and records the responses. Next, the co-ordinator links the original community recording with the feedback provided by the person responsible and puts the programme on air. In this way the information is shared not only in the community that produced the initial recording, but with other communities as well. Members of the RLC agree that listening to radio programmes on their personal receivers is not as effective as listening to the same programme on their RLC receiver. This is so because after listening to the programme on their RLC receiver they discuss and share their ideas. An evaluation of this project, carried out in 1993, reported that:

- The RLC project has provided an alternative and more efficient vehicle for direct two-way communication between the communities and the mainstream resource providers;
- The project has provided an effective mechanism for the RLCs and their communities to access resources necessary for solving their most pressing issues and concerns; and
- RLCs have provided a network for the effective exchange of information, expertise and resources among their members and their communities in general.

Participatory radio's purpose is that of providing an open forum where people can express their views, opinions, and concerns and in doing so providing the opportunities to improve their livelihoods. It also tries to change the common flow of information, traditionally top down, into a bottom up or horizontal flow of information that brings "communication" to its original meaning of sharing and exchanging ideas, opinions, solutions from different perspectives.

Each of the above mentioned approaches could adopt a different radio format. The following are the most common and frequently used formats.

3.3 Common Radio Formats

- Lecture or Straight Talk.** This is used for presentation of something or passing on knowledge on certain issues. It should be used only for a short time (max. 15 minutes), as it can be quite boring and flat.
- Interviews/Discussions.** This is different from the previous one. This format requires more than a single person and opinion to be aired. It can be an interview with a member of the community as well as the recording of a group discussion about an issue of concern. The fact that it involves more than one person already makes it more interesting to follow. As seen previously, this approach can be used to generate a two-way flow of information as in participatory radio.
- Drama.** This can be the simple translation of existing drama into a radio format or the more creative dramatisation of issues identified by the community. Drama can generate a high degree of interest and keep the attention of the

listeners alive for a long time. 'One day at a time' is an example of this programme.

- iv. **Music.** This format is particularly effective in communities with a tradition of popular music, dancing and singing. The themes of songs are usually used to raise certain issues or promote certain practices.
- v. **Jingles/Slogans.** These are usually part of a bigger programme. However, they can be used as an approach in itself. Learn from advertisement where sometimes a simple slogan or a jingle is flashed at you just to remind you of a certain product. The same can be done in the development context.
- vi. **Feature.** It is a programme on a specific topic. It can use a straight talk or a mix of talking and music. It is, however, focussed on a single issue.
- vii. **Magazine.** This is a radio format usually containing a number of issues or mini-programs within its time. It can be shaped as a news report or it can have a number of different elements, such as interviews, music and straight talk. Its aim is to inform the listeners on a number of different issues.
- viii. **Infotainment.** This format is a combination of information and entertainment. It can be a dramatisation of an event or a radio soap opera treating priority issues. In the 1950s in Great Britain, there was a successful drama series aimed at providing education through entertainment. It was entitled "The Archers - an everyday story of country folks". This programme was thought and set out to include material of an informational and educational nature while providing an entertaining story that the audience could identify with. Its success was due to a careful mix of elements that combined cognitive theories and the creative factors successfully used in radio fiction. Each character in the series reflected a portrait of a specific group of people identified as the learning target. Negative characters (e.g. irritant, arrogant, etc.) were usually associated with attitudes and practices that were intended to be abolished while positive characters (e.g. friendly, dynamic, successful) were associated with messages and behaviour that the producers wanted to promote. The main reason for the programme's success probably was due to the fact that the educational and informational content of the series was entertaining, (even including a comic element). There is no rule saying that information must always be treated in a serious, and often boring, way. Radio can also be used creatively for development purposes (Ansah, 1991)

3.4 Basic Elements of Radio Production

You have seen the different types of formats that can be used when you want to present an issue of concern. Now, let us turn to factors that should be considered if you want to present the issues effectively. According to Mefalopulos and Kamlongera (2004), these can be divided into three categories: technical, content and presenters.

Technical factors are:

- Sound quality. Is the audio recording clear? Are music levels balanced? Etc.;
- **Special sound effects.** You might need the sound of rain, or wind, etc. as they relate to the issue of the programme's focus; and
- **Accents.** You make sure that certain passages are emphasised, (usually by a higher level of volume).

Content and its organisation includes a number of factors such as:

- i. **Opening and closing.** The way you introduce a programme is very important, as it will provide the basis upon which a listener may decide to go on listening or not. Similarly the end of the programme is supposed to provide a punch line that will make the listeners reflect upon or remember the main message or issue;
- ii. **Slogans-themes-logos.** Radio programmes can include certain slogans or recurrent themes as a distinctive mark, as people are likely to associate the slogans with the programme. Similarly these may also be used to promote and reinforce a certain idea/message. You can see this done very effectively in the advertising world. If you are not sure about it, just turn on your radio or your television!
- iii. **Jingles.** These are similar to the ones above, only that they are usually musical slogans that can be easily sung by everybody. Jingles serve to identify a certain programme, message, product to promote and reinforce a certain idea or message;
- iv. **Humour.** According to the format you have selected humour can play an important part. But you should not abuse it, as humour in certain instances may be offensive to people and counterproductive to the objectives of the programme;
- v. **Simplicity of presentation.** This is especially true in the development context. Avoid jargon and complicated treatment of concepts and messages. Always keep in mind the KISS formula - **Kee**P** **I**t **S**imple and **S**traight forward;**
- vi. **Accuracy.** Make sure that the content you are presenting is accurate, and simple to understand. Once broadcast, any inadequacy may have a negative impact on many aspects of the programme;
- vii. **Repetitions and summaries.** It is usually a good practice to repeat more than once the crucial points your programme wants to get across. Try to repeat the same points without duplicating them. That is, treat the point in different ways so that the listeners are exposed to the message more than once but in different ways. At the end of the programme you might also want to summarise the main point/s. Remember to do it in a concise and effective way;

- viii. **Pacing.** This has to do with the speed of the radio production's presentation and the way you order and balance the different parts or segments. A well-paced programme should be neither too fast nor too slow and have all the different segments ordered in a logical and balanced way. Pausing is also part of pacing, as pauses are an important factor and can be accomplished either through music, jingles, slogans or even silence; and
- ix. **Interactive capability.** Programmes using a participatory approach must provide an interactive capability, as seen for instance in the case of the Radio Listening Clubs in Zimbabwe. Phoning, where it exists, can be another way of providing interactivity to a radio programme. This means that you must take into account this factor not only when discussing and presenting the issue but also where there is the possibility for immediate feedback.

Presenters and their style of delivery can be another crucial element determining the success of a programme. Factors associated with presentation include:

- **Clarity of speech.** Do not assume every person, just because he or she knows how to talk, can be equally good as a radio presenter. A presenter needs to articulate his talk well and in an understandable way. He/she also needs to follow, or guide, the pace of the programme, using his/her voice to emphasise crucial points;
- **Source credibility.** If the presenter of the programme has a high credibility rate among listeners, this will certainly help the message to be accepted more easily. Consideration should also be given to the presenter's background (do the listeners consider him/her an insider or an outsider by). Gender is another factor to consider (for instance a woman is more likely to give higher credibility to another woman talking about breast-feeding practices than to a man); and
- **Role models.** Closely related to the above point is the question of role models. If your presenter is somebody people would want to be associated with, or a popular figure that is highly respected, the message in the radio programme will be regarded highly. Again to see how popular people can effectively give prestige and credibility to a product, look at the way the advertisement world uses sports champions as testimonials which associate them to products that often do not have anything to do with their field of expertise.

3.5 Basic Principles of Radio Scripting

Finally, another significant element of radio production that should be noted is scripting. When you are ready to work on the radio script before anything else, define the subject, the purpose, the primary audience and the intended duration. Then go through the material you have researched and recorded in the field. Ideally in a good number of cases this process should be done in the community, with the community.

Here are some tips when you engage in, or supervise the writing, of a radio script:

- **Write for the ear, not for reading.** Spoken language and written language can differ greatly and this needs to be borne in mind all the time. Each word on the script should therefore sound right not necessarily read right. Avoid the use of

big and complicated words, too many adjectives, and any word that may be unfamiliar to your audience;

- **Use imagery.** While trying to keep your language simple and straight forward, try also to be creative and allow your audience to visualise what you are talking about;
- **Use relevant facts.** Facts, especially if listeners can relate to them, help in drawing attention to the message. Facts can be the familiar, something the listeners have experienced directly, or memorable, or something extraordinary or known to everybody;
- **Speak your word as you write them.** As mentioned earlier on, you are writing for the ear. It is good practice therefore to speak the words as you are writing them on paper. The suggestion here is “Think it, Say it, Write it!”
- **Get straight to the point.** Do not cram information and when needed do not be afraid to repeat the information using different ways. Most likely the audience will listen to the programme only once, therefore you need to make sure that they will get the main point/s; and
- **Be informal.** It usually helps to keep the programme, person to person, talking to him/her as you would talk in a normal conversation. Say it the way people say it!

3.6 How to Evaluate a Radio Programme

By now you have seen some of the basic characteristics associated with a good radio programme. On page 63 you will find a prototype Pre-test Checklist Sheet for the audio production that should give you an idea of what to look for when producing a radio programme. Criteria upon which a good programme is evaluated are: the relevance and the accuracy of the content; the interest it generates; the way information or points are treated and transmitted to the listeners, the technical quality and, most of all, how it has achieved the intended objectives. Evaluation, based on these criteria, should be done systematically. It must begin with the script, since it affects a number of factors such as the content accuracy and relevance, pace and message treatment. Once the script has been written it should be read aloud and timed. Whenever possible you should pre-test the programme to make sure it is accurate and easy to understand. The questions below are intended to provide you with a guide for revising and pre-testing a script.

- Is the main point/message coming out loud and clear from the programme?
- Have I done justice to the issue?
- Is the information accurate?
- Have I a strong introduction and a strong ending?
- Have I chosen the right words and the right language (for the ear)?
- Could I have used fewer words and say it more effectively?
- Is it easy to follow?
- Is it interesting to follow throughout the entire programme?
- Does it have a good pace?
- What response do I expect?

- Do the listeners get what I intended to?
- What response do I expect? and,
- Did I use effective slogans/jingles?

4.0 Conclusion

The strengths of radio have made it a potent medium of development communication especially for the developing countries. However, radio is weak as a medium for training and education since it is audio only.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- Radio plays multi-faceted roles in development communication
- Approaches for using radio can be educational, cultural and participatory
- Various radio formats can be adapted to carry development messages
- Scripting and evaluation are significant in radio programming for development

Self Assessment Exercise 3.1

Identify a development-oriented programme on any of Nigerian radio stations and discuss its format and theme. What is your assessment of the usefulness and effectiveness of the programme on the subjects that it is been used to project?

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What are the strengths of radio that give it precedence over other media?
2. In what ways can radio function in communication for development?
3. List and explain the format of radio that can be used for development purposes.

7.0 References/Further Readings

- Ansah, P. (1991). Broadcasting and National development. *Module on Development Communication 2*, Nairobi: African Council for Communication Education.pp33-44
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UNIT 4: THE USE OF TELEVISION AND VIDEO FOR DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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1.0 Introduction

In this unit, we examine the use of television, video and slides sets /filmstrips for development. We will look at their strengths and weaknesses in their use for their development.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Identify the television programme formats that can be used for development communication.
- Discuss the main uses of video for development communication.
- Enumerate the strengths and weaknesses of video in development communication.
- Outline the strengths and weaknesses of slides sets /filmstrips in development communication.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Television for Development

Television as a tool for development has a distinct advantage over radio because of its combination of sight and sound. Television has been found to be effective in situations where radio is limited, like in cases where demonstration is necessary to show a way of doing things such as mixing of fertiliser or oral rehydration therapy (Ansah, 1991).

Television Programme Format

- i. **Documentary:** A TV programme that documents real life events.
- ii. **Cartoon:** A programme that features animated characters.
- iii. **Drama:** A fictional TV story, featuring actors. Drama can generate a high degree of interest and keep the attention of the listeners alive for a long time.
- iv. **Makeover:** A show that helps people change their image or lifestyle. It can be used to address such issues as family planning etc.
- v. **News:** A show that reports world events as they unfold.
- vi. **Cookery:** A programme hosted by famous chefs, who teach people how to cook. This is useful in teaching people about preparing low cost dishes that are beneficial to their health.
- vii. **Talk Show or Chat Show:** Programmes hosted by a TV personality, (or host) featuring guests who talk about their lives and topical development issues. Experts are invited to share their experiences with the viewers.
- viii. **Music:** A TV show featuring live or recorded music. The themes of songs are usually used to raise certain issues or promote certain practices.
- ix. **Lifestyle:** A television show featuring topics such as fashion, diet, exercise, health and leisure pursuits.
- x. **Infomercials** are long-format television commercials, typically five minutes or longer. Infomercials are also known as paid programming. They carry development messages on any issue. An example is the Zip-Up campaign on some Nigerian television stations.
- xi. **DIY:** TV programmes showing people how to do or repairs things. Also known as "Do It Yourself" Programmes. It can be used to teach entrepreneurial skills.
- xii. **Magazine:** This is a TV format usually containing a number of issues or mini-programmes within its time. It can be shaped as a news report or it can have a number of different elements, such as interviews, music and straight talk. Its aim is to inform the viewers on a number of different issues.
- xiii. **Comedy Show:** An amusing TV show where a comedian speaks to entertain the viewers. This phenomenon is becoming popular on Nigerian TV stations and can be used to relate development messages.

- xiv. **Soap:** Also known as a Soap Opera. A fictional drama about people's daily lives. The soap opera has great potential, provided certain conditions are respected.
- The audience maybe led to imitate the behaviour presented by a model if they can see the rewards of the behaviour.
 - The audience may be led to avoid the behaviour presented by a model if they see the negative consequences of the behaviour.
 - The model should be presented in a real situation so that the audience can relate the behaviour to everyday life.
 - When the model adopts a behaviour, the consequences must be clearly seen; if the behaviour is nutrition-enhancing, it should have positive consequences; if it is reprehensible the consequences should be negative.
 - If the audience is to identify with the models, the latter must have characteristics approaching those of the target.
 - These models, however, should be a little superior to the target population (in beauty, intelligence, wealth) so that the target will want to strive to identify with them.
 - If a verbal description of what is happening is added to the presentation (for example, a conclusion) the effect on the target audience will be magnified.

The strengths of television for development communication is clear because it is prestigious, persuasive and it combines audio with visual. However, television tends to be monopolised by powerful interests because of its prestige. It is not always available in all rural areas and it is expensive to run in terms of its production/reception.

3.2 Video for Development

Video is the use of semi-professional or professional videotaping for specific purposes made for narrow audiences, with specific characteristics and interests. It can be produced and shown either in a raw form or in an edited fashion (meaning working on the video material that has been shot, cut it and put it together into an effective format). Sometimes video programmes can also be used and broadcast on television. You should keep in mind that video production could be a complex and expensive task. The main danger with video is that it can often be regarded as the most important aspect of a communication strategy, running into the danger highlighted by Mc Luhan, when he stated that the medium is the message (Mefalopulos & Kamlongera, 2004). Viewers, especially in rural areas, can become very excited with video, but will they be equally excited and alert to the content video is supposed to communicate?

3.2.1 Purpose and Rationale for Using Video

Video is a medium that could be used for a number of purposes. The most common use is the one-way mass communication function, where the message, or a series of messages are passed on to a passive audience, consisting of viewers who cannot

provide any direct feedback to what has been produced. Video, however, could also be used in a more participatory and interpersonal manner, as it has been extensively done by FAO in a number of countries in Latin America and by other organisations in different parts of the world (India is another country where participatory video has been used successfully). People in the community can use video to document and reflect upon issues and activities of collective interest. It can also be used to generate discussion on critical issues.

Before using video you should however closely consider the costs and implications associated with this choice. Bear in mind that video has a language in itself and before thinking how to go about it, you should try to understand the level of visual literacy of the community. By visual literacy it is meant the people's understanding of the technology and of symbols and images, which may be part of the video. You should therefore avoid using video just for the sake of it, as it frequently happens. Video should be used carefully and only after having decided the benefits expected and the full implications of using it.

3.2.2 Main Uses of Video

Video in development can be used effectively for various purposes namely:

- documentation;
- monitoring;
- encouraging participation;
- generating discussion; and
- facilitating the learning process.

