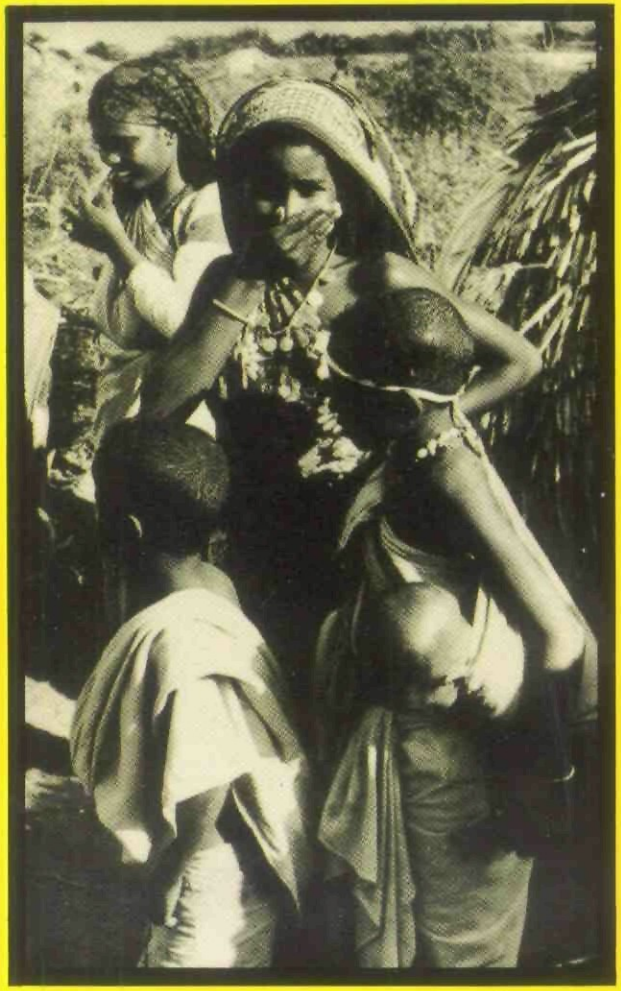
COMMUNICATIONS FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA



A Report of a **UNICEF** sponsored International Workshop held in Arusha, Tanzania, December 1976.

COMMUNICATIONS FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

edited by

JOHN BALCOMB

A Report of a UNICEF
sponsored International Workshop
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Opening speech by Mr J. Gwagilo, Principal Secretary, Ministry of National Education, Tanzania

Chairman, UNICEF Officials, Ladies and Gentlemen,

It gives me pleasure to be afforded this opportunity to address you and at the same time welcome you to this important International Workshop on Communications for Social Development.

On behalf of the Ministry of National Education of the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania, I wish to thank all our distinguished guests from other countries and from within Tanzania who have kindly accepted our invitations to participate in this workshop.

I wish also to express my special thanks to UNICEF, which has underwritten the expenses of this workshop. Lastly, but not least, I would like to convey our thanks to the Principal of the Danish Volunteer Training Centre, for making accommodation and other workshop facilities available to us. On behalf of the people of Tanzania, I wish to welcome you all to the United Republic of Tanzania.

A workshop of the same nature was held in 1974 in Lusaka, Zambia, for participants from Zambia, Kenya, Lesotho, Swaziland, Tanzania and Botswana, and I understand that it was a success. We, the people of Tanzania, feel honoured that this year a similar workshop is being held here.

I was pleased to note from the programme of the workshop that the theme of the workshop is "The role of communications in social development". Social development comes about through a partnership between change agents, who are in close touch with the people, and the community. To be effective, the change agent must perceive, understand and identify himself with the community's goals.

I am assured that this workshop will be action-oriented. It will review recent advances in this field, discuss field studies from various countries represented in this room, exchange ideas and information, and plan follow-up regional and national communications strategies. This is excellent.

Many governments and development agencies have long recognised the communication gaps and barriers between project organisers and extension cadres and the people who are supposed to benefit from their projects, but who are all too often ignored in the various project stages. This gap has been a serious barrier to the effective implementation of many programmes, and I am glad to learn that the purpose of this workshop is precisely to examine and suggest ways to bridge this gap.

The theme for the workshop is extremely timely and relevant to this development decade in developing countries. All our countries are plagued with limited resources, but it is a fact that there are plenty of people who can and will do something to help themselves if they understand what to do, where to get assistance and, above all, if they get proper guidance and training in how to deal with their immediate, pressing problems. The task of preparing project managers, extension cadres and the people themselves to participate in project identification, formulation, implementation and evaluation must be the work of communication specialists, sociologists, or anthropologists, and communities, functioning as a team.

Communication is central to programmes aimed at changing attitudes and behaviour. Village level programmes, to be effective, must be increasingly concerned with basic motivation problems and with the use of a variety of appropriate communication approaches and techniques. As you will know, experience has shown that the most conventional communication approaches, for example, classroom type lectures or one-way radio programmes, have their own limitations, which, I believe, will be discussed and possible solutions examined.

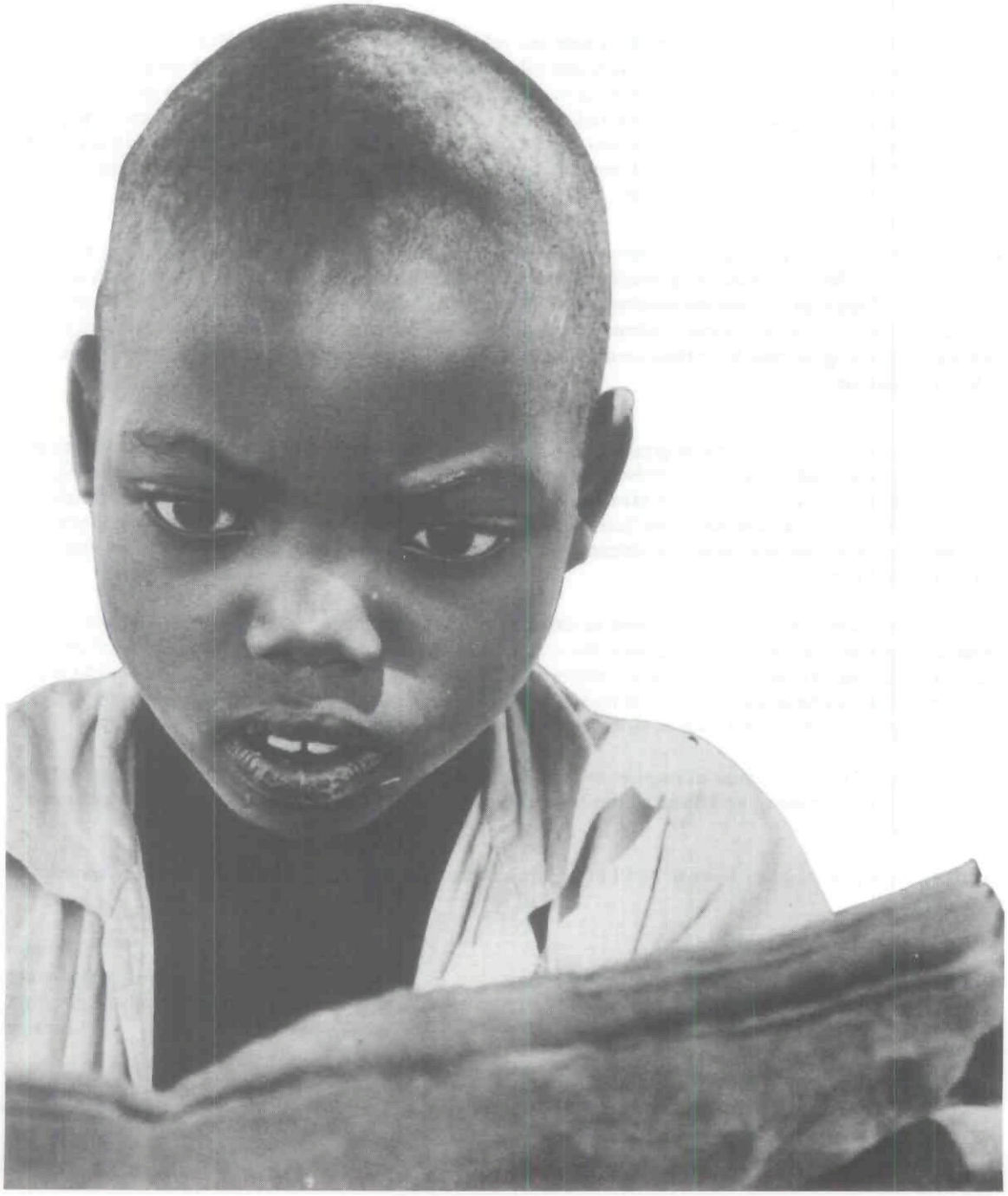
The adoption of innovations can be greatly facilitated by the proper identification of traditional communication systems through which the members of a community acquire and diffuse their existing knowledge, attitudes and practices. These systems take many forms, for example, folk media, parables, word of mouth, drama, etc. These media have their own limitations in the modern world we live in, but they can be strengthened with modern communication techniques. This is an area that governments and international organisations should explore.

In conclusion, ladies and gentlemen, I wish to express my hope that this workshop will stimulate in you those actions which are aimed to overcome the current communications gaps in our developmental programmes. It is also my hope that the information obtained and the conclusions arrived at will lead to programmes which can be implemented, and that your participation in this workshop will result in greater national, regional and international co-operation in the field of human communication.

Although you will be very busy during the next twelve days, I hope that during or after the workshop you will manage to find time to visit some of our institutions around Arusha, or in other places of interest in this country.

I wish you a happy stay in Tanzania, and I hope you will find the workshop stimulating, and the results fruitful.

J. Gwagilo
Principal Secretary
Ministry of National Education
Tanzania



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INTRODUCTION

Communication, broadly speaking, is the process by which human beings share information, knowledge, experience, ideas and motivations. It is necessary to state this obvious fact because far too many people concerned with development work still tend to think that they are talking about communications when, in fact, they are restricting themselves to communication aids. K.E. Eapen of Bangalore University sums it up nicely: "A basic misconception of thinking of communication and change ... is the lack of understanding of communication as a social process and mistaking it for transmission towers, documentary films, etc."

