

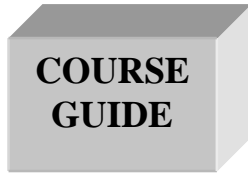


NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

COURSE CODE: EDP805

**COURSE TITLE: COMMUNICATION STRATEGY IN EDUCATIONAL
PLANNING**



EDP805
COMMUNICATION STRATEGY IN EDUCATIONAL
PLANNING

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Introduction

Welcome to the course, 'Communication Strategy in Educational Planning'. This course focuses on issues relating to communication materials and media in educational planning. It specifically examines basic concepts of planning, educational planning, communication, participatory communication, and communication media in educational planning. The course is designed to increase your knowledge about communication strategy as a concept within a field of educational planning, as well as to enrich your scholarship and skills about communication with special reference to schools.

The course is a two-credit unit course that addresses basic issues in communication and educational planning. It will enable you develop understanding and scholarship in communication strategies in educational planning. Special emphasis has been laid on participatory planning, participatory communication, citizens' participation and communication media with special reference to schools. Relevant examples, tables and illustrations have been included to assist you in becoming familiar with the subject of discourse.

Structured in modules and units, each component of the course provides you with detailed information for you to appreciate the nature and process of communication strategies in educational planning and what it hopes to achieve. The course also takes into cognizance the various learning domains including the cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains in the development of each module. On the whole, the course promises to be exciting, informative and learner-centred, and you are bound to be well-grounded in this course at Ph.D. level, if you follow-through the processes explained.

This Course Guide provides you with the relevant information about the course. These include:

- (a) Course Aims/Objectives
- (b) Course Requirements
- (c) Course Materials
- (d) Study Modules and Units
- (e) References/Further Reading
- (f) Course Assignments
- (g) Course Assessment
- (h) Final Examination
- (i) Overview of Course Content

Course Aims

The overall aim of this course is to enable you:

- (a) Examine the basic issues associated with communication in school
- (b) Discuss the concept of participatory planning and communication in school
- (c) Describe the various communication media for educational planning
- (d) Justify the rationale for choosing any of the communication strategies in educational planning

Course Objectives

To achieve the above aims, there are specific objectives that have to be accomplished under each unit. These are statements of what you are expected to have learnt by the end of each study unit. Overall, it is expected that by the end of this course, you should be able to:

- define the concepts of planning, educational planning and communication
- explain the importance and reasons for planning in communication
- describe the concept of participatory planning in education
- describe the process of effective communication in school
- examine the basic elements, ingredients and channels of communication in education
- describe the reasons, stages and typology of participation in educational planning
- state the purpose, features and steps of participatory planning
- discuss the history and role of participatory communication in school
- explain the essential elements participatory communication in school
- describe the educational media and its strengths and weaknesses in education.

Working through the Course

The course is organised into three modules. Each module is made up of five units. Overall, there are 15 units that you have to study in this course.

Module 1

Addresses the importance of planning in communication. It examines the concept of educational planning and its reasons. It also examines the various definitions of communication, its characteristics and also presents the channels of communication.

Module 2

Focuses on participatory communication strategy in educational planning. It specifically examines the concepts of participation, participatory planning and citizens' participation, and participatory communication and its essential elements.

Module 3

Deals with communication media in educational planning. This includes educational media such as radio, video, charts, posters, photos, slides, television, newspaper and telephone. The criteria for these media selection with individual strengths and weaknesses are also highlighted.

To reinforce learning, some assignments and a list of recommended reading materials are provided at the end of each study unit. If you diligently follow through these exercises, you would have increased your knowledge of the new concepts and ideas discussed. You would also have been well equipped for taking the final course examination which comes up at the end of the course.

Course Materials

The resource materials available for this course include:

1. Course Guide
2. Study Units
3. List of Reading Materials
4. Assignments
5. Other Support Materials

Study Units

The following are the list of modules and units under this course:

Module 1 Basic Issues in Communication and Educational Planning

Unit 1 Importance of Planning in Communication

Unit 2	Overview of Educational Planning
Unit 3	Definition(s) of Communication
Unit 4	Basic Characteristics of Communication
Unit 5	Channels of Communication

Module 2 Participatory Communication Strategy in Educational Planning

Unit 1	Concept of Participation
Unit 2	Participatory Planning
Unit 3	Participatory Communication
Unit 4	Citizens Participation in Educational Planning
Unit 5	Essential Elements of Participatory Communication

Module 3 Communication Media in Educational Planning

Unit 1	Media and the Criteria for Selection in Educational Planning Programme
Unit 2	Radio and Video: Strengths and Limitations
Unit 3	Posters and Photo: Strengths and Limitations
Unit 4	Charts and Slide Sets/ Film Strips: Strengths and Limitations
Unit 5	Telephone, Television and Newspaper: Strengths and Limitations

Textbooks and References

To support further learning, a list of recommended resource materials has been provided at the end of each unit. These materials contain information that would add value to what you have learnt. For instance, they may include additional illustrations and relevant information that would help you not only to understand what you have read but also to remember and to apply what you have learnt.

Assessments

To assess your level of comprehension of the information in each unit, you would be required to attempt some tests at the end of each unit. Therefore, each unit contains some questions with accompanying answers for self-assessment. You are encouraged to look at the answers only after attempting the question(s).

Tutor-Marked Assignments

The assignments at the end of each unit make up your continuous assessment. You would be given four of these assignments, which you

must attempt. This forms a total of 30 per cent of the total score for the course. The assignment would be given to you by your facilitator and returned to you after reviewing the assignment. You are expected to submit at least three assignments before being allowed to take the final examination

End of Course Examination

The final examination constitutes 70 per cent of the scores for the course. This would be the final assessment of the course. You would be given an examination notice to enable you prepare for your examinations.

Summary

This course is expected to enrich your scholarship on communication strategies in educational planning. It entails comprehensive and adequate information about basic key concepts in communication, participatory communication, planning, educational planning, participatory planning, and communication media. The modules and units have been carefully organized to enable you achieve the course objectives and it is hoped that the various assessment strategies and resources will provide the necessary support you need for a successful completion of this course. It is expected that you will find this course stimulating and I wish you success as you begin.

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MODULE 1 BASIC ISSUES IN COMMUNICATION AND EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Unit 1	Importance of Planning in Communication
Unit 2	Overview of Educational Planning
Unit 3	Definition(s) of Communication
Unit 4	Basic Characteristics of Communication
Unit 5	Channels of Communication

UNIT 1 IMPORTANCE OF PLANNING IN COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Definitions and Concept of Planning
3.2	Planning and Communication
3.3	Purpose of Planning
3.4	Dimensions of Planning
3.5	Guidelines for Effective Planning
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Planning is critical to any organisational function including communication. It is the process by which essential elements are assembled and arranged to indicate optimum choices involved in a decision. Any educational administrator or principal will be considered visionless not to plan how, when and where to pass messages and ideas. Therefore, one of the technical skills a leader needs is planning skills. This permeates his/her day to day duties.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define planning
- explain the importance of planning to communication
- explain the reasons for and benefits of planning

- specify the dimensions of planning
- explain the general guidelines for effective planning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definitions and Concept of Planning

There are various definitions of planning. Planning is anticipatory decision-making that establishes programmes of organisational goals and specific methods to achieve them, given the opportunities and constraints the environment renders. Planning is the conscious determination of courses of action designed to accomplish purposes. The activity of planning can be thought of as a response to three major questions: Where are we now? Where do we want to be in future? How are we going to get there?

To answer the question “where are we now?” there is a need to assess the current position of the organisation reviewing and analysing data about the environment, the resources needed and the internal capability of the organisation itself is essential. To know where one wants to go, it is necessary to have information about what the future will be like. Forecasting is therefore a major task in planning.

Planning entails determining the organisation’s objectives and the ways in which these are to be attained. Planning plays an important role in any organisation. Planning is a complex action because it can be seen as the basis for the performance of other management actions such as organising and control.

3.2 Planning and Communication

Planning is an important work of any administrator and it is the first step in administrative process. In communication, planning is a major ingredient. In this case, before one sends any information or message, the first question should be to set objectives or goal. This to say the ultimate target one wants to achieve. In setting objectives and goal of any message, the leader is expected to be culturally sensitive in deciding what to say in his message.

The second consideration when planning a message is the ultimate targets of the message i.e. those who will receive the message. There must be adequate plan to ensure that everyone that needs the information is included. In planning a message, it is important to know beforehand how one will send the message so that those receiving the message will understand it. The next step is when the message will be transmitted. One should plan the minimum and maximum time limit for

transmitting a message. Lastly, one should also plan for where the message will be transmitted.

In all these, while planning the message and process, the planner must give room for alternatives. These alternatives may be competing but the best choice would be determined by the situation on hand, complimented by the objectives of the message.

3.3 Purpose of Planning

Planning is important because:

- resources for education are not as abundant as we want them to be;
- demands upon and expectations of the schools are being expressed much more vocally;
- people want to know the educational outcomes they receive for the resources they provide;
- there is a great deal of current criticism of schools and school programmes, especially in terms of quality, etc;
- schools and teachers will be held accountable for the effectiveness of what they do; and
- users, supporters, and practitioners are demanding more of a voice in determining how schools are organised and what they do.

Some of the main advantages of planning are that planning:

- is the best way to ensure that an organisation achieves its goals;
- makes the utilisation of purposeful, prioritised and orderly activities possible;
- is the best way to coordinate actions among a variety of actors;
- minimises unproductive work;
- promotes the use of measure of performance;

- provides for a greater utilisation of available resource and facilities, i.e. avoids over and under utilisation of scarce resources;
- compels visualisation of the whole operative picture clearly and completely;
- can provide better information to justify what is currently being done;
- can suggest directions for new and modified programmes;
- provides a way to involve users, supporters, and practitioners in meaningful and productive activities;
- can improve decision-making by providing better information;
- can stimulate people to see the big picture over the long run rather than the narrow, short run snapshot and
- can help to measure and improve performance.

Once the kinds of programmes are identified, planning can also help answer the following questions:

- What kind of staff members should be hired? What kind of skills should they possess?
- How should staff members be oriented and assigned?
- What kinds of in-service activities are needed to insure that staff members possess the skills required by the programme?
- How can staff members be evaluated?
- How better can resources be tied to programme in the budgeting and accounting procedure?

3.4 Dimensions of Planning

Time

The time horizon of a plan is an important distinction that can be made between various types of plans; short-term, medium-term or the long-

term. How these are defined varies according to the organisation's needs and circumstances.

Scope

This refers to the level at which planning is carried out. It could be federal, regional, state, local, school levels. It may also be for a sector: health, education, agriculture, etc. Within a level of government, the scope of the plan may be a ministry, an agency, etc. or a school.

Complexity

Plans may have inherent complexity as a result of the number of different actors or stakeholders involved. For instance, a plan that involves several ministries or levels of government will involve participation from various stakeholders which may lead to complexities in terms of arriving at a conclusion.

Degree of Structure

Plans may be more or less formal and structured. While some degree of structure is necessary and a process must be defined, there must be flexibility to respond to changing environment.

3.5 Guidelines for Effective Planning

Planning must:

- be done with a view to promote effective change,
- be done within the bounds of policy,
- be consistent in its various facets,
- be flexible rather than rigid,
- take human limitations into account, and
- preferably be written down.

4.0 CONCLUSION

For the success of any organisation, it is important for the leader to have planning skills and be able to involve those who are to be affected by the plan.

5.0 SUMMARY

Planning permeates every organisational activity. It can be on a short or long range. Planning is always effective when it is done as a team and it is essential for effective communication.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Provide different definitions of planning.
2. How many people will be involved in your short-range and long-range planning?
3. Is there any relationship between planning and communication?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Glautier, M.W.E. & Underdown, B. (1986). *Accounting Theory and Practice*. London: Pitman Publishing.

United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (2005). *School Excellence: A Training Manual for Educational Management*. UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa.

UNIT 2 OVERVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Definition of Educational Planning
 - 3.2 Reasons for Educational Planning
 - 3.3 Participatory Planning in Education
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Educational planning makes the education sector develop effectively. This is because effective planning often suggests a well structured field of unambiguous issues, clearly defined objectives, mutually exclusive choices, undisputed causal relationships, predictable rationalities, and rational decision-makers. Before a teacher can teach effectively, it requires some levels of planning. For a teacher to be effective and efficient, he must plan for daily or weekly lesson, plan study materials, learning objectives, method of lesson presentation, techniques, aids and evaluation, etc.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the definition of educational planning
- state the reasons for educational planning
- describe participatory planning in education.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition of Educational Planning in Nigeria

In Nigeria, the idea of educational planning started during the pre-colonial era and specifically in 1942 when a ten-year educational plan for the country was proposed. This proposal for educational planning laid the basis for development planning in Nigeria. It is believed that education is a tool for national development.

Adesina (1981) sees educational planning generally as “the process of applying scientific or rational procedures to the process of educational growth and development so as to ensure the efficiency and effectiveness of the educational system” (p. 2). He posits educational planning as a course of activities to be done, showing steps to be followed in order to achieve a desired quantitative or qualitative goal. According to him, there are three major steps that need to be stated to achieve the plan objectives. They are:

- **Statement of educational objectives**

This refers to the general dissatisfaction with education when it fails to yield the desired results. This failure can be traced to intangibly stated educational objectives or a lack of relationship between stated objectives and actual educational practices. Hence, measurable educational objectives need to be clearly spelt out.

- **Various activities to achieve stated objectives**

This implies provision of the required human and material resources for effective plan implementation and monitoring. It refers to supply of the quantity and quality of these resources needed to sustain the plan. This is the “*Achille’s heels*” of the plan.

- **Evaluation of results**

The evaluation should be related to the stated educational objectives. It refers to the extent the plan has been able to achieve what it intends to achieve. This is the last step which serves as pointer to other steps.

3.2 Reasons for Educational Planning

Adesina (1981) citing Philip Coombs identifies six imperatives for educational planning most especially in Nigeria as:

- wasteful imbalances within the educational system;
- demand far in excess of capacity;
- costs rising faster than revenue;
- non-financial bottlenecks;
- inadequate jobs for the educated; and
- the wrong kind of education.