Documentation usually implies a series of tasks that can be accomplished effectively only by somebody with a good deal of experience in video. Documenting a process or an activity requires accurate planning before the shooting, in order to highlight effectively the intended content/message. This means that before going into the field to document a project and community activities you need to sit down and prepare a basic plan for your video shooting. You have also to make sure that the video planning is compatible and feasible with the project work plan and the community's daily activities. Once you have done your video planning you must inform all stakeholders about it. When the actual shooting of the video begins, the person operating the video equipment needs to be familiar with a number of technical issues e.g., how to frame a shot properly, lighting requirements, proper audio recording, etc. This ensures the quality of the final product, which usually needs to be of high standard in order for the result to impress project management, policy makers, international donors, governmental institutions, etc. Finally, after the shooting in the field, the material should be edited into an attractive and interesting format. The production of this kind of video can be very expensive. You therefore need to identify funds before beginning the production process.

On the other hand, video can be used in a less demanding, but equally constructive way, by shifting the production process from the experts to the community. The

purpose of video here is not to impress somebody but rather to encourage people's participation, and to generate discussion on crucial issues or facilitate the learning process (concerning new skills or required knowledge). In Latin America FAO has introduced an innovative methodology known as Audio-visual Pedagogy that is based on the principle that the best form of learning is that achieved by doing. Relevant problems are assessed in the field jointly by the extensionists and the farmers. Out of this interaction a pedagogical package, which contains learning issues decided jointly by the extensionist with the farmers, is developed with video at its centre. Problems are discussed and addressed with the support of video. The old model sender-medium-receiver has been changed into interlocutor-medium-interlocutor, (very similar to the model used by the Southern African Development Community- Centre of Communication for Development - SADC-CCD). Video is then planned, produced and played back by the community for the community. When used in this interactive and participatory fashion, video can be a very valuable asset both for the community and for any development project or programme.

There are other instances where video can be used in a participatory way. When discussing an issue for instance the debate can be recorded and then shown to other people (with or without editing). Very often that is enough to stir a lively discussion and raise people's awareness on what is being discussed. Video can act as a filter to express people's opinions, thus making them more impersonal and less sensitive to personal criticism. On the other hand, some people may feel shy or too intimidated to talk in front of a video camera. Such is the power of video that it can also be effectively used to revert the traditional mass media top down approach into a bottom up one.

Video can therefore be effectively used for advocacy in order to allow the community's voice to be heard. Video has a very powerful effect that can be easily and rapidly multiplied by showing it to a number of people or organisations. In such an instance video does not need to have extensive preparations or post-production activities. The poor technical conditions in which the message is presented can actually reinforce the immediacy and the impact of what has been said.

Finally video can also be used effectively for monitoring and evaluation. This aspect could either be done by the community or by video experts. The preparations for this should be however done in a participatory manner. Indicators and checkpoints to be monitored and videotaped should be decided jointly with the community. Usually if properly done this material can be used to produce a video on the whole process, thus documenting, informing and even promoting the projects' achievements.

Video is a flexible enough instrument to be used for a number of purposes as long as you are clear in your mind what it is for. The biggest, and most common, mistake you can make is that of videotaping everything just because you have available the necessary equipment. In this case you are very likely to end up with a mountain of videotapes of very little value. To avoid this, you should plan in advance what you

intend to record. You may not need a full treatment of the video you intend to produce, but at least, you should have some guidelines to direct your video recording.

3.2.3 Strengths and Limitations of Video

While video can be a very appealing medium with many strengths, it also has a few limitations and constraints. Among the major advantages of using video is the high interest it generates and the fact that electronic images can be played back and forth and be discussed immediately (if the necessary equipment is provided). Among the most frequently quoted disadvantages are; the relatively high costs and the technical know-how required to properly operate, maintain the equipment and produce good quality products.

The main advantages of using video are:

- It is a prestigious and persuasive medium. The simple fact of using it often is sufficient to draw people's attention;
- It can be highly persuasive, as it usually enjoys high credibility;
- It is a very effective mass medium and as such, it can reach a great number of people at the same time;
- It can be of immediate use. Pictures and sounds are recorded simultaneously and can be played back on the spot if a monitor or a VCR is available;
- Once the equipment is purchased and well maintained it has minimal running costs;
- It can provide immediate feedback and arguments for educational or raising awareness discussions;
- When post-production is required, video allows a very effective content manipulation to reinforce the intended message or theme and make it more appealing;
- Modern video technology has made the operation of video technology a simple task, within everyone's reach; and
- It is an effective medium for documenting and monitoring community activities. It can also be used effectively in presentation of the community viewpoints to policy makers and decision makers.

On the other hand video has the following disadvantages.

- It has high initial expenses.
- Video equipment is quite delicate, must be stored in an appropriate place and handled with care. It usually requires proper maintenance in order to function properly over a period of time.
- As powerful as it is as a medium, it can also be rather self-absorbing, diverting people's attention from the intended content on to the video itself.
- When used at community level, it tends to be monopolised by powerful interests because of its prestige.
- Loses its mass media connotations in rural areas where TV penetration is low and quite often even when electricity may be lacking.

- When used for informational purposes, it requires complex preparation in terms of content (what should be presented) and format (how it should be presented and shot). Hence it also requires specific know-how seldom available in rural communities.
- When used for informational purposes video can be a very expensive instrument, since on top of the time and costs required for the preparations, you need time and costs for post-production activities (Mefalopulos & Kamlongera, 2004, Andrien, 1994).

3.3 Slides sets /Filmstrips for Development

Many development workers have used slides for a long time both for health education. The slide is often used as a visual aid in a lecture. There are, however, other uses. Slides can be a tool for mobilizing trainees. It enables each person to go through the process of behaviour change (FAO 1998). The trainee becomes aware of the nutrition-related problem, gains interest in the problem and weighs the consequences of relevant behaviours. He can then try the behaviour, make an evaluation and decide whether or not to adopt the behaviour. He also decides on the most convenient way of doing this.

Strengths

- Slide-sets quite simple to produce.
- Low-cost equipment for production and projection.
- Very good colour/visual quality.
- Filmstrips made of robust material and are small, easy to transport.
- Excellent training medium for all subjects except those few for which showing movement is an absolute essential.

Weaknesses

- Production requires laboratory process.
- Cannot be used in daylight without a special rear-projection screen.
- Lacks the appeal of video (which relates to TV in most minds).
- Turning slides into filmstrips requires laboratory process, which is not always available in developing countries.

4.0 Conclusion

Television is an excellent medium for modifying attitudes and bringing about improvement in knowledge and skill. It can also be put into good use for enabling the audience to acquire new skills. When video is used directly in animation for the public, its potential effectiveness is even greater than that of television. Why is this so? This is because in addition to sound and moving images, there is the added dimension of interaction between the presenter and his public. It allows for feedback, and consequent adaptation of the message.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- Television as a tool for development has a distinct advantage over radio because of its combination of sight and sound.
- Video serves a one-way mass communication function and can as well be used in a more participatory and interpersonal manner.
- Video in development can be used for documentation, monitoring, encouraging participation, generating discussion and facilitating the learning process.
- Slides sets /filmstrips can be used for mobilizing trainees and they enable each person to go through the process of behaviour change.

Self Assessment Exercise 4.1

Highlight the advantages and disadvantages of using video for development communication purposes.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What are the television programme formats that you can adapt for development communication?
2. Discuss the main uses of video for development communication.
3. What advantages do television and video have over radio as a tool for development communication?
4. Enumerate the strengths and weaknesses of slides sets /filmstrips in development communication.

7.0 References/Further Readings

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UNIT 5 THE USE OF FOLK MEDIA FOR DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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 3.2 Development Paradigm

 3.3 Development Communication Paradigm

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6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

Folk media consists of theatre, stories, songs, dances chants, town-crier, folktales etc. They are rooted in the culture, norms and values of grassroots populations and are still in existence despite the pervasiveness of modern communication media (Soola, 2003). They are widely available, readily accessible and relatively inexpensive in virtually all cultures. They provide a rich repertoire both in form and theme. They are also sustainable because the cultural imperatives of grassroots communities are honoured in context and presentations. Most importantly, they are a veritable means of conveying development messages.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Identify and briefly describe types of folk media applicable for development communication.
2. Discuss the usefulness of theatre in development communication.
3. Explain the process of using theatre for development communication.
4. Enumerate the strengths and weaknesses of folk media for development communication.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Popular Theatre in Communication for Development

Theatre for Development is used as one way of helping the masses in the developing world to come to terms with their environment and the onus of improving their lot culturally, educationally, politically, economically and socially. It can be used to pass and reinforce certain messages or to uncover and investigate issues.

Various terms are used for Theatre for Development, for example: popular theatre, propaganda theatre, case drama, development theatre or, sometimes, political theatre. Each of these terms indicates to some extent what Theatre for Development is about, but not fully. In this section you will be introduced to the way theatre can be used effectively as a communication technique and medium.

3.1.1 Background and Rationale

Politics and intellectual nationalism today are responsible for the view that performing arts have always been fulfilling a utilitarian role in the community and that encouraging this serves to forestall a people's heritage. Some politicians claim that: There are many reasons why our forefathers chose to use songs, dance, drums and masks to educate their young, to comment on the socio-political conditions in their societies and to preserve their historical legends. One of the reasons is that our forefathers realised that one of the most effective methods of education is through audio-visual aids of what was familiar. In other words our forefathers subscribed to the modern education axiom that if he sees and hears he remembers. They also realised that by presenting ideas through a variety of media such as songs, dance, mime, poetic recitals, ordinary narrative and masquerades one is able to capture the imagination of the people. It was the function of our traditional theatre, not merely to entertain, but also to instruct (Mefalopulos & Kamlongera, 2004).

In this vein, theatre for development has been encouraged as a positive effort building on a people's cultural heritage, using traditional channels and knowledge. Theatre has always been used to exchange or advance knowledge, views and information among peoples of the world from time immemorial. This kind of theatre has existed within festivals or ceremonies of one kind or another. To see the knowledge, views or information invested in this theatre, one has to understand the occasion when it takes place, the manner in which it is done and, the words and language that form its stories. Current use of theatre in development activities stems from recognition of this fact. However, there are practitioners, with more radical views, who believe that the entertainment function of theatre is a deliberate and convenient move to suppress the potential of theatre as a tool for raising the consciousness of the people.

The sudden resurgence of theatre for development in the third world today, highlights the potential of this medium for being a democratic medium, in which the people, i.e., the audience, can play an active part in the making of the content and issues presented. In this way they can relate directly to those issues and fully enjoy the integration of popular and traditional elements with the creative component of theatre. Theatre can

assist in the search for ways of supplementing the mass media, which have been shown to be incapable of effecting change on their own without some intermediary process especially in rural areas. This view is partly supported by some people who state that popular theatre is being encouraged as a tool for adult education. This is due to deficiencies in the existing educational institutions and communication media that stem from elitism of colonial education and its irrelevance to the goals of national development to non-formal education.

One of the burning issues in theatre for development is the role and importance of the artistry. One school of thought believes that whatever the theatre producers do with their people should be well done, polished and professional. Other practitioners tend to de-emphasise this aspect. The message is all they really care about. This position seems to be more prevalent in most developing countries now. The artist is encouraged to identify with the masses. The artist's work must be committed to the needs of his society. Aesthetics are not of primary importance to the people. Survival is the thing. Whether it is political or physical, it is survival and artists must commit themselves to that end. This is an urgent matter too. In other words, artists must also understand that their art should be an 'instant' package in an 'easy to carry' wrapper.

The result of these two parallel demands on the artist has also given rise to 'Theatre for Development' or as some say 'popular theatre'. This is a theatre that combines use of the theatre as a medium for propagating ideas and entertainment. Theatre for development is also being used as a way of exploring problems, views on them and solutions amongst the people. In this regard it is used as precursor to community mobilisation campaigns.

3.1.2 The Nature of Theatre for Development

Areas that come under this theatre vary from straight drama to songs that are employed in any way as media for communicating ideas related to rural development. Let us isolate a few elements of this theatre in order to illustrate how it is created.

• Songs

Usually these are campaign songs composed and sung by teams of development workers either alone or together with the people amongst whom they work. In some cases the songs are recorded on tapes/CDs and distributed all over the country for playing through the radio or portable tape recorders during working sessions. Where the latter is the case the help of properly trained musicians is sought. This is the case in Sierra Leone's project LEARN whose theme was sang by Big Fayia and the Military Jazz Band.

The songs are sung in vernacular languages and usually their tunes are well known adaptations of popular music styles. The guiding principles in composing such songs are:

- a. simple catchy tune,
- b. simple words and lots of repetition,
- c. clear message.

- **Dance**

Dances employed in this theatre are those that already possess within themselves abundant mimetic potential, for what actually takes place here is what should properly be termed dance-drama. Although it is danced to the accompaniment of songs, the dominant part of the music comes from drums, whistles and gourds that are specially designed to play like some form of trumpet. To the beat of such instruments, dancers mime several scenes in which they depict whatever message they choose to show. In theatre for development these messages fall within the total intentions of the project.

- **Puppetry**

A doll or figure representing a person or animal that is moved using the hands inside the figure or by moving rods, strings, or wires attached to it. This usually forms part of mobile information campaigns. It has been used in several places to give development information especially on agriculture. In spite of its popularity amongst practitioners puppetry is losing its grip on its adult audiences. It is found to be too childish in some cases, whereas in some places it is found to be culturally not admissible.

The puppet show takes on a simple story line that the audience is supposed to follow without problems. Usually it builds on stock characters that can easily be identified. Most campaigns using puppetry employ popular recorded music to go with the show. Very often the show is interspersed with such music and commentary other than the puppets' own dialogue.

The problems these shows try to tackle are usually a common phenomenon amongst the audience, so that no questions about the clarity of the message arise. The setting too, is always a direct take-off of everyday life. The drama in these is almost always sustained by quarrels between characters that stand for opposing points of view in the story. The stories are mostly built around imagery from local folklore sources.

- **Drama**

This is the most extensively used of the art forms of the lot considered under Theatre for Development. The work in drama varies from plays performed for villagers by outside groups to plays created and performed by the villagers themselves. As the Sierra Leone experience shows:

These dramas feature the adventure of a typical village farm family. In each story a situation is presented that a Villager might encounter. Some of the dramas show ways that the problem might be solved, while others are left unresolved to encourage the listeners or audience to work out their own solutions. Each drama is in the vernacular languages of the people in which the project is presently being implemented.

3.3 The Process of Theatre for Development

Theatre can be divided in two basic categories according to the way it is used: Theatre-in-Development and Theatre-for-Development. The former is made up of three types:

- a. scripted plays written by some specialists, containing information on a particular subject as understood by the writer and performed by a group of actors in the conventional theatre format;
- b. unscripted plays co-created by a director and a group of actors, on a pre-selected topic and presented formally as conventional theatre; and
- c. scripted plays on a chosen topic but later transformed by the actors before villagers and involving them in the refinement of the final play. This kind of theatre requires its audience to come to a special venue selected by the theatre group. It allows for very limited participation of the audience in the creation of the play and its performance.

Theatre-for-Development on the other hand could be said to be of two types:

- a. that which is created out of researching in the community but performed by the outside artists; and
- b. that which is investigated and created with the community and performed jointly by the artists and members of the community. In both cases the presentations take place in the community itself, and the venue does not necessarily need to have special requirements.

Very often this theatre is a composite of music, drama, dance, masquerade and puppetry found within the community. It can be used both to investigate and probe specific issues as well as to stimulate discussion on issues of interest to the community, thus it can also be used to identify and discuss problem-solving approaches.

Even though the process of Theatre for Development varies according to its purpose the following stages can be adopted in most cases: research, reporting back, creating the story, sketching the story, rehearsing the play, performing the play and after performance.

(a) Research: The process of Theatre for Development starts with research. This is 'informal' research in that it is not set up. The research involves living in and with the community in order to know and learn about the 'life' of the people there in. This involves participating in their happiness, sorrows, celebrations as well as their work. In this way one is able to drink in the socio-economic and cultural aspects of the community. Material and information learnt or gathered during such research provides:

- a. Fodder for the play that will be created;
- b. The way the play will be performed;
- c. The venue which the community actually would choose for performance; and
- d. Issues that the community feels most strongly about.

When a 'theatre' team goes into a community, it should become a part of that community. That is why it is important to dress appropriately i.e., in a manner that is

in line with the communities. The team must ensure that they are not over-dressed or outrageous in their appearance. It is also advisable to work in pairs when going around the village rather than in one large group. In this way the community members being observed and studied do not become overwhelmed.

(b) Reporting Back: After living in and sharing life with the community the team must come back together to report on what they have learnt of the community. Such reports highlight, issues closest to the hearts of members of the community; cultural life of the community; stories of happenings/events and anecdotes or jokes common in the community. Information gathered should include the community's perception of whatever is the subject of concern. Such material provides good stuff for dramatisation.