This is a report on a two-week international workshop held in northern Tanzania in December 1976. The subject of the workshop was "Communications for Social Development". Hosted by the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania, and sponsored and organised by the UNICEF Communications and Information Service for Eastern Africa, the workshop was attended by 23 participants from twelve African countries plus a number of resource persons. The basic purpose of the workshop, which was a follow-up to a communications workshop held in Lusaka, Zambia, in 1974, was to bring together people active in development communications in different sectors from a number of African countries to share their experiences and discuss their common problems. Its stated objective, "to explore communications strategies for rural development", was deliberately framed in a rather loose way so as to encourage the workshop to proceed along lines desired by the participants without a rigid, preconceived agenda. (Even this objective was not quite broad enough, since one of the most stimulating projects discussed was an urban project.) From UNICEF's point of view, there was a subsidiary purpose in mind: to find out how UNICEF can better assist project-support communications in Africa, especially in the context of the promotion of "basic services" at grassroots level.

The workshop was held at the Danish Volunteer Training Centre at Usa River, about 15 km east of Arusha. The informal atmosphere of the centre lent itself admirably to the purposes of the workshop. The accommodation was comfortable but not luxurious; the food was excellent; and glimpses of Mt Meru and Mt Kilimanjaro added to the pleasure of working in such relaxed surroundings. Any constraint that may have been present at the opening sessions vanished by the second day. Frank, lively and sometimes heated discussions characterised the proceedings: discussions that often continued through the evening after the formal sessions were completed.

Participants were requested ahead of time to prepare papers describing innovative projects they had been associated with, constraints encountered and how these constraints were overcome. These papers, which are reproduced or summarised in Section II, demonstrate the wide range and scope of innovative communications activities now going on in Africa; they also illustrate many of the common problems encountered.

The first three days of the workshop were devoted to a general discussion of social development at community level and the role of communications in such development. Later sessions were devoted to field trips, consideration of individual and group reports, and discussion of a wide range of operational problems. Before the workshop ended we were deep in such matters as how to get project-support communications into the mainstream of development planning; how to organise, monitor and evaluate communications programmes; how to survive and work more effectively in a bureaucratic system and how to identify and meet the enormous variety of training needs that effective communications entails.

To reflect the nature of the workshop itself, the workshop report proper is divided into

two broad sections. Section I, entitled "The Community Approach", reflects the participants' searching examination of communications needs and problems at the community level—the level where, in the final analysis, development communications campaigns of all kinds either fail or succeed. All too often communications campaigns are planned exclusively from the top down and from the centre to the periphery, without due consideration for the felt needs, traditions, and social and environmental circumstances of the intended beneficiaries. To increase the effectiveness of development communications, then, the first job of the communicator is to "go to the people". This is easier said than done, but in practical terms it means greater emphasis on pre-operational research of a semi-sociological nature. Here communications research merges into the disciplines of rural sociology and community development. Nevertheless, the workshop participants felt the matter was worth going into in some depth because it is rarely taken into account in communications budgeting and planning.

Section II of the report, "Communications in Action", deals with a broad range of strategic, tactical and operational problems commonly encountered by communicators in Africa today. It is based on a list of subjects proposed by the participants themselves, and touched on at various times in the course of the workshop.

This has been a difficult report to write. So many matters of varied and far-reaching interest were brought forward for group discussion, so much lively interplay of minds took place, that no written report as such can really do justice to the proceedings. I can only hope that we have managed to extract the salient points from this two-week "meeting of minds" which will be most useful for future action by the participants, by their governments, and by UNICEF and other international organisations.

UNICEF wishes to thank Mr J. Gwagilo, Principal Secretary, Ministry of National Education, Tanzania, for driving all the way from Dar es Salaam to open the workshop. Our thanks also go to the Arusha Regional Development Director, the Aru-Meru District Officials, and the village council officials concerned who co-operated in arranging the instructive field visits which were such a valuable part of the workshop. Last but not least, we wish to thank the principal and staff of the Danish Volunteer Training Centre for their hospitality.

— John Balcomb

PART ONE

Workshop Report


nga
nani
Joma
bato
tao

The Community Approach

"All our countries are plagued with limited resources, but it is a fact that there are plenty of people who can and will do something to help themselves if they understand what to do, where to get assistance and—above all—if they get proper guidance and assistance in how to deal with their immediate pressing problems." These remarks, from the opening speech of Mr J. Gwagilo, Principal Secretary of the Tanzanian Ministry of National Education, set the tone of the opening days of the workshop. Social development, it was agreed, is a process of education, but a process quite different from that used in schools. In social development, the students are the members of the local community. They have their own goals; they set their own schedules; their attendance to lessons is voluntary; and it is the teachers who pass or fail.

Communications and Basic Services

If the area of development communications is thought of as embracing the whole spectrum of motivation, transfer of information, and stimulation of innovation—especially through non-formal, "out of school" channels—then its essential role in social development is unarguable. No existing nation, in particular no developing nation, can aspire to being a total welfare state, providing essential cradle-to-grave services to all its citizens through staff paid from central tax revenues. UNICEF's Basic Services doctrine was expounded on the opening day. Central to this is the idea that basic services in such fields as health, nutrition, home improvement, better agricultural technology and the like must be provided through community action—in other words, self-help. By best prevailing estimates, taking population increase into account, the absolute number of people *un*reached by health services, clean water, and schools has increased rather than decreased in the past twenty years. This despite the tremendous investment which has been made in building up the social infrastructure in all countries. Ideally, it was agreed, social change comes about as a result of a partnership between change-agents and the community. The worthy objective of "reaching the unreached", then, calls for new strategies in the deployment of social development workers. Their primary job will not be to provide services but to train, stimulate and guide local people to provide their own community services in a better manner.

No disagreement was voiced about the Basic Services concept as such. Most participants felt that in one form or another their governments either accepted this approach, or were coming around to it very rapidly. Ghana's rural community development programme was cited as one approach to Basic Services; Tanzania's Ujamaa Village strategy, as another. Participants strongly emphasised, however, that any attempt to implement a Basic Services programme without the necessary communications inputs would be useless, and that communications research and planning had to be undertaken from the very beginning. Several of the participants voiced resentment over the "fire brigade" role they were often assigned to play by their various ministries, being called on for advice and assistance only when projects had run into serious trouble.

Know your Audience

Effective communications depends on knowing one's audience. In social development, this is not just a matter of knowing the audience's ability to understand a particular message, oral, visual or written, framed in a particular way. It is also a matter of knowing their needs and aspirations as they themselves perceive them, for a message that does not relate to these "felt needs" will fall on deaf ears. Outsiders may per-

ceive a community's real needs differently; objectively, in terms of health, nutrition, agriculture, etc., the outsiders may be right. But the communicator must approach the community by addressing himself to its felt needs in the first instance so that he will not be judged irrelevant, and the implications of this in terms of getting communication staff in on the early stages of project design are clear.

Development projects "imposed" on communities from the top down usually run into great difficulties. Community involvement from the beginning is always desirable. As one participant observed, the essence of development and communication work should not be to change people, but to give people access to useful information and to create new opportunities so that people can change themselves. R.R.N. Tuluhungwa quoted with approval Dr Samuel Darling's aphorism: "If you wish to control mosquitoes, you must learn to think like a mosquito." This applies not only to mosquito populations one seeks to eliminate, but to human beings one hopes to benefit, he observed. "If you wish to help a community improve its health, you must learn to think like the people of that community; before asking a group of people to assume or adopt new health habits, it is wise and imperative to ascertain the existing habits—how these habits are linked to one another, what functions they perform, and what they mean to those who practise them."

Satisfactory audience research, in this sense, is difficult to practise in most parts of Africa, particularly where national projects are concerned. Most African countries, especially the larger ones, are as truly lands of contrast as their tourist bureaux proclaim, embracing cultural groups which have adapted themselves to widely divergent ecological conditions, whose traditions may vary greatly, and who may speak a score or more of different languages. Other in-country variables are local resources, economic status, and degree of modernisation. This is why national nutrition education campaigns, for instance, are so difficult to execute effectively. Simple messages are best—"supplement your regular diet with such and such"—but the appropriate and available supplement varies from locality to locality. There is often a large gap between communicators working out of central ministries and their audience. Radio, a powerful and economical medium when backed up by good audience research, can be "like shooting in the dark" if used to deliver messages indiscriminately.

Community Involvement in a National Campaign

Tanzania's recent *Chakula Ni Uhai* ("Food is Life") campaign is one of the largest nutrition education campaigns ever conducted. A year and a half, beginning in 1974, was devoted to planning the campaign, preparing radio tapes and study materials, orienting field staff, conducting advance publicity, etc. The campaign itself was conducted over a period of 16 weeks in mid-1975. It reached an estimated two million persons, organised into 85,000 radio study groups. The whole of 1976 was set aside for an extensive evaluation exercise to see whether or not the messages delivered through the campaign had taken permanent root. At the time of the Usa River workshop, the evaluation report had not been completed, but certain tentative conclusions could be drawn.

M.A.P. Mahai of the Institute of Adult Education, which co-ordinated the campaign, said that the campaign had been most successful where effective communication *within* the local study groups of 15 to 20 members had been realised. *Chakula Ni Uhai* was the fifth mass education campaign his institute had helped carry out, and one of his conclusions was that such programmes should, in so far as possible, be initiated by the people themselves. To prepare the way for better future programming, local groups have been encouraged to do their own evaluation of *Chakula Ni Uhai*. "This participatory approach in planning and evaluation may be more difficult at first, but in the long run more appropriate and satisfactory returns can be realised." One of the more en-

couraging results of the *Chakula Ni Uhai* campaign is that it has given birth to a number of very practical small-scale food and nutrition projects initiated by local people.

