

# DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

**M.A., (Journalism and Mass Communication)**

**Semester – IV, Paper-I**

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# **M.A (JMC) : Development Communication**

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## **FOREWORD**

*Since its establishment in 1976, Acharya Nagarjuna University has been forging ahead in the path of progress and dynamism, offering a variety of courses and research contributions. I am extremely happy that by gaining 'A' grade from the NAAC in the year 2016, Acharya Nagarjuna University is offering educational opportunities at the UG, PG levels apart from research degrees to students from over 443 affiliated colleges spread over the two districts of Guntur and Prakasam.*

*The University has also started the Centre for Distance Education in 2003-04 with the aim of taking higher education to the door step of all the sectors of the society. The centre will be a great help to those who cannot join in colleges, those who cannot afford the exorbitant fees as regular students, and even to housewives desirous of pursuing higher studies. Acharya Nagarjuna University has started offering B.A., and B.Com courses at the Degree level and M.A., M.Com., M.Sc., M.B.A., and L.L.M., courses at the PG level from the academic year 2003-2004 onwards.*

*To facilitate easier understanding by students studying through the distance mode, these self-instruction materials have been prepared by eminent and experienced teachers. The lessons have been drafted with great care and expertise in the stipulated time by these teachers. Constructive ideas and scholarly suggestions are welcome from students and teachers involved respectively. Such ideas will be incorporated for the greater efficacy of this distance mode of education. For clarification of doubts and feedback, weekly classes and contact classes will be arranged at the UG and PG levels respectively.*

*It is my aim that students getting higher education through the Centre for Distance Education should improve their qualification, have better employment opportunities and in turn be part of country's progress. It is my fond desire that in the years to come, the Centre for Distance Education will go from strength to strength in the form of new courses and by catering to larger number of people. My congratulations to all the Directors, Academic Coordinators, Editors and Lesson- writers of the Centre who have helped in these endeavors.*

*Prof. Raja Sekhar Patteti  
Vice-Chancellor  
Acharya Nagarjuna University*

M.A., (JMC) -SEMESTER -IV - PAPER - I

401JM21 -DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

**Unit 1** Development – Meaning- Concept- Nature- process – models of development – Approaches of Development – Problems and issues of Development – Characteristics of developing societies- Gap between developed and developing societies – impact of globalization on local development

**Unit 2** Development Journalism – Origin – growth – concepts – development news – Development reporting – Problems – Indian Press

**Unit 3** Development Communication – Definition- diffusion of innovations- Case studies of SITE and Jabua development communication project – Development support communication – Communication and Human development – Literacy- population control- sanitation-Gram panchayat – AIDS.

**Unit 4** Participatory development – Community development – Participatory communication research – case studies – development and communication campaign on population control- literacy, health management-, environmental issues, women, and girl child, problems- Folk media as a tool for development

**Unit 5** Development in the Third World – international agencies on development aid- FAO- ILO-UNDP-UNESCO- UNFPA- UNICEF and WHO- role of radio, TV, internet, ICTs. (Information and Communication Technologies) and Print media.

**Suggested reading :**

1. Development Communication: Uma Narula
2. Mass Communication and National Development : Wilbur Schram
3. Development and Modernization :S.C.Dube
4. The passing of Traditional Society : Daniel Lerner
5. Participatory Communication for Social Change :HeanSerraes
6. Manual of Development Journalism : Alan Chakle

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## Lesson-1

# INTRODUCTION TO DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

## 1.0 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Meaning of Development
- Communication

## STRUCTURE

### 1.1 Introduction

### 1.2 Development

### 1.3 Relevance of Development Communication In India

### 1.4 Summary

### 1.5 Self Assessment Questions

### 1.6 Reference Books

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication is the key to human development and the thread that binds people together". This confirms Moemeka's (1991) view that development efforts cannot be successful without planned communication because its flow determines the direction and pace of dynamic social development. It is the agglutination of communication and development that birthed the word development communication. It is to emphasize the kind of communication that is done for development purposes. It is also known as communication for development. Some scholars call it communication in development, while others refer to it as "development support communication", that is, communication in support of development. There exist various kinds of definition for communication, as there are different disciplines. While some definitions are human centred, others are not. Communication is from a Latin word -*COMMUNIS*, which means *common* or shared understanding. Communication is the process of exchanging or sharing information, ideas and feeling between the sender and the receiver. It involves not only the spoken and written word by also body language.

## 1.2 DEVELOPMENT

Rogers (1976) sees development as a widely participatory process of social change in a society, intended to bring about social and material advancement (including greater equality, freedom, and other valued qualities) for the majority of the people through their gaining control over their environment. Rogers stressed the endogenous dimension of development. It must be through people's participation, exploiting their own environment to improve their situation rather

than expecting development to "fall from heaven" as it were. Todar and Smith (2003) stress that development involves both the quality and quantity of life. Quality of life refers to opportunities and availability of social, health and educational concerns. Quantity of life involves the amount of economic and political participation of the people. This definition shifts the attention and aim of development away from an economic to a more humanizing conceptualized one.

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

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

Development and communication are two terms heavily loaded with different conceptions and a richness of uses and functions shaped by their various theoretical underpinnings. Such richness often leads to ambiguities and a lack of clarity that affects the field of development communication. The wide range of interpretations of key terminology and the rapid evolution of some concepts have led to inconsistencies in the way basic terms are understood and used. What we have here, in fact, is more of an approach than a discipline. As far as its definitions are concerned, they usually consist of general statements. Thus, the communication media, in the context of development, are generally used to support development initiatives by the dissemination of messages that encourage the public to support development-oriented projects. Although development strategies in developing countries diverge widely, the usual pattern for broadcasting and the press has been predominantly the same: informing the population about projects, illustrating the advantages of these projects, and recommending that they be supported. A typical example of such a strategy is situated in the area of family planning, where communication means such as posters, pamphlets, radio, and television attempt to persuade the public to accept birth control methods. Similar strategies are used in campaigns regarding health and nutrition, agricultural projects, education, and so on. The concept of development communication arose within the framework of the contribution that communication and the media made to development in the countries of the Third World. Development communications are organized efforts to use communications processes and media to bring social and economic improvements, generally in developing countries. The field emerged in the late 1950's amid high hopes that radio and television could be put to use in the world's most disadvantaged countries to bring about dramatic progress. Early communications theorists like Wilbur Schramm and Daniel Lerner based their high expectations upon the apparent success of World War II propaganda, to which academia and Hollywood had contributed. Also with World War II came dozens of new, very poor, countries, left by their former colonial overseers with little infrastructure, education, or political stability. It was widely accepted that mass media could bring education, essential skills, social unity, and a desire to "modernize." Walt Rostow theorized that societies progress through specific stages of development on their way to modernity, what he termed "the age of high mass consumption." Lerner suggested that exposure to Western media would create "empathy" for modern culture, and a desire to move from traditional to modern ways. Early development communications, especially that sponsored by the U.S. government, was also seen as a means of "winning hearts and minds" over to a capitalist way of life. These early approaches made a number of erroneous assumptions, and have been largely forsaken in contemporary approaches to

development. Obstacles to development were naively seen as rooted in developing countries, not as products of international relationships. Modernization was presumed to equate to Westernization, and to be a necessary prerequisite to meeting human needs. Development was seen as a top-down process, whereby centralized mass media could bring about widespread change. Producers of development media often failed to ask if the audience can receive the message (television penetration in developing countries is minimal and radio penetration in the early days of development communication was light), understand the message (a problem in countries with dozens of languages and dialects), act upon the message (with the necessary tools or other forms of structural support), and want to act upon the message. And because it was based upon a propaganda model, development communications efforts were often seen as propaganda and distrusted. Projects embodying these philosophies have enjoyed little success. In the 1970s and 1980s, a new paradigm of development communication emerged which better recognized the process of deliberate underdevelopment as a function of colonialism, the great diversity of the cultures involved, the differences between elite versus popular goals for social change, the considerable political and ideological constraints to change, and the endless varieties of ways different cultures communicate. But in some instances mass media technologies, including television, have been "magic multipliers" of development benefits. Educational television has been used effectively to supplement the work of teachers in classrooms in the teaching of literacy and other skills, but only in well designed programs which are integrated with other educational efforts. Consumer video equipment and VCRs have been used to supplement communications efforts in some small projects. Some developing countries have demonstrated success in using satellite television to provide useful information to portions of their populations out of reach of terrestrial broadcasting. In 1975 and 1976, an experimental satellite communications project called SITE (Satellite Instructional Television Experiment) was used to bring informational television programs to rural India. Some changes in beliefs and behaviors did occur, but there is little indication that satellite television was the best means to that end. The project did lead to Indian development of its own satellite network. China has also embarked on a ambitious program of satellite use for development, claiming substantial success in rural education. When television has succeeded as an educational tool in developing countries, it is only when very specific viewing conditions are met. For example, programs are best viewed in small groups with a teacher to introduce them and to lead a discussion afterwards.

Several types of organizations work with local governments to develop communication projects. The United Nations provides multi-lateral aid to governments. Non-profit, non-governmental organizations (NGO) conduct development projects worldwide using U.N., government, or private funding. And government agencies, such as the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) provide assistance to developing countries, but with political strings attached. There are three common types of development campaigns: Persuasion, changing what people do; Education, changing social values; and informing, empowering people to change by increasing knowledge. This third approach is now perceived as the most useful. Instead of attempting to modernize people, contemporary efforts attempt to reduce inequality by targeting the poorest segments of society, involving people in their own development, giving them independence from central authority, and employing "small" and "appropriate" technologies. The emphasis has shifted from economic growth to meeting basic needs. In this new view of development, communication becomes an important catalyst for change, but not its cause. Local folk media, for example, is employed to reduce media's bias toward literacy and provide information in a traditional, familiar form. Development journalism provides people with information on change in their society, and works at the local level to advocate change. Where mass media is now employed in developing societies, community newspapers and radio prove far more accessible and useful than television. The rapid spread of



entertainment television in the developing world is proving to be more a disruption to traditional social structures than an agent of progress. One emerging genre of television does show promise for contributing to development. The telenovela, pioneered in Brazil, has demonstrated some success in disseminating "pro-social" messages. Such programs are now being evaluated in many countries for their effectiveness in contributing to population control, health education, and other development goals. Development Communication in India Tracing its history we have to go back to communities who listened to rural radio broadcasts in the 1940s, the Indian school of development communication. One distinguishing element of those early programs was that they focused on the use of indigenous languages –Marathi, Gujarati and Kannada. India's earliest organized experiments in development communication were held in the 1960s, sponsored by India's universities and other educational institutions, and by the Bretton Woods-school institutions. Educational institutions that played an important part in this effort include the University of Poona, the Centre for the Study of Developing Societies, Delhi University, the Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society and the University of Kerala.

India is a developing country with lot of achievements in all the fields of modern day life including that of science & technology, agriculture and industry. Now development communication is such a tool of development that it is highly necessary for a developing nation like us. It has therefore been increasingly recognized that people's active participation is an essential component of sustainable development. Any intervention with the intent of achieving a real and sustainable improvement in the living conditions of people is doomed to failure unless the intended beneficiaries are actively involved in the process. Unless people participate in all phases of an intervention, from problem identification to research and implementation of solutions, the likelihood that sustainable change will occur is slim. Development communication is at the very heart of this challenge: it is the process by which people become leading actors in their own development. Communication enables people to go from being recipients of external development interventions to generators of their own development. The 20th century has witnessed the immense impact of communication technologies, from the spread of sound recording, motion pictures and radio as world-wide phenomena to the emergence of television as a dominant influence in nearly every institution, to the explosion of the Internet at the turn of the new century. The digital revolution is far from over, as new inventions repeatedly challenge assumptions that were themselves formed only yesterday. This is an exciting and critically important moment for communication scholars to contribute to understanding, and shaping the parameters of our changing technological and academic environment. Because it is communication with a social conscience, development communication is heavily oriented towards man, that is, towards the human aspects of development. Even though it is primarily associated with rural development, it is also concerned with urban, particularly suburban problems. It plays two broad roles. The first is a transformational role through which it seeks social change in the direction of higher quality of life and social justice. The second is a socialization role through which it strives to maintain some of the established values of society that are consonant with development. In playing these roles, development communication creates an enhancing atmosphere for the exchange of ideas that produce a happy balance in social and economic advancement between physical output and human relationships. Key Issues about Development Communication Many myths and misconceptions are nurtured about communication, especially when related to the field of development. These misconceptions can often be the cause of misunderstandings and lead to inconsistent and ineffective use of communication concepts and practices. The first two points on this list are about communication in general, while the others refer to development communication in particular.

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

refers to the process of communication, emphasizing its dialogical and analytical Functions rather than its informative nature and media products. This distinction is significant at the theoretical, methodological, and operational levels. 2. *There is a sharp difference between everyday communication and professional communication.* Such a statement might seem obvious, but the two are frequently equated, either overtly or more subtly, as in, —He or she communicates well; hence, he or she is a good communicator. A person who communicates well is not necessarily a person who can make effective and professional use of communication. Each human being is a born communicator, but not everyone can communicate strategically, using the knowledge of principles and experience in practical applications. A professional (development) communication specialist understands relevant theories and practices and is capable of designing effective strategies that draw from the full range of communication approaches and methods to achieve intended objectives. 3. *There is a significant difference between development communication and other types of communication.* Both theoretically and practically, there are many different types of applications in the communication family. In this article I refer to four main types of communication: advocacy communication, corporate communication, internal communication, and development communication. Each has a different scope and requires specific knowledge and skills to be performed effectively. Expertise in one area of communication is not sufficient to ensure results if applied in another area. 4. *The main scope and functions of development communication are not exclusively about communicating information and messages, but they also involve engaging stakeholders and assessing the situation.* Communication is not only about selling ideas. Such a conception could have been appropriate in the past, when communication was identified with mass media and the linear Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver model, whose purpose was to inform audiences and persuade them to change. Not surprisingly, the first systematic research on the effects of communication was carried out soon after World War II, when communication activities were mostly associated with a controversial concept— propaganda. Currently, the scope of development communication has broadened to include an analytical aspect as well as a dialogical one intended to open public spaces where perceptions, opinions, and knowledge of relevant stakeholders can be aired and assessed.

5. *Development communication initiatives can never be successful unless proper communication research is conducted before deciding on the strategy.* A communication professional should not design a communication campaign or strategy without having all the relevant data to inform his or her decision. If further research is needed to obtain relevant data, to identify gaps, or to validate the project assumptions, the communication specialist must not hesitate to make such a request to the project management. Even when a communication specialist is called in the middle of a project whose objectives appear straightforward and clearly defined, specific communication research should be carried out if there are gaps in the available data. Assumptions based on the experts' knowledge should always be triangulated with other sources to ensure their overall validity. Given its interdisciplinary and cross-cutting nature, communication research should ideally be carried out at the inception of any development initiative, regardless of the sector or if a communication component would be needed at a later stage. 6. *To be effective in their work, development communication specialists need to have a specific and in-depth knowledge of the theory and practical applications of the discipline.* In addition to being familiar with the relevant literature about the various communication theories, models, and applications, development communication specialists should also be educated in the basic principles and practices of other interrelated disciplines, such as anthropology, marketing, sociology, ethnography, psychology, adult education, and social research. In the current development framework, it is particularly important that a specialist be acquainted with participatory research methods and techniques, monitoring and evaluation tools, and basics principles of strategy design. Additionally, a good professional should also have the right

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

8. *Development communication is not exclusively about behavior change.* The areas of intervention and the applications of development communication extend beyond the traditional notion of behavior change to include, among other things, probing socioeconomic and political factors, identifying priorities, assessing risks and opportunities, empowering people, strengthening institutions, and promoting social change within complex cultural and political environments. That development communication is often associated with behavior change could be ascribed to a number of factors, such as its application in health programs or its use in mass media to persuade audiences to adopt certain practices. These kinds of interventions are among the most visible, relying heavily on communication campaigns to change people's behaviors and to eliminate or reduce often fatal risks (for example, AIDS). The reality of development, though, is complex and often requires broader changes than specific individual behaviors. 9. *Media and information technologies are not the backbone of development communication.* As a matter of fact, the value-added of development communication occurs before media and information and communication technologies (ICTs) are even considered. Of course, media and information technologies are part of development communication, and they are important and useful means to support development. Their application, however, comes at a later stage, and their impact is greatly affected by the communication work done in the research phase. Project managers should be wary of —one-size-fits-all□ solutions that appear to solve all problems by using media products. Past experience indicates that unless such instruments are used in connection with other approaches and based on proper research, they seldom deliver the intended results. 10. *Participatory approaches and participatory communication approaches are not the same thing and should not be used interchangeably, but they can be used together, as their functions are often complementary, especially during the research phase.* Even if there are some similarities between the two types of approaches, most renowned participatory approaches, such as participatory rural appraisal (PRA) or participatory action research (PAR), do not usually assess the range and level of people's perceptions and attitudes on key issues, identify communication entry points, and map out the information and communication systems that can be used later to design and implement the communication strategy. Instead, these are all key activities carried out in a participatory communication assessment.

### **1.3 RELEVANCE OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION IN INDIA**

Development communication is an essential feature for the Indian situation as we are still a developing nation with a large population next only to that of China. It is important to note that

we do possess an enormously large amount of resources of all kinds including human and natural ones. But we are yet to achieve the kind of universal development of masses which should have been the optimum given the country's situation.

Immediately after Independence in 1947, we faced the challenge of bringing about an equitable and regionally-balanced distribution of wealth and development of the distant places of the country with limited resources. But, while the efforts of the government authorities are growing high, the population is also growing at an explosive rate over the years, thus causing a negative impact.

## 1.4 SUMMARY

Communication is the key to human development and the thread that binds people together". This corroborates Moemeka's (1991) view that development efforts cannot be successful without planned communication because its flow determines the direction and pace of dynamic social development. It is the agglutination of communication and development that birthed the word development communication.

It is to emphasize the kind of communication that is done for development purposes. It is also known as communication for development. Some scholars call it communication in development, while others refer to it as "development support communication", that is, communication in support of development.

## 1.5 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is the role of communication in the national development?
2. What are the objectives of the development?

## 1.6 REFERENCE BOOKS:

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
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11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power.



## Lesson-2

# ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION

## 2.0 Objectives

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Development Communication
- Elements of Communication

### STRUCTURE

#### 2.1 Development Communication

#### 2.2 Elements of Communication

##### 2.2.1 Stimulus

##### 2.2.2 Source

##### 2.2.3 Message

##### 2.2.4 Medium/ Channel

##### 2.2.5 Receiver

##### 2.2.6 Feedback

##### 2.2.7 Noise

#### 2.3 Summary

#### 2.4 Self Assessment Questions

#### 2.5 Reference Books

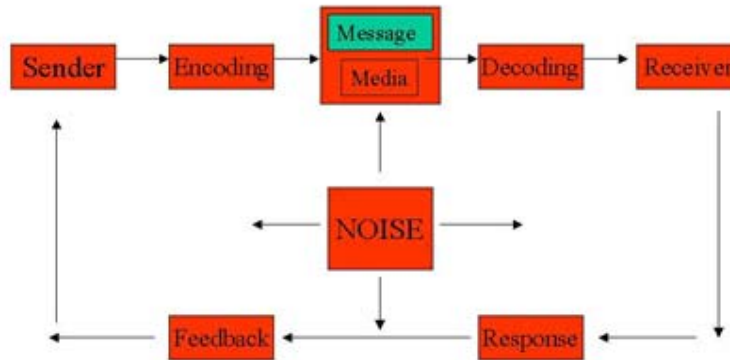
## 2.1 DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

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

Quebral defines development communication as the art and science of human communication applied to the speedy transformation of a country and the mass of its people from a state of poverty to a more dynamic state of economic growth which make possible greater social equality and the larger fulfillment of the human potentials. It is observed that development communication is a purposeful communication effort geared towards realisation of

human potentials and transformation from a bad situation to a good one. Moemeka (1991) defines development communication as the application of the process of communication to the development process.

## 2.2 ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION



**Image-1: Elements of Communication**

Communication as a system means that it works through interrelated set of elements. Seven elements that are involved in communication process are:

**2.2.1. Stimulus:** This is the impulse that triggers off the communication exchange. It

takes place at the ideation stage of communication. We can also call it the reason one has for communicating, which may be to inform, educate, entertain etc.

**2.2.2 Source:** This is the person who begins the communication process. He is the one triggered by the stimulus and from him begins the communication activity.

He could be referred to as the initiator, encoder or sender. He is the initiator because he begins the communication process. As the encoder, he packages the message in a way that it can be communicated and as the sender when he passes across the message by himself.

**2.2.3. Message:** This could be the idea, feelings, information, thought, opinion, knowledge or experience etc. that the source/sender wants to share.

**2.2.4. Medium/Channel:** Medium and channel are generally used interchangeably. But here, a distinction is made between the two. Medium could be regarded as the form adopted by the sender of the message to get it to the receiver. It could be oral or written form. The channel then is the pathway, route or conduit through which the message travels between the source and the receiver e.g. the channel of radio, television, newspaper, telephone etc. Channel provides a link that enables the source and the receiver to communicate. It may also be seen in term of the five physical senses- sight, sound, touch, taste and smell-through which messages can be sent, received, understood, interpreted and acted upon.

**2.2.5. Receiver:** This is the person to whom the message is sent. He is the target audience or the recipient of the message. All the source/sender effort to communicate is to inform or affect the attitude of the receiver. That is why communication must be receiver-centred.

**2.2.6. Feedback:** This is the response or reaction of the receiver to the message sent. Communication is incomplete without feedback. It confirms that the message is well received and understood. Feedback guides the source in communication process and helps him to know when to alter or modify his message if not properly received. A feedback is positive when it shows that the message has been well received and understood and it could be negative when it shows that the intended effect has not been achieved.

**2.2.7. Noise:** Noise is interference that keeps a message from being understood or accurately interpreted. It is a potent barrier to effective communication. Noise may be in different form:

I. **Physical Noise:** This comes from the environment and keeps the message from being heard or understood. It may be from loud conversations, side-talks at meetings, vehicular sounds, sounds from workmen's tools etc.

II. **Psychological Noise:** This comes from within as a result of poor mental attitude, depression, emotional stress or disability.

III. **Physiological Noise:** Results from interference from the body in form of body discomforts, feeling of hunger, tiredness etc.

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

## 2.3 SUMMARY

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

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



## 2.4 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Define the process of development communication?
2. What are the elements of communication?

## 2.5 REFERENCE BOOKS:

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power.

**Lesson -3****THE PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION****3.0 Objectives**

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The process of communication
- Contexts of communication

**STRUCTURE****3.1 The Process of Communication****3.1.1 Stimulation****3.1.2 Encoding****3.1.3 Transmission****3.1.4 Reception****3.1.5 Decoding****3.1.6 Response****3.2 Contexts of Communication****3.2.1 Intra-personal Communication****3.2.2 Interpersonal Communication****3.2.3 Group Communication****3.2.4 Public Communication****3.2.5 Mass Communication****3.3 Summary****3.4 Self Assessment Questions****3.5 Reference Books****3.1 THE PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION**

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

**3.1.1 Stimulation:** This is the point at which the source sees the need to communicate. He receives stimulus that triggers him to communicate.

**3.1.2 Encoding:** The source processes the message he want to communicate into a form that will be understandable to the receivers. This may be a feeling, opinion, experiment etc.

**3.1.3 Transmission:** The message is passed across to the receiver through a chosen medium or channel.

**3.1.4 Reception:** The receiver gets the message that is sent from the source.

**3.1.5 Decoding:** The message is processed, understood and interpreted by the receiver.

**3.1.6 Response:** This the reaction of the receiver to the message received, in form of feedback.

## 3.2 CONTEXTS OF COMMUNICATION

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

**3.2.1. Intra-personal Communication:** This is essentially a neuro-physiological activity which involves some mental interviews for the purposes of information processing and decision making. The basic operations of intrapersonal communication are to convert raw data from environment to information; to interpreter and give meaning to that information and to use such meaning. In other words, it is communication that occurs within you. Because interpersonal communication is cantered in the self, you are the only sender-receiver. The message is made up of your thoughts and feelings and the channel is your brain, which processes what you are thinking and feeling. There is also feedback because you talk to yourself, you discard certain ideals and replace them with others.



Image-2- Intra-personal Communication

**3.2.2. Interpersonal Communication:** Is occurs when you communicate on a one-to one basis usually in an informal, unstructured setting. It occurs mostly between two people, though it may include more than two. Each participant functions as a sender-receiver; their messages consist of both verbal and non-verbal symbols and the channels used mostly are sight and sound. It also offers the greatest opportunity for feedback.



**Image-3**

**3.2.3. Group Communication** This form of communication occurs among a small number of people for the purpose of solving problem. The group must be small enough so that each member has a chance to interact with all the other members. The communication process in group communication is more complex than in interpersonal communication because the group members are made up of several sender-receivers. As a result, there are more chances for confusion. Messages are also more structure in small groups because the group is meeting for a specific purpose. It uses the same channels as are used in interpersonal communication, and there is also a good deal of opportunity for feedback. It also occurs in a more formal setting than in interpersonal communication.



**Image.4**

**3.2.4. Public Communication:** Here the (sender receiver) speaker sends a message (the speech) to an audience. The speaker usually delivers a highly structured message, using the some channels as in interpersonal or small-group communication. The channels here are more exaggerated than in interpersonal communication. The voice is louder and the gestures are more expansive because the audience is bigger. Additional visual channels, such as slides or the computer programme Power Point might be used. Opportunity for verbal feedback is limited in most public communication. The setting is also formal.



Image.5

**3.2.5. Mass Communication:** Mass Communication is a means of disseminating information or message to large, anonymous, and scattered heterogeneous masses of receivers which may be far removed from the message sources through the use of sophisticated equipment. It is the sending of message through a mass medium to a large number of people.



Image.6

### 3.3 SUMMARY

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

♦**Stimulation:** This is the point at which the source sees the need to communicate. He receives stimulus that triggers him to communicate.

♦**Encoding:** The source processes the message he want to communicate into a form that will be understandable to the receivers. This may be a feeling, opinion, experiment etc.

♦**Transmission:** The message is passed across to the receiver through a chosen medium or channel.

♦**Reception:** The receiver gets the message that is sent from the source.

♦**Decoding:** The message is processed, understood and interpreted by the receiver

♦**Response:** This the reaction of the receiver to the message received, in form of feedback

### 3.4 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the types of communication?
2. Discuss about the process of communication.

### 3.5 REFERENCE BOOKS:

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power.



**Lesson- 4****DEVELOPMENT JOURNALISM: AN OVERVIEW****4.0 Objectives**

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Development Journalism

**STRUCTURE****4.1 Introduction****4.2 Meaning of Development Journalism****4.3 Summary****4.4 Self Assessment Questions****4.5 Reference Books****4.1 INTRODUCTION**

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

**4.2 MEANING OF DEVELOPMENT JOURNALISM**

Development journalism involves reporting on ideas, programmes, activities and events, which are related to an improvement of the living standard of people. Basically, it is assumed that journalism is able to influence the development process by reporting on development programmes and activities. Accordingly, it is the journalists' duty to 'critically examine and evaluate the relevance of a development project to national and local needs, the difference between a planned scheme and its actual implementation, and the difference between its impact on people as claimed by government officials and as it actually is. This means that news



should not only be defined in terms of conflict, timeliness and unusualness, but rather in terms of commitment and participation.

Development journalism has the following tasks:

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

The credibility of journalism is crucial for the success of this project. Journalism thus needs to be 'decentrally and participatively structured to counteract the metropolis trend in the various social processes'.

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

The foregoing notion of development journalism actually resonates with other forms of journalism invoked in academic literature. For example, one can readily detect the notion of a subjective journalistic engagement in the emergence of the so-called 'public' or 'civic' journalism movement in the early 1990s. This was in response to the widening gaps between government and citizens, and between news organisations and their audiences. Declines in voter participation in political elections, and in civic 20 participation in local community affairs, were cited as evidence of widespread withdrawal by citizens from democratic processes. Those scholars and journalists who were critical of news organisations' horse-race approach to political campaigns saw this trend as proving widespread public disaffection with mass-mediated political discourse. In response, many news organisations began to experiment with ways to enhance civic commitment and participation in democratic processes and to think of their audiences not as 'consumers' but as 'citizens'.

### **4.3 SUMMARY**

Development journalism is thus a consequence of the disillusionment created by dependency syndrome arising from Western dominance of the international flow of information. It is an offshoot of the New International Information and Communication Order (NIICO). This reaction was spearheaded by developing countries which felt that their interests were not being served by Western news agencies. Such a departure was needed to break the vicious circle of dependency through ownership of the mass media. In additions, developing countries' governments found a ready tool in a tightly control electronic and, to a less extent the print media to legitimate and perpetuate their hold on their people.

#### **4.4 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTION**

1. Define the meaning of development journalism?

#### **4.5 Reference Books**

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
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14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power.

**Lesson-5****CHARACTERISTICS OF DEVELOPMENT JOURNALISM****5.0 OBJECTIVES**

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Characteristics
- Types of Development Journalism

**STRUCTURE****5.1 Characteristics of Development Journalism****5.1.1 Purposefulness****5.1.2 Pragmatism****5.1.3 Relevance****5.1.4 Mass-oriented****5.1.5 Scientific outlook****5.1.6 Technical subject matter oriented****5.1.7 Participatory and****5.1.8 Process- oriented****5.2 Types of Development Journalism****5.2.1 Investigative development journalism or Liberal development Journalism****5.2.2 Benevolent-Authoritarian development journalism or Conservative development journalism****5.3 Development journalism and Indian press****5.4 Summary****5.5 Self Assessment Questions****5.6 Reference Books****5.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF DEVELOPMENT JOURNALISM**

**5.1.1 Purposefulness:** Development Journalism is purposive and goal oriented. It is a kind of journalism that is aimed at enhancing and fostering development in a country or society. The writer consciously works towards an objective improvement in the socio-economic conditions of the people. The development journalist bears in mind that his writing must

contribute to development. The development journalist does not merely report and interpret the facts. He also promotes them to help bring about positive social change.

**5.1.2 Pragmatism:** Development Journalism is pragmatic, that is, it is result oriented. It seeks to achieve tangible development goals. It also implies that the media perform a role beyond that of conventional journalism. The Development Journalist takes up issues and relates them to happenings in the society that will enhance development. The writer's aim is to elicit actions from the target audience, government and other stakeholders.

**5.1.3 Relevance:** Development Journalism focuses on things that affect the people and can help improve their conditions. Instead of sensationalized reporting, development journalism focuses on stories that enhance people's lives, particularly the poor. It reports on topics and issues as agriculture and industrial growth, education, health and welfare services, community development, social welfare, public health and other ingredients of national life as they affect the life of the people.

**5.1.4 Mass-Oriented:** Development Journalism is basically targeted to the mass of people. It is concerned with the rural poor who are more in number than the urban dwellers. It seeks to serve them and their needs. It aims at addressing common problems in society that affect majority of the citizens.

**5.1.5 Process-Oriented:** Development Journalism endorses process reporting. It reports an event together with actions, thoughts and activities that have led to the build up. Process reporting points out events, the causes, the consequences and the possible solutions to the problems. This is unlike conventional news writing that is event-oriented. For example, if there is an epidemic outbreak, the development journalist discovers and describes a process. His writing answers what led to the epidemic? What does it mean to the people and the communities affected? What can be done now to remedy the situation by the people, government? How can future occurrences be averted?

**5.1.6 Scientific in Outlook:** Development Journalism is not based on hunches but on researches and facts. It makes use of social science tools such as survey, sampling to gather accurate and reliable data to guide development programmes.

**5.1.7 Technical subject Matter Oriented:** Development Journalism deals largely with information, knowledge and products generated by research and development. It seeks to communicate them to the common man in the simplest possible way.

**5.1.8 Participatory:** Development Journalism is participatory. The development journalist involves the people whom he is writing for. He interacts, discusses and plans with them to be able to affectionately report their situations and suggest solutions. At times, community members may be involved in sourcing news and information. This gives them a sense of belonging.

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

- ◆ Providing access to a wide variety of the people;
- ◆ Determining the people's needs for development information and programming for

these needs;

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

## **5.2 TYPES OF DEVELOPMENT JOURNALISM**

Development journalism has not developed in a straight-jacked direction. It has

developed into two basic types which may be characterised as:

1. Investigative development journalism or Liberal development journalism
2. Benevolent-Authoritarian development journalism or Conservative development journalism.

### **5.2.1 Investigative or Liberal development journalism**

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

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

### **5.2.2 Benevolent-Authoritarian or Conservative development journalism**

This type of journalism is espoused by scholars, media practitioners, leaders and others who believe that selective handling of information is justified in developing countries, which are often ridden with crises. The important thing they hold is to ensure that public welfare is kept in mind at all times. Exponents of Benevolent- Authoritarian or Conservative development journalism tend to view democracy as an unproductive luxury in developing countries. Holding on to the most authoritarian tenets of development media theory, they are prepared to assign to the national news agencies the function of censorship in addition to their normal function of news distribution. The pervading, freedom inhibiting tradition of exaggerated respect for national leaders is best exemplified in benevolent-authoritarian or conservative media which, like erstwhile socialist media are subject to 'democratic centralism' and self-censorship.

### 5.3 DEVELOPMENT JOURNALISM AND INDIAN PRESS

After World War II many nations in Asia, Africa and Latin America became independent. It was thought that mass media could play a crucial role in national development influenced their policy decisions. The role of communication came to be seen as crucial in helping development in the third world countries. Vilanilam defined development journalism as “journalism that deals with the process of development in developing”.



Image.1

In development journalism the emphasis is not on what happens at a particular moment or a given day but on what is happening over time. Development journalism covers the entire gamut of socio-economic and cultural events and it does not differ drastically from regular news coverage. Rather, its emphasis is more on development aspects keeping in view the context of development; and it examines critically and reports the relevance, enactment and impact of development programmes. The Second Press Commission of India stated that “development reporting should tell the story what is going well as well as what is going wrong. The Press should investigate the reasons for success as well as failure of various development programmes affecting the lives of common people at different places under different conditions.”

Developmental journalism was practiced in India even before the term came into existence. Mahatma Gandhi writing in his journals, *Young India* and *Harijan*, educated the masses on topics that he considered of vital interest to the nation. He wrote extensively on contemporary topics such as Hindu-Muslim unity, removal of untouchability, prohibition, promotion of Khadi and other village industries and popularization of spinning wheel as a means of supplementing the income of the semi-starved and unemployed village peasants in India.

Prior to Independence, newspapers influenced and moulded the opinion of the people on social issues such as sati, child marriages, bride burning and so on. Journalism in those days functioned as a mission to awaken the masses socially and politically. A few experiments were conducted in development journalism by researchers and newspapers. Selden and Menefee and Audrey Menefee conducted a study of mimeographed newspaper in Mysore containing some developmental information. Known as Menefee experiment, a small

newspaper called *Gram Samachar* (village news) was published in Kannada, the local language, for 13 weeks to test the effects of communication on the villagers. The researchers found an increase in the information level of the regular readers because of the newspaper.