(c) Creating the story: Material gathered during research should give a 'clear' picture of what the position of the 'issue' of concern is like in the village. It should include stories of individuals, families or sections of the community showing concrete testimonies of how they relate to the issues. Instead of, for instance, saying the people of such and such village do not build latrines although they are aware of it, you should actually have a real person who has not had a latrine and who has had concrete reasons for not having one. This takes you beyond awareness to actual experience of not having a latrine and its consequences.

From such personal testimonies or experiences and individuals, characters for the story and the story itself may be drawn and developed. Instead of speaking in 'general terms and about issues', an individual or specific people are made to live and demonstrate the experience of living with the issues being looked at.

The story so created is fiction. But it is built on actual lived experiences, that the community for whom (later with whom) the drama is being developed will recognise and sometimes even identify with it, depending on how well the dramatisation is done.

(d) Sketching the play

Having created a story from findings gathered in the field, the next step is sketching the play. The goal here is not to create a play script, but an outline of the play scene by scene.

(e) Rehearsing (developing) the play: Using actual stories of happenings gathered during the research, characters could be identified and re-lived before everybody in the team. Here the whole team agrees on whether those 'acting' out these happenings as put together into scenes of the sketch are being truthful. They can also select those individuals who seem best suited for what scenes. This is preparation of the play that is referred to as the rehearsal. The process of rehearsal uses other material gathered during the research. These are the songs, dances or rituals that people do in the village. During the research the team will have observed how people relate to each other, how they walk or talk. From such observations, individuals selected to play particular roles might build their characters.

The idea here is that when the people of the village come to see the play, they should recognise themselves (as a village) in the play. Rehearsals therefore aim at achieving this, quite apart from dramatising and developing the story created earlier on.

(f) Performing the Play: Once the play has been rehearsed and the team is satisfied that it is ready for presentation, they must choose a venue that is accessible to the people in the village. The period of research should reveal which places are used for public celebration in the village. The period should also reveal which time of the day is the best for holding the performance.

Efforts to involve the village community in presenting or even participating in dances from the village should be made. The idea here is to make it as much of the people's own occasion as possible, than that of the team. During the performance, the acting should deliberately offer opportunities for the audience to answer questions or even comment on what is happening in the play. These comments can be repeated and passed on to other members of the audience around issues being depicted in the play. The actors should always take the story back from this dialogue and move it towards the end.

(g) After the performance

The team should get back together to go through experiences of the performance, to examine their own performance and the comments that the people were making as the play was unfolding. This discussion should reveal material for further action either theatrically or on issues under discussion.

Sometimes the people want further discussion on issues in the play, such an opportunity should be provided to them. There might also be need for follow-up action. This has to be taken care of, and whenever possible fulfilled, by the subject specialist/extensionist.

3.2 Other folk media

Other folk media useful in development communication include

1. **Town Crier: somebody who makes public announcements:** somebody employed by a town, especially formerly, to make public announcements in the streets.
2. **Folktales: traditional story:** a story or legend that is passed down orally from one generation to the next and becomes part of a community's tradition
3. **Oral Poetry:** are chants of different types used for various purposes in different occasions by different cultural groups.

Advantages of Folk media

1. Does not require capital investment.
2. Does not depend on technology that is liable to break down.
3. Intrinsically adapted to local cultural scene.
4. May be highly credible and persuasive where folk media has a strong tradition.

Disadvantages of Folk media

1. Requires skilled crafting of development messages into the fabric of the folk media.
2. May lack prestige vis-à-vis more modern media in some societies.
3. May be difficult to organize, and calls for close working relationship between development workers and folk media artists.

4.0 Conclusion

Creative use of folk media-- in cultures where it is popular and well entrenched-- can be a subtle and effective way of introducing development ideas and messages. Care required to ensure that the mix of entertainment and development is appropriate, so furthering the latter without damaging the former.

5.0 Summary

In this unit thus far, you have learnt that:

Self Assessment Exercise 5.1

What is the importance of research in preparing theatre for development?

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Identify and briefly describe types of folk media applicable for development communication.
2. Discuss the usefulness of theatre in development communication.
3. Explain the process of using theatre for development communication.
4. What are the strengths and weaknesses of folk media for development communication?

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UNIT 6 THE USE OF NEW MEDIA TECHNOLOGIES FOR DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

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3.1 Understanding the New Media Technologies

3.2 Potentials of New Media Technologies for Development

3.3 Criticisms against New Media Technologies

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

New media technology is the application of digital (computer) technology to mass communication. They are thus synonymous with information and communication technologies (Wilson III, 1998). They include the use of satellite communication, global system of mobile communication (GSM), Internet and its facilities in form of e-mail and the World Wide Web, as well as computer and the various component such as compact disc, flash drive etc. We shall look at the potentials of these facilities for development and the criticism against them.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Identify the various components that make up the new media.
2. Enumerate the potentials of new media technologies for development.
3. Discuss the criticism against the new media for development in Africa.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Understanding the New Media Technologies

The current changes are the third major transformation in mass media technologies in modern times (Hoggatt 1999). The first took place in the middle of the 19th century, with the introduction of steam-powered printing presses and cheap pulp paper. The result was the first true mass media; the “penny press” newspapers and large-scale

book and magazine publishing industries. The second transformation occurred earlier in the last century with the introduction of over-the-air broadcasting; radio in 1920 and television in 1939. The third mass media transformation - the one we are now in - involves a transition to computer based production, storage and distribution of information and entertainment (Dizard 1997).

This new media pattern is qualitatively different from earlier ones in several ways. Computerization is now the module for all forms of information production: sound, video and print. As a result, computers are forcing a massive restructuring of older media services and at the same time, creating a new set of competing services. Traditional lines between one medium and another erode when they share a common computer module. Fax machines are newspapers. Compact disks are books; satellites are television transmitters. So the new media include the fax, satellite, cable data transmission, computer, compact disk and Internet.

As noted by Wilson III (1998), references to the information revolution reflect the rapid advance in the power and speed of computer, the digitalization of information and the convergence of one separate industry into a new amalgam of production, distribution and consumption activities made possible by the shift from analog to digital technologies (a shift toward messages encoded in a series of 0's and 1's), convergence merges computers, telecommunications, television broadcasting and the internet into a single environment.

With the idea of "information world", it is believed that no meaningful development can take place without the application of the new media technologies to development process. The World Bank, (cited in FAO 1998:16) asserts:

the information revolution offers Africa a dramatic opportunity to leap frog into the future, breaking out of decades of stagnation and decline. Africa must seize this opportunity quickly. If African countries cannot take the advantage of the information revolution and surf this great wave of technological change, they may be crushed by it. In that case, they are likely to be even more marginalized and economically stagnant in the future than they are today.

Development in Africa is then hinged on the adoption and the use of the new media technologies. The idea is that they will enable Africa to leapfrog into the future of buoyancy and progress in every dimension.

3.2 Potentials of New Media Technologies for Development

The enormous benefits derived from them have and will continue to bring them to the fore in nearly every facet of life's activities. The experiences of the developed and fast developing countries demonstrate clearly that information and communication technologies (ICTs) can be exploited to improve various aspects of human life. Some of these areas identified by Tiarniyu (2003) include:

- i. poverty alleviation through creation of a more skilled work force and building capacity through the use of ICTs in literacy improvement, in mass information dissemination, in long distance education, and within formal educational systems.
- ii. Stimulation of local economies, small/medium enterprises (SMEs) and employment opportunities through value added ICTs.
- iii. Improvement of quality of health care through the use of ICT-based diagnostic and health status monitoring instruments in hospitals and health centres.
- iv. Provision of educational opportunities, particularly long distance education for people who would otherwise have been excluded by limited opportunities.
- v. Improvement in agricultural productivity and commerce by using ICTs to better predict and report weather conditions, to process agricultural research data, to disseminate agricultural productivity and marketing information to rural communities, and to enable direct communication between farming communities and produce markets or stage centres.
- vi. Provision of unlimited access to academic resources, online books, journals, research findings, CDs, e-books and participation in e-conferencing or video-conferencing, joining Usenet groups etc.
- vii. Access to significant individuals from across the globe for research collaboration, thus leading to production of knowledge globally and spread of knowledge on an interpersonal scale.
- viii. Creation of more dynamic family relations by breaking the barrier of distance and time, thus meeting the people's social and psychological needs. The use of social networks like Facebook, My Space, Twitter etc. has been very successful in connecting people and improving social relations.
- ix. Improving public administrations by making easier economic planning through faster intra- and inter agency communication and coordination.
- x. Enhancing participatory governance: (the idea of public sphere) by deploying ICTs to provide information channels (e.g. websites, radio or TV, phone in programmes) for governments, legislative houses, opinion leaders, and by using ICTs to facilitate timely access by citizens to government information, etc.
- xi. Enhancing anti-corruption efforts by providing access to information on government earnings and expenditure, thus making government accountable for the nation's expenses.

These, among others, are the benefits offered by the new media technologies. Studies in Uganda, Kenya and Senegal show that the ICTs have had great impacts in the transformation of these societies for the better.

3.3 Criticisms against New Media Technologies

One notable characteristic of the contemporary production of information and communication is its capitalist nature (Scholte 2000). Contemporary production of information and communication has extended the reach of commodification in four major respects: hardware, software, servicing and content. Hardware refers to the

operating equipment through which information and communications are processed. The production of telephones, computers, satellites, television sets and the like, has entailed a major expansion of factory-centred industrial capital in the second half of the twentieth century. Companies, government, universities and households have spent huge sums to enhance their data processing capacities. The 300,000 'desktop' computer sales in the U.S in 1980 increased by 500% the following year and doubled again a year later. Today, despite the high-tech meltdown of the late 1990's, computer sales grow about 10% per year and more than 130 million computers are being sold each year around the world. By the end of 2002, one billion PCs had been sold worldwide (Collins 2004.) In 2004 alone, global sales growth of semi conductors hit \$213 billion (Reuters 2004).

Much surplus accumulation has also been pursued through the production of software, that is, the thousands of digital programmes that process information and communications through the hardware. Software producers have included corporate grants such as Microsoft and Cisco systems, but also hundreds of smaller suppliers. Programmes to effect Internet communications alone granted sales that run into billion dollars. Servicing of the hardware and software has also become a large and profitable industry. Computer technology in particular has required major support. Specialized companies have deployed tens of thousands of employees across the world and generated multiple billions of dollars in annual revenue.

Besides, information and communication industries have widened the scope of capitalisation with large-scale commodification of the content that passes through electronic processing systems. In other words, the convergence of data, ideas, messages and images through supraterritorial space has become a highly profitable business. Not only have information and communications become important to capitalism as facilitations of other processes of accumulation but also as a major object of accumulation themselves.

Unfortunately, the third world countries like Nigeria are at the receiving end of development in ICTs. While the developed worlds make all the gains, our heavy dependence on these infrastructures has left us out, to a great extent, of its maximum gains. We entirely depend on the North for the hardware, software and content of ICTs and as a result large amount of capital flight to the North in exchange for the technologies.

Thus the huge amount required to get these technologies have led to ‘digital divide’ because the weak state of our economy means resources are not always available or be speedily released for the relevant new or existing programmes of action. In other words, the current deep levels of poverty mean that the goals of universal access and utilization of ICTs for development are greatly hampered by inability to pay for them.

Displacement of our culture is another criticism of the new media technologies. The content of the softwares of these technologies are western-based, we are thus daily bombarded with cultures that are not consistent with our customs and norms. A situation that is causing gradual erosion of our own culture and thus bring about cultural homogenization.

It has also been argued that the idea of information society paradigm for development is a resurrection of the extant modernisation theory. In the modernisation era, development was measured in terms of possession of or access to media technologies; telephone, radio, newspapers, magazines and television. The argument is that if the modernization philosophy could not deliver the expected development for the African countries, consequently, the information society approach would not (Roach 1996; Salawu, 2005).

4.0 Conclusion

New media technology and information portals reached through telecommunication networks provide a modern way for people to access, on demand, a wide array of information including establishing direct contact with distant expert sources and government officials. They will deliver the expected benefits with proper utilization and management for development purposes.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- The new media include the fax, satellite, cable data transmission, computer, compact disk, Internet etc.
- Development in Africa is hinged on the adoption and the use of the new media technologies.
- The new media technologies will enhance development in areas such governance, business, agricultural productivity, health, family relations, etc.
- The new media technologies have been criticized for being capitalist, expensive, elitist and expanding the gap between the information poor and the information rich.

Self Assessment Exercise 6.1

Identify the various components that make up the new media.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What are the potentials of new media technologies for development?
2. In what ways can the new media hinder development in Africa and what solutions will you suggest to resolving them?

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UNIT 7: COMMUNITY MEDIA IN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

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3.0 Main Content

3.1 What is Community?

3.2 The Nature Community Media

3.3 Different kinds of community media

3.4 Potentials of community media for development

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

The role of communication and media in development process has been stressed. However, attention has been drawn to the significant role of local media in enhancing development at local level, rural communities especially. This is against the failure of the urban media in meeting development information needs of the rural/communities. The urban media have been criticised to be too elitist, western-oriented and too commercial and as a result 'excommunicating' the rural people. In this unit, we discuss the nature of community media and their potentials for development.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Define community media
2. Enumerate the characteristics of community media
3. Identify the different types of community media
4. Discuss the role that community media can play in development

3.0 Main Content

3.1 What is Community?

The concept of community in communications discourse has tended to be a construct of spatial or social parameters, or both. In the first case, community refers to a specific geographical territory of or within or under a particular political entity. This may be defined as such to include a population under a particular political administration, traditional or otherwise, but certainly constituting only a small portion of the whole of the jurisdiction of the state of a country. The spatial definition is often interchanged with the expression 'local'.

The social conception sees community in terms of "shared interests, tastes and values," and even in "demographic or psychographic terms". This would mean that groups of people who identify themselves with particular social, economic, cultural or political-ideological interests, views and orientations, might constitute a community. They may or may not all reside in a particular geographical area such as a city, a county, or a district under a common political administrative jurisdiction. In this case, the members of the community so defined could be found in different spatial locations, contiguous to each other or not.

Developments in public and 'local' radio systems indicate that definitions of community in mass communication discourse are not static. They seem to be influenced more by the purposes, or specifically the character, of the audiences for whom the media are intended. It could be a community of people residing in a particular geographic locality, or a population sharing a particular social, economic, cultural or political interest, vision or aspiration. AMARC (the World Association of Community Radio Broadcasters), with members on five continents, put a stamp of acceptability to this dual character of community and endorsed the definition that the term could mean "a geographically based group of persons and/or a social group or sector of the public who have common or specific interests (AMARC Africa and Panos Southern Africa, 1998).

3.2 The Nature Community Media

Howley (2005:2) defines community media as:

Grassroots or locally oriented media access initiatives predicated on a profound sense of dissatisfaction with mainstream media form and content, dedicated to the principles of free expression and participatory democracy, and committed to enhancing community relations and promoting community solidarity.

Community media are those media which are developed and managed by people sharing common values and aspirations in a small geographically defined area which promote access and participation for development. These are media, be it newspaper, radio or television which have been adapted for use at the community level for the purpose of development.

Kasoma (1991), in explaining what a rural/community newspaper is says it is:

a regular publication which carries news stories, features, editorials, illustrations and/or pictures as well as advertisements for rural people. It is put together and published by rural folk in their own place.... To qualify as a rural/community newspaper, therefore, a publication should not only be published in rural areas but should also be compiled and published by villagers themselves.

That explanation emphasizes the geographical community in terms of locality and the audience. It stresses the participation of its members in almost all aspects of the process of mass communication: from ownership and establishment of the means of communication to management and production. Others would also equate this system with the concept of 'alternative' media. Masilela (Cited in Karikari, 2000:46), for example sees no distinction between alternative media and community media. According to him:

Alternative media are distinguished by their ownership and management structures, their financing, their regulation, their programming and their policy stances on issues of access and participation. In terms of their ownership and management, alternative media are community-owned and managed through duly elected representatives or direct and voluntary community participation. In terms of their programming, alternative media carry community-oriented programming produced by community members for community members. In terms of their policy stances on issues of access and participation, alternative media are highly responsive to highly targeted audiences and use interactive methods as much as possible.

The characteristics of community media include:

- i. Local/community ownership and management.
- ii. Localised contents and programming;
- iii. Decentralised and democratisation of the media;
- iv. Participatory and interactive;
- v. Non-profit oriented;
- vi. Limited coverage or reach; and
- vii. Utilise appropriate, indigenous material and resources.

The need for a separate rural/community media has been stressed for the following reasons:

- Africa's rural population has remained a voiceless majority for a long time. They have been marginalized in the scheme of things and their interests, as it were, subsumed by the urban interests. This necessitates an alternative media that will provide a voice for this neglected majority and bring their interest to the fore.
- Town-based politicians who represent the rural areas have not done much to inspire genuine development at the local level. The politicians only remember these communities, especially the rural ones during election campaign while

canvassing for votes; but once the election is over, they are forgotten. Local media will be in a position to represent the local populace by reminding these politicians of their promises and projecting the needs of the communities.