Some Local Answers

An interesting approach to communications at the community level is illustrated by the Kenya PBFL (Programme for Better Family Living) Listening Forums Programme, based on the use of low-cost cassette tape recorders. Here the idea was originally to prepare taped messages in Swahili at central level which could be translated into local languages and re-recorded for rural women's groups. For various reasons this did not work very well. The alternative that was hit on was to convene local production workshops to discuss programme content, produce scripts, and record the lessons directly in the local languages. In the three pilot areas, with 15 listening groups, where the programme has been launched, this decentralised approach has worked quite well. No serious technical production problems have been encountered. Lessons have been related to local conditions: the planting of hybrid maize and food beans in one area, the cultivation of soybeans and tobacco in another. The cassette lessons have proven effective in promoting group discussion. Furthermore, where unrecorded tapes also have been provided to listening groups, the recorders have proved useful for feedback.

The Village Polytechnic Programme in Kenya is firmly based on community initiative. The purpose of the 132 VP's now operating in the country is to teach functional skills to local primary school leavers and drop-outs, both girls and boys, aged 15 to 25. A village polytechnic starts with the formulation of a local management group which surveys the local job situation and decides on the practical skills the youth of the community need to acquire to find useful employment near their own homes. Of course the Government encourages the formation of these management committees, but it gives no assistance until local initiative has developed.

The more localised a project, the easier it is to adhere to the community approach, of course. Marsabit District of northern Kenya is an inhospitable area of extremely low rainfall, inhabited by semi-nomadic peoples. Here a small team from the Ministry of Health has been conducting a health education experiment among the women of the Rendille tribe. Painstaking attention to local conditions, customs, and habits of communication and perception has resulted in considerable initial success. This is a case of making an intensive effort among a numerically small, albeit widely scattered, group with a homogeneous culture.

The Lusaka squatter-settlement upgrading project, which was discussed in some depth in the workshop as one of the more encouraging examples of community involvement, is also a localised project, being confined to four settlements within the city limits, though it deals with a population of better than 150,000 persons who represent a mixed cultural background, for people have migrated to Lusaka from all parts of rural Zambia. Here the communications component was recognised as a vital one at an early stage and was carefully built into the project so as to facilitate community participation based on a flow of accurate information—both down the line, to the squatters—and up the line, to the project managers. What has made a meaningful communication input possible in this case, has been the careful socio-economic studies of the "squatter community" which preceded the project itself. ("Know Your Audience!")

A Three-Village Field Exercise ...

Three Ujamaa villages near the site of the workshop had been selected for a field exercise. The participants, divided into three groups, were to visit these villages, find out as much as they could about their real and felt needs, and propose a communications strategy. The exercise proved to be a frustrating one. There was too little time to cross-check observations: we were outsiders and in a single day we could hardly get an insider's point of view. Still, the exercise

was instructive, and, as one participant observed, large-scale internationally-assisted programmes are often launched with less local-level research than our cursory visits provided.

Being so unsure of our conclusions, we all agreed to leave the actual names of the villages out of our report; hence they will be referred to as villages A, B and C. A and B are relatively prosperous villages on the well-watered middle slopes of Mount Meru, raising coffee as a cash crop and bananas and maize as food crops. Village C, at a lower altitude, suffers from periodic droughts, and is considerably less prosperous, its economy being based on livestock and maize with a little coffee in its higher reaches.

Village C has the most manifest problems. Despite a considerable amount of agricultural mechanisation, the degree of home improvement is almost nil; overstocking appears to be a serious matter; and health services are clearly inadequate, being confined to a poorly run dispensary five miles distant and a first-aid kit in village headquarters. The local school is also at some distance and serves five villages. The largest visible capital investment is a new denominational church. Village C is clearly more typical of Africa in general than villages A and B, and the group which reported on it felt that without examining the motivational pattern in more detail, it would be impossible to make specific recommendations. Health, environmental sanitation, home improvement, better food preservation and storage are manifest needs in village C, all being closely interrelated. An integrated community development approach is clearly called for, supported by integrated communications inputs. How to get the available extension workers, who normally visit the village at different times, together *with* the villagers to work out an integrated development strategy and to agree on the appropriate information they need to communicate to the villagers is probably the first problem that has to be tackled in a community like this. A piecemeal approach would only result in more anomolies such as those the group observed: mechanised maize husking versus rat-infested home grain stores; a fair number of pit latrines but a very poor standard of sanitation in the houses.

The groups that visited villages A and B were each able to identify a particular problem that could be dealt with on its own. In village A it is the need for a modern pump for the bore-hole well. Storage tanks, pipes and take-off points for a village water system are already laid on. A modern pump could be purchased through contributions based on family income, and since village A produced 300,000 kg of coffee last year, family income is relatively high. The communications job would be one of selling this idea through, perhaps, visits to a village which had solved its own water problem in a similar way, group meetings with guest speakers, etc.

In village B, the group selected the improvement of family latrines as a special problem. Most houses in this village are well built and clean, and almost all of them have family latrines nearby. The latrines are often in poor repair, however, with wooden or earth floors which remain damp, and there is a consequent temptation not to use them. Again, as in village A, most families have a fair amount of disposable income from coffee. The group worked out the outline of a phased motivation and education campaign for latrine improvement which, among other things, would make use of public meetings, school classes, and adult literacy classes.

... and Some Lessons Learned

Some obvious lessons were highlighted by the field exercise. Each of the groups succeeded in drawing up a rough socio-economic profile of its village despite the very short time available and in identifying, at least tentatively, some outstanding problems. This sort of outsiders' "bird's-eye" view is not hard to come by. None

of us, however, felt that we had even begun to understand the psychological and cultural problems that we as communicators had to take into account. It is easy to find out whether or not a village has a post office or a telephone and even to get a rough estimate of radio-set ownership. But to acquire reliable information about traditional channels of communication, the informal power structure, and the felt needs of the community takes time and patience. All of us were painfully aware that without understanding the day-to-day communications dynamics of the villages we had visited, we could not make very useful recommendations.

Unfortunately, many projects are formulated to a large extent on hearsay. Good data are needed not only so that a project in its broad outlines can be intelligently planned but so that the supporting communications system can be appropriately designed as well. For the communications component, research will often be required into matters the initial project designers have not explored. In very underdeveloped communities it is difficult if not impossible to identify discrete needs which can be dealt with on an individual basis: this was suggested by the experience of the group which visited village C, and experience elsewhere indicates that it is a fairly valid generalisation. For this reason, intersectoral teamwork on the part of any and all persons involved in communications aimed at underdeveloped communities is absolutely vital.

Constraints ... and Possible Solutions

Many constraints make it difficult to apply these lessons pertaining to the community approach. Obviously, no government ministry or agency has the resources to carry out a detailed survey to determine the communications dynamics of each and every village. Localisation of messages via certain media is sometimes impossible. In Tanzania, for example, there are about 100 spoken languages; yet all radio programmes must be broadcast in Kiswahili, the national language. (This policy is based on the consideration that a common language is essential to Tanzania's long-range development, but in immediate terms it may constitute a constraint to village-level communication.) Many development projects are carried out with the assistance of large international donors who prefer to deal with centralised schemes and tight time schedules. As for the harmonisation of communications inputs at community level, the whole organisation of government services along sectoral lines is a major constraint.

Each and every village does not have to be individually studied, however. If cultural, attitudinal and other relevant communications factors are included in regular project pre-operational research, it is perfectly feasible to draw up typical "profiles" for communities with similar ethnic and ecological characteristics. Even if radio cannot be localised—and a number of countries *do* have vernacular regional broadcasts—other media can be. Extension workers should and can be taught to adapt centrally-produced messages to local circumstances. Most international donors pay lip service to the community approach and must be made aware of its implications in terms of decentralised administration and flexible scheduling even if it entails a certain untidiness in their documentation. Intersectoral co-ordination is one of the most difficult problems of all: yet, in a number of countries, machinery has been set up, on the local level, at least, to facilitate such co-ordination, and communications people should try to lead the way.

Several examples were cited indicating that governments are indeed becoming increasingly dedicated to the community approach. In Ghana, local councils are encouraged to set their own community development priorities. To avoid giving the more powerful or articulate members of the community undue influence in setting these priorities, there is proportional representation for women, youth, religious minorities etc., on the local development councils. In Ethiopia, 23,000 local farmers' associations have been established, and the Government has pledged itself to carry out its

economic and social development plans with the consent and participation of these local associations. One of the Ethiopian participants recalled an interesting example of community consultation. A new educational broadcasting transmitter was to be installed in a rural area. Before any work was commenced, the local farmers' association was consulted; not until all their questions had been answered and their consent had been given, was the transmitter erected. The predecessor to Tanzania's *Chakula Ni Uhai* campaign was a national health education campaign, *Mtu Ni Afya* ("Man is Health"), which emphasised environmental sanitation and malaria control. People in Monduli (Arusha) District reported that venereal disease was one of their principal problems. Accordingly, the materials prepared for use in the Arusha area were revised to give greater emphasis to VD prevention.

Communications and Community Awakening

Communications techniques themselves can effectively be used to raise the level of a community's awareness of its needs, its resources, and, indeed, its very identity. In northern Botswana an annual festival called *Laedza Batanani* ("Community Awakening") has been conducted for three years among a group of thirty to fifty thousand people of mixed tribal ancestry inhabiting an area known as the Bokalaka. Song, dance, drama, video-tape and visual aids have been used to increase communication among the scattered villages, stimulate traditional culture, and help people identify their common problems through group discussion. Besides this "conscientisation" function, the *Laedza Batanani* festivals have done a great deal to co-ordinate and focus extension messages in the Bokalaka and to build a much needed sense of teamwork among the extension cadre.

Conclusion:

"Go to the People" = Good Advance Research

The community approach to development and to development communications is not an easy one. The injunction "go to the people, listen to them, understand them" is easier to proclaim than implement. The kind of socio-cultural research that is required takes time and will undoubtedly lengthen project schedules. Change in the important "human element" in development *takes* time, though, and it is idle to talk about the community approach to development communications unless this is recognised. The consensus of the workshop was that the first element that has to be built into the communications component of a project is a strong and active research unit established well in advance of the project's scheduled launching.