B.G.Verghese, the then editor of the *Hindustan Times*, New Delhi, conducted another experiment. In 1969, Verghese asked a team of reporters to write periodically about *Chattera*, a small village in Haryana, about its people, their problems and the process of development taking place in the village.

Another experiment in development journalism undertaken during 1981-84 was the 'Identify Backward Village Experiment' (IBVE) by *Udayavani*, a Kannada daily. In 1981, *Udayavani* came up with the idea of identifying and reporting on activities in the ten most backward villages of South Karnataka. It identified backwardness as lack of educational facilities, electricity, post office, telephone, medical facilities, clean drinking water and road network. These villages were identified by the coordinator of the projects, Ishwar Daitota, after eliciting opinions from readers through a survey conducted by the newspaper staff. The paper then published 30 stories every month on the villages. During the experiment, the *Udayavani* programme was successful in getting basic amenities to the villages.

Despite these experiments, developmental journalism has not gained much currency among Indian newspapers. Indian press is known for its wide coverage of political news, gossip and sensationalism, vital issues like primary education and population control get a backseat.

The causes for inadequate coverage of developmental news in Indian press, according to Bhattachajea are:

- Inadequate information and poor understanding of the subject of development among practicing journalists.
- Absence of training in marshalling and presentation of facts in an attractive format.
- Poor interest shown by newspapers in developmental news coverage
- Lack of funds and support from the newspaper establishments

However, the press as one of the pillars of democracy is expected to play a constructive role to accelerate developmental process in a country. In order to play such a role, the press should give wide coverage to developmental issues to create awareness among the people.

## 5.4 SUMMARY

Development Journalism is purposive and goal oriented. It is a kind of journalism that is aimed at enhancing and fostering development in a country or society. The writer consciously works towards an objective improvement in the socio-economic conditions of the people. The development journalist bears in mind that his writing must contribute to development. The development journalist does not merely report and interpret the facts. He also promotes them to help bring about positive social change.

Development Journalism is pragmatic, that is, it is result oriented. It seeks to achieve tangible development goals. It also implies that the media perform a role beyond that of conventional journalism. The Development Journalist takes up issues and relates them to

happenings in the society that will enhance development. The writer's aim is to elicit actions from the target audience, government and other stakeholders.

Development Journalism focuses on things that affect the people and can help improve their conditions. Instead of sensationalized reporting, development journalism focuses on stories that enhance people's lives, particularly the poor. It reports on topics and issues as agriculture and industrial growth, education, health and welfare services, community development, social welfare, public health and other ingredients of national life as they affect the life of the people.

## **5.5 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS**

1. What are the types of development journalism?
2. Discuss about the development journalism and Indian press.

## **5.6 REFERENCE BOOKS**

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
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10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
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15. Altshull : The Agents of Power.



## Lesson-6

# PARADIGMS OF DEVELOPMENT

## 6.0 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Theories of Development
- Development Communication Paradigms

## STRUCTURE

### 6.1 Introduction

### 6.2 Development and Power

#### 6.2.1 *Liberal/Modernization Framework of Development*

#### 6.2.2 *Dependency Theory*

#### 6.2.3. Development Projects and their Power Negotiation

#### 6.2.4 Limited affects perspective

### 6.3 Development Paradigms

#### 6.3.1 Modernization paradigm

#### 6.3.2 The Dependency theory

#### 6.3.3 Participation Paradigm

### 6.4 Summary

### 6.5 Self Assessment Questions

### 6.6 Reference Books

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The paradigms of development communication have evolved along the lines of shifts in paradigms of communication and development. In other words, the initial understanding of the ability of communication, especially the mass media and that of development impacted greatly on the thinking of what development communication was and is now. As new knowledge emerged on the power of communication and people have better understanding of what development is, new understanding of development communication also emerged. Despite mounting criticisms (Note 1), development is still a master concept and one of the most indispensable ingredients of human society. The concept of development was popularized through expansion of colonization, and underwent various transformations as the socio-political structure of the world changed over time. During the era of colonization, development was understood as *having colonies*, organizing the European societies and its labour and market

forces by disorganizing the non-European colonies. (Hoogvelt 2001; Cowen and Shenton 1996; Scott 1998; McMichael 2000). After the end of World War II, a new phase of development emerged, as the newly independent countries, for the sake of political legitimation, adopted the western notion/model of development. They had to depend on the technologies of the former colonial masters. The adoption of European model across the formerly colonial world in the post World War II era was the underpinnings of what Mc Michael (2000) calls the “development project”. The USA was a powerful reality at that time. Asian and African decolonization started at the time when USA was at the height of its power and prosperity, and eager to reconstruct the postwar world to expand markets and the flow of raw materials. Reconstructing a war-torn world was an international project, inspired by a vision of development as a national enterprise to be repeated across the world of newly independent states (McMichael 2000; Hoogvelt 2001; Griffin 1989). From the part of the West, especially from the USA, this development was viewed as a concept based on “*democratic fair dealing*” (McMichael 2000, p. 23). For the Americans and their allies, this was a liberal vision projected globally—a vision of universal political opportunity to pursue national economic growth. Therefore, the discourse of development assumed additional meanings—understood more as a *natural process, with universal application*, than the colonial initiative. That is, development could be administered by non-Europeans. This new development paradigm, however, ignored and obscured the contribution of former colonies to European development. In short, the development projects, as summarized by McMichael (2000, P. 75), were understood as: (a) an organizing concept to provide universal meaning (e.g., development as emulating Western living standards, rationality, and scientific progress); (b) a national framework for economic growth; (c) an international framework of aid (military and economic) binding the developing world to the developed world; (d) a growth strategy favoring industrialization; (e) an agrarian reform strategy encouraging agro-industrialization; (f) central state initiatives to stimulate and manage investment and mobilize multi-class political coalitions into a development alliance supporting industrial growth. Whatever is the outcome, western intellectuals formulated and accepted this western notion of development as the only standard for the globe. If we evaluate the development project, we can discern at least three significant points: first, the projects have been modified in various ways since 1950s, as the world has changed; secondly, it is increasingly questioned as some of its expectations have failed to materialize, which gave rise to the emergence of neo-Marxist dependency school; and third, the founding assumptions and practices of development project represented *historical choice* rather than an inevitable unfolding of human destiny. The development project was an organized strategy to overcome the legacies of colonialism. Development became an organizing principle to shape world politics and to determine relations, mostly power relation, between the Third World (Note 2) countries and industrialized developed world. Over the last few decades, the field development studies embraced a diverse range of intellectual pursuits, albeit no sense of common purpose and direction. First, the field has fragmented into area studies, in which the success of East Asian “developmental” states offered a promising focus for theoretical renewal, albeit rather more to the field of comparative political economy than to the subject of development studies itself. Second, there were meta-theoretical critiques of those theoretical constructs that had long constituted the toolbox of development theory. Dependency, exploitation, unequal exchange, mode of production, modernization, rationalization, progress—all these came under the deconstructing axe of post-modernists, post-Marxists, and post-structuralists alike. Third, some development literature merged with the literature of the international political economy. Fourth, the inclusion of gender and environment is very evident in the development literature today (Hoogvelt 2001). And finally, pervasive notion of power inherent in the discourse of development has been uncovered by the post-modern theorists. This paper is a comprehensive survey of the literature and understanding of how power is understood in different theories/schools of development.

## 6.2 DEVELOPMENT AND POWER

### 6.2.1 LIBERAL/MODERNIZATION FRAMEWORK OF DEVELOPMENT

Modernization is a theory of social and economic development that follows functionalist or consensus assumptions that societies need to have harmony among their components. This assumption leads to the belief that modern economies (capitalist) demand special characteristics in their culture and the structure of social relationships (Cowen and Shenton 1996; Hoogvelt 2001). For example, family systems are assumed to change toward a narrow conjugal form, and away from extended structure, in order to accommodate the individualism and occupational flexibility that is demanded by a modern complex economy undergoing continual transformation. Modernization theory evolved from two ideas about social change developed in the nineteenth century: the conception of *traditional* vs. *modern* societies (*gemeinschaft* vs. *gesellschaft*), and *positivism* that viewed development as societal evolution in progressive stages of growth (Rostow 1960; Hoogvelt 2001). The unique characteristics of *modern* capitalist society, as viewed by Max Weber, is its “formal rationality”, the best means (rational calculation) to achieve given ends (profit) as opposed to “substantive rationality” of *traditional* society; and “organic solidarity”, of *modern* society, which is based on the recognition of difference, contractual laws, and individual rights rather than shared identity, as opposed to “mechanical solidarity” based on homogeneity and collective consciousness of *traditional* society as viewed by Emile Durkheim (Collins and Makowsky 1998). In Modernization theory, problems that held back the industrialization of poor countries were related to the “irrational” way in which resources were allocated in a traditional society. Traditional societies became modern by rationalizing resource allocation, and by the elimination of cultural, institutional and organizational roadblocks that did not allow countries to develop. Developing countries with traditional societies could evolve by starting in a stage with an undeveloped and traditional society, and through an evolutionary linear process change its society by rationalizing it, becoming a country in a stage with a modern and developed society. The theory identified different stages, variables and process through which a society develops. Positivist evolution implied that all societies would pass through the same set of stages that the western society had passed: from a traditional to a modern society. The modernization stages were: 1) the traditional society, 2) preconditions for take-off, 3) take-off, 4) the drive to maturity, and 5) the age of high mass consumption. These five stages of modernization were known as Rostow’s stage theory (Rostow 1960, Hunt 1989). From a Modernization perspective, the degree of industrialization, urbanization, and cultural values are the main indicators of changes in development in a country. Therefore, the level of use and access to information technologies within a society is captured by these indicators, but use is basically determined by the degree of rationalization of a society and cultural values towards science and technology. According to Modernization theory, changes in openness to ideas and a more global sense of belonging would occur when changes in development occurred. Modernization also implies that a society’s culture value system and institutional configuration determines its potential for development. It places ideas and differing value systems, and not the material conditions, at the center of the explanation of the disparities in development (Hoogvelt 2001; Cowen and Shenton 1996). There are various paradigm shifts or transformation within modernization/capitalist framework. During the twentieth century, the two-sector (traditional vs industrial) model vividly identifies the capitalist or industrial sector as the engine of growth and development for the developing world. Capitalism in the mid-20th century was defined by an era known as Fordism, marked by intense relationships between governments, unions, international capital; this type of economics is still under state control. WWII gave a boost to industries that required mass production (chemicals, steel, etc.), and Fordism’s heyday was between 1945 and

1973. Since the 1970s, Fordism has given way to Post-Fordism characterized by: 1) Business switch from industry to service; 2) New patterns of industrial distribution; 3) Intensifying globalization: a) global capital floats all over the world, states often lose control (e.g., Black Wednesday). b) Fewer and fewer people control more and more production. 4) Weakened power of trade unions, less secure jobs, increase in low-paid jobs, etc.; and 5) Contemporary capital is hypermobile and hyperflexible (Hoogvelt 2001, Rist 2002). Behind the backdrop of the earlier theoretical development, a paradigm shift has occurred during the mid and late 20<sup>th</sup> century known as Neo-liberalism. Neo-liberalism has been designed, pushed and implemented by some of the biggest and most powerful institutions in the world like the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (WB). The policies of Neo-liberalism include privatization, marketization, and globalization (Lefebvre 2003). The story of neo-liberal economics and globalization also includes the Kuznet's (1955) "Inverted U" hypothesis. The Kuznet's theory says that when a country begins developing economically, its income inequality worsens. But after a few decades when the rich begin investing more in the economy and wealth begins to "trickle down", income equalizes and people are wealthier than they would have otherwise been. The multilateral financial institutions, which have adopted this theory, namely the IMF, enforce structural adjustment programs on heavily indebted third world countries.

These programs aim to get the state out of the economy through a number of measures known as "*shock therapy*" and at the same time create conducive environment for the forces of globalization to take off (Hoogvelt 2001; Cowen and Shenton 1996). Modernization framework of development was considered by some as an oversimplified and generalized theory with strong racial stereotype and cultural bias. It ignored specific historical experiences and phases of prosperity in societies that had not changed their "traditional culture". Modernization theory was attacked as *ahistorical*, (ignoring phases of prosperity from a broader historical review), and *ethnocentric* (assuming that only one culture and one path were ways to development) (Hoogvelt 2001; Rist 2002; Pett and Hartwick 1999). 2.1 *World Systems Theory* contested Modernization theory by suggesting that development differences were largely explained by taking into account the initial conditions and the relations of dependency in trade relations among countries in a whole system, i.e. the "world system". According to World Systems Theory, the global digital divide is really a reflection of the divides already present better explained by the degrees of *peripherilization* (a country's position in the core, semi-periphery or periphery). Countries in the wealthy core were bound to forge ahead in the use of new information technologies leaving behind countries in the deprived and dependent periphery. In consequence, the digital divide is a predicted consequence of the structure of the world system, in which less developed countries become more peripherilized when they are penetrated by interests located in the core: information and communication technologies are no exception to the core-periphery relation (Hoogvelt 2001; Rist 2002). Most importantly, modernization theory obscures the production and relations of power between developed and developing nations that pose a major hindrance to development of "traditional societies" as many claim. Paradoxically, others claim that the same sort of power relation is needed for the development of the traditional societies. Power and development are both related dialectically and reciprocally. 2.2 *Modernization Paradigm and Power* How power affects, and is affected by, development is very complex yet interesting. Surrounding power, one of the first in-depth critiques of capitalism's inequities was by Karl Marx. Marxism was a Hegelian-inspired philosophy that concentrated on political economy, calling attention to *unequal power relations* between classes in capitalist society. It was an economic-deterministic perspective of the world. Marx's base-superstructure theory (economic base provided for cultural superstructure) was later elaborated by theorists such as Antonio Gramsci (Note 3), who elaborated post-Marxist theories of hegemony. Gramsci elaborated Marx's base-superstructure theory (economic base provided for cultural

superstructure) with his theory of hegemony, i.e., that in modern society the subjugated classes willingly accept their exploitation by their rulers in society (Fontana 1993). "Hegemony"—the willing acceptance of one social group's dominance and control by another and the dominating group's main vehicle of control—can be seen in terms of the more complex view of social structure, elaborated for the analysis of popular culture, developed in recent years within the Gramscian tradition and articulated by theorists such as Stuart Hall. However, an understanding of the more fundamental use of the term is also important. While it is difficult to find an adequate definition for hegemony, Todd Gitlin (2003, p. 253) gives a sense of how the concept works: [H]egemony is a ruling class's (or alliance's) domination of subordinate classes and groups through the elaboration and penetration of ideology (ideas and assumptions) into their common sense and everyday practice; it is the systematic (but not necessarily or even usually deliberate) engineering of mass consent to the established order. No hard and fast line can be drawn between the mechanisms of hegemony and the mechanisms of coercion...In any given society, hegemony and coercion are interwoven. In the 1920s, the Frankfurt School developed as a German Marxist critique of capitalism in ideological terms (as opposed to economic terms). The Frankfurt School's position broadly was that people are easily fooled by capitalism and the culture industry. Reality was that created by bourgeois society in capitalism—culture is processed through culture industry. This is quite different from enlightenment ideas of affirmative culture, harmony, authenticity, encompassing the best of the people when authentically free. The school looked at ideology as characterizing distortions of reality -its purpose is to camouflage and legitimate unequal power relations. The work of the Frankfurt School laid the basis for many more recent critiques of capitalist-inspired mass culture (Fontana 1993). Proponents of modernization paradigm, however, have a modest understanding of power, though no consensus among themselves. Unlike Marxian perspective, which views power as *limiting*, proponents of modernization view that power is something *contributing* to the entire social fabrics. They view it is the mass population that has the ultimate power: power to consume, power to boycott products, power to elect their leaders to govern themselves. Development is thus a *democratic fair dealing* (McMichael 2000) with power centered in the opinion of the masses. Some proponents of modernization paradigm subscribe the *elitist perspective of power*, which rationalizes the fact that in order for survival and smooth functioning of a society, it must be run by an *efficient* few elites who are elected by the majority of its citizens. This model of understanding power and development pervades till late nineteenth and early twentieth century. Another, mostly recent, cohort of proponents think that power is something prevalent in every stages of development activities, not centered in the "bourgeoisie" as Marx claims. They subscribe a pluralist model of power in development discourse. The donors of development projects, the researchers, the activists, the local populations or indigenous communities, academic personnel- all possesses power of their own and can influence each other. Development is pursued through a complex web of power exertion with one influencing other. This model is generally presented in response to the post-modern critique of development discourse.

### 6.2.3 DEPENDENCY THEORY

Although dependency theory, like modernization theory, emerged in the post-war period, based on Marxian understanding of power, it had intellectual roots stretching into the past. Classical theories of imperialism had also addressed relations of domination and subjection between nations. According to dependency school, underdevelopment is seen as the result of *unequal power relationships* between rich developed capitalist countries and poor developing ones. In the past colonialism embodied the inequality between the colonial powers and their colonies. As the colonies became independent the inequalities did not disappear. Powerful

developed countries such as the U.S., Europe and Japan dominate dependent powerless least developed countries (LDCs) via the capitalist system that continues to perpetuate power and resources inequalities (Hoogvelt 2001). Dominant most developed countries (MDCs) have such a technological and industrial advantage that they can ensure the global economic system works in their own self-interest. Organizations such as the World Bank, the IMF and the WTO have agendas that benefit the firms, and consumers of primarily the MDCs. Freeing up world trade, one of the main aims of the WTO, benefits the wealthy nations that are most involved in world trade. Creating a level playing field for all countries assumes that all countries have the necessary equipment to be able to play. For the world's poor this is often not the case (Khor 2001, Hoogvelt 2001). Unlike modernization theory which blames the culture of the underdeveloped, in dependency model the responsibility for lack of development within LDCs rests with the MDCs. Advocates of the dependency theory argue that only substantial reform of the world capitalist system and a redistribution of assets will "free" LDCs from poverty cycles and enable development to occur. Measures that the MDCs could take would include the elimination of world debt and the introduction of global taxes such as the Tobin Tax. This tax on foreign exchange transactions, named after its proponent, the American Economist, James Tobin, would generate large revenues that could be used to pay off debt or fund development projects (Khor 2001; Hoogvelt 2001). There are some problems in this model as well and hence it is very difficult to implement. First, power is not easily redistributed, as countries that possess it are unlikely to surrender it. Secondly, it may be that it is not the governments of the MDCs that hold the power but large multinational enterprises that are reluctant to see the world's resources being reallocated in favor of the LDCs. Thirdly, the redistribution of assets globally will result in lower rates of growth in the MDCs and this might be politically unpopular. The postmodern critique of development by writers like Ferguson (1990), and Escobar (1995) see development discourse as nothing more than an apparatus of surveillance and control. Even though they do not identify themselves as purely Marxist, or Foucaultian, they are highly influenced by intellectual traditions of Marx and Foucault. In order to maintain a focus on the notion of power and domination, as well as on the most pervasive effects of development, they see development in terms of discourse, as discourse analysis creates the possibility of, as Escobar (1995) quotes from Foucault (1986), 'stand[ing] detached from [the development discourse], bracketing its familiarity, in order to analyze the theoretical and practical context with which it has been associated'. Escobar sees development from discourse analysis: To see development as a historically produced discourse entails an examination of why so many countries started to see themselves as underdeveloped in the early post-World War II period, how "to develop" became a fundamental problem for them, and how, finally, they embarked upon the task of "un-under developing" themselves by subjecting their societies to increasingly systematic, detailed, and comprehensive interventions. As western experts and politicians started to see certain conditions in Asia, Africa, and Latin America as a problem—mostly what was perceived as poverty and backwardness—a new domain of thought and experience, namely development came into being, resulting a new strategy of dealing with the alleged problems. Initiated in the United States and Western Europe, this strategy became in a few years a powerful force in the Third World (1995, p. 6). Escobar (1995) nicely delineates how 'poverty' was discovered and 'problematized' and the 'Third World' was constructed in the discourse of development, and how two-third of the world population was put under the regime of control by discursive practices. 'The poor increasingly appeared as a social problem requiring a new ways of intervention in society', and 'the treatment of poverty allowed society to conquer new domains'. The management of poverty called for interventions in education, health, hygiene, morality, and employment, and the instilment of good habits of association, savings, child rearing and so on. The result was a panoply of interventions that accounted for the domain of knowledge and intervention. Not only poverty, but also health, education, hygiene, employment, and poor quality of life in towns and cities were constructed as social problems, requiring extensive

knowledge about the population and appropriate modes of social planning (Escobar 1992). 'The most significant aspect of this phenomenon was the setting into place of apparatuses of knowledge and power that took upon themselves to optimize life by producing it under modern, "scientific" conditions' (Escobar 1995, p. 23). The result of these construction and practices was very pervasive. The poor countries started defining themselves in relation to the standard of wealth of the more economically advantaged nations. This economic conception of poverty (comparative statistical operation) found an ideal yardstick in the annual per capita income. Thus 'two-third of the world's people were transformed into poor subjects in 1948 when the World Bank defined as poor those countries with an annual per capita income below \$100. And if the problem was one of the inefficient income, the solution was clearly economic growth. Thus poverty became an organizing concept and object of new problematization' (Escobar 1995, pp. 23-24). If we delve deeply into this construction, we will find an inherent power relation. The Third World is constructed by *distancing* it away from the civilized and developed West. This distance, which is not a simple marker of cultural diversity, is branded with inferiority and negativity (backward, underdeveloped, poor, lacking, traditional...). When these kinds of negative images are constructed on a group of people, they automatically become preamble to certain treatments and interventions, and thus, the former justifies the latter.

Due to the construction of the Third World, the power relation between the agency who constructs, and constructed subjects becomes "father-child" or "doctor-patient" (Escobar 1995, p. 159). With the construction of the Third World, as Escobar (1995) sees, the rich countries of the West 'created an extremely efficient apparatus for producing knowledge about, and exercise of power over, the Third World'(p. 9). New form of power and control, more subtle and refined, were put in operation. The poor people's ability to define and take care of their lives was eroded in a deeper manner than perhaps before. The poor became the target of more sophisticated practices of variety of programmes that seemed inescapable' (p. 39). Various programmes, institutions, centres of power proliferated in the West to study these 'poor subjects' and their conditions. The Third World then witnessed 'a massive landing of experts, each in charge of investigating, measuring, and theorizing about this or that little aspect of the Third World societies' (p.45). To understand development as a discourse, one must look not at the elements themselves, but at the system of relations established among them. 'It is a system that allows the systematic creation of objects, concepts, and strategies... the system of relations establishes discursive practices that set the rule of the game: who can speak, from what point of view, with what authority, and according to what criteria of expertise. It sets the rules that must be followed for this or that problem, theory, or object to emerge and be named, analyzed, and eventually transformed into a policy plan' (pp.40-41). However, not all have the authority to do that. 'Some clear principles of authority were in operation. They concerned the role of experts, from whom certain criteria of knowledge and competence were asked; institutions, such as UN, which had the moral, professional, and legal authority to name subjects, and define strategies; and international lending organizations, which carried the symbols of capital and power' (p. 41). The principle of authority also concerned the governments of the poor countries, which commanded the legal political authority over the lives of their subjects, and the position of leadership of the rich countries, who had the power, knowledge and experience to decide on what was to be done. Therefore, the exercise of power/power-relation is evident between and within developed nations, and poor countries. In Escobar's (1995) word: Economists, demographers, educators, and experts in agriculture, public health, and nutrition elaborated their theories, made their assessments and observations, and designed their programs from these institutional sites. Problems were continually identified, and client categories brought into existence. Development proceeded by creating "abnormalities" (such as the "illiterate", the "underdeveloped", the "malnourished", "small farmers", or "landless peasants"), which it would later treat and reform. Approaches that could have positive effects in terms of easing material

constraints became, linked to this type of rationality, instruments of power and control (pp. 41-42). Patriarchy and ethnocentrism, the obvious manifestation of power and control, are inherent in the discourse of development. The indigenous people have to be modernized in line with the appropriate 'values' (western-white). It gives them an understanding of their own culture as 'backward', or 'evil' or 'inimical to development' (McMichael 2000). A sense of inferiority complex permeates over their body and soul. It has profound effects on their lives and way of thinking, and becomes a sophisticated way of exercising power and control. As Lohmann (1999) says, 'racism is a process of social control, not a set of beliefs and feelings' (p. 70). The subordinate power relation is normalized in such a way that it goes uncontested and accepted as usual. The subject people often accept that as their fate. The history has witnessed the fact that development planners (most economists-75% in World Bank), and Engineers, by their economic mind-set, create models, calculations, and formulate plans, which often has no relation to the actual population, the subjects, and to how they (the subjects) see their own problems and solutions.

Due to this problem, most development projects become unsuccessful and create tensions. Interestingly, when any project fails to materialize its target, the blame goes to the victims and their culture, not the planners. It is the organization, which plans, creates categories, and finally also constructs the blames. For example, for ecological disasters caused by development programmes, the poor are blamed and 'admonished for their "irrationality" and their lack of environmental consciousness' (Escobar 1995, p. 195). Institutional Ethnography is, as Escobar suggests, helpful to study the organization, especially its ideology. From the discussion, it appears that what development reveals is intended to hide or occlude something. It is constantly expanding its power by constructing new domains. The conspicuous process is *problematization*: creating knowledge in a very efficient way, *institutionalization*: bureaucratization and managerialism, and finally *normalization of power*. This is what Michel Foucault (1979, 1986) discovers and explicates the relation and exercise of power in the modern society.

One of the apparent implications of this extension of power is that it 'privilege[s] certain actors, and marginalize[s] others' (Brosius 1999, p. 38). Apart from the above critiques, since 1980s there emerged another group, the group who might be called "ultra-modernist". It consists of economic theorists who insist that the laws of economics have been proven valid, that the invisible hands of the market allocate resources optimally. Therefore, there is only economics, not development economics. When governments and outside agencies try to make the market work better, they introduce doctrines, which make it work worse. The free market does not guarantee equality of income, they say, but it produces as optimal an allocation of resources as is possible (Cooper and Packard 1997).

### **6.2.3. DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS AND THEIR POWER NEGOTIATION**

Over past few decades, development faced mounting criticism because of its failure to bridge the gap between developed and developing nations. One of the key criticisms is surrounding unequal power relation. The harshest criticism came from underdevelopment/dependency theorists. They not only indicated the problems and flaws inherent in the capitalist paradigm, but also advocated an alternative vision of development. But after the demise of USSR and its eventual entry to global capitalist club, and secondly China's gradual penetration to, and acceptance of, free-market economy, their alternative vision is losing market currency. The post-modern critics of development, despite their thoughtful explication to equate development with power exertion, failed to suggest any development agenda alternative to



capitalist paradigm. As different criticisms appear, the capitalist paradigm is now undergoing different transformations and trying to adopt and show a pluralist model of power relations involving and empowering the locals. Here are some key models and current debates surrounding them. NGOs are more popular than ever in official circles these days. However, while ten years ago, their popularity lay largely in their supposed efficiency in meeting the basic needs of the people at the grassroots—i.e., in ‘tackling poverty’,--today they are being trumpeted, according to UNDP Human Development Report (1993), as representative *per excellence* of civil societies in the so-called Third World. In the post-Cold war era, international institutions and donor agencies are turning their attention increasingly to concerns about democratization and popular participation. As UNDP report dramatically puts it, “Greater people’s participation is no longer a vague ideology based on the wishful thinking of new idealists. It has become an imperative—a condition of survival” (Keck and Sikkink 1998). But again, NGOs involvement in development projects and influencing national politics raises numerous questions and skepticism. Wood (1997) is quite skeptical regarding the proliferation of NGOs in the developing countries. According to him, for NGOs to operate, for markets to penetrate and to hold authority, for private organizations to take hold of the societies’ power, the first thing that should be done is to diminish the power and authority of the state by curtailing its role in providing services to its citizen, and by reducing its control on resources. This is a neo-liberal agenda, and to do that it advocated the rhetoric of “good governance” which is paradoxical in meaning and operation. Wood calls this scenario “franchise state” (state franchising its responsibility to NGOs). In the West “Good governance” is explained as “democratic process with strong accountability between state and people, removing the prospects of dictatorial oppressive governments and underpinning, therefore, the protection of fundamental human rights” (Wood 1997, p. 97). Wood calls it “hypocrisy” embodied in the western preoccupation of the theme “good governance”. He argues that the “good governance” represents a revival of ethnocentric, modernizing ideology, attempting to make the myths of one society reality in another. Giving the example of UK, he says, “Good governance is more possible elsewhere than in those countries which purport to be the keepers of the discourse” (p. 80). When one talks about ‘good governance’, there arise many questions and problems, especially the problem of accountability. First of all, “good” is not universal, rather relative, and contingent upon cultural expectations and distributional outcomes. The paradoxes in the notion of ‘good governance’ include, (a) The thrust of policy is to undermine the monopoly of the state in service provision and allocation of resources, thereby creating more opportunity for exit choices and thus reducing the necessity for government to be good. (b) The preoccupations with privatizations and markets on the one hand, and good governance on the other, do not easily sit side by side. (c) Adherence to neo-liberal views about the efficacy and the responsiveness of the market as an allocator of public goods crucially slides over the issue of responsibility. However, markets tend to ignore responsibility, and have been proven to be failure in distributing resources. Markets rather serve the capitalists for accumulation and legitimation (Panitch 1977). (d) “Good governance” is geared to improve “participation”. It is very contradictory, as most NGOs are operated in an authoritative manner. (e) “Good governance” undermines and limits the capacity and power of the state, but state remains responsible for defining, guaranteeing, and regulating entitlements on the one hand and delivery on the other. NGOs which are operating to improve ‘good governance’ are basically working to “break the state monopolies in both service and goods delivery and to remove regulations and licensing to allow market to breath” (Wood 1997, p.86). Wood further (1997) argues that the “Franchise Model” cannot be alternative to state and market, because markets have been proven to be inefficient allocator. Other skeptics argue that policies of IMF and World Bank in the developing countries virtually created more tensions and problems. East Asia, Russia, and Latin America are some examples (Lefeber 2003; Grinpun 2003; Stiglitz 2000; Weisbrot et al 2000), and they think that NGOs have close link with donors and other capitalist institutions, and hence they are

mostly operated by the outsiders. It is dis-empowering for the locals as it erases their ability in a deep manner to define themselves and to take care of their own lives. Experience from the Orangi Pilot Project (OPP) (Hameed 1997), and Agro-forestry Outreach Project (AOP) (Murray 1997) shows, top-down approach is mostly ineffective. Despite criticisms and skepticism, there are empirical proofs that NGOs play a vital role in empowering the locals, creating vigorous civil societies, ensuring participation of the local community in development activities and in making development more meaningful and accepted for them (Keck and Sikkink 1998).