- Rural/community media can be a potent tool of communication between the community and their kin as well as the outside world. The local media inform community of recent development and opportunities that can be explored for their development. It brings to the attention of the outside world development problems confronting the local communities with the aim of attracting external aid for their assistance.
- Imbalance of information flow exists between the rural areas and the urban centres. The rural areas are grossly under reported by the urban media, and where they are reported, it is from the point of view of town dwellers by the urban media. Thus, the presence of local media will make up for this imbalance and ensure that the rural communities are properly and adequately covered in the media (Oso,1990).

3.3 Different kinds of community media

Here we look at the various media applicable at the local level. You will observe that we have discussed these media in the previous Units. However, their use at rural/community level is the focus here.

- I. **Community Radio:** The freeing of the airwaves makes access to radio a strong reality. Radio has enormous advantages for community use. The technology offers wide choices to suit different spatial requirements for transmission. Current technology is conducive to participatory programme production and/or presentation. It affords easy collection, recording and playback of events and issues. Radio can also cover several villages or scattered communities at no extra cost. The low literacy rates also make it still the most efficient and accessible mass medium.
- II. **Community Newspaper:** The generally high illiteracy rate, especially in rural and poor communities, makes print media an ambiguous proposition. Literacy rates are even lower in indigenous languages. However, experience shows that they can be used effectively for mobilisation for development, through organised reading clubs and meetings. Their use encourages interest in literacy among the non-literate. With the absence of reading material, community print materials offer the literate a resource for improving their reading skills. For print media to be most relevant, they must be published in the local languages.
- III. **Video:** Video as a medium for communities has severe limitations. Without broadcasting and production on television through transmitters that reach larger audiences, video is usually limited to small groups at a time. This means that many units would be required to meet the needs of many communities, or even

groups in individual communities at a higher cost. The main consumable, the tapes, is also costly. Maintenance also makes extraneous demands. However, being audio-visual, video has qualities of effectiveness in imparting knowledge and skills that other media do not have. It facilitates recording current events and group activities for recall better than do others, and it is thus a medium with greater potential for credibility for non-literate people. Video is recommended strongly to support training, educational and development programmes.

IV. **Audio tapes:** Using audio tapes for community projects has the potential for reaching audiences as groups or as individuals. Their use for group listening, feedback and production is the preferred approach. This creates an atmosphere for dialogue, discussion, and the promotion of understanding and a culture of healthy debate. Audio tapes can be an effective facility for education in a range of issues from health, agriculture, voter or elections awareness to community management. This medium, however, raises some issues pertaining to production and resources. As the community's needs increase, production on a corresponding scale would require appropriate facilities, e.g. a studio with more sophisticated equipment.

V. **Music, drama, and puppets:** Most villages in the region have informal or formal groups of performing artists. Religious groups such as churches have choirs and some schools have drama clubs. Drama groups performing professionally from village to village exist in many districts as well. What are not so widely organised are puppeteers. These forms of media can be popular and facilitate educational programmes of awareness raising, influence behaviour formation and contribute to perception change. But they are most beneficial as complementary or supplementary elements. Though live performances are limited to one audience at a time, they are effective and encourage interpersonal encounters and participation. These forms also unearth creative talents. But they can become more widely accessible if performances are produced and broadcast through other media such as radio, video and audio tapes.

3.4 Potentials of community media for development

Karikari(2000) identified the roles that community media can play in development thus:

1. **Peace-building and development:** The countries are going through, have come out of, or harbour potential sources of violent, disintegrative conflicts. Concerted and consistent education by mass media in peace, human rights, democratic

governance and tolerance is very much needed. Post-conflict reconstruction also requires strong media close to and accessible to local communities.

2. **Socio-economic development:** The persistence and indeed intensification of poverty and deprivation calls for renewed interest in the use of media to support development. Its use for creating general awareness, imparting skills and new technology utilisation is an objective that community media ought to pursue to support local initiatives and efforts. Potentially viable small enterprises and other initiatives flounder because of poor management. Community media can address these through direct educational programming.
3. **Literacy and numeracy:** This is an area that governments have spent considerable energy and finances on since independence. Both print media and radio have been mobilised to promote these objectives. Whatever the results, declining rates of literacy require that communities find opportunities to address the problem. Mass media in the communities must support or initiate such efforts.
4. **Urban social questions:** In the recent past, there has been tremendous expansion in urban populations in the regions of Africa. The cities have expanded through massive rural out-migrations driven by economic factors and civil strife. There has been no corresponding socio-economic development, which has resulted in large numbers of unemployed youths and social problems of all sorts have been aggravated. Crime, prostitution, homelessness, and conflicts have increased. Thus the cities also need community media for urban youths which could address the issues of jobs and projects such as co-operative ventures to build on the creative initiatives of the youths themselves. Such media would provide counselling in health, teenage parenting and social relations. They would address issues of solidarity and mutual help, and respond to some of the challenges arising from increasing atomisation and alienation in rapidly growing cities.
5. **Culture and development:** The cultural dimensions of freedom in Africa are enormous. Central to this question is language. The English-speaking countries of West Africa exemplify the African problem of using a foreign language for governance, mass media communication and the education of its young. The people use their own languages in everyday life. But the laws, constitutions and institutions of daily governance are all in a foreign language. An essential characteristic of community media is that they communicate in the people's own languages. Community media are critical in responding to the language question for the reason that much of indigenous wisdom, knowledge, philosophy and science, being unwritten, is embedded in the language of the people. Development of the languages could open up a new treasure of science and technology. The second important reason is that community media can assist in introducing minority, remote or marginalised languages into the public domain. They can assist in their development and growth which enhance the dignity and self-confidence of the speakers.
6. **Cultural creativity:** Because the creative activities of the people in music, poetry and the arts are in their languages, much of these remain unrecorded. Media actually reproducing the people's creations and experiences would halt the slow death of their cultural heritage.

7. **Democracy and good governance:** The one guarantee for political stability and democratic governance is the involvement of popular social classes in the democratic processes beyond the formal periodic rites of voting. Long term and systematic education in the principles and values of democratic culture, and the consistent involvement of the people in enforcing accountability, and in discussions of public affairs also help in strengthening democracy and good governance. One condition of this is media that are accountable and responsive to popular sentiments. It requires media that constantly provide voices for the community to question the prevailing assumptions of the voice of authority.

4.0 Conclusion

The idea of community media is to enhance development at the local level, since the urban based media have failed to achieve this purpose. Community media can create conditions for marginalised communities to have their own voices. They have the potentials to enhance the opportunities for the wider enjoyment of freedom of expression and enrich and make real the realisation of media pluralism.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- Community media are meant for development at local level
- They are managed by the people, accessible and serve the people's development needs.
- They are instrument of dialogue, peace-building, education and mobilisation of people for development purposes.

Self Assessment Exercise

Discuss the role that community media can play in development.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment 7.1

1. What is community media?
2. What are the characteristics of community media?
3. Are the local media necessary for development
4. Identify and describe different types of community media that you know

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MODULE 4: THEORIES AND MODELS OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

Unit 1 Development communication related theories

Unit 2 Diffusion of innovation theory

Unit 3 ACADA model of development communication

Unit 4 P-Process Model

Unit 5 Research, monitoring and evaluation in development communication

UNIT 1: DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION RELATED THEORIES

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3.3 Theory of Reasoned Action/Theory of Planned Behaviour

3.4 Social Cognitive Theory

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5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

A theory presents a systematic way of understanding events or situations. It is a set of concepts, definitions, and propositions that explain or predict these events or situations by illustrating the relationships between variables. Theories must be applicable to a broad variety of situations. They are, by nature, abstract, and don't have a specified content or topic area. Like empty coffee cups, theories have shapes and boundaries, but nothing inside. They become useful when filled with practical topics, goals, and problems.

Theory gives planners tools for moving beyond intuition to design and evaluate health behaviour and health promotion interventions based on understanding of behaviour. It helps them to step back and consider the larger picture (Glanz, Lewis & Rimer, 1997). Like an artist, a program planner who grounds health interventions in theory creates innovative ways to address specific circumstances. He or she does not depend on a "paint-by-numbers" approach, re-hashing stale ideas, but uses a palette of behaviour theories, skillfully applying them to develop unique, tailored solutions to problems.

In order to change behaviour, campaign designers need to understand why people behave the way they do. Just as theory is important for campaign strategy, it is important for campaign evaluation. Providing the campaign with a theoretical base can both support its development and serve as a basis for its implementation and

evaluation. While a number of theories are relevant to development communication, we only examine four of them in this unit.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Identify the theories that are application to development communication.
- Explain the core assumptions of those theories.
- Describe the application of those theories to development communication.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 AGENDA-SETTING THEORY

Agenda setting refers to the operation of the media which results in prioritisation of the issues that arise and engage the attention of the society. Thereby the issues focused upon by the media become the issues that the public accepts as important for attention and discussion (McQuail, 2005:512). In other words, it is the process whereby the news media lead the public in assigning relative importance to various public issues (Zhu and Blood, 1997). The media agenda influences public agenda not by saying ‘this issue is important’ in an overt way but by giving more space and time to that issue and by giving it more prominent space and time.

Cohen’s (1963:13) study of foreign policy has been a stimulant of the agenda setting research. Cohen notes that the press:

may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about. And it follows from this that the world looks different to different people, depending not only on their personal interests, but also on the map that is drawn for them by the writers, editors and publishers of the papers they read.

McCombs and Shaw’s (1972) investigation lends great credence to the agenda setting hypothesis. They did a content analysis of newspapers and television coverage of the 1968 American presidential election. The analysis considered the time and space accorded to various issues and served as a representative of media agenda. McCombs and Shaw then interviewed 100 undecided voters in the Chapel Hill, North Carolina area and asked them what issues they believed were most important. This public opinion polling served as representation of the public agenda. In looking at the relationships between the two variables (that is, media agenda and public agenda), McCombs and Shaw found an incredible correlation. The public agenda was a virtual reflection of the media agenda.

Severin and Tankard (1997) define this agenda setting process as the media’s capability, through repeated news coverage, of raising the importance of an issue in the public’s mind. It is a causal hypothesis suggesting that media content has an

influence on the public perception of the importance of issues. They argue that the media can be used to influence policies and the way people think. Moreover, since the treatment of the children's rights by individuals hinges heavily on their attitudes and behaviour, the media, through the agenda setting process, can immensely change them into positive attributes towards the children's rights.

As contained in Folarin (2005), the elements involved in agenda setting include:

- The quantity or frequency of reporting by the media.
- Prominence given to the reporting.
- The degree of the conflict generated in the reports.
- Cumulative media-specific effects over time.

Lang and Lang (1983) expanded further on agenda setting by introducing agenda building which they break into six steps:

1. The press highlights some events or activities and makes them stand out.
2. Different kinds of issues require different kinds and amounts of news coverage to gain attention.
3. The events and activities in the focus of attention must be 'framed', or given a field of meanings within which they can be understood.
4. The language used by the media can affect perception of the importance of an issue.
5. The media link the activities or events that have become the focus of attention to secondary symbols whose location on the political landscape is easily recognised.
6. Agenda building is accelerated when well-known and credible individuals begin to speak out on an issue.

The concept of agenda building introduced here suggests that the process of putting an issue on the public's agenda takes time and goes through several stages. It suggests that the media frame an issue and the code word they use to describe it can have an impact; and that the role of well-known individuals commenting on the issue can be an important one. Agenda setting concept thus raises important questions of responsibility for the journalists. The labels that journalists apply to events can have an important influence on whether the public pays attention to the issues connected with the event (Severin and Tankard, 1997).

The agenda setting theory thus provides the basis for examining how the press has been able to set agenda for development issues by assigning relative importance to them through frequency of reporting, the prominence given to such reports and the conflict generated in them.

3.2 Health Belief Model

The Health Belief Model (HBM) is a psychological model that attempts to explain and predict health behaviors. This is done by focusing on the attitudes and beliefs of

individuals. The HBM was first developed in the 1950s by social psychologists Hochbaum, Rosenstock and Kegels working in the U.S. Public Health Services. The model was developed in response to the failure of a free tuberculosis (TB) health screening program. Since then, the HBM has been adapted to explore a variety of long- and short-term health behaviors, including sexual risk behaviors and the transmission of HIV/AIDS.

The HBM is based on the understanding that a person will take a health-related action (i.e., use condoms) if that person:

1. feels that a negative health condition (i.e., HIV) can be avoided,
2. has a positive expectation that by taking a recommended action, he/she will avoid a negative health condition (i.e., using condoms will be effective at preventing HIV), and
3. believes that he/she can successfully take a recommended health action (i.e., he/she can use condoms comfortably and with confidence).

The HBM was spelled out in terms of four constructs representing the perceived threat and net benefits: perceived *susceptibility*, perceived *severity*, perceived *benefits*, and perceived *barriers*.

Concept	Definition	Application
Perceived Susceptibility	One's opinion of chances of getting a condition	Define population(s) at risk, risk levels; personalize risk based on a person's features or behaviour; heighten perceived susceptibility if too low
Perceived Severity	One's opinion of how serious a condition and its consequences are	Specify consequences of the risk and the condition
Perceived Benefits	One's belief in the efficacy of the advised action to reduce risk or seriousness of impact	Define action to take; how, where, when; clarify the positive effects to be expected.
Perceived Barriers	One's opinion of the tangible and psychological costs of the advised action	Identify and reduce barriers through reassurance, incentives, assistance
Cues to Action	Strategies to activate "readiness"	Provide how-to information, promote awareness, reminders.
Self-Efficacy	Confidence in one's ability to take action	Provide training, guidance in performing action.

SOURCE: (Glanz, Lewis, & Rimer, 1997)

These concepts were proposed as accounting for people's "readiness to act." An added concept, *cues to action*, would activate that readiness and stimulate overt behaviour. A recent addition to the HBM is the concept of *self-efficacy*, or one's confidence in the ability to successfully perform an action. This concept was added by Rosenstock and others in 1988 to help the HBM better fit the challenges of changing habitual unhealthy behaviours, such as being sedentary, smoking, or overeating.

The Health Belief Model has been applied to a broad range of health behaviors and subject populations. Three broad areas can be identified (Conner & Norman, 1996): 1) Preventive health behaviors, which include health-promoting (e.g. diet, exercise) and health-risk (e.g. smoking) behaviors as well as vaccination and contraceptive practices. 2) Sick role behaviors, which refer to compliance with recommended medical regimens, usually following professional diagnosis of illness. 3) Clinic use, which includes physician visits for a variety of reasons.

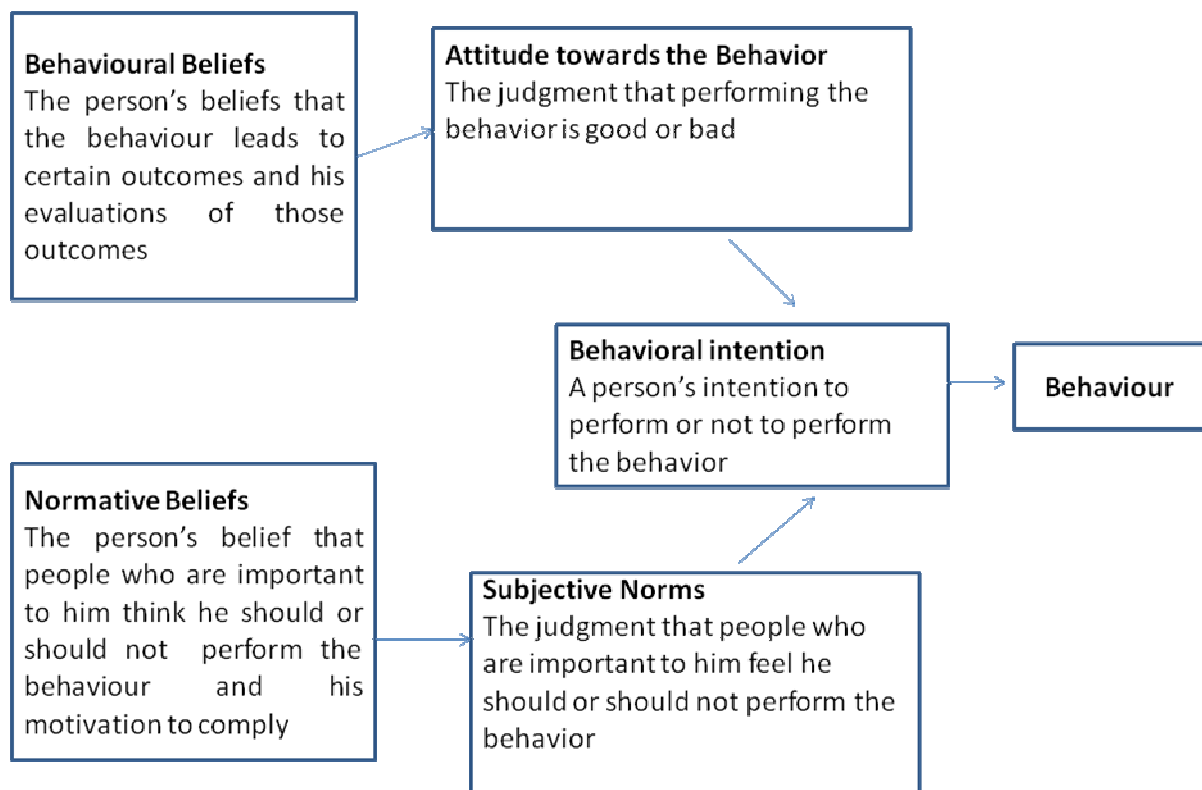
3.3 Theory of Reasoned Action/Theory of Planned Behaviour

This theory provides a framework to study attitudes toward behaviors. It suggests that performance of a given behaviour is primarily determined by the intention to perform that behavior. In other words, the most important determinant of a person's behaviour is behaviour intent. The individual's intention to perform a behaviour is a combination of attitude toward performing the behaviour and subjective norm. The individual's attitude toward the behaviour includes; Behavioural belief, evaluations of behavioural outcome, subjective norm, normative beliefs, and the motivation to comply.