3.3 Participatory Planning in Education

Participatory planning in education appears ideal but it is actually a series of untidy and overlapping episodes in which a variety of people and organisations with diversified perspectives are actively involved technically and politically. It at times becomes untidy because of different views and ideas. This active involvement is often as a result of effective communication between and among all parties concerned with educational plans. It entails the processes through which issues are analysed and policies generated, implemented, assessed and redesigned. In educational and policy-implementation planning, it is important to mobilize political support and stakeholders' support. This is where effective communication plays a role. Political and stakeholders' mobilisation becomes necessary in educational planning because of the need to ensure that the providers and consumers of new educational initiative embrace it with enthusiasm.

Plans must be developed so that students and their families are aware of the objectives of a new initiative such as programmes for teachers, educational administrators and their representatives. Since new initiatives usually mean some form of job re-definition, it is important that educators see this as beneficial and that those who object to the changes be isolated. Political and stakeholders' mobilisation may also be necessary to ensure that materials for school construction are available when needed; that needed institutional administrative adjustments are carried out, and, especially, that funding proposals are approved. One important strategy for mobilising political and stakeholders' support is that of involving groups affected by the new initiative(s) in the planning process. This will bring about dividends not only in the form of enhanced support, but, more likely, in terms of an improved policy design.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Planning is the primary step in administrative process. For it to be effective, it is important to follow the necessary guidelines, and more importantly various stakeholders in education are expected to play crucial roles in educational planning.

5.0 SUMMARY

Planning is the best way to ensure that educational organisation achieves its goals, and to coordinate actions among various stakeholders in education. Although plans may have inherent complexity because of the number of people involved, once this 'plan' is effectively communicated through the mechanism of a planned communication

strategy, the complexity is expected to reduce. Above all, plans should have a reasonable level of flexibility.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Provide a simple definition for educational planning.
2. Highlight five reasons for educational planning in Nigeria.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Adesina, S. (ed.). (1981). *Introduction to Educational Planning: A book of Selected Readings*. Ile-Ife: University of Ife Press Ltd.

Bennis, W.G.; Benne, K.D. & Chin, R. (eds.). (1961). *The Planning of Change: Readings in the Applied Behavioral Sciences*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc.

UNIT 3 DEFINITION(S) OF COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Definition of Communication in Educational Planning
 - 3.2 Importance of Effective Communication
 - 3.3 Effective Communication and Managing Staff Meetings
 - 3.4 Barriers to Effective Communication
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The exchange of information or message from one person to another is the central piece of communication. Communication pervades all aspects of educational venture. It usually involves the process of transmitting and receiving information or facts among the stakeholders in the educational process. One of the central objectives of any educational venture is to ensure its efficiency and effectiveness through effective plans and systematic efforts.

Every communication activities particularly in an educational institution centre on the chief administrator who often directs the communication activities in the institution. There is no aspect of school management and of administrative process that communication does not play a very important role. In fact, the effectiveness of a school in any society and its ability to achieve its objectives depend, to a large extent, on the effectiveness of the communication that takes place within the school as a human organisation and between the school and its external environment. A school in which little or poor communication takes place often experiences a lot of problems such breakdown of law and order, indiscipline among students and staff-members, etc.

Undoubtedly, one technical skill and ability that any leader needs to make him competent is effective communication. There is a positive relationship between communication competency and leadership performance. A leader who does not have communication avenues and channels with members of his/ her organisations will find it difficult to be a change agent and to influence policy, plan effectively and take appropriate decisions. Therefore, good interpersonal communication skills drive effective leadership. Besides, communication parse, the

administrator should be able to create and maintain organisational climate that is conducive to effective communication.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- describe the various ways one can communicate in educational planning
- state the importance of effective communication
- explain effective communication and management of staff meetings
- state the barriers to communication in schools.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition of Communication in Educational Planning

The word “communication” is derived from the latin word *communis* which literally means trying to gain understanding. It means the transmission (encoding), receipt and interpretation (decoding) of messages by means of a specific medium (Lesikar, 1974). People can communicate also by what they do not say or do, then communication can be defined simply as the process of transmitting and receiving information, facts, attitudes and ideas. It can also be the process of sharing information to achieve a common understanding between others and us. It is the act of transmitting information, thoughts, opinions, or feelings, through speech, or signs, or actions, from a source to a receiver. Communication is essential for effective social interaction between people. Information and therefore knowledge cannot be conveyed or transmitted unless effective communication takes place. The organisation’s first concern is the transfer or transmission of knowledge from one person to another. Communication should be effective to convey and enable abstract thought.

Communication according to Glautier and Underdown (1991) involves linking all the management functions by transmitting information and instructions within the organisation. This implies that administrative process revolves around communication in order to achieve its stated goals. Lesikar (1974) asserts that:

Communication is the ingredient which makes organisation possible. It is the vehicle through which the basic management or administrative functions are carried out... Hardly an action is taken in any organisation without communication leading to it (p. 4).

One should infer from this that messages need not be verbal or written. The non-verbal signs, like smiles, frowning of the face, shrugs, gesticulations, etc., that accompany spoken words often add more meaning to the words themselves. One might still be transmitting some messages without writing anything or speaking a word. The principal or educational planner who just walks into the office without speaking a word or acknowledging greetings is sending a message. The administrator who shuts his/ her door as soon as s/he comes to the office is sending a message. A clean office with structures in good shape is also sending a message.

There are both interpersonal and intrapersonal messages. When a message involves more than one person it is *interpersonal communication*. In *Intrapersonal* message it is possible for one to think aloud or correct what one has written.

3.2 Importance of Effective Communication

For school administrators to achieve their stated educational goals, they must strive to increase efficiency, quality, responsiveness to public, and innovation. Good communication is therefore essential in school for reaching these goals.

Administrators must increase efficiency by updating the school process to take advantage of new and more efficient teaching methods and materials and staff development to expand their skills. Effective communication is therefore necessary for administrators to learn about these new teaching methods and materials, implement them in the school, and train teachers on how to use them. Also, improving quality hinges on effective communication. School administrators need to communicate to all members of the school the meaning and importance of high quality and how to attain it. Teachers need to communicate quality problems and suggestions for enhancing quality to their principal. Teachers need to share ideas for improving quality among themselves.

Effective communication can also help to increase responsiveness to the public. When principals and teachers who are members of the community are empowered to communicate the needs and desires of students and community to the school, the school administrators are better able to respond to these needs. Effective communication is needed for the process of introducing new teaching methods and materials to be successful. Therefore, administrators must have a good understanding of the communication process if they are to perform effectively.

3.3 Effective Communication and Managing Staff Meetings

Leadership implies managing groups effectively. One way of managing groups is through the use of meetings. Meetings may have the following purposes: to make decisions; to convey information; to gather information; and to resolve a particular problem. However, when meetings are not properly managed, they could be avenue for communication breakdown. In other words, meetings could be unproductive, costly, time consuming and frustrating to the participants.

Meetings are usually classified as follows:

- **Statutory Meeting:** An assembly of persons meeting in accordance with legally defined rules and procedures to discharge business as required by law.
- **Command Meetings:** These are meetings held to give instruction by super ordinates to subordinates.
- **Committee Meetings:** Meetings to make decisions on matters of mutual interest, or to forward recommendations to the organisation which entrusted them to do so. The status of the committee could either be ad-hoc or standing.
- **Collegiate Meetings:** Meetings held between persons of similar levels of professional competence i.e. skills and knowledge.
- **Advisory Meetings:** Meetings to discuss specific problems facing the organisation and advising the administrator on steps to be taken or on solutions to be found.
- **Negotiating Meetings:** These types of meetings involve at least two sides having their own objectives and involved in negotiating.
- **Management Meetings:** These are meetings held by management of an organisation.

The success of any meeting depends on the role played by both the chairperson of the meeting and the participants. The chairperson as a leader of the discussion should:

- create an atmosphere that is easy, business like;
- guide the flow of discussion;
- clarify questions when necessary;

- keep participants on the topic;
- keep the discussion in order;
- summarise the discussion; and
- watch to see if participants are actually carried along in the discussion.

For the success of any meeting, there should be a readiness to accept others' views and adapt to new approach and each meeting should have a purpose that all participants are aware of. Meetings should not end without reaching concrete conclusions. A formal record or minutes should be kept of every meeting.

Staff meetings provide means of communication between the head and members on matters concerning the organisation. An essential feature of successful meetings is effective communication. The leader who communicates effectively can create an environment of trust. This is important so that members of a school community can feel secure and confident enough to communicate freely and openly in staff meetings and other fora.

3.4 Barriers to Effective Communication

Communication is basically about effective hearing and seeing. In ineffective communication, the receiver does not have the same interpretation as the message sender. The contributing barriers to ineffectiveness of communication are:

- using symbols or words that have different meanings;
- having different values;
- different perceptions of the problems;
- emphasis on status;
- conflict in interest;
- attempts to keep feelings out of the discussion;
- lack of desire to understand the other person's point of view or feelings or values or purposes;
- feelings of superiority;
- vested interests;

- feelings of personal insecurity;
- the concepts that the sender and receiver have of their roles; and
- negative feelings about the situation.

Improving Communication

The followings are suggestions for the educational administrator to improve his/her communication strategy:

- **Communicate:** people need information. Unless they are given the information on time, they make assumptions or resort to the rumour mill. So, communicate on time.
- **Know the Objective:** what do you want to achieve? (inform, praise, discipline, etc).
- **Know the Receiver:** (for example, the lazy teacher/learner) and the reason for the communication (for example, poor communication results).
- **Formulate your Message:** be clear, specific and understandable by using short and simple sentences.
- **Be Complete:** make sure that the message is complete. Tell the whole story. Otherwise people make assumptions to fill the missing part and may distort the message totally.
- **Be Clear and Brief:** effective communication involves transmitting and understanding information. Make the message clear so that people can understand you. Do not include unnecessary information. Avoid emotional messages, exaggerations, etc.
- **Consider How the Message is Best Communicated:** this can be just as essential as the content.
- **Watch your Timing:** select proper time to communicate. Messages received too late would not be of much use. Message received too early could also cause problem of appreciation.
- **Be Aware of:** your attitude, behaviour, non-verbal communication, gestures and facial expressions.

- **Keep in mind that:** positive feelings and emotions inspire positive attitudes amongst the staff and learners.
- Encourage upward communication (pupil to teacher, teacher to principal, etc).
- **Listen effectively:** an effective communicator must be a good listener.
- **Make use of Effective Feedback:** communication is a two-way process so always ask questions to determine whether the message has been understood.
- Use the grapevine.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Information is crucial to effective communication. A leader should avoid hoarding information but disseminate it to staff. This will lead to the achievement of a common understanding between staff and staff, staff and leader, staff and students.

5.0 SUMMARY

Communication is the act of transmitting information and feelings. It can be done through meetings and with speech, signs, or actions. It can also be written through bulletins among others. In any organisation, the school inclusive, there can be no exchange of information without effective communication. Communication has barriers and at the same time it can be improved upon through various strategies that span through designing objectives, formulation of message and how the message could be best communicated.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. In your experience, what type of meeting would you arrange for the following: a staff meeting; to plan a school fund raising activity; to discuss the behaviour of a teacher with your student council; and to meet with the school board?
2. Discuss the reasons why you have made a particular choice.

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UNIT 4 BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Basic Elements of Communication
 - 3.2 Aspects of Communication
 - 3.3 Ingredients of Communication
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Communication takes place mainly through language which consists of signs and symbols. Methods of communication include verbal methods such as oral and written communication and also non-verbal methods such as facial expressions and gestures made with various parts of the body, particularly the hands. As long as those who receive the signs and/or symbols interpret them correctly, they are vested with meaning, which can lead to effective learning.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- describe the basic elements of communication
- define the various major aspects of communication
- define the ingredients of communication.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Basic Elements of Communication

All forms of human communication have at least five basic elements:

- (i) *a source*, (sender) some person or groups, with
- (ii) *a message*, (this is in relation to the content of the message) intended for
- (iii) *a channel* (the medium)
- (iv) *a receiver*, and
- (v) *feedback*.

(i) **Source**

The source is the originator of the communication process. He/she or they start(s) the process of sending a message. The source of any information can be a person or a group of persons wishing to share information. This source translates the message into symbols or language, which process is called encoding. When a communication activity is in process, there must be someone who initiates the “action”, be it verbal or non-verbal. The context of his message being conveyed is based on his field of experience and perception, his “attitude, communication skills, social-cultural norms, knowledge”, his interests and needs, and his emotional state (Yam, 1982). The environment also plays a crucial role in the interpretation and formulation of the sender’s role or the originator’s message.

(ii) **The Message**

This is the information that a sender wants to share. This is a physical behaviour- a sign or a systematic set of symbols that has meaning to both the sender and the receiver. Yam (1984) noted that messages have to be encoded. At the moment it is assumed that the sender has an intention or purpose and a theme and is motivated to communicate. It is necessary to put what is going to be modified in the course of communication and when there is a need for clarification generated in the feedback. Encoding is important in the sense that it must be the selection of certain kinds of agreed symbols meaningful to both the sender and the receiver. If we want to turn off the light, we cannot speak to the light or write to it, we have to encode our message in a specific way- push the light button; we must encode our message in a way the filament can ‘understand’ (pp. 38 – 39).

(iii) **The Medium**

This is the pathway through which an encoded message is transmitted to a receiver, e.g., phone call, letter, memo or face-to-face communication. The receiver interprets and tries to make sense out of the message i.e. ‘decode’. This is a critical point in communication. According to Yam (1984), the medium is the channel which bridges the sender and the receiver for communication. The message, to a certain extent, is predetermined or influenced by the medium employed. Information conveyed by the printed words in a book may be different from that transmitted by a movie. In communicating, it is important to decide which channel we should use. We also have to consider which way the respondent can decode better. In other words, we have to estimate the knowledge of the receiver and the essence of the message before we select a certain channel or a number of channels.

(iv) The Receiver

Is the interpreter of the message. This is the person/ group for which the message is intended. The sender must take into consideration the receiver's attitude and communication skills and also his/ her emotional stabilities should also be taken into account for the message to be effectively interpreted. Moreover, the message must be interpreted as the sender originally intended. It is then that the message becomes meaningful. As an adage says "Meaning is not in the message, but in the person who receives it."

(v) The Feedback

This is the response from the receiver after decoding the message. It is important for the two-way communication process to be understood by all the actors involved. The receiver may be an individual such as a subordinate, superior staff or colleague. Any of these individuals may be part of a larger group to whom the message is being sent at the same time.