**3.2 Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM)** In the midst of the exploitation of the natural resource as well as the local people/ forest or upland dwellers that results in severe environmental and social damage on the one hand, and direct control, and sometimes aggressive deployment of 'development projects' by the development agencies, community based natural resource management (CBNRM) paradigm has been proposed by many. It offers to (a) promote democracy and participation among the local people, including women, who are historically excluded, (b) create mechanism for their empowerment, (c) claim the natural resources that is extracted mainly by the state elite, (d) reorganize the local communities in legal entities/frameworks for the management of resources, (e) create networks from local to the international level, (f) make the development projects more fruitful by ensuring the participation of the local people, and thereby make it meaningful and accepted to them (Brosius et al 1998; Lynch and Talbot 1995; Li 2002). Recognizing the fact that CBNRM offers an excellent paradigm to create voice for the historically excluded and oppressed local communities in the development projects, there arise lot of questions, concerns, paradoxes and some dangers. The key debates surrounding this model are as follows: First, Owen Lynch (1995) adumbrates a concern that the impoverished rural communities in the developing world are denied the fundamental rights to substantive participation in decisions that impact on their well-being and livelihoods, and through CBNRM, their important participation can be ensured. The question arises: does participation really ensure democracy and lay any impact on decision-making? There is a need to look at how far their participation really affects decision-making. The danger is that the state and the development agencies can use participation for legitimacy. To me, the notion of participation is so complex that the community chiefs can be privileged, while the other vast number of people remains impoverished. Brosius et al (1998, p. 164) raised important questions, "How are powerful institutions, including multilateral financial organizations, bilateral aid agencies, national and transnational conservation organizations, and private sector actors appropriating community based natural resource management projects and policies to advance their own diverse, sometimes intersecting, interests? What are the political, cultural, environmental, and economic consequences of these appropriations and manipulations?" By engaging the local communities in the development activities, the development projects get unquestioned acceptance, and if the projects fail, blame goes to the local people as if they are not ready for the development. The question then arises, is CBNRM a legitimate guise or an 'ideological device', in Marxist term, to conquer the local terrain? Secondly, the success of disseminating the paradigm of CBNRM has raised new challenges, as "the concepts of community, territory, conservation, and indigenous are worked into politically varied plans and programs in disparate sites" (Brosius et al 1998, p. 157). 'Indigenous' or 'native' is one of basic elements in the program of CBNRM, which is often used for resource claim. For example, Lynch (1995) made a distinction between Hispanicized and un-Hispanicized ethnic groups in Philippines. However, the notion of 'indigenous' is subject to contestation, as human history entails the fact that people are always in mobile often by better future and displacement by human and natural forces. Old and new migrants often interspersed among them, and cross-marriage, hybridity etc. are common phenomena in almost every community (Li 2002). Tania Li's (2000) argument is that a group's self identification as tribal or indigenous is not natural or inevitable, but neither is it simply invented, adopted, or imposed. It is, rather, "a *positioning*, which draws upon historically sedimented practices, landscapes, and

repertoires of meaning, and emerges through particular patterns of engagement and struggle” (Li 2000, p. 151). She elaborates that the conjectures at which some people come to identify themselves as indigenous, realigning the ways they connect to the nation, the government, and their own, unique tribal place, are the contingent products of agency and the cultural and political work of articulation. The concepts of *articulation* and *positioning*, which she draws from Start Hall (1991, 1996), are central to her analysis. Moreover, in the era of borderless world and transnational citizenry, the notion of ‘indigenous’ is gradually losing its market value. Incorporation, integration into a new society is a very common picture of the modern society. Market citizenship is a new concept that contests the notion of ‘indigenous’ (Strange 1996). On the other hand, the notion of ‘indigenous’ can be used for exclusionary purposes. Malaysia is a good example where the so-called “bumi-putra” (indigenous) gets extra-privilege, while the discursively constructed *non-bumi-putra* are historically excluded in many respects. Claiming or constructing ‘indigenous identity’ may lead to more complexity and conflict. Both Palestinians and Israelis are claiming to be indigenous that resulted in the circles of violence for long decades. Another danger lies when the project of CBNRM uses ethnicity for land or resource claims, as again the ‘ethnicity’ is a very fragile term on the one hand, and construction of an ethnicity (for land/resource claims) may lead to an *essentialized* identity, on the other. Third, one of the assumptions of CBNRM is that indigenous peoples’ life is based on the forest resources (Lynch 1995). This kind of assumption is highly contested. “The characterization of indigenous people as forest resource dependent is more problematic” (Li 2002, p. 267). The question arises: does it suggest that the forest dwellers should remain traditional and forest-dependent? In the era of advanced technology, science, and high communication, as well as decent and healthy style of life, can we imagine a life in the forest? The CBNRM talks about the management of forests by the forest-dwellers, but in reality the “tribal people are not being asked if or how they want to manage their forests” (Brown 1994, p. 59). Li (2002) explicates that many tribal people in Indonesia and elsewhere denounced their tribal identity, as they do not want to pursue their future on the forests/hills. Fourth, in projects of CBNRM, we see that community; territory, indigenous, traditional etc. are defined and constructed by the outsiders. It entails a regime of control and authority/power over them. The local people are turned into an ‘object of knowledge’ and lose their ability to define themselves in their own terms and to take care of their own affairs. The agencies decide who to speak, from what point of view. In Escobarian (1995) way, behind the construction and reconstruction of the local community in discourses and practices in the name of creating voice for them or to ensure their participation in the development projects, lies the lucrative interest of the powerful development agencies. Escobar (1995) explicates how development expands by creating different domains of thought and discourses. The process includes *problematization* (creating knowledge in a very efficient way), *institutionalization* (bureaucratization and managerialism), and finally *normalization of power*, as we have elaborated before. One can argue that by deploying the regime of CBNRM, the local communities, who were outside the direct domination of development agencies, are now under the direct control and power. Fifth, does CBNRM further lead to ‘institutionalization’ and ‘managerialism’ where the local communities become the objects of policies? Schroeder (1995) raises the concern that the language of community and conservation has, upon occasion, served to help shift resources away from local strategies for livelihood and empowerment towards resource management that served powerful institutional interest, whether corporate, scientific, military-administrative, or northern consumer-oriented. There is a need to explore how CBNRM, if goes towards institutionalization and managerialism, ‘privilege a fortunate few and preclude other’, if we quote Brosius (1999); how it affects the state government, and fate of the local communities; and how, if any, multilateral institutions and bilateral lending agencies have influenced national governments to enforce CBNRM by decree. Sixth, the paradigm of CBNRM is based on a common assumption that state is an oppressive regime to the local community, and in order to create voice for the local communities, the state

power needs to be subverted (Lynch 1995; Li 2002). Hence, we find various writings to construct state as an 'alien' to the local community. However, states may not always be aliens to local communities. Many think that undermining the state is necessary to create a vacuum for the market to penetrate and to take over the activities previously done by the state. We are yet to be convinced that we have to oppose the state in order to create voice for the oppressed communities. However, one can argue that state is still a legitimate organization/ institution to organize the people, to work for their well-being. Viewing state always as oppressive regime is a kind of simplification. We do not afford to ignore that in many developing countries, many local communities are oppressed, and many of them have already been displaced by the state. For instance, hundreds of Penan people in Sarawak, Malaysia (Brosius 1999), the forest-dwellers in Thailand (Lohmann 1999; Vandergeest and Peluso 1995, Islam 2003), and so-called Hispanicized people in Philippines (Lynch 1885) and others are in acute manipulation by the state. However, McMichael (2000) shows that most of the displacement and oppression is because of the aggressive deployment of development projects, and it is not the state that needs to be blamed alone, the powerful development agencies that deployed the development projects should be blamed. For instance, the agony of the highlanders in Thailand is mainly due to development agencies' proposal to "reduce the population of people in mountainous areas and bring them to normal life" (Lohmann 1999, p. 70). Rather than viewing state as a separate entity and hence subverting the power of state, we can think of a democratic state with equal and meaningful participation from all communities. Both state and community can be mutually constitutive. Here how nicely Li (2002) explicates: A core concern of CBNRM has been to strengthen the capacity of the communities to protect their natural resource base from the more destructive and rapacious activities of ruling regimes, among others. The model envisages a shift in power from states to communities, conceived as separate entities. Instead, as I have argued, states and communities are mutually constitutive. CBNRM offers state system an opportunity to rearrange the ways in which the rule is accomplished, while also offering the communities an opportunity to realign their position within (but not outside) that system. Where citizens are indeed up against "vicious states", the potential of CBNRM to empower them is very limited. Older vocabularies about peasant struggles, class conflict, and democracy are better able to name the problem, and to indicate the forms of collective action through which it might be addressed (p. 281). The above are some of critical points with regard to CBNRM. Scholars of CBNRM, the donor or development agencies, as well as the nation states need to keep all these in minds. We can envisage a fruitful collaboration and mutual power sharing between these three groups: communities, donor agencies, as well as the state, and that should be the goal of CBNRM, as well as development projects. We can conclude here by quoting Li (2002), "CBNRM serves as a vehicle for negotiating the responsibilities and rights of the citizenship. It is not, however, the only possible vehicle and its strengths and weaknesses need therefore be evaluated in relation to the alternatives" (p. 270).

#### **6.2.4 LIMITED AFFECTS PERSPECTIVE**

The initial understanding of communication and the media was that the media were all-powerful. The mass media were seen as supremely effective and that all human beings responded the same way to the powerful influence of the media. The media were called the magic bullet, transmission belt or hypodermic needle as they convey external stimuli that can condition anyone to behave in whatever way a master propagandist wanted. People were viewed as powerless to consciously resist manipulation no matter their level of education social status. The rational mind was viewed as a mere façade, incapable of resisting powerful media messages. New knowledge, one of such fore grounded by Paul Lazarsfeld, revealed that media were not as powerful as it was earlier believed; and that certain variables limit the influence of

the media. It was revealed that individual differences, the social categories that we belong to and the social relationships that we engage in impact and limit the influence of the media on us. Besides, people also possess selective abilities by which they allow some media content that are suitable for them while others are discarded; this ability which Klapper calls selective process does not allow the all-powerful influence of the media.

## 6.3 DEVELOPMENT PARADIGMS

### 6.3.1 Modernisation Paradigm

In the 1960s, development meant a process of modernisation modelled on the industrialized societies of the North. The measure of progress in this direction was economic growth. Industrialization and cash crop agriculture were the means to achieve it. The concern then was to reduce the gap between the North and the South and the answer to that was to go through the process of modernisation. Modernisation refers to the intense application of scientific technology, specialisation of labour, interdependence of markets, large concentrations of capital and rising levels of material well being. Modernisation proposed some principles for the Third World countries to move from their traditional level of development to the modern stage:

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

### The dependency theory

In the 1960s, strong opposition to the modernisation paradigm led to the emergence of an alternative theoretical model rooted in a political-economic perspective: the dependency theory. The proponents of this school of thought criticised some of the core assumptions of the modernisation paradigm mostly because it implicitly put the responsibility, and the blame, for the causes of underdevelopment exclusively upon the recipients, neglecting external social, historical, and economic factors. They also accused the modernisation paradigm of being very Western-centric, refusing or neglecting any alternative route to development. The modernisation paradigm did not lead to development and in fact the countries of the South were sliding down further into poverty, low salaries and poor living conditions. This criticism, which was developed above all in Latin America emphasized the link between this situation and the situation of economic dependence on the industrial North: the countries in the North were conditional on the underdevelopment of the countries of the Third World, and the 'centre' developed at the expense of the 'periphery'. According to the dependency paradigm, obstacles to development come first and foremost from external, not internal: that is to say, the international economic system.

The Dependency Theory contradicted the claim of universality for the development theory, and presented new ways of explaining the reasons of, as well as suggesting new strategies for underdevelopment problem in the Third World.

### **A. Foundations and Main Principles**

The foundation of Dependency Theory was laid in 1950s by Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). Prominent authors of this approach had argued that, in order to secure a healthy development, countries should create conditions for development. For instance, Raul Prebisch suggested that, a country should take important economic and political measures to create what he called as “conditions of development”. Some measures of this kind are as follows:

- ◆ “To control the monetary exchange rate, placing more governmental emphasis on fiscal rather than monetary policy;
  - ◆ To promote a more effective governmental role in terms of national development;
  - ◆ To create a platform of investments, giving a preferential role to national capitals;
  - ◆ To allow the entrance of external capital following priorities already established in national plans for development;
  - ◆ To promote a more effective internal demand in terms of domestic markets as a base to reinforce the industrialization process;
  - ◆ To generate a larger internal demand by increasing the wages and salaries of workers, which will in turn positively affect aggregate demand in internal markets;
  - ◆ To develop a more effective coverage of social services from the government, especially to impoverished sectors in order to create conditions for those sectors to become more competitive; and
  - ◆ To develop national strategies according to the model of import substitution, protecting national production by establishing quotas and tariffs on external markets”
- (Bodenheimer, 1970: 49-53; also cited in Reyes, 2001).

### **II. The Idea of Dependency**

Dependency can be defined as “an explanation of the economic development of a state in terms of the external influences—political, economic, and cultural—on national development policies” (Sunkel, 1969: 23, in Ferraro, 1996: 1). Here, the term dependency refers an important dimension of political economy of Third World countries: Both economy and politics in these countries are heavily affected by their dependence relationships with rich Western countries. The notion of dependency focuses on asymmetrical relationships and ties among nations, small groups and classes within the Third World and between the ones in Third World and the ones in Western World. In other words, although dependency is mostly seen between nations, it includes broader ties among classes and groups within and among nations who have common interests.

Initially, the Dependency Theory emerged as a collection of various intellectual tributaries in Latin America whose common source is dissatisfaction from the current state of affairs in these countries. The early literature on the Dependency Theory was a research report written by a group led by Raul Prebisch in 1950s and an essay produced by Cardoso and Faletto in the mid-60. They were occupied, as so many dependency theoreticians, with Latin-America

and tried to understand why, after 200 years of pervasive political, economic and cultural interchange with Europe and the United States, the degree of the “underdevelopment” vis-à-vis the advanced industrial countries had changed so little (Cardoso and Faletto, 1979). In time, however, the Dependency Theory was transformed to a critique of Modernization Theory, developed mainly in the United States. In a sense, the very close target was the modernization perspective for the authors who reflect the Dependency Theory in one way or other in their writings, while the prime target remained the neo-classical theory of development (which development is seen based on growth). For that reason, it would be useful to look at the Modernization Theory in order to better understand its critique, the Dependency Theory.

### Participation Paradigm

When the promises of the modernisation paradigm failed to materialize, and its methods came increasingly under fire, and the dependency theorists failed to provide a successful alternative model, a different approach focusing on people’s participation began to emerge. This participatory model is less oriented to the political-economic dimension and more rooted in the cultural realities of development. The development focus has shifted from economic growth to include other social dimensions needed to ensure meaningful results in the long run—as indicated by the consensus built in the definition of the Millennium Development Goals. Sustainability and people’s participation became key elements of this new vision, as acknowledged also by the World Bank (1994: 3): “Internationally, emphasis is being placed on the challenge of sustainable development, and participation is increasingly recognised as a necessary part of sustainable development strategies.” Meaningful participation cannot occur without communication. Participation paradigm is based on the assumption that the common people are intelligent and can be active agents of change. Development efforts should then be based on people’s capacity to contribute and participate actively in the task of transforming their society. It emphasises the endogenous nature of development as something that must evolve from the people as opposed to ‘trickle-down’ belief. It also emphasizes self reliant growth, stressing that people have the ability to face their problems with resources or ideas emanating from within without relying of external help. Self reliance thus has three components:

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

### 6.3 SUMMARY

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

## 6.4 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Write about the Development Paradigms?
2. Explain dependency theory?

## 6.5 REFERENCE BOOKS

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power



## Lesson-7

# DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION PARADIGMS

## 7.0 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Models for Development of the nation

## STRUCTURE

### 7.1 Dominant Paradigm

### 7.2 Alternative Paradigm

### 7.3 Summary

### 7.4 Self Assessment Questions

### 7.5 Reference Books

## 7.1 DOMINANT PARADIGM

The dominant development communication paradigm took a queue from the all powerful media paradigm and modernisation paradigm. The mass media were overestimated and it was believed that they were extremely powerful in persuading audiences to change attitudes and behaviour; thus the mass media were at the centre of communication initiatives that relied heavily on the traditional vertical one-way model: Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver (SMCR). The thinking was that if the appropriate mass media strategies could be devised to diffuse pro-development innovations to the far-flung, heterogeneous, predominantly illiterate and tradition bound 'natives' of developing countries, the modernizing influence of these innovations would transform (modernize) their perception and cause them to forgo their latent productive skill . This has been the model of reference for the diffusion perspective, which has often been adopted to induce behaviour changes through media-centric approaches and campaigns. This paradigm was unilinear as well as transportational. This paradigm has been criticised by several people for its reductionism. It did not take sufficiently into account the different types of target populations (e.g., prosperous farmers who own land and are open to new techniques versus other farmers who are illiterate, poor and exploited). It also failed to take into account the impact of the economic and political structures on the capacity to adopt innovations. The same charge of blindness where social, political and economic factors are concerned also applies to innovations that require a process of diffusion.

**Basic Overview:** 'Personal Influence' is also known as the Multistep Flow Model is a theory based on a 1940's study on social influence that states that media effects are indirectly established through the personal influence of opinion leaders. The majorities of people receives much of their information and are influenced by the media second hand, through the personal influence of opinion leaders.

**Concept:** The 'Multistep Flow Model says that most people form their opinions based on opinion leaders that influence the media. Opinion leaders are those initially exposed to specific media content, interpret based on their own opinion and then begin to infiltrate the opinions through the general public who then become "opinion followers." These "opinion leaders" gain their influence through more elite media as opposed to mainstream mass media. In this process, social influence is created and adjusted by the ideals and opinions of each specific "elite media" group and by these media group's opposing ideals and opinions and in combination with popular mass media sources. Therefore, the leading influence in these opinions is primarily a social persuasion.

**About:** The two-step flow of communication model hypothesizes that ideas flow from mass media to opinion leaders and from them to a wider population. It was first introduced by sociologist Paul Lazarsfeld et al. in 1944 and elaborated by Elihu Katz and Lazarsfeld in 1955 and subsequent publications. Lowery and DeFleur argue the book was much more than a simple research report: it was an effort to interpret the authors' research within a framework of conceptual schemes, theoretical issues, and research findings drawn broadly from the scientific study of small groups. Unlike the hypodermic needle model, which considers mass media effects to be direct, the two-step flow model stresses human agency. According to Lazarsfeld and Katz, mass media information is channelled to the "masses" through opinion leadership. The people with most access to media, and having a more literate understanding of media content, explain and diffuse the content to others. Based on the two-step flow hypothesis, the term "personal influence" came to illustrate the process intervening between the media's direct message and the audience's reaction to that message. Opinion leaders tend to be similar to those they influence—based on personality, interests, demographics, or socio-economic factors. These leaders tend to influence others to change their attitudes and behaviors. The two-step theory refined the ability to predict how media messages influence audience behavior and explains why certain media campaigns do not alter audiences' attitudes. This hypothesis provided a basis for the multi-step flow theory of mass communication.

Lazarsfeld and Katz: Paul Lazarsfeld and Elihu Katz are considered to be the founders of functional theory and their book *Personal Influence* (1955) is considered to be the handbook to the theory.

Paul Felix Lazarsfeld: One of the first to embark on Communications research was the first to introduce the difference between 'administrative research' and 'critical research' in regards to the media. Critical research he believed, criticizes the media institutions themselves for the perspective ways they serve dominant social groups. Critical research favours interspersive and inductive methods of inquiry. Lazarsfeld's study of the 1940 presidential election was published as *The People's Choice* (1944). During the research revealed information about the psychological and social processes that influence voting decisions. The study also uncovered an influence process that Lazarsfeld called "opinion leadership." He concluded that there is a multistep flow of information from the mass media to persons who serve as opinion leaders, which then is passed on to the general public. He called this communication process the "two-step flow of communication."

**Elihu Katz:** A professor in the School for Communication at the University of Pennsylvania collaborated in 1955 with Lazarsfeld, in research to observe the flow of influence at the intersections of mass and interpersonal communication and wrote their book *Personal Influence*. Katz pursued Lazarsfeld's research in a study of the flow of information. This is the basis of *Personal Influence*. Katz and Lazarsfeld concluded that: ... the traditional image of the

mass persuasion process must make room for 'people' as intervening factors between the stimuli of the media and resultant opinions, decisions, and actions." Published Works on the Theory: The People's Choice: The presidential election 1940 questioned as to whether President Franklin Roosevelt would seek his third term in office. Funded by grants from the Rockefeller Foundation, Life magazine, and the pollster Elmo Roper, Columbia's Office of Radio Research conducted a new kind of study of voting. It was based on a panel study of 2,400 voters in Erie County, Ohio. Paul Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet supervised 15 interviewers, who from May-October interviewed the strategically selected 2,400 members of the community several different times in order to document their decision making process during the campaign. They focused on what factors would influence their decisions as the campaign progressed. The People's Choice, a book based on this study presented the theory of "the two-step flow of communications," which later came to be associated with the so-called "limited effects model" of mass media: the idea that ideas often flow from radio and print to local "opinion leaders" who in turn pass them on to those with more limited political knowledge "opinion followers." The conclusion of the research explained that sometimes person-to-person communication can be more effective than traditional media mediums such as newspaper, TV, radio etc. This idea developed further in the book Personal Influence. Personal Influence: In 1944, Paul Lazarsfeld contacted McFadden Publications in regards to his first book, The People's Choice. The two collaborated forming a mutually beneficial partnership in which McFadden saw a way to financially profit from advertising to the female population and Lazarsfeld saw a way to gain more information on social influence . Out of this came the study conducted by the Bureau of Applied Social Research in which 800 female residents of Decatur, Illinois, were interviewed through panel interviews to discover what and who primarily influenced their decision making. Lazarsfeld worked with Robert Merton and thus hired C. Wright Mills to head the study. Another part of the research team, Thelma Ehrlich Anderson, trained local Decatur women to administer surveys to targeted women in town. By 1955. The Decatur study was published as part of Elihu Katz and Lazarsfeld's book Personal Influence. The book concluded that ultimately, face-to-face interaction is more influential than traditional media influence and thus confirmed the two-step flow model of communication.

**Wiki:** The two-step flow of communication hypothesis was first introduced by Paul Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet in The People's Choice, a 1944 study focused on the process of decision-making during a Presidential election campaign. These researchers expected to find empirical support for the direct influence of media messages on voting intentions. They were surprised to discover, however, that informal, personal contacts were mentioned far more frequently than exposure to radio or newspaper as sources of influence on voting behaviour. Armed with this data, Katz and Lazarsfeld developed the two-step flow theory of mass communication. This theory asserts that information from the media moves in two distinct stages. First, individuals (opinion leaders) who pay close attention to the mass media and its messages receive the information. Opinion leaders pass on their own interpretations in addition to the actual media content. The term 'personal influence' was coined to refer to the process intervening between the media's direct message and the audience's ultimate reaction to that message. Opinion leaders are quite influential in getting people to change their attitudes and behaviours and are quite similar to those they influence. The two-step flow theory has improved our understanding of how the mass media influence decision-making. The theory refined the ability to predict the influence of media messages on audience behaviour, and it helped explain why certain media campaigns may have failed to alter audience attitudes and behaviour. The two-step flow theory gave way to the multi-step flow theory of mass communication or diffusion of innovation theory.

Criticisms: The original two-step flow hypothesis—that ideas flow from the media to opinion leaders and then to less active sections of the population—has been criticized and negated by myriad consequent studies. Findings from Deutschmann and Danielson assert, “we would urge that the Katz-Lazarsfeld two-stage flow hypothesis, as a description of the initial information process, be applied to mass communication with caution”.(14) They find substantial evidence that initial mass media information flows directly to people on the whole and is not relayed by opinion leaders. Furthermore, the two-step hypothesis does not adequately describe the flow of learning. Everett Rogers’ “Diffusion of Innovations” cites one study in which two-thirds of respondents accredited their awareness to the mass media rather than face-to-face communication. Similarly, critics argue that most of Lazarsfeld’s findings pertain to learning factors involved with general media habits rather than the learning of particular information. Both findings suggest a greater prevalence of a one-step flow of communication. However, Lazarsfeld’s two-step hypothesis is an adequate description to understand the media’s influence on belief and behaviour. Troldahl finds that media exposure is a first step to introduce discussion, at which point opinion leaders initiate the second-step flow. These findings also realize opinion leader’s decisive role in the balance theory, which suggests that people are motivated to keep consistency among their current beliefs and opinions. If a person is exposed to new observations that are inconsistent with present beliefs, he or she is thrown into imbalance. This person will then seek advice from their opinion leader, to provide them with additional cognitions to bring them back into balance. In recent times sociological study of the media has been dominated by the theme of the relative powerlessness of the broadcasters. This strange conjunction of events is logical. Sociologists have failed to ask the critical questions that behind the idea of unimportance of mass media there is a faulty concept of ‘importance’ similar to the faulty concept of ‘power’. The dominant sociology of mass communication has been unable to grasp certain fundamental features of its subject and by doing so it has had the effect of justifying mass media ownership, control, and purpose. The Dominant Paradigm: This has been called the ‘received knowledge’ of ‘personal influence’ and has taken attention from the power of the media to perform its role as mediator between two conflicting sources. Media sociology has highlighted the recalcitrant audience and their resistance to media messages and not their dependency. It has studied media effects so narrowly that the results are flimsy. It defines short-term effects as important only because these effects are measurable and thus deflected more significant meanings of mass media production. Hard data is sought to satisfy anyone and no one when it would be better to seek hard questions. By studying only measurable effects experimentally or in surveys it has put the methodological cart before the theoretical horse. Thus, many years of research on ‘effects’ of mass media has produced little theory and few findings. The field of ‘mass media research’ has been certifying as ‘normal’ what it should have been investigating as ‘problematic’, namely the vast reach and scope of the instruments of mass broadcasting, especially television. By emphasising effects on ‘attitudes’ and loosely defined ‘behavior’ it has ignored the reality that mass broadcasting exists in corporate housing under state supervision. The important questions are ‘who wants media?’ and ‘for what purpose?’ Has ‘mass broadcasting’ created institutional configurations and has existing institutions such as schools, politics, family or sport been altered in structure, goals or social meaning and how have these institutions used the media to shape its products? Further questions should be; has the prevalence of broadcasting changed the conduct of politics, how does it affect social structure? How does the wide reach of TV into millions of living rooms affect social structure? These questions have been skirted, by accepting the existing institutional order; the field has inadvertently avoided the question of valuation: does TV fulfill or frustrate social interest? By ignoring such questions the field has made itself useful to the obvious beneficiaries of mass media broadcasting. The Dominant Paradigm and Its Defects: Lazarsfeld contention that the effects of media are not important in the formation of public opinion which he demonstrates by the ‘two step flow of communications’ (the idea that

messages reach people not directly but indirectly as 'media messages' are interpreted by leaders for audiences.) This paradigm pays close attention to the variables (especially 'relations') between signifier and signified. The audience are defined as interrelated individuals rather than isolated targets in a mass society. Effects are measured as changes over time. Lazarsfeld developed a methodology or paradigm but in what sense does is this methodology or paradigm dominant? A dominant paradigm should have three major tendencies of thought a) identifies important areas of investigation in a field; b) exploits certain methodology; c) produces results. The two-step-flow of communication, the idea that opinion leaders mediate between mass media and audience. The paradigm is worthy of closer re-examination. The paradigm implies that structural (institutional) impact is lost in the process and subsequently the media impact is reinterpreted by 'leaders' who then distribute their impressions.

The course of mass media theory has to be understood as a historical process. All theories have three meta theoretical conditions; a) the nature of the theory; b) the normal worldview; c) actual social, political, and technological conditions. The dominant paradigm has to be understood as an intersection of all these factors. The Hypodermic Theory: This is a theory of society and the mass media within it. In the hypodermic model mass communicators 'inject' ideas into vulnerable individuals. Hypodermic Needle Theory Explained: (Direct influence via mass media) Or: Magic Bullet Theory. History and Orientation: The "hypodermic needle theory" implied mass media had a direct, immediate, and powerful effect on its audiences. The mass media in the 1940s and 1950s were perceived as a powerful influence on behavior change. Several factors contributed to this "strong effects" theory of communication, including: the fast rise and popularization of radio and television, the emergence of the persuasion industries, such as advertising and propaganda, the Payne Fund studies of the 1930s, which focused on the impact of motion pictures on children, and Hitler's monopolization of the mass media during WWII to unify the German public behind the Nazi party Core Assumptions and Statements: The theory suggests that the mass media could influence a very large group of people directly and uniformly by 'shooting' or 'injecting' them with appropriate messages designed to trigger a desired response. Both images used to express this theory (a bullet and a needle) suggest a powerful and direct flow of information from the sender to the receiver. The bullet theory graphically suggests that the message is a bullet, fired from the "media gun" into the viewer's "head." With similarly emotive imagery the hypodermic needle model suggests that media messages are injected straight into a passive audience, which is immediately influenced by the message. They express the view that the media is a dangerous means of communicating an idea because the receiver or audience is powerless to resist the impact of the message. There is no escape from the effect of the message in these models. The population is seen as a sitting duck. People are seen as passive and are seen as having a lot media material "shot" at them. People end up thinking what they are told because there is no other source of information. New assessments that the Magic Bullet Theory was not accurate came out of election studies in "The People's Choice," (Lazarsfeld, Berelson and Gaudet, 1944/1968). The project was conducted during the election of Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1940 to determine voting patterns and the relationship between the media and political behavior. The majority of people remained untouched by the propaganda; interpersonal outlets brought more influence than the media. The effects of the campaign were not all-powerful to where they persuaded helpless audiences uniformly and directly, which is the very definition of what the magic bullet theory does. As focus group testing, questionnaires, and other methods of marketing effectiveness testing came into widespread use; and as more interactive forms of media (e.g.: internet, radio call-in shows, etc.) became available, the magic bullet theory was replaced by a variety of other, more instrumental models, like the two step of flow theory and diffusion of innovations theory. Conceptual Model: Magic bullet theory model (Source: Katz & Lazarsfeld (1955)) Scope and Application: Mass media: The classic example of the application of the Magic Bullet Theory was

illustrated on October 30, 1938 when Orson Welles and the newly formed Mercury Theatre group broadcasted their radio edition of H.G. Wells' "War of the Worlds." On the eve of Halloween, radio programming was interrupted with a "news bulletin" for the first time. What the audience heard was that Martians had begun an invasion of Earth in a place called Grover's Mill, New Jersey. It became known as the "Panic Broadcast" and changed broadcast history, social psychology, civil defense and set a standard for provocative entertainment. Approximately 12 million people in the United States heard the broadcast and about one million of those actually believed that a serious alien invasion was underway. A wave of mass hysteria disrupted households, interrupted religious services, caused traffic jams, and clogged communication systems. People fled their city homes to seek shelter in more rural areas, raided grocery stores and began to ration food. The nation was in a state of chaos, and this broadcast was the cause of it. Media theorists have classified the "War of the Worlds" broadcast as the archetypal example of the Magic Bullet Theory. This is exactly how the theory worked, by injecting the message directly into the "bloodstream" of the public, attempting to create a uniform thinking. The effects of the broadcast suggested that the media could manipulate a passive and gullible public, leading theorists to believe this was one of the primary ways media authors shaped audience perception. Behaviorist Assumptions And Damaged Findings: It is important to remember that 'effects' of mass media, according to media theorists, are arguably short lived and so any findings in their research have little long term consequences. These effects are fourfold; immediate, short term, long term and institutional. The method of 'personal influence' study (two step flow and hypodermic) demands their own critique beginning with their 'taken for granted assumptions': (1) the exercise of power through mass media is presumed to be comparable to the exercise of power in face-to-face situations. The assumption can be challenged in that audiences may be influenced by mass media but it is reciprocal. Media too can be influenced by audience. Media are part of the 'great chain of being' in which everyone, indeed everything, is in its duly and divinely appointed place. (2) Power is to be assessed in case studies of discrete incidents. The occasion of influence was the face-to-face encounter in which individual A commended attitude A to individual B thus A is an opinion leader. Power may be a free flowing marketplace commodity. (3) The unit of influence is short term, which can be attributed to media intervention. (4) Attitude change: If the respondent had 'changed mind' as a result of influence then it is necessary to ascertain was it a fresh change or a return to an old attitude? Reinforcement of opinion is as crucial as change or introduction to a specific ideology but these can only occur where there is an opinion to reinforce or oppose. It cannot occur in the absence of opinion. The media appear to be extremely effective in creating opinions. (5) Followers as opinion leaders. (Opinion leading is, in itself) an act of following (one follows an opinion). Empirical Failings and Discrepancies: We now need to confront the specific theory of 'personal influence' and how it fails its intended purpose. The general theoretical conclusion that 'ideas often flow from radio and print to opinion leaders and from them to the less active sections of the population' is seen to be more wrong than right. Not every opinion will change and many of the changes (not the changers) were made without any personal contact and thus dependent on mass media. The Theory Limits In Time: The findings of 'personal influence' are distorted in that they were applicable prior to the arrival of television. It says nothing about the force of television in the domain of political consciousness and political conduct. A larger question arises here too; the confusion of synchronic and diachronic dimensions. The snapshot taken in 1945 was assumed to be general and valid across boundaries of time. This transposition is not justifiable. The theory of mass media can only be studied in terms of 'full exposure' and not 'more' or 'less' exposure between individuals. The long-term purpose of such research is fruitless when considered outside of the historical context. Today's mass media is different to the past and thus, in terms of relevance, the past no longer applies. Wiki: In linguistics, a synchronic analysis is one that views linguistic phenomena only at one point in time, usually the present, though a synchronic analysis of a historical language form is also

possible. This may be distinguished from diachronic, which regards a phenomenon in terms of developments through time. Diachronic analysis is the main concern of historical linguistics; most other branches of linguistics are concerned with some form of synchronic analysis. Synchronic and diachronic approaches can reach quite different conclusions. For example, a Germanic strong verb like English sing-sang-sung is irregular when viewed synchronically: the native speaker's brain processes these as learned forms, whereas the derived forms of regular verbs are processed quite differently, by the application of productive rules (for example, walk-walked). This is an insight of psycholinguistics, relevant also for language didactics, both of which are synchronic disciplines. However a diachronic analysis will show that the strong verb is the remnant of a fully regular system of internal vowel changes; historical linguistics seldom uses the category "irregular verb." Roots of the Paradigm: Personal Influence started by assuming that mass media influence is comparable to face-to-face influence and that power exists as discrete occasions of short-term attitude changes or behavioural choice? To answer such questions as this one we need to investigate and understand a number of ideological predispositions and orientations; administrative point of view, marketing orientation and social democratic ideology. The Administrative Point of View: Questions are posed from high administrative positions within institutions. The sociologists will explore the problems associated with such powers and their control over audiences. The search is always on for predictive research and from the administrators viewpoint this is the most favorable premise of any inquiry. Lazarsfeld, himself with a long-term background in Administration, recognised the problem of relationship between media and academics when he once stated; "At what point will the commercial partners find some necessary conclusion too hard to take and at what point will they shut us off from the indispensable sources of funds and data?" Lazarsfeld clearly acknowledges his indebtedness to the media and sacrifices his independence. The administrative point of view is clearly considered. The Marketing Orientation: Mass communications research developed very largely in response to market requirements. In the 1930s when Lazarsfeld arrived in America most national brands were multiplying and resorting to national advertising campaigns. They needed to know what to say, how often, over which channels and to whom. The consumer society was exploding and by 1945 it was in full swing. As radio progressed on popularity audience research (on the marketing of commodities) would be equally as important as hardware research (on the production of commodities). For this they needed demographical figures, audience figures, and research data and Lazarsfeld was in the right place at the right time to cater to this need. However, regardless of background and location Lazarsfeld and his equals operating under the command of those who needed such research had to create satisfactory techniques were inevitably conditioned by the practicality of their financiers' interests. Can such condition create unquestionable tactics? Much of the work of marketing orientation remains undone and has become media sociology. The Ideological Field: Social Democracy: Theorists do not live by theory alone. Facts do not stand by themselves; they have to be justified by an ideological position. Such a position can be conscious or unconscious and, if the former, more or less public. Social democracy and the work of Lazarsfeld are linked by biographically and theoretically. The marketing orientation and at least one important variant of European social democracy share a common conception of 'the people' and it is at first appearance paradoxical; they are both sovereign and passive. High consumption capitalism justifies itself in terms of mass satisfaction, and insists that the market is the true measure of democratic expression. The people are consumers and choose from the possibilities available and when they choose they confirm the legitimacy of the supplier. Put another way, social democracy requires marketing orientation, a rigorous procedure for giving people what they want. However, as is the case with young students seeking career guidance advice, it is not only expected but appreciated when guidance is proffered. Conclusion: Over the course of the 20<sup>th</sup> century capitalism would work to present consumer sovereignty as the equivalent of freedom, in the common view and the common parlance. (If you do not like one thing, choose

another). The assumption that choice among the givens amounts to freedom becomes the root of the worldwide rationale of the global corporations (the global shopping centre). A society develops and continues to develop by freedom of choice but such choices are manipulative and promise much but deliver little. By ignoring these choice processes Sociologists have done their share to consolidate and legitimize the regime of capitalism. That the dominant paradigm is now proving vulnerable to critique is a measure of decline of capitalist legitimacy, commercial values and the political self-confidence of the rulers.