If a person perceives that the outcome from performing behaviour is positive, she/he will have a positive attitude toward performing that behaviour. The opposite can also be stated if the behaviour is thought to be negative. If relevant others see performing the behaviour as positive and the individual is motivated to meet the expectations of relevant others, then a positive subjective norm is expected. If relevant others see the behaviour as negative and the individual wants to meet the expectations of these "others", then the experience is likely to be a negative subjective norm for the individual. Attitudes and subjective norm are measured on scales (as an example the Likert Scale) using phrases or terms such as like/unlike, good/bad, and agree/disagree. The intent to perform a behaviour depends upon the product of the measures of attitude and subjective norm. A positive product indicates behavioural intent (Glanz, Lewis, & Rimer, 1997).

TRA works most successfully when applied to behaviours that are under a person's volitional control. If behaviours are not fully under volitional control, even though a person may be highly motivated by her own attitudes and subjective norm, she may not actually perform the behaviour due to intervening environmental conditions. The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) was developed to predict behaviours in which individuals have incomplete volitional control.

The major difference between TRA and TPB is the addition of a third determinant of behavioural intention, perceived behavioural control. Perceived Behavioural control is determined by two factors: Control Beliefs and Perceived Power. (Madden, Ellen & Ajzen, 1992). Perceived behavioural control indicates that a person's motivation is influenced by how difficult the behaviours are perceived to be, as well as the perception of how successfully the individual can, or cannot, perform the activity. If a person holds strong control beliefs about the existence of factors that will facilitate a behaviour, then the individual will have high perceived control over a behaviour. Conversely, the person will have a low perception of control if she holds strong control beliefs that impede the behaviour. This perception can reflect past experiences, anticipation of upcoming circumstances, and the attitudes of the influential norms that surround the individual.



3.4 Social Cognitive Theory (SCT)

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) describes a dynamic, ongoing process in which personal factors, environmental factors, and human behaviour exert influence upon each other.

According to SCT, three main factors affect the likelihood that a person will change a health behaviour: (1) self-efficacy, (2) goals, and (3) outcome expectancies. If individuals have a sense of personal agency or self-efficacy, they can change behaviours even when faced with obstacles. If they do not feel that they can exercise control over their health behaviour, they are not motivated to act, or to persist through

challenges. As a person adopts new behaviours, this causes changes in both the environment and in the person. Behaviour is not simply a product of the environment and the person, and environment is not simply a product of the person and behaviour.

SCT evolved from research on Social Learning Theory (SLT), which asserts that people learn not only from their own experiences, but by observing the actions of others and the benefits of those actions. Bandura updated SLT, adding the construct of self-efficacy and renaming it SCT. (Though SCT is the dominant version in current practice, it is still sometimes called SLT.) SCT integrates concepts and processes from cognitive, behaviourist, and emotional models of behaviour change, so it includes many constructs. It has been used successfully as the underlying theory for behaviour change in areas ranging from dietary change to pain control.

Reciprocal determinism describes interactions between behaviour, personal factors, and environment, where each influences the others.

Behavioural capability states that, to perform a behaviour, a person must know what to do and how to do it. *Expectations* are the results an individual anticipates from taking action. Bandura considers *self-efficacy* the most important personal factor in behaviour change, and it is a nearly ubiquitous construct in health behaviour theories. Strategies for increasing self-efficacy include: setting incremental goals (e.g., exercising for 10 minutes each day); behavioural contracting (a formal contract, with specified goals and rewards); and monitoring and reinforcement (feedback from self-monitoring or record keeping). *Observational learning*, or *modeling*, refers to the process whereby people learn through the experiences of credible others, rather than through their own experience.

Reinforcements are responses to behaviour that affect whether or not one will repeat it. Positive reinforcements (rewards) increase a person's likelihood of repeating the behaviour. Negative reinforcements may make repeated behaviour more likely by motivating the person to eliminate a negative stimulus (e.g., when drivers put the key in the car's ignition, the beeping alarm reminds them to fasten their seatbelt). Reinforcements can be *internal* or *external*. Internal rewards are things people do to reward themselves. External rewards (e.g., token incentives) encourage continued participation in multiple-session programs, but generally are not effective for sustaining long-term change because they do not bolster a person's own desire or commitment to change.

4.0 Conclusion

The agenda setting theory is majorly for creation of awareness on development issues through the mass media. *The Health Belief Model (HBM)* addresses the individual's perceptions of the threat posed by a health problem (susceptibility, severity), the benefits of avoiding the threat, and factors influencing the decision to act (barriers, cues to action, and self-efficacy). *The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)* examines the relations between an individual's beliefs, attitudes, intentions, behaviour, and

perceived control over that behaviour. Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) describes a dynamic, ongoing process in which personal factors, environmental factors, and human behaviour exert influence upon each other.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far you have learnt that:

- Agenda setting involves the process whereby the news media lead the public in assigning relative importance to various public issues.
- The health belief model emphasized the influence of people's belief on the behaviour they show on a given health issue.
- Theory of reasoned action says that the most important determinant of a person's behaviour is behaviour intent which is invariably influenced by combination of attitude toward performing the behaviour and subjective norm.

Self Assessment Exercise 4.1

Discuss the factors that influence behavioural change according to social cognitive theory.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Define agenda setting of the mass media.
2. What are the elements of agenda setting?
3. What components make up agenda building by the media?
4. What are the core assumptions of health belief model?
5. What is the major difference between theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour?

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UNIT 2 DIFFUSION OF INNOVATION THEORY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 An Innovation
 - 3.2 Communication channel
 - 3.3 Time
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- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

This theory deals with the spread of social change. It describes the process by which social change is effected in the society and the various factors that influence-either positively or negatively the change.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Define the following terms:
 - Diffusion
 - Innovation
 - Innovation-decision process
 - innovativeness
 - innovation rate of adoption
 - Social system
- List the elements of diffusion of innovation
- List and explain the attributes of an innovation
- Identify and explain the stages involved in Innovation-decision process
- List and describe different types of innovation adopters
- Explain the factors that determine the innovation rate of adoption.

3.0 Main Content

Rogers (1962) defines **diffusion** as the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system. Diffusion is a special type of communication concerned with the spread of messages that are perceived as new ideas. The main elements in the diffusion of new ideas are: (1) an innovation, (2) which is communicated through certain channels, (3) over time, (4) among the members of a social system.

3.1 An Innovation is an idea, practice, or object perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption. The characteristics of an innovation, as perceived by the members of a social system, determine its rate of adoption. Five attributes of innovations are: (1) relative advantage, (2) compatibility, (3) complexity, (4) trialability, and (5) observability.

- 1) **Relative Advantage:** The degree to which the innovation is perceived to be superior to current practice
- 2) **Compatibility:** The degree to which the innovation is perceived to be consistent with socio-cultural values, previous ideas, and/or perceived needs
- 3) **Complexity:** The degree to which an innovation is difficult to use or understand.
- 4) **Trialability:** The degree to which the innovation can be experienced on a limited basis
- 5) **Observability:** The degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to potential adopters

Re-invention is the degree to which an innovation is changed or modified by a user in the process of its adoption and implementation.

3.2 A Communication channel is the means by which messages get from one individual to another. We categorize communication channels into two.

- (1) Interpersonal or Mass media in nature.
- (2) Originating from either local or cosmopolite sources.

Interpersonal channels involve a face-to-face exchange between two or more individuals. Mass media channels are means of transmitting messages involving a mass medium such as radio, television, newspapers, and so on, which enable a source of one or a few individuals to reach an audience of many.

Most individuals evaluate an innovation, not on the basis of scientific research by experts, but through the subjective evaluations of near-peers who have adopted the innovation. These near-peers thus serve as role models, whose innovation behaviour tends to be intimidated by others in their system.

3.3 Time

Time is involved in diffusion at three levels:

- (1) the innovation-decision process,
- (2) innovativeness, and
- (3) an innovation's rate of adoption.

1. The **innovation-decision process** is the mental process through which an individual (or other decision-making unit) passes from first knowledge of an innovation to forming an attitude toward the innovation, to a decision to adopt or reject, to implementation of the new idea, and to confirmation of this decision. This

process consists of five stages: knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation, and confirmation.

1. **Knowledge (Awareness stage):** the individual (or decision-making unit) is exposed to the innovation's existence and gains some understanding of how it functions;
2. **Persuasion (Interest stage):** the individual (or other decision-making unit) forms a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the innovation;
3. **Decision (Evaluation stage):** the individual (or other decision-making unit) engages in activities that lead to a choice to adopt or reject the innovation;
4. **Implementation (Trial stage):** the individual (or other decision-making unit) puts an innovation into use; and
5. **Confirmation (Adoption stage):** the individual (or other decision-making unit) seeks reinforcement for an innovation-decision already made, but may reverse this decision if exposed to conflicting messages about the innovation.

The decision stage leads

(1) to adoption, a decision to make full use of an innovation as the best course of action available, or (2) to rejection, a decision not to adopt an innovation. Discontinuance is a decision to reject an innovation after having previously adopted it (Wejnert 2002). Two types of discontinuance are: (1) replacement discontinuance, in which an idea is rejected in order to adopt a better idea that superseded it, and (2) disenchantment discontinuance, in which an idea is rejected as a result of dissatisfaction with its performance.

2. **Innovativeness** is the degree to which an individual or other unit of adoption is relatively earlier in adopting new ideas than other members of a social system. We specify five adopter categories, classifications of the members of a social system on the basis of their innovativeness:

- (1) innovators,
- (2) early adopters,
- (3) early majority.
- (4) late majority, and
- (5) laggards.

Innovators are venturesome types that enjoy being on the cutting edge. The innovation's possible benefits make it exciting; the innovators imagine the possibilities and are eager to give it a try. The implementation and confirmation stages of the innovators' innovation-decisions are of particular value to the subsequent decisions of potential adopters.

Early adopters use the data provided by the innovators' implementation and confirmation of the innovation to make their own adoption decisions. If the opinion leaders observe that the innovation has been effective for the innovators, then they will be encouraged to adopt. This group earns respect for its judicious, well-informed decision-making, and hence this group is where most opinion leaders in a social system reside. Much of the social system does not have the inclination or capability to

remain abreast of the most recent information about innovations, so they instead trust the decisions made by opinion leaders. Additionally, much of the social system merely wants to stay in step with the rest. Since opinion leader adoption is a good indicator that an innovation is going to be adopted by many others, these conformity-loving members are encouraged to adopt.

So a large subsection of the social system follows suit with the trusted opinion leaders. This is the fabled tipping point, where the rate of adoption rapidly increases. The domino effect continues as, even for those who are cautious or have particular qualms with the innovation, adoption becomes a necessity as the implementation of the innovation—decisions of earlier adopters result in social and/or economic benefit. Those who have not adopted lose status or economic viability, and this contextual pressure motivates adoption.

The last adopters, laggards, can either be very traditional or be isolates in their social system. If they are traditional, they are suspicious of innovations and often interact with others who also have traditional values. If they are isolates, their lack of social interaction decreases their awareness of an innovation's demonstrated benefits. It takes much longer than average for laggards to adopt innovations.

Finally, the adopter categories have different communication behaviour. Earlier adopters have more social participation, are more highly interconnected in the interpersonal networks of their system, are more cosmopolite, have more change agent contact, greater exposure to mass media channels, greater exposure to interpersonal communication channels, engage in more active information seeking, have greater knowledge of innovations, and a higher degree of opinion leadership.

3. **Innovation rate of adoption** is the relative speed with which an innovation is adopted by members of a social system. Variables affect its rate of adoption as:

- the type of innovation-decision,
- the nature of communication channels diffusing the innovation at various stages in the innovation process,
- the nature of the social system, and
- the extent of change agents' efforts in diffusing the innovation.

3.4 A social system is a set of interrelated units that are engaged in joint problem-solving to accomplish a common goal. A system has structure, defined as the patterned arrangements of the units in a system, which gives stability and regularity to individual behaviour in a system. Social systems can be characterized as heterophilous or homophilous. On one hand, heterophilous social systems tend to encourage change from system norms. In them, there is more interaction between people from different backgrounds, indicating a greater interest in being exposed to new ideas. These systems have opinion leadership that is more innovative because these systems are desirous of innovation. On the other hand, homophilous social systems tend toward system norms(Wejnert 2002). Most interaction within them is between people from

similar backgrounds. People and ideas that differ from the norm are seen as strange and undesirable. These systems have opinion leadership that is not very innovative because these systems are averse to innovation.

For heterophilous systems, change agents can concentrate on targeting the most elite and innovative opinion leaders and the innovation will trickle-down to non-elites. If an elite opinion leader is convinced to adopt an innovation, the rest will exhibit excitement and readiness to learn and adopt it. The domino effect will commence with enthusiasm rather than resistance.

For homophilous systems, however, encouraging the diffusion of an innovation is a far more difficult business. Change agents must target a wider group of opinion leaders, including some of the less elite, because innovations are less likely to trickle-down. Opinion leaders who adopt innovations in homophilous systems are more likely to be regarded as suspicious and/or dismissed from their opinion leadership. Often, opinion leaders in homophilous systems avoid adopting innovations in hopes of protecting their opinion leadership. Generally, in homophilous systems, opinion leaders do not control attitudes as much as pre-existing norms do. Change agents must, if possible, communicate to opinion leaders a convincing argument in favour of the innovation that accentuates the compatibility of the innovation with system norms. The opinion leaders will then be able to use this argument, which will hopefully resonate with the masses, to support their own adoption decision.

Successful efforts to diffuse an innovation depend on characteristics of the situation. To eliminate a deficit of awareness of an innovation, mass media channels are most appropriate. To change prevailing attitudes about an innovation, it is best to persuade opinion leaders. Further, what we find is that in homophilous social systems are likely to frustrate change agents with their resistance to innovation. It is only for heterophilous social systems that pushing an innovation to the elusive tipping point is a relatively easy thing to do. Norms are the established behaviour patterns for the members of a social system.

Opinion Leadership is the degree to which an individual is able to influence informally other individuals' attitudes or overt behaviour in a desired way with relative frequency.

The **critical mass** occurs at the point at which enough individuals have adopted an innovation that the innovation's further rate of adoption becomes self-sustaining. The critical mass is particularly important in the diffusion of interactive innovations like e-mail, cellular telephones, and teleconferencing, where each additional adopter increases the utility of adoption for all adopters.

Interactivity is the degree to which participants in a communication process can exchange roles in, and have control over, their mutual discourse.

A **threshold** is the number of other individuals who must be engaged in an activity before a given individual will join that activity. An innovator has a low threshold of resistance to adopting a new idea, and so few (or no) interpersonal network influences are needed for adoption.

- a) Decentralized diffusion systems are most appropriate for certain conditions, such as for diffusing innovations that do not involve a high level of technical expertise, among a set of users with relatively heterogeneous conditions.
- b) Certain elements of centralized and decentralized diffusion systems can be combined to form a hybrid diffusion system that uniquely fits a particular situation.

A **change agent** is an individual who attempts to influence clients' innovation-decisions in a direction that is deemed desirable by a change agency(Orr, 2003). Change agents face two main problems:

- a) their social marginality, due to their position midway between a change agency and their client system, and
- b) information overload, the state of an individual or a system in which excessive communication inputs cannot be processed and used, leading to breakdown.

