

**M.Sc. MASS
COMMUNICATION**

STUDY GUIDE
(Half Credit)
Code No. 965

DEVELOPMENT SUPPORT COMMUNICATION



Department Of Mass Communication
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PREFACE

We are currently witnessing the beginning of communication revolution—a change in the basic nature of communication system that is highly interactive which carries several meanings. In the third world, besides its other roles, information has largely been used to improve societal condition. Development Communication is an art and science that has evolved through various activities over the past twenty years especially in the field of agriculture and health. In this context, communication performs varied roles : as extender of information, as action-energizer, as psychological mood setter and, above all as educator. Until practitioner has made an objective appraisal of DSC, he/she is in no position to judge its value in the democratic social order today. The subject of DSC is also gaining great importance in Pakistan.

This study guide written primarily for the purpose of distance learning students in Master's of Mass Communication, will teach all the fundamental principles and in techniques of Development Support Communication in a very simple and lucid style. I am proud of the Department of Mass Communication, AIOU for producing valuable literature in this study guide. Hope that you will find it interesting and informative for pursuing a very dynamic and professional career. Good Luck.

Vice Chancellor

INTRODUCTION

Development Support Communication is an activity aimed for purposive change in a society to achieve what may be regarded as an improved state of socio-economic conditions. It is the systematic use of the art and science of human communication to persuade specified groups of people to change their habits and life style or thought patterns.

Development Support Communication as a systematic discipline of academic pursuit, gained much of its prominence with the emergence of newly decolonized countries after the World War II. During that era, development was thought to be "Economic growth", the measure of which were GNP and per capita income. The third world countries looked upon to the sign posted by the historical industrial revolution for their development. Euro-American social scientists of 1950s and 1960s held that the path of industrialisation was the infusion of resources- capital, technology, expertise etc. and the requirement to pledge to accede to fundamental socio-psychology transformations, in which: traditional system of authority would decline; private enterprise would supplant barter economics; archaic customs, mores and system of family structure and living would be abandoned and adoption of modern education, individualism, nuclear family structure and urban living encouraged.

The revolution of high expectation for development in the third world has been a major casualty of the past two decades. Critics of "development" interpret that development process cannot be measured with one or few indicators; rather it is a process whereby the overall personality of the people is rehabilitated. The third world has developed a thinking for proper utilisation of all their energies and manpower, de-alienation of human being, restoration of dignity, self-respect and faith in one's own capability. They have realised that self-reliance, participation and integration of traditional and modern systems are the key for development in which communication must flow horizontally rather than vertically.

This is a half credit course produced primarily for the distance learning students of M.A in Mass Communication. It deals with all the concepts, approaches, models, strategies, processes, effects and case studies of Development Support Communication. The subject, however, encompasses a diversified spectrum which

itself could be a separate diploma or master's programme. Therefore, the Department of Mass Communication was very careful in selecting important areas so that students could make at least an overall perception of the subject. In order to develop a better insight among the students, care has been taken to explain all major areas of the subject in a capsulated way but in a comprehensive language. For further elaborated study, students are advised to find relevant knowledge from the suggested readings given at the end of each unit of this study guide. The course has been segmented into nine (9) learning units. Each unit covers summary of the major topics, self-assessment questions and a list of suggested readings. I shall be grateful for all kinds of feedback to make this study guide more coherent, refined and bring it still closer to the academic needs of the students.

I hope that you would find this study guide relevant and effective for your studies. Good Luck.

Syed Abdul Siraj
Head of Department.

Unit One

**EVOLUTION OF DEVELOPMENT
SUPPORT COMMUNICATION**

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1. OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this Unit are :

1. To enable the readers/students to understand the meanings and purpose of development.
2. To provide comprehensive information and knowledge about the philosophy of Development Support Communication.
3. To enable the readers/students to understand the difference between the terms Communication, DC., DSC, and DJ.
4. To provide readers/students knowledge about important factors that could help in making the DSC activities successful.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 EVOLUTION OF THE TERM "DEVELOPMENT"

Development is purposive change in a society to achieve what may be regarded as an improved state of socio-economic conditions. The concept of development has been used to describe economic growth since the Middle Ages, as well as to explain the process through which a society is expected to achieve certain socio-economic, political, cultural and other goals. Historically, change in human society has been considered inevitable since the dawn of human civilization. The roots of the modern western concept of development go back into ancient Greece.

The emergence of Europe in the fifteenth century introduced new patterns of change and economic relations under exploration and colonization of the global economic resources. Development during this period was seen as emanating from the benefits of trade and possession of colonies that provided abundant raw materials. Through Nineteenth and early Twentieth centuries, secular Europe regarded development as possession of the wealth derived from colonies.

World War I and II established new economic powers. The United States of America emerged as the leading economic power in global reconstruction. During the Post-War reconstruction era, term "Development" was the predominating economic concept that emphasised the economic aspects such as increase in GNP, growth in per capita-income and increased agricultural and industrial production.

The concept of "Development" has been seen from various perspectives. However, common property of both the old and the new models is the change. Under new paradigm, the term "development" has been viewed as an all embracing concept which deals with a positive and purposive change in all directions in a given society. It is a change that leads the people to "a widely participating process of social change in a society intended to bring about both social and material advancement (including greater quality, freedom and other valued qualities) for the majority of the people by gaining greater control over their environments. (Everett M. Rogers)

2.2 PHILOSOPHY OF DSC

Development Support Communication (DSC) is a newly emerged concept of communication activities that undertake exchange of messages at more participatory level to achieve specific goals of change and development. The philosophy behind the concept is to utilize the mass media and other available communication means to teach and mobilize segments of a society towards change in specified walks of human life.

The major concern of DSC is to produce message keeping in view the need and importance of message, message effects and the ability of the target audience to consume it effectively. Unlike any other communication efforts to bring socio-economic change in a given society, DSC deals with the phenomenon of change and development at the grass-roots level.

The philosophy behind DSC is to formulate and apply communication strategies specifically designed for concrete development programmes. It is generally used in micro-situations. Concepts such as 'diffusion of innovations', 'trickle-down', 'Two-step flow', 'empathy', 'change agents' etc., are more easily operationalized and observed under Development Support Communication.

2.3 NEEDS OF DSC

Socio-economic change has always interested and intrigued human beings. It is one of the most fundamental characteristics of human history. Development is a particular form of social change which brings a society at par with other societies or nations enjoying improved living conditions.

Many people in the developing countries are deprived of even the basic knowledge of their problems. The underlying questions are: What makes societies, nations, communities change? And what makes people change their behaviours, attitudes and ways of life? Over the years many scholars from different disciplines have occupied themselves with these questions, presenting different theories for social change.

DSC is seen as an interactive participatory process of information dissemination with no permanent sender and receiver. It is considered more than an activity through which the target audience "acquire knowledge and skills enabling people to change themselves, their life-style, their environment, their perception about self and their relationships to the environment. Villagers too have a lot to offer during the interaction" (Aseroft and Masi Lela 1989).

One factor of obvious importance to bring change in a particular segment of society is the DSC campaign. Some people may argue that change and development need other factors, such as ownership of means of production : political struggle : mobilization of class consciousness : capital growth : and technical know-how. But, even so, no change can occur without preparing the target people who need to be exposed to new ideas and things. No development scheme can be promoted without informing the target audience. Communication plays a very vital role in this change process. In view of the existing living conditions in most of the rural areas of the developing countries, DSC has been given considerable attention and used as an important tool. It is helpful to the rural groups of population in developing societies like our, where socio-economic improvements are urgently needed.

2.4 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN COMMUNICATION, DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION, DEVELOPMENT SUPPORT COMMUNICATION AND DEVELOPMENT JOURNALISM.

2.4.1 *Communication :*

Thomas R. Nilson (1970) says, "Communication is at once both clear and obscure. It is clear enough in conventional usage, but obscure when we seek to determine the limits of its applications." Our purpose at this point is not to indulge in any controversy over definitions of communication. Originally, the word communication belongs to the Latin and Greek words "Communis" and "Communicane" - both stand for "to make something common between two or many people." Thus, Communication, both as a concept and as a process, is an integral human activity whereby someone sends a message to someone else and receives a response. Carl Holand states, "Communication is the process by which an individual (the communicator) transmits stimuli (usually verbal symbols) to modify the behaviour of other individuals (communicatees)." (For further study, see the references at the end of this unit).

2.4.2 *Development Communication (DC) :*

The term 'Development Communication (DC)' was originally used by the Western writers like Daniel Lerner, Lucian Pye and Wilbur Schramm. Taking the sense into consideration, Nora C. Quebral says, "Development communication as the art and science of human communication apply to the speedy transformation of a country and mass of its people from poverty to a dynamic state and the larger fulfillment of the human potential." DC refers to "technology based communication network, which regardless of message and content, tended to create, by reason of its inherent characteristics, a climate suited for development."

The main characteristics of DC are underlined as :

- DC represents a larger universe and it applies generally to national development at "Macro Level."
- Functionally, DC's campaigns are not directed towards a specific development goal.
- It works in an open-ended form and is persuasive.
- DC relies more on technologically oriented communication media.
- It remains limited to the mass media.
- DC functions clearly from top to down and is hierarchical.
- Because of its wide universe, DC includes a wide range of variables, which are usually difficult to control. Therefore, research work is not only difficult but also limited in DC.
- DC as an effective field of communication for development has lost its credibility over the years.

2.4.3 *Development Support Communication (DSC) :*

The term DSC is attributed to Erskine Childers. According to him, "Development Support Communication (DSC) is specifically designed communication strategies which support a particular development programme."

The main features of DSC are as under :

- DSC represents a limited universe and it applies generally to a community development at "Micro Level."
- Functionally, DSC is directed, goal oriental and concerned with effects.
- It is time bound and can be terminated after the goal is achieved.
- DSC campaigns are message-oriented. Its communication contents are carefully designed and produced.
- DSC utilizes a whole range of cultural based means of communication.
- In all its properties, DSC is interactive and participatory.
- Because of its limited universe, variables can be isolated, measured and controlled easily. Therefore, research work is easy to undertake.
- It has gained enormous credibility and has been widely adopted by UN and various national agencies of developing countries.

2.4.4 *Development Journalism (DJ).*

Unlike Development Communication (DC) and Development Support Communication (DSC), the term Development Journalism (DJ) has its roots in the traditions of developing countries, journalism. According to John A. Lent (1987), "development and communication encompassed Western theory and practice, established mainly by the US scholars. Alongside, somewhat later, Asian working journalists created Development Journalism."

The main focus of DJ is to propagate and disseminate news concerning development activities undertaken by a government. In other words, Development Journalism was a counter-concept generated in various developing countries against the development role of the free mass media. The basic idea behind the concept of DJ is to provide information about the development activities and projects undertaken by the respective government of a developing country. The West holds the view that development journalism in the developing countries is mere propaganda adopted by the undemocratic system of government. On the other hand, DJ in the Asian view is seen simply as reporting the events and news of development and is a minor part of Development Support Communication.

Leaving all theoretical, political and professional controversies over the terms aside, it can best be understood that when available mass media, particularly the print media, devote their contents to inform people about specific development plans and projects, it would be termed as Development Journalism. In its inherent characteristics, DJ is usually a one-way information process and not participatory and its scope may be national, regional or restricted to community.

2.5 FACTORS FOR SUCCESSFUL DEVELOPMENT SUPPORT COMMUNICATION :

A great number of factors are involved in making DSC activities successful. One basic principle in this context which needs to be given primary importance is that the socio-economic change and development in any given society or a community cannot happen in isolation. It could be successfully undertaken considering the existing socio-cultural and ideological behaviour of the target audience. Communities and groups in developing societies are diverse in their socio-cultural outlook and level of understanding a message for change. In making DSC successful the change agent has to consider variation factors as the primary one.

Secondly, DSC needs free flow of information at all available levels, particularly using the services of local media like regional radio, television and community newspapers etc. These media could be utilized to educate the rural population in new ideas within their cultural context. Since most media in countries like our are urban oriented, communication set-up has to be oriented towards rural areas ; the contents have to be made relevant to rural communities. People from within these areas need be given a chance to influence the programme contents freely. The change agents from within the village and community settings can develop a lot of personal informal contacts with the audience. These contacts often lead to the success of DSC.

In case of local or national mass media series, it is obviously important to let the men, media and message operate freely without any "governmental" or "policy" constraints and priorities. Message control leads an artificial psychological gap between the change agent and receiver.

Another factor which makes DSC successful is the proper training of SC communicators. It includes on the spot surveys and studies of the target communities. Hypothetical DSC message production usually creates a vacuum between the communicator and the audience. Special expertise and in-depth understanding of the grass-roots issues are the prime requirements to materialize DSC campaigns.

Kampung (village) development programmes through communication in Malaysia the best examples, where school and university teachers with rural background are trained to use communication skills to educate village people about

emerging problems and their solutions. They undertake the job with participatory spirit ; develop community centres ; encourage social gatherings and motivate the community members. These centres are used to discuss local problems. The change-agents create a sense of "self-reliance" "let us find ways and means to solve our community problems without looking towards the government."

Sense of self-reliance and using the available work force has been proven one of the most successful factors in making DSC effective and purposive.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q. 1. Describe the term "Development" as fully as you can.

POINTS TO NOTE :

Development is a very positive concept.

As old as the human history itself.

18th century industrial revolution in Europe-World War I and II gave new dimensions to the concept.

Focus on increase in per-capita income.

GNP growth. Increase in agricultural and Industrial production.

Development as change-total change-a new concept.

Change in life conditions within the cultural context.

Change in traditional socio-cultural set-up. Change in attitude and behaviour.

Q. 2. What role does communication play in bringing change?

POINTS TO NOTE :

What is communication?

An omnipresent human activity.

Activity and characteristics through which a human being understands others and in return is understood by others.

Understands events ; gets informed and takes well considered decisions.

Communication carries information about ideas, things, places, persons and policies.

Provides new venues to accept or reject what is good and what is not.

Q. 3. Write a brief note on the following :-

(a) Development Journalism.

(b) Development Communication.

(c) Development Support Communication.

POINTS TO NOTE :

See blocks 2-4.

Q. 4. What is the philosophy of DSC??

POINTS TO NOTE :

The latest efforts undertaken to bring about a change in a limited area.

It emerged as a more specific and participatory communication effort to educate the people of rural settings.

It aims at targeting the audience to achieve a specific and defined goal of change and development.

It does not depend on technological based communication media.

It works within a limited community to create awareness about innovations.

Its philosophy is to motivate the intended audience towards change using all available means of communication. It interacts more closely.

- Q. 5. Do you think that in our society DSC is more effective or can be more effective than DS.?

POINTS TO NOTE :

Given situation and conditions.

A brief explanation of our rural setting.