Project Support Communications in Action

PROLOGUE:
The Communicator and the Planner

Almost all developing countries work in terms of some kind of a national plan today. Whether it is a formal five-year plan, a "rolling plan" readjusted from year to year, an interim plan, or just a national development budget, it is the basic instrument that determines the allocation of scarce resources—human, financial, and material—which are available for development purposes.

The communications field tends to attract people of a creative turn of mind: people with an interest in the arts, journalism, radio, etc. Planners have a different background: economics and the social sciences, as a rule. Yet the communicator working within a government programme is dependent on the planner to provide the resources to execute his ideas. He must learn to think like a planner.

PSC as a Stepchild

It is only in recent years that development support communications (DSC), as it is called by some groups, or project support communications (PSC), as it is called by others,* has begun to emerge as a discipline in its own right. Not surprisingly, therefore, it tends to be overlooked by the planners. A typical national development plan, when it appears in printed form, will have a chapter called "Communications". This will include plans for improved broadcasting facilities, expansion of telephone service, the installation of new government presses and the like. Among the sectoral chapters will be scattered PSC elements: a brief paragraph on health education, something on adult education, agricultural extension, etc. There may be something on publicising the plan itself. It is rare to find these various elements treated together as if they were parts of a dynamic whole. The fact that communications is one of the most powerful motors of development, while probably recognised by most planners, still tends to be overlooked in their plans.

The "stepchild" position of communications was noted by several of the workshop participants. "When budgetary cuts are made, the axe falls on us first," one of them remarked. Others complained that the communications component was usually tacked onto project plans as an afterthought.

The responsibility for rectifying this situation lies to a large extent with communications people themselves, it was finally agreed after considerable discussion. Communicators must speak up while national plans and specific project plans are still in a fluid state of formulation. And they must "do their homework". They must be able to estimate fairly accurately what their proposals will cost; what they will involve in terms of manpower and training; how they will be timed. In short, they must be prepared to talk to the planners on the latters' own terms. Planning is a collective exercise. If, as the discussions reported in Section I indicate, the communicator has to start by studying in some depth the communities he is to serve, it is equally important that he involve himself at the earliest possible stage in the deliberations of those persons who will determine his terms of service, the planners.

*UNDP, FAO and others use the term DSC. UNICEF uses the term PSC. PSC implies a more specific project orientation; but for the purposes of this report the terms can be considered synonymous.

"PSC for PSC"

Just how can communications staff, who may be scattered among any number of functional ministries, go about this? They should make a point of getting to know one another and exchanging ideas. Informal professional associations are effective in other fields: why not in the field of PSC? Once in agreement among themselves, communications people will be in a good position to influence others. Someone at the workshop suggested "PSC for PSC": in other words, project-communications advocacy. If anyone can, people working at professional levels in the field of communication should be able to prepare effective presentations, including visual aids, to further their own cause. The press is a good medium to reach top people. As someone pointed out, reading the morning paper from the first to the last page is almost a day-opening ritual in many government offices. An occasional newspaper article on various aspects of communications and development would be an effective form of advocacy. Nor should social occasions be overlooked. People who make their livelihood in the mysterious field called "public relations" rely heavily on social gatherings.

On a more formal level, there are seminars and workshops. Organising a short seminar on communications in development for planners and other key people from various ministries and other organisations can be an effective way of "getting them involved". One or two days is probably the maximum time that busy people of this status can be induced to devote to such a seminar. This implies A-1 preparation on the part of the organisers: brief, convincing presentations; good chairmanship; a well thought out and relevant agenda.

Hard Answers to Hard Questions

At this stage of the game, assuming the attention and interest of the planners has been obtained, a good many questions are going to be asked, and it is up to the communications people to put themselves in a position to answer these questions. "What will such and such a proposal cost?" is obviously the first question, and as has already been mentioned, communicators must arm themselves with all available cost data.

Equally important is the question, "How do we know it will work?" Evaluation and monitoring are discussed under a separate heading later in this report; but at this point it is necessary to emphasise that if no evaluation or monitoring information is available concerning previous projects, it will be extremely difficult to convince planners that similar projects should be undertaken in the future. Case studies and evaluation reports from various countries are available if one's own national dossier is weak in this regard and can always be used to buttress one's arguments.

An inventory of the national communications resources which exist in various ministries is an essential planning tool, and the question of duplication of facilities is bound to arise in any meeting with planners. In one country, it was reported, utilisation of audio-visual equipment in various ministries averaged only 15 per cent; yet many of them were asking for more equipment in the next plan period. Duplication of facilities in certain lines often exists alongside serious gaps in others. An inventory of resources should include not only equipment, of course, but trained staff and training facilities. It was generally agreed that where such an inventory did not exist it should be undertaken forthwith, on a high-priority basis.

Co-ordination among Communicators

Communicators, being attached to this and that ministry, are caught in something of a vicious circle in their dealings with the planners. Their plan inputs should be co-ordinated. But, owing to their situation, they cannot speak with one voice to effect this co-ordination: they have to make their proposals along sectoral lines. The establishment of some kind of development communications focal point in each country is probably the only satisfactory answer. Where

this focal point should be located in the government structure will vary from country to country.

Meanwhile, communicators, in so far as they are in touch with one another and are able to co-ordinate at least their advocacy, could very well come up with their own proposals for inter-ministerial co-ordination in the deployment of communications resources, including staff. Lack of co-ordination is frequently deplored, but usually the deplorers wait for someone else to do something about it.

IMPLEMENTATION OF PSC

Implementation, as opposed to planning and programming, means "doing it": it is the art and practice of project execution. A great deal of discussion at the workshop had to do with practical problems encountered in the course of implementation, and participants specifically requested that a number of these be covered in this report, whether or not solutions had been agreed on. What follows is a synthesis of views and suggestions on practical matters of implementation which emerged from the workshop as a whole.

We can write a model for the development and implementation of the communications component of a given project in various ways. Generally, the steps will go something like this:

1. Project conceived in sectoral ministry or group of ministries;
2. Communications specialists called in to assist research and project design;
3. PSC unit established (if not already in existence);
4. Pre-project publicity to inform policy-makers, public and "beneficiary" communities about project aims;
5. Further pre-operational research as necessary, including baseline data for purposes of monitoring and evaluating effect of proposed communications inputs;
6. Development of appropriate messages and selection of appropriate media. Design and pre-testing of materials for campaign. Training of extension agents and others in use of materials;
7. Distribution of communications materials in step with project requirements. Monitoring response to materials; feedback to ministry; modification of materials as indicated;
8. Monitoring and feedback continue to end of project. Evaluation at end of project with results fed back to producers of communications materials, project managers, ministry and planners so they can "do better next time".

This is sometimes called the "PSC Cycle"—a term that may be misleading, for some preliminary activities will need to be carried out simultaneously while other activities will continue through the life of the project. Monitoring, for example, should be a continuous process, and messages and materials should be continuously modified in accordance with feedback from this monitoring. And all steps in the model must be kept in mind from the beginning, if a project is to have any chance of success.

Because of the long lead-time usually required to obtain equipment and train staff, a general assessment of project communication needs, along with the means that must be employed and the resources that must be found to meet those needs, will probably be the first order of business. Such pertinent questions as audience-research, the selection of messages, appropriate media and equipment, and training needs, were all discussed at separate sessions of the workshop and are treated individually in the pages that follow. However, because of the fundamental research problems it raises, the subject of monitoring and evaluation seems the appropriate one to lead off with.

Baseline Surveys, Monitoring and Evaluation

To measure progress, one must know where one started. This is the purpose of a baseline survey. Most projects start with a baseline survey of some sort. Unfortunately these surveys do not

always include data that communicators require to monitor and evaluate their part of the work. A project communications baseline survey is usually done through interviews and questionnaires to obtain data on knowledge, attitudes and practices in the field the project deals with —environmental health, for example. It needs to be related to the project goals and specifically to the goals of the communications component of the project. Baseline surveys have to be done with some care, since they are the starting point for all evaluative activities. When a project baseline survey is launched, it is imperative for the PSC staff to ensure that it includes the baseline data they will need. Otherwise, the game will be lost at the start.

A full-fledged evaluation is a repeat of the baseline survey at a later stage in the project (usually at the end) to determine to what extent project goals have been met. It is a measure of change from the baseline. Usually it involves other things as well: judgements as to what succeeded and what went wrong, recommendations for future action, etc. But essentially it is an assessment of changes that have taken place over the life of the project. Here, again, communicators must ensure that the results of their own work are measured.

Monitoring can be considered as a series of mini-evaluations carried out during the course of a project to determine its progress and to ascertain in what respects it needs to be modified. Communications aspects of a project need to be frequently monitored. What the communications staff want to know is:

—Is their part of the project going as well as hoped?
—What parts are weak and what parts are strong?
—What adjustments are needed?

Monitoring is not an academic exercise but a matter of practical importance that must be carried out quickly. Hence it should be limited to questions that are crucial to the campaign. From a communications point of view, this will normally limit the matters covered in a monitoring questionnaire to five:

1. Is the message actually being disseminated—is it "getting through"?
2. Is the message being understood?
3. Is the message being accepted or rejected?
4. Is the reaction to the campaign itself favourable or unfavourable; if it is unfavourable, what do people object to?
5. What is the impact in terms of behavioural changes?

(A prototype interview for field monitoring of a communication campaign is given in Appendix A of Donald Bogue's workshop paper, see pp 42-3.)

Funds for baseline surveys, monitoring and evaluation should be built into any project budget. While these activities cannot be conducted on a "shoestring", the costs will not be great compared to over-all project costs. Use of modern statistical sampling techniques, such as those used in public opinion polls, can help greatly to keep costs to a minimum. Communications staff often lack the theoretical knowledge necessary to carry out proper statistical sampling, but most countries have staff in some ministry who are capable of advising on this matter.

The problems relating to surveys are frequently logistical rather than statistical. The need to train and employ interviewers for short periods of time is a major stumbling block in most developing countries. One solution is to train and employ existing extention staff for this job; another is to use school teachers, on part-time retainers, as interviewers. Another problem is the speedy and reliable collection of forms for forwarding to a central point. If these problems can be overcome, however, the type of rapid surveys required for monitoring need not be particularly costly. Costs will vary, of course, depending on local conditions, but for a simple field monitoring exercise, the figure of $500 to $800 or its equivalent, suggested at one of

the workshop sessions, may be taken as a rough guideline.