Seven roles of the change agent are:

1. to develop a need for change on the part of clients,
2. to establish an information-exchange relationship,
3. to diagnose problems
4. to create an intent to change in the client,
5. to translate an intent into action,
6. to stabilize adoption and prevent discontinuance, and
7. to achieve a terminal relationship with clients.

A change agent's relative success in securing the adoption of innovations by clients is positively related to:

1. the extent of change agent effort in contacting clients.
2. a client orientation, rather than a change agency orientation,
3. the degree to which the diffusion program is compatible with clients' needs,
4. the change agent's empathy with clients,
5. his or her homophily with clients,
6. credibility in the client's eyes,
7. the extent to which he or she works through opinion leaders, and
8. increasing clients' ability to evaluate innovations.

An aide is a less than fully professional change agent who intensively contacts clients to influence their innovation-decisions(Orr, 2003). Not only do aides provide lower-cost contacts with clients than is possible with professional change agents, but they are also able to help bridge the heterophily gap between professionals and clients, especially lower-socioeconomic clients. Aides have less competence credibility, the degree to which a communication source or channel is perceived as knowledgeable

and expert, but they have greater safety credibility, the degree to which a communication source or channel is perceived as trustworthy. Inauthentic professionalization is the process through which an aide takes on the dress, speech, or other identifying marks of a professional change agent.

Consequences of Innovations

A final way in which a social system influences diffusion is consequences, the changes that occur to an individual or to a social system as a result of the adoption or rejection of an innovation.

Consequences are classified as:

1. **Desirable versus undesirable:** Desirable consequences are the functional effects of an innovation for an individual or for a social system. Undesirable consequences are the dysfunctional effects of an innovation to an individual or to a social system. It is often difficult to avoid value judgements when evaluating consequences as desirable or undesirable. Many innovations cause both positive and negative consequences, and it is thus erroneous to assume that the desirable impacts can be achieved without also experiencing the undesirable effects.
2. **Direct versus indirect:** Direct consequences are the changes to an individual or a system that occur in immediate response to an innovation. Indirect consequences are the changes to an individual or a system that occur as a result of these direct consequences.
3. **Anticipated versus unanticipated:** Anticipated consequences are changes brought on by an innovation that are recognized and intended by the members of a system. Unanticipated consequences are changes that are neither intended nor recognized by the members of a system.

4.0 Conclusion

Three intrinsic elements of an innovation: (1) form, the directly observable physical appearance and substance of an innovation, (2) function, the contribution made by the innovation to the way of life of individuals or to the social system, and (3) meaning, the subjective and frequently subconscious perception of the innovation by members of the social system, affect its level of adoption. Change agents more easily anticipate the form and function of an innovation for their clients than its meaning.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- Diffusion as the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system.
- The characteristics of an innovation, as perceived by the members of a social system, determine its rate of adoption.
- Time is involved in diffusion in (1) the innovation-decision process, (2) innovativeness, and (3) an innovation's rate of adoption.
- The innovation-decision process is the mental process through which an individual (or other decision-making unit) passes from first knowledge of an

innovation to forming an attitude toward the innovation, to a decision to adopt or reject, to implementation of the new idea, and to confirmation of this decision

- The nature of social system determines its disposition to accepting an innovation.

Self Assessment Exercise 4.2

1. Define or explain the following terms:
 - Diffusion
 - Innovation
 - Innovation-decision process
 - innovativeness
 - innovation rate of adoption
 - Social system
 - Opinion leadership
 - Threshold
 - Change agent
 - An aide

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

2. What are the attributes of an innovation?
3. Explain the attributes of an innovation
4. List and describe different types of innovation adopters
5. Discuss the factors that determine the innovation rate of adoption
6. Enumerate the roles of change agents
7. Highlight the factors that will determine the success of change agent in securing the adoption of innovations by clients

7.0 References/Further Readings

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UNIT 3: ACADA MODEL OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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1.0 Introduction

Communication for development may be defined as a researched and planned process crucial for social transformation and operating through three main strategies: advocacy to raise resources and political and social leadership commitment for development goals; social mobilization for wider participation and ownership; and programme communication for bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes and practices among specific participants in programmes (UNICEF, n. d.).

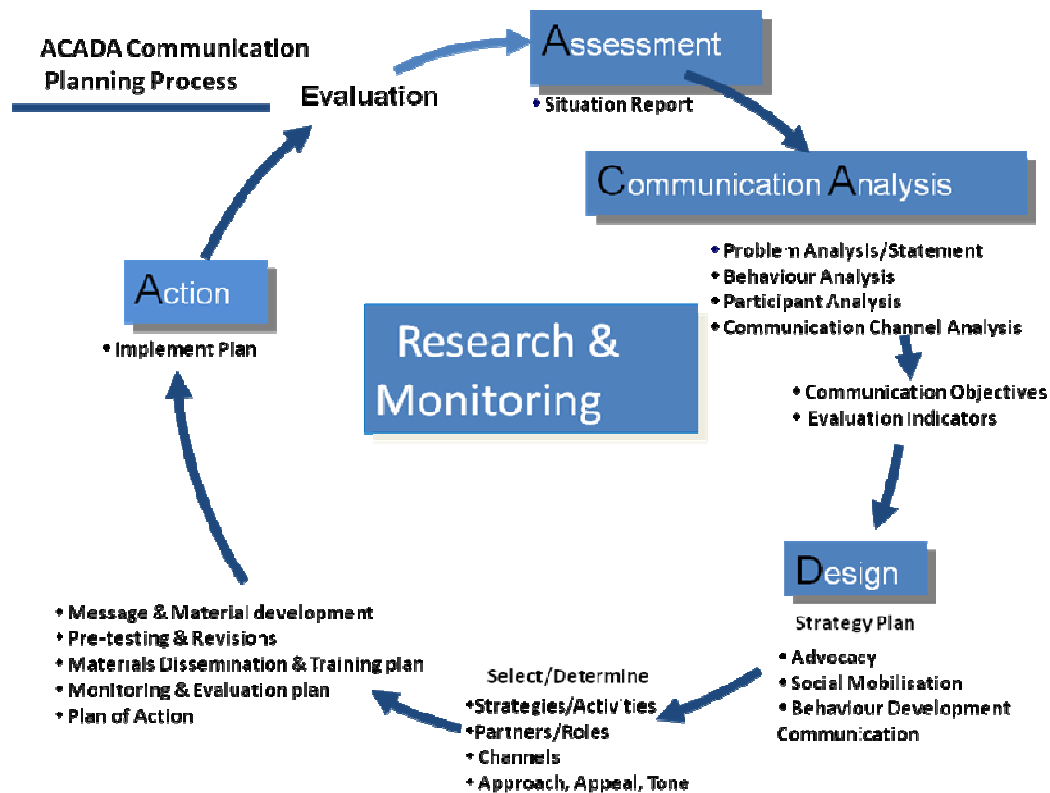
2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Identify the elements of ACADA model
- Enumerate the activities involved in communication analysis.
- Discuss the details of activities at the design stage of ACADA model
- Highlight the key communication activities at the action stage of ACADA model

3.0 Main Content

The ACADA communication planning model is based on the widely used Triple A planning cycle (assessment, analysis, action) as modified to suit communication planning needs. Its circular format emphasizes the reiterative nature of planning. ACADA stands for **A**ssessment, **C**ommunication **A**nalysis, **D**esign and **A**ction.



The result of this strategic planning process is the development of an *integrated communication strategy*:

- that is based on research
- that considers individuals, families and communities within their environment & from their perspective
- that encourages & fosters community participation
- with realistic, measurable objectives & indicators
- with culturally relevant approaches and messages that match the existing levels of KAPBs.

3.1 Assessment

Assessment is the first step in preparation for planning and implementation of effective communication activities. In this step, an effort is made to document the status of the programme as a whole and identify successes, weaknesses, lessons, issues, problems, participants, behaviours, credible channels, etc. Assessment should look at all aspects of the programme, not just communication aspects alone.

The main activity in assessment, then, is to identify what information is missing and to design and carry out research to fill in the gaps. The following are examples of documents that could be reviewed during assessment:

- Reports and other surveillance records
- Relevant research reports

- Existing policies and practices
- Planning guidelines at all levels

In any communication strategy, information is gathered through research to understand its:

- Nature
- Characteristics
- History and current status
- Those involved
- Socioeconomic environment

3.2 Communication analysis

3.2.1 Problem analysis and formulation

The problems identified during assessment may not be problems in their own right, but manifestations, causes or explanations of the main problems. It is important then to begin analysis with the development problem itself, rather than discussing which media to use or what messages to disseminate. Only after painting a clear picture of the problem will it become evident which groups of people, performing particular behaviours with appropriate resources, need to be involved in the communication programme. Analysis also helps to develop messages and strategies that introduce, teach or reinforce performance of desired behaviour more effectively (UNICEF (1999)).

Problem analysis enables us to analyse, in an integrated manner, the problems identified during assessment. In doing this, we distinguish between problems that are behavioural in nature and those that are not. From now on the focus is on behavioural problems and the problem analysis results will be used to arrive at a strong problem statement.

The problem statement answers the following questions:

1. What is happening (are people doing/not doing) that is a problem?
2. Where and when does it usually take place?
3. Whom does it affect?
4. What are the primary effects of the problem?
5. What are the possible causes?

The problem statement should be put in terms of what people are or are not doing so that

it will be clear what aspects of the problem a communication programme can address.

3.2.2 Determine problem behaviour(s) to address.

To determine problem behaviours to address:

- Review all the behavioural causes identified above..
- Rate and prioritize behavioural causes on the basis of changeability and importance.

- Out of important and changeable behaviours, select one to three behaviours to address.

Only a few problem behaviours (no more than three) should be selected at any one time. The fewer the problems, the easier it is to come up with a focused plan that will achieve demonstrable results.

What people know or think is important to health programmes. But it is what they do or fail to do that ultimately impacts programme achievement directly. For this reason, communication programmes should focus on behaviour and not knowledge or attitudes.

Changes in knowledge and attitudes are only intermediate aims in communication for development. Properly planned, behaviour-driven communication should automatically address concerns about knowledge and attitudes as part of the communication package. Communication is only effective when it is applied to behaviours that can change. The more changeable the behaviour, the more effective communication interventions are likely to be. Another factor to consider is the importance of the behaviour in solving the key problem.

3.2.3 Conduct behaviour analysis

After determining problem behaviours to focus on, the next step is to analyse the chosen problem behaviours in order to understand them better and determine the behaviours to promote in their place. The behaviours are analysed on the basis of research findings.

3.2.4 Conduct participant analysis

During participant analysis, all categories of stakeholders that ought to be involved in the communication effort as either target audiences, partners or allies are identified and analysed. This includes identifying organizations that can support communication efforts as well.

The first sets of audience to identify are primary and secondary target audiences. Communication target audiences are identified in relation to key problem behaviours or behaviours to be promoted. The general audiences identified should be reviewed further to determine whether there is a need to subdivide them into narrower audience categories that can be reached more effectively with specific targeted communication efforts. These and related questions should help communication planners decide on the sub-categories of the general target audiences they will finally focus on. Ideally, each target group identified should be defined by at least three characteristics. These characteristics can include marital status, age, level of education, socio-economic status, area of residence, religious affiliation, number of children, etc.

In addition to determining primary and secondary audiences, participant analysis is concerned with identifying other individuals and institutions that may be enlisted to support behaviour change and behaviour development in the community. Partners

may play an advocacy, social mobilization or programme communication role. Many may play more than one role at the same time.

These partners will include: Advocacy partners- those who holds the key to programme acceptance in this community and other influential people/groups; Social mobilization partners-the agency or individuals who are interested in or working on development programme and the facilities they have (networks in the community, personnel, experience, training facilities, funds, transport, etc.) and Programme communication partners- are normally based in the community and can motivate target audiences to adopt the behaviour being promoted.

Conduct channels/media analysis

Channels and media analysis provides answers to the following questions:

- What channels of communication are available for reaching the identified target audiences?
- What are the strengths and weaknesses of each channel?
- How effective are the channels in reaching the target audiences we wish to reach with the message(s) we plan to deliver?
- Where do people seek information on the development issue? Why do they go to this particular place or individual? How can the place or individual be integrated in promotion of immunization messages?

Structures through which messages can be disseminated to reach ultimate beneficiaries in the community should be closely analysed and strategic ones selected and incorporated into the programme. Selection of appropriate structures should ensure that messages reach intended target audiences.

3.2.5 Develop communication objectives

Having carried out the essential assessment and analysis, we are now in a position to state communication objectives to form the basis of our interventions.

First, an objective is a statement of the desired end result. The desired end result in communication for development is change from a problem behaviour (such as keeping children with AFP at home) to a desirable behaviour (such as notifying a health worker about children with AFP within 24 hours). Since the desired end result is behaviour change, communication objectives should be stated in behaviour (and not knowledge or attitude) terms.

Second, objectives must be specific and must be stated in such a way that they can be interpreted only one way. Vague objectives will be interpreted differently by different people and this will cause confusion. Besides, when objectives are vague, it is difficult to establish when they have been met or not. Good objectives are, therefore, SMART:

Specific: Objectives clearly state what is desired in terms of the end result.

Measurable: Criteria are specified for how the output will be measured in terms of quality, quantity, timeliness and/or cost.

Appropriate: Objectives should be culturally and locally acceptable.

Realistic: Objectives should be within realistic control of the individual but

ambitious enough to challenge.

Time-bound: Time (and/or milestones) by which objective to be achieved is stated.

Communication objectives are derived from the problem behaviour and behaviours to promote.

3.2.6 Develop strategies and activities

An objective is a statement of the desired end result. In this section we seek an answer to the question: How do we reach the desired end result? As all development workers know, we get to the objective by developing and implementing appropriate strategies and activities. The figure below illustrates the relationship between objectives, strategies and activities (UNICEF, 2000).

A strategy is a short statement or phrase indicating a general methodology to be used to achieve a stated objective. In that form, the statement is too general to be implemented. It needs to be redefined and amplified to be acted upon. Activities amplify a strategy, giving it the details it needs to be implementable. Example: training health workers to disseminate key messages to caretakers. As a strategy, it is stated in only one phrase that cannot be implemented. Activities give the strategy greater definition and break it into individual units that can be implemented and scheduled on an action plan.



Illustration on how to move from objectives to strategies and activity statements.

3.2.6 Develop monitoring and evaluation indicators

Many communication programmes omit monitoring and evaluation, thereby missing the opportunity to track the performance and impact of their programmes. Communication planners are urged to break these practices and ensure that monitoring and evaluation indicators are established and used appropriately in EPI programmes. Monitoring and evaluation activities will enable communication planners to gain greater understanding of their programmes and find ways and means of strengthening them.

Monitoring and evaluation indicators are drawn mainly from programme objectives/activities and may be classified in three main categories, depending on the aspects of the programme to be assessed and how soon after commencement of the project evaluation is expected to take place.

Process indicators focus on short-term achievements of a programme and programme activities and the performance of programme processes and administrative and logistic arrangements. These indicators deal with the following questions: Were activities implemented as planned? How efficiently? How well did administrative and logistic arrangements work?

Impact indicators are useful in assessing medium-term effects of a programme. Impact evaluation usually uses quantitative research methods and provides information on the extent to which programme objectives have been achieved.

Outcome indicators are useful in providing information on the long-term effects of programme interventions. In a health programme, outcome indicators assess change in morbidity, mortality, health status and quality of life. Outcome evaluation uses quantitative research methods.

3.3 Design

3.3.1 Develop plans for message development

Frizelle, Solomon & Rau (2009) noted that planning for message development involves decision-making in three main areas:

- Determining message concepts that will bring about the desired behaviour change.
- Selecting the communication approach.
- Choosing the message appeal or tone.

I. Determining message concepts

Messages to be communicated depend on target audiences, behaviours to promote and factors likely to influence target audiences to adopt the desired behaviour.

Good messages:

- Reinforce positive factors identified on the grid above.
- Address misunderstandings and areas of deficient knowledge.
- Address attitudes.
- Give the benefits of behaviours being promoted.
- Urge specific action.
- State where to find the services being promoted.
- State where to find help, if needed.
- Address barriers to action.

II. Choosing the communication approach

During planning for message development, communication planners determine the

basic communication approach they wish to take. Depending on the communication problem and research findings, planners may wish to take any or a combination of the following approaches:

- Informing
- Entertaining
- Persuading
- Educating
- Empowering

III. Choosing the message appeal or tone

Communication planners also determine the appeal that the messages should have. Depending on research findings, and the behaviours that need to be promoted, planners may select any or a combination of the following possible message tones:

- Positive or negative
- Rational or emotional
- Mass or individual
- Humorous or serious
- One- or two-sided
- Direct or indirect
- Definite or open-ended
- From a peer or from an authoritative source

3.3.2 Develop plans for material development

Many different materials can be developed to enhance communication. These materials should be determined on the basis of the target audience and the channel/setting in which the materials will be used. The worksheet below may be used in determining the materials to develop.