Importance of rural life-its contribution to national life/

Importance of traditional outlook.

Our agro-oriented life-style

poverty, Low-income-life conditions in our village communities.

Lack of awareness about what is going on around us-around the world.

Literacy and health problems
education

Corporate efforts towards community development.

Role of opinion leaders in or rural settings.

Use of DSC to mobilize the opinion leadership in bringing about socio-cultural awareness and change.

- Q. 6. Discuss the factors that could make DSC successful.

POINTS TO NOTE :

Understanding the target audience their problems and solution to the problems.

In-depth socio-cultural study of a given community in order to produce consistent message contents.

Keeping men, messages and means free from constraints imposed by any authority.

Proper training and communication skills for DSC operators.

Full participation of community members, especially the community leaders.

DS Communicators from within the rural communities.

Incentives for local media, particularly community newspapers, local radio stations etc. if available.

Artificial urban oriented message system creates vacuum-gap between the communicator and the audience. It should be avoided.

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Unit Two-Three

**DEVELOPMENT SUPPORT
COMMUNICATION AND CHANGE**

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1. OBJECTIVES

Unit No. 2-3 deal with different important topics relevant to DSC activities. The main objectives of this part are :

1. To enable readers/students to understand & explains the strategies that help in introducing and bringing about change in a community/society.
2. To enlist the changes that may vary from one social setting to another :
3. To provide readers/students information about the sources and their utilization leading towards change :
4. To make readers/students assess the relationship between socio-cultural values, belief-system and change processes ; and
5. To enlighten readers/students to discuss the problems/obstacles of change and the ways to reduce them.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1. STRATEGIES FOR INTRODUCING CHANGE :

The concept of change is positive in character which leads and motivates human beings towards better living conditions. However, if the change agents or workers would try to realise positive concepts without well-thought and well-formulated strategies, they cannot achieve the desired goals. Change agents are required to understand that human communities differ from one another in terms of their habits and abilities to digest a message for and to accept the kind of change.

Introducing change in any community/society, therefore, requires a change worker to ensure, the following questions :

1. What is the purpose of change and why it is important?
2. What are the existing socio-cultural behaviours, traditions and norms that govern the life-style of target people?
3. What are the issues and problems that may hinder the development of living conditions?
4. What communication strategy is to be used?
5. What messages should be produced for the target audience?
6. Which appeal is to be used?
7. What type of communication channels should be utilized to make the change messages attractive and effective?
8. How and from where to procure the financial aid to materialize the change plan?
9. What ways and means should be used to get feedback of the audience and how to improve the change plan?

Change strategies, precisely include two-step functions :

- (a) Conceptualization and theoretical foundations for change processes ; and
- (b) practical implementation of the paper work into the real world situation.

2.2 LEVELS OF CHANGE :

Levels of change can best be understood by taking the given community/society structure into consideration. Human communities are the groups of people in a locality which are governed by a "complex whole". One community may have considerable variations from another and from one time to another. There are also wide ranges of variations among communities in size, population, composition, age, socio-cultural characteristics and geographic settings. Thus, the levels of change may also vary from one community to another.

Change process may occur at various levels and in different forms. It may be termed as a change in peoples physical structure, change in technology, social organization, normative values, demographic characteristics, agriculture, health

and education etc. To our specific purpose, levels of change are summarized as:

1. Urbanization
2. Industrialization
3. Modernization

These three levels include all other processes of change. However, these levels of change are not identical. A community can be more modernized without industrialization and a rural community can attain modern character without becoming an urban community.

Levels of change vary from one community to the other, from one period of time to another in the same community. According to Allam D. Adwards et al, "the uneven rates of community change tend to produce community needs that become targets for community action efforts."

2.3 SOURCES OF CHANGE :

Change efforts can be undertaken in a wide variety of projects, in widely differing communities of any developing country. In DSC context, sources of change are integral to the nature and importance of an intended change. Following sources are the common prerequisites for bringing change in a human community :

1. Land, its distribution, socio-economic conditions, system of ownership and factors of production,. In the rural context, land is the major source which plays basic role of bringing change into a developing traditional community.
2. Work force, its quantity, abilities and intentions to use and exploit the available natural source of change-the land. In other words, people of a community are themselves the most important source of change.
3. Capital, its availability, procurement and proper utilization.
No change strategy can accomplish its goals without financial support which obviously needs capital.
4. Education, its level, quality and expansion.
Education leads a community towards awareness of what to do, what to accept and what to reject or modify. Change efforts can hardly succeed without educating the target society/community.
5. Opinion leaders, such as social workers, religious elites, school teachers in the given locality and artists etc : their involvement in change process and use of their abilities and influence. In rural settings, particularly in the less developed countries, opinion leaders link a community members and the change workers at various levels. Their personal local influence, contacts and relationships can be used as an effective source of change.

6. Communication channels, their proper selection, appropriate use and access propensities. Selection and use of communication channels may vary from one community to another. It depends on nature and importance of change. However, communication channels are the major sources of supplementing change processes. Their basic function is to provide awareness, to bring innovations and to influence the existing attitudes in favour of intended change.
7. Professionals, their selection, abilities, training and acquaintance with the problems. Professionals are associated with institutionalized arrangements for carrying on change actions. They may be attached with different social community agencies, such as health and family planning programmes. They may also be communication experts. Services of such professionals should be utilized as source to stimulate local interest and community efforts to bring change.
8. Transportation, an important source of change in any community/society. Roads, railways and other means of transportation not only facilitate easy access to and link with rural areas, it also makes the job easy for change workers to reach the target areas. In most developing countries, including our own poor transport facilities have extremely adverse effects on change and economic progress. Change needs flow of goods, ideas and essential mobility of human beings. Well-organized, stable and rapid transport system is an important source of change.
9. Government, its structure, leadership, direction, planning and ability to execute the change projects. In case of developing countries, where change and development policies are usually formulated by the respective governments and their agencies, it is hard to perceive that any change strategies could succeed without the involvement of policy makers. This makes the government one of the most important sources of change in developing or under-developed communities. Conducive government structure ; able, honest devoted and selfless leadership with clear directions only can bring about positive change.

2.4 SOCIO-CULTURAL VALUES, BELIEF-SYSTEM AND CHANGE.

Socio-cultural values and belief-system of a society are the indicators of a complex whole under, which individuals keep interdependent relationships for their physical and mental development. Culture in its broader perspective includes values and belief-system. These cannot and should not be taken as an isolated phenomenon. According to Award B. Tylor, "Culture is a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief-system, art, moral, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as member of a society".

Culture, in fact, is an integrated pattern of human knowledge, beliefs and behaviour. It includes a great variety of components. In any change process, these components play decisive role of accepting and accommodating new ideas and things, of rejecting or resisting anything coming from outside. In this respect, one must keep in mind that language is a socio-cultural construction whose signs and syntax develop in accordance with the specific needs of a particular culture. And the same language is the carrier of all messages from one point to another. Change process requires effective message production and transmission which can take place only on the basis of common language and shared values. Thus, change workers may face resistance or rejection to their efforts in bringing anything inconsistent to existing socio-cultural values and belief system of a society. Hence, all change efforts should be undertaken in accordance with the socio-cultural values and belief-system of a community/society.

2.5 CONCEPTS FOR UNDERSTANDING RURAL CULTURE :

Change agents are frequently criticized for not "taking cultural factors into consideration" and are constantly being reminded to "understand the local culture" of people and villages in which they are trying to introduce change. It is assumed that if they had a better understanding of local culture they would be more effective in persuading the target people to accept change.

Somewhere between ignoring the local culture and becoming totally immersed in it there is a middle position which suggests that change agent must have some knowledge and give some consideration to local cultural conditions. The culture features can be captured in a set of concepts which focus attention on phenomena which might otherwise be overlooked some of the important social science concepts that can inform and sensitize change agent about local conditions are values and beliefs, stratification, power and influence, and social organization.

2.5.1 Values and Beliefs :

Values and beliefs have been singled out as important elements in the change process. In most cases, they are viewed as obstacles to change, thereby becoming legitimate targets of change efforts. Values have been defined as conceptions of the desirable, as standards of evaluation, as guides for decision-making behaviour or simply as expressions of preference (Kahl, 1968). They are seen as having a central role in the change process because it is assumed they are crucial in influencing farmers' goals and behaviour. Technological change requires behavioural change on the part of farmers, whether to be using new inputs or developing extra-local ties with input suppliers and technical experience. It is feared that these required behavioural changes will not occur until values change, that is, until traditional values are replaced by more modern values.

2.5.2 *Values of Rural People :*

At one time or another, a variety of value orientations have been attributed to rural people in developing nations (Foster, 1973 Kahl, 1968 ; Rogers, 1969 ; Sanders, 1977). Table 1 presents some of the more frequently mentioned values and their characteristics.

2.5.3 *Selected List of Values Orientations.*

VALUE	CHARACTERISTICS
Familism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Subordination of individual accomplishments and goals to those of the family. 2. High levels of integration with family and relatives. 3. Unwillingness to engage in activities with persons outside one's family.
Fatalism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Resignation. 2. Passivity. 3. Feeling that one lacks the ability to influence the future. 4. Feeling that the outside world is unpredictable and cannot be understood.
Low empathy	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Inability to envisage oneself in a different role. 2. Difficulty in viewing oneself in a relatively better off position.
Aversion to risk-taking	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Unwillingness to take chances. 2. Reluctance to experiment or venture out beyond one's immediate social environment.
Immediate gratification	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Unwillingness to save or invest for the future. 2. Unwillingness to postpone present satisfaction in anticipation of future rewards.
Submission to nature	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Indifference to the passage of time which no one dreams of mastering, saving up, or using.

2.5.4 *Beliefs :*

Beliefs, which are closely related to values, are the mental convictions one has about the truth or actuality of something. They refer to what people believe or accept to be true, what people can trust or place confidence in. Like values, they are viewed as an underlying support for behaviours : "men of all cultures support their actions by elaborate systems of beliefs. There are beliefs of what is right or wrong, what is proper or improper, what is lucky or unlucky. Logically, there is no cultural behaviour for which men do not have supporting beliefs" (Neihoff, 1969, P. 45). Various beliefs serving as barrier to change

have been identified. For example, beliefs in how one controls events in this world, in cause and effect relationships, in the possibility of self-improvement, and in the likely outcomes of individual actions. Foster (1973) points out that with so much of the world not subject to control, the peasant has a poorly developed critical sense and is able to believe improbable things. There may be beliefs that could seriously undermine one's efforts if they were not taken into account in DSC process.

2.5.5 *Foundation of Values and Beliefs :*

Change agents often view traditional values as reflections of backwardness without attempting to understand why people hold particular values. They view traditional values as obstacles to change rather than as reflections of the conditions under which people live. It is easy to criticize people for being opposed to risk-taking, for example, without recognizing that taking risks can have serious consequences in a resource-poor environment. Similarly, it is easy to be critical of farmers who put family concerns over personal achievement without realising the importance of family ties to one's security and welfare. Extension workers should be sensitive to the origins and functions of traditional values and beliefs.

Prevailing values and beliefs reflect the ways in which people have been taught to behave and view the world. They are either reinforced or modified in relation to the opportunities people have and their contact with individuals holding different values.

2.5.6 *Determining People Values and Beliefs:*

Values and beliefs cannot be observed directly but have to be inferred. An observant change agent can begin to infer values from :

1. Choices People Make : What do people choose to do with their free time; where do people choose to invest their scarce resources ?
2. Behaviour : What will people organize themselves, or attend a meeting for ; what do people get angry about or readily approve ?
3. Statements people make : How do people justify a particular behaviour or choice of actions ; what do they say they would prefer, given a set of options?

There are simple ways of establishing what people value highly and believe in. One must be cautious, however, because values and

behaviour are not always consistent. People will not always reveal their true reasons for a particular type of behaviour, if they are aware of them.

It is rare these days to find a rural community which is completely isolated from contact with the influences of the modern world. With more such contacts and increased opportunities for participations in the larger society, one would expect changes in values and beliefs.

2.5.7 Changes in Values and Beliefs :

Values and beliefs do change over time, depending on :

- (a) how well values and beliefs serve people, that is, how well they continue to explain and predict what occurs in people's lives,
- (b) the amount of culture contact people have with others holding different and competing values and beliefs, and
- (c) the range of opportunities people are presented with which question existing values or force individuals to actually modify their beliefs and values. Technological change is a major source of value change. Use of modern agricultural inputs, for example, can demonstrate the superiority of science over other more traditional practices when it comes to increasing yields. The benefits farmers get from using modern technologies can convince them that planning and investing are worth while goals, in which case it is unlikely farmers will remain fatalistic or present-oriented for long. Modernization of agriculture through technological change also involves a certain amount of culture contact on the part of farmers, with experts, the mass media, and other people with new perspectives, different behaviour and contrasting life-styles. Ultimately these types of contacts will have an influence on traditional values and beliefs.

2.6 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE CHANGE :

A great variety of factors can influence change process in a society depending on varying conditions. However, following factors are considered very common and important to influence the change process.

2.6.1. Growth of Communication Institutions :

The growth of modern communication, as Schramm observes, in the form of mass media and their related organizations came into widespread use to supplement the oral channels of traditional societies. Development of Communications system and channels is closely related to change by influencing the audience. They also have influenced positive change in other institutions.

2.6.2 *Interpersonal Local Media Channels :*

Traditional media of social communication, such as bazar, coffee house, puppet show and local gatherings play an important role in mediating the effects of mass media. In developing societies, interpersonal communication channels have to do most of the job of change. Communication, according to Schramm "is not something that has a life its own ; it is something people do". It is one of the fundamental factors that influence change. Communications establishes a climate in which change can take place.

2.6.3 *Socio-Psychological Dynamics :*

Socio-psychological dynamics influence the change process in human behaviour. A great amount of experience and theory is available to help in planning of credibility of communicators and messages, selective behaviour theory, cognitive balance theory and cognitive dissonance, all over related to change of attitude. Such knowledge is a time-saving to be used in change strategies.

2.6.4 *Culture:*

Cultural components, both existing and new, of a society also influence any change process. If change effort is going to suggest an innovation, it should better explain it in terms that are acceptable to the culture where change is desired to be brought.

Other factors that influence change in a positive direction include proper education, training, skilled workers, proper infrastructure and free participatory flow of information.

2.7 **SOCIAL STRATIFICATION AND CHANGE :**

Social stratification of a given society plays a very important role in bringing change. What is social stratification? Social stratification deals with the study of sub-system of family, economy, government, religions, education, structure of norms and values and formal and informal groups in a community. It is the interaction and shared norms of formal and informal groups that the people of a community are used to live with.

Every human society lives under certain types of social stratifications, that reflect hierarchical rankings of the people in terms of social, economic, political and religious prestige or standards. These standards usually govern the local subsystems. Thus social stratifications is a chain of relationships in a community.