3.2 Aspects of Communication

A leader will communicate with a wide variety of people in a number of different ways about specific situations, problems, or issues. As a communicator, the following six basic elements of communication are essentially taken into consideration: The

- (i) purpose to be achieved by the message;
- (ii) person(s) to whom the message is directed;
- (iii) sender of the message;
- (iv) content of the message. i.e. the message to be conveyed;
- (v) alternative channels for communicating the message; and
- (vi) need for feedback or a response to the message, indicating that the message was understood.

3.3 Ingredients of Communication

In sending and receiving messages, two important ingredients are involved. These are:

1. planning the message; and

2. receiving the message.

Planning the message: In planning the message, there are five basic questions that need to be achieved as discussed in Unit 1. These are:

- *What is the goal/ or objective of the message? Is it to influence, to inform, to express feeling, or all of these? What do you want as the end result of the communication?*
- *Who should receive the message? Have you involved everyone who needs to receive your message? (both the immediate and external community).*
- *How will you send the message? With the receivers in mind, plan how you will convey the message so that it will be understood. Select the appropriate method for the audience and situation. As a general guide, use rich written channels for transmitting simple and routine messages to several people, and combined channels for important messages that employees need to attend to and understand. You should also avoid giving too many details because this may cause distortions.*
- *When will the message be transmitted? Timing is important. For example, if it is going to take 15 minutes to transmit a message, don't approach an employee five minutes before closing time. Wait until the next day. Make an appointment when appropriate.*
- *Where will the message be transmitted? Decide on the best setting, your office, the receiver's workplace, so on and so forth. Remember to keep distractions to a minimum.*

Receiving the message

The second communication process that educational planners are involved in is receiving messages. With oral communications, the key to understanding the message is listening. Thus, educational planners need to be good and patient listeners.

There are three basic steps in message-receiving process:

1. **Listening:** This is the process of giving the speaker an undivided attention. Listening should include the following:
 - Paying attention; one should be receptive to the speaker.

- Avoid distractions: keep your eyes on the speaker, do not fiddle with instruments such as pen, phone, etc.
 - Stay focused i.e. do not let your mind wonder.
 - Do not assume and interrupt: Do not assume you know what the speaker will say or jump to conclusion, listen to the entire message without interrupting the speaker.
 - Watch non-verbal cues: Watch as you listen to be sure that the speaker's eyes, body and face are sending the same message.
 - Ask questions: Ask direct questions when you feel there is something missing, contradictory or that you do not understand.
 - Take note: Write important things down as this will enable you remember them later.
 - Give feedback: you should let the speaker know that you are listening to the message by using verbal and non-verbal expressions.
2. **Analysing:** This is the process of thinking about, decoding, and evaluating the message. You should analyse the message by:
- **Thinking:** Here you should use the speed of your brain positively, listen actively by organizing, summarising, reviewing and interpreting the message.
 - **Evaluating:** You should listen to the entire message, and then come to your conclusion.
3. **Checking Understanding:** This is the process of giving feedback. Check your understanding of the message by:
- **Paraphrasing:** use paraphrasing to repeat the message to the sender. When you can paraphrase the message correctly, your feedback should be that you have listened and understood the other person.
 - **Watching non-verbal cues:** As you speak, watch the other person's non-verbal cues. If the person does not seem to understand what you are talking about, clarify the message before finishing the conversation.

The message receiving process is explained in Figure 1 below:

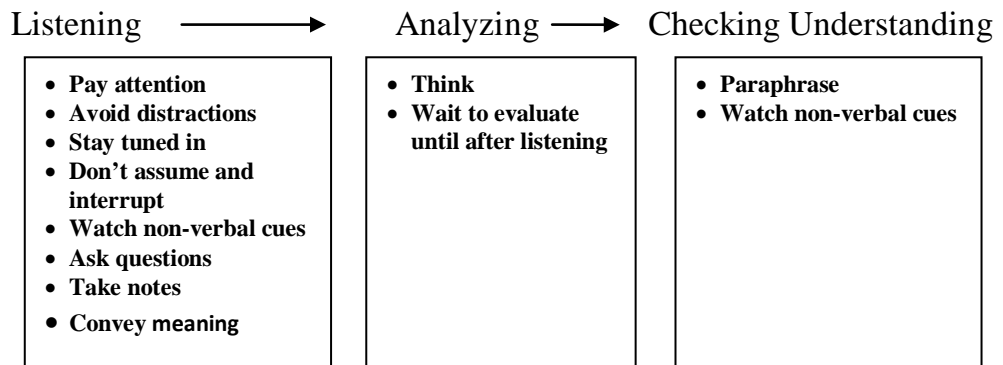


Fig. 1: The Message Receiving Process

Source: Lussier & Achua (2001). *Leadership: Theory, Application, Skill Building*. p. 114

4.0 CONCLUSION

For a message to be effective, it is important to consider in details the basic elements and steps in communication. This begins from the sender of the message to the receiver, and also to note that each of the process is important in making communication effective.

5.0 SUMMARY

Communication is the sharing of information between people. The communication process consists of two phases: the transmission phase from the sender; and the feedback phase whereby the receiver, having the same understanding as the sender, gives a reply or the feedback. Good communication is necessary for effectiveness of organisation and it occurs only when the cyclical process that entails two phases i.e. transmission and feedback is completed.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the communication process and the role of perception in the process.
2. What is the importance of planning to communication?
3. How can ineffective listening disrupt the communication system?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Jones, G.R.; George, J.M. & Hill, C.W.L. (2000). *Contemporary Management*. Boston: Irwin McGraw-Hill.

UNIT 5 CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Formal and Informal Communication
 - 3.2 Oral and Written Communication
 - 3.3 Communication Networks
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

There are formal and informal channels of communication. It is formal when it is done orally or written through appropriate channels. When a principal passes a message through a vice-principal to a head of department, he is making use of the formal channel of communication. In the same vein, when the head of department wants to give a feedback he should be through vice-principal to the principal. This is an example of vertical communication in an organisation and it is formal. It can also be across from one principal to the other. This is called horizontal communication which are both formal. However, when somebody, particularly a leader collects information through informal channel like gossips and rumours, this is known as “grapevine” source of information which is informal could be harmful, incorrect and at times dangerous. Educational planners cannot stop grapevine sources although such sources exit against the will of the leaders, from which they occasionally benefit.

Once there is a message to send, there has to be a means of sending it and it has to be decided which one of these means would most effectively. Having the right message, and the right audience, the next thing is its delivery through an appropriate media. In any educational institution, the leader is expected to accord the same importance to the channel of communication as the message itself. This is to enable the message to get to the right person or audience that is why the message must be effectively planned.

The channels can also depend on the environment where the message is being planned. For instance, it would be futile to send a message on television or computer where the facilities such as electricity and internet are not available. The school has many audiences such as the

Ministry of Education, Schools Board, teachers, students, parents, among others and this is why communication networks is crucial for educational planning.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- distinguish between formal and informal communication
- describe oral and written communication and their effectiveness
- describe the networks that exist in groups.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Formal and Informal Communication

Basically, channels of communication could be formal or informal. In school's management hierarchy for instance, when a principal delegates an instruction concerning a teacher's subject to that teacher through a head of department, he is making use of formal channel of communication. When a teacher gives feedback, it should be through the formal channel of communication. Teachers who teach the same subject also communicate in a formal manner with one another. This is an example of horizontal communication. Both may take place through a formal channel of communication.

Besides formal channels of communication, organisations have informal channels collectively known as the "grapevine". Rumours on the grapevine may create harmful or incorrect impressions. Thus, there is a need to handle them carefully.

Educational managers often become frustrated with grapevines particularly when they carry incorrect rumours. School administrators cannot stop grapevines. They exist against the will of administrators. In this regard, school managers are advised to:

- increase the accuracy of the grapevine by feeding it with correct information; and
- try to reduce the relevance that is placed on the grapevines by making certain that formal communication is complete and timely.

3.2 Oral and Written Communication

Whether communication is formal or informal, it could be carried out through basic identified channels. These are:

1. Oral communication
2. Written communication

1. Oral Communication

The Oral Message-Sending Process: Be careful not to talk too fast when sending oral messages over the phone or in person. It is helpful to follow the steps below in the oral message-sending process.

Processes of oral communication are:

- a. face-to-face;
- b. meeting;
- c. presentation; and
- d. telephone.

(a) *Face-to-face Communication*

This is the richest medium in information communication. When administrators communicate face-to-face, they can not only take advantage of verbal communication but can also interpret each other's non-verbal signs such as facial expressions and body language. A look of concern or puzzlement can sometimes tell more than a thousand words, and administrators can respond to these non-verbal signs on the spot. Face-to-face communication also enables administrators to receive instant feedback. Points of confusion, ambiguity, or misunderstanding can be resolved, and administrators can move round through the communication process as many times as they need to, to reach a common understanding (Jones, George, and Hill, 2000).

Administrators can also walk around instead of scheduling meetings and talking informally with employees. This is common between principal and teachers and principal and community members. This informal method avails the leader the opportunity to gather important information and at the same time foster the development for positive relationship.

Face-to-face communication is also noticeable during a television media conferencing. In this conferencing, communicators not only hear each other but see each other throughout the meeting. Video conferencing allows for face-to-face communication between two or more people.

(b) *Meeting*

This is another avenue of oral communication. Here, everybody is allowed to express his/ her opinion. Most meetings are often formal. In meetings, a lot of dialoguing takes place.

(c) *Presentation*

This can be done through workshops, seminars, etc. It is effectively done with the use of electronic media and bill boards or newsprints and posters.

(d) *Telephone*

Spoken communication that is transmitted over phone lines is second highest in information richness. Although, when people communicate over the phone, they do not have access to the tone of voice in which a message is delivered, the parts of the message the sender emphasizes, and the general manner in which the message is spoken, in addition to the actual word themselves. Administrators often can ensure that mutual understanding is reached because they can get quick feedback over the phone and answer questions (Jones, George, and Hill, 2000).

Steps in Oral Communication are:

- 1. Develop Rapport:** Put the receiver at ease. It is usually appropriate to begin communications with small talk correlated to the message. It helps prepare the person to receive the message.
- 2. State your Communication Objective:** The common business communication objectives are to influence, inform, and express feelings. With the goal of influencing, it is helpful for the receiver to know the end result of the communication before covering all the details.
- 3. Transmit your Message:** If the objective of the message is to influence, tell the people what you want them to do, give instructions, and so forth. Be sure to set deadlines for completing tasks. If the objective is to inform, tell the people the information. If the objective is to express feeling, do so.
- 4. Check the Receiver's Understanding:** About the only time you may not want to check understanding during one-to-one or small-group communication is when the objective is to express feelings. When influencing and giving information, you should

ask direct questions, and/ or use paraphrasing. To simply ask, “Do you have any questions?” does not check understanding.

5. **Get a Commitment and Follow Up:** When the goal of communication is to inform or express feelings, commitment is not needed. However, when the goal of communication is to influence, it is important to get a commitment to the action. The leader needs to make sure that followers can do the task and have it done by a certain time or date. For situations in which the follower does not intend to get the task done, it is better to know this when sending the message, rather than wait until the deadline before finding out. When followers are reluctant to take the necessary action, leaders can use persuasive power within their authority. When communicating to influence, follow up to ensure that the necessary action has been taken.

2. **Written Communication**

(a) **Personally addressed written communication**

This is also rich in information like face-to-face communication. Personally addressed communication such as memos and letters also has an advantage in that it demands attention and ensures that the receiver pays attention because it is addressed to an individual. The person will pay attention and read it. Moreover, the sender can write the message that the receiver is most likely to understand. The sender may not have the immediate answer, but when messages are clearly written, feedback is often provided.

E-mail also fits into this category of communication media. Although, e-mail is extensively used in large organisations, educational institutions also fall into this category. Although, e-mail is being abused, it is fast.

(b) **Impersonal written communication**

This form of communication is used for messages that need to reach a large number of receivers. Because such messages are not addressed to particular receivers, feedback is unlikely, so administrators must make sure that messages sent by this medium are written clearly in a language that all receivers will understand.

Administrators can use impersonal written communication for various types of messages, including rules, regulations, policies, newsworthy information, and announcements of changes in policies among others.

Writing Tips

With information technology and the internet, one can communicate with anyone in the world. So we have included some simple but important tips that can help you improve your writing.

- **Lack of organisation is the number one writing problem.** Before you begin writing, set an objective for your communication. Keep the audience in mind. What do you want them to do? Make an outline, using letters and/ or numbers of the major points you want to get across. Now put the outline into written form. The first paragraph states the purpose of the communication. The middle paragraph supports the purpose with facts, figures, and so forth. The last paragraph summarises the major points and clearly states the action, if any, to be taken by you and other people.
- **Write to communicate, not to impress.** Keep the message short and simple. Limit each paragraph to a single topic and an average of five sentences. Sentences should not have more than an average of 15 words. Vary paragraph and sentence length, but a paragraph should not exceed one-half of a page.
- **Edit your work and rewrite where necessary.** To improve sentences and paragraphs, add to them to convey full meaning, cut out unnecessary words and phrases, and/ or rearrange the words. Check your work with the computer spelling and grammar checkers. Have others edit your work as well.

Channels of written communication are through:

- (a) memo;
- (b) letter;
- (c) report;
- (d) bulletin board;
- (e) poster; and
- (f) newsletter.

3.3 Communication Networks

Communication in schools tends to flow in certain patterns. The pathways along which information flows in groups and teams and throughout the school are called communication networks. The type of communication network that exists in a group depends on the nature of the group's tasks and the extent to which group members need to communicate with each other to achieve stated educational goals.

There are four kinds of communication networks that can be used in schools. They are: the wheel, the chain, the circle, and the all-channel network.

(i) Wheel Network

In this network, the information flows to and from one central member of the group (administrator). Other teachers do not need to communicate with each other to carry out their activities, and the group can accomplish its goals by directing all communication to and from the administrator. Although this network is efficient, it does not allow for intense interactions characteristic of the school.

(ii) Chain Network

In this one, staff members and leaders communicate with each other in predetermined sequence. School activities are arranged in timetable and sequentially. This chain encourages communication among teachers because one's work is directly preceded and follows each other. The level of interaction is limited to the period of school activities and teachers involved.

(iii) Circle Network

In this network, staff members communicate with each other. s who are similar to them in experiences, beliefs, background, specialisation, staffroom's location, or even where they sit when the group meets.