## 7.2 ALTERNATIVE PARADIGM

The alternative paradigm emphasizes not only material development but also the development of values and cultures. Where development communication interventions are concerned, it emphasises the small media operating in networks and the use of grassroots communication approaches. According to this paradigm, grassroots participation reinforces the chances that communities will adopt activities appropriate for them. One of the models attached to this paradigm is the methodology of community media. The concept of interactivity, with the small media as its operational instrument, makes possible the endogenous acquisition of knowledge and skills within the framework of a search for solutions and the communication process. This is referred to as recourse to a methodology of community media, whose principal elements are:

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

### **An alternative paradigm for development**

It was a strong consensus on the proactive management of the economy to ensure economic development and full employment, together with social security and universal access to health services and education. The counterview, championed by Friedrich Hayek, presented the state-ensured collective guarantee of basic social needs as an anathema and equated unregulated markets with freedom. But this was widely seen as the untenable view of an extremist fringe. However, Hayek's ideas began gradually to penetrate the political establishment, eroding older patrician sensibilities, and academic economics. Vital to this success were a tacit agreement among the proponents of neoliberalism to set aside differences on other issues and promote the central message that free markets provide the best outcomes – in a few key words, – liberalisation, deregulation and privatisation. When poor economic performance followed the 1973 oil price crisis the neoliberals got their chance. They secured first the Republican nomination in the United States and leadership of the Conservative Party in



the United Kingdom (UK) and then election victories in both countries. This led to the era of 'Reaganomics' – the high-water mark of neoliberalism. The US and UK governments included leading proponents of neoliberalism in senior positions, and were able to promote the model globally through the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. Through the course of the 1980s, with the support of the Fund and Bank, neoliberalism became the dominant economic paradigm globally – not least in most LMICs, which had previously followed more interventionist economic models.<sup>2</sup> During this period, LMICs faced a multitude of major economic shocks, including massive increases in energy prices and interest rates, collapsing prices for commodity exports and the virtual drying up of most forms of external financing. In these circumstances, most LMICs, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and Latin America, had little choice but to accept the policy conditions dictated by the Fund and Bank, which came to be embodied as structural adjustment programmes (SAPs), on which most forms of financing were conditional. Since the early 1990s, the model has been tempered by greater attention to social issues after the devastating human consequences of SAPs became apparent. Since 1999, adjustment programmes have also been replaced in low-income countries by Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), which are supposed to be developed through a country-driven process with a high level of engagement by civil society. In practice, however, PRSPs have been very variable in terms of country ownership and genuine engagement with civil society and have generally resulted in policies little different from SAPs. Attention to social issues has been largely confined to relatively limited 'safety net' programmes and only partial protection of health and education expenditure budgets within an essentially unchanged underlying economic model. The discretion available to national governments has been seriously constrained by macroeconomic parameters set by the IMF, including ceilings on government expenditure. In addition, the values embodied in SAPs have been internalised by low income- country (LIC) governments and elites, leaving less and less room for alternative approaches. The policy discretion available to countries has also been constrained by the fact that trade liberalisation policies and the governance of private property rights are now subject to international agreements brokered by the World Trade Organization (WTO) and bilateral trade and investment agreements with rich countries on which LMICs have become increasingly dependent. While neoliberal policies were promoted to renew economic growth after the slowdown of the 1970s, they have generally failed to deliver on this promise. Economic performance has been disappointing in Latin America and disastrous in sub-Saharan Africa and those 'transition economies' which have changed their policies towards the neoliberal approach. Those in greatest need have benefited little. The star performers economically, and important drivers of global economic growth, have been East Asian countries, especially China, which have mostly pursued different economic models.

### **The key challenges of the twenty-first century**

Humanity faces three profound challenges:

- eradicating poverty;
- fulfilling the right of all people to good health;
- bringing climate change under control.

All three challenges incorporate problems that are rooted in the global political economy. The coexistence of profound social problems resulting from poverty and an equally extreme environmental crisis associated with excessive *aggregate* consumption can only be explained

by a grossly unequal distribution of global resources. This raises fundamental questions about the appropriateness and viability of the model that has dominated economic policy at the global level, based on liberalisation and commercial globalisation.

## THE EMERGENCE OF A NEW PARADIGM IN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

### *Shifting grounds in Scientific Thought*

The first widespread notion of paradigm revolution was suggested by Thomas Kuhn in 1962 (Kuhn, 1970); a paradigm was intended to describe the nature of scientific debates, but the concept is so loosely and inconsistently defined throughout the text that today's canalization of the term comes with no surprise. I will base my discussion on the notion of 'dominant social paradigm' popularized by Pirages & Ehrlich (1974), who described it as a prominent worldview, model or frame of reference through which individuals in a society interpret the meaning of the external world. Therefore, instead of applying it indiscriminately to any new invention or idea, I will refer to paradigm shifts from an epistemological and philosophical perspective, that is, I will use the term to describe changes in our understanding of knowledge and of the ways in which it is constructed and validated. Some scholars have argued that "the American's belief in progress, growth and prosperity; faith in science and technology; commitment to a laissez-faire economy and private property rights; and view of nature as something that must be subdued and made useful", are among the core elements of this society's dominant social paradigm (Beus & Dunlap, 1990). This perspective is in fact rooted the western scientific rationality, based on Newton's mathematics, Bacon's scientific method, and Descartes' philosophy, developed in the seventeenth century. The material world was regarded as an assemblage of separate objects into a 'clockwork universe' that could be understood and predicted by observing its elementary parts. Copernicus and Galileo had already laid the cornerstones that brought about the change from the religious world-view that dominated the Middle Ages; theological explanations that regarded the earth as the center of a universe controlled by God, were replaced by mathematical models that described the universe as a predictable machine operating in continuous space and time. Newton built on the systematic, empirical and inductive experimentation designed by Bacon, and on the The emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication. Rational mathematical and deductive analysis described by Descartes, in order to develop a scientific method that has been the foundation of science ever since (Capra, 1982). The first major indication of the breakdown of this dominant paradigm may come from research in physics in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, when Einstein questioned the Newtonian principles of absolute time and space and replaced them with the theory of relativity (Einstein, 1934). A few years later Werner Heisenberg (Heisenberg, 1958) described the Principle of Uncertainty, according to which the exactitude of a measurement of atomic particles is only relative, and Niels Bohr described the Principle of Complementarity, after he realized electrons behaved as matter when he wanted to observe them as matter, and as waves when he wanted to observe them as waves (Bohr, 1958). The nature of the physical world was found to be not only relative, but the findings depended on the lens the observer used to look at it. The breakthrough of relativity and quantum mechanics, introducing the idea of uncertainty and the role of subjectivity in scientific knowledge, brought about a whole new understanding of the way we construct knowledge about reality around us, from the very core of so-called hard science: physics (Capra, 1975).

These changes helped to clarify the fact that reality is paradoxical, and far more complex than what the mechanistic model of Newtonian science could account for. More recent contributions from different fields, especially from feminists, literary critics and

environmentalists, have further explicitly elaborated on the deconstruction of the Cartesian rationality and the constitution of new referents to understand the implications of the changes in other areas of knowledge and of life (Beus & Dunlap, 1990; Capra, 1982; Capra, 1996; Capra & Steindl-Rast, 1991; Harding, 1986; Kloppenburg, 1991; Uphoff, 1992). The shift from a particularistic to a holistic world view, which regards processes as more important than structures and which does not necessarily suppose an objective observer independent from reality but assumes the observer as part of the observed reality, has opened the way to a new, emerging, multidisciplinary, and systemic world view: one in which knowledge is no longer based on fundamental and unquestionable building blocks and absolute truths, but rather one constituted as a web of The emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication relationships that provide approximate, contextually and historically bound descriptions. The following chart summarizes the paradigm shift in science: This epistemological paradigm shift has multiple ramifications and faces, and I will not go into more detail about it as a general concept. I will rather focus on the manifestations and the consequences of the shift for development and for development communication, in what has been called the emergence of a new paradigm, Another Development.

### ***Paradigm shifts in Communication and Development***

In the 1980s many Third World countries were already questioning the traditional model of development and development communication, aiming for more people-centered, participatory, and locally appropriate models. A new approach has been slowly emerging, and it is gaining increasingly widespread acceptance. The new development the emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication paradigm recognizes a multiplicity of paths to self-defined and contextually appropriate development solutions, based on the participation of local community organizations in the definition and implementation of development programs. As a result, but also a cause of this shift, there has been a general consolidation of local popular and non-government organizations, important sectors of the civil society, as key stakeholders and actors in national development policies and interventions and in the democratization processes in those societies.

What we call the traditional model of development is a by-product of the Cold War. In the middle of the twentieth century, the U.S. economy was being driven by the impetus of the post-war, and the fear of the Soviet expansion was driving its foreign policy. During this time, systematic efforts were initiated to assist the development of Third World nations, mostly as a way to bend their political and economic systems towards the western model of modernization, and away from the communist model promoted by the Soviet Union. Two main categories of concepts were used to determine modernization: modern attitudes, and modern economies.

Economic modernization was defined by the presence of advanced technology, material prosperity and political stability (Hobart, 1993), and was measured using quantifiable criteria. Gross national product and per-capita income, the use of capital-intensive technologies and centralized planning for industrialization and urbanization became the most common indicators to assess progress and modernization (Malikhao & Servaes, 1994; Rogers, 1976). The communication practices that accompanied the development efforts reflected this general orientation: mass media were used in an attempt to persuade the people in the Third World to adopt the modern attitudes and technologies that were delivered to them as the solution to underdevelopment.

The early models of communication in use were generally linear and mechanistic, and claimed that mass media had strong and homogeneous persuasive effects on audiences. These came to be known as the magic bullet or hypodermic needle theories, which suggested that "mass media could influence a very large group of people directly and uniformly by 'shooting' or 'injecting' them with appropriate messages designed to trigger a desired response." (Infante, Rancer, & Womack, 1993 p.394). Nonetheless, the emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication after WWII, new research showed that the effects of mass media were in fact indirect and weak. In this way, powerful effects theories were replaced by minimal effects theories, which contributed to refine the understanding of communication processes. The hypodermic and bullet theories were thus slowly forgotten, and interpersonal influences, audiences' choices, and other social and psychological variables entered into play. Nonetheless, development communication theories and practices have had a very hard time abandoning the 'strong effects' approach to mass media and persuasion. Development programs in the Third World for a long time continued to use a hypodermic model of communication, as if development communication had stayed fixed on the early persuasion theories of mass communication. Bela Mody describes her surprise when she studied development communication, after having worked in commercial advertising:

...in the late 1960s, I learned that the media had actually been less powerful than expected. The mass media had provided information, but families, friends and neighbours ultimately influenced the decisions people made and the actions they took. I also read the optimistic writings of Daniel Lerner, Wilbur Schramm, and Everett Rogers, who claimed that the mass media could transform the Third World. Who was right, I wondered (Mody, 1991 p.11). Development communication had begun as a discipline when communication theories were only beginning to be systematically articulated and it seems it embraced those early communication theories heartily, with little regard to the shifts in the consolidation process that were to follow in the field of communication. It is now clear that modernization, measured in terms of the adoption of modern attitudes and modern technologies for economic progress, which had been regarded as indicators of development, is not an adequate approach to human development altogether. In most Third World countries economic growth has resulted in deepening inequality, making local elites more powerful at the expense of the majority of the population, and increasing dependence on foreign machinery, technology and capital. The expected 'trickle down' of benefits to the population has not been realized, and the living conditions of the majority have generally worsened (Schramm, 1964). The result has been an increase in the income gap (both at the international and the national levels), continued high unemployment, and deterioration of the limited and fragile environment the emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication in the planet. The centralized planning and capital-intensive technologies have made programs unsustainable in the long term, and foreign debt has accumulated, making Third World countries exporters of capital, to service the debt contracted for development programs that were supposed to help them. It became clear that other measures had to be considered in the definition of progress, such as food, shelter, clothing, employment, land reform, education, health, and most urgent, a redefinition of growth (Kothari, 1988; Vilanilam, 1993). The world view behind these efforts, the dominant social paradigm driving the impetus for modernization, was based on a reductionist scientific rationality. "A largely neglected aspect of ... development is the part played by western scientific knowledge. Not only is indigenous knowledge ignored or dismissed, but the nature of the problem of underdevelopment and its solution are defined by reference to this world-ordering knowledge" (Hobart, 1993 p.1). Furthermore, some argue there is a more general crisis in the idea of history and progress. "If human events do not make up a unilinear continuum, then one cannot regard them as proceeding towards an end, realizing a rational progress of improvement, education and emancipation" (Vattimo, 1992 p.3). This is not far from Lyotard's

definition of post modernity, which is based on “incredulity towards met narratives, especially that of progress and its variants”; he further insists there is a turn to the “little stories”, the localized experiences and the validation of difference (in Poster, 1995 p.37). As we shall see, the arguments of the postmodernists have some common points with those exhibited in the alternative paradigm for development and development communication, as well as in the emerging reconfiguration of the civil society in the democratization process.

### ***A New Focus in Development Communication***

In 1973 the president of the World Bank delivered in Nairobi a now famous speech, calling for a reassessment of the development strategies that had been practiced. He argued that development efforts had been unsuccessful in improving the lives of the population of the Third World, partially blaming the piecemeal approach to solving problems independently of their contexts. He called for a multidisciplinary, integrated the emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication rural approach that would confront the ensemble of development tasks as a whole (World Bank, 1973). The role of communication began to be perceived in a more complex manner, from the unidirectional injection of modern attitudes for the adoption of modern technologies, to ‘bridging the communication gap’ between experts and specialists on several areas of technical knowledge on one hand, and the population who could apply that knowledge to improve their living conditions, on the other. This new role, still based on persuasion of ‘the other’ about the benefits of externally defined solutions, was less reliant on mass communications and more on interpersonal relations, and used communication media for the diffusion of innovations in support of the development effort. But this diffusion of innovations was still based on persuasion of the receivers to adopt new technologies, attitudes and behaviors characteristic of a development generally conceived as a western-style, economy-driven model of modernization (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971). One section of the Food and Agriculture Organization Information Division, the Development Support Communication Branch, took the notion of diffusion of innovations and of communication in support of development one step further, introducing for the first time in large international development agencies the need to take into account the local perceptions and capacities of the intended beneficiaries, and stimulate their participation in the implementation of the programs (FAO, 1989). This new approach, which they call development support communication, has slowly gained acceptance in other circles, and has been accepted by various development agencies and institutions around the world. The notion of local participation in development had been identified as important as early as 1976. In recent publications, Everett Rogers still quotes his own 1976 text: "Development is now defined as a widely participatory process of social change in society, intended to bring about both social and material advancement (including greater equality, freedom and other valued qualities) for the majority of the people through gaining greater control over their environment" (Rogers, 1976, in Rogers, 1993 p.41). The introduction of local perceptions and capabilities, and the importance of securing The emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication local participation in the implementation of the programs, was an initial step towards the changes that were to follow in the notions underlying development and development communication. In this way, Development Support Communication can be considered a transitional stage in the paradigm shift, combining interpersonal communication and mass media for the introduction and diffusion of innovations, new technologies and practices that are thought to bring about development, but taking into account the needs and capabilities of the local populations and promoting their participation in the program implementation, in order to make their adoption of the changes more contextually appropriate and sustainable. Nair & White have explored the historical trends of social science paradigms. In their analysis, they point out that modernization has been the unifying theory for

all social sciences since the 1940s, with the underlying concept of unification. A period of 'reflection, debate, and conceptual chaos' between 1960 and 1980 was characterized by 'an overreaction of polar extremes', while diversification and pluralism are characteristic of the later part of the century. The authors examine theories in political science, socio-cultural sciences, communication, development, and development communication, to conclude the time is come for development to be focused on multiplicity, and development communication to be receiver-oriented, participatory, and aimed at systems-renewal (Nair & White, 1994). Analyzing the experiences of a complex irrigation program in Sri Lanka, Norman Uphoff clearly makes the link between the dominant notions of development and the shifts in the physical sciences..If natural scientists find their theories still evolving, this should be true also for social scientists. The materialistic ideas that have shaped our perceptions of the social universe may not be as valid as we think, being based on too-limited notions of what the physical universe is like...A social science shaped by Newtonian concepts of mechanistic cause and effect, of abstract impersonal forces acting at a distance, of linear relationships where all parts are proportional and interchangeable is bound to be misleading. Elegant, parsimonious conclusions can be derived from such assumptions, but they are not helpful for promoting the kinds of developmental changes that were needed... The emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication. We need a social science oriented to the puzzles and potentials of energy rather than to the stable state of equilibrium or the dismal prognosis of entropy... A post-Newtonian social science looks beyond reductionist either-or/zero-sum thinking to tap the social energy to be found in collective action and non-material realities. The methods and assumptions of positivist social science do not do justice to values, ideas and motive forces like human solidarity. (Uphoff, 1992 pp.14, 303). While the concept of a post-Newtonian science can sound odd, the changes in the living conditions in Gal Oya, a formerly dry, distant and abandoned region of Sri Lanka, are very real to the people who live there; their process can be documented and lessons drawn from their experience: this is the intention of Uphoff's text, written in first person, maintaining the personal travel journal style of the author as he lived through the development process (Uphoff, 1992). Clearly, the demise of the existence of an absolute truth does not mean there is no reality 'out there'; only that there is no single way to apprehend and understand it, and that any description of it is, at best, approximate. What we need is a new understanding of the methods and tools to investigate social reality, since the classic experimental approach to understanding and predicting phenomena, especially social phenomena, is no longer useful (House, 1990; Lather, 1990; Smith, 1990a; Smith, 1990b).

The vast majority of the development programs designed and implemented until fairly recently not only had a western bias and an instrumental, mechanistic notion of communication, but they were programs based on the supposition of a single, predefined, scientific, and rational solution; a 'Newtonian' development based on the 'natural laws' of Western modernization, an externally defined path that people only needed to be convinced to follow in order to achieve progress and become developed. The fact that it was Western and capitalist instead of Eastern or communist is almost irrelevant—in fact, Soviet imperialism operated in much the same way, although the ideological content of the proposed changes was different. The external definition of priorities, problems and methods, and the implementation of externally-driven development programs, is perhaps the strongest drawback of the traditional paradigm, and the most salient feature that is changed in the new approaches to development, and to development communication. The emergence of a new paradigm in Development communication.

### ***Towards a Paradigm Shift***

The emerging paradigm in development communication includes the criticisms of the traditional notions of development and of communication. Although the practices in large multilateral institutions and international development organizations are slow in changing, there is a growing consensus among scholars and local practitioners about the characteristics of the model that is needed to replace the old one. The notion of Another Development, or the Multiplicity Paradigm, has been described by various scholars (Melkote, 1991; Nair & White, 1987; Nair & White, 1994). The concept and requirements of the new paradigm have been even endorsed by UNESCO and the UN Population Fund, with the publication of a conceptual and training guide with case studies, prepared by Mayo & Servaes (1994).

The key issues of a new understanding of development are the satisfaction of basic human needs, both material and non-material, through an endogenous process aimed at self-reliance and cooperation. The development process calls for local participation in the definition priorities and in the implementation of proposed solutions, which take into consideration the local knowledge and culture, and which are based on contextually appropriate choices of technologies, methods and practices. This requires the active participation of community-based and non-government organizations, important sectors of civil society, in the definition and implementation of development programs. Montufar warns that this approach may assume the organizations of the civil society to be more pro-state and the state to be more incapable of autonomous action than may be the case in most countries (Montufar, 1996). Nonetheless, the link between the new approach to development and the central role of the civil society is clear: they are interdependent, and each one helps to strengthen the other. To call the new paradigm in development 'participatory' may be misleading. The paradigm shift is not characterized by participation in itself, but by the multiplicity of the possible solutions, and by the need to base the choices on local participation, to make them locally contextualized and historically appropriate decisions. In this way, the limitations of an uncritical embrace of participation as panacea: what defines the new The emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication paradigm is not the participation, but the multiplicity and plurality of paths, among which locally and culturally appropriate choices have to be made. Participation has certainly gained an undisputed importance in the definition, design and implementation of development programs that are intended to be sustainable, locally appropriate, and contextually sensitive (Bunch, 1982; Chambers, Pacey, & Thrupp, 1989; Uphoff, 1992; Whyte, 1981). Furthermore, participatory communication practices have undeniably contributed to the self-expression of marginalized communities, to the empowerment of traditionally excluded and silenced sectors of society, and to the democratization of communication and of society at large (see, among others, \ (Melkote, 1991; Nair & White, 1993; Servaes, 1989; Thede & Ambrosi, 1991; White, Nair, & Ascroft, 1994). But I would submit that while such liberating and democratic effect is indeed possible, it is hardly an automatic consequence of participation.

Participation is, in itself, a difficult concept to operationalize. Cohen and Uphoff (1980) have suggested a framework for analyzing participation in development that is very useful for communication practices. They differentiate several dimensions of participation (what kind of participation, who participates, how they participate, in what context, and for what purpose), and define some of the characteristics of each one of them, which help to understand the complexity of the concept once applied to a concrete situation. There is a need to be more pragmatic and more realistic when thinking about participation and alternative practices. As Burnett would argue, there is a simplicity to the opposition between alternative and mainstream (and I would add, between participatory and top-down), that cannot be sustained any longer. "It is perhaps

more necessary than ever to unmask the weakness of an approach that cannot account for desire, pleasure, and the contradictory politics of incorporation which, it must be remembered, can be simultaneously experimental and coopted” (Burnett, 1995 p.234). Nonetheless, important international development institutions such as the World Bank and USAID, and various UN agencies are beginning to introduce participation as a The emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication key element in a people-centered development process, as is evidenced in some of their most recent publications (Colle, 1995). According to a recent World Bank document, there is significant evidence that participation improves the quality and sustainability of Bank operations, strengthens ownership and commitment of stakeholders, and contributes to capacity building and the empowerment of disadvantaged groups (World Bank, 1996 p.17). Participation can be easily coopted and manipulated (Díaz Bordenave, 1994), and is not, in itself, a guarantee for success. Some authors question the legitimacy of the participation processes these multilateral institutions promote, claiming it is only a superficial mention of the concept while retaining an externally defined modernization that takes advantage of local organizations to promote a neoliberal agenda (MacDonald, 1995). What is then the guarantee of success in the implementation of a development program? The only possible answer is there is none. With the demise of the grand narratives and the turn to the small stories and contextually-sensitive solutions, there is no formula for success; there is no formula about the right way to do development. Nonetheless, much will be accomplished if a constant attitude of supportive listening, creativity and flexibility is maintained. The very concept of success may be troublesome, as there are no permanent successes, nor are there permanent defeats (Uphoff, 1992). Keeping expectations low, on realistic objectives, and being persistent and creative, seem to be key elements to keep in mind (Bunch, 1982). Norman Uphoff speaks of ‘social energy’ as a positive-sum concept useful to think about social change. Social energy can be mobilized with ideas, which can be given without being lost; ideals, which help direct thinking towards common interests; and friendship, which leads people to mutually value each other’s welfare (Uphoff, 1992). Roland Bunch speaks of ‘enthusiasm’ as a driving force, and points out that success itself is a motor of enthusiasm. In order to generate enthusiasm, a program should start small and simple, be careful with the role of outsiders, teach local people to conduct small-scale trials, try not to meet all needs at the same time, and remain constantly aware of the level of villager participation (Bunch, 1982). In brief, as the emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication Moemeka points out, development processes cannot follow any one rule of thumb: they have to be tailor-made to each particular situation (Moemeka, 1994).

Under the Multiplicity Paradigm, a strong component of the development process is thus defined by the role of participation, but I have argued that participation alone is not the essential defining characteristic. The same distinction holds for development communication, but in far more complex and subtle ways. What is then the role of development communication? How does it take place? Let us start by looking at what researchers have identified to be the main characteristics of the communication practices under the Another Development paradigm. These are synthesized in the UNESCO manual in the following way:

- Deeper understanding of the nature of communication as an exchange of meaning (process and receiver centered);
- communication is two-way;
- trend towards participatory democracy;
- recognition of imbalance of communication resources;



trans nationalization & cultural synchronization;  
new understanding of what is happening within the nation states (complex  
relation of internal and external factors);

Impact of communication technologies (diffuse control in small media, centralized control in hi-tech); new understanding of integrated communication systems: mass media, folk systems, interpersonal channels (Malikhao & Servaes, 1994). This list includes two different kinds of issues: communication process issues, and issues concerning political implications of communication. Truly, communication acts are also political acts, as much as development programs are political acts too. I have already discussed the problem of the imbalance in communication resources earlier, and will now focus on the issues more directly linked with communication processes. In order to promote the kinds of development called for under the emerging paradigm, communication cannot be regarded as a mechanical process centered on delivering effective messages to audiences who need to be persuaded. Drawing from Malikhao & Servaes' summary presented above, the basic idea of communication in Another Development is the claim *to a new understanding of the nature of communication, based on a process and receiver-centered approach to two-way communication practices, integrating different media over which varying degrees of control are possible.*

The choice of communication media, from mass to interpersonal, from traditional folk media to new communication technologies, is part of the dialogue process that results in culturally and contextually appropriate and relevant media. But the most important realization is that the communication actions in themselves, the choice of the media, or the control over the production and distribution of messages, is not what is important. We are coming to the realization that meanings are not built into the particular media messages, but they are rather constructed by receivers: it is the local appropriations of the process and of the messages, and the collective actions resulting from the communication practices and the development programs, which are most important, as they give meaning and sense to the whole process. This issue will be especially important as access to new computer-mediated communication technologies become increasingly widespread in development communication practices. The relative unimportance of the content of the communication messages in them comes as a shock to alternative media producers and activists, who have been advocating the creation of alternative channels of expression for the disempowered sectors of society, the intended beneficiaries of development. While these practices have played an important role in the democratization of communication and in the strengthening of local practices and identities, the excessive focus on the messages has overlooked the idea that receivers are creative, active, and enact a variety of mechanisms of appropriation, identification and resistance in their processing of media messages. Here again we are confronted with the idea of multiplicity and uncertainty, the common thread of the paradigm shift I have been referring to. Communication theories have slowly shifted from their attempt to formulate global and general theories, to the formulation of trait-specific —interpersonal, mass, group and intercultural, and context-specific —family, health, risk, environment, etc., theories of communication (Infante et al., 1993). The refutation of positivism in communication research has opened the room for constructivist and critical approaches, which require new theoretical and methodological underpinnings (Chakravarti, 1991). The emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication.

Communication theories in mass media research have been recently grouped into three paradigms: social science (positivist), interpretive, and critical theory. While the social science

paradigm was dominant in mainstream journals (over 60% of the studies, as opposed to 34% of interpretive and only 6% of critical studies), it was no longer dominant in research journals (Potter, Cooper, & Dupagne, 1993).

In the same way, communication theory has been increasingly moving away from the linear and simplistic models of reception and persuasion, and closer to the multidimensional models in which messages are received and processed in interaction with the viewers' contexts, their previous experiences, expectations and values; from the grand narratives of Western development to the small stories of contextually-sensitive solutions. Early studies by Stuart Hall and the Center for Contemporary Cultural Studies had argued that audiences could receive messages and interpret them by accepting, negotiating, or opposing the meaning intended by the senders (Hall, Hobson, & Lowe, 1980; Hall & Jefferson, 1976). Even though it is clear that the receivers' options are limited by the 'medias cape', which is determined by the cultural industries (Proulx, 1994), the acknowledgment of the power of the receiver has gained more acceptance. Latin American theorists have taken the argument further, showing how messages are in fact appropriated from within the complex web of daily life and popular culture, in a hybrid process that is capable of mixing apparently contradictory and exclusive elements of the traditional and the modern, the old and the new, allowing them to live in an ever-changing state of cultural and temporal 'mis-matches', *des-tiempos*, characteristic of the Latin American modernization, a modernization without modernity (Garcia Canclini, 1989; Martin Barbero, 1987). In a recent book dedicated to analyzing visual communication, Ron Burnett goes deep into the deconstruction of the receiver's perceptions and creative interpretations of images and messages, linking the richness of images with the even larger richness of spectator-image relations. Without 'descending to an anarchic relativism', he argues that "interpretive strategies are developed and worked upon by viewers at all stages of their experience of images". He stresses the creativity of viewing, and points out that "there The emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication need be no particular source for the variety of understandings we develop in relation to images" (Burnett, 1995 p.135). He then argues that our experience of images is a projection process, and that images in themselves provide us with limited evidence of what we do with them: It is only when we recognize the workings of projection that we can move away from linear and quite reductive presumptions of control, manipulation and loss; much of what is immediately accessible through images is so fleeting that we are forced to work on what we see, moved to examine and go beyond the surface of the experiences we have with them; none of these activities is exclusive to the other and they intermingle to create unpredictable constellations of meaning; the image, both figuratively and metaphorically, represents a new and important site of subjectivity and identity (Burnett, 1995 p.209). Uses and appropriations of visual communication are not linear, mechanical, unequivocal. They are blended into a stream of meanings in particular contexts, by people who are actively and continuously re-creating their cultures and community values. In the new paradigm for development, locally and contextually relevant programs are implemented to improve the people's material and non-material well-being and to increase their participation in the construction of their public cultural truths. Development is no longer based on humanitarian relief actions or the implementation of externally-defined economic growth projects, but is rather aimed at strengthening people's movements and participatory democracy for cultural renewal, from a standpoint of pluralism and multiplicity.

Nair and White (1994) suggest a cultural renewal model in which development communication is an interfacing process based on supportive listening for the collective identification of goals (diagnostic process), alternative paths of solution (research process) and implementation of solutions (action process). The practitioner or community animator in

development communication is thus not a distant expert designing and creating media messages, but a day-to-day facilitator of the dialogue process leading from problem identification to collective action for its solution. A modified version of the authors' definition of cultural renewal regards it as a dynamic process of cultural and structural change animated by facilitators through supportive communication transactions amongst active participants in a specific cultural context. The emergence of a new paradigm in Development Communication

The cultural renewal model for participatory development communication is a timely contribution to the debates about the relationship between development, communication and culture, and offers concrete avenues to help operationalize participatory communication programs under the "Another Development" paradigm. In the cultural renewal model, culture is seen as an active and ever-changing context that lies at the root of any development effort; participatory processes aimed at renewing culture at the interface of promoting economic development activities will be more likely to succeed than traditional projects aimed at structural transformations alone. A framework for action is suggested, based on supportive communication and assisted by a cultural renewal facilitator. This framework, based on participatory processes in the diagnostic, research and action phases, rests on four basic dimensions: self reliance, power relations, cultural context and universal values. The final outcomes of cultural renewal programs are development processes that promote egalitarian, locally appropriate and eco-sensitive societies and structures. Thus, the role of the actors in development communication, be they message creators or receivers, development planners or beneficiaries, is a role that has fundamentally changed. As active, self-conscious subjects of communication and of development in society, they all have the legitimate right to participate in deciding not only what is to be done but how; not only which messages to create or listen to, but how to interpret them and apply them in their own context, for their own ends in the construction of their own public cultural truth. The ongoing shifts in development communication theory and practice may be seen as manifestations of the process I described as a paradigm shift in science, bringing about an explosion of meanings and multiplicity of perceived realities, none of which has claims to absolute truth. Under this light, we have to re-think the role of community animators and activists, in the local applications of development and development communication activities and programs.

### 7.3 SUMMARY

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

## 7.4 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the dominant paradigm.
2. Explain the Alternative paradigm.

## 7.5 Reference Books

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power

## Lesson-8

# REDEFINING THE CAUSES OF DEVELOPMENT

## 8.0 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Causes of Development

## STRUCTURE

### 8.1 Introduction

### 8.2 Small Technology and Radical Economist

### 8.3 Summary

### 8.4 Self Assessment Questions

### 8.5 Reference Books

## 8.1 INTRODUCTION

Western models of development assumed that the main causes of underdevelopment lay within the underdeveloped nation rather than external to it. The causes were thought to be (1) of an individual-blame nature<sup>5</sup> (peasants were traditional, fatalistic, and generally unresponsive to technological innovation) and/or (2) of a social-structural nature within the nation (for example, a tangled government bureaucracy, a top-heavy land tenure system, and so on). Western intellectual models of development, and Euro-American technical assistance programs based on such models, were less likely to recognize the importance of external constraints on a nation's development: international terms of trade, the economic imperialism of international corporations, and the vulnerability and dependence of the recipients of technical assistance programs. The dominant paradigm put the blame for underdevelopment on the developing nations rather than on the developed countries, or even jointly on both parties. During the 1950s and 1960s, this assumption of blame attribution was widely accepted not only in Euro-America, but also by most government leaders and by many social scientists in Latin America, Africa, and Asia. Many of the latter were educated in the United States or Europe, or at least their teachers and professors had been. And the power elites of developing countries were often co-opted to the "within-blame" assumption by international technical assistance agencies or by multinational corporations. International power in the 1950 to 1970 era was concentrated in the hands of the United States, and this helped lead international efforts in the development field to follow a within-blame causal attribution and to reinforce it as an assumption. As the U.S. corner on world power began to crack in the 1970s (at least, in the UN General Assembly), so did faith in the dominant paradigm of development. The "oil blackmail" of Euro-America following the Yom Kippur War in 1973 not only redistributed millions of dollars from developed to certain developing countries, but it dramatically demonstrated that developing countries could redefine the social situation of international finance. Then why not

redefine the definition of the causes of underdevelopment? Starting at the Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment in 1972 and carried forward at the Bucharest World Population Conference and the Rome Conference on Food in 1974, the delegates from developing nations began to collaborate in redefining the problem of underdevelopment, so that the causes of underdevelopment were seen as external to developing nations as well as within them.

## **8.2 SMALL TECHNOLOGY AND RADICAL ECONOMISTS**

"Westerners as well as Western-trained planners, in the poor countries have been taught to -think of small-scale, labor-intensive operations as inefficient, as a type of investment that retards economic growth" (Owens and Shaw, 1974: 2). But these prior assumptions of the dominant paradigm about the centrality of technology also began to be questioned. In China, for example, the Maoist philosophy is "not to allow the machines and their incumbent bureaucracies to control the men, but to insist that technology serve and be controlled by the people? (Rifkin, 1975).

The Green Revolution was originally expected to represent a kind of ultimate in the use of technical solutions to human social problems. Indeed, it led to impressive increases to wheat and rice yield in Pakistan, India, and the Philippines. But the Green Revolution also widened the socioeconomic gap between smaller and larger farmers and between the government and the public. Many tenants and landless farm laborers were displaced by the tractors and farm machines which the larger farmers began to buy. Where could these rural poor go? Only to already overcrowded cities. So the Green Revolution helped demonstrate that "improved seeds cannot solve the problem of unimproved farmers" (Owens and Shaw: p.72). The English economist E. F. Schumacher (1973) launched an attack on high technology in his book *Small Is Beautiful* advocating "intermediate technology" as a more useful contribution to development in Latin America, Africa, and Asia. By early 1976, Schumacher's idea seemed to be catching on in numerous countries where intermediate technology groups were established to fit scientific tools and methods to the local culture. Other economists in the 1970s engaged in critique of the dominant paradigm also, especially its assumption of "a linear theory of missing components" (like capital, foreign exchange, skills, or management) such as had been promoted by Rostow (1961). Many of these economist-critics proposed some version of a neocolonialist/cultural imperialism theory of underdevelopment accompanied by a questioning of what constitutes the meaning and measure of development. Somewhat typical of this vein are Seers and Joy (1971).

## **8.3 SUMMARY**

Western models of development assumed that the main causes of underdevelopment lay within the underdeveloped nation rather than external to it. The causes were thought to be (1) of an individual-blame nature<sup>5</sup> (peasants were traditional, fatalistic, and generally unresponsive to technological innovation) and/or (2) of a social-structural nature within the nation (for example, a tangled government bureaucracy, a top-heavy land tenure system, and so on). Western intellectual models of development, and Euro-American technical assistance programs based on such models, were less likely to recognize the importance of external constraints on a nation's development: international terms of trade, the economic imperialism of international corporations, and the vulnerability and dependence of the recipients of technical assistance programs. The dominant paradigm put the blame for underdevelopment on the developing nations rather than on the developed countries, or even jointly on both parties.

## 8.4 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the causes for development?
2. Explain the role of Small Technology in economic development.