Activities change a community. Community change actions cannot be undertaken successfully without understanding the social strata and organizational set-up of the target community. Therefore, change requires comprehensive understanding of social stratifications of a given society.

2.8 OBSTACLES TO CHANGE :

Developing societies have been facing multi-farious obstacles to change. At times the obstacles are the obvious outcome of a given system as a whole in which change agencies under a directionless government work only to please the employers or the ruling elites. Both employees and the employers use all available resources as propaganda tools in order to serve their own vested interests. Change process has never been an isolated activity ; it is rather integral to a given system. This is the system which makes institutions and agencies responsible, gives directions, motivates members of the society and strives for national well-being.

Unfortunately, power elites in most developing countries, including ours, use national resources and communication media for partisan interests. Electronic media like radio and television are directly controlled by the power elites. In this context, the most serious obstacles to the production of indigenous programmes are the projections of personalities, their false image and wastage of resources. Controlled programme system of radio and television aggravates the shortage of local talent. It also curbs every possible means of two-way interactive communication. To function exclusively "as the propaganda arm of the government and thereby lose credibility with their audience ; secondly, to become primarily a foreign and irrelevant spokesman". (*Majid Tehranian, 1976*).

Another very dangerous obstacle is the grip of urban-based planners over the change strategies. In most developing countries, change plans for rural population are chalked out by urban-based planners. Usually these planners are ignorant of problems and their solutions. They do their job to satisfy the persons sitting at the top. For real change, we have to come out of the web of hypocrisy, particularly the academicians. It is imperative to learn that without proper involvement of the concerned populations or their opinion leaders, one cannot accomplish the desired results for change.

Cultural factor can also be a severe impediment to any change process. In rural areas, for example, the modification of traditional agricultural system has run into difficulties because of apparent conservatism on the part of cultivators. Most of the rural people are ignorant of the outside world. Their attitude is that of resignation, hopelessness which is aggravated by lack of education. Change workers and change policy makers should have deep understanding of cultural and educational problems of rural populations. It may be an interesting but equally thought-provoking example for the readers/students that recently a 15 minute talk on PTV was an ample proof of irrelevance. The theme of the programme was "how to increase wheat production in the forthcoming winter season?" The talk show was attended by the most responsible officers, introduced as experts in their respective areas. During the show, all made very good suggestions and each one of them ended with "we have published instructions for our farmers in a great number and these have been notified at public places". Who will ask them, how many farmers could understand your published expert instructions ; how many of them

could read and how much money has been spent on such publicity campaign? In most developing countries, experts prepare change plans inconsistent to the local conditions both culturally as well as educationally.

Our society, in this direction, should adopt Malaysian, Tiwaninan or Iranian models of change rather than those of the Western world. Moreover, given the political will, stable political system, an adequate administrative framework and an ideological commitment can remove obstacles to change we have been confronting with. We must bring change through our own resources. Dependent nations can hardly succeed in bringing any change.

2.9 REDUCING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE :

Resistance factors to change process vary from one society to the other, from one community to the other. Resistance to change can be physical, cultural, educational, ideological, demographic or socio-political. It may be easy to reduce or to overcome specific resistance to a particular change action in a limited community, while change in a large perspective cannot occur with all resistance factors taken together.

The most important helping instrument to reduce resistance to change is the widespread education, both on formal and informal levels. Even in a limited community, people need to be educated for awareness and resolution of their problems. In this direction, mass media, particularly radio and television can serve the purpose more effectively and rapidly. Resistance to change in a community can be reduced by taking the following measures :

1. Thorough study of the given population and their problems. Without conducting scientific investigation about the socio-cultural norms of a given community and the problems they are confronting a blind jump for change may cause resistance to change strategies.
2. Depending on the universe and loci of change, planned participation of national or local media is necessary activity to create and promote awareness. For change, people have to be prepared for creating change conditions, otherwise they would resist it at several levels.
3. Communication facilities should be used in fastening national integration and reducing imbalances among different communities, sectors of population or regions. Socio-cultural and economic imbalances lead the human beings towards frustrations and distrust. Frustrated people can hardly trust new ideas and things.
4. Volunteers for change actions should be picked up from within the given communities and they should be provided training for the job. In rural settings, "Shehri Babu" (شہری بابو) and his/her change efforts are usually resisted. (Examples for the change experiments undertaken by the American

Press Corps in the rural Philippines during July, 1961 to June, 1963). See in Communication and change in the Developing countries PP. 235 - 278).

5. Increased number of skilled workers and sound physical and financial support can help in reducing resistance to change. Without giving incentives for betterment of a community life, people don't accept any change.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

Q. 1 : What important steps are involved in a change strategy ?

POINTS TO NOTE :

What do we mean by change ? Very brief answer would include :

- (a) Purpose of change.
- (b) Existing socio-cultural behaviour.
- (c) Nature of the problems.
- (d) Types of the message (s).
Production and selections of proper media to transmit message.
- (e) Venues for financial support.
- (f) Importance of feedback.

Q. 2 : Describe briefly the levels of change.

- (a) Communities differ from one another in terms of : Socio-cultural, economic political and even demographic structures.
- (b) Change process may occur at various levels.
- (c) Students must concentrate on three levels of change :
 1. Urbanization.
 2. Modernization.
 3. Industrialization.

Q. 3 : Discuss in detail the sources that help in bringing change.

POINTS TO NOTE :

- (a) Relationship between sources of change and change activity are integral to each other.
- (b) Land : a basic source of change, particularly in an agricultured community.
- (c) Work force : Human beings - their intentions, interests and abilities.

- (d) Capital - education etc. change activities cannot materialize without capital education and awareness.
- (e) Opinion leaders such as social workers, local religious leaders (Imams in our society), school teachers etc.
- (f) Media channels, especially interpersonal communication in village settings.
- (g) Professionals - trained people.
- (h) Transport facilities - and government.

Q. 4 : How would you explain socio-cultural values and belief-system of a society? What is the relationship between values and change?

POINT TO NOTE :

- (a) Culture is a complex whole-traditions, customs, norms, ideals under which people live together - develop relationships.
- (b) Values and belief-system play decisive part in :
 1. accepting anything new.
 2. rejecting anything new.
 3. modifying something already in existence.
- (c) Change policies should be consistent to socio-cultural values and belief-system of a given society/community.
- (d) Message production and use of media in accordance with the values.
- (e) Inconsistent message may create a vacuum or gulf between the people and change.

Q. 5 : Discuss in detail the factors that can influence change processes.

POINT TO NOTE :

- (a) Factors that influence a change process are related to varying conditions.
- (b) Growth of modern communication institution and facilities.
- (c) Modern media supplement the traditional communication channels.
- (d) Socio-psychological dynamics-study of human behaviours provides expertise.
- (e) culture components of a society also influence change process.

Q. 6 : What is social stratifications? How is it related to change in society?

POINTS TO NOTE :

- (a) Social stratification a study of groups and sub-groups in a society - also called subsystem. A society is a complex whole but survives through sub-systems, such as religious groups, power elites.

government, social organizations etc, these groups or sub-system reflect hierarchical rankings.

- (b) Change is relevant to any sub-system.
- (c) One needs to know the socio-cultural behaviour of sub-system within a society.
- (d) Communication passes through and effects different social strata differently.

Q. 7 : Give a detailed account of obstacles to change.

POINTS TO NOTE :

- (a) Nature of obstacles.
- (b) Developing countries and obstacles to change.
- (c) Attitudes of government in using mass media as a propaganda tool. Controlled media.
- (d) Partisan communication.
- (e) Lack of sustained planning-shortage of skilled and trained personnel.
- (f) Urban-based planners - their ignorance about rural people - they only please the power elites.
- (g) Controlled men, media and messages, lack credibility for the audience.
- (h) Cultural factor-inconsistent and inaccessible planning.
- (i) Alien western model of change which creates cultural gaps within a culture.

Q. 8 : What steps do you suggest for reducing resistance to a change process ?

POINTS TO NOTE :

- (a) Types of resistance - may be physical, social, cultural, political, religious etc. or all of them simultaneously.
- (b) Resistance can be reduced by :
 1. Providing extended education to create awareness.
 2. In-depth study of people and problems.
 3. Planned participation of media.
 4. Use of communication to reduce imbalance in order to minimise frustration and destruction.
 5. Selection of change volunteers from within the target community.
 6. Clear incentives for betterment.
 7. Answering the questions and removing the doubts at the grass-roots level through the agents when people trust.

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Unit Four

**MODELS OF DEVELOPMENT SUPPORT
COMMUNICATION**

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. Define the concept of Dominant paradigm of development;
2. Describe the rationales and historical perspectives of the Dominant paradigm;
3. Criticise the failures of the Dominant paradigm in the third world countries;
4. Explain the factors responsible for the evolution of the Alternative model of development;
5. Enumerate the features of the Alternative model;
6. Make a comparative study of the dominant paradigm and alternative model of development;
7. Describe the factors required to implement the new model.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJORS TOPICS

2.1 DOMINANT PARADIGM OF DEVELOPMENT :

The dominant paradigm of development came into being in the 1960s based on the idea of modernisation. Change agent of interpersonal system, together with the multiplying mass media are the twin pillars of the dominant paradigm, to introduce new ideas and practice in a given social system. 1* Communication in the Dominant Paradigm became the crucial instrument of directed social change initiated and instigated by outsiders representing programmes of planned change. It is the strategy of communication which flows from top to down. Development planner at the "Top" and relay "down" by technical assistance, intermediaries through governments beneficiary for implementation by using mass media and interpersonal communication.

The powerful effect characterisation is known as "hypodermic needle" theory, the bullet" and mechanistic S-R Theory" has largely been assumed in the dominant paradigm. The paradigm puts heavy emphasis on investments in the "Modern" sector with the hope that it would trickle down the advantages to the traditional setting. The model considers the media as prime mover and teacher that impart knowledge at large. Experts of the dominant paradigm assume that main causes of underdevelopment lay within the underdeveloped nations rather than external to it. 2* The causes are thought to be:

1. an individual blames nature (peasants are traditional, fatalistic and generally unresponsive to technological innovation) and
2. a social structural nature within the nations (For example, a complex govt. bureaucracy a top heavy land tenure system and so on.

2.2 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF DOMINANT PARADIGM :

The concept of dominant paradigm of development came out due to the following historical events :

2.2.1. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION :

During the later 18th century, industrialisation took place in Europe and North America. It was assumed that industrialisation is the main route of development. During that era agriculture was given low priority factor for development. 3* The less developed countries were advised by the development planners to industrialise by having steel mills, hydroelectric dams, manufacturing industries etc. The exponents of this paradigm are of the view that technology and capital are the key factors of development. They assume that technology is the best substitute of labour.

*1. * Ascroft Joseph, hand out circulated in the workshop on "Development Support Communication" at Murree (Pak) on August 1993.

*2. Everett M. Rogers, Communication and Development-Critical Perspectives. (1976) page No. 126.

*3. Everett M. Rogers (1976)

2.2.2. *Capital -Intensive Technology*

It is assumed that development has always married with technology. The dominant paradigm's experts opine that more the technology replace the traditional way of thinking greater the development would be. According to Everett M. Rogers, for bringing about any development in a society, "The high capital technology would be provided by national governments, by local entrepreneurs, by international loans and through the activities of multinational firms usually owned and controlled by the industrially advanced nations".

2.2.3. *Economic Growth*

It is an established hypothesis that men always respond actively when there are economic incentives. This assumption also works to motivate the people of a community for the behavioural change required for development. This factor has been approved by all the nations that there would be no development without economic growth. During the 1950s and 1960s, every country had established national commissions and set five years plans in order to guide the national governments toward economic development activities of each national government.

2.2.4. *Quantification*

According to the philosophy of dominant paradigm, development can be measured on per capita income as the main index. The experts of the model believe that "growth -first and let-equality-come-later" According to Rogers, this mentality was often justified by the trickle down theory- that leading sectors once advanced would then spread their advantages to the lagging sectors."

2.3 OVER VIEW OF THE DOMINANT PARADIGM :

- 1* 1. The existence of a free enterprise system giving transnational corporations access to both raw materials and sale on the commercial market.
2. Investment in the modern" sector.
3. Importation of advanced capital intensive technology by the developing countries.
4. Stimulation of saving by preserving income gaps, particularly in the developing countries, the assumption that equalisation leads to less savings (= less money for investments)
5. Development aid in the form of loans, "gifts" technical assistance, and trained personnel.

*1. Communication and Social Change in developing nations. A critical view by Goran Hedebro, the Iowa University Press/AMES Page No. 90)

2.4 CRITICISM :

Critics of "development" interpret that development process cannot be measured with one or a few indicators such as G.N.P, per capita or degree of industrialisation. Development is, rather a process whereby the overall personalities of people are rehabilitated. It is just as much a development of mankind as it is a development of material (Goran Hedebro p.102).

The widely felt need to revise the Dominant paradigm for development is judged on the experience of the past two decades. The development gap between the rich countries and the poor are increasing instead of decreasing. The rate of literacy in the third world is deploring, health facilities are poor, starvation, famine and malnutrition are still the problems of third world countries . Following reasons are put forward to understand the short comings of dominant paradigm.

2.4.1 *Capitalist world Model :*

The dominant model of development has been considered a capitalist-oriented model. It does not meet the socio-cultural and political needs of the less-developed nations. Moreover, its capitalist nature has proven flawed to help the "trickle-down" scheme of advantages. Chenery et al. (1974, P.xiii) who examined the outcome of development effort in a large number of countries on the basis of dominant paradigm. His general conclusion is pessimistic.

2.4.2 *Unequal Distribution :*

Dominant paradigm measures development on per capita income as the main index. Although the average per capita income of the third world has increased since 1960, however, this growth has been very unequally distributed among countries, regions, within countries and socio-economic groups.

2.4.3 *Stress on Economic development :*

Dominant paradigm stresses only on economic development and gives less importance to social values. In this model, there is no link between the economic development and the living condition of the majority of population. While social conditions of a society and economic development are integral to each other.

2.4.4 *Top-down Communication*

The strategy of communication in the dominant paradigm of development focuses on information flow from top to down. Development planner at the top relay knowledge and information by technical assistance. This powerful vertical effect characterisation is made through the concept of "hypodermic needle", whereas, in this age of democracy, people must be given opportunities to speak their minds.