Development of Appropriate Messages

The aim of project communications is to inform and educate people and to change their attitudes and behaviour through the delivery of appropriate messages. The design of such messages is therefore a major concern of communicators. An appropriate message is one the recipients can understand, accept and act upon. Sometimes communications people adopt a passive attitude towards the messages they are employed to convey. It is no excuse to say a message must be right because it has been framed by an expert in the subject concerned; experts are frequently poor communicators. Communicators who take their job seriously, it was agreed, must be willing to argue with the "experts", including administrators.

Careful identification of target groups is essential to the development of effective messages. This matter, so far as it concerns grassroots communities, has already been discussed in Section I under the heading "Know Your Audience". All PSC audiences are not village people, however. The success of a project will usually depend on reaching a number of different audiences. In an education reform programme, for example, teachers and teacher trainees, as well as parents, are an important target group. In health education it is vital to motivate doctors, dispensary workers and para-medical staff. The design of intermediate information materials, those aimed at change agents rather than project beneficiaries, depends on the cultural, social and educational background of the change agents themselves, and these must be explored.

Selection of Appropriate Media

Before making a choice of media, communicators should draw up a check-list of all that are available and appraise them critically.

There appears to be a widespread misconception that such printed media as posters, pamphlets and calendars are the most effective communications aids and the cheapest. At least these are the "standard" communications items included in most projects. This assumption was challenged on several occasions. Posters, pamphlets and calendars are expensive to print. Distribution and follow-up present great difficulties. A calendar may not last six months if displayed outside; inside a dwelling, there may not be enough light to read it. Visual perception is a tricky matter. Drawings that seem effective in a central art department may be meaningless to people in the project area; and once printed in large numbers, the materials cannot be altered.

While the more sophisticated media should not be embraced uncritically—it is certainly not a good idea to start a campaign by making a motion picture film unless very wide distribution and utilisation can be assured—some of the mass media offer very interesting possibilities. Some countries enjoy wide newspaper readership. In such countries, even if one must buy space at advertising rates, the unit costs of reaching people through the press will be low. The press may be a particularly useful medium for reaching change agents and administrators.

Radio, in terms of number of persons reached, can be more than ten times as cost-effective as any other medium. The production costs of a series of radio shows may exceed those of a poster, but the radio shows will reach many times as many people and convey considerably more information.

Songs, dance, rituals and drama have all been used throughout history to convey messages to specific groups of people. Folk media are not always suitable for conveying new messages. Popular art forms, such as street theatre, however, can frequently be effective adjuncts to a communications campaign.

It is frequently stated that person-to-person work by extension agents is the most effective form of communication. Given top-notch dedi-

cated extension agents, this is undoubtedly true. The use of extension agents is far from the cheapest means of transmitting messages to a rural audience, however. An exercise undertaken to estimate *all* the costs involved in reaching rural people through extension agents showed it to be even more expensive on a unit basis (cost per person reached) than production and distribution of a documentary film—and more expensive than radio by three or four orders of magnitude.

Cost analysis is not the only criterion in the choice of media, but it can provide helpful guidelines. A variety of media will generally be indicated for use in a particular campaign. Explanatory pamphlets for intermediate level personnel will probably be absolutely necessary no matter what their unit costs. The important matter is optimum allocation of available funds among the different media available, given the project objectives and the target groups that must be reached.

Pre-testing

Failure to pre-test messages and materials is a cardinal sin in the field of project communications. Distribution of untested materials is wasteful and may be counterproductive. It is true that messages and materials can and should be modified during the course of a campaign, as already mentioned in connection with monitoring; but the more errors that can be eliminated ahead of time the better.

The best way to pre-test messages and materials is to try them out on people in the project area. (If this is not feasible, they should at least be tested on people belonging to the same social strata as the project beneficiaries; it is not enough to get the reaction of one's office colleagues!) Pre-testing does not have to be exhaustive to be useful. The reactions of even a small number of "target group" members can be extremely helpful at an early stage. If the first five people you meet in the project area fail to understand a message, the probability that any significant number of persons in that area will understand it is slight.

Pre-testing of spoken, broadcast or written messages can be done verbally, with a tape recorder or with typed copy. Slide sets and film strips can be conveniently pre-tested while they are still being edited. Drawings and photographic posters should be pre-tested in the project area before finally selecting them for printing. A motion picture film lends itself poorly to pre-testing: its impact can be judged only when it is completed. Some pre-testing of a motion picture can be carried out, however, by translating the "treatment" into a slide set and testing the latter in the field. This procedure will at least indicate if the contemplated film is very wide of the mark.

When planning a media campaign, sufficient funds should be included for systematic pre-testing. Pre-testing will save money in the long run.

Production

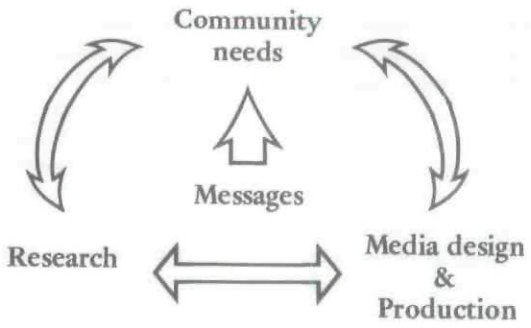
National ministries (and international assistance organisations, for that matter) tend to think of PSC primarily in terms of production of audio-visual and written materials. Production, therefore, is not in danger of being overlooked, as are some of the other vital steps in the PSC process. It was not an object of the workshop to explore individual production techniques, such as graphic design, photography, printing, radio shows, cinema, etc. Any or all of these may be required in a campaign. They are jobs for professionals, who must be recruited, specially trained, or borrowed in order to get on with the work. These specialists should not be required to work in isolation, however. They must be thoroughly briefed about the campaign as a whole and the audience to be reached. It goes without saying that the artist who is aware of the social background and modes of perception of his target audience will do a more effective job than one who merely applies art-school conventions to his work.

Certain things about production concern every-

one in the field of communications. One is production schedules. Materials have to be produced and distributed in time to serve their purpose, and it is well to build in considerable additional lead-time for the inevitable "things that go wrong". In the case of Tanzania's mass nutrition education campaign, *Chakula Ni Uhai*, publicity materials and reading materials were prepared 18 months in advance: an excellent precedent. Nothing is more embarrassing than to have materials prepared to launch a campaign arrive at the project site when the campaign is almost over.

It is extremely difficult to produce communications materials in rural areas of Africa. Darkrooms, printing presses etc. are usually nonexistent. An experimental kit to make black and white film-strips at local level, without the necessity of a darkroom, was demonstrated at the workshop. Cassette recorders have been usefully employed in some circumstances for local taping of messages. The possibility of using local artists, working in traditional materials and idioms, should certainly be explored. At a more sophisticated level, portable video-tape recorders—which can record material for playback without any intermediate processing—offer challenging possibilities. But on the whole, most materials still have to be centrally produced, and distribution becomes a great constraint.

In most countries the facilities for distribution within the functional ministries are quite poor. Moreover, as one participant remarked, communicators often think of themselves as creative types who have finished their job once a poster, film, or slide-set has been produced. They cannot afford to do this. Central production units will have to tackle the problem of distribution themselves in many cases. Use of the regular postal services is sometimes the best solution. In other cases, commercial distributors of beer, soft drinks and other goods might be willing to help out.



For materials to be useful there must be a strong interaction between the community, applied research, and materials production.

Equipping Production Units

Equipping communications production units raises serious problems. Many participants reported unfortunate experiences with poorly-selected equipment. Sometimes equipment is completely unsuited to local conditions, being unable to stand up to unavoidable conditions of heat, dust, salt spray, or rugged use. Sometimes operators cannot be trained to handle the equipment. Often local agents—if any—cannot supply spares.

The great need, it was agreed, is to develop better methods of identifying low-cost sturdy equipment. Not many participants could crystallise their ideas into solid recommendations. One suggestion, however, was to investigate how suppliers of military communications hardware overcome problems of hostile environment and meet the need for high reliability. It was noted that such equipment—military radio receivers, for example—is expensive when new but can often be obtained quite cheaply when it is declared surplus.

It is better to emphasise long-term economy and efficiency rather than initial budget-paring in the selection of equipment. While spares for an expensive machine will be more costly than those for a cheaper machine, high quality equipment will usually need less maintenance than cheaper equipment and hence will suffer less from the rigours of inadequate servicing. Needless to say, no items of equipment, expensive or cheap, should be selected if no servicing of any kind is available. Automation is not always a good idea if there are simpler, even if more time-consuming, ways of doing the same thing; collating printed material by hand, for example.

"Standardisation" and "compatibility" are key words to keep in mind when selecting equipment. Problems of training operators and maintenance people and of keeping stocks of spares on hand are immensely complicated if a variety of different equipment models are in use. Bilateral agencies often insist that the equipment they supply be of their own national manufacture, unless compelling reasons can be given to choose different equipment. Communications people must insist on equipment which they can maintain and which is compatible with their existing equipment, and assistance agencies should go along with this policy to a greater extent than they now do.

Newer technology presents more compatibility problems than older technology. A radio receiver of any make will tune in stations in the same frequency bands. Video-tapes, on the other hand, are not interchangeable between machines made by different manufacturers. Sometimes they are not interchangeable between different models put out by the same manufacturer. In ordering VTR equipment, therefore, with the aim of sharing live experiences among different groups, standardisation and compatibility are absolutely essential.

Optimising resources

"Limited resources" is an almost universal complaint in connection with project communications in Africa. In many countries the resource position would not be so desperate as is commonly imagined if various ministerial resources could be pooled for production, distribution and the delivery of agreed-upon messages. The importance of a preliminary national inventory of communications resources has already been touched in "The Communicator and the Planner". Optimising resources should be borne in mind throughout the process of implementation as well. Few ministries are strong enough on the ground to go it alone, but their combined resources are sometimes considerable. This is particularly true of extension staff. A good question to ask when launching a campaign is "What staff assigned to other ministries could help deliver the messages we want to get across?" In health education, for example, there is no reason why school teachers and agricultural extension workers as well as health workers cannot play an important role—provided the messages they deliver reinforce each other. In this, as in many other things, inter-

ministerial co-ordination at operational level is the crux of the matter. It is doubtless difficult to achieve, as all the participants agreed, but it is worth the effort.