## 8.5 REFERENCE BOOKS

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
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11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power

## Lesson - 9

# PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

## 9.0 Objectives

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Functions of Participatory Development Communication
- Steps in Planning and Implementation of Participatory Development Communication

## STRUCTURE

### 9.1 Introduction

### 9.2 Functions of Participator development communication

### 9.3 Functions of the Communication Planner in Participatory Development

### 9.4 Summary

### 9.5 Self Assessment Questions

### 9.6 Reference Books

## 9.1 INTRODUCTION

The idea of 'participatory development communication' draws attention to the emphasis on two-way communication processes, and a departure from one-way communication approaches that involve disseminating messages, transmitting information, or persuading people to change their behavior. Participatory development communication gives preference to horizontal approaches that involve encouraging dialogue centred on problem analysis and a search for solutions, as well as bottom-up approaches that aim to raise the awareness of decision-makers. These approaches are based on a process of community communication.

**Participatory communication** requires *first of all* changes in the thinking of 'communicators'. The needles, targets, and audiences of communication and development models, combined with self-righteousness, titles, and insecurities, perhaps sprinkled with a dash of misdirected benevolence, often render 'experts' a bit too verbose and pushy. Perhaps this is because it requires much more imagination, preparation and hard work to have dialogical learning. It is far easier to prepare and give lectures. However, there is possibly a valid reason why we have two ears, but only one mouth. Communication between people thrives not on the ability to talk fast, but the ability to *listen* well. People are 'voiceless' not because they have nothing to say, but because nobody cares to listen to them. Authentic listening fosters trust much more than incessant talking. Participation, which necessitates listening, and moreover, trust, will help reduce the social distance between communicators and receivers, between teachers and learners, between leaders and followers as well as facilitate a more equitable exchange of ideas, knowledge and experiences. However, the need to listen is not limited to



those at the receiving end. It must involve the governments as well as the citizens, the poor as well as the rich, the planners and administrators as well as their targets. In this chapter we present: » an historical overview of the debate on development in general, and development communication in particular, since its emergence on the political agenda in the fifties; the differences between a so-called diffusions or top-down communication model versus a participatory or bottom-up communication model; » two general differences in approach within the participatory model, which lead to different 'types' of participatory communication projects, especially at the community media level; by way of conclusion we identify eleven changes within the communication for social change field which will, in our opinion, further condition and complicate the future of the field

## **9.2 FUNCTIONS OF PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION**

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

## **9.3 FUNCTIONS OF THE COMMUNICATION PLANNER IN PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT**

### **Communication**

In participatory development communication, the communication planner assumes different functions. These functions include

1. Facilitating dialogue and the exchange of ideas among different groups and specific individuals;
2. Encouraging thinking about local development problems and possible solutions or about a common goal to achieve the desired result;
3. Supporting the identification and realization of a concrete set of actions for experimenting or implementing the solutions identified for achieving specific development goals; by facilitating the different groups involved in those actions to share their views;
4. Supporting efforts at awareness-building, motivation, learning and implementing the development action; by communication strategies appropriate for each group of participants;
5. Ensuring effective circulation of information among different participants, by using communication tools and channels appropriate to the groups involved;
6. Supporting decision-making, by facilitating consensus among different categories of players;

7. Developing local collaboration and partnerships by establishing alliances with local resource persons and agencies and serving as a conduit between the groups and these partners;
8. Monitoring the development initiative, by ensuring that actions taken are followed and evaluated; and
9. Making sure that the authorities or resource agencies are in position to assist the development action and are aware of local viewpoints and needs.

The participatory communication approach was conceived more than two decades ago. Since then its principles have enjoyed increasing influence over the work of development communicators. Today, these principles drive the works of a significant number of communicators from the NGOs, and, to a lesser extent, the programmes of government agencies. The roots of participatory approaches in development communication can be found in the early years of the 1970s when many people in the development community began to question the top-down approach of development dominant in the 1950s and 60s which targeted the economic growth of countries as its main goal. During these two decades the success of the developed countries was held-up as the model to aspire to. Development was thought to be triggered by the wide-scale diffusion and adoption of modern technologies. Such modernization was planned in the national capitals under the guidance and direction of experts brought-in from developed countries. Often, the people in the villages who are the "objects" of these plans would first learn that "development" was on the way when strangers from the city turned-up, frequently unannounced, to survey land or look at project sites. Mass communication played an important role in promoting "modernization" to the people. The radio was one of the main instruments used. National leaders, bureaucrats, and experts broadcasted passionately from the cities about the wonderful differences which the adoption of new and foreign ideas would bring to the lives of the people. They talked at length about methods of farming the land, cures for diseases, importance of sending children to school, advantages of having fewer children, desirability of having a stable government, and so on. The mobile cinema-van also became a common sight in the villages. It was one of the more popular diversions in rural communities because these vans commonly screened cartoons and comic films first so as to draw the crowds to watch the news-reels and agricultural extension productions which followed later. It was a powerful tool. It demonstrated graphically the wonders of modern science. It showed the beautiful homes and cars of rich Western farmers, and projected the image, voice and charisma of aspiring political leaders. The private sector soon followed suit and sent their own vans to entertain with other cartoons and comedy shows, and most importantly for the companies to screen their advertisements for their wares. Government extension workers trained in the towns became the front-line communicators repeating to farmers in their fields what they had just been taught in the towns. Posters, leaflets and other publications made-up another important instrument used as a part of this approach. It became known as Development Support Communication; a term coined by FAO. The approach had a wide following because much of the earlier development efforts in the South were aimed at farmers. (Read Rogers:1983 )

The overall approach to modernizing the developing world eventually ran into problems. Experts learnt that development was not restricted to just building roads, piping water, and distributing electricity. Nor was it limited to increasing farm yields per hectare or switching farmers over to cash crops. Many of the agricultural extension projects failed because farmers were reluctant to abandon their time-tested ways for strange new methods. They were also nervous about planting exotic crops which they could not eat but had to sell for money with

which to buy food from the market. When piped water arrived, it was frequently used for washing rather than drinking and cooking because the people disliked its flavor. The people were asked to stop believing in spirits and demons and place their trust in science which said things called "germs", which the eyes cannot see but is the main cause of most sicknesses and pain. They had also to remember another thing called "nitrogen" which again is invisible but which affects the yield of crops. Didn't all this sound like just another form of witch craft.? Over-riding the alien information communicated to the people was a bigger problem. Because the development had been centrally planned without any consultation with people, wrong solutions were often pumped down to startled communities. High yielding rice varieties were pushed when the real problem was the low price of the commodity. Farmers were given detailed instructions on improving soil of land that they did not own and which they were at constant risk of being evicted from. Mothers were lectured on the bliss of two-child families when fathers were bent on having at least six children to help work the land and tend to the livestock. Central planning also deprived people of ownership of local development plans. Development became the responsibility of the government. Whereas in the past, farmers would collectively maintain traditional water sharing systems, they became side-lined by workers of irrigation authorities who built new channels and dictated the release and termination of water supply. Eventually when the irrigation channels broke down farmers, believing that the system did not belong to them, just waited for these same workers to turn-up to repair them rather than fix the problem themselves. If they did not, the system was abandoned. The expensive failures of the top-down, mechanistic approach were noticed in the cities. Activists began to loudly criticize them as focused on the symptoms, not root causes of poverty. They were appalled by the arrogant top-down communication which fractured fragile developing communities by under-mining indigenous knowledge, beliefs and social systems. They were also furious with development plans which catered more to the interests of the city elites than the people in the villages. In the meanwhile, other activists started to question the basis of the modernization approach. They said that the solution to under-development did not pivot around the adoption of Western technologies. Instead it rested on the way the whole world was structured where the developed countries (also the former imperial powers) progressed and benefited at the expense of the poorer countries (also the former colonies). The developed countries were more powerful than the developing countries and the later had to depend on the former for its well-being. At the macro-level, the dependency debate led to mass communicators making serious efforts at rerouting information flows-away from the traditional gate-keeping junctions located in London, Paris, Madrid and New York. Third world news networks were established and articles written by people from developing countries for themselves.

### **Ascendency of Participatory Approaches**

The reaction against modernization (and to some extent the realization of global structural imbalances) gave birth to various participatory approaches. They shared the common intent of actively involving people who were the "subjects" of development in shaping the process. But in most cases this is where similarity ends and a diversity of differences begin. People's participation became defined in many different ways and this in turn led to numerous unresolved disagreements. Generally, four different ways of participation can be observed in most development projects claiming to be participatory in nature (Uphoff:1985). They are: Participation in implementation: People are actively encouraged and mobilized to take part in the actualization of projects. They are given certain responsibilities and set certain tasks or required to contribute specified resources.

- Participation in evaluation: Upon completion of a project, people are invited to critique the success or failure of it.
- Participation in benefit: People take part in enjoying the fruits of a project, this maybe water from a hand-pump, medical care by a "bare-foot doctor", a truck to transport produce to market, or village meetings in the new community hall.
- Participation in decision-making: People initiate, discuss, conceptualize and plan activities they will all do as a community. Some of this may be related to more common development areas such as building schools or applying for land tenure. Others may be more political, such as removing corrupt officials, supporting parliamentary candidates, or resisting pressures from the elites. Yet others may be cultural or religious in nature--organizing a traditional feast, prayers for an end to the drought, and a big party just to have a good time.

Some development initiatives provide people with opportunities to all these four ways of participation. Many do not, and restrict participation to one or two ways. Most will agree that participation in decision-making is the most important form to promote. It gives people control of their lives and environment. At the same time the people acquire problem solving skills and acquire full ownership of projects--two important elements which will contribute towards securing the sustained development of their community. The other three forms of participation--participation in implementation, evaluation and benefit--have been criticized as being false participation by those who believe that participation in decision-making is fundamental and indispensable to the approach. They feel that people are being manipulated through these three forms of pseudo-participation to accept plans made by other more powerful people. Others who disagree argue that the three ways allow people to build-up capacity to participate in decision-making. They also feel that prematurely mobilizing people to make their own decisions and chart their own development can put the people at risk of conflict with powerful interests and jeopardize their safety. They sometimes go on to say that groups who mobilize people in this way are actually manipulating them towards conflict. A number of governments of Asian countries which have met with impressive successes at economic development have articulated their reasons for not being in a hurry to promote Western-style democracy and participation:

- Asian societies favour collectivism, while Western societies cherish individualism
- In developing countries, national interests should take precedence over those of individuals
- Diversity of views can confuse people
- People must be educated and mature before they are able to make good decisions from a diversity of views; therefore communities in developing regions require education first before diversity.

Underlining these arguments is a high preference by these governments for a consensus approach towards development. The participatory approach is not favored because it is considered to be a conflict based model.

Although proponents of participation appreciate more good than bad in the approach, they recognize at the same time that there are limits to the approach. An international

conference of practitioners and researchers working in participatory communication announced three caveats (White:1994) at the end of their meeting:

1. Participatory communication processes are not a panacea for development. Such processes are not suitable for solving all problems in all contexts or time frames. The mother whose child is dying of diarrhea does not want to "participate". Short-term solutions and intervention are also needed. Participatory processes unearth "root-causes" of poverty and oppression and usually involve long-term goals.

2. The apparently opposing concepts of "participation" and "manipulation" can be viewed from many perspectives. The interventionist who attempts to "sell" solutions to "target population" may be accused of being manipulative and may also be bringing along a whole set of alien cultural premises. However the participatory social communicator may also enter a village with a particular picture of reality and set of values, hoping the people will come to perceive their oppression the way he or she sees it. This may be equally manipulative.

3. The price people have to pay for taking part in participatory processes is often overlooked. It is often assumed that the villager has nothing better to do with his or her time. For every hour spent "participating" there is an opportunity cost; that is, the fact that the villager may be foregoing more productive activity if the participatory process does not lead to benefits, either in the long or short term. The social communicator should take this into consideration when entering a village or slum.

### **Participatory Communication takes -over**

Just as during the modernization era, communicators responded to the shift towards participation in development by echoing the new approaches in their work. Participatory communication was born. It turned out to be a difficult birth. The people who had advocated for participation had done so mainly at the conceptual and ideological level, there were no suggestions on how participatory communication could be actualized in real development settings. To compound the challenge, much of the seminal thinking had focused on interpersonal processes the mass media were not assigned any role in the new approach. Broadcasting technology of that period probably contributed to this side-lining of the big media. Radio and television equipment were marooned in studios located in the cities which were far away from most of the people living in the villages. Outside broadcasting facilities were just being developed and still too expensive at that stage for developing country practitioners to acquire. Also, for the first time development communication was no longer in the exclusive domain of the professionals. Participatory communication, in the ideal situation, is practiced spontaneously by the people without mediation. It was ideally the by-product of participatory processes and participatory communities. For the practitioners, communication ceased to be the simple transfer of information. The question of who initiated a communication, how decisions were made leading-up to the communication became more important than what was being communicated. Communicators were no longer neutral movers of information but were intervening actively to trigger changes aimed at encouraging people's participation. In many ways the "techniques" of communication had not changed. What had changed profoundly were the ideologies and philosophies behind the practice of the techniques.

The emphasis on interpersonal and traditional methods encouraged the development and use of these communication methods which had been largely ignored until then. Street theatre, folk-songs, speech, and group activities became important and effective channels for

participatory communication. Large scale national communication activities were set aside in favour of small Localized and intimate programmes.

### **Practicing Participatory Communication**

The stress on interpersonal approaches at first suggested a small-scale, community - based approach to participatory communication. Speech, traditional and folk media, and group activities were considered the most appropriate instruments for supporting the approach. This early thinking ignored the mass media by not suggesting any roles for them. Practitioners in the mass media responded by innovating their own approach towards participatory communication. Community radio scored some of the early successes. The large, centralized model of the city-based station was replaced by small operations broadcasting on low-power transmitters owned by trade unions, churches and other communities. The people produced and voiced the programmes which were focused on local issues which were the most current and important to them. Such innovations made way for participatory communication to be practiced at both the community or village level and at the broader regional or sub-regional level. A small selection of the methods which have been used by groups working at the community and, regional and sub-regional levels are described in the following sections of this chapter.

#### ***Working at the Community Level***

Some of the most successful participatory communication programmes were tested at the village community level. The small size of the community permitted the intensive use of interpersonal channels and other folk and traditional media. Described below are the steps followed by many NGOs in implementing their programmes. These steps have drawn upon not only development communication methodologies but also those from participatory development, non-formal education, and participatory action research.

#### ***Entering the Community***

The first step usually focuses on the identification of a community which will be the partner in a participatory communication project. Many NGOs do this through drawing on their knowledge of the region where they have been working. To minimize risks of failure and to shorten the lead time for the start-up of the project, many NGOs select communities with whom they have worked or are working. There are two advantages in doing so, firstly there is an existing working relationship (which may not be totally participatory) and secondly the NGO has a feel for the needs and aspirations of the community and can match these to the organizations' resources and capacities. If a "new" community is identified, a slow process of getting to know each other is initiated. NGO workers, preferably from the area where the community lives and works, or possessing a good appreciation for the life and challenges of the people, and able to speak their language; visit the community with no aim except to introduce the NGO to the people and to meet members of the community. A number of NGOs require their field staff to live with the communities for a long enough period of time (which may stretch over several months or even a year) so that they become accepted by the people and also acquire at the same time a good appreciation of life in the community. During this period of residency, the potential role of the NGO is allowed to evolve naturally and informally through the NGO workers' interactions with members of the community. The success of this crucial first step rests partly on the NGO workers and partly on the reputation of the NGO amongst the community. NGO workers belonging to credible organizations with a good track-record at the grass-roots will be

greatly helped by the good-will which such credibility brings. The basic task of the NGO staff at this time is to listen to the people.

### ***Preparing to Plan Action***

The period of listening and getting to know each other leads either to a decision to collaborate or not to collaborate. If it is the former, the next step is often the planning of the collaboration. Communication plays an important role at this stage. As many people as possible from the community need to be encouraged and provided with the opportunity to participate in the planning process. Meetings of the community are good starting points. The purpose of the planning exercise can be explained and debated, the people to be involved introduced to each other, and the methods for planning agreed upon. Formal community meetings may be alien to the way-of-life of many villages. People in these communities should not be rushed into the holding of such meetings. As much time as possible should be given to informal consultations and discussions; the suggestion to meet should ideally evolve from these consultations. The leaders of the enterprise will probably emerge at this stage. The person facilitating the process should ensure that leaders are eventually elected by a majority and interferences in the choice of the leaders reduced to a minimum. A discussion of the desired attributes of the leaders should ideally precede the elections. After the elections are conducted, there is a possibility that contenders who have lost may decide to leave the group, taking with them their family, friends and supporters. How the group responds to their departure is important in setting the tone for future interactions between the group and the departing members.

### ***Planning What to Do***

A first step may be reflection upon the current conditions, problems, aspirations and resources of the community. Media can play an effective catalytic role here. Traditional and folk media have been used effectively in facilitating this process of reflection in many communities. In some villages, members of the community, or local theatre group, prepare and present to the community a play of a fictitious place which bears similarities to the conditions of the village. The play, however does not have an ending. At an appropriate time members of the community are invited to act out the ending or to suggest what the ending may be. This method is effective for a number of reasons. It is entertaining. It is easy to participate in because the event is conducted in an indigenous art form. It is also non-threatening and minimally confrontational because issues are being addressed through proxies offered by imaginary characters in the play.

New technologies, such as small format videos, have also been used successfully. The most famous is the "Fogo process" (Williamson:1991) where video is used as a "mirror" to reflect the issues and aspirations of people living in isolated communities. The people take an active part in planning and executing the production of a video of themselves. They also take an active part in the editing process, deciding what to cut and what to include. Besides helping the communities reflect, the videos have also served as highly effective communication between the people and outsiders, typically politicians and bureaucrats. Outsiders receive accurate and candid messages from the people through these videos, and because they often convey intense emotions, are also effective in moving outsiders to action. Replies are frequently sent back to the people on a video, promises made for corrective action recorded in this way are hard to break and help the people advance the issues they are advocating. "Photo novella" is equally effective. People are provided with a still camera with which they are free to photograph anything they want to make-up a pictorial novel about themselves. The pictures shot are

displayed and arranged into an order through the collaborative efforts of members of the community. The picture stories help in reflection, communication with outsiders, and measuring progress of cooperative efforts. An example of the latter was provided by a group of villagers living on a mountain side threatened by serious land-slides which were robbing the farmers of scarce arable land. The solution learnt from neighboring villages was the building of retaining walls with large boulders-- back-breaking and long term project. Photographs of the progress of "rock-walling" and the accumulating amounts of rich top-soil trapped by the walls convinced the villagers that the walls must be built and motivated them to complete their daunting task. A somewhat surprising success in the Philippines is a method called CIPS--Community Information and Planning System. Surprising because it is a method based on scientific research which many people had first thought alien and not useful to rural communities. In this method villagers who have heard about CIPS invite the University where CIPS was developed, to send a trainer to work with the community. It begins with the trainer conducting a short, informal course on the research process. The course is taught in the local dialect and presents the research process in a simple, easy to implement way. The people begin their research immediately after the course. They collect data and analyze them as a group. The results of the research are displayed on large charts, in the form of easy to understand graphics and presented to the community during a village meeting. After members of the community have understood the findings of the research, they move on to prioritize problems and plan action to address these problems. The action is usually written-up in the form of a proposal to a local government agency. This method has proven to be highly effective in promoting development activities to policy-makers because of the scientific approach adopted and the data backing requests for action.

### ***Supporting Action***

It is likely that if the community has advanced to the stage of action, a group of some kind will have evolved within the community to run the communication activities of the community. It will probably comprise opinion leaders such as a religious leader, traditional birth attendant, teacher, folk musicians, actors, and others with affair and a love of communication and interaction with people. The communicators should ideally be elected by the community; their duties should also ideally be defined during the elections. The village communicators may be offered training in communication methods. Such training should emphasize the principles of participation and the supportive role of communication in triggering participation. Traditional and folk media us age should be emphasized. Other media such as wall newspapers, video, and static displays may be also introduced. But the overall stress will probably be on interpersonal methods speech, group discussions, and presentational skills (to peers as well as to outsiders such as government officials). They may be also introduced to management skills such as the sequencing of communication in the best way so as to support action in the community; the breaking-down of large problems into smaller component parts t o be addressed in order of priority. To be congruent with the goals of participatory communication, all training should focus on communication as an instrument to empower the people rather than as a vehicle for moving information. Communication for the facilitation of action may aim at a number of objectives:

- Creating a very clear understanding of the proposed action.
- Gathering feedback to ascertain if the course of action is acceptable and supported by (ideally) all; and if not to discover the preferred alternatives.
- Communicating the finalized course of action.
- Providing support and appropriate publicity as the action is being implemented.
- Keeping members informed of progress and the gathering of their reactions.



- Reporting the impact of the action.
- Gathering and sharing members' reactions to the action taken.
- Planning for the next round of action.

### ***Iterating the process***

Action should be taken in a series of steps, starting with the most urgent or most manageable, and then moving on to others after it has been completed. This way of iterating the process provides the community with the opportunity to learn and become familiar with the process. Iteration also facilitates increasing degrees of participation amongst members of the community as they learn to work with each other, and develop confidence and loyalty for each other.

## **9.4 SUMMARY**

The idea of 'participatory development communication' draws attention to the emphasis on two-way communication processes, and a departure from one-way communication approaches that involve disseminating messages, transmitting information, or persuading people to change their behavior. Participatory development communication gives preference to horizontal approaches that involve encouraging dialogue centered on problem analysis and a search for solutions, as well as bottom-up approaches that aim to raise the awareness of decision-makers. These approaches are based on a process of community communication.

## **9.5 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS**

1. Discuss about the participatory development communication.
2. What are the functions of participatory development communication.

## **9.6 REFERENCE BOOKS**

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power

## Lesson-10

# STEPS IN PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION OF PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

## 10.0 Objective

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Participatory Development Communication

## STRUCTURE

**10.1 Establishing a relationship with a local community and understanding the Local Setting**

**10.2 Involving the community in the identification of a problem, it's potential solutions, and the decision to carry out a concrete initiative**

**10.3 Identifying the different community groups and other stakeholders concerned with the identified problem (or goal) and initiative**

**10.4 Identifying communication needs, objectives and activities**

**10.5 Identifying appropriate communication tools**

**10.6 Preparing and pre-testing communication content and materials**

**10.7 Facilitating partnerships**

**10.8 Producing an implementation plan**

**10.9 Monitoring and evaluating the communication strategy and documenting the development or research process**

**10.10 Planning the sharing and utilization of results**

**10.11 Summary**

**10.12 Self Assessment Questions**

**10.13 Reference Books**

## 10.1 ESTABLISHING A RELATIONSHIP WITH A LOCAL COMMUNITY AND UNDERSTANDING THE LOCAL SETTING

At the beginning, it refers to collecting preliminary information on the community and its environment, entering the community, getting to know the people and the resource persons in the community, developing a more thorough collection of information with the participation of the local people and resource persons, and facilitating a dialogue with them. But what it really

means is building a relationship, developing collaboration mechanisms, facilitating and nurturing the exchange of information and knowledge, negotiating roles and responsibilities, and most importantly, building mutual trust.

The tasks involved here include:

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

2) Consulting existing information by visiting resource persons knowledgeable of the community setting or of the problem involved should complement and supplement the secondary information at the possession of development agents.

3) Before going to the field, researchers and practitioners should develop a prior understanding of the local setting before going to the field and conducting formal meetings with a given community. Without such prior knowledge, it is often very difficult to build a sound understanding of the setting, even by conducting participatory rural appraisal activities.

4) Introducing the research or development initiative to the community

5) Attitudes should also be given proper attention: it is not the same thing to identify three or four different field sites where a research team will work and establish a working relationship with a certain number of communities.

6) Conducting a visit to the authorities: In many settings, a visit to the authorities in the community is part of what is required in order to enter the community. It is often important to visit both political authorities and traditional authorities, in order to inform them of the research or initiative, ask for their cooperation, and understand their perspective on what is being initiated. This should be done modestly and respectfully and is often better achieved with the help of someone from the community making the introductions.

7) Attitudes and perceptions: Community members must be seen as stakeholders in the development process, not as beneficiaries. So approaching a community also means involving people and thinking in terms of stakeholders' participation in the different phases of the research process as a whole.

8) Discussing agendas: The interests of communities, researchers and development practitioners are not similar. Development practitioners must fully explain and discuss the scope and limitations of their mandate with community members.

9) Avoiding the danger of raising expectations: It is important for development practitioners to make the community members understand clearly their mandate.. They should discuss possible negative and positive outcomes of what they will be doing together, and to involve community members in activity planning.

10) Finally, there is the issue of financial and material advantages for participating in research or development activities. Agreement should also be made to recognize whenever

compensation is justified and what form it should take. It is important here for research teams and development practitioners to be clear on this issue in order not to raise the financial expectations of community members.

11) Understanding culture of the community is crucial.

12) Using local language: Language barriers are another difficulty. The use of a local interpreter can help, but a local moderator may also be needed to facilitate group discussions in the local language.

13) Taking time into consideration: Attitudes change and the need for community members to develop confidence and skills that will help them participate meaningfully and effectively in research or development initiatives participation demand time.

14) A general knowledge of the local setting: The following questions will help to understand the local setting:

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

15) Collecting information on communication issues

The following information will be very useful:

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

## **10.2 INVOLVING THE COMMUNITY IN THE IDENTIFICATION OF A PROBLEM, ITS POTENTIAL SOLUTIONS, AND THE DECISION TO CARRY OUT A CONCRETE INITIATIVE**

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

- ◆ . Identify a specific development problem, discuss its many dimensions, its causes and potential solutions; OR
- ◆ . A common goal that the community identifies for itself and the prerequisites or essential conditions to reach it;
- ◆ . Identify a concrete initiative or set of actions that the community wants to experiment or realize;
- ◆ . Identify the necessary conditions in terms of knowledge, partnership and material conditions (assess the feasibility);
- ◆ . Take a decision to carry out the initiative.

## **10.3 IDENTIFYING THE DIFFERENT COMMUNITY GROUPS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS CONCERNED WITH THE IDENTIFIED PROBLEM (OR GOAL) AND INITIATIVE**

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

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

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

## 10.4 IDENTIFYING COMMUNICATION NEEDS, OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES

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

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

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

## 10.5 IDENTIFYING APPROPRIATE COMMUNICATION TOOLS

Everyone is familiar with the notion of communication “media”. Generally, we distinguish between the mass media (newspapers, radio, television), the traditional media (storytelling, theatres, songs), “group” media (video, photographs, posters), and community media such as short-range rural radio broadcasting. The media, and the different forms of interpersonal communication, are our communication tools. If we use the expression “communication tools” here, it is to stress the instrumental nature of these media: their purpose in this case is not to disseminate information, but rather to support the process of participatory communication. In that perspective it is important to choose those communication tools which will support two-way communication and which are in relation with what we want to do and the people we want to work with. Three essential criteria should be considered in selecting the appropriate communication tools:

1. Community use: We should adopt the communication tools already in use in the local community for exchanging information and points of view or the ones they are most comfortable with.

2. Cost: Consider the cost of using the tools, the time needed to prepare the materials and the technical environment in which they are to be used (availability of electricity, appropriate premises, accessibility to participants, etc.).

3. Kind of utilization: Select communication tools in the light of the different kinds of utilization.

## 10.6 PREPARING AND PRE-TESTING COMMUNICATION CONTENT AND MATERIALS

Before finalizing any communication content or material that is to be produced, or selecting existing materials, it is important to pre-test them. Pre-testing is a way of improving ideas and prototypes for materials by submitting them to participating group representatives and obtaining their feedback before the final production stage (or checking whether materials already produced are appropriate to the group). This will allow us to gauge their reaction, to revise the concepts and communication materials, or perhaps to amend our strategy, if it seems unlikely to produce the desired results. We need to be able to tell whether the concepts put forward in the communication materials are well understood by participants. We also need to know if the material is suitable and if it evokes the expected types of reactions. After pre-testing, we may want to produce more realistic illustrations, simpler texts or more explicit images. To ensure that the communication concepts and materials are well adapted to the different groups of participants, we may ask five or six representatives from each group to give their opinion on aspects such as the following:

### **Content**

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

### **Form**

- ◆ Interest evoked
- ◆ Technical quality

### **Materials**

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

### **Feedback**

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

## 10.7 FACILITATING PARTNERSHIPS

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

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

## 10.8 PRODUCING AN IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

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

## **10.9 MONITORING AND EVALUATING THE COMMUNICATION STRATEGY AND DOCUMENTING THE DEVELOPMENT OR RESEARCH PROCESS**

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

♦ . To find out if we are on the right track or whether we need to adjust our course during the execution of the activity.

♦ . To find out if we have achieved our original objectives, and if the results have had an impact on the problem identified at the outset.

During the implementation period evaluation allows us to:

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

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

At the end of the process evaluation allows us to:

- Determine whether we have achieved our objectives and to what extent.
- Assess the degree to which our activities have had the desired impact on the problem or the development initiative that we wanted to address.
- Draw lessons from the experience, identify ways of improving performance, and make recommendations for future activities.

We may consider three levels of evaluation:

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

## **10.10 PLANNING THE SHARING AND UTILIZATION OF RESULTS**

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



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

### **10.11 SUMMARY**

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

### **10.12 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS**

1. Write about the Participatory Development Communication
2. What are the communication tools? Discuss.

### **10.13 REFERENCE BOOKS**

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power

## Lesson-11

# COMMUNICATION IN DEVELOPMENT

## 11.0 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Communication model
- Criticism of Communication in development
- Media attention on content

## STRUCTURE

### 11.1 Introduction

### 11.2 Criticism of Communication in development

### 11.3 In attention of Media Content

### 11.4 Need for a Structural Change

### 11.5 Diffusion of innovation and development

### 11.6 Summary

### 11.7 Self Assessment Questions

### 11.8 Reference Books

## 11.1 INTRODUCTION

The rise of alternatives to the old paradigm of development implied that the role of communication in development must also change. Previously, mass communication had been considered to play an important role in development, especially in conveying informative and persuasive messages from a government to the public in a downward, hierarchical way. A decade or so ago, mass communication was often thought to be a very powerful and direct force for development. "It was the pressure of communications which brought about the downfall of traditional societies" (Pye, 1963: 3-4). And there was some support for this position from communication research. An early and influential study of modernization in the Middle East by Lerner (1958) led communication scholars to expect the mass media to be a kind of magic multiplier for development in other developing nations. This period was characterized by considerable optimism about the potential contribution of communication to development, one that was consistent with the general upbeat opinion about the possibilities for rapid development. Certainly, the media were expanding during the 1950s and 1960s. Literacy was becoming more widespread in most developing nations<sup>5</sup> leading to greater print media exposure. Transistor radios were penetrating every village. A predominantly one-way flow of communication from government development agencies to the people was implied by the dominant paradigm. And the mass media seemed ideally suited to this role. They could rapidly reach large audiences with informative and persuasive messages about the details of development.

A series of communication researches was launched in various developing nations: examples are my survey in Colombia (Rogers, 1965) and Fry's (1964) in Turkey, which showed that mass media exposure was highly correlated with individual modernization variables. Undoubtedly, however, some of the most solid evidence for the impact of the mass media on modernization came from the six-nation investigation by Inkeles and Smith (1974: 146), who concluded: "The mass media were in the front rank, along with the school and the factory, as inculcators of individual modernization." Correlational analyses of survey data about mass media and modernization did not exactly prove that the former caused the latter, but they did demonstrate a certain degree of covariance between the two sets of variables. However, another type of communication research design went further in evaluating the role of mass communication in development: the field experiment. In this approach, some mass media channel typically would be introduced in a small number of villages and its development effects would be evaluated by means of the difference in measurements of effects on benchmark and follow-up surveys. For instance, one of the earliest and most influential of such field experiments was conducted by Neurath (1962) in India in order to determine the effectiveness of radio forums. "Other field experiments designed along similar lines have been conducted since by communication scholars in Latin America, Africa, and Asia. A special advantage of field experiments is that their results are often relatively visible and easier to implement in large-scale development programs. For instance, the Neurath field experiment led directly to a nationwide radio forum program in India. But in the early 1960s, despite this considerable research, the relative power of the mass media in leading to development was mainly assumed rather than proven. Certainly, determining the effects of the media in development is a complicated affair. The audience surveys of communication effects and the field experiments were actually small in number and size; and in the face of this lack of firm evidence on the point, there was a tendency to assume a powerful mass media role in development. Actually, this 'oversold position' bore a similarity close to the hypodermic-needle model of media effects in the United States—an overly enthusiastic position which eventually succumbed to empirically oriented communication research (Rogers with Shoemaker, 1971).

## **11.2 CRITICISM OF COMMUNICATION IN DEVELOPMENT**

By the late 1960s and the 1970s a number of critical evaluations were being made of the mass communication role in development. Some scholars, especially in Latin America, perceived the mass media in their nations as an extension of exploitive relationships with U.S.-based multinational corporations, especially through the advertising of commercial products. Further, questions were asked about the frequent patterns of elite ownership and control of mass media institutions in Latin America and the influence of such ownership on the media content. The 1965-1975 decade saw a rising number of military dictatorships in Latin America, Africa, and Asia, and these governments stressed the media's propaganda role, decreasing the public's trust in mass communication. Communication researchers also began to question some of their prior assumptions, becoming especially critical of earlier inattention to (1) the content of the mass media, (2) the need for social-structural changes in addition to communication if development were to occur, and (3) the shortcomings of the classical diffusion-of-innovations viewpoint which had become an important explanation of micro-level development.

## **11.3 IN ATTENTION OF MEDIA CONTENT**

We showed previously that mass media exposure on the part of individuals in developing nations was highly correlated with their modernization, as expressed by their

exhibiting modern attitudes and behavior. This seemed logical because the mass media were thought to carry generally pro-development messages (Rogers with Svenning, 1969).

However, a strange anomaly was encountered. When individuals, in developing nations who had adopted an innovation like a weed spray, a new crop variety, or family planning, were asked the sources/channels through which they had learned about the new idea, the mass media were almost never reported. Interpersonal channels with peers totally predominated in diffusing the innovation. A possible explanation of this anomaly seemed to lie in the contents of the media messages, which investigation showed seldom to carry specific messages about the innovation (such as what it is, where to obtain it and at what cost, and how to use it), even though there was much content promoting national development in a general sense (such as news of a new highway being constructed, appointment of a new minister of agriculture, and so on). So when the media content was analyzed it was found to contain very little attention to the technological innovations that were diffusing; they spread most frequently through interpersonal communication (1) from government development workers to their clients and (2) among peers in the mass audience. Barghouti (1974) content-analyzed the print and electronic media of Jordan and found that "agricultural news occupies an insignificant place among other categories of the content of the mass media."<sup>9</sup> In contrast, there is much political news in the media. Surveys of a sample of Jordanian farmers showed that only 9% mentioned the mass media as their source of agricultural information, but 88% received their political information from the media. Barghouti's study indicates the advantage of combining content analysis of the media with an audience survey (as do Shingi and Mody in their article in the present issue), and suggests the need for much more content analysis of the media messages in developing nations if we are to understand more fully the media's role in development.