(iv) All-Channel Network

This is found in teams. It is characterised by high levels of communication in both horizontal and vertical directions. Every member of the school communicates with each other.

4.0 CONCLUSION

There are formal and informal channels of communication. It is formal when it is done orally or written through appropriate channels. When a principal passes a message through a vice-principal to a head of department, he is making use of the formal channel of communication. In the same vein, when the head of department wants to give a feedback, he should give it through the vice-principal to the principal. Once there is a message to send, there has to be means of sending it and it has to be decided which one of these means would most effectively suit it. In communication, the media depends on a lot of factors, some of which are personal to both sender and receiver. These factors will determine the type and media of communication.

5.0 SUMMARY

This section deals with formal and informal communication and the various types such as oral and written and the effective channels through which the information could be shared. These channels also depend on the amount and type of information to be shared. Oral and written communications are identified and each type carries a degree of information richness. Four communication networks found in groups are also identified. These are: the wheel, the chain, the circle; and the all-channels network.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe the information richness of oral and written communication.
2. Describe the communication networks that exist in groups.
3. What are the important writing tips that you can use in communicating with different stakeholders in education.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Jones, G.R.; George, J.M. & Hill, C.W.L. (2000). *Contemporary Management*. Boston: Irwin McGraw-Hill.

MODULE 2 PARTICIPATORY COMMUNICATION STRATEGY IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Unit 1	Concept of Participation
Unit 2	Participatory Planning
Unit 3	Participatory Communication
Unit 4	Citizens Participation in Education
Unit 5	Essential Elements of Participatory Communication

UNIT 1 CONCEPT OF PARTICIPATION

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Definition of Participation
3.2	Reasons for Participation
3.3	Stages in Participation
3.4	Typology of Participation
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In educational planning, a lot of stakeholders are involved at different levels. The scenario is that the school community must play supportive role in educational plans; hence, emphasis is being put on School Based Management Committee (SBMC) and other school-community partnerships. The important partners in the society who are often recipients of educational managers are the civil societies, religious groups, the community based organisations, industrial firms, training corporations, the local government and the parents. Consequently, an avenue must be created using effective communication media to reach them. Building and maintaining a genuine partnership with the society involves understanding the society, sharing meanings and expectations of the society as regards what goes on in the school, and the process through which events are planned and managed.

The educational planner should therefore avoid creating a distance between the school and the society. School collaboration with institutions in the society often provides wide and varying opportunities

both for the school and this in turn would lead to community empowerment and wellbeing. The school and the community cannot operate in isolation and there must be a two-way communication between them to engage the two institutions in effective educational planning.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define participation
- state reasons for group and wide participation
- explain the stages of participation
- describe the typology of participation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition of Participation

No consensus exists on a common definition of participation. Participation is a principle in development with support coming from many different stakeholders i.e. governments at all levels, civil societies, donors, and ordinary citizens (Tufte & Mefalopulos, 2009). Some stakeholders define participation as the mobilisation of people to eliminate unjust hierarchy of knowledge, power and economic distribution. Others define it as the reach and inclusion of inputs by relevant groups in the design and implementation of a developing project.

Participation can be summarised as the involvement of ordinary people in a development process leading to change. Participatory approach is required in any organisation because it can be used as a tool to achieve a pre-established goal defined by someone outside the community. The fundamental aim of empowering people to handle challenges and influence the direction is inherent in participation.

3.2 Reasons for Participation

Participation as a method in educational planning and programme development can be used as a tool for various reasons:

1. Providing basic services and effective mechanism of public or private service provision, including health, education, transport, and others. It entails strategies that are affordable and inclusive even of marginalized groups.

2. Pursuing advocacy goals: This is a key element needed towards achieving educational goals. This requires inputs and support of civil society and local governance initiatives such as popular participation in public budgeting and individual and community empowerment programmes that strengthen the voice of marginalised groups. Furthermore, advocacy has grown significantly in recent years as an NGO activity.
3. Monitoring progress towards goals: These activities include self-reporting schemes and direct community involvement in monitoring processes in schools.
4. Facilitating reflection and learning among local groups: Opportunities for dialogue, learning and critique become central elements in evaluating a project or programme.

3.3 Stages in Participation

Each project issue can be divided into stages, and this division facilitates assessment of when and to what degree a participatory approach is relevant. From an institutional perspective, there are four key stages of development project:

1. **Research Stage:** This is where the development problem is accurately defined. All relevant stakeholders can be involved in this process. The research around the development problem can include studying previous experiences, individual and community knowledge and attitudes, existing policies and other relevant contextual information related to socio-economic condition, culture, spirituality, gender, etc.
2. **Design Stage:** It defines the actual activities. A participatory approach helps to secure the ownership and commitment of the communities involved. Active participation by local citizens and other stakeholders aims to enhance both the quality and relevance of the suggested interventions.
3. **Implementation Stage:** This is when the planned intervention is implemented. Participation at this stage increases commitment, relevance and sustainability.
4. **Evaluation Stage:** Participation ensures that the most significant changes are voiced, brought to common attention and assessed. For a meaningful evaluation, indicators and measurement should be defined in a participatory process at the very beginning of the initiative involving all relevant stakeholders.

3.4 Typology of Participation

Cutting across the distinctions of participation as a goal versus participation as a tool used in specific project stages allows different perceptions of participation to be identified. Each of the categories below refers to different levels of participation and communication (Mefalopulos, 2008). When initiating a development project or programme, it is useful to clarify what perception of participation will guide the strategy conceptually. Stretching the concept, four perceptions can be identified:

- **Passive Participation:** It is the least participatory of the four approaches. Primary stakeholders of a project participate by being informed about what is going to happen or has already happened. People's feedback is minimal or non-existent, and their participation is assessed through methods like head counting and contribution to the discussion (sometimes referred to as participation by information).
- **Participation by Consultation:** This is an extractive process, whereby stakeholders provide answers to questions posed by outside researchers or experts. Input is not limited to meetings but can be provided at different points in time. In the final analysis, however, this consultative process keeps all the decision-making power in the hands of external professionals who are under no obligation to incorporate stakeholders' input.
- **Participation by Collaboration:** This forms groups of primary stakeholders to participate in the discussion and analysis of predetermined objectives set by the project. This level of participation does not usually result in dramatic changes in what should be accomplished, which is often already determined. It does, however, require an active involvement in the decision-making process about how to achieve it. This incorporates a component of horizontal communication and capacity building among all stakeholders—a joint collaborative effort. Even if initially dependent on outside facilitators and experts, with time collaborative participation has the potential to evolve into an independent form of participation.
- **Empowerment Participation:** It is where primary stakeholders are capable and willing to initiate the process and take part in the analysis. This leads to joint decision making about what should be achieved and how. While outsiders are equal partners in the development effort, the primary stakeholders are *primus-inter- pares*, i.e., they are equal partners with a significant say in

decisions concerning their lives. Dialogue identifies and analyses critical issues and an exchange of knowledge and experiences lead to solutions. Ownership and control of the process rest in the hands of the primary stakeholders.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Participation involves support of different stakeholders such as governments at all levels, community members, the civil society and ordinary citizens. All these stakeholders are critical to educational planning in particular. The essence of their participation is to bring change that will lead to development in an organisation. The aim of empowering people in this process is inherent in participation. This is to say that without active involvement of major stakeholders, participation may be futile.

5.0 SUMMARY

This section identifies participation as the involvement of ordinary citizens in a development process. This can be used as a tool to achieve change and influence direction of an organisation. Reasons for participation include provision of basic services, pursuing advocacy goals, monitoring progress and facilitating opportunities for dialogue. Four key stages of development are identified in participation. These are: research, design, implementation and evaluation stages. Above all, there are different levels of participation which are passive participation, participation by consultation, participation by collaboration, and empowerment participation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is the definition of participation and why is participation necessary in educational planning?
2. Describe the various stages in participation and the level of involvement of educational stakeholders in each stage.

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UNIT 2 PARTICIPATORY PLANNING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Definition of Participatory Planning
 - 3.2 Purpose and Features of Participatory Planning
 - 3.3 Tools of Participatory Planning
 - 3.4 Steps in Participatory Planning
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The essence of participatory communication in education is to ensure participatory planning in educational policies and programmes. In any institution, no meaningful and positive planning can take place without the active involvement of those who are to be affected by the plan. Expanding and changing educational programmes and the complexity of education itself makes cooperative planning inevitable. Important to wise decision is the accumulation of all available information and knowledge related to the issues. To get this information, there should be a wide range of involvement in the planning process hence the importance of participatory planning. For effective participatory planning to take place, there must also be participatory communication.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define participatory planning
- state the purpose and features of participatory planning
- describe the tools of participatory planning
- explain the steps in participatory planning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition of Participatory Planning

Participatory Planning (PP) is a set of processes through which diverse groups and interests engage in reaching for a consensus on a plan and its

implementation' (DCLG). It is more than just public participation; rather it is a spectrum of processes involving, engagement, negotiation, pre-mediation and mediation. The use of participatory methods and tools has become a common practice in the field of educational planning. According to Oltheten (1999), participatory planning is the initial step in the definition of a common agenda for development by local community and external entity or entities.

3.2 Purpose and Features of Participatory Planning

The purpose of participatory planning is to create a platform for learning rather than plunging directly into problem solving. The process is expected to enhance:

- identification of the felt needs of the people
- bringing forth consensus
- the empowerment of local disadvantaged groups
- integration of local knowledge systems into project design
- two-way learning process between the project and local people
- political commitment and support
- accountability in local governance.

Salient Features

The planning process is expected to produce two sets of results:

1. Participatory planning should generate a two-way learning process, which will shape project interventions to local needs opportunities and constraints in the short run.
2. This learning process should lead to local empowerment and effective support at the institutional level in the long run.

These are considered preconditions for strengthening both institutional capacity for decentralised planning and local planning capacity.

3.3 Tools of Participatory Planning

The common tools available for participatory planning include:

1. **Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA):** This can be defined as a qualitative survey methodology using a multi-discipline team to formulate problems for research and development. It involves external experts teaming up with local community in a process of knowledge sharing.

2. **Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA):** This evolved from RRA. PRA is a label given to the growing family of participatory approaches and methods that emphasise local knowledge and enable local people to make their own appraisal, analysis and plans. This tool is efficient in terms of both time and money. PRA technique is used to gather enough information to make the necessary recommendations and decisions.

3.4 Steps in Participatory Planning

1. Conduct a dialogue and feedback process between citizens and local power holders to identify the needs of the people. The processes are:
 - mobilisation of people
 - adopting small group approach
 - preparation of a model agenda for the dialogue and feedback
 - adopt a semi- structured questionnaire approach derived from the PRA techniques for discussions.
2. Assessment of the local resources and problems and accordingly formulate development reports. The processes are to:
 - generate a comprehensive database for every locality for local level planning;
 - identify significant ecological variations in the community through RRA and PRA; and
 - prepare development reports that includes the information about local economic, social, geographical, and human resources information.
3. Preparation of project proposals through specific task forces. This could be a common project format that clearly defines the objectives, beneficiaries, activities, organisations involved, financial analysis, assessment and monitoring arrangement.
4. Formulation of local plans by elected bodies. The processes are:
 - choice of the projects and programmes to be included in the annual plans;
 - design of the structure of plan document and the procedures for its adoption by the decision makers; and
 - adoption of resolution by the elected representatives of the local bodies that enunciates the inter-sectoral and the intra-sectoral activities.

5. Formulation of plans at the higher levels. The processes are:
 - higher levels have to coordinate, integrate, and fill in gaps of the local plans; and
 - integration of local level plans with the block or district level plans.
6. Appraisal and approval of plans by an expert committee.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Planning is essential to the administrative process. It is important for stakeholders in education to be involved at the planning stage. Planning has been identified as the process that administrators use to select appropriate goals and course of action. For effectiveness, planning is to be jointly done by important members of any organisation. This is to create a platform whereby everybody within the organisation will learn and accept the responsibility and commitment for such plans.

5.0 SUMMARY

Planning decision is primarily the responsibility of a leader but such decisions are not always made in a vacuum, other stakeholders are always usually given opportunity to become involved in the process. Participatory Planning (PP) process is expected to produce both a short-term and a long-term result and they are supposed to strengthen institutional capacity for both decentralised and local planning. The major tools are the Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) and the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA). Six major steps are identified in PP that culminated in the appraisal-approval of plans.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe the major function of Participatory Planning.
2. When should the educational planner use the Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) and the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 PARTICIPATORY COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Definition and History of Participatory Communication
 - 3.2 Framework of Participatory Communication
 - 3.3 Guiding Principles
 - 3.4 The Role of the Media in Participatory Communication
 - 3.5 Phases of Communication Programme Cycle
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Communication involves at least two people and in most cases it also involves different groups hence a lot of networking goes on in the process of communication. Participatory communication can be for a group of people and by a group of people. For instance, a school has a wide constituency which includes the staff, parents, the civil society, governments at all levels, and even the international society and communication must go on and within and among these groups.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- describe and trace the history of participatory communication
- explain the framework of participatory communication
- state the guiding principles
- discuss the role of the media in participatory communication
- organise the phases of communication programme cycle.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition and History of Participatory Communication

Participation is a principle in development with support coming from many different stakeholders i.e. government, donors, civil societies and ordinary citizens. Lasswell's communication theory which was developed as far back as the 1948 understood communication as a

transfer of information leading to a foreseeable step-by-step change process. This is presented in the table below:

Table 1 : Lasswell's Theory

Who?	Says what?	In what channel?	To whom?	With what effects?
Refers to the senders/ those taking decisions about communication goals and Approaches?	Refers to the context and how to package it (i.e. the message).	Decides which media should be used	Refers to the audiences of the communication initiative	Evaluates the impact of communication

Source: Lasswell, H. (1948). "The Structure and Function of Communication in Society." In: L. Bryson (Ed.), *The Communication of Ideas* (pp. 37–51). New York, NY: Harper.

In the model of communication like other early models, there was no evidence of participatory element. The goal was individual behavioural change with the assumption that the power of communication to enhance development was the correct practice of the content and in the adequate targeting of audiences.

From the onset, the focus of participatory participation was on dialogical communication rather than linear communication. Most recently, participatory approaches to communication have reinforced the emphasis on structural and social changes. Another line of thinking within development communication focuses on life skills development. This deals with the issue of developing co-competencies required to engage activity as citizens of the society. Life skill development initiatives are performed in both formal and informal educational context.