3. ALTERNATIVE MODEL OF DEVELOPMENT :

Under the dominant paradigm, social and economic development imposed upon the third world countries resulted in an alienation of people from their original and natural potentials. Consequently, the third world countries started thinking for the proper utilisation of all their energies, the manpower delineation of human being, restoration of dignity, self-respect and faith in one's own capabilities. This trend led social and economic scientists of the third world to search for a new model of development. The idea for an "Alternative Model of Development" came from China, Tanzania and Cuba. In Alternative Model socio-cultural and other than economic values are taken together as development indicators. In this model goods and services are viewed as social utilities rather than simply as the items for sale. Equal distribution is the major focus of attention of the Alternative Model. Other social imperatives of the model are self-reliance, participation and integration of traditional and modern systems, etc.

Communication in the Alternative model occurs through a net of interpersonal channels, built around small groups. Innovative messages are re-inforced through mass media particularly via radio.

China has developed group system at village level where most of the innovations, human development and normative changes take place. According to Goran Hedebro, these groups often consist of between eight and fifteen persons and the average Chinese may be a member of several such groups. In these gatherings, policy of government is transmitted through mass media and discuss, either in general or special attention to some aspects that may directly concern the people. Meetings of these groups are often held under the guidance of local party officials, and they discuss all kinds of social matters. This is important to point out that group at village level in China is highly autonomous in making its own decisions subject to the main ideology of the political system. * In these groups, norms are set on what is right and what is wrong in a particular situation or on a given issue. He further says that the study groups are an important tool for breaking deeply rooted traditional values and beliefs and replacing them with the ideological content of the Communist party.

3.1 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE :

The Alternative model evolved during the 1960s and 1970s. The intellectual criticism against dominant paradigm combined with the following international events paved the way for emergence of Alternative model of development:

3.1.1 Environmental Pollution :

The capital intensive technology has created problem of environmental pollution after the industrial growth in the developed

*1. Chu G. C., 1977. *Radical Change Through Communication in Mao's China*. Honolulu: University press, Hawaii.

nations. A question mark was raised that how could dominant paradigm be ideal for overall development in a society.

3.1.2 World Oil Crisis :

The world oil crisis gave an idea to the developing nations that they could also play their role in the international arena. This made up their mind that causes of their poverty are not internal as hypothesised by the developed nations.

3.1.3 Relationship with China :

The establishment of relationship of China with other nations during the 1960s and 1970s has changed people perception towards strategies and methods of development. The wonderful results produced by China in health, education, agriculture, family planning, technology and other spheres of life were something miraculous to modernisation achieved by a country like China which was one of the poorest countries a few decades earlier. This is important to note that all this was accomplished with little foreign assistance.

3.1.4 Realisation of the Third World :

The most convincing factor for failure of dominant paradigm was the discouragement and realisation of the third world that development was not going very well in developing nations that had followed the dominant paradigm.

3.2 COMMON FEATURES OF THE ALTERNATIVE MODEL :

Alternative model in its features, methodologies and strategies etc. would vary from nation to nation. However, the following features are found common in alternative model wherever it is applied.

3.2.1 Self-reliance:

Self reliance stresses the use of locally available raw material, simple production process and use of indigenous know-how accumulated over the years. Goran Hedebro (1982) has listed the following advantages of self-reliance approach

1. It makes use of the great surplus of work power, which so far has had few alternatives in rural areas. In most third world contexts an appropriate technology is one of low capital intensity but high labour intensity.
2. It takes advantage of existing knowledge, thereby diminishing the need for mass educational information campaigns on how to use a new technology.
3. It creates job opportunities in rural areas.

4. It can be more useful in the sense that the commodities produced can be adapted to fill local needs. It is different from large scale technology, which mass produced standardised products not suited to specific uses.
5. It promotes the idea of cooperation and the notion that one person, together with others, can do something about the problems facing a village or a country.

3.2.2 Equality in Distribution:

In the new model more emphasis has been given to the equal distribution of information, socio-economic benefits so as to close the gap between the haves and the have-nots. The model focuses much attention to concentrate on villagers and the urban poor as should be the priority audience for development. The Dominant paradigm encouraged those who had financially sound position in the society, to have costly machinery, fertilizers and crops. This environment has further increased their domination over the poor. Alternative model believes that if equality is to be promoted, the information flow must be checked and ensured that the output of media is used by all segments in the society.

3.2.3 Integration of Traditional and Modern System

The new model recommends the marriage of traditional system with the modern one. The practice of Acupuncture and other traditional medication is still recommended along with the modern methods of antibiotic. The earlier paradigm of development rejected the traditional system and only the modern system got its way as counterparts.

Omo-Fardaka (1974) said that "African countries should not imitate the patterns of industrialised countries, but adopt development pattern suited to African indigenous traditional and culture patterns".

3.2.4 Popular Participation :

Popular participation in the development planning and execution is the main strength of alternative model of development. The element of participation motivates people's interest in the development of their own community. A fault that has commonly been pointed out in the dominant paradigm model while undertaking development efforts in the third world countries is that the receivers of the development programmes have been given little attention to participate in the decision making process. Particularly in China, decisions are not taken until immediate concerned are given a chance to express their views.

Even in China there is a group planning of birth at village level where the villagers decide how many babies they should have each year and who should have them. In Tanzania, it is believed that "people cannot be developed, unless they develop themselves". This realisation is also felt in the capitalistic setting such as Korea and Taiwan.

4. CONCLUSION

Development Support Communication in the Alternative model is not something to be imposed from the above. It has to be an interactive approach and should be materialised with a mutual interplay between leadership and the masses, where the latter make up the potential force and the leader act as path finders, seeking out channels through which the force can be exerted. To make this interplay, there have to be channel for information exchange. It is difficult to foresee results of implementation of any model without taking into account the differences between countries, regions and villages.

According to Goran Hedebro (1982 page 73-74) "Many nations look towards China for solutions to their economic, political, and social problems. The questions are: What factors in the Chinese development have made it possible to attain a basic standard of living for its population? To what extent is China's experience transferable to other nations, to other political settings? And, What tasks are allotted to the media in the Chinese model, how are they carried out, and to what extent might elements of this communication model be applied in countries that follow a politically different course?"

Without doubt the increased interest in China today has resulted from additional information about what has been going on and what is going on in the country. This increased knowledge has been brought about by changes in relationships between China and other nations of the world. This was particularly noticeable in the 1970s. Other countries have similar records of conquering in a short time some of the central problems faced by developing nations. Cuba and Tanzania, each in its own way, probably present the most interesting examples in their respective efforts to develop. Like China, both these countries have attracted attention for their ways of handling communication/education problems: Cuba for its campaign to eradicate illiteracy, and Tanzania for its method of using radio information campaigns to try to solve development problems. To understand the particular communication aspects in the models, we can look at the ways in which the above mentioned countries deviate from the dominant Western model. It is possible then to discuss whether possibilities exist to transfer parts of these models to other countries." According to Rogers (1976) "By the mid 1970s it seemed safe to conclude that the dominant paradigm had "passed" at least as the main model for development in Latin America, Africa, and Asia. Of course, it would still be followed enthusiastically in some nations, but even then with certain important

modifications. The Chinese model, or at least particular components, had been (and were being) adopted elsewhere when nations were willing to forego certain advantages of liberal democracy for the tighter government control that they thought to be necessary to maintain nationhood over tribal, religious, or regional factions, while Cambodia, Vietnam, and perhaps Tanzania were influenced by the Chinese route to development, they seem far from very exact replicas. So multiple and varied models of development were now in style.

Table below summarises these emerging alternatives to the dominant paradigm of Development and some of the possible factors that lead to them. (Taken from Communication and Development- critical perspectives by Everett as Rogers page 132)

Emerging Alternatives to the Dominant paradigm of Development

Main Elements in the Dominant paradigm of Development	Emerging Alternatives to the Dominant Paradigm	Possible Factors Leading to the Emerging in Alternatives
1. Economic growth	1. quality of distribution	1. "Development weariness" from the slow rate of economic development during the 1950s and 1960s. 2. Publication of the person Report 3. Growing loss of faith in the "trickle-down" theory of distributing development benefits.
2. Capital intensive technology	1. Concern with quality of life 2. Integration of "traditional" and modern system in a country. 3. Greater emphasis on intermediate-level and labour intensive technology.	1. Environmental pollution problems in Euro- America and Japan 2. Limits to Growth 3. The energy crisis following the 1973 Yom Kippur war
3. Centralised planning	1. Self-reliance in development Popular participation in decentralised self-development planning and execution (e.g. to the village level)	1. The People's Republic of China experience with decentralised, participatory self -development (widely known elsewhere after 1971)
4. Mainly internal causes of under-development	1. Internal and external causes of under-development (amounting to a redefinition of the problem by developing nations)	1. The rise of "oil power" in the years following the energy crisis of 1973-1974 2. Shifts the world power illustrated by voting behaviour in the UN general Assembly and in the UN World Conferences at Stockholm, Bucharest and Rome. 3. Criticism of the dominant paradigm by radical economists like Frank and other dependency theorists

5. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is Dominant paradigm? Explain the historical perspectives and rationals of the paradigm?
2. What are the causes of failures of Dominant Paradigm in the third world countries?
3. Explain the factors responsible for the evolution of the Alternative model of development.
4. Give a scenario of the Chinese, Cuban and Tanzanian experience of development with special reference to the Alternative model?
5. What are the main characteristics of Alternative model.
6. What factors are required for the implementation of Alternative model? How could the implementation of this model be possible in Pakistan?
7. Make a comparative study of the Dominant Paradigm and Alternative model.

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Unit Five-Six

**USING MASS MEDIA FOR
DEVELOPMENT SUPPORT
COMMUNICATION**

Written By :

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying these units, you should be able to :

1. Explain the importance of Mass Media for Development Support Communication.
2. List down the various Mass Media used for DSC campaign.
3. Distinguish the suitability of different media for different situations.
4. Describe the merits and demerits of various Media in the context of DSC.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1. INTRODUCTION :

Although interpersonal communication is the main tool of DSC operation, however, personal or face-to-face methods cannot reach everyone who wants and needs information. So mass media methods such as radio, newspapers, magazines, television, motion pictures, slide shows, exhibits and printed materials are used to reach large numbers of people quickly.

These methods are particularly useful in making large number of people aware of new ideas and practices, or alerting them to sudden emergencies. While the amount of detailed information that can be transmitted by mass media is limited, they will serve an important and valuable function in stimulating target audience interest in new ideas. Once stimulated or made aware through mass media, audiences will seek additional information from neighbours, friends, extension workers or progressive audiences in the area.

Some mass communication techniques that may be developed as part of a campaign to support your efforts are discussed below. They may be used singly or in combination, as needed, to meet the proposed objectives.

2.2 PRINTED MEDIA

The term printed media is used to cover those communication techniques that rely principally on combinations of printed words and pictures. They are our oldest formal combination. To use them effectively the educational levels and literacy rate of the audience must be considered. Extension programmes can take a broad and creative approach to ways in which to use print methods for conveying news to specific audiences. Newspapers may come to mind first, but they are only one of several print mass media available to convey extension news and information.

2.2.1 *Newspapers*

Newspapers vary greatly in their audiences and coverage, from the large urban daily newspaper to the small community paper. They are published by government, private, and other organizations and can provide valuable channels for support communication.

How can you get news accepted and used by newspapers? Mainly by knowing what editors want and by being able to judge the news-worthiness of your information. Here are six ingredients that newspaper editors often use to determine what they print and how they use it.

1. Timeliness.

The more timely the information, the greater the news value.

2. Nearness.
The closer the information seems to the reader (geographically and psychologically), the greater is its news value. That is why local newspapers prefer local news.
3. Consequence.
The more the readers are affected by the information, the greater is the news value.
4. Prominence.
Prominent people, places, and things carry more news value.
5. Human interest.
Readers are attracted by human interest elements such as unusualness, conflict, progress, emotion, and others.
6. Newspaper Policy.
Newspapers have editorial policies that influence the kinds and amount of information they publish. So the use of various kinds of support communication may vary from paper to paper, and period to period based on editorial policies.

Here are some of the main kinds of articles that communication workers submit to newspapers.

Advance event articles include announcements of approaching extension meetings, tours, speeches, and other events. Such articles are often brief, but should include details that would permit a reader to attend if interested i.e. the date, starting time, location, sponsor, nature of the event, agenda, and possibly the name of a contact person who could answer further questions.

Follow-up event articles report to readers about recent meetings, tours, speeches, or other extension events. Their main purpose is to report results, so they are often longer than advance event articles. They should include the date, location, sponsor, and nature of the event, to provide the background for the reader, but the greatest emphasis should be placed upon the outcome of the specific event. For example, an article about a speech should report what the speaker said. An article about a field tour should summarize what the participants saw and heard. An article about a business meeting should summarize the decisions that were made.

Information articles are used widely in extension to provide helpful information of various kinds : timely advice, "how-to" descriptions,

reports of research findings, market news, relevant statistics, and others. Such articles are not tied directly to events.

Feature articles are information and sometimes involve news, but are distinct in several ways from the types of articles mentioned earlier. Feature articles often interpret the news and provide background for readers. Often they are intended to entertain or inspire as much as to inform. They may feature ideas, places, techniques, persons, organizations, goals, successes, challenges and almost any other aspect of human activity. They often involve more human interest than do news or information articles.

News-writing style and format : News-writing styles differ throughout the world. So the best approach is to use the styles and formats that local news editors prefer. Work closely with the local editors to learn their style rules, deadlines and other preferences.

Regardless of specific requirements, editors probably want news copy that is neat, readable, and well-spaced on the page. They probably prefer writing that is clear, simple, active, and concise, because such writing permits easy reading, which is your primary goal. And they want copy that is accurate. One of your most successful techniques may be to keep your readers in your mind as you write.

2.2.2. Wall Newspapers.

Wall newspapers are used successfully by extension in many countries. The wall newspaper is known for being basically pictorial, using drawings and/or photographs, with a text as brief and vivid as possible. It is similar in size and appearance to poster, but often contains more written material and a wider variety of information.

For example, a typical support communication wall newspaper might use pictures and text to :

1. announce the appointment of a news livestock specialist,
2. give a progress report on a current fertilizer campaign,
3. urge the use of vaccine to prevent fowl cholera in poultry flocks, or
4. report the results of experiments with new grain varieties.

In most countries where wall newspapers are used in support communication programmes, they are produced in quantity by a central office and distributed by mail or through the extension organization. Some wall newspapers are printed by letter-press or offset methods, but methods such as silk-screen printing also work.

Distribution varies according to the requirements of each country. Mailings may be made directly to village leaders, school teachers, religious leaders and others. Sometimes the local change agent hand-delivers, and even posts, issues of the paper.

Walls of buildings at busy inter sections are excellent posting places. Papers also may be posted effectively on village bulletin boards, in reading centres, in schools, and inside public buildings.