## **11.4 NEED FOR A STRUCTURAL CHANGE**

Even in the days of the dominant paradigm, it was realized that the contribution of mass communication to development was often limited by the social structure, by the unavailability of resource inputs, and the like. There was much more, of course, to development than just communication and information. But there was at least some hope that by raising the public's aspirations for modernization, pressure was created toward changing some of the limiting factors on development. By the 1970s, it was becoming apparent that the social structural restraints on development were often unyielding to the indirect influences of the media or even to more direct intervention. Under these conditions, it was realized that mass communication's role in development might be much more diminished than previously thought. And communication research was designed to determine just how limiting the structure might be on the development effects of mass communication. Illustrative of such researches is Grunig's (1971) investigation among Colombian farmers; he concluded that "communication is a complementary factor to modernization and development ... it can have little effect unless structural changes come first to initiate the development process." Such studies helped to modify the previously enthusiastic statements by communication scholars about the power of the media.

## **11.5 DIFFUSION OF INNOVATION AND DEVELOPMENT**

One of the most frequent types of communication research in developing nations dealt with the diffusion of innovations (as noted earlier in this issue). In such research, an idea perceived as new by the receiver - an innovation - is traced as it spreads through a system (Rogers with Shoemaker, 1971). The innovation is usually a technological idea, and thus one

can see that past diffusion research fits well with the dominant paradigm's focus on technology and on its top-down communication to the public. During the 1960s, there was a tremendous increase in the number of diffusion studies in developing countries; these researches were especially concerned with the spread of agricultural innovations and of family planning methods. In fact, there were about 500 family planning diffusion studies in India alone (Rogers, 1973). Many of them left much to be desired in scientific rigor or in the originality of their design. A number of criticisms of the assumptions and directions of diffusion research appeared in the 1970s: Marceau (1972), Grunig (1971), Goldin (1974), Havens (1972), and Beltran (1975), as well as the articles by Diaz Bordenave and Edling et al. in the present issue. These critiques centered on the pro-innovation bias of such research and on the propensity for diffusion to widen the socioeconomic gaps in a rural audience. Out of such frank criticism came a number of modifications in the classical diffusion model and in the research designs utilized (such as more field experiments and network analysis), and these newer approaches are now being tried (Rogers, 1973, 1976). After a tour of 20 U.S. communication research centers, Nordenstreng (1968) criticized North American scholars for their "hyper science," which he explains as due to the fact that "American communication research has grown up in an atmosphere of behaviorism and operationalism, which has made it correct in technical methodology but poor in conceptual productivity." This comment on communication research in the United States may also apply to diffusion research. Such inquiry often sided unduly with the source "against" the receiver, perhaps a reflection of the one-way linear model of communication and of the mechanistic/atomistic components approach of much communication research. So the needed alterations in the classical diffusion model, such as a greater concern with communication effects gaps and the importance of audience anticipation in the diffusion process, may also hold implications for the entire field of communication.

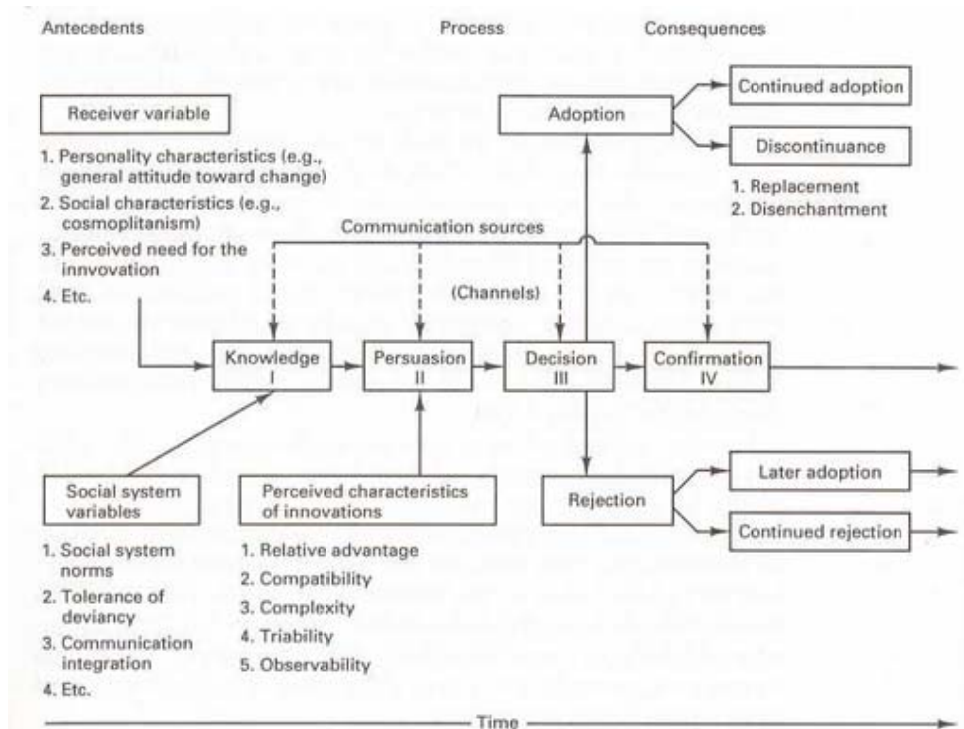
Diffusion research goes one step further than two-step flow theory. The original diffusion research was done as early as 1903 by the French sociologist Gabriel Trade who plotted the original S-shaped diffusion curve. Trades' 1903 S-shaped curve is of current importance because "most innovations have an S-shaped rate of adoption" (Rogers, 1995).

### **Core Assumptions and Statements**

**Core:** Diffusion research centers on the conditions which increase or decrease the likelihood that a new idea, product, or practice will be adopted by members of a given culture. Diffusion of innovation theory predicts that media as well as interpersonal contacts provide information and influence opinion and judgment. Studying how innovation occurs, E.M. Rogers (1995) argued that it consists of four stages: invention, diffusion (or communication) through the social system, time and consequences. The information flows through networks. The nature of networks and the roles opinion leaders play in them determine the likelihood that the innovation will be adopted. Innovation diffusion research has attempted to explain the variables that influence how and why users adopt a new information medium, such as the Internet. Opinion leaders exert influence on audience behavior via their personal contact, but additional intermediaries called change agents and gatekeepers are also included in the process of diffusion. Five adopter categories are: (1) innovators, (2) early adopters, (3) early majority, (4) late majority, and (5) laggards. These categories follow a standard deviation-curve, very little innovators adopt the innovation in the beginning (2,5%), early adopters making up for 13,5% a short time later, the early majority 34%, the late majority 34% and after some time finally the laggards make up for 16%.

**Statements:** Diffusion is the “process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over a period of time among the members of a social system”. An innovation is “an idea, practice, or object that is perceived to be new by an individual or other unit of adoption”. “Communication is a process in which participants create and share information with one another to reach a mutual understanding” (Rogers, 1995).

### Conceptual Model



**Image.8-Diffusion of innovation model.**

Source: Rogers (1995)

### Favorite Methods

Some of the methods are network analysis, surveys, field experiments and ECCO analysis. ECCO, Episodic Communication Channels in Organization, analysis is a form of a data collection log-sheet. This method is specially designed to analyze and map communication networks and measure rates of flow, distortion of messages, and redundancy. The ECCO is used to monitor the progress of a specific piece of information through the organization.

### Scope and Application

Diffusion research has focused on five elements: (1) the characteristics of an innovation which may influence its adoption; (2) the decision-making process that occurs when individuals consider adopting a new idea, product or practice; (3) the characteristics of individuals that

make them likely to adopt an innovation; (4) the consequences for individuals and society of adopting an innovation; and (5) communication channels used in the adoption process.

## 11.6 SUMMARY

A decade or so ago, mass communication was often thought to be a very powerful and direct force for development. "It was the pressure of communications which brought about the downfall of traditional societies" (Pye, 1963: 3-4). And there was some support for this position from communication research. An early and influential study of modernization in the Middle East by Lerner (1958) led communication scholars to expect the mass media to be a kind of magic multiplier for development in other developing nations. This period was characterized by considerable optimism about the potential contribution of communication to development, one that was consistent with the general upbeat opinion about the possibilities for rapid development.

## 11.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the role of Diffusion of innovation model in development.
2. Elaborate the criticism of communication in development.

## 11.8 REFERENCE BOOKS

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid lereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
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9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
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13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power

**Lesson-12****ALTERNATIVE CONCEPTION OF  
COMMUNICATION IN DEVELOPMENT****12.0 OBJECTIVES**

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Self development
- The Communication Effects Gap

**STRUCTURE****12.1 Introduction****12.2 Self-Development****12.3 The communication Effects Gap****12.4 Summary****12.5 Self Assessment Questions****12.6 Reference Books****New communication Technology and Development****12.1 INTRODUCTION**

This section describes some of the directions under way in newer conceptions of development communication: self-development, the communication effects gap, and new communication technology.

**12.2 SELF-DEVELOPMENT**

Most nations in the past have implicitly defined development in terms of what government does to (and for) the people. Decisions about needed development were made by the national government in the capital city and then implemented through development programs that were carried out by government employees who contacted the public (at the operational level) in order to inform and persuade them to change some aspect of their behavior. This top-down approach to development implied a one-way role for communication: the sources were government officials seeking to inform and persuade a mass audience of receivers.

Naturally, self-development implies a completely different role for communication than in the usual top-down development approach of the past. Technical information about development problems and possibilities and about appropriate innovations is sought by local systems from the central government so that the role of government development agencies is



mainly to communicate in answer to these locally initiated requests rather than to design and conduct top-down communication campaigns. The mass media may be used to feed local groups with information of a background nature about their expressed needs, and to disseminate innovations that may meet certain of these needs. Key elements in self-development approaches are participation, mass mobilization, and group efficacy, with the main responsibility for development planning and execution at the local level. The main roles of mass communication in such self-development may be summarized as (1) providing technical information about development problems and possibilities, and about appropriate innovations, in answer to local requests, and (2) circulating information about the self-development accomplishments of local groups so that other such groups may profit from others' experience and perhaps be challenged to achieve a similar performance.

### 12.3 THE COMMUNICATION EFFECTS GAP

This hypothesis was originally stated by Tichenor et al. (1970) to imply that one effect of mass communication is to widen the gap in knowledge between two categories of receivers (high and low in socio-economic status). It often has been overlooked that the "gap" was originally proposed only as an hypothesis rather than a proven fact. Several important changes first must be made in the statement of the gap hypothesis before it can be adequately tested.

(1) It should deal with the attitudinal and over behavioral effects of communication as well as just "knowledge".

(2) The hypothesis should not be limited to mass media efforts alone, but should include also the differential effects of interpersonal communication and the joint effects of mass media plus interpersonal communication, as measured by network analysis.

(3) There need not be just two categories of receivers, nor must the gap be found only on the basis of a socioeconomic status variable.

Past research on the communication effects gap hypothesis, while notable for its pioneering nature, has suffered somewhat from the fact that the hypothesis usually was imposed on the data after they were gathered for another purpose. Trolly, in order to test the communication effects gap hypothesis, one would prefer:

(1) That data were gathered before and after a communication event (like a campaign) in a field experiment rather than mainly using correlational analysis of one-shot survey data as has so many times been done in the past;

(2) That the "after" data might be gathered at several points in time to determine whether or not the gap is only a short term phenomenon;

(3) That a control group be included in the design in order to remove the effects of a growing gap due to other (than communication) causes; and

(4) That the interpersonal communication channels linking the receiver categories be measured and network-analyzed so as to determine the effect of such audience interconnectedness in modifying or magnifying the gap effects of the main communication event studies. Essentially, the network analysis seeks to explore whether or not a "trickle down"

occurs from one of the two receiver categories to the other, and how. Probably the reasons why methodological considerations such as these have not already been utilized in testing the communication gap hypothesis are the relatively high cost and the length of time that would be required. But the articles by Rolling et al. and by Shingi and Mody in this volume show that these problems can be overcome.

One important function of such improved research is the light that it may be able to shed on why the communication effects gap generally occurs. A possible explanation in many cases is that the "ups", perhaps as an artifact of gaining their original superior status, possess greater receptivity to the change-oriented communication messages and hence show greater response to them than the "downs." Also the "downs" may possess greater slack resources which can be utilized for innovation.

Larger farmers responded first by adopting the miracle seeds of the Green Revolution. Furthermore, the sources or producers of the change oriented messages are usually more homophilous with the "ups" than with the "downs," and hence these messages have relatively greater effects on the "ups." Finally, the lack of integration of the "downs" in interpersonal communication networks means they are not even reached through a trickle-down. If more equitable distribution of socioeconomic benefits were indeed a paramount goal of development activities, the following communication strategies might be considered in a developing nation:

(1) Use the traditional mass media as credible channels to reach the most disadvantaged audiences.

(2) Identify the opinion leaders among the disadvantaged segments of the total audience, and concentrate development efforts on them.

(3) Use change agent aides were selected from among the disadvantaged to work for development agencies in contacting their homophilous peers. (4) Provide means for the disadvantaged audience to participate in the planning and execution of development activities and in the setting of development priorities.

(5) Establish special development agencies that work only with the disadvantaged audiences. An example is the Small Farmers Development Agency in India, founded in 1970 to provide agricultural information and credit only to small-sized farmers.

Produce and disseminate communication messages that are redundant to the 'ups' because of their ceiling effect, but which are of need and interest to the "downs." (See, for example, the study by Shingi and Mody in this issue.)

Much further research is needed on the communication effects gap; this work has only begun. But at least we are beginning to realize that the gap is not always inevitable.

### **New communication Technology and Development**

What is the potential of new communication technology, such as satellite broadcasting, cable television, and computers, for facilitating the process of development in Latin America, Africa, and Asia? At least in the immediate future of the next ten years it will probably be fairly limited, although satellite television broadcasting is the operation at present in India of an experimental basis, and nationwide satellite television broadcasting systems are soon to be

launched in Iran and Indonesia. But what is really new about communication technology is not the technology per se as much as the social technology of how the new communication devices are organized and used. Much of the total effect of a communication system rests on the program or software aspects, on how the audience is organized to receive and discuss the messages, and how feedback is conveyed to the communicators.

Four stages in the development of technologies to capture, store, process, transport and display information can be identified throughout human history. From the first stage to the fourth, constraints upon the distance, speed, volume and reliability of information handling have progressively been reduced. In the **first**, and longest, phase (from approximately 35,000 BC to Samuel Morse's first telegraphic transmission in 1838) information was handled through recourse to physical and mechanical power. Media for the transmission of information included fast-running couriers, carrier pigeons, smoke signals, talking drums and semaphores.

In the **second** phase, following the invention of electricity, electro-mechanical power permitted the development of the telegraph, telephone, radio and television.

In the **third** phase, the possibilities of electronics were explored, with the invention of the electronic computer, transistors, semi-conductors (such as silicon) and integrated circuits (or .chips.). The integration of telecommunication and computer technologies began. Initially, these two technologies were developed and utilized in distinct ways. For almost 80 years, telecommunication technology generated and upgraded techniques for transmission between people-centred artifacts such as telephones, facsimile machines and television systems. Eventually, switching techniques began to make networking possible.

Meanwhile, computer technology evolved from the first electro-mechanical calculator in 1939 to the first . huge . electronic computer (the ENIAC), developed during the Second World War. During the 1950s, the invention of the transistor made it possible to design computers of smaller size, operating at higher speeds, and permitting more versatile programming and reduced energy consumption. New Information-Communication Technologies, Social Development and Cultural Change Over the course of the 1950s, computer and telecommunications technologies were integrated, and computer-communications networks were created that linked computers among each other and to terminals. These networks found wide application as a number of technological advances increased the capacity, accessibility and compatibility of both computing and telecommunication facilities. For example, research in the field of telecommunications yielded innovations such as satellites, modems, optical fibers and packet switching. New computer technology permitted the integration of electronic circuits on very small surfaces of silicon (the .chip.), and then created the capacity to place the complete central processing unit of a computer on one chip (the microprocessor). The first microprocessor was manufactured by Intel in 1971, and only four years later the first computer based upon the microprocessor (the microcomputer) was marketed. This has often been identified as the beginning of the .information age.. It certainly announced the sophisticated, inexpensive and flexible personal computer (PC), which began to make the capacity to handle electronic information available to growing numbers of businesses and individuals. The 1970s and 1980s were largely characterized by further miniaturization of electronic components, exploration of new conducting materials, new techniques for faster electronic switching, expansion of memory capacity and improvements in computer software. New programming languages were developed in order to improve machine-user interaction and to render the

problem-solving capacity of computers more sophisticated. The speed of peripheral equipment (all kinds of input and output devices, such as interfaces and printers) was also increased to match the performance of the central processing unit. The **fourth** phase in the development of information and communication technologies is marked by still further reduction of constraints. Earlier analog modes of information handling are being replaced by more powerful, reliable and flexible digital systems. The technical foundations of this process lie in the early post-war era, in the innovation of a common language of microelectronics for both computing and, somewhat later, telecommunications. (Schiller and Fregoso, 1991:195). With the development of digital switches and digital transmission facilities in the 1960s, the transition from analog to digital networks began. During the 1980s the process accelerated, and by the late 1980s between one fourth and one half of all central office telephone switches in the advanced industrial market economies had been digitized. It was also in the 1980s that the international satellite consortium, INTELSAT, began to introduce full digital services such as International Business Service (IBS) and Intelnet (a digital communications service for use with small terminals) . a step considered essential to INTELSAT.s future competitiveness on the satellite services market. The next generation of advanced satellites will be compatible with the standards of integrated digital networks.

## 12.4 SUMMARY

Key elements in self-development approaches are participation, mass mobilization, and group efficacy, with the main responsibility for development planning and execution at the local level. The main roles of mass communication in such self-development may be summarized as (1) providing technical information about development problems and possibilities, and about appropriate innovations, in answer to local requests, and (2) circulating information about the self-development accomplishments of local groups so that other such groups may profit from others' experience and perhaps be challenged to achieve a similar performance.

## 12.5 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Discuss about the new communication Technology and Development.
2. Explain the communication effects gap

## 12.6 REFERENCE BOOKS

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
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15. Altshull : The Agents of Power

## Lesson-13

# ROLE OF RESEARCH IN DEVELOPMENT

## 13.0 Objectives

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Role of research in development

## STRUCTURE

### 13.1 Introduction

### 13.2 Field Experiments and Current Practice

### 13.3 Focus on Interpersonal Networks

### 13.4 Summary

### 13.5 Self Assessment Questions

### 13.6 Reference Books

## 13.1 INTRODUCTION

Mass media institutions may tend to side with the "establishment" in most nations; hence, the content of most mass media messages is seldom designed to radically alter the existing social structure in a society. Mass communication in development usually espouses an incremental change approach in which change is promoted within the existing structure rather than directly seeking to alter structural constraints to development.

Some radical critics of communication research feel that it also tends to side with the existing social structure and to reflect mainly an incremental change position. Most present-day communication research requires a team of research assistants, considerable data-gathering costs, and a sizeable budget for computer-dependent data analysis. The relatively high price of most contemporary communication research may influence the nature of such research. Research funds for investigations of communication in development usually are provided by national governments, foundations, large corporations, or universities. Seldom do the funds come from urban poor or villages, the main targets of development efforts. So the sponsorship of communication research tends to influence \_it to concentrate on studying a range of problems that reflect the priority concern of government rather than that of the public, of elites rather than the mass audience<sup>3</sup> of communication sources rather than communication receivers, of the establishment rather than revolutionary attempts to alter the social structure.

Certain communication scholars have become aware of this possible bias in their research and have sought to launch research projects that deal with topics of special benefit to those sectors of society cannot sponsor research themselves. Ultimately, this approach

amounts to greater effort (than in the past) to free the selection of what is studied from the influence of those who sponsor communication inquiry.

One means of doing so is to seek to design research that is very low cost in nature so as to free it from possible sponsorship influences. A successful illustration is provided by the study reported in the article by Prakash Shingi and Bella Mody in the present issue—a field experiment on agricultural television's ability to close the communication effects gap between advantaged and disadvantaged farmers in India. Shingi and Mody designed a "natural experiment" in which the treatment (two television programs) was produced at no cost to their study. The data base is rather modest (farmers in only three villages), and the authors gathered their own data through personal interviews with the farmers before and after the television broadcasts. The total budget for the Shingi-Mody field experiment: only about \$70 (U.S.). While there may be additional hidden costs (their salaries, for example) this experiment is probably one of the lower-priced researches in the field of development communication where big budgets are generally the rule. Another example of low-cost communication research is Granovetter's (1974: 141) study of job information in a Boston suburb, where his total budget was about \$900.

## **13.2 FIELD EXPERIMENTS AND CURRENT PRACTICE**

In addition to the cost and the sponsorship of communication research, the type of research design that is employed may also affect how directly the research results can contribute to social change versus reifying the existing social structure. Niles Rolling and his coauthors in this issue, argue for field experimental designs rather than surveys, if diffusion researches are to influence development policies in the direction of gap-narrowing communication strategies. The general point here is that field experiments will be more useful research designs in future communication studies investigating how development communication might be, rather than in just describing the "current practice" of such communication activities. In an era when important changes are occurring in our definition and understanding of the concept of development, and when accompanying changes are being made in the communication aspects of development, we expect that field experimental approaches will become more common than they have been in past communication research. The use of field experimental designs by communication researchers to study development problems moves research toward development programs. It puts the communication scholar in the role of communication/development designer as well as that of research evaluator.

## **13.3 FOCUS ON INTERPERSONAL NETWORKS**

Network analysis is a type of research in which relational data about communication flows or patterns are analyzed by using interpersonal relationships as the units of analysis (Rogers, 1976). The advantage of network analysis in comparison to the more usual monadic analysis (where the individual is the unit of analysis) is that the social structure can be overlaid on the communication flows in order to improve the scientific understanding of both the structure and the -message flows. Past communication research has frequently identified opinion leaders in a mass audience and investigated their role in the interpersonal transmission of mass media messages. But until network analysis began to be utilized in such researches, little of an exact nature could be learned about where the opinion leaders obtained the messages, and specifically to whom each such opinion leader disseminated the message. Thus, we see that the passing of the dominant paradigm of development led to new and wider roles for communication in development. The exact nature of such newer conceptions will only

become clear in the years ahead, as communication research helps illuminate the new pathways to development.

### **13.4 SUMMARY**

Mass media institutions may tend to side with the "establishment" in most nations; hence, the content of most mass media messages is seldom designed to radically alter the existing social structure in a society. Mass communication in development usually espouses an incremental change approach in which change is promoted within the existing structure rather than directly seeking to alter structural constraints to development.

### **13.5 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS**

1. Explain the role of research in development?
2. Discuss about the Field Experiments and Current Practice.

### **13.6 REFERENCE BOOKS**

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power



**Lesson-14****ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES TO  
DEVELOPMENT****14.0 OBJECTIVES**

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand  
Different approaches to development

**STRUCTURE****14.1 Introduction****14.2 Different approaches to development****14.3 Summary****14.4 Self Assessment Questions****14.5 Reference Books****14.1 INTRODUCTION**

Rural development is one of the gravest concerns for the planners and policy makers of the country. Rightly so, attention was paid to it ever since the First Five-Year Plan. Communication is the basic and indispensable tool for all human development endeavours. Effective communication of development messages, no doubt, is key to the success. Communication component was included in various forms since the early years of planned developmental efforts in the country. Communication was conceptualized as a linear, top down process, with feed back from the people. The plan document included a chapter referring to 'Plan Publicity' that included 'channels' viz. interpersonal, mass media (radio, film, print), traditional media (song, drama, etc.).

**14.2 DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENT**

Realizing value of interpersonal communication in development communication publicity, the Directorate of Field Publicity was set up in 1953. It reaches people through 221 field units and seeks public support for national campaigns on plan development, family welfare, national integration and defence preparedness. Publicity against social evils like drinking, dowry, etc., is also done by the directorate. The field units, provided with mobile vans organize film shows, photo-exhibition, songs and drama programmes. Oral communication such as seminars, group discussions and debates are also organized. Feed back from people was seen as important in successfully adapting the government messages to the local requirement and achieving popular support. communication in terms of 'plan publicity' continued through 1960's. Interpersonal channels of communication were used. Government steps against their exploitation were told to the people to motivate them. Village level worker (VLW) was seen as a change agent, friend, philosopher and guide of farmers for catalyzing development at the grass root.

Special emphasis was given to radio in the wake of special drives to boost agricultural production. The *Farm and Home programme* was started in 1966. Before that the *Krishna Darshan* programme had been started in 1965. It was during Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-74); extensive campaigns were taken up for development programmes in family planning, health, nutrition, adult education and agriculture. This was the first time that the interpersonal channels of communication among friends; family and opinion leaders were identified and utilized. Other communication channels included group discussion, mass meetings, mobile demonstration, and interpersonal contact on house-to-house basis. Films were also used to create awareness about programmes. Over time the attention turned to the ubiquitous television as a medium of development communication and number of centres was increased by leaps and bounds to cover the entire country. Arrangements for community television sets were also made in some states to encourage viewing of television. However, the dimensions of rural poverty received its due attention with the launching of Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) in 1978-79. Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), a facilitating component of IRDP was started in 1979 to provide technical skills to the rural youth from the families below the poverty line. Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) was launched as a sub-scheme of IRDP in 1982-83 to have a sharper focus on providing assistance to women. Since then we have come a long way to Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS), Mahila Samridhi Yojna (MSY), Swarna Jayanti Rojgar Yojna, etc., targeted at the below poverty line population, nearly 320 million. Poverty is a condition in which a person is not capable of providing the minimum amount of food required for one's own sustenance and of the members of the family. In India it is about 2400 Kcal per day for an individual in rural areas. Mere existence of food stock in the country does not indicate absence of poverty. One must have the ability to purchase or produce it for consumption. Melkote et al. (1986) reported that the action for cultural and political change (ACPC), an organization of Harijan (scheduled caste) agriculture labourers in Tamil Nadu, India, believes that cause of poverty and under development is not the inadequacies and ignorance of the poor, it is the structural relationship which keep the poor powerless, subservient and exploited. This organization does not see any merit in the conventional approach to development where the victims of an inequitable and unjust structure are given benefits in the form of handouts (i.e. hand aids) to temporarily relieve their misery and then promptly sent back to accept a compliant role in the structure, which produced their misery in the first place. Economically, poverty is an issue of livelihood to meet the basic needs of food, clothing and shelter. The socio-cultural dimension explains the alienation of people from the main stream of social development. There is another dimension called intellectual poverty, where people perceive a sense of worthlessness and believe they know nothing. The 'institutional' dimension of poverty explains that people are unorganized and there is no solidarity among them for their well-being and betterment. The seasonal dimension of rural poverty states that there is simultaneous prevalence of sickness, malnutrition, indebtedness, hard work, discomfort and poor food availability at certain times of the year, usually during the rains. All the dimensions of poverty are dynamic and interrelated. Alleviation of poverty is more a question of removing barriers than offering special favours to the poor. Poverty is a complex phenomenon. It implies economic backwardness, a very low purchasing power or low living standards. Persistent poverty leads to severe erosion of self-confidence, self-reliance and self-assertion. The poor have strong sense of marginality, dependence and inferiority. A sense of resignation towards life, fatalism and low level of aspirations is way of life shared by the poor. These tendencies, if perpetuated from generation to generation, dissuade them from taking full advantage of opportunities. Rural poverty is unprincipled because of the distance between the administration and the poor. Mukharjee (1990:37-40) stated that poverty has been attacked in a piece-meal manner in plans. The emphasis has been on the qualitative aspect. Thus, there is need for shift in planning from below to include the demand side of rural poor. People use communication sources to articulate their grievances on local problems. There

are several development issues facing the rural poor. The development messages have not necessarily produced the desired results. The solution to poverty alleviation lies in raising the capacities of people through education and resource transfers, social and physical infrastructure development and removing a multitude of social barriers. All these development activities need appropriate communication support. Dialogue has been advocated to raise the critical consciousness of people so that they can realize the reasons behind their wretched condition and think of suitable responses. The poor in particular need dialogue for their betterment. The rural social structure, rigid and highly stratified at the micro-level, has eclipsed development. The poor have very little access to, and understanding of, the information they are provided with. Often they know next to nothing about plans and programmes designed to promote their development. The basic problem in the majority of our plans is that they are not effectively communicated to the concerned. Though, there has been a reduction in extent of poverty, the pace of reduction has not been commensurate with the resources deployed and magnitude of the problem indicating flaws in the delivery mechanism. Major failure of the strategies of poverty alleviation efforts is the top down and 'over determined' approach. The delivery mechanism's pre-eminent concern being physical and financial achievement, it failed to enthuse people and they were not taken in as partners affecting the quality and effectiveness of programme. It is this aspect of development that calls for understanding; how development programmes are communicated among people and made use of; how do people view their problems. Analysis of communication aspects of development will help in defining existing social structures, interaction within and between groups, value and perception regarding development and priorities of the people. Collective action for development depends on a number of facts. Thus, keeping the woes of the poor and significance of communication in view, the need was acutely felt to explore the communication of development messages among rural poor in-depth.

### **14.3 SUMMARY**

Rural development is one of the gravest concerns for the planners and policy makers of the country. Rightly so, attention was paid to it ever since the First Five-Year Plan. Communication is the basic and indispensable tool for all human development endeavours. Effective communication of development messages, no doubt, is key to the success. Communication component was included in various forms since the early years of planned developmental efforts in the country. Communication was conceptualized as a linear, top down process, with feedback from the people. The plan document included a chapter referring to 'Plan Publicity' that included 'channels' viz. interpersonal, mass media (radio, film, print), traditional media (song, drama, etc.).

### **14.4 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTION**

1. Elaborate the different approaches to development.

### **14.5 REFERENCE BOOKS**

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.

5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Iereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power

## LESSON-15

# SOCIO-ECONOMIC ISSUES IN DEVELOPMENT

## 15.0 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Socio-Economic factors

## STRUCTURE

### 15.1 Population control

### 15.2 Environmental issues

### 15.3 Summary

### 15.4 Self Assessment Questions

### 15.5 Reference Books

## 15.1 POPULATION CONTROL

India is first among the countries which adopted an official family planning programme, as early as 1950. However, fifty years later this has not prevented the population touching the one billion mark. It is obvious that despite good intentions and concerted efforts we have failed in controlling our population. Considering the seriousness of the situation it is appropriate to introspect and ascertain as to what went wrong. The problem, though very complex, can be discussed under two headings: (i) the available methods for contraception and (ii) the users. It will be evident soon that it is much easier to discuss the former rather than the latter. The available methods are more than adequate but what is lacking is the will to use them. The users are both male and female, and with limited options available to the male, the entire burden of limiting the family is shouldered by the female. However, except for a miniscule percentage of the female population, the majority are passive participants in the process with no decision-making capacity. It is in this context that population control was given a new dimension, namely reproductive health, which to a large extent centres on the female (United Nations 1994). The concept of reproductive health recognizes the diversity of the special health needs of women before, during, and beyond child bearing age, as well as the needs of men and the quality of life of the people involved. Considering this new emphasis, it is evident that population control programmes and reproductive health go hand in hand and are interdependent. The success of Family Planning is closely linked with the reproductive health of the woman. It has been well documented that several factors influence reproductive health of women starting from their health during infancy, childhood, adolescent nutritional status and status in the family. It is common knowledge that despite claims of progress in the nation the girl child is still neglected in many communities; the opportunities for education and medical care are unsatisfactory and these have resulted in adverse effects on the general health and well-being of women. It needs

to be emphasized that an important factor which has considerable influence on woman's reproductive health, is the age at which the first child is born. In spite of all the laws that exist girls are still married much earlier than the stipulated age and this has an adverse effect on physical development; they are exposed to the risks of teen-age pregnancy, for which they are not prepared both psychologically and mentally. As a consequence of repeated childbirth, they are exposed to a very high risk of ill health and death. The consequences of early pregnancy are the increases in female mortality and morbidity, which are very high in India. This is because of lack of adequate facilities for child birth as more than 20% of deliveries are carried out at home by untrained or inadequately trained personnel. Further, in cases of unwanted pregnancies, there are no facilities for safe abortion. It cannot be over emphasized that problems of street children or children who are begotten out of unwanted or unplanned pregnancy may result in neglected or abandoned children who may also have to face family violence. Women are important change agents for development". A closely linked problem with women's health, development, and empowerment is the problem of child health, child survival and child development. High rates of child death also result in high birth rates, leading to a vicious cycle associated with rapid population growth and increase in maternal mortality and morbidity (WHO 1994). The child who survives in spite of the odds develops into a child with poor health, is malnourished, and often, is unwanted. The key to the successful implementation of the family planning programme is the effective communication skill of providers who motivate potential users. The job of the field worker will be much easier if he or she can convince people that contraception is a better option than the risks faced due to repeated pregnancy. Considering the large percentage of illiteracy in rural areas, there is an urgent need to improve the literacy rates particularly that of the women. There is also an immediate need to improve the conditions of primary health care centres, which are the nodal points for any reproductive health activity. Due to the lack of basic as well as transportation facilities in case of emergencies,. A national consensus has to be arrived at to uplift the facilities of the primary health care centres so that maternal and child mortality is reduced, if not totally prevented. India's population growth is a cause of worry, but the problem is not one without solutions. But regulations will not help solve the problem. The sense of responsibility should come from within every individual. While the educated male should change his attitude towards his female counterpart, granting her the dignity which is due to her, there is also an urgent need to change the status of the millions of underprivileged, illiterate women who are discriminated. Unless they are involved in the decision making process, there is little hope for the future.

## **15.2 ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES**

The environmental problems in India are growing rapidly. The increasing economic development and a rapidly growing population that has taken the country from 300 million people in 1947 to more than one billion people today is putting a strain on the environment, infrastructure, and the country's natural resources. Industrial pollution, soil erosion, deforestation, rapid industrialization, urbanization, and land degradation are all worsening problems. Over exploitation of the country's resources be it land or water and the industrialization process has resulted environmental degradation of resources. Environmental pollution is one of the most serious problems facing humanity and other life forms on planet today. Many of us are unaware of the devastating effect of deforestation, chemical fertilizers employed in agricultural fields, offshore mining, and smoke, volcanic eruptions, weathering of soil and rocks on pollution of water and its impact on man. Rapid increase in the world population within last 30-35 years, improvement in industry and technology, natural resources started to extinct have let environmental problems to come to the agenda. Some significant matters must be produced in an equal amount they are exploited in order to lead liveliness in

the nature without any interruption. These matters having an ecological significance of 'give and take' between living beings and their environments. These matters complete their circulation by following certain orbits by means of solar energy. All matters are continuously reused by living things through cycle. Most significant ones of these matter required for living things and to be transferred are water, oxygen, nitrogen, carbon, phosphorous, sulphur. Circulation of matter in cells, tissues, system and organism, chemical reactions, sustainability and consistency of the structure are ensured with water. Water is so significant from this point. But now a day the water resources are becoming polluted at a very high scale and producing alarming effects on human too. Oxides of nitrogen and sulphur present in smoke which are highly soluble in water when enter the atmosphere reacts with water vapour to form nitric and sulphuric acids, resulting in acid rain. This acid rain increases the acidity of water bodies, thereby causing harm to aquatic ecosystem. It is well known to many that water pollution would result in reduction of oxygen level in water and loss of biodiversity.