3.2 Framework of Participatory Communication

When applying a participatory approach to communication in educational planning, there are key questions and a framework of guiding principles to lead practitioners and stakeholders. The following are key questions to consider:

- what is the educational planning problem to address: information, lack of skills, or social inequality?

- what notion of culture is inherent in the proposed approach?
- is the catalyst for change agent understood?
- what principles guide the understanding of education?
- are there active stakeholders or audiences to address? What are their respective roles in the communication process?
- what messages will be communicated: examples, life experiences or social issues?
- what is the aim of the change: individual behaviors, social norms, power relations, social or economic structures?
- how will outcomes be monitored and evaluated?
- what is the time perspective to achieve the desired changes?

These questions are relevant to pose prior to any communication for educational planning intervention.

3.3 Guiding Principles

A number of principles emerge as fundamental to participatory communication. These principles stem from globally influential thinkers and contribute to the framework under which participatory communication has evolved. Although not an exhaustive list, the following are some of the most important principles:

- **Dialogue**

The free and open dialogue remains the core principle of participatory communication. Freire (1973) defines dialogue as “the encounter between men in order to name the world. Those who have been denied their primordial right to make their speech must first reclaim this right and prevent the continuation of this act of exclusion.” For Freire, the free and open dialogue whereby people can “name the world” is voice, the principle of action-reflection-action and horizontal communication. In project language, the process of “naming the world” is called problem definition. Rather than just a lack of information, the type of problems defined in such dialogues can be of social or economic nature, issues of inequality or injustice. In defining the problem this way, the communication strategy to be developed will entail a different pathway than if it were one of information, whereby diffusion-oriented solutions would be suggested.

- **Voice**

Central to dialogic communication is a consciousness of power relations contained in any human relationship. Freire's concern was a shift in power, giving voice to marginalized groups, time and space to articulate their concerns, to define their problems, to formulate solutions, and to act on them. The role of the media in participatory communication presents similar concerns. Supporting and strengthening community media can ensure the most marginalized groups have a platform to voice their concerns, engage in public debate and solve problems.

- **Liberating Pedagogy**

For dialogic communication to happen, someone or something has to articulate the process. This catalyst is typically a person, internal to the community or external, acting to facilitate the dialogue. A radio or television program could also serve as the catalyst. According to Freire, however, the objective of the catalyst is not only to offer relevant solutions to pre-defined problems, thus simply disseminating information from the informed to the uninformed in a non-participatory manner. Rather, the catalyst would articulate a dialogue whereby collective problem identification and solution would take place (Freire 1973). For this liberating pedagogy to take place, Freire outlined four pillars on which to communicate: love, humility (the absence of arrogance), faith and hope. The logical consequence is the establishment of mutual trust. The result of a liberating pedagogy, based on dialogue, is what he termed "conscientização," which translates roughly into action-oriented awareness raising. Freire's liberating pedagogy contrasts what he called a "banking pedagogy" of depositing information in the minds of people.

- **Action-Reflection-Action**

Despite the emphasis on dialogue and reflection, participatory communication is also strongly action oriented. As a crucial ingredient of participatory communication, the empowerment process is based on reflection on problems, but also on integration of action—the attempt to act collectively on the problem identified. It grounds the "talk" in real life problems. Key results of participatory communication are the articulation of awareness raising and commitment to action. First and foremost, it becomes a process of empowerment for involved communities that feel committed to and ownership of the problem. Issues of leadership lay inherent in the attention given to the catalyst, and the emphasis of the collective nature of the process speaks to the need for mutually reinforcing the commitment to change, as well as speaking to the actual issue of power. Today these guiding principles

are widely recognized as the foundation of most participatory communication.

3.4 The Role of the Media in Participatory Communication

While some of the diffusion-oriented, monologic models of communication focus on national mass media's key roles in communication interventions, the more participatory strategies emphasize media that allows more dialogue, such as community-based media. The citizen media are highly participatory by providing access and space for people to participate in all phases of media production (Rodriguez, 2001).

Furthermore, another distinction regard the choice of medium—whether to use mass media or face-to-face communication like theatre or concerts. Linked to this choice is a concern for how the chosen media and communication formats are used.

Over the years, a series of concepts have emerged emphasizing different aspects of media's role in participatory communication processes. In developing participatory communication strategies, media-specific concerns evolve around the following issues:

- types of media: from folk, community, and mass media to the new media of internet and satellite communication
- levels of media: local and community-based media to national and transnational media
- nature of media: electronic media, one-way or interactive, face-to-face communication
- institutional characteristics of media: from public to private, national to community-owned, free and independent to closely government controlled
- economic logic informing the media: commercial media, non-profit media, and mixed models.

Does the existing media environment stimulate dialogue and empowerment processes? This question needs to be answered to assess how and to what degree collaboration with media can contribute to giving voice and visibility to the communities involved.

3.5 Phases of Communication Programme Cycle

The communication program cycle can run parallel to the project cycle when they both start at the same time. The basic phases of a communication programme can be classified as:

- participatory Communication Assessment (PCA) is where communication methods and tools are used to investigate and assess the situation;
- participatory Communication Strategy Design is based on the findings of the research and defines the best way to apply communication to achieve the intended change;
- implementation of Communication Activities to determine where activities planned in the previous phase are carried out;
- monitoring and Evaluation runs through the whole communication program, monitoring progress and evaluating the final impact of the intervention.

To make the programme cycle genuinely participatory, two-way communication should be adopted from the beginning and be applied consistently in each phase of the process. Because implementation success depends largely on the way the strategy has been designed, the first two phases, probing key issues and making decisions affecting the whole programme, are crucial. Finally, monitoring and evaluation assesses progress and helps to make the necessary adjustments during the implementation and to measure the overall impact at the end. This classification is equally valid for outreach (one-way) types of communication programs, as well as for participatory (two-way) ones.

Full participation by all stakeholders in any step of the process is not possible and in some cases probably not entirely desirable. For some situations and technical issues, it would not make sense to broaden the participatory decision-making exercise. If priorities are decided in a participatory manner and there is a broad consensus. In general, however, an overall participatory process (at least in key steps) is relevant to ensure transparent leadership and management of any educational planning programme according to agreed policies.

While allowing for stakeholders' participation, an educational planner or school manager must balance inclusiveness with time, resources, interests and knowledge of individuals and groups related to the intended change. Key stakeholders affected by the change should have

the opportunity to participate in the entire decision-making process defining the needed change.

1. Phase One: Participatory Communication Assessment (PCA)

In this phase, issues of relevance are researched and analyzed through two-way communication methods and techniques. For these tasks to be successful, it is necessary to establish an open or common space where key stakeholders can interact freely with each other. Establishing an open space facilitates the local stakeholder involvement in the decision-making process, thereby enhancing the chances of success and sustainability of the development initiative.

The name Participatory Communication Assessment (PCA) is derived from the Participatory Rural Communication Appraisal (PRCA) methodology created in the late 1990s. The following are basic steps in the PCA:

- (a) understand the socio-cultural context while identifying and defining key issues (including definition of key stakeholders);
- (b) create a common/public space, establish dialogue, and build trust among key stakeholders;
- (c) assess needs, problems, risks, opportunities, and solutions;
- (d) prioritise key issues for change and reconcile different perceptions;
- (f) validate findings and define solutions/objectives.

2. Phase Two: (Participatory) Communication Strategy Design

Similar to the first phase, a series of basic steps can help understand how to design a communication strategy based on a participatory communication assessment, helping to avoid problems of vague intent. Full participation of stakeholders in all steps is not an imperative as long as key decisions take stakeholders' inputs into account and/or are validated with stakeholders at a later stage.

Design of a participatory communication strategy divides into two broad modalities: monologic and dialogic. Monologic, a one-way communication approach, promotes, for example, a public reform, raising awareness of innovation that can benefit stakeholders or designing a health campaign to promote a desired behavior. The level of

change addressed by this approach concerns one or a mix of the following: awareness, knowledge, attitudes or behaviours, and practices. Not everybody might agree to include one-way approaches within the context of participatory communication, however, participation is not an absolute concept—either there or not. Participation does not always mean everybody is engaged in every step of the way. It can also be considered as a way to ensure the opportunity for stakeholders to participate in key steps of the decision-making process. Mody (1991) refers to participatory message design, based on audiences' inputs, as a most effective way to design and implement campaigns: this implementation through mass media can be considered mainly one-way.

In a monologic modality the basic steps of strategy design are to define:

- (1) SMART objective/s (SMART stands for specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, time-bound);
- (2) primary and secondary audience;
- (3) level/type of change (i.e., awareness, knowledge, attitude, or behavior);
- (4) communication approaches and activities;
- (5) channels and media;
- (6) messages;
- (7) expected outputs and/or outcomes.

The second modality, dialogic, concerns strategies requiring a change in the level of collaboration, mediation, conflict resolution, mobilisation or partnership, and coalition building. Participatory communication can enhance social accountability and transparency in the growing sector of good governance, which promotes the establishment of common spaces where various constituencies meet to air and negotiate different positions.

In a dialogic modality the steps do not differ significantly. The major difference is that change is not rigidly predefined, but the result of the interaction among the various stakeholders. The basic steps are to define:

- (1) SMART objectives;
- (2) stakeholders;
- (3) level/type of change (e.g., collaboration, mobilisation, mediation, partnership building, etc.);
- (4) communication approaches and activities;
- (5) partners, channels and, eventually, venues;
- (6) target issues;
- (7) expected outputs and/or outcomes.

Hence, the main differences reside in a couple of steps. In step two, audiences in the monologic mode are substituted by the more active conception of stakeholders in the dialogic mode. In the third step, the level of expected change differs: in the monologic mode it usually refers to a change in awareness, knowledge, attitudes, practices or behaviours, while in the dialogic mode it can refer to the level of trust, collaboration or partnership established, or even to the outcome of a joint investigation and analysis. In the following section, the steps of strategy design for each of the two modalities are illustrated through practical examples.

3. Phase Three: Implementation of Communication Activities

Once the communication strategy has been defined, it is important to draw an action plan to implement and facilitate the management and monitoring of all relevant activities. Starting from the objective, the plan includes people (audiences or stakeholders) who are engaged in the needed change, activities planned, resources needed (human and financial), parties responsible for each activity, and time frame. Finally, a column about the indicators to assess outputs and outcomes can also be added to facilitate the monitoring of the activities. The strategy and the related action plan must always take into account the context, the resources available and any other factor that might affect the implementation of the activities.

4. Phase Four: Monitoring and Evaluation

In many instances, this evaluation phase is planned and performed only towards the end of a project, while in reality, its planning should start at the beginning of an initiative. Furthermore, in a genuine participatory communication modality, the usual approach of assigning the responsibility of the design and implementation of the evaluation to external experts cannot be considered a proper course of action. If participation means that stakeholders are partners in the decision-making process, it follows logically that they must also be partners in the process of evaluating the impact of that change.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Participatory communication articulates social change processes where monitoring the actual process is crucial to understanding the outcomes. This is a difficult task, as the indicators are seeking to capture social change processes. Participatory communication is based on the principle of joint assessing and joint analysing of communication strategies by the participating people.

5.0 SUMMARY

This section deals with the history of participatory communication which starts from the 1940s with Lasswell's theory that sees communication as a transfer of information that leads to change but without evidence of participation. With time, there developed a framework of participatory communication with several guiding principles such as dialogue, voice, liberating pedagogy and action-reflection-action. The role of media in participatory communication is also emphasised. These media can be local or national. The communication programme itself has four phases which are: participatory communication assessment, participatory communication strategy design, implementation of communication activities, and monitoring and evaluation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Give a critique of Lasswell's theory in relation to participatory communication
2. Will Lasswell's theory be effective in today's communication strategy?

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UNIT 4 CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Understanding the Community and Citizens
 - 3.2 Reason for Two-way Communication between School and Community
 - 3.3 Formal Citizen Participation
 - 3.4 Informal Citizen Participation
 - 3.4.1 Levels of Citizen Participation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Many people have advocated for an increase in citizen participation in educational matters. This is desirable because practices that put people and communities at a distance always make the achievement of some educational goals difficult if not impossible. Practices that open school or educational institutions reduce the distance between educators and communities and support cooperative relationships. It is part of the democratic ideology which makes new resources available to education and its different agencies. Citizen participation can be mainly for information gathering, and data analysis among others. It can take place on both an individual and organisational basis. It may involve formal and informal communication and participation between the citizens and educational administrators, or it may be indirectly channeled. Citizen participation could be grouped into two categories i.e. formal and informal participation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- describe the community and citizens
- explain the reasons for two-way communication between school and community
- explain formal citizen participation
- describe informal citizen participation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Understanding the Community and Citizens

Education is a public business and the public, particularly citizens in any school community, are regarded as stakeholders in the educational business. Because of this, it is important for the school administrator or principal in particular to have enough information about the school community. There is a need for educators therefore through adequate information to understand the local community more so that the desired educational programmes can be instituted. No Educational programme can be achieved without some measure of interaction with the community. The school or the educators should be able to work with the community and to explain educational policies to them as well as tap the community resources. They must know the value of the community and the major strength and weaknesses of the community. While understanding the community is crucial, it is also important for the community to know what goes on in the school. The community substantially determines the quality and quantity of educational provisions of the school within them. The community and the school must constantly seek facts about themselves through constant communication to enable them make sound judgment and decisions about each other.

Information about a community could be gathered in a dozen of informal ways. They are:

- **Community Surveys:** The community surveys may be carried out by a school board or by an individual school. Those surveys done by boards often investigate major policy issues or study what the people of the community believe to be the major goals of education. Individual schools may study these large issues as well. More often, however, school surveys focus on specific problems such as smoking areas in schools or school policies concerning student absenteeism.

The purpose of a survey should be as a response to a problem or to a need for information. It should be well-defined and the types of information required in solving the problem identified before writing of the survey.

The population to be surveyed depends on the type of information required. In writing the survey, the most common type of survey is the questionnaire which should be simple and not too long. Questions should be clearly stated and direct while the language should be simple.