PSC Costing

Many participants observed that they had insufficient funds to carry out all the vital steps in the communications process which were discussed at the workshop. After some discussion, however, it was agreed that funds might often be forthcoming if communicators could give accurate cost estimates and could clarify the benefits of pre-operational research, monitoring, evaluation, pre-testing, etc. Everyone agreed that without accurate cost analysis it is useless for communicators to try to participate in project planning and design. A proper project communications campaign, with all it entails, will be accepted by persons in a position to allocate resources only if they can be shown how such a campaign will increase the effectiveness of the project for an acceptable expenditure.

Unfortunately, without properly documented experience to go on, costing and cost-benefit exercises are difficult to perform. Thus the countries in greatest need of such quantified guidelines usually have the greatest difficulty developing them. No one at the workshop could recommend any all-purpose formulas for deriving such data, but it was suggested that a study of some of the more successful communications programmes in other developing countries would be useful in the preparation of costing models.

Training and Exchange of Information

To judge from the response of the workshop participants, training in all aspects of communications is an overwhelming need in Africa today. Categories of persons who need training range from driver/projectionists and junior technical staff through the ranks of extension workers, and up to the level of project managers and planners. Likewise the type of training needed ranges from a few days' on-the-job instruction up to full-fledged graduate level courses.

Easiest to identify are the training requirements of maintenance and production staff. There is a great need for training in the maintenance and repair of tape recorders, projectors, cameras, printing equipment. Training is also needed for projectionists, sound recording engineers, photographers, cinema cameramen, radio and cine script writers, printers and graphic artists. Some of this training can be carried out on an on-the-job basis. Short, specialised courses can also be arranged through institutions in different African countries.

Facilities for Training in Communications in some African Countries

(The following are some of the examples that were cited by workshop participants during discussion of this topic. The list is obviously fragmentary and is drawn only from countries participating in the workshop.)

Botswana	The University's Division of Extra Mural Services (DEMS) has considerable experience in planning, executing and monitoring campaigns in collaboration with Radio Botswana, the Agricultural Information Service and others. Study visits for senior staff might be very useful.
Ethiopia	The Ethiopia Mass Media Centre gives courses in radio and TV production and script writing, photography and cinema.
Ghana	Cinema—Department of Information Services and Ghana Film Corporation. Also Ghana Broadcasting Corporation. Graphic artists, sound engineers and electronic technicians—University of Science and Technology.
Kenya	Good commercial audio-visual institutions and studios which could train staff through special arrangements. Village polytechnic programme could be studied in terms of community involvement techniques.
Tanzania	Institute of Adult Education can offer some training by prior arrangement in project design, networking, monitoring and evaluation. Training for electronic technicians available at Dar es Salaam Technical College.

Uganda	The Institute of Education at Makerere University offers an audio-visual training programme. Some facilities also available in various ministries, such as Agriculture Health and Central Co-operative Alliance.
Zambia	Good opportunities for on-the-job training in both public and private sector in public relations, advertising, audio-visual work and magazine production and design.

UNICEF and other international organisations can assist in arranging exchange programmes among the different countries. UNICEF can also arrange a few specialised, short-term courses under its own auspices—in projector repair, for example. An inventory of training opportunities along these lines within Africa is badly needed. Participants agreed that as a follow-up to the workshop they would supply the UNICEF Communications and Information Service in Nairobi with as much up-to-date, relevant information as they could obtain on technical training possibilities in their respective countries. Save in exceptional cases, training in Europe, North America or the like should not be necessary.

Communications training for extension staff, including agriculturists, social workers, health educators, adult educators, nutritionists and home economists, was defined as a vital area. By definition, these extension workers are communicators; yet their subject matter training greatly exceeds their training in communication skills. To serve as effective change agents, they need training in such matters as interpersonal communications, simple "audience research" at field level, how to develop locally relevant messages, simple monitoring of message effectiveness, use of existing audio-visual aids and production of improvised audio-visual aids. The logical approach is to professionalise and strengthen the teaching of communications skills at the various training institutions for extension staff. The training of communications instructors for such institutions would be a logical point of entry, and UNICEF will look favourably on government requests for assistance along these lines.

Countering Limitations of Overseas Study

It was agreed that in all countries there is a need for a small number of higher level staff who are thoroughly conversant with basic communication research, monitoring and evaluation. Study at postgraduate level is probably necessary to acquire such knowledge. The customary approach in the past has been graduate study abroad in one of the developed countries.

Considerable doubt was expressed at the workshop about the value of such overseas study, for it is often difficult for persons who have pursued such courses in a highly industrialised country to translate what they have learned into terms appropriate to their own national environment. On the other hand, no facilities exist in Africa at the present time for concentrated training in these matters at the appropriate level. A possible solution, which was proposed at the workshop, would be to bring short-term graduate level training in communications to Africa through co-operative arrangements among international agencies and one or more of the world's leading communication facilities. As a follow-up to the workshop, UNICEF agreed to explore the possibility of organising a nine-week course along these lines in early 1978 for participants from various African countries.

The purpose of training, it was conceded, is to develop skills and knowledge, not to acquire certificates and degrees. Yet persons employed in government service—particularly at junior levels—feel that they require some kind of formal certification for training received in order to obtain advancement. No matter how informal a course of training may be, it would help if the person in charge would write a letter to the trainee's supervisor stating where and when the training took place and evaluating the trainee's work on the course. At the same time, ministries and departments should be urged to give due weight to such informal credentials and to place more emphasis on professional performance as opposed to academic qualifications.

Exchange of Ideas and Experience

The papers presented by the participants revealed a wealth of innovative experiences taking place in various African countries today. It was agreed that sharing of information and experience should be encouraged in every possible way. A suggestion that met with a favourable response was intercountry study tours. In the past UNICEF has arranged several such tours with the co-operation of the countries concerned, and this will be continued.

Most desirable, it was agreed, would be a regional centre for the systematic collection and dissemination of innovative materials, notions, and ideas. No concrete proposals were advanced as to just how such a "clearing house", as some termed it, could be financed, housed and staffed, but the need was clearly recognised. On a world basis, some such services exist under the aegis of UNESCO/IPPF and the Honolulu East-West Centre. But a centre more closely geared to the needs of the African region seemed clearly desirable. The UNICEF regional office in Nairobi unfortunately is not equipped to provide such a service at present.

Communications Pitfalls

Communicators frequently find their work impeded by factors beyond their immediate control. One of these is mutual message interference. The communications staff of one ministry has been instructed to promote the growing of cash crops; the staff of another ministry has been told to promote a better range of nutritious crops. Little can be done about this, aside from minor adjustment of messages, once the stage of implementation has been reached. This is a problem that must be sorted out at the project planning stage, at national or local level, and it is the communicator's responsibility to call attention to this potential pitfall.

Conflicting political pressures can be a serious problem, as several participants pointed out. Local politicians, including MPs, sometimes have their particular axes to grind, wishing the projects they are most closely associated with publicised and promoted at the expense of others. There may be even more serious problems, such as the abandonment of a promising community development approach with a change of government leaders. There is probably little the communicator working in a line post for the government can do about political pitfalls, but the members of the workshop felt they should be noted.

Professional Ethics

The question of the communictor's professional and ethical responsibilities was one of the most sensitive issues raised. It was agreed that the communicator's professional responsibility includes resisting pressures to do things he believes will not work. (A typical pressure is: "Let's make a film", when on grounds of distribution possibilities, cost effectiveness and time constraints, a simpler medium is indicated.) The best way for a communicator to exercise his professional responsibilities is for him to take the initiative in proposing the communications inputs for a project.

Ethical responsibility is a more difficult matter to deal with. What if one is convinced that the project one is called upon to support is poorly conceived or even pernicious, being designed to favour the interests of a particular exploitative group? The question was raised by one of the participants and, in all fairness, needs to be explored in spite of its very sensitive nature. Only two alternatives seemed viable: to stay on the job and try to change things through "quiet diplomacy", or to resign.

Communications theory and the communications media have proved to be formidable instruments for good or ill, and communications practitioners cannot escape the ethical implications of their work. It was emphasised that the communicator who merely regards himself as a technician, carrying out the client's desires no matter what they may be, and without attempting to influence project goals through the insights he has obtained through

his work, is no better than the advertising man who works on a cigarette account one day and on a life-insurance account the next.

How to Work More Effectively in a Bureaucratic System

Inevitably, the communicator dealing with practical development matters works in a bureaucracy, be it a government department, an international organisation, or a university. The constraints of a bureaucratic system are considerable, for the bureaucratic environment is not a particularly creative one. Decisions tend to flow from the top down, and the communicator frequently finds himself taking orders from supervisors whose knowledge of the communications theory and technique is at best fragmentary. As one participant remarked: "What do you do when your superior officer tells you to get the art work for a poster he's just thought up out by 'five o'clock today', even though you know the idea has not been properly worked out or pre-tested? Even when you know a poster is the wrong way to deliver that particular message?"

Even if the communicator can ward off *ad hoc* orders of this kind, he faces other constraints of just the opposite nature. Bureaucracies insist on long lead-times for practically everything. The machinery can be painfully slow. Such simple things as pencils and art supplies may have to be ordered many months in advance. In the case of more sophisticated equipment ordered from abroad, through UNICEF, for example, the lead-time may be up to two years. Project plans once formalised acquire an inertia of their own. The purpose of project monitoring is to enable project implementors to adjust their course, so to speak; if this cannot be done, monitoring is a waste of time and money. Yet, unless a considerable amount of flexibility is built into established procedures, changes of course are impossible. Such flexibility tends to be rare, and communicators not infrequently find themselves carrying on with the delivery of messages they realise their audiences are not responding to, through means they realise are not particularly effective. Promotion in most bureaucratic establishments is slow and depends to a large extent on seniority and the accumulation of academic credentials. There is, therefore, a strong temptation for the communicator to "give up" and go along with the system, thus himself becoming part of the "problem".