The past decade has witnessed an increasing emphasis on community-based resource management, with a view that local communities are better equipped to manage crucial resources sustainably. In other developing countries, the development of community-based resource management has led to devolution of forest management from centralized government control to local user groups

### **15.3 SUMMARY**

India is first among the countries which adopted an official family planning programme, as early as 1950. However, fifty years later this has not prevented the population touching the one billion mark. It is obvious that despite good intentions and concerted efforts we have failed in controlling our population. Considering the seriousness of the situation it is appropriate to introspect and ascertain as to what went wrong. The problem, though very complex, can be discussed under two headings: (i) the available methods for contraception and (ii) the users. It will be evident soon that it is much easier to discuss the former rather than the latter.

### **15.4 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS**

1. Discuss about the population problems in India.
2. Elaborate the environmental issues in India.

### **15.5 REFERENCE BOOKS**

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
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9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
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11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
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13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power



**Lesson-16****MULTI-MEDIA APPROACH TO  
DEVELOPMENT ISSUES****16.0 OBJECTIVES**

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Role of Television
- Earlier concepts in Development

**STRUCTURE****16.1 Introduction****16.2 Earlier concepts****16.3 Role of Television in development****16.4 Summary****16.5 Self Assessment Questions****16.6 Reference Books****16.1 INTRODUCTION**

Development and communication are two terms heavily loaded with different conceptions and a richness of uses and functions shaped by their various theoretical underpinnings. Communication media, in the context of development, are generally used to support development initiatives by the dissemination of messages that encourage the public to support development-oriented projects. Although development strategies in developing countries diverge widely, the usual pattern for broadcasting and the press has been predominantly the same: informing the population about projects, illustrating the advantages of these projects, and recommending that they be supported. A typical example of such a strategy is situated in the area of family planning, where communication means such as posters, pamphlets, radio, and television attempt to persuade the public to accept birth control methods. Similar strategies are used in campaigns regarding health and nutrition, agricultural projects, education, and so on. The concept of development communication arose within the framework of the contribution that communication and the media made to development in the countries of the Third World.

**16.2 EARLIER CONCEPTS**

Development communications are organized efforts to use communications processes and media to bring social and economic improvements, generally in developing countries. The

field emerged in the late 1950's amid high hopes that radio and television could be put to use in the world's most disadvantaged countries to bring about dramatic progress. Early communications theorists like Wilbur Schramm and Daniel Lerner based their high expectations upon the apparent success of World War II propaganda, to which academia and Hollywood had contributed. Also with World War II came dozens of new, very poor, countries, left by their former colonial overseers with little infrastructure, education, or political stability. It was widely accepted that mass media could bring education, essential skills, social unity, and a desire to "modernize." Walt Rostow theorized that societies progress through specific stages of development on their way to modernity, what he termed "the age of high mass consumption." Lerner suggested that exposure to Western media would create "empathy" for modern culture, and a desire to move from traditional to modern ways. Early development communications, especially that sponsored by the U.S. government, was also seen as a means of "winning hearts and minds" over to a capitalist way of life. These early approaches made a number of erroneous assumptions, and have been largely forsaken in contemporary approaches to development. Obstacles to development were naively seen as rooted in developing countries, not as products of international relationships. Modernization was presumed to equate to Westernization, and to be a necessary prerequisite to meeting human needs. Development was seen as a top-down process, whereby centralized mass media could bring about widespread change. Producers of development media often failed to ask if the audience can receive the message (television penetration in developing countries is minimal and radio penetration in the early days of development communication was light), understand the message (a problem in countries with dozens of languages and dialects), act upon the message (with the necessary tools or other forms of structural support), and want to act upon the message. And because it was based upon a propaganda model, development communications efforts were often seen as propaganda and distrusted. Projects embodying these philosophies have enjoyed little success. In the 1970s and 1980s, a new paradigm of development communication emerged which better recognized the process of deliberate underdevelopment as a function of colonialism, the great diversity of the cultures involved, the differences between elite versus popular goals for social change, the considerable political and ideological constraints to change, and the endless varieties of ways different cultures communicate. But in some instances mass media technologies, including television, have been "magic multipliers" of development benefits. Educational television has been used effectively to supplement the work of teachers in classrooms in the teaching of literacy and other skills, but only in well designed programs which are integrated with other educational efforts. Consumer video equipment and VCRs have been used to supplement communications efforts in some small projects. Some developing countries have demonstrated success in using satellite television to provide useful information to portions of their populations out of reach of terrestrial broadcasting.

### **16.3 ROLE OF TELEVISION IN DEVELOPMENT**

In 1975 and 1976, an experimental satellite communications project called SITE (Satellite Instructional Television Experiment) was used to bring informational television programs to rural India. Some changes in beliefs and behaviors did occur, but there is little indication that satellite television was the best means to that end. The project did lead to Indian development of its own satellite network. China has also embarked on a ambitious program of satellite use for development, claiming substantial success in rural education. When television has succeeded as an educational tool in developing countries, it is only when very specific viewing conditions are met. For example, programs are best viewed in small groups with a teacher to introduce them and to lead a discussion afterwards. Several of types of organizations work with local governments to develop communication projects. The United Nations provides

multi-lateral aid to governments. Non-profit non-governmental organizations (NGO) conduct development projects worldwide using U.N., government, or private funding. And government agencies, such as the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) provide assistance to developing countries, but with political strings attached. There are three common types of development campaigns: Persuasion, changing what people do; Education, changing social values; and informing, empowering people to change by increasing knowledge. This third approach is now perceived as the most useful. Instead of attempting to modernize people, contemporary efforts attempt to reduce inequality by targeting the poorest segments of society, involving people in their own development, giving them independence from central authority, and employing "small" and "appropriate" technologies. The emphasis has shifted from economic growth to meeting basic needs. In this new view of development, communication becomes an important catalyst for change, but not its cause. Local folk media, for example, is employed to reduce media's bias toward literacy and provide information in a traditional, familiar form. Development journalism provides people with information on change in their society, and works at the local level to advocate change. Where mass media is now employed in developing societies, community newspapers and radio prove far more accessible and useful than television. The rapid spread of entertainment television in the developing world is proving to be more a disruption to traditional social structures than an agent of progress. One emerging genre of television does show promise for contributing to development. The telenovela, pioneered in Brazil, has demonstrated some success in disseminating "pro-social" messages. Such programs are now being evaluated in many countries for their effectiveness in contributing to population control, health education, and other development goals.

Television in India has been in existence for more than four decades now. For the first few years, it spread haltingly and transmission was mainly in black & white. The thinkers and policy makers of the country, which had just been liberated from centuries of colonial rule, frowned upon television, looking on at it as a luxury Indians could do without. In 1955 a Cabinet decision was taken disallowing any foreign investments in print media which has since been followed religiously for nearly half a century. Sales of television sets, as reflected by licenses issued to buyers were just few thousands until 1977. Television has come to the forefront only in the past two decades and more so in the recent past. There were initially two ignition points: the first in the eighties when colour television was introduced by state-owned broadcaster Doordarshan (DD) timed with the 1982 Asian Games which India hosted. It then proceeded to install transmitters nationwide rapidly for terrestrial broadcasting. In this period no private enterprise was allowed to set up television stations or to transmit television signals.

The second spark came in the early nineties with the broadcast of satellite television by foreign programmers like CNN followed by Star TV and a little later by domestic channels such as Zee TV and Sun TV into Indian homes. DD responded to this satellite television invasion by launching an entertainment and commercially driven channel and introduced entertainment programming on its terrestrial network. This again fuelled the purchase of sets in the hinterlands where cable TV was not available. The initial success of the channels had a snowball effect: more foreign programmers and Indian entrepreneurs flagged off their own versions. From two channels prior to 1991, Indian viewers were exposed to more than 50 channels by 1996.

When STAR TV began broadcasting into India in 1992, it was at the vanguard of an influx of transnational television networks trying to tap into one of the world's largest consumer markets. Terrestrial television suddenly paved the way for new technology. STAR's Western programming, bold marketing, and its later ownership by one of the world's largest media conglomerates, Rupert Murdoch's News Corporation, saw the name inextricably linked with the

debate surrounding cultural change in India in the 1990s. During this period number of global cable television and satellite television channels, entered the Indian television market, vying for audiences and consumers and bringing with them predominantly western values and aspirations in the cultural commodity form.

Television market has expanded in a much bigger way in the last few years. Television industry in India has gained new momentum due to liberalization and enhanced enthusiasm shown by the broadcasters to seize a huge share of the entertainment and media industry. The number of private satellite TV channels has grown astronomically over the years. At least 394 TV channels were operating by the end of 2009. The number of non-news & current affairs TV channels has grown to 183 and that of news & current affairs TV channels has grown to 211. A number of foreign broadcasters are down linking their channels into India. A total of 67 TV channels, uplinked from abroad, have been permitted registration to be down linked in India during the years 2006-2009.

**Recent growth:** According to PricewaterhouseCooper's (PwC) data, the Indian Television industry has grown at a rate of 17.4% over the period 2004-08. However, as compared to 2007 when the industry grew at 17.1%, in 2008 the industry has grown at a rate of only 9.3% owing to the economic slowdown. It stands at Rs. 245 billion in 2008. In 2008, television distribution contributed 61% to the television industry's revenues. The growth in the distribution industry over the period 2004-08 has been contributed by a 12.4% increase in the subscription (pay) TV homes in the last 4 years. Television advertising industry has grown by 15.1 % over the last four years. PwC observes that this high growth rate has been achieved by the television advertising industry primarily on account of growth of the overall advertising industry, which in turn has benefited significantly from the surging growth in the Indian economy. It stands at an estimated Rs. 84 billion in 2008, which is up from Rs. 78 billion in 2007. Television content segment has maintained a steady and healthy growth rate of 16.5% from 2004-08. Its share in the television industry too has not changed materially and stands at 4% in 2008. In 2008, it stands at an estimated Rs. 10.1 billion in 2007, which is up from Rs. 9.4 billion in 2007. Growth achieved by the television content industry is on account of significant increase in the number of television channels in India.

### **Television and its social obligations:**

What does this growth mean to the ordinary readers and viewers of this country? Does this growth helps in any way to bring the critical social issues to the public sphere? What does it mean to the poor underclass? Does the mass media which are termed as necessary instruments of development have made any difference to the lives of the neglected communities of the country? Is the mass media performing its duty or catering only to select sections of the public? Development communication discourses; both top-down and participant theories have contested that the mass media should act as a catalyst in the process of development (Watson 2003: 103-104). The facilitator role of mass media in the process of holistic development is widely acknowledged everywhere. In fact the governments in the third world countries have used the tools of mass media to create awareness about their welfare policies. All said and done, does the media houses, which consider their journalistic practices as business enterprise, commit themselves to reporting the unreported and less reported?

### Television and social development- few instances

Consider this example; in a highly popular Indian television soap opera, "Hum log" (We people), a police inspector loses his eyesight in a bomb explosion while attempting to save a child. At the end of the episode, an epilogue by yesteryear film star Ashok Kumar encourages audience members to sign eye donation cards. In the two weeks following the program, some 200,000 people signed eye and organ donation cards, including one youth club member who personally recruited more than 900 donors (Singhal and Rogers 1989). This example clearly brings home the point that television is indeed a powerful medium of social change. By bringing in entertainment and education media strategies, television can be effectively used for social change. In the following paragraphs few more instances are discussed. Indian media, especially Indian press and Public Service Broadcasting units like *Doordarshan* and *All India Radio* (AIR) have been making important contributions towards social development. In fact some of the stated objectives of Prasar Bharati are as follows:

- ◆ Inform freely, truthfully and objectively the citizens of India on all matters of public interest, national and international.
- ◆ Provide adequate coverage to the diverse cultures and languages of the various regions of the country through appropriate programmes in the regional languages/dialects.
- ◆ Promote social justice, national consciousness, national integration, communal harmony, and the upliftment of women.
- ◆ Pay special attention to the fields of education, and spread of literacy, agriculture, rural development, environment, health and family welfare and science and technology.

In spite of troubles like funding and manpower issues bogging down Prasar Bharti, both *Doordarshan* and *AIR* continue to work towards the holistic social development of the country, albeit in a limited manner of their own.

**Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE):** Both *Doordarshan* and *AIR* have made significant contributions to the cause of social development in India. SITE is one such initiative aimed at social development, which needs a special mention here. SITE is one of the most extensive educational and social research project ever conducted in mass mediated communication. The effectiveness of TV as a medium for educating the masses in rural areas was emphasized by this experiment. With the help of NASA, UNDP, ITU and UNESCO the Indian Space Research Organization succeeded in launching SITE on August 01, 1975. Programs on topics generally considered development oriented like agricultural modernization through hybrid seeds, better farming methods and management, family planning, public health, social and educational improvement of women and children, better learning and teaching methods were transmitted through the satellite to community TV sets in 2,400 villages in 20 districts spread across the six Indian states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan. The experiment ended on July 31, 1976. J V Vilanilam (2003) considers this experiment as one of the important factors contributing to the expansion of TV in India. As recently as in 2009 NDTV has carried reports about the destruction caused by drought across India. Reports from places like Andhra Pradesh, Jharkand, Assam, and Maharashtra were covered substantially. In 2010, Journalist Ira Dugal has made a very important show on real problems affecting real people of India. Her show the 'Ground Realities' made originally for NDTV Profit, also carried in NDTV 24/7, was one of the most important shows made by

television channels in recent times. Subjects like 'Stark reality of Vidharbha region,' 'National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme,' 'rural banking' were included in the show. The series focused on inclusive growth, especially on inclusive financial growth in India.

### **Television and development: a critical perspective**

What do these instances indicate? It only brings home the point that it is possible to use mass media, especially the television, for bringing in social change and inclusive development. It is possible to use mass media for the betterment of the larger neglected communities of the country. It is possible to support people at large to help them gain the benefits of governmental initiatives meant for their welfare. But then why the mass media is not taking up this responsibility? What are the factors that are holding it back? P Sainath (2007) says, "The fundamental characteristic of our media is the growing disconnect between mass media and mass reality." That is why India's majority of the population doesn't make news. The mass media which are funded and controlled by advertisers would only remain loyal to them. As Chomsky and Herman (1994) puts it in their propaganda model, five filters- elite ownership, elite funding (advertising), elite information sources, elite flak and elite ideology (corporate ideology or consumerism)- always control mass media. As a result the media effectively serves elite interests in terms of selection and distribution of topics, framing of issues, disparity in emphasizing, and the filtering of information. Development oriented issues hardly make news. Even the success stories have failed to grab editors' attention. The mass media have constructed their own elite news frames and hardly go beyond them. "The education correspondent, for example, is largely looking at campuses, neglecting primary education. The labour correspondent has made way for the corporate affairs correspondent." (Sainath 2009). In the market place of ideas, if a media organization doesn't accord due respect to its audience and their sensibilities, there is every possibility of it getting drowned in the market. The laissez faire business model doesn't necessarily guarantee them a safe place in the market. Unfortunately the media have failed to understand this plain truth. If the mass media doesn't understand its social responsibility, it may lose its credibility as the Fourth Estate of democracy. Instead of covering the issues of social importance, the mainstream media have been chronicling India's so called economic success story. The mass media, which is expected to act as a catalyst in the process of development, seems to have forgotten their role and looks contented with their vertical and horizontal growth, thereby ignoring the larger part of the population living in the countryside. The media organizations have been focusing mainly on increasing advertising revenues and showing little concern towards social problems. Television audience measurement (TAM) figures have been touted by these media organizations to attract advertisers. Profiteering by hook or crook has now become a well accepted model in the media business. Newer players have been entering the media business to grab their chunk from the advertisers. And this is leading to growth in the media industry. It is not that the mass media is filled with people who believe only in profit making. The mainstream Indian media (mostly in print media) also possess a committed bunch of journalists, working tirelessly for the betterment of the people by covering issues like farmers' suicides, water crisis, famine, displacements etc., Although their number is lesser, they have been able to bring some of these neglected issues to the forefront. 2007 Magsaysay award recipient P Sainath from *The Hindu* for instance, has been writing extensively about the problems of rural India. There are other important journalists and writers like Kalpana Sharma, Ammu Joseph, Harsh Mander, Arundhati Roy, Mahasweta Devi, just to name a few, have been advocating and arguing for inclusive growth.

## CONCLUSION

There is clearly a big gap between urban elites and rural masses in the country. Issues like lack of healthcare and education facilities, farming crisis, displacement, human rights

violations, atrocities against women and children, increasing crimes against SCs and STs, and the like are crying for attention. The mainstream visual media is shying away from the big responsibility of focusing on such real issues. Instead, they have been unabashedly praising of reforms and so called high growth rate of the economy. For media to play its distinguished role as a catalyst in the process of development and social change, it needs to be free of the marketing forces and propaganda machinery Chomsky and Herman talks about. In a developing country like India, it's time that the mass media understands its responsibility and work towards the goal of inclusive growth. The onuses on the big and powerful news media houses to provide a sizeable media space for development issues and to motivate the affected people to participate and express their opinions on their own affairs; hitherto decided by the establishment. Besides acting as a catalyst in the developmental process, the visual news media can always keep an eye on the implementation of welfare policies. There are a huge number of audiences for such initiatives too; Doordarshan's SITE experiment is a valid case in point. It would be rather naive of marketing strategists of television news channels to forego developmental stories. After all their number is quite huge than the elite class who feature in the stories of television channels. But unfortunately, so long as mainstream media remains in the grip of the advertisers, it will be difficult for even genuinely concerned media houses to venture into this 'hard' terrain.

## 16.4 SUMMARY

Development and communication are two terms heavily loaded with different conceptions and a richness of uses and functions shaped by their various theoretical underpinnings. Communication media, in the context of development, are generally used to support development initiatives by the dissemination of messages that encourage the public to support development-oriented projects. Although development strategies in developing countries diverge widely, the usual pattern for broadcasting and the press has been predominantly the same: informing the population about projects, illustrating the advantages of these projects, and recommending that they be supported. A typical example of such a strategy is situated in the area of family planning, where communication means such as posters, pamphlets, radio, and television attempt to persuade the public to accept birth control methods. Similar strategies are used in campaigns regarding health and nutrition, agricultural projects, education, and so on. The concept of development communication arose within the framework of the contribution that communication and the media made to development in the countries of the third World.

## 16.5 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Discuss about the development of TV in India.
2. Explain the role of TV in development.

## 16.6 REFERENCE BOOKS

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
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6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
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11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power



## Lesson-17

# DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION IN INDIA

## 17.0 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Key issues
- Relevance

## STRUCTURE

### 17.1 Key issues of about Development Communication

### 17.2 Relevance of Development Communication

### 17.3 Relevance of development communication in India

### 17.4 Summary

### 17.5 Self Assessment Questions

### 17.6 Reference Books

## 17.1 INTRODUCTION

Tracing its history we have to go back to communities who listened to rural radio broadcasts in the 1940s, the Indian school of development communication. One distinguishing element of those early programs was that they focused on the use of indigenous languages – Marathi, Gujarati and Kannada. India's earliest organized experiments in development communication were held in the 1960s, sponsored by India's universities and other educational institutions, and by the Bretton Woods-school institutions. Educational institutions that played an important part in this effort include the University of Poona, the Centre for the Study of Developing Societies, Delhi University, the Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society and the University of Kerala. India is a developing country with lot of achievements in all the fields of modern day life including that of science & technology, agriculture and industry. Now development communication is such a tool of development that it is highly necessary for a developing nation like us. It has therefore been increasingly recognized that people's active participation is an essential component of sustainable development. Any intervention with the intent of achieving a real and sustainable improvement in the living conditions of people is doomed to failure unless the intended beneficiaries are actively involved in the process. Unless people participate in all phases of an intervention, from problem identification to research and implementation of solutions, the likelihood that sustainable change will occur is slim. Development communication is at the very heart of this challenge: it is the process by which people become leading actors in their own development. Communication enables people to go from being recipients of external development interventions to generators of their own development. The 20th century has witnessed the immense impact of communication technologies, from the spread of sound recording, motion pictures and radio as world-wide phenomena to the emergence of television as a dominant influence in nearly every institution, to the explosion of the Internet at the turn of the new century. The digital revolution is far from

over, as new inventions repeatedly challenge assumptions that were themselves formed only yesterday. This is an exciting and critically important moment for communication scholars to contribute to understanding, and shaping the parameters of our changing technological and academic environment. Because it is communication with a social conscience, development communication is heavily oriented towards man, that is, towards the human aspects of development. Even though it is primarily associated with rural development, it is also concerned with urban, particularly suburban problems. It plays two broad roles. The first is a transformational role through which it seeks social change in the direction of higher quality of life and social justice. The second is a socialization role through which it strives to maintain some of the established values of society that are consonant with development. In playing these roles, development communication creates an enhancing atmosphere for the exchange of ideas that produce a happy balance in social and economic advancement between physical output and human relationships.

## 17.2 KEY ISSUES ABOUT DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

Many myths and misconceptions are nurtured about communication, especially when related to the field of development. These misconceptions can often be the cause of misunderstandings and lead to inconsistent and ineffective use of communication concepts and practices. The first two points on this list are about communication in general, while the others refer to development communication in particular. *“Communications” and “communication” are not the same thing.* The plural form refers mainly to activities and products, including information technologies, media products, and services (the Internet, satellites, broadcasts, and so forth). The singular form, on the other hand, usually refers to the process of communication, emphasizing its dialogical and analytical functions rather than its informative nature and media products. This distinction is significant at the theoretical, methodological, and operational levels. *There is a sharp difference between everyday communication and professional communication.* Such a statement might seem obvious, but the two are frequently equated, either overtly or more subtly, as in, —He or she communicates well; hence, he or she is a good communicator. □ A person who communicates well is not necessarily a person who can make effective and professional use of communication. Each human being is a born communicator, but not everyone can communicate strategically, using the knowledge of principles and experience in practical applications. A professional (development) communication specialist understands relevant theories and practices and is capable of designing effective strategies that draw from the full range of communication approaches and methods to achieve intended objectives. 3. *There is a significant difference between development communication and other types of communication.* Both theoretically and practically, there are many different types of applications in the communication family. In this article I refer to four main types of communication: advocacy communication, corporate communication, internal communication, and development communication. Each has a different scope and requires specific knowledge and skills to be performed effectively. Expertise in one area of communication is not sufficient to ensure results if applied in another area. *The main scope and functions of development communication are not exclusively about communicating information and messages, but they also involve engaging stakeholders and assessing the situation.* Communication is not only about —selling ideas. □ Such a conception could have been appropriate in the past, when communication was identified with mass media and the linear Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver model, whose purpose was to inform audiences and persuade them to change. Not surprisingly, the first systematic research on the effects of communication was carried out soon after World War II, when communication activities were mostly associated with a controversial concept— propaganda. Currently, the scope of development communication has broadened to include an analytical

aspect as well as a dialogical one—intended to open public spaces where perceptions, opinions, and knowledge of relevant stakeholders can be aired and assessed. *Development communication initiatives can never be successful unless proper communication research is conducted before deciding on the strategy.* A communication professional should not design a communication campaign or strategy without having all the relevant data to inform his or her decision. If further research is needed to obtain relevant data, to identify gaps, or to validate the project assumptions, the communication specialist must not hesitate to make such a request to the project management. Even when a communication specialist is called in the middle of a project whose objectives appear straightforward and clearly defined, specific communication research should be carried out if there are gaps in the available data. Assumptions based on the experts' knowledge should always be triangulated with other sources to ensure their overall validity. Given its interdisciplinary and cross-cutting nature, communication research should ideally be carried out at the inception of any development initiative, regardless of the sector or if a communication component would be needed at a later stage. *To be effective in their work, development communication specialists need to have a specific and in-depth knowledge of the theory and practical applications of the discipline.* In addition to being familiar with the relevant literature about the various communication theories, models, and applications, development communication specialists should also be educated in the basic principles and practices of other interrelated disciplines, such as anthropology, marketing, sociology, ethnography, psychology, adult education, and social research. In the current development framework, it is particularly important that a specialist be acquainted with participatory research methods and techniques, monitoring and evaluation tools, and basic principles of strategy design. Additionally, a good professional should also have the right attitude toward people, being empathic and willing to listen and to facilitate dialog in order to elicit and incorporate stakeholders' perceptions and opinions. Most of all, a professional development communication specialist needs to be consistently issue-focused, rather than institution-focused. *Development communication support can only be as effective as the project itself.* Even the most well-designed communication strategy will fail if the overall objectives of the project are not properly determined, if they do not enjoy a broad consensus from stakeholders, or if the activities are not implemented in a satisfactory manner. Sometimes communication experts are called in and asked to provide solutions to problems that were not clearly investigated and defined, or to support objectives that are disconnected from the political and social reality on the ground. In such cases, the ideal solution is to carry out field research or a communication-based assessment to probe key issues, constraints, and feasible options. Tight deadlines and budget limitations, however, often induce managers to put pressure on communication experts to produce quick fixes, trying to force them to act as short-term damage-control public relations or —spin doctors.□ In such cases, the basic foundations of development communication are neglected, and the results are usually disappointing, especially over the long term. *Development communication is not exclusively about behavior change.* The areas of intervention and the applications of development communication extend beyond the traditional notion of behavior change to include, among other things, probing socioeconomic and political factors, identifying priorities, assessing risks and opportunities, empowering people, strengthening institutions, and promoting social change within complex cultural and political environments. That development communication is often associated with behavior change could be ascribed to a number of factors, such as its application in health programs or its use in mass media to persuade audiences to adopt certain practices. These kinds of interventions are among the most visible, relying heavily on communication campaigns to change people's behaviors and to eliminate or reduce often fatal risks (for example, AIDS). The reality of development, though, is complex and often requires broader changes than specific individual behaviors. 9. *Media and information technologies are not the backbone of development communication.* As a matter of fact, the value-added of development communication occurs before media and information and communication

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

### **17.3 RELEVANCE OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION IN INDIA**

Development communication is an essential feature for the Indian situation as we are still a developing nation with a large population next only to that of China. It is important to note that we do possess an enormously large amount of resources of all kinds including human and natural ones. But we are yet to achieve the kind of universal development of masses which should have been the optimum given the country's situation. Immediately after Independence in 1947, we faced the challenge of bringing about an equitable and regionally-balanced distribution of wealth and development of the distant places of the country with limited resources. But, while the efforts of the government authorities are growing high, the population is also growing at an explosive rate over the years, thus causing a negative effect on all development issues. It is important to note that India also possesses the largest pool of trained manpower in science and technology though our living standard still deserves a lot to be done. This is why development communication is still highly relevant for the Indian situation and its significance is growing every passing year due to the changing scenario. It is common knowledge that the more than two centuries of colonial rule of the country had left us with a very low level of progress along with an extremely higher rate of exploitation which is normal under such circumstances. This has left the state machinery of the country after Independence with several major and vital challenges. These included – a very low level of literacy, lack of an adequate industrial base and infrastructure etc. among others. Our experience of the past fifty one years has demonstrated the crucial importance of communication in the field of development. Within this perspective of development communication, two trends developed successively: an approach that favored large-scale actions and relied on the mass media, and an approach that promoted grassroots communication (also called community communication), promoting small-scale projects and relying especially on the light media (videos, posters, slide presentation, etc.). These trends, which still coexist today to various degrees within the field of development communication, are linked to the evolution of the development and communication models that have marked development efforts up to now. The trend toward mass communication initially marked the first two decades during which the media were utilized in the field of development. It espoused the idea that it was enough to disseminate the knowledge and the technologies of the North to ensure that they were adopted. Once adopted, they would achieve the development of the South. This first vision of development is referred to as the paradigm of "modernization." These initial experiences, centered mainly around the mass media, relied both on a communication model based on persuasion and information transmission, and on a development model based on increasing economic activity and changes in values and attitudes.

### **17.4 SUMMARY**

Tracing its history we have to go back to communities who listened to rural radio broadcasts in the 1940s, the Indian school of development communication. One distinguishing element of those early programs was that they focused on the use of indigenous languages – Marathi, Gujarati and Kannada. India's earliest organized experiments in development

communication were held in the 1960s, sponsored by India's universities and other educational institutions, and by the Bretton Woods-school institutions. Educational institutions that played an important part in this effort include the University of Poona, the Centre for the Study of Developing Societies, Delhi University, the Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society and the University of Kerala.

## **17.5 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS**

1. Explain about the key issues in development communication.
2. What is the relevance of development communication in India?

## **17.6 REFERENCE BOOKS**

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
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11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power

## Lesson-18

# MEDIA COMMUNICATION POLICIES IN THE POST INDEPENDENT INDIAN

## 18.0 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Role of AIR, DD in National Development

## STRUCTURE

### 18.1 Introduction

### 18.2 Objectives

### 18.3 Role of state controlled media in development

### 18.4 Summary

### 18.5 Self Assessment Questions

### 18.6 Reference Books

## 18.1 INTRODUCTION

Broadcasting in India actually began about 13 years before AIR came into existence. In June 1923 the Radio Club of Bombay made the first ever broadcast in the country. This was followed by the setting up of the Calcutta Radio Club five months later. The Indian Broadcasting Company (IBC) came into being on July 23, 1927, only to face liquidation in less than three years. In April 1930, the Indian Broadcasting Service, under the Department of Industries and Labor, commenced its operations on an experimental basis. Lionel Fielden was appointed the first Controller of Broadcasting in August 1935. In the following month Akashvani Mysore, a private radio station was set up. On June 8, 1936, the Indian State Broadcasting Service became All India Radio. The Central News Organization (CNO) came into existence in August, 1937. In the same year, AIR came under the Department of Communications and four years later came under the Department of Information and Broadcasting. When India attained independence, there were six radio stations in India, at Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Tiruchirapalli and Lucknow. There were three in Pakistan (Peshawar, Lahore and Dacca). AIR then had coverage of just 2.5 % of the area and 11% of the population. The following year, CNO was split up into two divisions, the News Services Division (NSD) and the External Services Division (ESD). In 1956 the name AKASHVANI was adopted for the National Broadcaster. The Vividh Bharati Service was launched in 1957 with popular film music as its main component. The phenomenal growth achieved by All India Radio has made it one of the largest media organizations in the world. With a network of 262 radio stations, AIR today is accessible to almost the entire population of the country and nearly 92% of the total area of Broadcasting

giant, AIR today broadcasts in 23 languages and 146 dialects catering to a vast spectrum of socio-economically and culturally diverse populace. Programmes of the External Services Division are broadcast in 11 Indian and 16 foreign languages reaching out to more than 100 countries. These external broadcasts aim to keep the overseas listeners informed about developments in the country and provide a rich fare of entertainment as well. The News Services Division, of All India Radio broadcasts 647 bulletins daily for a total duration of nearly 56 hours in about 90 Languages/Dialects in Home, Regional, External and DTH Services. 314 news headlines on hourly basis are also being mounted on FM mode from 41 AIR Stations. 44 Regional News Units originate 469 daily news bulletins in 75 languages. In addition to the daily news bulletins, the News Services Division also mounts number of news-based programmes on topical subjects from Delhi and its Regional News Units AIR operates at present 18 FM stereo channels, called AIR FM Rainbow, targeting the urban audience in a refreshing style of presentation. Four more FM channels called, AIR FM Gold, broadcast composite news and entertainment programmes from Delhi, Kolkata, Chennai and Mumbai. With the FM wave sweeping the country, AIR is augmenting its Medium Wave transmission with additional FM transmitters at Regional stations. In keeping with the Government decision for transition to the digital mode of transmission, AIR is switching from analog to digital in a phased manner. The technology adopted is the Digital Radio Mondiale or DRM. With the target of complete digitization by 2017, the listeners can look forward to highly enhanced transmission quality in the near future.

### **Mission**

All India Radio (AIR) has been serving to inform, educate and entertain the masses since its inception, truly living up to its motto – '*Bahujan Hitaya: Bahujan Sukhaya*'.

## **18.2 OBJECTIVES**

To provide information, education and entertainment, for promoting the welfare and happiness of the masses (*Bahujana Hitaya Bahujana Sukhaya*), All India Radio strives to :-

- a) Uphold the unity of the country and the democratic values enshrined in the constitution.
- b) Present a fair and balanced flow of information of national, regional, local and international interest, including contrasting views, without advocating any opinion or ideology of its own.
- c) Promote the interest and concerns of the entire nation, being mindful of the need for harmony and understanding within the country and ensuring that the programmes reflect the varied elements which make the composite culture of India.
- d) Produce and transmit varied programmes designed to awaken, inform, enlighten, educate, entertain and enrich all sections of the people.
- e) Produce and transmit programmes relating to developmental activities in all their facets including extension work in agriculture, education, health and family welfare and science & technology.
- f) Serve the rural, illiterate and under-privileged population, keeping in the mind the special needs and interest of the young, social and cultural minorities, the tribal population and those residing in border regions, backward or remote areas.
- g) Promote social justice and combat exploitation, inequality and such evils as untouchability and narrow parochial loyalties.

- h) Serve the rural population, minority communities, women, children, illiterate as well as other weaker and vulnerable sections of the society.
- i) Promote national integration.

In the advanced western countries, the Communication Revolution had not preceded but followed the industrial Revolution.<sup>1</sup> Western societies had become advanced industrial and urban societies when the communication revolution happened. This revolution was symbolized by the Radio and Television and other new ways of "passing ideas, information, attitudes, images from person to person. The importance of the role of communication for national development was underscored in India even prior to her independence. The Indian National Congress while formulating policies for National Development for Independent India set up a Sub-committee on Communication under the National Planning Committee to offer recommendations for development of communication for independent India. After independence of the country in 1947, the new Indian government announced a development-oriented agenda of governance dedicated to the amelioration of the economic, educational, and health conditions of the people. With the target of Development Communication, the new government adopted the recommendations of the erstwhile National Planning Committee as the mainstay of its communication policies. "The issue of using modern communication acquired high priority as a developmental resource during the Nehru era when the planners explored the prospects of using *radio* as a development agent, that is, for information and enlightening the people in the countryside and towns on developmental issue. Nehru was hesitant of introducing television in India as he was apprehensive that it will be monopolized by the middle class rather than be of use for the development of the masses. Nehru believed that a poor country like India could ill afford the *extravagance* of television. But post Nehruvian era, the thrust began to change, visionary scientists like Vikram Sarabhai argued that India needs all possible technological know-how to educe all round development. Sarabhai famously said: "Our national goals involve leap-frogging from a state of economic backwardness and social disabilities attempting to achieve in a few decades a change which was incidentally taken centuries in other countries and in other lands. This involves innovation at all levels." Indira Gandhi, the then Prime Minister of India was supportive of Sarabhai's ideas and it culminated in the launching of the momentous Satellite Instructional Television Experiment in 1975-76 from the Space Application Centre located at Ahmadabad. It started beaming development oriented programmes to 2400 Indian Villages, the software were designed according to the socio cultural specificities of the areas concerned. It was a path breaking experiment in the field of development communication not only in India but also for the whole world. Till then Radio and television was considered an instrument of entertainment for the elite. And this was a new effort in utilizing both the media for Development Support Communication. These experiments were revolutionary in character as "market forces would never have taken TV sets to many of these villages and most certainly not to the houses of the poor and the marginalized--- the most information needy. This means was high technology (a direct broadcast satellite and a direct reception system) and the configuration was need-based. Accepting that the western world used the new technology and innovation to spread consumer culture, Nehru urged upon the scientists and the technologists to bend the same technology to achieve the Gandhian task of "ending of poverty and ignorance and disease and inequality of opportunity." During the days of Indira Gandhi the infrastructure for television communication received a major boost. Between the years 1984-85 over 120 television transmitters were installed in India.