- **Home Visits:** Home visits by either teacher or principal are a time honoured method of gaining information about students, their families and community. Five guidelines for successful home visits are listed below:
 - phone or write before visiting to be sure that you are welcome at a time convenient for the parent.
 - conversation should be casual and not directed to persons or embarrassing. If you are to learn anything of value, it will have to come indirectly through observation rather than an inquisition.
 - if possible, both parents should be present. Often, the source of difficulty lies in the relation of parents to each other.
 - depending upon the kind of home visited, you should dress appropriately. If a low income family, care should be taken not to overdress, and if high income family, not to look dowdy.
 - respect the prevailing cultural practices of the family. Don't forget that the teacher is on public display during the visit, and can either reinforce or change the parents' image of the school and its staff.
- **Social Gatherings:** Meeting during social gathering such as end of the year school party or a pre-determined invitation of parents and members of the community to meet over lunch or cocktail or drink. At these meetings, parents are encouraged to give their opinions regarding specific educational issues. These gatherings also provide an opportunity to promote better communication and goodwill between school and community.
- **School Telephone:** Educators can talk to parents or community members through phone calls. And where schools have their own phone, a member of staff can be in charge to take parents and community members call to answer their enquiry.

Every society has a power structure. These power structures are the invaluable decision making bodies in the community. Educators should however, be interested in who makes decision for them. Education is a public business. Many people both visible and invisible are interested in this enterprise and educators themselves are interested in determining who are influential in decision making on educational issues in their community, state and even in the country. Therefore, all efforts must be made to reach them and this can be done through a well-channeled communication route.

The educator wants to secure the help and resources he would need to carry out his programme successfully. He is therefore required to possess some knowledge of the power structure in the society.

In complex i.e. competitive societies, the power structure may be distributed in several peaks. Without doubt those who control our schools include PTA, community officials, businessmen, the civil society, the media, and religious organisations among others.

In some cases, there are rivalries among different groups concerning who controls education. Each of these groups has different objectives and they all desire to influence the schools to achieve their objectives.

What then is Power Structure?

Power structure is the relative distribution of decision making among the groups of people in a school district. Decisions which are of vital importance to the schools are of considerable importance to the power structure. It is not official, neither is it a - governmental – structure. It could also be referred to as the distribution of social power or influence among the citizens in determining the type of community they want and the kind of institutional arrangements that will best suite them. There is however, an unequal distribution of this power in the community. Moreover, power structure is not a constant; it changes with times and condition. This is why the educational administrator must review its communication strategies at all times.

There are many schools of thought on power structure. They are:

- (1) **Hunter and the Elitists:** To them power is monolithic and homogeneous and sometimes on a single block. It is monopolistic because it allows no variation. To Hunter, power is dominated by a small ruling elite isolated from the masses, (grassroots). They are often persons of high status, rich and small as their approval is always necessary for any educational programme.
- (2) **Dahl and Pluralists:** Dahl was more dedicated to the democratic ideology. Unlike Hunter, Dahl, found that decisions were not made by the same ruling elite. Influence was exercised by specialised few individuals and there were different groups of decision makers for different issues. Dahl found for instance that the democratic creed to some extent placed limits on all concerned. He found that the social leaders and the wealthy were only influential in decisions directly concerned with business prosperity. Dahl unlike Hunter suggests that the decision makers

at the top are not significantly more powerful than those at other levels as they would be in a monolithic power structure.

- (3) **John Spiess:** John Spiess has reviewed this controversy bringing in what could be termed a polythic power structure. This is common in complex competitive societies. The power peaks are distributed to represent the power figures of different segments of the population. The polythics consist of multiple ruling elite. There are plural issue areas but within each can be located an elitist monolithic decision making structure. Even though a given person may be at the top of a pyramid for one issue, he may drop to the bottom for other issues.

How can a School Administrator Study Power Structure?

The school administrator cannot employ same methods to study their community power structures. Their relationship to the Boards of Governors and the community at large and the nature of these bodies and environment will help determine the types of approach and communication strategies to adopt not only to study them but to relate with them.

Educators could initiate however, formal and informal discussions with leaders in areas of importance to the school district.

3.2 Reason for Two-way Communication between Schools and Communities

There is need for educators to learn about the host community so as to understand their local needs and circumstances and also be able to tap on their wealth of experience. This requires some measure of interaction with the community. The school cannot and should not move alone. It must be aware of both the local community and even the larger community.

It is not only the school that needs to know the community. The community too must strive to know the school. The community is expected to contribute substantially and determine the quantity and quality of educational provisions in their schools.

The community must constantly seek facts about the school so as to enable them make sound contributions to the school programmes. They must help in planning and formulating policy while the educators too must respect their competence.

3.3 Formal Citizen Participation

Formal participation is defined as that involvement which is provided by law, custom, or mutual agreement and for which a formal structure is provided.

1. **Board of Education:** The Board of Education is the most common vehicle for formally organised citizen participation. The board members are normally appointed not elected (varying from state to state). The boards are established by law and also exercise powers delegated to them by the State legislators. They are designed to be representatives of the community.
2. **The PTA:** is an example of a non legal but nevertheless formalised participation. The organisation operates here in Nigeria at the local/school levels with definite objectives for which it is also organised to achieve. It is recognised as a genuine asset in many schools and in a few, benevolently tolerated.
3. **The School- Based Management Committees:** This has been set up to increase citizens' participation in school management. It is a participative management style involving school administrators, teachers, parents and community members towards improving the instruction and the school climate. It may be concerned with the total programme of the school or part of it. It has a legal status but is organised by agreement and has established areas of action and channels of communication with the school. In most cases, these committees agree to operate within a framework proposed by the school; such committees may or may not be affiliated to state or national citizens' organisations.
4. **Alumni Associations:** They have specific objectives and, while loosely organised for the most part, do have a structure and procedures acceptable to the school and in some cases established by it.
5. **Individual:** Formal individual participation is the most common in the form of the school vote. At the ballot box, the individual expresses him/herself on issues formally presented to him. S/he may register his/ her assent or dissent. In other countries, most boards of education provide any citizen who wishes, an opportunity to appear before the board and present his or her own case. Such presentation may be in the nature of a complaint, a

suggestion or a request. Where there is effective communication, citizens are to have direct contact with schools.

3.4 Informal Citizen Participation

By far the greater amount of participation is, by definition, unstructured; nevertheless, often quite effective in contributing to school plans and policies. It is sometimes frank and open and at other times cloaked in secrecy. Leadership of such participation is in some cases easily identified; on others undistinguishable. In whatever form it may take, this should be of direct concern to school administrators and community leaders.

3.4.1 Levels of Citizen Participation

Primary Level: This is the collection of information involvement in varying degrees a major proportion of the citizens of a community. Willingness and the ability to follow direction is all that is necessary at this level. These directives must be effectively communicated so that a guide for the collection of pertinent data is usually supplied by professionals. Lay citizens simply follow instructions while the assembled information is taken over by professionals and forms the basis for planning and policy making. Work on the primary level represents a genuine contribution.

Secondary Level: At this level, citizens participate in classifying, analysing and interpreting data, usually those which they have helped to collect. This is usually characterised by a greater selectivity of personnel. Professional men, businessmen, homemakers, and others can bring new and revealing points of view to the interpretation of data. The net result of lay participation at this level is likely to be clearer, more accurate perceptions of the broad base of consultation than would otherwise have been possible.

Tertiary Level or Third Level: This is the third and highest level of participation. Here judgments are reached and specific courses of action recommended. The recommendation of the lay people are based on the assembled data, analysed and interpreted, with the help of professional advisers. Usually, the group here is very small. At this level, lay citizens come face-to-face with the problems of planning and policy making. Although they have no legal responsibility, they do develop a genuine sense of responsibility for the welfare of the school. It is assumed, of course, that their judgments are made on the basis of accurate data and with the advice and counsel of professional people.

4.0 CONCLUSION

All citizens have roles to play in one aspect or the other in educational programmes of a community. Since education is a public business, it is apparent that educators must use all avenues to secure their active participation. One of such avenues is having enough information about citizens and using this information to communicate with them to enlist their support.

5.0 SUMMARY

This section deals with citizens' participation in education. To make citizens participate, the first step is to understand the community and citizens themselves and this can be done through various means such as community surveys, home visits and regular communication. Some members of the community are visible while some are invisible and yet, powerful. These are the community power structure which can be elitist or pluralist or polythics. The important thing is that the school administrator should employ appropriate method to study the community and the different power structure. Above all, this section also explains that community members can participate as organisations and as individuals. And this can be done both formally and informally.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

How can an educational administrator identify the various segments in his community and use them appropriately?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS OF PARTICIPATORY COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Essential Elements of Participatory Communication I
 - 3.2 Essential Elements of Participatory Communication II
 - 3.3 Sequence of Communication Strategy
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Participatory communication involves a two-way communication traffic to design and operate the communication strategies that best suits them. This is often based on past and present experiences. This forms the basis for effective participation

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- describe the essential elements of participatory communication I
- explain the essential elements of participatory communication II
- state the sequence of communication strategy I
- explain the sequence of communication strategy II.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Essential Elements of Participatory Communication I

The Essential Elements

1. **Review:** How have we been communicating in the past? How effective has that been? How do our audiences perceive us?
2. **Objective:** What do we want our communications to achieve? Are our objectives SMART?

3. **Audience:** Who is our audience? Do we have a primary and a secondary audience? What information do they need to act upon our message?
4. **Message:** What is our message? Do we have one message for multiple audiences or multiple messages for multiple audiences?
5. **Basket:** What kinds of communication “products” best capture and deliver our messages?
6. **Channels:** What channels will we use to promote and disseminate our products?
7. **Resources:** What kind of budget do we have for this? Will this change in the future? What communication skills and hardware do we have?
8. **Timing:** What is our timeline? Would a staged strategy be the most appropriate? What special events or opportunities might arise? Does the work (or future work) of like-minded organisations or ministries, etc., present opportunities?
9. **Brand:** Are all of our communication products “on brand”? How can we ensure that we are broadcasting the right message?
10. **Feedback:** How will we know when our communications strategy is 100 per cent successful? What will have changed? How can we assess whether we used the right tools, were on budget and on time, and had any influence?

The Essential Elements illustrate some core truths of communications:

- We can only communicate what we know.
- Communication is a two-way process. The better we listen to our audience, the better we will be able to answer to their needs and the more our messages will be believed, liked, and ultimately acted upon.
- An effective communicator knows what an audience needs to know, what “language” they understand, and what they look at and listen to.
- Communications are the most visible single activity we engage in, requiring extra delicacy – say the wrong thing or present ourselves incorrectly and the damage could be severe and lasting.

- We should develop tools that fit the channels available for our message.
- We must develop messages that respect the cultural context of our audiences.
- We must understand and respect our communication abilities and limits, as well as our time and resources: communications can be time-and skill-intensive.
- We must learn from our mistakes and our successes to improve on our future communications.

1. Review – Performance and Perception

How have we been communicating in the past? How effective has that been? How do our audiences perceive us? An audit – a rigorous and structured review or assessment – can help us to assess our past communications performance and any perceptions of our organisation by considering:

- the general state of communications in our organisation;
- the ways our organisation has communicated in the past (internally and externally);
- how audiences perceive our organisation.

2. Objectives – Making them SMART

What do we want our communications to achieve? Are our objectives SMART?

What, ultimately, do we want from communications? All strategies must start with an understanding of objectives. Communications can be expensive in resources and time, so the more precisely we can state our reasons for communicating, the better we'll be able to spend those precious resources.

Many research organisations might state their principal communications goal as: “In communicating our results and processes, we are seeking to influence or change X,” or perhaps more generally, “We want people to understand the significance of our research”. There may be a variety of “sub-reasons” for communicating but at the end of the day, influence is typically the central goal of most research institutions.

A valuable start might be to write down this type of overarching one-sentence communications objective: “We want our communications to make our research understandable and to ultimately influence policy”. This might apply to the organisation as a whole or to a single project, or both. After defining a general objective, we should create precise sub-objectives. The “SMART” acronym is useful here: all of our objectives should be specific; measurable; attainable; result-oriented; and time-limited.

3. Audience – Primary and Secondary Targets

Who is our audience? Do we have a primary and a secondary audience? What information do they need, to take action on our work? Our communication efforts hinge upon this type of understanding. For instance, we could spend time and finance creating a video – but if our audience is, for instance, rural dwellers, will they have the hardware to play it? Will they speak the language of the video? If not, can we add subtitles? And will they be able to read those? Each audience has its own needs, ranging from the intellectual (e.g. issue/research comprehension) to the cultural (e.g. images considered taboo) to the practical (e.g. owning a radio, having electricity) and the greater we understand and respect these boundaries, the likelier we are to achieve our desired impact.

4. Message – Problems, Possibilities, Policies

What is our message? Do we have one message for multiple audiences or multiple messages for multiple audiences? While we may have only one message that we want to convey (e.g. a particular research result or recommendation), we may want to modify this message for several different audiences. It is more than likely that we will have three or four key messages, and will want to tailor them for three or four audiences using three or four different tools.

5. Basket – Tools and Products

What kinds of communications “products” will best capture and deliver our messages? The choice of our communications “basket” depends squarely on the type and content of message to deliver, our available resources, and also – most crucially – on how the audience likes to receive information. What newspaper do they read? What radio station do they listen to? Where do they gather? How can we marry scientific content with the right dissemination channel?

3.2 Essential Elements of Participatory Communication II

6. Channels – Promotion and Dissemination

What channels will we use to promote and disseminate our products? Having the right message, the right audience, and the right products is one thing. Delivering them is another. All too often, researchers spend too much time on the products and not enough on the channel. This is a critical failing because the channel is every bit as important as the product itself. The channel is essential. The medium – be it TV, newspaper, or a meeting – dictates who receives the message. If someone must pay for a service, (e.g. a newspaper) those who don't pay won't receive it. If someone must attend a meeting to receive the message, those who don't attend won't receive it.

Quite simply, our products must be seen and heard, for them to have any value at all. What's more, they must be seen and heard by the right people to have any impact. And before we develop any product or tool, we must identify the right channel to reach our audiences, we must budget for it, and we must have a strategy in place for moving our product to it and through it.

7. Resources – Materials, Finances, People

What kind of budget do we have for this? Will this change in the future? What communications skills and hardware do we have? Communications can be expensive. They require high-quality materials and methods for creating those materials; they require people with the skills to use those methods; and they require dedicated financing. We need to be realistic about what we can actually achieve, and be aware of the many "hidden" costs around certain tools.