2.2.3. Blackboard News :

Actually, support communicators need no type setting or duplicating equipment to reach mass audiences with print news at the local level. Chalk and a blackboard, or felt-tip pen, or crayon with a newsprint pad, can provide a valuable kind of wall newspaper. In the absence of plain newsprint sheets, extension workers in India have even hand-printed news in large print over classified advertising pages of discarded newspapers. The classified advertising provide a suitably neutral background for readable, hand-written extension news posted in the village.

2.2.4. Newsletters :

Newsletters can be an effective, low-cost way to reach readers. The content of a newsletter can be more localized and specialized than is possible with a general newspaper. Like the wall newspaper, the newsletter is well adapted to using local languages and dialects. And a newsletter can include hand-written, type-written or type-set copy. Duplication methods also can vary greatly.

A newsletter usually contains a larger share of text-to-visual than does a wall newspaper, but not necessarily. Page size is smaller than for newspapers, so space is often limited and brevity is vital. In fact, brevity is one of the benefits that readers find in a newsletter. Newsletter writers try to get into each subject quickly and use short sentences and energetic words.

The newsletter can be directed more selectively than newspapers. For example, a newsletter might be distributed only to new mothers in a village ; content could provide news and advice about feeding and caring for infants. The newsletter can, therefore, be newsy, localized and specialized in what it covers.

Extension personnel might publish their own newsletter, or newsletters, or they often submit news to newsletters published by other organizations, such as co-operatives, that reach readers of interest to extension.

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Extension personnel might publish their own newsletter, or newsletters, or they often submit news to newsletters published by other organizations, such as co-operatives, that reach readers of interest to extension.

2.2.5. *Folders, Leaflets and Pamphlets :*

Simple folders, leaflets and pamphlets can be used in many ways in extension programmes. They may be used singly, for example to explain the advantages of testing soil. They may be used in series of broader subjects like sheep raising, with separate leaflets on feeding, housing, and breeding. They may be used as reminders of when to plant crops or what chemicals to use to control different insects.

Folder, leaflets, and pamphlets may also be used in co-ordination with other visual methods in long-range campaigns. Because of their low cost, they can be given away at meetings and fairs and offered on radio programmes. They are useful to supplement larger publications when new information is available and when reprinting the whole publication is not practical. An experimental campaign is being tried in the Northwest Frontier Province of Pakistan by air-dropping timely one-page leaflets on insect pests and vegetable growing practices from spray planes in village areas.

Besides the advantages of low cost and short preparation time, folders, leaflets and pamphlets take less time to get their message across. Their smaller size makes it necessary for the author to eliminate non-essentials from the message.

2.2.6. *Fact Sheets :*

Fact sheets are "boiled down" treatments of subject matter. They usually cover a single topic, and often they are limited to a single page.

Most fact sheets are illustrated with drawings or photographs, or both. The illustrations are used to show details or steps in a process, to make the information clearer and more understandable. One of the important uses for fact sheets is to provide current subject matter to field workers. Field workers often complain that needed technical information is slow in reaching them. Much agricultural information is carried in technical bulletins and other lengthy publications. These take considerable time to process and distribute.

On the other hand, the essential facts can be put down and combined with drawings and/or photographs to make an effective summary which can be reproduced quickly and inexpensively in fact sheet form. This puts current information into the hands of local extension workers enabling them to give better service to farm families. Extension administrators, who are concerned with the problem of speeding up intra-staff communication of subject matter, should study the advantages offered by fact sheets.

2.2.7. Preparing the Material :

1. When preparing these printed materials, keep the audience constantly in mind. Write with words people understand. Write about things that interest people. Change the method of presentation as the proposed reader changes (young people, farmers, women). Eliminate difficult scientific and technical terms.
2. The importance of illustrations cannot be over-emphasized. Even where literacy is not a problem, people interpret words differently because of differences in past experience.

Almost every extension service over-estimates the ability of its audience to read a printed message and understand it clearly. Almost every extension service over-estimates the extent to which people will be attracted to and read a printed message.

3. Illustrations reduce the risk of misunderstandings : they help make your message clear and more attractive, and they increase learning.
4. Good lay-out arranges material in a logical, easy-to-follow manner and makes it attractive to the reader.
5. Realistic illustrations are usually the most effective in extension work, although humourous drawings have a definite place. Use humour carefully so as not to offend anyone. Good pictures make any publication easier to understand and more interesting to read, but crop unnecessary details from photographs, and keep drawings simple.
6. Folders generally have more appeal when a colour or ink is used other than black. Choose colours that are legible as well as appropriate-dark green ink for pastures, dark brown for soils. Two or more colours can be used if the extra cost is justified. Coloured papers can also be used for interesting effects and are available at very little extra cost.
7. Attractive, effective publications can be prepared on spirit duplicators, mimeograph machines, offset duplicators or letterpress. It is not difficult to train an artist to produce illustrations, headings, or even copy in the local dialect for each of these methods of printing.

colourful and impelling. The audience should feel an urge to look inside. A bulletin that never reaches the hands cannot possibly reach the brain where judgements and decisions are made.

2.3. AUDIO-VISUAL MEDIA :

Communication methods that rely on the audio or visual senses, either alone or in combination, help overcome the barrier of illiteracy and offer special advantages. They also have disadvantages, which will be discussed later.

2.3.1. Radio :

Radio can be one of the most useful mass communication tools for support communicators, for several reasons. It offers immediacy, as radio programming can be changed quickly to meet new conditions. It reaches large numbers of people, especially as transistor radios are being used more widely. They permit listeners to take their radio wherever they go, even where electrical power is not available. Radio provides the warmth of the human voice. It can tie into the strong oral traditions of communities and overcome the literacy barriers that face print media.

Support communicators find that radio works most successfully at the local level, to communicate local problems, solutions and activities. They use local names, voices and activities in programming. Farmer success stories and other kinds of neighbour-teach-neighbour approaches have been found to work well. Radio is most effective at the awareness and interest stages of the adoption process.

However, listeners cannot refer back to what they have heard on the radio, nor can they see what is being described. So radio is limited in its ability to convey detailed, complex information and, used alone, is limited as a teaching method.

2.3.2. Types of Use for Broadcast Radio :

Two types of broadcast radio are commonly used for extension programming.

1. Open Broadcast : The support communicator provides programming for the station's broadcasts, such as spot announcements to be taped and repeated at intervals during the day, or longer programmes, presented in person or taped for use on scheduled programmes. Stations also invite printed news releases that can be read in newscasts and other programmes.

countries use approaches commonly called listening clubs, radio schools or farm forums. Local participants gather at a certain time, listen to a programme broadcast by a certain station, then discuss the programme in terms of their own situations.

Organized group listening can produce good results because it involves the listeners more than individual listening does. However, listening groups are difficult to maintain and may require more of the extension worker's time than can be justified. Instead of organizing an extension listening group, it may be possible instead to promote collective listening in existing groups, such as co-operatives or farmer's associations. If extension wishes to organize its own group, it might be created for a limited period, perhaps keyed to a timely topic that is important to local listeners. When the series of broadcasts ends, the group disbands.

In general, group listening declines as transistor radios become more widely used by individuals and families. In some communities, participants in a radio group listen individually to the specified broadcast, then discuss the programme at a meeting later. As radio ownership grows in local communities, it seems likely that extension workers will use listening groups mainly for major topics that can arouse wide-spread local interest.

3. Audio Cassettes: Low-cost, battery-powered cassette recorders are permitting extension workers to use recorders in some effective new ways.
 - i. A radio listening group can record its reactions, conclusions, questions and suggestions about a given programme or topic, then send the cassette to the station or sponsoring organization for information and follow-up.
 - ii. A regional or central extension office can produce and record instructional programming on audio cassettes for use at local levels. Such cassettes might be used in group meetings or made available for individual listening. Local listeners can, in turn, record their own reactions or questions on cassettes which are returned to the

regional or central extension office as valuable feedback.

- iii. A local extension worker can make field recordings for use in group meetings. The recorded material can add interest to meeting, yet is simple and cheap to produce.
- iv. Cassettes can permit multiple use of information aired on open broadcasts, by simply recording the programme as it is aired. The resulting recorded programme can be used later in group meetings. Conversely, the remarks of a guest speaker at a meeting can be recorded, and perhaps used in a later broadcast.

4. Producing and Presenting Radio Broadcasts : Here are some tips for preparing and presenting radio programmes for broadcast.

- i. Try to localise the content and match it to the interests of listeners. Emphasize local matters and involve local people.
- ii. Take advantage of the timelines of radio by emphasizing current activities, trends, issues, developments and so on.
- iii. Use sounds in creative ways. The voice is one kind of sound, but you can use many other kinds effectively
- iv. Attract the listener's attention quickly, through a compelling remark, catchy introductory sound, or other techniques. The first 10 seconds of a programme are especially important.
- v. Give information a flowing quality that makes it personal and easy to follow. Good radio copy is written for the ear and uses simple, understandable words. Test your radio copy by reading it aloud and revising it until it reads easily and flows smoothly.
- vi. Speak in a normal conversational voice, at a natural speed. Speak as if you were conversing with one person.
- vii. Use changes of pace in your presentation, to hold interest. You can do so by varying your reading speed, for example, or varying the kinds and volumes of sound.

- viii. Repeat important facts, such as dates, times and places of meetings. Listeners cannot refer back, as they can with printed material, so they must rely on you to repeat important information.
- ix. Invite listeners to take part. You can involve them mentally by asking questions, posing problems, and otherwise encouraging interaction as if you were in conversation. You can even involve them physically, sometimes, by inviting them to carry out certain actions as you speak.

2.3.3. *Television*

Two types of television media are available for teaching purposes. The first and most familiar is broadcast television, in which programmes are aired over a large geographical area. The second type is sometimes referred to as closed-circuit television. This usage takes a video signal from a tape or cassette and carries it over a cable to one or more monitors. The monitors may be in several locations or next to the video player.

Broadcast television offers exciting possibilities for extension workers. The agricultural officer can demonstrate as well as talk. The home economist can demonstrate how to make a dress. The agricultural extension worker can present useful method demonstrations as well as show a whole series of result demonstrations through pictures which show change over time. All types of visual aids such as charts, graphs, live objects and blackboards can be used to increase teaching effectiveness on television.

However, caution should be exercised before launching into using television. Television programme require meticulous preparation. Every piece of equipment must be in place and the dialogue must be well thought out. Most important, study the geographical area that the transmitting station covers. Second, determine the number of receivers that are available to the intended audiences. It is useless to programme for rural audiences if they do not have the necessary receiving equipment or they live outside the range of the transmitter.

Organization is an essential ingredient of a television programme. The method used to arrange the sequence of related words and pictures that make up the story is called a "run down sheet." This sheet is divided into two columns, one headed 'video' for pictures, the other 'audio', holding an outline of what is to be said. The run down sheet

the performers. Start using this medium with programmes with all the action in one place. Then test out the ability of extension personnel to perform more involved sequences as experience is gained.

The basic rules are simple. Move deliberately to allow the camera to follow. Operate within a small area. Hold any material steadily on target for camera viewing. Avoid the use of complicated demonstration material. Time the presentation before going to the studio to make sure the programme fits into the allotted time. Have some extra points ready to present in case the material runs short. Colour combinations and light contrasts are important; the television engineer can specify which combinations are best.

In spite of the relatively high cost of receiving sets, television occupies an increasingly important role in developing countries. Many governments have installed sets in each village so that villagers can receive official broadcasts. Extension administrators have only to convince authorities of the value of their educational broadcasts to open up this useful channel of communication and education to the masses of people.

2.3.4. *Instructional Television :*

Instructional television can be an excellent tool for extension workers. Instructional television is distinguished from broadcast television in that materials are not designed for distribution by the mass approach of broadcasting. Productions need not be tied to the specific time constraints of broadcast requirements and can be as specific in length as needed. The medium of instructional television had its beginning in cable television, with programming distributed from a central source to outlets in various centres, such as classrooms or conference rooms. With the advent of new formats of video-tape such as 3/4" U-Matic, 1/2" VHS, the possibilities of using instructional video-tapes or television have expanded dramatically within the last five years. These systems feature colour images and can produce programmes with lightweight portable equipment powered from battery sources. These video-tapes can then be edited in production centres and duplicated to provide current materials for extension leaders and officers. This gives immediacy to a medium for transmitting information in times such as an insect or disease emergency. The ability to prepare timely topics in the field using identifiable farmers as subject matter carries an enormous credibility factor. Video-tapes can be stored for use at later dates or erased and re-used when the subject matter is no longer timely.

Another value of this medium is as a training tool for extension workers enrolled in "in-service" education courses or refresher courses. Workers can be video-taped in presentation sessions and the tapes viewed to help individuals evaluate their own delivery styles, their presentation strengths and weaknesses.

Video-tapes can be mailed, sent by messenger or carried by extension personnel to wherever extension audiences may be located. A video-player and a television receiver or monitor are needed for delivery. These units can be powered by batteries provided the right selections of equipment are made. Viewing stations should preferably have access to main power.

Video-tape technology is the most expensive of all of the mass media methods. Users should be aware of this fact and financing and maintenance must be adequately provided before adopting the technique. Personnel who plan to use the equipment in productions will need to receive adequate training.

The basic rules for planning and production of broadcast television also apply to the production of materials for instructional television.

2.3.5. Projected Visuals :

Motion pictures, slides, filmstrips and overhead transparencies have much appeal and are among the most effective of the visual teaching aids. It is as well to remember that they have important limitations as well as advantages.

The main advantages of each type of projected visual are discussed in the sections that follow, but in general, the disadvantages or limitations are similar, that is, that special equipment is required both to produce and show the visuals. This equipment tends to be relatively expensive, and some sort of electrical power is required to operate the projectors. Transportation, maintenance and storage of equipment and materials require special consideration. If these limitations do not present a problem, projected visuals should be used as much as possible in your extension programmes.

2.3.6. Pictures :

Motion pictures are really not 'motion' pictures at all. They are a series of still pictures on a long strip of film. Each picture is flashed momentarily on the screen and rapid succession of still pictures, each showing the subject in a slightly different position, gives an illusion of movement.

Films have the potential to create powerful emotions and urges, and thus can be a tremendously effective tool in teaching. This means that selected and used properly, they can intensify the interest of an audience in the subject. Films are also excellent for showing the steps necessary in doing a task, or for showing a continuous action.

They can reproduce events long since past. They can record a demonstration that can be shown over and over again to many different people in many different places. They can slow or accelerate motion for better analysis of action and growth. They can magnify on a screen action that normally would be too small to be seen easily or clearly by an individual or group. They can condense or stretch time.

Many other strong points for using motion pictures could be mentioned, but the reasons already given are among the most important and help explain why films are a potent teaching tool. For motivating an audience, for appealing to the emotions, for a clear concise portrayal of action, few media approach the motion picture. It portrays reality.

The size of film most commonly used for educational motion pictures is 16 mm. All 16 mm. films are not alike however. Those made for viewing silently or with comment by a leader are made with sprocket holes on both sides of the film.