		Materials to develop		
Strategy	Target Audience	Mass media	Group settings	One-on-one
Advocacy				
Social mobilization				
Programme communication				
Training				

Programmes should avoid developing posters, calendars, booklets and similar materials merely because many organizations develop them. Educational materials should be:

- Appropriate to the topic and target audience.
- Appropriate to the context/setting in which they will be used.

i. Draft messages and concepts

After media, materials and editorial format have been selected, message developers now draft messages and sketch concepts for illustrations. The drafts and sketches represent initial ideas of the message development team. During these initial stages, it is advisable to develop several concepts for the same idea to see which one communicates the desired message best.

ii. Review, pretest and revise text and concepts

It is advisable always to develop educational materials with the support of a committee that includes technical experts and representatives of the key target audiences. The committee is of invaluable help in reviewing and advising on factual information and other aspects, such as possible interpretations and other flaws that may creep in.

Draft scripts and illustrations should be thoroughly reviewed by committee members and other technical people or gatekeepers (such as religious leaders) and appropriate changes made. The revised drafts should then be tested on a limited number of individuals' representative of the target audiences. Materials should be pretested with both primary and secondary audiences.

iii. Development of educational materials

During material development, messages and concepts that have been tested are now developed and packaged into complete educational materials. Good communication materials express ideas simply, clearly and directly, using language, images and examples that target audiences are familiar with.

3.3.3 Develop plans for dissemination

Since the beginning of this planning process, many decisions that go into the communication plan have been taken. In this section, we think about how the pieces will fit together:

- How the messages will reach intended audiences.
- How educational materials will be distributed.
- How educational materials will be used.

Developing the dissemination plan involves, first, matching target audiences with activities, the settings in which they will take place, and materials that will be used to support those activities. Second, it involves developing a material distribution strategy and guidelines on how the materials can best be used.

3.4 Action

Action involves implementing communication activities for development programme. It is organized into four main sections:

- Management structures and processes
- Communication management instruments

- Staffing and institutional skills
- Key communication activities

3.4.1 Management structures and processes

Organizational structures and work processes influence the quality and effectiveness of activities, including communication activities. EPI programmes should, therefore, review their structures to ensure that they have the capacity to support implementation of effective communication programmes.

3.4.2 Communication management instruments

The main aim of communication programmes is to bring about the desired behaviour change. The behaviour change process is a complex one, and needs to be managed effectively using appropriate instruments. These include:

- Communication strategy plan and plan of action- form the basis for implementing communication activities and should be developed regularly with the participation of all development agents and partners.
- Monitoring system and monitoring formats- this helps programme managers to know how implementation of planned activities
- Supervision system and checklist- Communication activities are complex. They often spread throughout the country and involve many people. These include paid staff and various volunteers. Some of the people participating are convinced about what they are doing and have the skills and commitment to participate effectively, while others need to be trained, encouraged, guided and supported to make a contribution. Supervision provides the needed on-the-job training, encouragement, guidance and support.

3.4.3 Staffing and institutional skills

There is generally low shortage of staff in communication activities, hence the need to assess the communication skills available and take steps to upgrade them as required.

3.4.4 Key communication activities

Here we spell out ideas on how to implement key activities that form the backbone of programme communication (UNICEF, 2000):

- i. **Training and capacity-building-** Programmes will need to include appropriate training activities in their communication plans. Programmes will only deliver the desired goals if staff, volunteers and other individuals expected to play a role receive adequate orientation and training to work.
- ii. **Integrating and phasing development programme/ communication-** The communication component and a development programme should be well integrated. Necessary campaign of the programme at different stages should be carried out as planned.
- iii. **Using media mix and varied communication opportunities-** The need to use

a mix of media and communication settings (mass, group and one-on-one) cannot be underscored. This is because different communication settings have different strengths and weaknesses, and use of a combination of media and communication settings produces superior results. A leading weakness in development programmes is the tendency to excessively use mass communication and mass events and underutilize interpersonal communication (both group and one-on-one). This is in spite of the fact that interpersonal communication strategies have been proven to be very effective in bringing about behaviour change and are particularly effective in Africa where literacy levels are relatively low. Programmes are strongly urged to strengthen use of interpersonal communication through appropriate training, supportive supervision and other strategies.

- iv. **Monitoring communication activities-** routine monitoring, documentation and utilization of monitoring information to identify and correct programme flaws is key to the implementation of good-quality communication programmes.
- v. **Supervising communication activities-** This will involve routine monitoring of field activities, discussions with the people on the ground to identify strengths to be reinforced and weaknesses to be corrected, developing follow-up and improvement strategies and supporting the team on the ground to implement improvement strategies.
- vi. **Evaluating communication activities-** Communication programmes need to be systematically evaluated to determine their performance, their accomplishments and the action that needs to be taken to improve the situation. Evaluation is discussed in detail in Chapter Nine.

4.0 Conclusion

It is necessary to stress that the planning, implementing and assessing of communication inputs are not really a series of discreet, independent steps. In fact, everything is inter-related. For example, as you set objectives you are really taking the first steps toward monitoring and evaluation. As you conduct your Assessment, you are also beginning the behavioural analysis of various participant groups.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- Communication for development is a process crucial for social transformation and operates through advocacy, social mobilization and programme communication.
- ACADA model of development communication stands for assessment, communication analysis, design and action.
- The elements of ACADA model are not a series of discreet, independent steps but interrelated.

Self Assessment Exercise 4.3

Highlight the key communication activities at the action stage of ACADA model.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What are the elements of ACADA model of development communication?
2. Enumerate the activities involved in communication analysis.
3. Discuss the details of activities at the design stage of ACADA model

7.0 References/Further Readings

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UNIT 4: THE P-PROCESS MODEL

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1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

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5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

The Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health/Centre for Communication Programs (CCP) and its partners in the USAID-supported Population Communication Services (PCS) project developed the P-Process in 1982 as a tool for planning strategic, evidence-based communication programs (O’Sullivan et al., 2003). Two decades later, the P-Process continues to influence the development, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of numerous communication strategies, projects, and programs — as well as communication materials and tools for mass and community-based media, interpersonal communication and counselling (IPC/C), and training and capacity strengthening in strategic communication. Through numerous communication interventions, the impact of the P-Process spans the globe.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- List the 5 stages of P-process model
- Explain each of the stages involved in P-process model
- Highlight the activities in situation analysis
- Highlight the activities involved in audience/communication analysis
- Discuss the steps involved in programme strategic design
- Summarize the activities in material development and testing
- Describe what programme implementation and monitoring entail

3.0 Main Content

Communicating strategically requires a clearly defined strategy with specific goals established in advance. The P-Process is a framework designed to guide communication professionals as they develop strategic communication programs. This step-by-step road map leads communication professionals from a loosely defined concept about changing behaviour to a strategic and participatory programme with a measurable impact on the intended audience.

The P-Process is used to develop communication programmes addressing a wide range of topics such as encouraging safer sexual behaviour to prevent HIV transmission, promoting child survival, reducing maternal mortality, increasing contraceptive prevalence, preventing infectious diseases, or promoting environmental health. The Health Communication Partnership (HCP) addresses family planning, maternal health, child survival, HIV/AIDS, and other infectious diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis (Health Communication Partnership, HCP, 2003). HCP's programs are designed to initiate positive change across three broad domains: within social-political environments, in health service delivery systems, and among communities and individuals. The P-Process is key to designing successful communication strategies to strengthen public health worldwide.

Used successfully around the world to design health communication programs since 1982, the original P-Process has now been revised to reflect better both the goals of HCP and the overall evolution in the field of strategic communication in the past decade. Major changes include the following:

Participation and Capacity Strengthening

These two concepts appear throughout the new P process because they are considered essential to building strong partnerships and coalitions from the international and national level to the local and community level. Both concepts are also crucial to increase the sustainability of program efforts and outcomes.

Expanded Analysis

Although the first step remains “analysis,” this revised P-Process divides Step One into a situation analysis and a communication and audience analysis.

Emphasis on Community and Processes

In Step Three, this revised P-Process underscores the need for participatory processes and the facilitation of group action to address health issues.

Implementation and Monitoring

Step Four of the “P” is larger to indicate the relative significance of this step in any programme.

Management and Feedback

The original P-Process linked management to implementation and monitoring in Step Four. In this revised version, management is no longer exclusively presented as part of the fourth step because it is central to and inferred in all steps of the communication programming process.

Return to Analysis or Strategic Design

The original P-Process completed the circle of the “P” by bringing Step Five—impact evaluation—back to the design stage. This revision allows communication professionals to use impact evaluation results to return to either the design stage, if expanding or revising existing programmes, or to the analysis stage, if developing new programmes.

3.1 Step 1: Analysis

Analysis is the first step in developing effective communication programs, but this step does not need to be long and detailed if the programme is built upon well-

documented past experiences. Programme staff need to understand the problem, the people, their culture, existing policies and programs, active organizations, and available communication channels. Usually much of the situation analysis is available from demographic, epidemiological, sociological, and economic studies and accessing such data will speed up the steps below.

Situation Analysis

Conduct a situation analysis resulting in an in-depth description of the major health and development problems being addressed:

- Determine severity and causes of problems: Review existing health and demographic data, survey results, study findings, and any other information available on the problem.
- Identify factors inhibiting or facilitating desired changes: Consider the basic social, cultural, and economic challenges facing the people the program would like to reach.
- Develop a problem statement: Develop a clear statement that sums up the problems to be addressed.
- Carry out formative research: Listen to understand the audiences' needs and priorities. Conduct baseline research, both quantitative and qualitative, to establish the current status and accurately measure the programme's progress and final impact.

Audience/Communication Analysis

From the overall situation analysis, carry out a detailed audience and communication analysis.

- Conduct a participation analysis: At the national and international level, identify partners and allies to help initiate policy change and strengthen communication interventions. At the community level, segment the primary, secondary, and tertiary audiences. Identify field workers/change agents.
- Carry out a social and behavioural analysis: Assess knowledge, attitudes, skills, and behaviours of participants at the individual level using data from formative research and additional in-depth studies, if required. Identify social networks, socio-cultural norms, collective efficacy, and community dynamics (including leadership patterns) at the community level.
- Assess communication and training needs: Analyze audiences' media access and use; the capacity strengthening needs of local media, traditional media, NGOs, and communication agencies; the organizational capacity of partners and allies; and other resource needs. Determine the availability of communication materials and skills development needed for interpersonal communication and counselling.

3.2 Step 2: Strategic Design

Every communication programme or project needs a strategic design. Follow these steps:

- Establish communication objectives: Set objectives that are Specific, Measurable, Appropriate, Realistic, and Time-bound (SMART). Select key audience segments and quantify the changes in knowledge, attitudes, skills, behaviours, policies, or process changes expected within a specific time.
- Develop programme approaches & positioning: Select a behaviour change model upon which to base the programme. Explicitly state the assumptions underlying the basic strategy and approach. Explain why and how the programme is expected to change health behaviour. Position the programme clearly to benefit the audience.
- Determine channels: Consider a coordinated, multimedia approach for a synergistic impact. Where possible, achieve scale by including mass media tied to community mobilization and interpersonal communication among family, friends, community, social networks, and service providers.
- Draw up an implementation plan: Develop a work schedule with regular benchmarks to monitor progress. Prepare a line-item budget. Complete a management plan, including partners' roles and responsibilities. Make sure all involved know what is expected.
- Develop a monitoring and evaluation plan: Identify indicators and data sources to monitor programme implementation as well as audience reaction to it. Select the study design to measure process outcomes and assess impact.

3.3 Step 3: Development and Testing

Developing concepts, materials, messages, stories, and participatory processes combines science and art. These not only must be guided by the analysis and strategic design in Steps One and Two, but also must be creative to evoke emotion that motivates audiences.

- Develop: This step may involve the development of guidelines, tools, toolkits, possibly including facilitation manuals for group interaction or training manuals for counselling, job aids for service providers, an interactive Internet process, TV or radio scripts, educational comic books, or any number of other interventions. Involve key stakeholders — managers, field workers, and members of the audience — in design workshops to ensure that the end products meet their needs.
- Test: Test concept with stakeholders and representatives of the audiences to be reached. Follow concept testing with in-depth pretesting of materials, messages, and processes with primary, secondary, and tertiary audiences. Feedback results to partners and allies to ensure maximum ownership and use.
- Revise: Make changes based on pretest results for messages, stories, or participatory processes that are not understood correctly, not remembered, or are not socially or culturally acceptable.
- Retest: Retest materials to ensure revisions are done well and make final adjustments before replication, printing, or final productions.

3.4 Step 4: Implementation and Monitoring

Implementation emphasizes maximum participation, flexibility, and training. Monitoring involves tracking outputs to be sure that all activities take place as planned and potential problems are promptly addressed.

- **Produce and disseminate:** Develop and implement a dissemination plan that may include local government, NGOs, the private sector, as appropriate, and the media for maximum coverage.
- **Train trainers and field workers:** Plan for training at all levels. Begin with training of trainers (TOT). Provide continuing opportunities for more training. Concentrate on building institutional capacity and teamwork as well as individual skills.
- **Mobilize key participants:** Share information, results, and credit with partners, allies, and communities. Keep everyone involved motivated towards the strategic goal.
- **Manage and monitor program:** Check program outputs to ensure quality and consistency, while maximizing participation. Track existing service statistics and conduct special studies using surveys, focus groups, observation, and other techniques to measure outputs as well as audience reaction.
- **Adjust program based on monitoring:** Use data from monitoring to make mid-course corrections or adjustments in activities, materials, and procedures and to fine-tune program components.

3.5 Step 5: Evaluation and Replanning

Evaluation measures how well a program achieves its objectives. It can explain why a program is effective (or not), including the effects of different activities on different audiences. Sound program evaluation stimulates program improvements and redesign, guides cost-effective future funding allocations, and supports advocacy and fundraising.

- **Measure outcomes and assess impact:** Many evaluations measure outcomes to determine if the desired change has occurred in knowledge, attitudes, or behaviour among the intended audience, or in a given policy relevant to the program. More rigorous study designs assess impact, which links the change in outcome to one or more intervention activities.
- **Disseminate results:** It is important that everyone involved be aware of the program's impact, whether it is positive or not. Share impact results widely with partners, allies, key stakeholders, the media, and funding agencies.
- **Determine future needs:** Results demonstrate where follow-up is needed and where program activities can be extended.
- **Revise/redesign program:** A good evaluation will show if the program is weak and where it needs revision in design processes, materials, or overall strategies and activities. Alternatively, and sometimes simultaneously, it will show what works and how to replicate positive impact. Program staff may have to return to the analysis stage if the situation changes markedly or if new causes are found for problems being addressed.

4.0 Conclusion

It is necessary to keep two things in mind throughout the process:

I. Participation

A strong communication program should fully engage multiple stakeholders at the national, district, and community level.

II. Capacity strengthening

A successful plan always considers ways to build capacity at the institutional and community level.

It is also important to remember that monitoring and feedback are essential elements of good management.

- Well-managed and facilitated strategic communication programmes can have a measurable impact.
- A well-managed program tracks outputs to ensure quality and timely delivery throughout the program period.
- Programme effectiveness and sustainability are enhanced by involving stakeholders whenever possible.
- Involving stakeholders ensures that programs match their needs, and it builds their capacity to design and manage their own health communication programme in the future.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- The P-Process is a framework designed to guide communication professionals as they develop strategic communication programmes.
- The first stage entails analysis where programme staff need to understand the problem, the people, their culture, existing policies and programs, active organizations, and available communication channels.
- The second stage is strategic design which involves establishing objectives, determining channels of communication and drawing up plan of implementation, as well as monitoring plans.
- Developing materials, testing and pretesting take place at the third stage
- Programmes need to be monitored to ensure that they are executed as planned
- Assessment of the programme comes last, this is necessary for future improvement on programme implementation.