8. Timing – Events, Opportunities, Planning

What is our timeline? Would a staged strategy be the most appropriate? What special events or opportunities might arise? Does the work (or future work) of like-minded organisations or ministries, etc., present possible dissemination opportunities? Setting realistic deadlines in communications can be tricky – especially when we take to heart the ideas of listening, learning and adapting, and being reactive and responsive. There are obvious deadlines if we want to disseminate our messages: national policy dialogues, ministerial meetings, international conferences, purchased air time, and so on. What's more, once we've aroused interest in our work, we must have the products ready to satisfy that demand. We may opt for a "staged strategy," envisioning the build-

up of our core messages (from simple to sophisticated) as a time-bound process.

Baeyaert (2005) frames his vision of a staged approach through a desire not “to play all your cards at once,” urging organisations to “map out who you will approach first (influencer cascade); plan for a regular flow of information rather than one-shot announcements; [and] build in ‘highlight activities’ with high impact.”

9. Brand

Creating one and being on it. Are all of our communication products “on brand”? How can we ensure that we are broadcasting the right message? A brand tells the world, at a glance, who and what we are. It is what we want to be seen, known and remembered for. “Being on brand” means that whatever we do, say or produce is consistent with the image and quality our brand represents therefore our brand represents everything we do.

Three simple “being on brand” strategies include:

1. Creating a “communications committee” to review our messages and products before they’re disseminated. There are some important questions we need to ask ourselves before we release any product. The committee needs not be composed entirely of our own staff members; we may find individuals from like-minded organisations (or even from a donor organisation) happy to quality-check the consistency, “honesty,” and perspective in our messages.
2. Taking or providing media training. This is essential to understanding how we might remain “on brand.” We should understand how the media might react to our messages, and how it might choose to report us. What is a “brand” to the media? How do the media select the stories it covers? What “issues” do they generally report? We need to ensure that everyone in our school understands how the local/national/global media works and can reduce our work to effective, punchy and consistent sound bytes. We need to ensure that even the educational administrator, for instance, can speak in strong detail about our general work or any of our specific projects.
3. Hiring a professional to create a logo and a style guide. These design issues are central to a perceived “professionalism”: the more professional a brochure or newsletter looks, the more professional the issuing organisation must be. Just as our

personal appearance speaks to our professionalism, so do the small details of design contribute to the “look and feel” of our organisation.

10. Feedback – Evaluative Thinking

How will we know when our communications strategy is per cent successful? What would have changed? How can we assess whether we used the right teaching methods, whether on budget and on time, and if we made any impact? Creating “feedback loop” mechanisms that can shed some light on what is, and is not working well. This is essential information: we want to know which of our students are performing, and which are not performing. We want to know how parents receive them, and how their “perception” of school might be changing. How might we change both our strategy and our products to reflect our users’ views and experiences with our communications?

Communications Strategy Template

Here are the essential elements with some room for school organisations to fill-in their own answers:

1. **Review:** How have we been communicating in the past?
2. **Objectives:** What do we want our communications to achieve? Are our objectives SMART?
3. **Audience:** Who is our audience? What information do they need to act on, on our work?
4. **Message:** What is our message? Do we have one message for multiple audiences or multiple messages for multiple audiences?
5. **Basket:** What kinds of communications “products” will best capture and deliver our messages?
6. **Channels:** How will we promote and disseminate our products? What channels will we use?
7. **Resources:** What kind of budget do we have for this? Will this change in the future? What communications hardware and skills do we have?
8. **Timing:** What is our timeline? Would a staged strategy be the most appropriate? What special events or opportunities might

arise? Does the work of like-minded organisations present possible opportunities?

9. **Brand:** Are all of our communications products “on brand”? How can we ensure that we are broadcasting the right message?
10. **Feedback:** Did our communications influence our audiences? How can we assess whether we used the right tools, we’re on budget and on time, and had any influence?

3.3 Sequence of Communication Strategy

As the message design is by far the most common mode to be used in communication campaigns, this sequence has been developed considering message design as the main approach. If other approaches/modes will be used, they will be added following a similar sequence.

The process of communication strategy design starts in the field with collecting data, knowing the community and exchanging information. An effective strategy originates from these field findings. That is why it is important that during the field exercise you discuss and reflect upon the daily findings with the community.

Analysing the data is an on-going process. Nevertheless, once you are back from the field, you should go through all the data in an exhaustive manner, so as to review in depth, the validity of your findings. Ideally, this should be done within the community. It is important to collect all information on the community from the community itself in order to have their opinion and their perceptions clearly and properly represented.

Comparing the qualitative data from the PRCA to that from the baseline survey assists in validating the findings. You should also compare the original problem tree of the project with the new one derived from the field, reflecting the community point of view.

The two perceptions should be compared and analysed to confirm or redefine the main problems. For each main problem being defined, you should closely assess and investigate the cause-effect implications, thus reviewing the problem tree or drawing a new one if needed. The purpose of doing this is to identify and analyse the focal causes.

The sequences are:

1. Review the project framework (secondary data review, on-going project rationale and purpose, main problem/s to be addressed);
2. Carry out the participatory research in the field (PRCA + Baseline);
3. Analyse the field research findings and identify the focal problems;
4. Identify and draw the profiles of priority interaction groups;
5. Define SMART communication objectives and solutions (how to);
6. State the rough content of the issues related to the focal problems and SMART objectives;
7. Select the design mode (for the purpose of this handbook discussion themes/message design);
8. Define the communication approaches and methods;
9. Preliminary identification of the required outputs, activities and inputs;
10. Develop the creative design of discussion themes and messages;
11. Select the media and finalise the message design;
12. Revise and define the overall communication approaches, outputs (Instructional Design, discussion themes/message design, group mobilisation activities design);
13. Revise and finalise the activities needed to achieve the intended outputs;
14. Revise and finalise the inputs required to carry out the planned activities;
15. Assemble and review the work plan for the implementation phase;
16. Develop the communication materials;

17. Carry out the pre-testing and subsequent review of the materials;
18. Supervise the mass production;
19. Training of trainers on relevant issues and materials;
20. Supervise the implementation of activities; and
21. Supervise the monitoring and evaluation.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In participatory communication, it has been established that the main elements are: to review; to set objectives; and consider both the audience and the message before appropriate channels can be decided. All these essential parts could only make communication effective.

5.0 SUMMARY

This section deals with essential elements of participatory communication which starts with review of past messages, the new objectives which are supposed to be specific, measurable, attainable, result-oriented, and time-limited (SMART). The elements also focus on the audience, the message, the channels, the resources and the time-line for communication activities. The section also emphasises, as before, that communication is a two-way process for both the communicattee and the audience. Most of the activities would also need thorough planning and end with evaluation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe the essential elements of participatory communication and how this can be practiced in an educational institution?
2. What is SMART and why is it essential to communication?

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MODULE 3 COMMUNICATION MEDIA IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Unit 1	Media and the Criteria for Selection in Educational Planning Programme
Unit 2	Radio and Video: Strengths and Limitations
Unit 3	Posters and Photo: Strengths and Limitations
Unit 4	Charts and Slide Sets/ Film Strips: Strengths and Limitations
Unit 5	Telephone, Television and Newspaper Strengths and Limitations

UNIT 1 MEDIA AND THE CRITERIA FOR SELECTION IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING PROGRAMME

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
	3.1 Forms of Educational Media
	3.2 Criteria for Educational Media Selection
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Educational institutions have different types of communication media available to them. The ones to be used at school level would be different from what to use for the general public. Appropriate choice and utilisation of communication media can enhance to a great extent school-community relations. The media is a veritable instrument of communication and they are of different types. The target often determines the type of media to be used. Communication will only be effective if consideration is given to media types and their audiences.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- describe the various forms of educational media

- explain the criteria for the selection of the various media.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Forms of Educational Media

It is usual for many principals, for instance, to think of only one or two ways of conveying their messages without thinking of any other possible alternatives. Very few of them devote some time to analysing the strengths and weaknesses of their various ways of sending messages. The choice of an appropriate medium for sending a message should be determined, among other factors, by the nature of the message itself, the content of the message, the intended recipient of the message and the context of the communication. Routine information, announcements of important forthcoming events in the school, reports of some completed events and programmes and other such messages that are of interest to the school staff, students and members of the public, for instance, need to be conveyed in written form and be placed on well-kept school notice boards.

Generally in Nigeria, instructional materials used in teaching and learning are determined by various factors such as population of learners, teacher motivation, funding, among others. In schools, the reasons for the use of any identified communication strategy is its ability to stimulate students through both visual and auditory organs especially in large classrooms or auditoria where modern technology can be used to control the size of the visual images and the amplitude of the sound so that learners can hear/ or see (Adeyemi, 1984)

Ogili (2001) and Talabi (1984) contend that the use of media in educational institutions should be well organised, selected and monitored by the teacher. The teacher should, therefore, encourage question and answer and give assignment for assessment. Implementation levels include support to the teacher by encouraging him to develop through conferences, seminars, workshops, regular payment of salaries and allowances. This in turn creates enhancing mood, support written materials and, at the same time, avenue for participation in decision-making.

The various forms of educational media in the school system include the following:

(a) Graphic Materials

Graphs, charts, diagrams, posters, maps, globes and cartoons: These materials are often displayed in classrooms to illustrate various educational issues. Some are pasted on walls such as charts, diagrams

and maps. Some are just displayed in the classroom and are movable like globes and even some posters. A poster for instance is like a large notice board and it is always put in classrooms and strategic places in the school to advertise one thing or the other. When they are put on walls, they can be for decoration or educational training. Graphs are often a planned drawing showing how two or more sets of members are related to each other. It can also depict size, age, height, etc.

(b) Display Materials

Cloth-board, billboards, flat pictures, flannel boards and chalkboards. The display materials are cloth form such as flannels or other plain materials. Things can be written on them and pictures can be placed on them.

(c) Printed Materials

Textbooks, encyclopaedia, dictionaries, newspapers, official documents, duplicated materials: These are used for instruction to explain or convey a thought in a written language. The educational contents of these materials are written in a clearly and unambiguous language for the reader to decode the message the writer has encoded. It must be noted that the contents are usually targeted at specific person or people for communication to be effective.

(d) Projected materials

16mm films, 35mm films, transparencies, telephoto: These materials are slotted into an overhead projector to present an image onto a wall or screen so that many people can see educational films. The educational contents would have been pre-stored or packaged in these films, transparencies, and others as a software device. It is then assisted by hardware device such as projector so that a large number of people can access it.

(e) Audio Materials

Radio, telephone, records, tape recordings: These media materials make communication to be effective most especially when face-to-face contact seems impossible. The message should be communicated audibly to ensure its effectiveness.

(f) Others are

Magic boards, microcosm models and puppets. These modern materials are very efficient and often learner-centred.

3.2 Criteria for Educational Media Selection

When considering which media to use in the communication strategy, go back to the problem addressed and to the stated communication objective. If you want to increase people's participation on a certain activity, you may want to use discussion tools as a leading medium. On the other hand, if your aim is to send a message alerting people on a straightforward topic, you might decide to use radio. Before taking a decision, revisit your purpose, the situational context, the medium characteristics and the interaction groups' profiles.

An interpersonal approach (person-to-person or group discussion) is very effective in addressing individual needs and allowing people to express their ideas directly. On the other hand interpersonal communication approaches can reach only a limited number of people and discussions can get monopolised by influential individuals or go in an undesired direction. Indigenous traditional media (folk drama, theatre, storytelling, songs, dance, etc.) belong to this group of approaches and have the great advantage of giving the driver's seat to the community. Production of this sort is usually cheaper and allows a certain topic to be developed within the appropriate local context. The disadvantages are that it may reach only a limited number of people and that it may not be available when needed.

Modern media (video, radio, newspapers, booklets, posters, etc.) are very effective in generating interest and providing needed information particularly for community members and other stakeholders. They can be divided into visual, audio (radio, cassettes) and print media (leaflets, books, etc.). Visual media (TV, video) have several advantages, namely clarity (explanations can be assisted by images), interest and retention (what you see stays longer than what you hear or read). Audio media (radio, cassettes) are a very good supporting and motivational medium, but it is difficult to sustain interest on longer programmes. Print media can be effective either in passing short straightforward messages (posters) or for treating issues in detail (booklets, books, etc.) However, they also require that people be able to read, which is a major obstacle in many areas. All of the modern media are expensive, compared to the other types. Very often they are developed outside the cultural context of the communities they are meant to serve. Even their level of penetration is generally low, especially for television, and, partly for radio and newspapers especially where electricity is not available.

A school board of individual school has a number of different types of communication media available to it. These include the mimeographed note to parents or the school newsletter as well as the public media such

as radio, television and the newspaper. Appropriate choice and utilisation of communication media can greatly enhance the educational planning programme. General principles governing the selection and use of communication media are listed below:

- Identify and list all available media. Boards or schools located in large cities will have access to a greater range of media than will those in rural areas
- Develop long-range plans for the utilisation of the most promising media
- Choose the medium or media best adapted to the time, message, and coverage desired
- As far as possible, develop a balanced usage of available media
- Establish and maintain a fair policy for news release through the various media available
- If possible, make use of all available media over a period of time
- Other factors being equal, select the media which requires the least preparation time
- Prepare the information to suit the medium to be used. For example, newspapers require printed news releases and photographs, while a radio station may require a voice clip
- Respect the requirements of public media regarding form, space, accuracy and deadlines
- Give public recognition to media and individuals who have made special contributions or rendered outstanding service to school-community communication
- Conduct periodic evaluations of the adequacy, appropriateness, and effectiveness of the media used.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Use of media varies and is most critical to communication in schools and outside the school system.

5.0 SUMMARY

There are various forms of educational media. These vary from graphic, to display and printed materials. There are also electronic materials. However, before any of these could be used, it is important to consider the problems to be solved and the objectives to be achieved before embarking on media selection and the cultural milieu.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Take a hypothetical problem and select the right media to be used to address such problem

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 RADIO AND VIDEO: STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Radio: Strengths and Limitations of Radio and Media
 - 3.2 Video: Strengths and Weaknesses
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The radio and video are both electronic means of communication, but the radio in particular does not depend only on electricity and because of this, the area of coverage is often wider. Both channels are effective for educational communication but each has strengths and weaknesses.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- describe radio usage and its strengths and limitations
- explain the use of video and its strengths and limitations.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Radio: Strengths and Limitations of Radio and Video Media

Radio is a medium widely used in educational programme. 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 in the village.