The variety of innovative and flexible projects which the participants described in their individual reports suggests that these constraints are not insurmountable. The communicator must be forewarned and forearmed. He must understand the system and how it works: if he has to order certain items of equipment two years in advance, he must simply do it, while at the same time trying to encourage more expeditious methods of procurement. He must be forearmed with expert knowledge in his own field so that he can make his case convincingly, whether it be for the use of one medium as against another, for the pre-testing of materials, or for the complete abandonment of a fruitless course of action sanctioned by a pre-existing plan of operations.

An important field of study which was discussed at one of the workshop sessions is communications in management. The matter of stimulating a better two-way flow of communications within a particular bureaucratic structure is something that communicators should address themselves to in their own interest as well as in the interest of their organisations. Time spent in discussing matters in depth with one's supervisors, one's staff and one's colleagues is not wasted time. In even the most rigid bureaucracies, more decisions are arrived at through informal consultations than is commonly realised. Memoranda, letters and reports are irksome, but they are the basic medium of bureaucratic communication: it pays to do them well, remembering that clarity usually carries more weight than rhetoric. (Do not duck the rapporteur's job at a meeting. Your views are certain to be fairly represented in a report if you write the report.) The first order of business for a

communicator wishing to work more effectively in a bureaucratic system is to make sure he is *communicating* within that system.

Workshop Evaluation

In a practical sense, a workshop such as this can only be evaluated in terms of its long-term results, and these remain to be seen. An "evaluation" questionnaire circulated on the last morning, however, revealed that by and large the participants felt that the workshop had been useful to them.

One of the participants described himself as an administrator; two said they were engaged in research and evaluation. All the rest described themselves as being involved in mass media work or in communications training. Expectations varied. In general, the participants expected a combination of theoretical discussions plus practical pointers and exchange of experience, and they were not disappointed. All but one said their expectations had been fully attained. The exception ("partially attained") was a participant who had hoped for more specific work on particular media. Several had hoped to explore how to get PSC into project planning and implementation and were pleased at the amount of attention devoted to this subject. The emphasis on monitoring and evaluation also met the expectation of many participants.

About a quarter of the workshop time was devoted to group work. Participants overwhelmingly reported that group work was the aspect of the workshop they found most rewarding and that more time should have been allotted to it. Most participants thought the two-week duration of the workshop was about right: out of four dissenters, three felt it was too short and one that it was too long. The field visits were particularly appreciated.

PART TWO

Workshop Papers

Editorial Note

Workshop participants and resource persons prepared a total of twenty-three working papers on various topics. We here present edited or abridged versions of 12 of these papers, those which created the greatest interest and seemed most relevant to the workshop, limiting ourselves to one paper per person. Abstracts are given of three others. If there were sufficient space, we should have wished to include all the papers *in extenso*; and we hope that none of the authors, all of whom contributed greatly to the success of the workshop, will feel slighted.

Planning a Motivation Campaign at Village Level

By R.R.N. Tuluhungwa

A community motivation process at village level ideally should incorporate a people's participatory element. This depends on the degree to which the community itself understands the basic objectives of the educational programme envisaged. There are several steps that one should take:

Step one
Problem Identification (involving the community).

Step two
Fact Finding (baseline study or community diagnosis). Information should be given that will give an accurate picture of the area (its size and physical features), its population (size, distribution, structure, etc.), and the community (behaviour, cultural attitudes, etc.). This diagnosis should identify the cause and extent of the problem and what perpetuates it, how community decisions are made, local terminology, opinion leaders, etc. Without gathering this information the communicator or extension worker cannot work with the community to solve their problems.

Step three
"Programme Selling". In every community there is an officially and traditionally recognised leadership system. Members of these systems will have already been identified in step two. These groups of opinion leaders have an important role in controlling attitudes. The baseline study findings should be discussed with them, their support sought and roles agreed upon.

Here visual aids, such as photographs or slides on the problem, or on what other communities did to solve a similar problem, could be used in explaining the problem at hand. Drawing on their knowledge of the area and their own people they will be able to advise you on how they think the identified problems should be tackled. The failure or success of the whole programme will, to a large extent, depend on the degree the extension worker is able to enlist their co-operation.

Step four
The Community Members. This is the very group at which the project is aimed. News of the programme will have already diffused out into the villages through the opinion leaders, but the programme must be explained in full at a village meeting. During these meetings they will reach a decision as to who should do what and where, and what the local resources are in terms of labour and materials. The right time to act will be identified too. Probably a small action committee will be selected.

Planning as outlined above is a co-operative procedure. Not only must there be a joint effort by the basic organisation and other interested ministries, but the people themselves must take part in this planning process.

Step five
Programme Staff Preparation. A training or retraining programme specifically for the project should be developed and carried out through seminars, workshops, etc. These people should be taught simple communication techniques and how to develop, pre-test and use simple village level education materials.

Step six
Action/Implementation. This is a stage in which community efforts are organised and utilised. The programme will be analysed, a plan of action worked out by the small action groups selected by the villagers' community, and government responsibilities will be spelled out,

meeting places will be selected, etc.

The implementation may include the selection and training of local community workers.

Step seven

Monitoring and Evaluation. It is important to observe and record (appraise) the progress of the programme at all stages. This is called monitoring. At fixed times it is valuable to review the progress and assess the success or failure up to that point. This is called evaluation. The criteria for evaluation as we have seen, should be established at the beginning. Evaluation should not be a complicated process at all. For instance, if one was running a pit latrine construction and improvement programme, all one needs to do is walk around the village and find out:

- —How many have been improved, rebuilt or built since the programme started?
- —How many are being used by both sexes?
- —And from the hospital records (e.g. random stool examinations) a reduction in intestinal worm cases could be realised.

Understanding the Beneficiaries

"If you wish to control mosquitoes, you must learn to think like a mosquito."[1]

The cogency of this advice is evident if one examines the problems that field development programmes run into. This quote applies not only to mosquito populations one seeks to eliminate, but also to human populations one hopes to benefit. For instance, if you wish to help a community improve its health, you must learn to think like the people of that community; before asking a group of people to assume or adopt new health habits, it is wise and imperative to ascertain the existing habits—how these habits are linked to one another, what functions they perform, and what they mean to those who practise them. The effect of ignoring this can be seen from what happened in Peru.

In certain coastal zones of Peru, technically successful mosquito (anopheles) control programmes resulted in public charges of incompetence and failure being made against the programme officials.

The story reads: "In one Peruvian zone the first year's campaign against malarial mosquitoes had a residual effect of 6–9 months, but campaigns in succeeding years produced steadily shrinking effects as the insects became more adapted to the insecticide. Unprepared for this change, the villagers became convinced that the spraying teams, originally conscientious, were becoming increasingly careless and that the *dishonest* campaign officials were probably diverting the *genuine* DDT for some ulterior motive, and substituting an inferior product in its place. Secondly, although the malaria rate had been reduced, the inhabitants did not associate this change with the spraying. Nor did they realise that the spray was aimed specifically at mosquitoes, because in their eyes mosquitoes had never been a major insect pest—they appeared only intermittently, unlike the perennial and bothersome housefly. Hence, according to popular assumption, the principal object of DDT spraying was to exterminate the fly and not the mosquito. Over several years, the fly population regained its lost ground, although the malaria continued to be effectively controlled. Therefore, what campaign directors saw as successful anti-anopheles work was seen by the local population as flagrantly unsuccessful anti-housefly work."[2]

It is therefore, obvious that before mounting a project and its related communications inputs, very painstaking research must go into the preliminary planning and much of it from a sociological and psychological aspect. In brief, the campaign should be planned in close co-operation with a communications specialist and a sociologist/anthropologist who has closely studied the people in the area.

[1] Dr Samuel Darling in *Health Culture and Community*, edited by Benjamin D. Paul.

[2] From *Health Culture and Community*, edited by Benjamin D. Paul.

Establishing Message Benchmarks

To decide on compatibility of one's message to a given target group or community, one must try to find out answers for the following questions, otherwise the message will have an adverse response, if any:

How deep is the audience's dissatisfaction with the present situation? Or can we make them dissatisfied?

Are there any social and religious characteristics which will influence their behaviour?

How strong are their beliefs and taboos and what is their value system?

Are there human limitations which must be considered, e.g. education and age?

Has the audience a preference for one or another communications approach, e.g. individual visits versus lecture, small group meetings versus large group meetings?

Does the audience perceive the content of the messages as relevant or irrelevant to its needs?

What is their economic situation, and how will the new ideas affect this?

With regard to the subject matter content of the message—where are the members of the audience in terms of adoption: are they totally ignorant of the subject? Are they aware, but not interested? Have they already indicated some interest and some have even tried out the idea?

What is the educator's credibility rate with the audience? Do they perceive him as capable of understanding and helping? Or is he doing it for the sake of the pay? etc.

Therefore, an accurate cultural analysis of the society must be built up before designing the message, which has to appeal to self-interest, internal conditions, emotional factors and familiarity. Only when familiarity with the customs, habits, interests and emotional attitudes of the target group is established should the choice of methods and message be made.

Field Monitoring and Evaluation of Communication Campaigns

By Donald J. Bogue

Field Monitoring of Communication Campaigns

Once an information campaign has been launched, almost immediately questions such as the following begin to arise. "Is it going as well as hoped?", "Is the campaign weak or failing in some respects?", "What parts of it are weak and what parts are strong?", "What adjustments are needed?" Those who are sponsoring and paying for the costs of the programme do not want to wait until the campaign has run its full course to get answers to these questions. They want (and deserve) answers to these questions after the campaign has been in operation for only a few days. Factual evidence that can save time and money and prevent failures (or make success even more complete) is needed urgently at the mid-stream stage of a communication campaign.