But as is a typical Indian trait, the SITE experiment in the Kheda district died a silent death with Sarabhai. "The Kheda Project itself was wound up under tremendous pressure of the new rural middle class which was carried away by the glitter and glamour of the new television



software. With the impending globalization of the media the question of ownership pattern and issues became a very important topic of deliberation. In fact this issue was much thought about even during the days of Nehru. Nehru showed an unambiguous indication of predilection towards the BBC style of autonomy. On a speech delivered on “freedom of information” on March 5, 1962 Nehru said “The mass media which are very useful have an element of danger in them in that they may be distorted for private aim. The rich group (inside) or the rich nation (outside) can flood the country and the world through the mass media with its own view of things which may or may not be correct view.” These words had turned out to be ominously true in the present world. Because after India adopted neo-liberal economic policies in early 1990s, the communication policies underwent a drastic change. The state-controlled media agencies, viz., All India Radio and Doordarshan (national television network), till then dedicated more to the objective of public welfare, were asked to generate their own revenue. Both Radio and Television were laid open to private players. TRP and RAM started dictating the terms of popularity and hence advertisement revenue. Television was the major victim of this market oriented media policy. Slowly, the villages started disappearing from the visual media. So did the issues inflicting the marginalized rural population. Whatever rural flavor was left in Radio was the run of the mill, very stale and unimaginative. However, it is not that urban India was realistically represented; it was more of a conjecture with no specific geographical root.

### 18.3 ROLE OF STATE CONTROLLED MEDIA IN DEVELOPMENT

All India Radio had been the forerunner in the process of implementing Communication strategy being adopted by the government. The Radio Rural Forum experiment was conducted by the All India Radio at Poona during 1956. The project covered 156 villages where listening and discussion groups were organized in each of the selected villages. A programme of thirty minutes duration was broadcast on two days in a week covering agriculture and allied subjects to help promote rural development. Prof. Paul Neurath on behalf of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences conducted an evaluation study, and came out with interesting results: (1) The radio is very suitable medium to communicate with rural audience and to spread the message of development. (2) A majority of the listeners appreciated the value of the messages.



All India Radio - Image.9

The Farm and Home units were subsequently established at many AIR stations to provide wider support to the Integrated Agriculture Development Programme (IADP). The contribution of the radio is widely acknowledged by farm scientists in increasing agriculture production and achieving a green revolution. Similar attempt was taken in respect of the Family

Welfare programme. Till date All India Radio has its Family welfare programmes broadcast everyday focusing on the various government schemes. The government controlled media has been more or less toeing a centralized form of communication. AIR (All India Radio) during its initial days formulated its communication policies in Delhi and got it translated to the various languages for dissemination. The irony was that it never even looked at the regional variations of the problems. To cite an example, every year, the government observes the first week of August as "Breast Feeding week" to emphasize on the importance of Breast Feeding for the new born as well as the lactating mother. The government media goes overboard with the campaign. Whereas, in India the people of the Northeastern part needs no campaign as all mothers breast feed their babies instinctively. Hence spending so much of valuable transmission time on such campaigns for these areas could never elicit any result. However no such knowledge level is decipherable in the annual orders that are sent to all the AIR stations about such campaigns. The state controlled television, Doordarshan, which has a very wide coverage area too has its programmes designed for health and family welfare too suffer from the same affliction. The most tragic development is that, such a huge public service broadcasting infrastructure right now is almost redundant and non- functional. "The ministries of the central and state governments engaged in nation building and development tasks seem to create neither any communication apparatus within their own ministries nor do they make demands on the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting (MIB) for information and communication support adequate to the needs of policy formulation or implementation. The MIB is far from playing the role of a true *communicating link* within the government and between the government and the people in nation-building activities

## 18.4 SUMMARY

AIR today is accessible to almost the entire population of the country and nearly 92% of the total area of Broadcasting giant, AIR today broadcasts in 23 languages and 146 dialects catering to a vast spectrum of socio-economically and culturally diverse populace. Programmes of the External Services Division are broadcast in 11 Indian and 16 foreign languages reaching out to more than 100 countries. These external broadcasts aim to keep the overseas listeners informed about developments in the country and provide a rich fare of entertainment as well. The News Services Division, of All India Radio broadcasts 647 bulletins daily for a total duration of nearly 56 hours in about 90 Languages/Dialects in Home, Regional, External and DTH Services. 314 news headlines on hourly basis are also being mounted on FM mode from 41 AIR Stations. 44 Regional News Units originate 469 daily news bulletins in 75 languages.

## 18.5 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Write about the role of AIR in national development.
2. Explain about the communication policies in post independence India.

## 18.6 REFERENCE BOOKS

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.

4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power

## LESSON-19

# NATIONAL COMMUNICATION POLICIES

## 19.0 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- ① Disparities in the world's communication resources

## STRUCTURE

### 19.1 Introduction

### 19.2 Summary

### 19.3 Self Assessment Questions

### 19.4 Reference Books

## 19.1 INTRODUCTION

Considerable progress has been achieved, especially in recent years, in the development of communication systems. This has been due, on the one hand, to the exponential growth in communication technology, and, on the other hand, to an increasing knowledge of the way that communication functions within societies and among nations. Although much has been achieved at various levels, there are still gaps, imbalances and distortions in the development and use of communication everywhere. It is essential to recognize that there is no model of a perfect system. Communication is fundamentally an organic process, evolving in capacity, content, style and purpose, leading to change in some instances, and lagging in others. In some societies there is at least academic concern about "information overload", with too many communication systems and media competing for the attention of audiences. In others, communication extends no further than the range of the human voice. Illiteracy is still a basic impediment to the growth of communication. Communication technology, despite its rapid developments, is still costly, complex, and difficult to operate, and even more difficult to maintain. The education of engineers and technicians becomes more specialized with each technological stride; the possibility of developing nations catching up with technology becomes more elusive each year. The disparities in the world's communication resources, the anomalies in needs and capacities, the confronting sophistication of technology and the philosophical contrasts in the use of communication will not be resolved by legislation or the evolution of an applicable consensus. What has become clear in a growing body of work in this field by nations themselves as well as by governmental and nongovernmental organizations such as UNESCO and the International Telecommunications Union (*ITU*), is that movement towards a more equitable and efficient use of communication must begin by defining realistic goals and policies, and planning for their achievement. Existing and potential resources must be examined in the light of communication needs and objectives, and the basis of these is clear and well-defined policies. Given a policy, the use of and development of resources can be planned. Whether this

planning is centralized, based on one political and economic philosophy or another does not negate the validity of the process. Communication policies are sets of principles and norms established to guide the behaviour of communication systems. They are shaped over time in the context of society's general approach to communication and to the media. Emanating from political ideologies, the social, economic, cultural and legal conditions of the country and the values on which they are based, they strive to relate these to the real needs *for*, and the prospective opportunities of, communication. Communication policies exist in every society, though they may sometimes be latent and disjointed, rather than clearly articulated and harmonized. They may be very general, in the nature of desirable goals and principles, or they may be more specific and practically binding. They may be incorporated in the Constitution or legislation of a country, in overall national policies, in the guidelines for individual administrations, in professional codes of ethics, as well as in the constitutions and operational rules of particular communication institutions. By and large, it seems reasonable to view the emergence of the concept of communication policies and planning as resulting from the nature of communication development generally in many parts of the world, and more specifically from the particular experiences of different societies. The development of communication infrastructures and the making of policies from time to time, often as reactions to some events rather than well thought-out and formulated ideas in their own right, have therefore brought with them a continuing series of problems not only at the national level, but also at the local, regional and international levels, where they have further impinged directly upon relationships among peoples and nations. A growing number of countries are recognizing that whatever communication policies they may already have are rather pragmatic and piecemeal, setting norms and guidelines for a particular medium or for a specific sector, and generally partial and sometimes conflicting. They see the need for widening the scope of their decisions and for bringing about a positive integration between different sectors, *for example*, between public and private management, in order to extend the clarity that policy brings to the whole communication system rather than merely its parts. Since the parts overlap constantly and even cumulatively in communication, apart from their overlapping with other sectors as well, such an integration of policies is now seen as necessary. The experiences that countries have had perhaps make it easier to recognize the potential for policy formulation and for planning. It also makes it easier to foresee some of the implications. How the policies are to be drawn up and formulated, if found feasible and necessary, in such a way as to redress present imbalances and especially to harness communication for development and the overall improvement of the quality of life, is a matter for each country to design as it sees fit, either for itself alone or for the sake of cooperation within a sub-regional or regional group. Obviously there will be certain areas where each country would recognize that it is also part of a global communication system and therefore must set policy guidelines to enable the national system to work in harmony with a just international system, and on the basis of a fair and equitable distribution of the world's wealth of information, knowledge and culture. As a general rule, policy formulation entails determination of the main goals and roles of communication media and other parts of a communication system, the identification of needs and priorities, etc. Policy formulation may *also* call for a rationalization and possible reorganization of existing systems. Later, in the implementation of policy, succeeding steps involving evaluation, assessment, reassessment and refinement will have to be taken. All of these steps, of course, need to be dovetailed into overall national policy and goals. Communication policies should be clear, concise and authoritative, without being inflexible and nonfunctional to a point where they may prevent a nation's goals from being reached in a democratic, equitable and efficient manner. Communication policies may be either implicit or explicit. Institutions and institutional norms or they may be centralized and concentrated. Most countries follow certain unwritten communication policies, which are the sum total of many decisions taken at different times and at different levels, and not many countries yet have an explicit communication policy. Also lacking are institutions charged

explicitly with interpreting, implementing, supporting, supervising and evaluating communication policies. One of the main reasons for the widespread acceptance of this relatively new notion of communication policy formulation is the tremendous strides made in communication technology and the impact of such technological developments on the entire fabric of every given society, both internally and in its relationship with other societies. Among some of the other important reasons may be the fact that the growing sophistication and information consciousness among increasingly larger numbers of people in the newly independent countries of the world has led to changing patterns of communication concern, activities and information flow and technological developments could be the fact that most of the major "models" of communication, the philosophies governing the information systems, were in fact legacies of the past, often brought from the outside and not completely assimilated by and into the innate geniuses of the societies concerned. The cracks within such systems have surfaced gradually but very perceptibly as the countries began to use the systems for their own purposes, according to their own real needs and with social, economic, and cultural patterns of their own. The nature and form of communication systems, however, have been but symptoms of more general economic and social problems. Decision and policymakers must obviously keep this in mind in deciding and drawing up plans and programmes for communication development. But, to the extent that the larger national goals and programmes may not necessarily take this into account, it would be necessary for communication policy-makers and planners. It is being increasingly suggested that every country should aim at setting up a national communication policy council which could bring together representatives of various sectors of the communication system and act as the nucleus of an overall mechanism for policy formulation, implementation, co-ordination, and perhaps arbitration. It is also generally agreed that such a council should be supported by adequate executive and technical services, and, perhaps, limited legal powers among others, for organization, co-ordination and direction of the communication research programme, and as the institution required for the effective implementation of communication policies and for the translation of these into planning strategies. While not the only way to go about the important task of assuring public participation in the formulation of policies, a communication policy council could certainly provide a forum for discussion, research, could identify priority areas and key positions, and could clear the way for eventual implementation. National council could assign research tasks, collate information and stimulate exploratory discussions at many levels. Subsequently, it could elaborate policies or advise thereon for government and communication institutions. Since decisions in the communication fields are likely to condition development for many years to come, they need to be well prepared and considered. This requires that the communication council have considerable stability, although its membership may of course be regularly refreshed. Since research, and assembly and storage of data are costly processes, which require specialists and appropriate facilities so that academic institutions, economic, statistical and research services and others may be commissioned to gather and analyze the required information, special financial allocations are necessary. The council itself will need staff, office space and funds.

## 19.2 SUMMARY

Considerable progress has been achieved, especially in recent years, in the development of communication systems. This has been due, on the one hand, to the exponential growth in communication technology, and, on the other hand, to an increasing knowledge of the way that communication functions within societies and among nations.

Although much has been achieved at various levels, there are still gaps, imbalances and distortions in the development and use of communication everywhere. It is essential to

recognize that there is no model of a perfect system. Communication is fundamentally an organic process, evolving in capacity, content, style and purpose, leading to change in some instances, and lagging in others. In some societies there is at least academic concern about "information overload", with too many communication systems and media competing for the attention of audiences. In others, communication extends no further than the range of the human voice.

### **19.3 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTION**

1. Discuss the disparities in the world's communication resources?

### **19.4 REFERENCE BOOKS**

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
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13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power

**LESSON-20****FUNCTIONS OF A NATIONAL COMMUNICATION  
POLICY****20.0 OBJECTIVES**

After completion of this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- ① Role of UNESCO in developing the Communication Policies

**STRUCTURE**

**20.1 Role of UNESCO in developing the Communication Policies**

**20.2 Social Change**

**20.3 Free Flow of Information**

**20.4 Institution Building**

**20.5 Summary**

**20.6 Self Assessment Questions**

**20.7 Reference Books**



United Nations  
Educational, Scientific and  
Cultural Organization

Image.10



## 20.1 ROLE OF UNESCO IN DEVELOPING THE COMMUNICATION POLICIES

The principal functions of a national communication policy council would include: (l) (a) to promote coherent, national and comprehensive analyses of existing policies and controls and of national communication objectives; to identify the rights, interests, obligations and interdependence of various communication institutions within society; to enhance greater efficiency in the application and expenditures of frequently limited economic and physical resources by setting priorities and reducing internal contradictions; to safeguard the rights and interests of various sectors involved in communication enterprises by providing a forum for continuous discussion and clarification; to provide the framework for anticipating changes in media technology, assessing their value for promoting national and international goals, and revealing their harmful effects; to perform a "look out" function to foresee technological innovations on the international scene which may be important, as "quantum jumps" in national communication planning;

(e) To identify important international communication policy issues which are constraints on national policy?

(f) To ensure national compatibility with international norms and standards:

(g) To enable the nation to speak consistently and coherently at international discussions of communication matters, and to recommend appropriate diplomatic action on questions involving international communication. These councils may initially have an advisory Implementation of communication policies and practices requires joint action among those involved in such areas as the social, economic, scientific, educational, cultural, political and foreign affairs of a country. The national communication policy council should not be conceived as a superpower set up to control the media. It can be truly successful only if it is in constant contact and dialogue with the communicators and citizens, whose direct participation in the formulation and implementation of communication policies is vital. Few things can more effectively frustrate and distort the flow of communication than lack of respect for the nature of communication itself and the human and States have social, economic and ethical obligations and responsibilities in all matters relating to stimulation, support, promotion and dissemination of the resources of the community in the interest of *its* overall individual and collective development. They should therefore encourage individuals and peoples to become aware of their present and future responsibilities and their capacity for autonomy, by multiplying opportunities for dialogue and community mobilization; that it should be the joint responsibility of the State and the citizen to establish plans and programmes for the extensive and positive use of communication media within the framework of development policies that communication policies should contribute to knowledge, understanding, friendship, cooperation and integration of peoples through a process of identification of common goals and needs, respecting national sovereignties and the international legal principle of non-intervention in the affairs of States as well as the cultural and political plurality of societies and individuals, with a view to achieving world solidarity and peace; that the United Nations and the agencies of its system, especially Unesco, should contribute, to the fullest extent that their possibilities allow, to this universal process". Other common philosophical bases repeated throughout this first Intergovernmental Conference on Communication Policies included emphasis on the urgent necessity for realistic national communication policies and effective national communication policy councils; that States, with the participation of all the sectors concerned, should formulate their own national communication and information policies or bring their existing ones up to date, in order to

guarantee the fundamental right to freedom of thought, opinion and expression, the free flow of communication and the legal and social responsibility of communicators. It was stressed that this could only be achieved through concerted action between the executive, the legislative and the administrative branches of government together with the media institutions, both public and private (where they exist), the professional organizations and the people themselves who, in the end, are the ultimate users of the communication systems. (1) UNESCO'S objective is to encourage international co-operation and understanding, and promote economic, social and cultural development. Its approach to communication is based on the fundamental premise that it is an important, integral and indispensable part of the Organization's own basic philosophy and mandate.

UNESCO'S special responsibilities, however, are the ways in which communication supports and is related to education, science and culture, while being a component of human development in its own right .not only encouraging and supporting the development of communication infrastructures, but also most importantly, in promoting the recognition of communication as an essential component in all facets of a society's and individual's development and improvement. While the imbalance in the flow of information has become one of its most topical issues in recent years, there have also been other questions, notably the relatively new concept of the right to communicate, the twin problems of access and participation, the question of technology transfer, and, of course, the important question of communication policies and planning which embraces all of these more specific questions. UNESCO has also continued to be greatly concerned with the development of communication systems (1) along with the training of personnel and the promotion of communication research. The background of its Medium- Term Plan which was adopted by the nineteenth session of its General Conference (Nairobi, 1976), and within the framework of the objectives which this Conference drew up as guidelines for programme planning. Briefly, Specific to UNESCO'S communication work has included UNESCO'S programmes should be seen against relevant objectives are as follows: promotion of a free and balanced flow of information and of international exchanges; promotion of a better understanding and appreciation of the process and role of communication in society, and of high professional standards; promotion of policies, infrastructures and training in the field of communication, and encouragement of a better use of the media *for* social ends; (d) Development and promotion of information systems and services at the national, regional and international levels. UNESCO continues to promote international cooperation through: standard-setting action, by formulating criteria to serve as a basis for international agreements and conventions; promotional activities which may help Member States to devise and carry out national or regional projects related to UNESCO'S programmes; and projects of an operational nature which the Organization executes at the request of Member States. Many questions pertaining to communication fall within the spirit of the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights, since so many of the facets of communication are aimed at not only informing and educating the human being, but also at providing him with the opportunities for interacting with his fellow humans and above all for developing his faculties for creativity, opinion and expression. UNESCO'S aim here is essentially to assist and encourage national, regional and international efforts to promote these human rights, while not forgetting professional rights and responsibilities, and the rights of nations within the larger regional and international context, where such questions as imbalances among nations may bring to a head the demands for an overall review of the present communication situation. As UNESCO'S Director- General, MI-. Amadou-Mahtar MIBOW, has said: 'It a time when the fundamental importance of communication in a democratic society is becoming ever more apparent, and when the remarkable progress of science and technology is offering man ' tremendous new opportunities, the quest for a new world order is obviously concerned with communication just as much as with the economic, social and cultural aspects of life. We are now beginning to

recognize the value of cultural pluralism and the importance for the world community of preserving the cultural integrity of every people". Information is knowledge, and knowledge is power. Communication is the process of information dissemination and empowering people. Through communication we seek willing cooperation of others and build social organisations of varied complexities. It is through communication that fire of hatred and conflict is fanned and so are done the tender feelings of love, cooperation and peace. It is in this context, perhaps, that the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) pro-claimed that "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the 'minds of men that defences of peace must be constructed" as its preamble and emphasised the need to collaborate in the work of advancing the mutual knowledge and understanding of the peoples, through all means of mass communication in Article 2 of its Constitution.<sup>1</sup> As such, information and communication development has been one of the major concerns of the United Nations in general and UNESCO in particular since their inception. The United Nations Conference on Freedom of Information, in 1948, called freedom of information, one of the basic freedoms, and free and adequate information, the touchstone of all freedoms to which the United Nations is dedicated. It was generally believed that for free and adequate information in any country there must be adequate development of mass 'Fernando Valderrama, A History of UNESCO, UNESCO Reference Books, (Paris: UNESCO, 1995). communication in that country. Therefore, all countries were and are concerned about development of their communication systems. In India, such a concern for development of communication system was clearly reflected in the country's first Five Year Plan itself. Internationally, efforts were made to facilitate the growth and development of communication facilities, especially in new and emerging countries. In 1958 the UN General Assembly called for a "programme of concrete action" to build up press, radio broadcasting, film and television facilities in these countries as part of economic and social development. To draw up a suitable programme and assess the resources required, the General Assembly requested UNESCO to carry out a fact finding survey. Based upon the UNESCO report submitted to UN, the General Assembly, in 1962, unanimously adopted a resolution "expressing its concern that the survey disclosed 70 per cent of the population of the world lack in adequate information facilities and are thus denied effective enjoyment of the right to freedom". The UN General Assembly also emphasised that information media have an important part to play in education and in economic and social progress generally and that new techniques of communication offer special opportunities for acceleration of the education process. Consequently, governments, especially of newly emerged developing countries, were urged to include in their economic development plans adequate provision for development of national information media. UNESCO was specially called upon to play active role and support programmes and activities leading to development of communication systems in the developing countries. Development and growth of communication facilities is a complex process and their consequences and impact on society are multiple. However, the question of communication and the role of UNESCO in India could be examined from three distinct, though related, stand points of view: viz. (i) as a means of bringing about desired social change, (ii) the issues and concerns relating to free flow of information, (iii) institution building.

## 20.2 SOCIAL CHANGE

The part that information communication can play, if used wisely, to speed and smooth what Julius Nyerere called the 'terrible ascent' of the developing nations towards social and economic change, has been of special interest to all developing countries, including India. The contribution that effective communication can make to social and economic development is of vital importance to developing countries. Free and adequate information which the UN and UNESCO have emphasised is not only a goal in itself, it is also a means of bringing about the

desired social change.<sup>2</sup> It is strongly believed and rightly so, that the goal of economic and social development, an agenda high on the most developing countries' priorities, can be facilitated by adequate and effective communication. Conversely, without adequate and effective communication, efforts for economic and social development would be seriously hampered. In India the significance of communication in equipping people with new information and skills and mobilising them for their willing participation in various development programmes and activities has been well recognised and emphasised in various Five Year Plans, the blue print of country's development strategies. In the first Five Years Plan itself, 2 Wilbur Schramm, *Mass Media and National Development, The Role of Information in the Developing Countries*, (Paris: UNESCO, 1964). The need for understanding and appreciation of the various development programmes and schemes by the people was clearly underlined. In the subsequent plans, the concern about communication with the people even in remote villages has been voiced with increasingly greater emphasis and force. Consequently, all available methods of communication have been developed and strengthened manifold over the years. Responding to the UN General Assembly's call to strengthen and develop information and communication facilities, UNESCO and the Government of India, launched in 1956 a pilot project "Radio Rural. Forum" covering 150 villages in Pune region of Maharashtra. Learning from the Canadian experience of Farm Radio Forum (1940s) India started radio rural forums on pilot basis with the help of UNESCO. It was an experiment in utilising broadcasting to create greater awareness among rural people about various improved techniques of agriculture production, health and hygiene, and other community development programmes. The project followed innovative approaches in the form of programme planning and presentation, organised listening and discussion and evolving a mechanism of feedback from the audiences to ensure greater involvement and participation of people as well as making more relevant the programme contents of the radio broadcasts. The pilot project was a great success and was extended to many other areas. In 1969, about 0.2 million radio rural forums were operating in different states and union territories. Although, subsequently with the advent of transistor revolution the relevance of community 3 J. C. Mathur, and Paul Neurath, *An Indian Experiment in Farm Radio Forum* (Paris: UNESCO, 1959). Radio-sets and radio rural forums declined, even so these are still operative in many parts of the country as "Charcha mandals" (discussion groups) etc. Furthermore, the basic concept and philosophy of radio rural forums was adapted and adopted in a decade long programme in 1980s on use of radio in support of mother- child health care. Similarly, beginning from Literacy Mission, Lucknow in 1960s radio has been extensively used in promotion of adult literacy in the country.<sup>4</sup> Thus, deriving inspiration from UNESCO supported pilot project in radio rural forum, broadcasting in India, first radio and later television has been playing important role in disseminating information and creating awareness about topics and issues relevant to the needs of rural masses thereby contributing to the process of development and social change in India.

### 20.3 FREE FLOW OF INFORMATION

The sanctity of freedom of expression and its importance to mankind is enshrined in Article 19 of the "Universal Declaration of Human Rights" and was reiterated by the UN Conference on Freedom of Information in 1948. As early as 1952, the UN General Assembly resolved that "it is essential for a proper development of public opinion in under-developed countries that independent domestic information enterprises should be given facilities and assistance in order that they may be enabled to contribute to the spread of information, to the development of native culture and international understanding". The UN General Assembly invested UNESCO with the responsibility for matters pertaining ID information and freedom 4 J.S. Yadava, *Media and Adult Education: Indian Experience*. A study conducted for UNESCO

(New Delhi: Indian Institute of Mass Communication, 1984). of expression and urged UNESCO to evolve a concrete plan of action in this respect. As stated earlier, this led to undertaking of a survey of communication infrastructural facilities available in different countries so that appropriate policy initiative and support could be provided to ensure adequate development of communication facilities so as to achieve the objective of free flow of information. Consequently UNESCO and various U.N. bodies supported many programmes in developing countries to build mass media infrastructure and institutions.

"Freedom" and "Freedom of Information" are. One of those terms that cast a spell on peoples' mind. People seldom pause to ask whose freedom of information to be true, has to be equitable and reciprocal.<sup>5</sup> However, freedom of information as obtaining, is largely freedom of western developed countries. Similarly free flow of information is largely one way from western developed countries to developing countries. Against this inequitable and largely one way flow of information, many developing countries started protesting in various international forums as it was being increasingly realised that such a situation is detrimental to their economic, political and cultural interests. At the 1974 general conference of UNESCO, the third world developing countries maintained that the concept of free flow would have little meaning until action has been taken to put all nations on a free and equal footing in their ability to communicate. There was growing realisation among many developing countries that the political freedom which they have acquired in recent years through great struggle and turmoil would 5 D. R. Manekar, *Whose Freedom? Who's Order?* (New Delhi: Clarion, Delhi, 1981). Have little meaning in the absence of economic freedom, which is consequently related to information and communication situation prevailing in these countries. They realised that though they have become free, the economic structure and information communication flow structure continue to be broadly-along the patterns set up during the colonial period. As such there was a growing demand from the third world countries for a "new international economic order" and also "new world information and communication order". Consequently there were fierce debates at various levels. The Nonaligned Movement was spearheading the demand for a new world information and communication order which was vehemently opposed by the western developed countries in the garb of freedom of expression and desirability of free flow of information. UNESCO became the focal point of this great debate during 1970s and 1980s. An intense series of professional, scientific and diplomatic activities involving communication in general and international communication in particular were initiated at various levels.<sup>5</sup> A number of scientific research studies were undertaken to marshal facts in support of their respective positions. UNESCO appointed McBride Commission to find out facts and report. Many "national media policy" documents were prepared. The great debate on issue of freedom of expression and free flow of information versus equitable and balanced flow of information became, at times, so intense as to acquire confrontational postures threatening the very existence of UNESCO. It may be recalled that it is in this context that the United States and the Great Britain (along with Singapore) Kaarle Nordenstreng, *The Mass Media Declaration of UNESCO* (Norwood, N.J.: Ablex Publishing Corporation, 1986). 115 withdrew from the UNESCO in 1984. Some of the highlights of this debate can be summarised as follows: News and views circulated through mass media have significant bearing upon attitudes and actions relating to international relations. With the revolution in communication technologies the world is shrinking into a global village, making interdependence of nation states imperative for the very survival of human race on this planet. Relentless battles for minds are fought through mass media. Today, not only sophisticated technologies like satellites and computers are utilised to generate enormous news and information but subtle techniques are put into operation to colour such news and information. In the information game the western developed societies have tremendous advantage over the developing third world Afro-Asian countries. The international flow of news and information is largely one way; from developed west to the developing South. The

imbalance in news flow not only portrays the world realities in a distorted fashion but also creates geopolitical environment detrimental to the third world's political, economic and cultural, interests, There is an increasing realisation that political freedom from colonial rule, if not meaningless, is not enough in the context of prevailing world economic and information orders. The conduits of western influence and domination established during the colonial period are still operational and are even strengthened with the advancement of communication revolution. 7 J. S. Yadava, *Politics of News: Third World Perspective* (New Delhi: Concept Publishing Co., 1984). 116 As such, the developing countries in general and the nonaligned in particular have been demanding restructuring of the existing patterns of international relations. There is some progress as a consequence of the decade-long debates and discussions in international fora. The concept of 'new world information order' finds wider acceptance today.8 'News Pool' and many other third world initiatives and bilateral arrangements have come into existence to facilitate the process of greater exchange of news and views about and among themselves. 4 It was the nonaligned countries, at their summit in 1973 at Algiers, which first asked for a change in the monopoly of information by the western media.9 UNESCO gave a call for a New Information Order in 1978, five years after the Algiers summit. Then onward, of course, UNESCO extended strong support to the concept and formulation of the new information and communication order. The MacBride Commission,10 appointed by UNESCO in 1977, underlined the imbalance in the information flow, and the formulation of the resolution on the New Order was completed at the General Conference in Belgrade in 1980. Some of the western countries have taken the view that the New Order is an attempt at legitimising government control of the media. Even though there is no reference in any of UNESCO's documents justifying, directly or indirectly, a code of conduct or censorship or 8 Hamid Mowlana, *Global Information and World Communication, New Frontier in International Relations* (New York: Longman, 1986). 9 Indian Institute of Mass Communication, *News Agencies Pool of Non-aligned Countries: A Perspective* (New Delhi, 1983). 10 UNESCO, *Many Voices: One World: S. McBride Commission Report* (Paris, 1982). Government control of the media, the campaign against UNESCO on this account has continued unabated.

However, despite all difficulties, UNESCO succeeded in adopting by acclamation a declaration on Mass Media which is of great importance. This UNESCO declaration called Declaration. On Fundamental Principles concerning the contribution of mass media to strengthening the peace and international understanding, to the promotion of human rights, and to countering racialism and apartheid and incitement to war, is perhaps the most painstakingly negotiated text about journalism, mass communication ever adopted in UNESCO. By adopting the Mass Media Declaration in which UNESCO played a pivotal role, the international community laid down for the first time overall guidelines for the mass media. In the words of Amadou-Mahtar M'Bow, the then Director-General of UNESCO, the Mass Media Declaration is, "a new set of principles which all creators and distributors of information. would be able to endorse", "since for the first time the international community has at its disposal a body of principles and ideals such as can provide guidance for action and practice of all those whose hearts are set on justice and peace".\*11 It also led to the setting up of a special programme, IPDC,-International Programme for Development of Communication -- at UNESCO. In this great debate on free flow of information India played a very significant role, and UNESCO India office made valuable contribution by supporting some studies of the issue and facilitating a number. of debates and seminars that were organised to put the whole issue into proper perspective. 11\*The Mass Media Declaration of UNESCO.

## 20.4 INSTITUTION BUILDING

Right from the beginning UNESCO has been extending support to programmes leading to the development of mass communication infrastructure and institutions in India. In 1960, the UNESCO India Office extended its support by inviting a team of international experts to study communication and development scene in India, which led to recommendation and setting up of the National Institute - the Indian Institute of Mass Communication (IIMC) at Delhi. In the initial stages, UNESCO also provided for two consultants to start the training programmes at the Institute. It also provided funding of some equipment for journalism/mass communication at the Institute. The objective of the IIMC is to train media personnel from India and third world 5 countries. Over the years UNESCO has supported several training and research programmes at the Institute. To build infrastructure facilities, UNESCO also started National Institute of Audio Visual Education, which later developed and merged with the National Council for Educational

Research and Training (NCERT). UNESCO also helped to some extent development of facilities for news agency journalism, and setting up of the news pool at Press Trust of India. Of late there has been greater emphasis on informatics and library science. UNESCO has supported many programmes and activities relating to development of skills and facilities in computers and information science. The IPDC has been supporting a number of activities in support of developing communication infrastructure in developing countries, including India. The Centre for Mass Communication Research at Jamia Milia Islamia got some grants from IPDC. India has also been making financial contribution to IPDC, besides supporting strongly its philosophy and plan of action.

## 20.5 SUMMARY

The principal functions of a national communication policy council would include:(I) (a) to promote coherent, national and comprehensive analyses of existing policies and controls and of national communication objectives; to identify the rights, interests, obligations and interdependence of various communication institutions within society; to enhance greater efficiency in the application and expenditures of frequently limited economic and physical resources by setting priorities and reducing internal contradictions; to safeguard the rights and interests of various sectors involved in communication enterprises by providing a forum for continuous discussion and clarification; to provide the framework for anticipating changes in media technology, assessing their value for promoting national and international goals, and revealing their harmful effects; to perform a "look out" function to foresee technological innovations on the international scene which may be important, as "quantum jumps" in national communication planning.

## 20.5 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Discuss about the free flow of information.
2. Role of UNESCO in developing the Communication Policies.

## 20.6 REFERENCE BOOKS

1. Srinivas Melkote : Communication for development in the third World : Theory and Practice.
2. Alan Chakle : Manual of Development Journalism.
3. Robertson : Communication and third World.
4. Uma Narula : Development Communication.
5. Uma Narula : Communication and Development.
6. Majid Ilereranian : Communication Policy for National Development.
7. E. M. Rogers : Diffusion of Innovations.
8. Wilbur Sehram : Mass Communication and National development.
9. Hean Serraes : Participatory Communication for Social change.
10. Sadanand Nair & Shirley A White : Participation and Development.
11. Sumanta Banerjee : Family Planning Communication.
12. E. M. Rogers & Arvind Singhal : India's Information Revolution.
13. S.C.Dube : Development and Modernization.
14. Daniel Lerner : The passing of Traditional Society.
15. Altshull : The Agents of Power



**MA (Journalism and Mass communication)  
Semester - IV  
Paper – 1 - Development Communication**

**Time: Three hours**

**Maximum: 70**

**marks**

**Answer ONE question from each Unit  
All question carries equal marks**

1. a). Explain the scope and growth of Development Communication.  
Or  
b). Discuss the Characteristics of developing societies.
- 2 a) What is Development Journalism? Discuss its relevance in the contemporary society.  
Or  
b) Elaborate the case studies of development reporting?
- 3 a) Write about the Status of Development Communication in Indian context.  
Or  
b) Explain the Jabua Development Communication Project.
- 4 a) What is participatory Communication and Explain its importance.  
Or  
b) Participatory Communication research helps development. Analyse.
- 5 a) Explain the role of Development Communication in health sector.  
Or  
b) International Agencies play crucial role on Development Communication