Films made by professional laboratories to which sound is added have sprocket holes on only one side of the film. You should not attempt to project sound film on a silent projector because the teeth of the drive mechanism will punch holes in the sound track. Another difference is that silent films are made to operate at 16 frames per second or somewhat slower than sound film, that runs at 24 frames per second. If a silent film is run at the speed for sound, an increase in the speed of action will take place.

In selecting a film to use in a given teaching situation, the same judgement must be exercised as in selecting other teaching aids and materials. In addition to the objective, any previous experience of the audience must be considered, with such factors as age, education, interests and customs.

A film should be used only as a teaching aid. Leaders frequently make the mistake of showing a film without preparing the audience or following up. Because movies sometimes cover too much ground or include too much detail (considering the experience of the audience) viewers often fail to fully understand the ideas presented.

To do the best kind of a job, leaders must first be thoroughly familiar with the subject to be taught. Leaders must know exactly how the film supports the ideas to be presented. Before showing the film, leaders should explain the lesson, tell why it is important and stimulate viewers to look for certain things in the film. When this procedure is followed, the end of the film should be the signal for the beginning of a lively discussion and question period.

A successful film showing depends on looking after a number of details. An adequate power supply that matches the requirements of the projector is necessary; this means checking on details such as extension cords and electrical connections. Some means should be available to darken the room without cutting off ventilation. Spare projection lamps should be on hand.

Before the audience arrives, the machine should be set up, threaded with film, focused on the screen and tested. The projector should be placed high enough to project over the heads of the audience and the screen high enough from the floor for everyone to see the bottom of the picture easily. A good rule is 4 feet (1.2 m.) from the floor to the bottom of the screen.

2.3.7. *Slides and Filmstrips :*

The slide is one of the most popular and versatile visuals that can be used in extension-education. There are two types of slides. The first is referred to as a "lantern slide." These were used in very early days and are almost never used today. The lantern slide measured 3" x 4 1/2" and is mounted in glass. The second, almost universal slide is the 35 mm or 2" (50 mm x 50 mm) slide. When 35 mm colour film is used, a direct colour positive transparency is the result. Some types of this film can be home-processed, others require commercial processing. When processed, the film is cut into individual pictures and mounted in cardboard or glass ready for projecting.

Filmstrips are visuals that have been photographed on a continuous length or strip of film and are projected in a special projector, one image at a time. Filmstrips require specialized production techniques which usually offset the production economies for use by extension groups when small numbers of the material are needed. Filmstrips have the same advantages and disadvantages as slides with the exception that image sequences cannot be changed.

Slides and filmstrips have the following advantages :

1. they can be made by the individual worker at low cost ;
2. they can be made either in natural colour or in black and white ;
3. both the slides and the projection equipment are relatively light and can be easily transported ;
4. slide sequences can be readily changed to keep them timely and localized ; and
5. slide sequences can be changed in length to fit local needs.

Slides and filmstrips have these limitations :

1. They do not show action ;
2. They normally require "live" narration, unless synchronized with a tape recorder ;
3. They require close co-operation with a projectionist throughout the presentation if the speaker desires to be in front of an audience, unless remote control equipment is available ;
4. Most important, they require a dependable source of power or generating equipment, and maintenance. A supply of spare projection lamps is a must for the effective utilization of protected visuals.

The same attention to meeting room preparation (screen placement, location and set-up of the projector and room darkening) should be provided for showing slides and filmstrips as discussed in the section on motion pictures.

2.3.8. Overhead Transparencies :

The overhead projector is the most recent development in projected visual techniques. It derives its name from the technique, whereby pictures or illustrations are projected over the head of the presenter. This medium also has advantages and disadvantages. The most important advantage is that the projector may be used in normal daylight conditions and presentation rooms do not require darkening. A second factor is that presentation transparencies are easy to prepare. The presenter or an artist/illustrator can draw or write directly on clear or coloured acetate sheets using a variety of writing implements.

Wax marking pencils, various types of felt markers and specially prepared pens with inks that project in colour can be used to prepare the subject matter. Overhead projectors cannot normally be used to project colour transparencies, as 35 mm slides are too small for the projection optics. In addition, the optics are not designed for projection of continuous tones and work best with lines and solid areas. Full colour transparencies similar to 35 mm slides also require

darkened projection conditions. However, overhead projection transparencies can be produced from black and white copy that is transferred to special films for duplication in office copiers.

Overhead projection is a very versatile medium. Probably the most important factor is that the presenter maintains eye contact with the audience at all times. He or she can use techniques such as progressive disclosure to control audience attention. The teacher can point to parts of the transparency for attention. Shapes, such as arrows, cut from card stock can be used as add-on features to attract attention and emphasize. The presenter can also write directly on the film to add material or emphasize points.

The overhead projector uses electricity for the projection lamp. Its usage then is also linked to a dependable source of main power or a portable generator. Spare lamps are also vital for continued and efficient use.

2.4 STATIC MEDIA :

This group of media derives its name from the fact that the material does not involve motion or sound. Examples are posters, flip charts, wall charts, maps, chalk boards (black or coloured), magnetic boards and flannel boards.

All of these techniques require the use of some form of printed material. All can be effective when used properly. There are several drawbacks to their use, mainly due to the bulk of the materials which makes transport and storage difficult. Static media are often best used with small or intimate groups for maximum visibility.

Support communicators should keep the following in mind when designing any printed visual. Legibility of a letter is determined by letter height, line width and letter style. Letter height is most important. A lower case letter, such as an "e," that is one inch in height is visible from a distance of 32 feet ; a two-inch letter is visible from 64 feet, and a one-half inch letter is visible only at a distance closer than 16 feet. Letters should be bold and simple ; fancy type styles should be avoided.

When using static visuals, make sure they are displayed prominently and are well-lit, so that members of your audience may see them clearly. Make sure they are secure, but do not be embarrassed by materials that fall to the floor.

2.4.1. Posters :

A poster is a sheet of paper or cardboard with an illustration and, usually, a few simple words. It is designed to catch the attention of the passer-by, emphasize a fact or an idea and stimulate him or her either to support an idea, to obtain more information, or take some kind of action.

People do not walk around studying posters. They look at posters in the same way as they look at trees, birds, houses, cows, or other people. A brief glance is usually as much as the average person gives an ordinary object, long enough only to identify it. If something about the object catches the attention or stimulates interest, the passer-by will look at it longer. The design and use of posters as visuals in extension teaching are based on this principle.

Since a single glance may be all any poster will get, the message must be simple and clear. Details and wordy sentences have no place. Here are a few suggestions for designing more attractive, effective posters.

1. Decide exactly who the audience is. Decide exactly what the poster must tell them. Decide what the audience should do.
2. Put down on a sheet of paper words and rough pictures that express the message simply and clearly.
3. Try to put the message into a few words, a concise, striking slogan. Visualize or put into picture form the most important central idea in the message. Remember that words and picture must be seen at a glance and must stimulate a response by the viewer.
4. Rough out the poster in small scale, "1/3" or "1/4" actual size. If the services of an artist are available, he or she can produce an excellent finished poster from an original rough sketch.
5. Use plain, bold lettering and lines ; use colour to attract attention and for contrast (but remember that too many colours add confusion) ; allow plenty of space, do not crowd letters, words or illustrations.

Posters should supplement, not replace, other communication methods. They are often used to "spearhead" or introduce a campaign, or they may be used to reinforce an educational effort after it has been launched. In general, the greater the number of posters used in an area, the greater the impact, up to a certain point. Most people find it annoying to be bombarded at every turn by the same poster. Over-use of posters defeats their purpose and may actually turn people against the idea they are trying to put over. Discretion and good taste will suggest the number to use in a given situation.

Posters may be produced in quantity by letterpress, by offset printing, or by silk screens. Where only a small number are required, they may be produced by the individual, by an artist or by other people such as school children.

Posters are put up on walls of buildings, fences, trees, poles, bulletin boards, store windows, trucks, automobiles and any other places where they are likely to be seen by people passing by.

2.4.2. *Exhibits and Displays :*

Exhibits and displays have some of the same characteristics as posters, covered in the preceding section. The main differences are that exhibits and displays usually are larger and more detailed.

As with the poster, the job of the exhibit or display is to catch the attention of the passer-by, impress on him or her a fact or an idea, stimulate interest in the subject matter presented, and possibly urge him or her to take some sort of action. Differing from a poster, however, the exhibit is larger, may have three dimensions and, most important, imparts more detailed information than is possible with a poster.

Because of their larger size and because they usually are placed in the market place or other areas where people move slowly, exhibits and displays attract and hold attention for longer periods than posters. Even so, the periods are not long. The viewing time will depend on whether the exhibit is in an open area or in a separate enclosed room.

Viewing time may be as short as one minute or as long as ten minutes. On average, one should aim at telling the complete story in about three minutes. This means that whatever you can do to increase the attention getting power of your exhibit, increase its attractiveness and personal appeal, and keep its content simple and clear, the greater are the chances that the viewer will receive and understand your message.

Again, as is true of all other visuals, planning is the first step in preparing exhibits and displays. Decide who the audience is, what the message is, what the audience is to do. Answering these questions will help to plan the scope of the exhibit, the appeal to use and the content.

The most effective exhibits are built around a single idea with a minimum of supporting information. In a few simple words and pictures, to tell farmers that a new seed variety is better and why.

that is all. Make a miniature of the exhibit from paper or card board. This will help to visualize it at full scale. Experiment with colours and design : an artist's help in planning the arrangement would be helpful.

To attract attention and get people to stop and look at the exhibit, something that will catch the eye should be included. This might be a live object, such as a sheep in an exhibit about sheep, or it might be colour, movement, light, or any number of things suggested by a lively imagination.

One could try to define the "something" that causes people to stop and look for more detailed information. This "something" must produce a "mental shock." Once a person stops in front of an exhibit he or she is susceptible to the rest of the message or messages in the exhibit. Incidentally, a walking person passes by an exhibit in about the same number of seconds as there are lineal feet in front of the booth. In other words if the booth is 10 feet (3 metres) wide in front, a person has about 10 seconds to absorb enough of the intended message to be persuaded to stop and discover the rest. Thus it is obvious that the attention of passers-by must be attracted in a very short time.

Make sure that the central idea of the exhibit stands out. The lesson taught must be clear at once. A combination of real objects, models or illustrative material plus a bold sign will usually get the point across.

2.5. EMERGING METHODS :

Development support communication is experimenting with other mass communication systems, many of them related to computers, examples of which are listed below.

1. Video-tex, a two-way inter-active system that links computer data bases to television sets, through telephone or cable television lines. Agricultural uses of video tex are being tested in many countries, including the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Denmark, the Netherlands, Canada and the United States.
2. Broadcast tele-text, a one-way, non-inter-active system that transmits text and graphics through broadcast signals to television sets with special decoders. Teletext is in various stages of development in more than 15 countries.

3. Slow-scan television makes picture communications possible through channels such as telephone, satellite, microwave and FM radio. Slow-scan television is being used in the South Pacific and other areas.
4. Communication satellites offer special potential for reaching remote areas. Agricultural uses of satellites are being tested in India, Peru, Indonesia, the Pacific nations, Canada, Alaska, Colombia and Russia, for example.
5. Intelligent telephone, a system which combines the telephone with the computer to provide many possible uses of interest to agricultural extension.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- Q. No.1. Describe the various characteristics of newspaper.
- Q. No.2. What do you know by wall newspaper, Blackboard, Newsletters, Folder, leaflets and pamphlets and fact sheet. Explain them with your own examples.
- Q. No. 3. What are the criteria for preparing material for print media.
- Q. No. 4. What are the types used for Radio broadcast in DSC's media campaign.
- Q. No. 5. Explain the strength of television in DSC.
- Q. No. 6. Explain the various types of projected visuals and its utility in the sphere of DSC.
- Q. No. 7. Describe the characteristics of Static Media.

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Unit Seven

**PLANNING DEVELOPMENT
SUPPORT COMMUNICATION
CAMPAIGN**

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able :

1. To describe the need and importance of planning a campaign in DSC
2. To discuss the methods and strategies for designing a plan for DSC campaign.
3. To identify the advantages of Campaign in DSC.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

Planning is supposed to be a prerequisite of any programme. In case of Development Support Communication (DSC) appropriate planning is the primary step for achieving the goals. In this unit attention is focused on planning a DSC campaign in an integrated manner that utilizes different educational and communication methods in order to bring various new ideas in the minds of people (audience).

2.1 WHAT IS A CAMPAIGN :

Campaign involves coordinated use of different methods of communication and education, aimed at focusing attention on a particular problem and its solution over a period of time. There are different kinds of campaigns such as charity campaign, sale campaign, political campaign. The kind of campaign used in DSC is the self-help campaign. It is intended to provide information and education which people can use to improve their lives.

2.2 ADVANTAGES OF THE CAMPAIGN APPROACH :

Several features make the campaign approach valuable in DSC. Some of them are given as under:

1. A campaign approach is the only way to handle large and complex programmes of public information and education. Haphazard communications cannot be effective when working with large and diverse audience, through variety of messages, and by using various communication methods.
2. The campaign approach permits the use of resources (time, funds, personnel) more effectively and helps you to coordinate them.
3. The campaign approach is unique in the way it permits the use of combinations of methods, directed towards the same programme objectives. It can add unity to the educational efforts.
4. This approach produces a planned schedule of coordinated activities, so it helps to adjust the efforts of personnel over a period of time.
5. It can help to reach more members of the intended audience, by using a combination of communication methods.
6. It can provide a wider change of understanding as it helps to reach audience members through multiple channels and in a repetitive pattern which enlarge the scope of learning.

2.3 WHEN TO USE A CAMPAIGN :

The campaign approach is most useful when the topic under consideration is important to the audience and the organization; when a variety of communication methods will be needed and when the education effort is complete and perhaps large scale.

2.4 CREATING THE PLAN :

The planning process for an educational campaign might be approached in three stages : identification of objectives, analysis and formulation of the plan.

2.5 Stage 1: Identification of objectives :

A useful statement of objectives must do three things:

1. Specify the kind of change desired or introduce the new idea;
2. Pin point the intended audience, and
3. State the period of time involved

DSC campaign may aim at new pattern of action or increased levels of knowledge. But even a campaign that reaffirms one's current beliefs seeks change, in the sense of increasing the strength with which the person holds them. -

2.6 Stage 2: Analysis :

Careful analysis of topic, situation, intended audience and the local organization that intends DSC, can help keep a campaign simple and on target. The following are some questions that might be asked about each of the four areas for analysis.

1. How familiar is the topic to the intended audience?
2. How easy is it to see and describe?
3. How readily can it be demonstrated?
4. How strong or weak is the scientific base for it?
5. To what extent does it agree or conflict with the current values and experiences of the audience?