Self Assessment Exercise 4.4

Summarize the activities in material development and testing

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Explain the steps involved in the P-process model
2. In what ways is the revised model different from the first model
3. Discuss the steps involved in programme strategic design
4. Describe what programme implementation and monitoring entail

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UNIT 5 RESEARCH, MONITORING AND EVALUATION IN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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1.0 Introduction

Research is fundamental to a successful communication programme. From the planning stage, to ensure a participatory communication programme, to the implementation stage, research plays a role. Even for the monitoring and evaluation of communication programme, research is used. Strengthened research, monitoring and evaluation components will lead to improved communication programmes with built-in mechanisms for detecting and correcting programme flaws

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Identify the various methods of research applicable in development communication.
2. Explain the uses of research at different stages of communication programme.
3. Highlight the various methods that may be used to monitor programme implementation.
4. List and discuss the three types of evaluation.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Research Methods in Development Communication

Communication uses the same research methods as those used in other areas of social development. The methods may be divided into two broad categories, quantitative and qualitative. Both categories of research are needed in communication. Quantitative research is descriptive and statistical and is concerned with numbers, measurements and percentages. Qualitative research is interpretative, and probes motives, attitudes and feelings. Within the two broad classifications of qualitative and quantitative research are many research methods available to social researchers.

3.1.1 Quantitative research

Quantitative research includes knowledge, attitude, practice and behaviour (KAPB) survey, other kinds of sample surveys (random sampling surveys—person, mail and telephone), Records review, Demographic and health surveys, Intercept interviews, Censuses((Wimmer & Dominick, 2003; Bruce, Pope & Stanistreet, 2008).

I. Sample surveys

Sample survey research methods are useful in validating a hypothesis (e.g. mothers with secondary school education are more likely to take their children for immunization than illiterate mothers) and in determining relative prevalence of knowledge, beliefs or practices. The sample survey uses statistical methods and works with large, statistically significant sample populations representing the study population. The method is strong in examining relationships (e.g. between a belief, practice or knowledge level) with background characteristics, such as age, level of education, socio-economic status, locality or exposure to communication messages. Sample surveys use questionnaires with close-ended questions that can be coded for computer-based analysis. This research technique is most valuable when programme planners have a specific notion of what they need to know and have generated good research questions.

II. Knowledge, attitude, practice and behaviour (KAPB) surveys

KAPB surveys are a commonly used type of sample survey. It is a research technique used to obtain information when that information needs to be used to describe a large population group. The technique uses quantitative methods and a relatively large, statistically significant sample. The main data collection instrument is a questionnaire with close-ended questions. The instrument allows the researcher to interview many people in a relatively short time. But like other survey designs, it is limited in its ability to probe into the knowledge, attitudes, practices and behaviour it seeks to define. While KAPB surveys can describe the prevalence of knowledge, attitudes, practices and behaviour, they often need to be used in combination with other study techniques, such as focus group discussions (FGDs) and in-depth interviews, which probe opinions, motives and feelings and provide data needed to develop programmes designed to bring about behaviour change.

III. Demographic health surveys (DHS)

DHS surveys are among the forms of research most commonly conducted by ministries of health. They are conducted in cooperation with Macro International and are usually based on large national samples to measure health practices and changes in health status. DHS surveys provide rich epidemiological data on a wide range of health items to show patterns in health practices over time. In many countries, the studies are usually carried out nationally every 10 years. DHS studies form an important source of comparative baseline data on a wide range of health interventions.

IV. Documents and records review

Review analysis and decision-taking on the basis of project documents are a form of

research that takes place on projects all the time. The documents reviewed may include communication plans, memoranda, minutes of meetings, monitoring reports, supervision reports, letters, epidemiological data, etc. Documents and records research is particularly useful when developing new project activities.

V. Census

Census is a research design that attempts to count the number of people, animals or other subjects (such as cars, etc.) in a given area. Data collected during census research may stratify the population according to the needed categories and carry out cross-tabulations to establish relationships between the different factors. Census methods usually attempt to reach and count each individual subject in the population and use complex statistical formulas to account for the proportion of the population they may have missed. The best example of census research is the national census exercise that takes place in many countries every 10 years. Census research is highly statistical, labour intensive and expensive.

3.1.2 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research includes Focus group discussions, Observation, In-depth interviews, Intercept interview, Exit interview, participatory rapid appraisal (PRA), Ethnography (Finlay and Ballinger, 2006).

I. Focus group discussions (FGDs)

A focus group is a group of 6 to 12 individuals, representative of the target group under study, who do not know each other, but come together to participate in a discussion. FGD members not only have similar characteristics with the study population, but they have similar characteristics among themselves in regard to age, education, socio-economic status, etc. Because they are a homogeneous group, FGD members can engage in discussion more freely.

FGDs are qualitative study methods that use a discussion guide rather than a questionnaire. The guide is flexible, and the discussion moderator is free to depart from it to follow emerging themes and thought lines. This flexibility allows deeper probing of opinions, motives, attitudes and feelings.

II. Interviews

The following are types of interview methods that can be used:

a) In-depth interviews

In-depth interviews are similar to FGDs, with the difference being that only one interviewee is interviewed at a time. In-depth interview respondents are normally the key informants (KIs) within a community, and because they are interviewed individually, they can give more information on sensitive issues than if they were in a FGD. Like FGDs, an in-depth interview is conducted using a question guide.

b) Intercept interviews

An intercept interview is an interview carried out with a member of the target

group to gain immediate insight into the interviewee's decision about or feelings towards a particular service, product, programme or event. To carry out the interviews, the interviewer positions him/herself in a location frequented by members of the target group and "intercepts" subjects to interview them. Only a few focused, close-ended questions are asked. This method often combines the interview with observation. As the questions are being asked, certain aspects related to the subject of the interview are observed.

c) Exit interview

Exit interviews are a form of intercept interviews and use the same methods as the latter. The main difference is that the interview is carried out at the point of exit (such as the clinic gate) to interview respondents soon after the respondent has received a service or been involved in an activity. Exit interviews may be conducted at a clinic gate with a mother who has taken her child for immunization. As he/she interviews, the interviewer may look at the child's clinic card to see the immunization a child has received. He/she may ask the mother what immunization the child has received, when the child is due to return for the next immunization and what the health worker told the mother. The questions and observations may help to study the quality of interaction that takes place between the immunizers and caretakers.

III. Observation

Observation techniques are commonly used study techniques. They normally use a checklist of the items to be observed. An observer may be a participant observer (participating in the situation he/she is observing) or a hidden observer (concealed where the people being observed are unaware of his/her presence). Some activities (such as toilet habits of adults) may not be easy to observe. In other instances, observation alone may not be able to explain some occurrences. Observation is, therefore, commonly used in combination with other research methods.

IV. Ethnographic research

Ethnographic research is an in-depth study of the culture in which a practice is taking place. They are useful in determining how aspects within the culture can be used to support new behaviours and in identifying taboos and other factors that development workers need to be aware of to work successfully in that culture. Ethnographic studies can be carried out using many different methods. The most commonly used methods include participatory rapid appraisal (see next page) and rapid assessment procedures (which use FGDs, mapping and observation techniques). FGDs and observation techniques are discussed below).

V. Participatory rapid appraisal (PRA)

PRA is also referred to as participatory learning method (PLM) or rapid rural appraisal (RRA). It is an intensive, systematic, semi-structured research design carried out in a community by a multidisciplinary team that includes community members. The other members of the team may be health workers and researchers. The rationale

for the composition of the team is that the different categories of stakeholders tend to see issues differently and should, therefore, come together to debate the issues and appreciate the complexities involved. The study method has a strong emphasis on community participation: the different categories of participants learn from one another; the method facilitates data collection, analysis and decision-taking at the same time; it is flexible; it takes a short time to come up with results; it is a low-to-medium-cost method and often uses visuals such as diagrams, ranking, mapping, direct observation and time trends, thereby allowing even illiterate subjects to participate.

The current trend is to integrate “beneficiaries” as part of the research process. In this environment, the health worker, the researcher and the “beneficiaries” learn from one another and the decisions they arrive at are more relevant. In the process, the “beneficiary” gains a better understanding of his/her situation and claims increasing ownership of the intervention. PRA research methods are becoming increasingly favoured over other kinds of methods.

VI. Case studies

Preparation of case studies is a form of research that draws information from a variety of sources. During preparation of case studies, the factors that have contributed to the situation are closely analysed and “best practices” identified as a guide to similar activities in the future.

VII. Triangulation

Triangulation is the name given to using different research methods to countercheck findings. Use of three different study methods is advised when qualitative study methods are used, hence the use of the word triangulation, in reference to three.

Choosing a research method

The choice of a research method is determined mainly on the basis of the information required and the kind of questions that need to be asked. Research questions may include: What is happening? Who is doing it? Why? How? How many? How much? What are people’s perceptions about a given practice? The following grid will help researchers and programme managers discuss and reach consensus on the research method (or a combination of methods) to use.

(Unicef, 2000) Research methods for different questions

Information needed	Specific research method
Questions about why	FGDs In-depth interviews Rapid ethnographic techniques
Questions about what is happening	Epidemiology or other survey KAPB survey Observation study
Questions about who	Literature/records review Observation study Demographic health survey KAPB survey Rapid ethnographic techniques
Questions about how	Observation study KAPB survey In-depth interview PRA FGDs
Questions about how many or how much	Sample survey KAPB survey
Questions about perceived needs and problems	Observation KAPB survey PRA FGDs

3.2 The Place of Research in Development Communication

Research plays roles at three levels of development communication project, namely: the planning phase, material development phase and implementation phase.

3.2.1 Research in the Planning Phase

At the planning stage of development communication programme, research is used in choosing behaviour and audiences, selecting communication channels and creating messages.

I. Choosing behaviour and audiences

Through research, development agents determine which behaviour(s) should be addressed and which audiences should be approached.

a. Epidemiological Information

If a specific behaviour changed for a specific population would it be a substantial benefit? This information obtained from epidemiological research should serve as the basis for planning a communication activity.

b. Institutional context for behaviour

Is it possible for audiences to engage in a recommended behaviour through existing structures and institutions?

c. Choosing appropriate audiences

Which audiences are at a risk from the behaviour and which audience may influence those at risk?

II. Selecting communication channels

Factors to consider in channels choice include:

1. Reach: what proportion of the audience is exposed to the channel?
2. Frequency: how often are the audiences exposed to the channel?
3. Cost: how much will it cost to achieve a contact with each member of the target audience?
4. Managerial feasibility: will it be possible for the project to manage the use of channels overtime-supervising outreach workers or preparing effective media campaign?
5. Effectiveness per contact: how much effect on knowledge or behaviour will each contact with the channel produce?

III. Creating messages

Steps in producing messages include creating a range of possible message strategies from communication theory, key informant interview, group discussions or best judgment and investigating message strategy using the questions below:

1. Is there a substantial number of people who are not in the desired position on the relevant (that is at risk) variable?
2. Is there a substantial relation between the predictor and outcome variable?
3. How hard will it be to know the audience on a predictor variable?

At this first stage, the research package needed include:

- A quantitative KAPB survey to establish a baseline in areas of interest, against which to measure future programme achievements.
- Formative qualitative research carried out before or early in the planning process to probe knowledge levels, attitudes, practices, motives and other relevant areas. The data should help in strategy and message design.

3.2.2 Research in material development phase

Material development research focuses on the usefulness of a particular material. The major activity here is pre-testing the material. Pretesting involves showing rough versions of materials or finished versions to small numbers of people representing the target audience. The fundamental goal of pre-tests is to know whether exposure to the material under normal circumstances will lead to comprehension of the intended messages.

Principles of material development and testing :

1. Pretest with people representing the full range of target audience.
2. Distinguish between expert informant testing and group testing.
3. Strive for thorough pretesting but remain realistic.

3.2.3 Research to monitor implementation

Three questions are asked at this stage:

- a. Is the audience being exposed to the messages as intended?
- b. Is intended audience changing cognitions (knowledge, beliefs and attitudes) as expected?
- c. Is audience behaviour changing?

A basic research model to be carried out at implementation stage comprises three components: a sample of sites for monitoring, the survey instrument and the analysis

A Sample of Sites for monitoring

Depending on the behaviour of interest, the choice of sample sites and the size of needed sample will vary. However, the sampling must be scientifically carried out and the sample size adequate.

The Survey Instrument

The instrument should have a series of core questions addressing process and effects of the project. A section would address exposure to the major project messages. The second section would measure the cognitions which the project address. The third section will assess the adoption of recommended behaviors.

The Analysis

The first step in the analysis would be simply to describe the major changes in the major indicators overtime. Absolute indicators would need to be determined and more especially the direction of change in the indicators. The direction of change overtime would cover the process variables-exposure and cognition as well as effect variable which is change in behaviour.

Maximizing the usefulness of the analysis

The second part of the analysis is the follow up to observed results. Adjustments will be required if indicators show that improvements are not taking place. Project staff would need to sort out the reasons for failure at the data themselves will not provide that. If the indicators show that improvements are taking place as expected, then adjustments are unnecessary.

3.3 Monitoring and Evaluation in Development Communication

3.3.1 Monitoring

Communication activities should be monitored continuously throughout the life of a programme to track implementation of planned activities and assess how messages,

educational materials and other inputs are being received (UNICEF 2000).

Methods that may be used to monitor programme implementation include the following:

1. Periodic review of programme documents (such as work plans, monthly/quarterly reports, etc.).
2. Regular audits of materials at representative distribution points to find out quantities of materials issued, who gets the materials, the purpose to which the materials are put and the comments users make on the materials, if any.
3. Spot checks at public places and places where members of the target audiences are found to see if audiences remember hearing or seeing messages in the media, on notice boards, etc
4. Central location intercept interviews to ask about target audiences' perceptions of campaign slogans or tag lines.
5. Regular field trips to demonstration sites to check on availability of products or supplies.
6. Observations at service points, points of sale and in counselling or training sessions.

Key areas to monitor should include the channels of communication used-electronic media broadcasts and materials in print media, quality of interpersonal communication, traditional and local media, interim effects of programme interventions.

Monitoring implementation schedules

Are planned programme activities being implemented according to set schedules? If no, why not? Are materials distributed and used as planned?

Methods that can be used to monitor this programme area include:

1. Regular progress reports from the field.
2. Regular audits of materials at representative points.
3. Observation (especially supervision visits) to find out how materials are used.

3.3.2 Evaluation

Evaluation helps communication managers to account for the investment made, refine strategies and identify and correct flaws in programme implementation. This section discusses three commonly used types of evaluation: process, impact and outcome.

Process evaluation

Process evaluation focuses on short-term achievements of a programme, programme activities and the performance of programme processes and administrative and logistical arrangements. These indicators deal with the following questions: Were activities implemented as planned? How efficiently? How well did administrative and logistical arrangements work? Process evaluation usually uses qualitative research methods

Impact evaluation

Impact evaluation assesses medium-term effects of the programme. Impact evaluation usually uses quantitative research methods and provides information on the extent to which programme objectives have been achieved. The evaluation answers questions such as: Did any change take place? Was the change brought about by the intervention or by other causes?

Outcome evaluation

Outcome evaluation provides information on the long-term effects of programme interventions. In health programmes, outcome indicators are concerned with change in morbidity, mortality, health status and quality of life. Outcome evaluation uses quantitative research methods.

Steps in carrying out an evaluation

- a) Establish evaluation indicators
Evaluation indicators are derived from communication objectives. Ideally, evaluation indicators should be established during initial programme planning.
- b) Establish evaluation objectives
Based on evaluation indicators, and other concerns for the project, develop evaluation objectives. This will include issues such as - How do we want to use the findings of the evaluation? What decisions do we want the information from the evaluation to help us make? What must we measure to get the information we need? How much funding do we have for the evaluation? Etc.
- c) Determine design and methods
Choose a combination of research methods and sample size in line with the information sought in the objectives.
- d) Collect data
The data collection format used will depend on the research design
- e) Utilize research data
To facilitate use of data collected during research and evaluation:
 - Develop a summarized version of key findings and their implications for planning.
 - Disseminate the findings to relevant authorities or commissioner.
 - Use the findings to develop improved strategies.
 - Guided by research, monitoring and evaluation findings, move on to the next phase of programme development.

4.0 Conclusion

Painstaking research is the basis of a successful communication programme. It is the path to getting 'it' right; thus it cannot be compromised. Monitoring and evaluation, as a matter of fact, should run through every stage of communication programme; that is the only way to guarantee success.

5.0 Summary

In this unit so far, you have learnt that:

- Communication uses the same research methods as those used in other areas of social development.
- Research plays roles at three levels of development communication project, namely: the planning phase, material development phase and implementation phase.
- Monitoring is done continuously throughout the life of a programme to track implementation of planned activities and assess how messages, educational materials and other inputs are being received.
- Evaluation helps communication managers to account for the investment made, refine strategies and identify and correct flaws in programme implementation.

Self Assessment Exercise 4.5

Identify and explain the various methods of research applicable in development communication.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Explain the role of research at the following stages of communication programme. (a) Planning stage (b) Material development stage (c) Implementation stage
2. What are the various methods that may be used to monitor programme implementation?
3. List and discuss the three types of evaluation.

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