3. The use of audio cassettes, both for use in the community or for producing and recording of local programmes on crucial issues, both for inside and outside purposes. The role of radio is generally defined as to inform, educate and entertain. In educational planning programme, 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.

Strengths

- Wide coverage and availability in rural areas.
- Cheap production/reception.
- Relatively simple programme production.
- Local radio stations facilitate localised information.

Weaknesses

- Weak as a medium for training and education since it is audio only.
- Batteries for receivers are often difficult to buy or too expensive for people.

Generally, radio ensures excellent support medium, good for strengthening motivation and for drawing attention to new ideas and techniques, but weak for providing detailed information and training.

3.2 Video: Strengths and Weaknesses

Video has often been regarded as a powerful medium that is adaptable and effective in all situations. Unfortunately this is not the case. 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 and put together into an effective format).

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. 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. Visual literacy means 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 frequently happens. Video should be used carefully and only after having decided the benefits expected and the full implications of using it.

Since video production can be a very expensive enterprise, before engaging in it, you should carry out a cost-benefit analysis answering questions such as: is video the most appropriate medium to achieving the objectives? Is it cost effective? Do most people have access to view the video? Etc. One case where it is often advisable to use video is in television campaigns where there is a strong element of persuasion to be dealt with. Due to its persuasive power, its high appeal and high credibility it usually enjoys, video is a very effective medium for drawing people's attention to crucial issues. However, there is still the problem of how many people are actually able to watch the video, either through videocassette recorders, mobile units or television. How many people have access to television in rural areas? If you plan a mass campaign and you intend to use video or television, you should first investigate the penetration levels, i.e. establish how many people have access to video or television. As a final recommendation, keep in mind the purpose of the video you intend to produce, the number of people you intend to engage in the production. When in doubt, ask for advice from experts.

Strengths and Limitations of Video

While video can be a very appealing medium with much strength, it also has a few limitations and constraints. Among the major advantages of using video are 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 come out with good quality products.

The main advantages of using video are:

- It is a prestigious and persuasive medium. The simple fact of using it is often 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 as 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 purposes 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;
- It is an effective medium for documenting and monitoring community activities and 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 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.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The use of radio and video are justifiable in information distribution in spite of some limitations. However, these limitations do not impact on their effectiveness.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit discusses radio and video as means of communication. It emphasises the strengths and weaknesses of each medium of communication. The radio is cheaper and covers extensive areas and can be used without electricity whereas the video depends solely on electricity and has narrow audiences. They are also one-way channeled except where conference video is used.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of radio and video channels of communication
2. Which one of the above is appropriate for educational planning?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Hancock, A. (1981). *Communication Planning for Development*. UNESCO: Paris, France.
- Knapp, M. L & Miller, G. R (eds.) (1994). *Handbook of Interpersonal Communication*. Sage Publications Inc.: Thousand Oaks, USA.
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UNIT 3 POSTERS AND PHOTO: STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Posters and Photos: Uses and Rationale
 - 3.2 Basic Elements of Posters and Photo Production
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Posters and photos are both print materials that can be used as means of communication. They often have lasting impressions because unless they are erased, the prints stay longer and attract attention except that they are limited to only few observers and readers.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the use of posters and photos and the rationale for the medium
- describe the basic elements of posters and photo production.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Posters and Photos: Uses and Rationale

Posters and Photos

These are print materials. 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. Print materials are also produced to provide a set of instruction on how to do something, including how to use communication materials. Print visual materials are particularly effective for generating discussions. Posters and photos are used extensively where one wants to draw the attention of people to specific issues.

Uses and Rationale of Posters and Photos

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 posters and photos (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 use two colours only. They can be quite expensive if you want a sophisticated product (e.g. high quality material, 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.

Posters and photos help in promoting ideas and action. Posters raise awareness and the value of the important “new ideas”. Photos provide reminders about the “ideas” and key technical points raised in other media.

- With posters and photos:
- 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 use of local language versions; and
- field staff have attractive and colourful gifts to give to influential individuals and offices.

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

3.2 Basic Elements of Posters and Photo Production

There are a few elements you should be aware of when preparing for the production of print materials.

They are:

- **Culture** - printed materials have of necessity to 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. The PRCA is important in unveiling aspects of the culture that are considered taboo or not for public consumption. Similarly, you should look at the literacy level of the interaction group critically when considering the written word. There is some literacy requirement 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. Before the use of text, it is important to know whether the interaction group for which the materials are meant, are literate.
- **Content** - 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 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.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Print materials are effective and widely used for communication. They can be cheap or expensive depending on one's budget. However, they often stimulate interests and discussions thus leading to participatory information sharing.

5.0 SUMMARY

This section discusses the use of print materials such as posters and photos. They assist greatly in information sharing and coaching. Words and images are the basic elements of print materials. These print materials have advantages such as the provision of accurate information and on the other hand a major constraint is that they can also be difficult to understand. Factors such as culture, educational level, content, language and technical use are vital to the use of print materials.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of posters and photos means of communication.
2. Which one of these is appropriate for educational planning?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Hancock, A. (1981). *Communication Planning for Development*. UNESCO: Paris, France.
- Knapp, M. L & Miller, G. R. (eds.). (1994). *Handbook of Interpersonal Communication*. Thousand Oaks, USA: Sage Publications Inc.
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UNIT 4 FLIPCHARTS AND SLIDES: STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Flipcharts
 - 3.1.1 Benefits of Flipcharts
 - 3.1.2 Flipcharts User Guide
 - 3.1.3 Printing Production Process in Flipcharts
 - 3.2 Slides
 - 3.2.1 Strengths of Slides
 - 3.2.2 Weaknesses of Slides
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Flipcharts slides and other print materials are used for communication. They are based on words and often designed by the user. They are ideal inter-personal communication tools and ideal for both small and large groups.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain flipcharts briefly
- state the benefits of flipcharts and its user guide
- describe the printing production process in flipcharts
- explain the strengths and weaknesses of slides.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Flipcharts

These are also print media. These are textual materials based exclusively or mainly on words. It includes books, leaflets, brochures, guides, etc. Charts, particularly flipcharts, are one of the best interpersonal communication tools for creating dialogue and rapport between educational administrators and other school members. They are

effective in remote areas with groups large and small, and also work well in schools, clinics, markets and staff meetings.

3.1.1 Benefits of Flipcharts

The general strengths are that they are cheap, simple to produce and use. They are also good for training and for other educational supports. The main weaknesses are that they are not as realistic as projected aids and care is also required to make drawings understandable to illiterates; they lack the attraction of audio-visual materials and may be thought of as “second-rate” by people with experience of electronic media.

The following may be said about flipcharts:

The large pictures attract attention which stimulates 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 interactive group 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 solution.
- Educational planner and other stakeholders gain confidence to exchange ideas.
- Interaction between teacher-student and the benefits are immediate and guaranteed.
- 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 getting torn, 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.
- Are made locally, and relatively cheaply, without foreign exchange.

3.1.2 Flipcharts User Guide

Flipcharts user guide enhances practical communication skills. For educational administrators, 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 lines and possibilities as well as suggest 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 towards positive decisions; and
- assist rural communities to make practical plans that will support development objectives.

This shows planners that all main themes are covered. In summary, you should observe the following:

- the interaction of the 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 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.

3.1.3 Printing Production Process in Flipcharts

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 flipcharts.

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.

3.2 Slides

These are projected materials. Slide sets/filmstrips have proved an invaluable training aid in educational planning programme but they are tending to lose out to video, despite the higher cost of the latter.

3.2.1 Strengths of Slides

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

3.2.2 Weaknesses of Slides

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

4.0 CONCLUSION

Like other print materials, flipcharts and slides give room for innovation. They are adaptable and user friendly. They are easy to use and movable. They are effective for group and inter-personal communication.

5.0 SUMMARY

This section focuses on use of flipcharts and slides. They are both print media based exclusively on printed words. The flipchart enhances practical communication and is a dynamic tool for discussion. The slides on the other hand are projected materials. They are easy to produce and easy to transport. A disadvantage is that it is technical.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify the advantages of flipcharts over slides.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Knapp, M. L & Miller, G. R (eds.). (1994). *Handbook of Interpersonal Communication*. Thousand Oaks, USA: Sage Publications Inc.
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UNIT 5 TELEPHONE, TELEVISION AND NEWSPAPER: STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Telephone Use: Scheduled and Publicised Times for Parent Calls
 - 3.2 Language in Written Communication
 - 3.3 Newspaper: Purpose and Method
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The telephone, the television and newspapers are rich in information and reach a wide range of people depending on the content and context of the message. However, these channels and necessary tools reach a common understanding among the users.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- evaluate the importance of telephone in communication
- explain the importance of language to communication.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Telephone Use: Scheduled and Publicised Times for Parent Calls

Telephone is another channel of oral communication. It is a message that is electronically transmitted over telephone lines. Although telephone communication does not give room to visualising body language and facial expression, they do have access to tone of voice in which a message is delivered (Jones, George, and Hill, 2000). Telephones have capacity to convey extensive information. An advantage of telephone is that users can get quick feedback and answer questions. In telephone usage, voice mail systems and answering

machine allows users to send and receive verbal electronic messages over telephone lines. Messages are recorded on voice mail systems for those who are unable to answer calls.

The disadvantage of voice mail system is that it lacks secrecy and gives room for call dropping. If the main user is not around, it can be picked by anybody else in the organisation.

Purpose and Method

At specific times, a special school telephone is manned for the purpose of providing an open communication line to the school. The telephone number is publicised, and parents are urged to discuss their problems or to ask their questions regarding school actions and procedures. Times may be chosen which provide opportunities for parents to contact the school after regular working hours.

Working with Television

In addition to using news releases in regular news broadcasts, television stations sometimes provide free air time to schools and community organisations. When free time is not available, school boards or individual schools can purchase air time. The station programme manager or public relations consultant will provide some assistance. However, responsibility falls on the school to prepare a short effective message. Because of their unique natures, televisions do have some special requirements. Some of these requirements are outlined below.

Television

Check with the programme or news director about slides, films and photographs which can be used to “demonstrate” your message. Make sure they are copy written to accompany such visual aids which “fit” with the slide, film or photos shown.

Time your copy at a slightly slower pace than for radio. Standard announcements for television run 10 seconds (about 20 words), 20 seconds (40 words), and 60 seconds (125 words). Provide one slide or photograph for each 10-second spot, two for a 20-second spot, and so forth.

Keep in mind that slides are preferable in most cases to photographs. They can be made professional at minimum cost. When photographs are used, matte or dull-surfaced prints are preferable since glossy prints reflect studio lights. Request for the return of your visual material if you want to preserve it; otherwise, it may be thrown away.

Going on the Air

The station will want you to sound and look your best. Whether your appearance is live or recorded, you will be given helpful suggestions, and your cooperation will be appreciated.

For television, personal appearance will be of vital importance to the success of your presentation:

1. Wear suits or dresses of Soft, medium colours or pastels. Avoid sharply contrasting patterns and colours.
2. Keep jewelry simple and uncluttered. Pearls and dull-finished metal reflect less light than sparking and highly polished jewelry.
3. Men may require a little powder on a bald head or the skin if it is exceptionally oily. Pancake makeup is advisable for a heavy beard or to mask shadows around the eyes.
4. Women should avoid heavy makeup and overuse of lipstick.
5. Don't worry about glasses. If your eyes are used to glasses, they will react unnaturally if you try to appear without them. The studio crew will arrange light to avoid any glare.
6. Co-operate with director and floor managers during your appearance. They may find it necessary to give you hand signals during the show to guide the seep of your presentation.

3.2 Language in Written Communication

When preparing written materials, be it a school newsletter or a news release, it is important that the language used be appropriate for the audience. The average person reads at the grade nine levels. Most readers feel most comfortable reading one or two levels below their maximum. The following guidelines are provided for the preparation of clear simple written materials.

1. **Avoid jargon.** Terms such as “distributive education”, “articulation”, “education for cultural pluralism”, “interpretive competence”, “mean nothing to the average person.
2. **Use familiar words.** Your main purpose is to communicate not to impress others. Use “try” not “endeavour”< “total” not “aggregate”, “end” not “terminate”, “best” not “optimum”.

3. **Use concrete terms.** Don't write "has exceeded the planned maximum school". Instead say "There are attending a high school built to "total pupil enrollment capacity of 2000 students at present hold a maximum of 1600".
4. **Use simple sentence structure.** Keep sentences short and place the verb early in the sentence.
5. **When in doubt apply a readability formula to the text you have written.** The "Gunning Fog Index" is a simple means of estimating the grade level of reading material.
 - i. Take a 100-word sample, and find the average number of words per sentence.
 - ii. Count the number of words in the 100-word sample containing three syllables or more. (Do not count proper nouns or three syllable verb forms ending in ed or es.)
 - iii. Add the average number of words per sentence to the number of words containing three or more syllables and multiply the sum by 0.4.

For example: A 100-word passage contains an average of 20 words per sentence and 100 words of three or more syllables. The sum of these two factors is 30 (20 plus 10). Multiplying 30 by 0.4 gives a Fog Index of 12. The materials are written at a grade 12 level.

3.3 Newspaper: Purpose and Method

The local newspaper is utilised to provide a variety of types of information to the public.

Examples are Newsletter. Instead of publishing a school newsletter, a full page is purchased in the local newspaper to provide information about the school and its programmes.

Fillers: A school provides the local newspaper with interesting bits of information about the school, its staff and students for use as fillers. For example:

- In the last 10 years, under Coach Jasper, the high school football team has a record of 73 victories and seven defeats, the best record in the province.

- In one week, between October 1 and October 8, the students in Central High School wrote 484 poems as part of their English instruction.

Pictures: On a regular basis, a local newspaper provides a specified space for a picture about school activities. The school has a responsibility to provide an adequate supply of pictures and accurate information about the pictures.

Comments

Information appearing in a newspaper reaches all members of the public including those with no children.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Every channel of electronic and written communication is effective and rich in information. The telephone, the television and newspaper will all enable members of groups and teams to share information with each other.

5.0 SUMMARY

This section discusses the role of telephone, television and newspaper in information sharing. Each of these instruments is effective and can reach a long range of listeners if they are well-managed. They provide opportunities of contact between educational institutions and the community. However, when preparing both electronic and written communication, it is important that appropriate language is used.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the use of electronic channels and their importance in school communication.
2. What are the guidelines for written communication?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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