2.6.1 Situation:

1. How severe is the problem, or great the opportunity?
2. What has created the problem or opportunity?
3. What efforts were made to introduce the idea or to achieve the desired results?
4. What were the net results produced by those efforts?

2.6.2* Audience:

1. How many audience would be targeted?
2. What are the location and inhabitancy of the audience?
3. What are their major characteristics (sex, education, age, financial resources, occupation etc.)
4. How much do they know about the topic?
5. How interested they are in the topic?
6. What are their feelings and opinions about the topic?
7. What are their goals related to the topic?
8. To what sources do, or would, they normally go for information about the topic?
9. What groups or organizations are important to them?
10. What mass media they use?

2.6.3 *Sponsor:*

1. What is the importance of the topic for DSC?
2. How urgent is the matter from DSC point of view?
3. How much priority will the matter receive within DSC?
4. What resources are available to work on the programme?

Answers to such questions would help you make decisions about whether to conduct the campaign, to whom it should be directed, what should be said, what communication channels should be used, when the campaign should begin and end, etc. Such analysis would be extremely valuable to the communication planners in DSC.

2.7. STAGE 3: FORMULATION OF THE PLAN :

This stage has several dimensions:

2.7.1 *Methods to use:*

At this point the planner chooses from available communication channels, identifies messages to be communicated, decides on the amount and format of material to be used, selects a schedule and chooses ways to arrange feedback from audience members during the campaign.

2.7.2. *Timing the Campaign:*

In deciding when to begin and a campaign be guided of the patterns in which your audience members make decisions and carry out actions concerning the topic. For instance, a campaign that involves how much fertilizer to apply for rice production might logically be timed to match the periods when growers make their fertilizing decisions and order fertilizers.

2.7.3 *Using Slogans and Symbols :*

In development support communication slogans and symbols are used and they usually add to the impact of a DSC campaign. Effective slogans help attract attention to the topic and message, help audiences learn and remember information more easily, add unity and sustain interest in the campaign among audience members and within the sponsoring organization. Slogans should emphasis a single idea tied to the campaign objective. They should be memorable, easy to understand, versatile and geared to the interests and needed of the intended audience.

2.7.4 *Pre-testing Messages :*

Before using slogans and symbols and other campaign material the same should be used among audience members to evaluate its effectiveness.

2.7.5 Selecting Media and Methods :

More than one communication channel should be used in a DSC campaign. Combination of media offers several advantages. They help overcome the tendency for people to use certain information channels than others. Messages may have more impact when they come from a variety of media. A multiple media campaign may also be preferred when different messages are to be delivered to different sub-groups in your audiences. Multi-media campaign also have greater chances of access to a majority of the audience members.

2.7.6 Providing channels for information-seeking :

Planners should also think about methods by which interested audience members can seek information. For example, radio listening groups or television viewing groups might be provided with recording equipment and audio cassettes, which they can use to record their questions, concerns and ideas for return to the radio station or sponsoring organization. Print and broadcast messages can give detailed instructions about how readers, listeners and viewers can get further information.

2.7.7 Involving People :

In planning, list all of the different people and organizations that should be informed and involved in the campaign, including community leaders, public officials and media representatives. People concerned with the campaign must be involved at all stages, in the planning, in the activities of the campaign, in evaluating results and in publishing the results.

Deciding How Much is Enough :

- Every member of the intended audience should at least be exposed twice to the message.

2.7.8 Pacing the Campaign:

Should the campaign begin strongly, then ease off? Should it begin slowly, then build to climax? There are several guidelines suggested by results of research which decide about the pace of campaign.

1. Decide on the continuity of a campaign mainly on the basis of seasonality, as it relates to the topic and audience members. The timing of messages should be matched with the prevailing pattern concerning the campaign topic.
2. Messages could be conveyed in cluster during the campaign period rather than in a continuous, even flow. Within a cluster of activity, messages should be scheduled intensively to achieve maximum impact.

3. The learning forgetting process is dynamic, so campaign pacing must also be considered in terms of peaks, lows and averages, rather than of stable levels of audience awareness and learning.

2.7.9 Using Calendars and Work Charts :

A campaign media calendar should be prepared that shows when each communication method will be used during the campaign period. It can help avoid any gaps in coverage during the campaign.

A work chart identifies each activity that must be carried out before, during and after the campaign period. If a chronological work chart is prepared, it will tell you what needs to be done on a day-to-day or week-to-week basis. The work chart not only shows activities and deadlines but also those who are responsible for each activity.

2.7.10 Evaluating the Campaign :

At the same time as any campaign is planned, its subsequent evaluation, in terms of objectives, must also be done. Evaluation during the campaign may deal with aspects such as the adequacy of resources, the degree to which deadlines are being met, cooperation with partner organizations in functioning, the extent to which media organizations are using the materials which are submitted to them and the amounts and kinds of feedback from audience members.

Evaluation after the campaign achieve the kind and amount of change desired is the critical issue to be assessed.

3. SELF -ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What do you know about DSC campaign, Also explain its needs and importance
2. How DSC campaign is different from publicity campaign?
3. What are the factors involved in formulating plan for DSC campaign?
4. Explain why topic, situation, audience and sponsor analysis are considered essential for successful DSC campaign?
5. Why pre-testing messages, using calendars, work charts and evaluation are considered key to achieve the goals of DSC campaign?
6. Supposed you are director health, what type of strategy you would adopt for planning a campaign to diffuse the message of iodize salt in the community? Explain.

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Unit Eight

EVALUATING THE DSC PROGRAMME

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able:

1. To define the concept of evaluation in general and DSC evaluation in particular;
2. To distinguish the role of monitoring and evaluation;
3. To describe the types of evaluation and then specific implication in different DSC Programmes;
4. To identify various steps involved in the process of evaluation and
5. To list the reasons for evaluation.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 WHAT IS EVALUATION?

Evaluation is the process directed to formulate judgement about the overall operation of a project. Evaluation process involves gathering of data on whether the components of a system are functioning according to the desired goals. Evaluation some times refers to "Quality control mechanism" to ensure the standards of quality in relation to intended goals, the scope, structure of the plan and results of the operation are achieved on the right directions.

2.2 EVALUATION IN DSC :

Evaluation in Development Support Communication is a continuous and systematic process of assessing the value or potentials of the developmental project. The process of evaluation in DSC includes developing criteria (to judge value of the programme from audience point of view), collection of data relating to the criteria and the provision of information given to the concerned publics.

2.3 ELEMENTS OF EVALUATION :

1. Evaluation is usually prompted by the need to make a decision about the direction of activity.
2. Evaluation is always based on certain criteria: For example, what is the criterion that constitutes an entertaining radio programme for us.
3. Evaluation is made on observations or collection of evidence relating to the criteria.
4. Evaluation involves judgement relating to the value or potential of value of the activity.

2.4 REASONS FOR EVALUATION :

Evaluation can serve important public relations functions. The information obtained from evaluation can be presented to other DSC practitioners and organizations who are concerned about the effectiveness of the programme. Evaluation provides feedback information to the people involved in the programme. Usually good feedback boosts up the morale of the staff.

2.5 TYPES OF EVALUATION :

There are basically two types of evaluations. These are discussed below:

2.5.1 *Informal Evaluation :*

It is the one we always make without involving the rules of evaluation. It is unsystematic and evidences used in making judgements are implicit. Usually this type of evaluation is considered biased and misleading.

2.5.2 *Formal Evaluation :*

Formal evaluation is made strictly on the set rules and regulations. Since it is more systematic, it could serve better in making useful decisions about the programme. Evaluation in DSC should always be formal. Formal evaluation has further two kinds, (A) formative and (B), summative evaluation. Taylor (1976, p.355) provided the following definitions of these two kinds of evaluations.

Formative evaluation attempts to identify and remedy shortcomings during the developmental state of a programme. Summative evaluation assesses the worth of the final version when it is offered as an alternative to other programmes.

In the past, the emphasis has been on summative evaluations that were conducted after the completion of the programme to assess its accomplishments and whether intended objectives were achieved. Nowadays, more and more attention is being paid to formative evaluations that are conducted before programme completion, more particularly, during programme implementation. Such evaluations provide early feedback on programme weaknesses, which can then be used to modify or adjust the remaining stages of a programme.

2.6 MONITORING AND EVALUATION :

Conceptually, monitoring and evaluation correspond in many respects to formative and summative evaluation. However, in DSC the former has been most extensively used in conjunction with a specific monitoring system developed for the Training and Visit System (Bernor and Harrison, 1977). According to Cernea and Tepping (1977, p.11), the system designed "as a management tool to ensure the organization is operating efficiently, to enable management to take corrective action when necessary and to provide policy makers with appropriate information". Cernea and Tepping defined monitoring as follows (1977, p.11):

"It is the gathering of information on utilization of project inputs, on unfolding of project activities, on timely generation of project outputs, and on circumstances that are critical to the effective implementation of the project."

Indicators used for monitoring are the number of contact farmers reached by the village change agent, the number of visits made by the change agent and so on.

With reference to evaluation, Cernea and Tepping distinguish between ongoing evaluation and ex-post evaluation as follows:

On-going evaluation is an action-oriented analysis of project effects and impacts, compared to anticipations', to be carried out during implementation.

Ex-post evaluation would resume this effort several years after completion of the investment, to review comprehensively the experience and impact of a project as a basis for future policy formulation and project design.

Indicators used for evaluations include fields of major crops and changes in cropping intensity and patterns.

2.7 STEPS IN EVALUATION :

The following steps are usually involved in evaluation process.

2.7.1 Evaluation Plan :

A detailed plan of activities to be undertaken in the process of evaluation is prepared before embarking on the journey. The plan identifies what, why things have and how to be done. This will make things clear that: how to conduct the evaluation within the stipulated budget the plan will help getting input of every one in the evaluation team and the existence of plan will also help to focus the evaluation on questions of the target audiences.

2.7.2 Reasons for evaluation :

These reasons have already been mentioned in the foregoing pages. However, the evaluator should determine his priorities which reasons are most important and focus the evaluation accordingly.

2.7.3 Audiences of Evaluation :

The audiences for evaluation, may be the change agents, advisory councils, programme sponsors programme participants and the general public. These groups of audiences are so varied because different audiences have different concerns about the programme.

2.7.4 The Criteria for Evaluating the Programme :

Criteria are the yardsticks used to measure the merit or worth of a programme. For example, a criterion for an extension programme may be the number of women farmers who adopt a particular practice. If an evaluation indicates that the specified number did, and adopt the practice, the programme can be considered a success as far as this criterion is concerned. For example, where programme emphasis is on increasing the output of cash crops, an unintended outcome may be that land formerly used to grow food crops changes to cash cropping land. This has particular effects on women farmers who frequently grow food crops. Unintended outcomes such as these should be a part of the evaluation.

The main source of criteria should be the basic intent and objectives of a programme. If a programme was developed in response to a particular need, a major concern of the evaluation should be whether the programme is meeting the need, or to what extent it meets the need.

2.7.5 The evidence that will be available for Evaluation :

Evidence consists of information related to a particular criterion. While deciding as to the type of evidence to be used, adjustments will almost always have to be made between what is the best or ideal type and what it is possible to obtain.

There are various ways of classifying evidence that can be used in DSC evaluations. Sabrosky (1967,p-26.) distinguished between two major types, such as, evidence in terms of changes in the behaviour of people, and evidence in terms of opportunity. In the former case the major consideration is whether audiences have changed their attitudes or practices as a result of the DSC method or activity. In the latter case, Sabrosky pointed out, "When it is difficult or impossible to measure progress at the level or original status or change in people themselves, it is desirable to measure work in terms of the learning situation we have set up. (No written materials go out, no talks are given, no demonstrations are put on, no visits are made), we cannot expect the people to learn anything as a result of extension work."

What can be considered an expanded version of Sabrosky's classification of types of evidence has been given by Bennett (1977). He proposes seven levels of evidence for programme evaluations that can be arranged in a hierarchy. The levels of evidence, and examples of evidence at each level, are shown in Table 1. At each level what was planned or anticipated can be compared to what was actually achieved. For example, at the "inputs" level, the actual time spent by extension staff on a programme, or aspect of a programme, can be compared with the amount of time such staff had planned to spend in many extension programmes, such sophistication in planning may be rare. However, evidence obtained at each level can still be useful in aiding programme decisions. Bennett (1977, p.8) further proposed the following guidelines to assist in deciding which level of evidence to use.

1. "Evidence of programme impact becomes stronger as the hierarchy is ascended to levels 1 to 3 provide ways of measuring possible opportunities for education to occur. He also pointed out that, "Ascending to the fourth level, reactions, can provide somewhat better confirmation of whether given activities are helpful as intended. But

such evidence indicates less satisfactorily than evidence of KASA (knowledge, Attitudes, Skills, Aspirations) changes the extent of progress towards ultimate programme objective." The ideal assessment of impact would be obtained at the highest level in the hierarchy, in terms of whether the desired end results have been achieved, and the assessment of any significant side effects.

2. "The difficulty and cost of obtaining evidence on programme accomplishments generally increases as the hierarchy is ascended" (Bennett, 1977, p.9). Although evidence at the lower levels does not provide as strong an indication of impact as those at the higher levels, it is relatively more difficult and costly to obtain evidence at the higher levels.
3. "Evaluations are strengthened by assessing extension programmes at several levels of the hierarchy including the inputs level" (Bennett, 1977, p.9).

TABLE I

HIERARCHY OF EVIDENCE FOR PROGRAMME EVALUATION

<u>Criteria Categories</u>	<u>Examples of Types of Evidence</u>
7. End Results	Attainment of ultimate objectives. Changes in the quality of life and standard of living of farmers.
6. Practice Change	Number of farmers adopting improved agricultural practices.
5. KASA Change	Changes in knowledge, attitudes, skills, and aspirations of target audience.
4. Reactions	Number of persons indicating whether extension programme is useful.
3. People Involvement	Percentage of target audience participating in programme (attending meetings, etc.).
2. Activities	Learning situations set up. Subject matter taught.
1. Inputs	Number of visits, meetings, etc.

NOTE: From Analyzing impacts of extension programmes, by C.F Bennett, 1977, Washington D.C : Extension Service, U.S Department of Agriculture.

4. "Evaluation is strengthened to the extent the specific criteria for evaluation are defined prior to conduct of the Extension programme" (Bennett, 1977, p.11). The basic point here is that early clarification of programme objectives will assist in the subsequent conduct of evaluations. Evidence obtained prior to programme execution (e.g. level of knowledge, attitudes and skills of programme participants) will provide a benchmark against which progress (as a result of participating in a programme) can be judged.
5. "The harder the evidence for evaluation, the more an evaluation may be relied upon in programme decision making" (Bennett, 1977, p.12). Examples of hard and soft data are given in Table 2. Here again the decision as to which type of data to use rests on careful consideration of what is ideal and what is possible.

TABLE 2
EXAMPLES OF HARD AND SOFT DATA IN A HIERARCHY OF
EVIDENCE FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION
EXAMPLES

<u>Hard Data</u>		<u>Soft Data</u>
7. End Results	Trends in profit-loss statements, life expectancies, pollution, indexes, and satisfaction with health	Casual perception of changes in quality of health, economy and environment.
6. Practice Change	Direct observation of use of recommended farm practices over a series of years.	Retrospective reports by farmers of their use of recommended farm practices.
5. KASA-1 Change	Changes in scores on validated measures of knowledge, attitudes, skills	Opinions of extent of change in participants' knowledge, attitudes, skills and aspirations.
4. Reactions	Extent to which a random sample of viewers can be distracted from watching a demonstration.	Recording the views of only those who volunteer to express feelings about demonstration.
3. People Involvement	Use of social participation scales based on recorded observations of attendance,	Casual observation of attendance and leadership by participants.

	holding of leadership position, etc.	
2. Activities	Pre-structured observation of activities and social processes, through participant observation, use of video and audio tapes, etc.	Staff recall of how activities were conducted and the extent to which they were completed.
1. Inputs	Special observation of staff time expenditures, as in "time and motion" study.	Staff's subjective report regarding time allocation.

Note: From Analyzing impacts of extension programmes by C F Bennett, 1977. Washington, D.C.: Extension Service, U.S Department of Agriculture. KASA stands for knowledge, Attitudes, Skills and Aspirations.

2.7.6 Designs for Evaluation Studies :

A variety of designs can be used in collecting evidence for evaluation studies. Bennett (1977) provides a list of these in order of their potential ability to provide strong Scientific evidence of the degree to which observed change is produced through extension programmes. A modified list of these designs is as follows:

1. The Field Experiment
2. Matched Set Design
3. "Before-After" Study
4. The Survey
5. The Case Study

The field experiment provides the strongest scientific evidence and the case study the weakest, for the purposes of evaluation. Some evaluation studies may incorporate elements of several of the designs listed above. Generally, the first two designs are hardly used in the regular conduct of evaluations, because they are expensive and difficult to handle. The last three designs listed above will be described briefly below:

"Before-after" study. In this type of study, observations are made before and after participation in an extension programme. The changes in the status of participants can be attributed to the programme after other competitive explanations (for example, unusual weather affecting crop yields, other programmes) have been logically ruled out.

The survey. This design is perhaps the one most often used in conducting extension evaluations. It does not require observations before a programme is implemented, and is generally easier to carry out and is less expensive than the "before-after" design. However, according to Bennett (1977, p.19) it "generally provides rather weak conclusions about the extent to which extension rather than other forces, produces any observed differences between extension clientele and non-clientele."

Surveys can be used to collect data on people's perceptions and opinions about programme activities, and the results of programmes. Surveys can also seek information on the status of participants prior to their participation in a programme.

The survey design usually requires use of questionnaires sent through the mail, or administered through personal interviews. Sampling techniques are generally used to select the target population.

The case study. According to Bennett (1977, p.20), "Case studies observe intensively one or only a few selected individuals, groups, or communities. Observation may involve examination of existing records, interviewing, or participant observation". Although the evidence provided by this design is not as strong as those from other designs, case studies can reveal information about a programme which is not accessible by other means. It is usually most effectively used as a supplement to other evaluation designs.

2.7.7 Conduct the Evaluation :

I. Analyse the Data

Different types of data analysis techniques can be used. It may be presented through the method of question-answer or can be provided in a report form. Good data analysis relies on emphasis on those aspects that are related to the particular issues addressed by the evaluation.

II. Report the Findings

The findings of evaluation should be reported at the completion to the audience being addressed.

III. Application of the Findings

Evaluation would not end until the findings are properly reported and implemented in the on-going project for improvement or in the planning of future project.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is evaluation? Explain the need of evaluation in DSC?
2. Describe the various elements as well as the different types of evaluation .
3. Compare monitoring with evaluation and also throw light on various steps involved in evaluation ?
4. Describe the essentials for formulating an evaluation plan?
5. Explain the reasons which necessitate the evaluation of a DSC programme?
6. What criteria should be adopted in evaluating a programme?
7. What sort of designs are used in evaluation studies, explain?

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Unit Nine

**PROBLEMS OF DEVELOPMENT
SUPPORT COMMUNICATION**

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you, should be able to:

1. Identify various problems of Development Support Communication (DSC).
2. Correlate these problems with other relevant issues.
3. Examine them in your own community, regional and national perspective and
4. Address these problems in real life situation.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 FINANCIAL PROBLEMS :

Change efforts in any form and direction need financial help and support in order to materialize the desired goals of development. Without procurement and proper utilization of financial resources, change plan can hardly be accomplished by any agency.

In most developing countries DSC schemes have often failed due to financial problems. Development programme production, technological imperatives, personnel training and field research require sound and planned financial backing to enable the media and change workers to introduce and then to carry on development campaigns.

Reaching the masses through modern means of communication is a capital intensive venture. On the one hand, developing nations are deprived of their own technological self-sufficiency, and on the other, they are dependent in the use of even their own national resources. Moreover, financial imbalances, corruption, misuse of available funds and sometimes lack of resources turn all the change efforts into a vain exercise. Therefore, in developing countries like ours, where media policies, particularly of the electronic media, are framed and controlled by governments, media should be provided financial support in the public and community interest. Special funds should be provided in the national budget for allocation to media to enable it to complement development programmes more effectively.

2.2. LACK OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING :

Education and training in DSC or DC field is an important pre-requisite for change agents and workers. It is not the farmers or the target public but rather the DSC workers and development agencies which are the price determinants of change efforts. The first step of closing "effects gap" is the basic education and training.

As regards education, simply a curriculum is not sufficient to provide complete understanding to DC or DSC workers. It is also the teaching methods, the course materials, the facilities and the environments in which they have to work which have to be given due importance. Keeping the teaching of development values in view there can be no distinction between education and training. In our case, training if available, is often differentiated from education. In the existing mass communication departments elsewhere in Pakistan we hardly have the basic facilities to provide integrated DSC knowledge to our graduates-the future DSC workers. We do not have any institutions for training agricultural conduct and extension workers in rural areas. What we need is to produce home grown DC and DSC scholars having in depth understanding of their job and total commitment to the poor as well as to the development values. This lack of local expertise is the consequence of absence of proper education and training.

The modern science of communication is a Western concept which has reached us mainly through the graduates who studied in foreign environments. In the choice of problems and methodologies much of communication research remains true to its alien origin. Our research in this field has not yet acquired enough self-confidence and our communicators lack experience. We need to create our research base. Most importantly, education and training of DSC has not yet been introduced as a full-fledged social science. It must now become so in reality and enrich itself with the humanities and with other sciences.

2.3 CONTROL OVER MEDIA :

In developing countries of the Third World, development planning and media functions are either directed or controlled by the respective governments. Control over mass media in different forms makes the interest of political elites essentially conducive to their political gains. They do not work for a positive change in the directions mainly favourable to the masses. They may welcome technological improvements so as to promote their own interests, power and control through media, but they hardly welcome free flow of information and truth. They use media contents and to project their own political ends and to publicise their development schemes. That according to Betran (1973), "makes a large portion of media contents" frivolous, irrelevant and negative for real development."

Under controlled communication system, the media are mostly used for political propaganda purposes, where in most of the messages relate to sales, orders, recommendations and slogans for people to behave the way the elites like them to do. For the purpose of development, participation of people of varying opinions is essential. One-way information process may succeed in building a temporary personality image, but it cannot stimulate participatory spirit for development.

In a controlled media situation, people lack the confidence of being responsible members of their society and the media lose credibility among their consumers.

Control over media in less developed countries, particularly control over radio and television is the most serious problem in many respects. It aggravates the shortage of local talent and curbs active involvement of the people in community programmes. It also roots out the spirit and interest of the professionals working within media organizations by imposing the attitude of pleasing the controlling elites.

2.4 POLITICAL PROBLEMS :

Political, economic, socio-cultural and administrative problems in less developed countries are the major factors which adversely effect the pace of development and change

Political problems include lack of stable political setup, dis-organized institutions, lust for power, imbalances in power distribution among various branches of state, lack of participation in decision-making process and distrust between the public and the policy-makers. On the contrary, successful political environments reflect the complete wholeness of a society in form of harmony, integration, natural respect, justice tolerance, accommodations, coordination and sacrifice. These are the essential ingredients that make the political environments conducive to development.

Communication certainly helps people raise their aspirations and motivations, obtain access to information and knowledge and provides necessary know how for adoption of innovations. Communication, however, neither could cook in isolation nor could provide the power means and facilities for action. This is the political environment which enables and integrates all the sub-system in a society to work for the larger interest of the masses.

Political environments in most developing countries are lacking in sustainability. Political affairs in many instances are controlled by groups of the advantaged and wealthy elites. They control media for their own interests and hence the power elites are the most important sources of change. They regulate and control the national resources of production and income. Lack of well-educated and trained people in politics aggravates the lack of vision which effects the policy-making process. Moreover, confrontal and antagonistic attitude based on personal biases are the sheer political norms of the majority of the third world politicians.

Un-democratic political norms and practices would always lead a society towards disintegration and distrust among various socio-cultural and professional groups. In such a political scenario most of the contents of change messages from the mass media is "escapist, fantasy-inducive or pro-status quo rather than change - facilitating."

2.5. ECONOMIC PROBLEMS :

Economic problems of developing countries are multifarious in nature and form. These problems are closely related with political environments and have adverse effects on the role and functions of national and local media. Among them, the greatest one to development was the unequal distribution of resources, e.g., income, information, land and skills, which perpetuates the inequality of distribution of socio-economic benefits. Unequal distribution of wealth and information has been one of the main obstacles to widely participatory process of social change and development. Economic inequality has created gaps among different socio-economic groups within the given societies.

Another un-conducive economic environment that impedes the pace of development is the lack of self-reliance in many areas. Developing countries like ours are heavily dependent on others for economic help and assistance. Finding

agencies and nations help the needy in their own economic and business interests and they also promote their cultural influence. Unequal distribution of economic resources, lack of planning and confidence, foreign economic pressures and misuse of the national resources do not allow the developing nations to liberate themselves from the trap of economic dependence.

Economic environment of a developing society, of its own, commonly help in promoting the DSC efforts. Economically, our men and media have to relocate their own resources.

2.6 SOCIO-CULTURAL PROBLEMS :

Socio-cultural condition of a society reflect the complex-whole under which individuals maintain inter-relationship for physical mental and material development. Developing nations, by and large, are very diverse in terms of their socio-cultural settings. Diversities in languages, customs, traditions and religions are the unique characteristics of many developing societies. It is an uphill task to create uniformity from diversity. The media of communication have to face the challenge of bringing varying socio-cultural groups and communities together for the common goal of development. Development and change in any form need socio-cultural understanding and integration.

Mass media of communication have a great potential to motivate and educate different socio-cultural groups of a society towards common interest of better life conditions. But on the contrary, urban oriented elitist media under the control of politically motivated groups represent elite minority culture. This in turn, has widened the gap between the urban and the rural cultures.

Socio-cultural problems, thus, have two growing problems : The socio-cultural diversities existed within developing societies ; and control of an elitist culture over media contents. Consequently, media efforts for development usually remain inconsistent to the socio-cultural priorities of a society.

2.7. ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS :

Administrative environments depend on the system under which national and local institutions, including the mass media would perform their functions. Historically, most countries of the Third World are newly independent and still practice the imperial administrative traditions. Under pre-independence administrative structure, the machinery in official hierarchy aimed at pleasing the rulers rather than serving the people. We in developing societies, even after political independence, have not yet established the administrative norms free from pre-independence traditions.

Government agencies, which are supposed to facilitate the development programmes, are usually lethargic, non-cooperative and disinterested in institutional and national development. Mass media cannot exert their influence in any

developmental campaign with the collaboration of the administration structure. In case of developing nations, administrative lag is a common practice, where files cannot move forward without pressure or monetary temptation.

Moreover, delaying tactics and bureaucratic stiff-neck culture within and outside the media organizations would hinder timely execution of development plans.

Study in DSC requires an integrated approach to all related issues. Financial conditions, education and training, technological progress, socio-cultural imperatives, economic conditions, political actions, and administrative behaviour are integral to one another and cannot be separated, because they are the different aspects of a total system. The media in any society are also the part of the system they work in.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

Q. 1 : How would you describe financial problems faced by the media of a developing country?

POINTS TO NOTE :

- (i) Financial resources - who control and distribute them.
- (ii) Major types of financial resources and their relationship with media.
- (iii) Government agencies and fund allocation.
- (iv) Media technology needs capital.
- (v) How to procure capital - how to use it.
- (vi) Misuse of funds - imbalances etc.
- (vii) Lack of self-reliance in terms of money and informatics.

Q. 2 : What do you understand by the lack of education and training in the field of DSC?

POINTS TO NOTE :

- (i) Limited number of DSC educational institution.
- (ii) Lack of material relevant to local requirements.
- (iii) Educational facilities are meagre.
- (iv) Influence of foreign thoughts and values.
- (v) Dearth of local scholarship.
- (vi) Overwhelming emphasise on borrowed theories.
- (vii) Research traditions are alien.
- (viii) Disintegration between DSC, education and training.
- (ix) Lack of rural experiences.

Q. 3 : "Control over media curbs the participatory spirit of DSC campaigns." Do you agree? Please explain.

POINTS TO NOTE :

- (i). Explain the nature of media control. Take example from your national radio and television and Pakistani newspapers.
- (ii) Control obstruct the interest.
- (iii) Increases distrust among the people - media credibility would tarnish.
- (iv) One-way information creates gulf between various groups of a society.
- (v) Control over media increases influences of an elite group.
- (vi) Communicators become more inclined towards the interest of controlling elites and neglect the interest of the masses?

Q. 4: Write a comprehensive note on political, economic, socio-cultural and administrative problems that affect the media development efforts?

POINTS TO NOTE :

- (i) Political, economic, socio-cultural and administrative problems are integral parts of a total system.
- (ii) Political problems include : control over the affairs by an advantaged group.
- (iii) Lack of democratic norms and experiences.
- (iv) Lack of sustainability - injustices.
- (v) Media are used as propaganda tools for political interests.

ECONOMIC :

- (i) Unequal distribution of resources.
- (ii) Mismanagement and misuse of resources.
- (iii) Dependence and lack of self-reliance. (See the details).

For socio-cultural problems.

See relevant summaries and read suggested materials thoroughly.

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