"Field monitoring" or "midstream evaluation" is a special subtype of communication research which has the capability of providing answers to these questions. It is not a single type of research activity, but a rapid assembly of bits and pieces of evidence and data which, when put together, will provide an approximately accurate picture of how the intended audience is responding to the campaign. It is not necessarily something which is done only once during the course of the campaign. It may be desirable to take monitoring "soundings" at weekly, biweekly, monthly or quarterly intervals. The amount of detail, the frequency of taking of soundings, and the amount and type of analysis performed must depend upon the nature of the project and the context in which it is being performed. The notes which follow are intended to be a general guide, which must be amplified and modified to fit individual projects.

In order to be useful and effective, each episode or sounding by field monitoring must have the following characteristics:

1. It must be done quickly—the information is needed *now*;
2. It must be done cheaply—most communication campaigns have zero budget for monitoring;
3. It must focus on a few specific questions of critical import to the success of the project;
4. It must supply reliable and valid data within the limits of tolerance of accuracy required by the decisions to be made.

Devising a monitoring procedure which conforms to the above specifications is not as difficult as might seem at first. Luckily for most programmes, statistics or data which are correct within 10 or 15 per cent of the true measurements will be adequate for making the decisions that need to be made concerning the need to change the programme, or to continue with the original plans.

"Hard" versus "soft" data. One controversy which arises immediately in discussions of monitoring, is whether or not it is sufficient to interview informally a few respondents and write or make a verbal report on the general impressions gained from this exercise. "Soft" research of this type is all that is needed, some will contend. Others will insist that only collecting "hard" statistical data from a fully representative sample of the intended audience will be sufficient. Proponents of "soft" data will insist that check-lists and multiple-choice questions are inadequate (even though they make possible impressive statistics), because monitoring requires that people be allowed to criticise the messages in an uninhibited way—using words of their own choosing. The position taken here is that *both* of the above philosophies are correct. Good monitoring methodology involves taking the best ideas and techniques of each and combining them into a research procedure which will produce hard data where hard data is essential and soft data where soft

data is essential. It also involves avoiding the pitfalls and weaknesses of each of these methodologies as they are usually practised. Because "soft" data often interviews a biased sample of respondents, taken from only one single site, there is a grave danger of overlooking the wide variation in response which the campaign is evoking. Monitoring must take observations from a number of different sites, and it must develop some system for making sure that the respondents at each site are not selected because they are easily accessible, co-operative, or some other reason which might bias their reaction. Because "hard data" methods make it impossible for people to express their thoughts in their own words, good monitoring procedure calls for the generous use of open-ended questions which encourage the expression of frank opinions in an uninhibited fashion. Techniques of content analysis can be used to code these answers.

Sample size

Like all research, the precision of the monitoring soundings will depend primarily upon the size of the sample drawn and the procedures by which respondents are selected. Taking huge samples by highly precise sampling procedures consumes much time and drives up costs. Inasmuch as most of the data must come from a mini-survey, carried out on a small sample of respondents within a very short time, the sample size will be a primary consideration. In general, a rapid survey of 50 cases, taken from 10 different localities widely distributed and varying in characteristics across the entire range of communities (five interviews being taken at each point) will provide sufficiently exact evidence to let the sponsor know whether he is succeeding or failing—and by how much and in what respects and why. With a short questionnaire and with such a small sample, it is possible to conform to the four key specifications prescribed in the opening statement. If greater precision is required, a larger sample involving more sampling points can easily be planned—if time, manpower and funds are available.

Cost and timetable

If a 50-case mini-survey is prescribed as the major source of monitoring data, the ultimate costs and timetable can be estimated within a fairly small margin of error.

(a) *Interviewing time*

With a short questionnaire and reasonably good transport, one interviewer should be able to complete five interviews in one day. For 50 interviews, a total of 10 person days will be required. If a total of 5 interviewers are used, the entire interviewing procedure can be completed within 2 days. (In order to avoid interviewer bias, it is recommended that not less than 5 interviewers be used.)

(b) *Coding of interviews*

The "hard data" items on the interview will be self-coded (pre-coded). The "soft data" (open-ended) items will require only very broad content-analysis coding. One person can code the 50 interviews in 2 days. Coding can begin as quickly as interviews begin arriving from the field, so that the completion of coding can be achieved within one half-day after completion of interviewing.

Tabulation

The statistics needed to generate "hard data" are usually only simple frequency counts or cross-tabulations. The 50 cases can be hand-tallied by one person working one day. If a counting sorter is available, it will be faster and more reliable to punch cards and make the tabulations by machine—within an hour or less. But machine tabulation is not important unless some fine points are to be explored using sophisticated statistical procedures. (Some of the most powerful and complicated statistical procedures involve drawing useful conclusions from very small samples of data. Therefore, if a computer is available, it is possible to follow up the first preliminary monitoring with a more complete and precise one.)

Total timetable

A complete monitoring exercise can be carried out within one week as follows:

Monday (first day). Finalise the questionnaire, duplicate the questionnaire and instruct the interviewers. Give out field assignments.

Tuesday (second day). Begin field work. Interviewers must be transported to the sample sites and must be transferred from interview to interview quickly. Ideally, each interviewer should be driving his or her own vehicle in order to minimise time consumed.

Wednesday (third day). Complete the interviewing. If interviewing lagged the first day, add additional interviewers or arrange to work longer hours to complete the task. Begin the coding. As each interview is coded, it can be handed over to the hand tabulator for tabulation.

Thursday (fourth day). Complete the coding and hand tabulation. As quickly as the last interview is coded and tabulated, the data should be handed over to the analyst. The analyst meanwhile has been studying the preliminary results of the hand tabulation as they are made, so that he already knows what the major findings will be. He begins writing his report. By working in the evenings, he finishes.

Friday (fifth day). The report need be only a few pages with a few simple statistical summaries and tables. It can be completely typed (the tables can be duplicated copies of the worksheets) by noon. The afternoon of the fifth day can be devoted to a presentation of the findings to the programme director and a general discussion of what implications they have for the campaign. Decisions for change and revision can begin to be reached.

In most cases there will be adequate time to carry out these steps at a somewhat slower pace. The above timetable is presented only to show the spirit and speed which is possible in good monitoring research.

Total cost of monitoring

The total cost of one episode of monitoring is less than $1,000 US. The cost at overseas sites should be considerably less. The following is the breakdown of costs for a 50-case mini-survey:

Interviewers—10 person days at $25 per day	$250
Typist—2 person days to type questionnaire, report	50
Coder and hand-tabulator—3 person days combined	75
Supervision of interviewing and coding	100
Transportation of interviewers	200
Salary for analyst, study director	150
Incidental expenses	50
Total cost of monitoring "sounding"	$875

The above costs cover all expenses. If the manpower is obtained simply by transferring to the project personnel which are already on the payroll, the out-of-pocket costs are almost zero—involving only the transportation and incidental expenses.

Inasmuch as most communication campaigns run to many thousands of dollars, the expenditure of the above amount of funds could be a most valuable investment. The modest cost makes it easier to justify two or more rounds of monitoring if the campaign is a prolonged one.

The Field Monitoring Interview

One secret of effective monitoring is to limit the enquiry only to a few questions that are of crucial importance for guiding the campaign. This is no time for the researcher to exercise his general scientific curiosity. Instead he must justify every item placed on the questionnaire in terms of how directly it is related to questions that have been raised about the adequacy of the campaign. In most cases this will limit the questions to five categories of items:

1. Is the intended audience receiving the message?
2. Is the intended audience comprehending the message and remembering its contents?
3. Does the intended audience accept or reject the content of the message?
4. Is the over-all reaction of the audience toward the campaign favourable or unfavourable? What do they find offensive?
5. Is the intended audience responding to the message by changing its behaviour in ways desired by the campaign directors?

Good monitoring interviews will contain questions which will obtain valid data on each of the above points. It will be confined to these categories of questions, plus a few "demographic" questions concerning the basic characteristics of the respondents, needed to interpret the results.

In order to illustrate a typical monitoring questionnaire, a crude prototype has been developed and presented as *Appendix A*. The exact wording of the questions would be done in terms of the local language and dialect. The wording given is intended only to convey the meaning. An example from nutrition is used, but the topic could be any one of a wide variety of programmes which are the subject of development communication.

The monitoring interview is so short that it can be completed in 20 minutes or less in most cases. Allowing 10 minutes for general rapport-building conversation and close-off, a total of 2.5 hours of actual interviewing time would be required per day to obtain 5 interviews. The remaining 5.5 hours could be spent in travel between interviews. This gives a generous one-hour travel time between interviews.

Analysis of the Data

The responses to the questionnaire can be tabulated to fill in the following data-sheet.

1. Percentage of respondents receiving messages via each medium:

	Per cent
Home visits	
Group discussions	
Radio programming	
Posters	
Leaflets or printed material	
Other media	
Received no message, any medium	
Received message via personal contact only	
Received message via mass media only	
Received message via both mass media and personal contact	

2. Percentage able to recall content messages. (Develop score):

	Per cent
High content recall	
Medium content recall	
Low content recall	
Received message, can recall nothing of content	
Did not receive message at all	

3. Percentage liking message presentation (by those receiving):

	Per cent
Home visits	
Group discussions	
Radio programming	
Posters	
Leaflets	

4. Percentage rejecting the message (by those receiving):

	Per cent
Home visits	
Group discussions	
Radio programming	
Posters	
Leaflets	

5. Knowledge level of respondents, by receipt of message:

Level of knowledge	Received no message	Received message via		
		Mass media only	Personal contact only	Both mass & pers.
High				
Medium				
Low				

6. Change in feeding and nutrition practices:

Yes				
No				

7. Talked to others about nutrition:

Yes				
No				

If time permits, a sheet of the above tabulations can be prepared separately for male and female respondents, for old and young, educated and uneducated, for race or ethnic group, for income groups, etc. In every case the division must be a simple dichotomy because of the small number of cases. If a tabulating machine is available, the preparation of these supplementary cross-tabulations is made easier.

Content analysis of the verbatim responses to open-ended questions

No effort should be made to perform a statistical analysis of the verbatim responses to the open-ended questions in addition to that called for by the above summary. Instead, a typist should rapidly transcribe on a single set of pages the responses to each question, separately. These responses should be read and discussed in the evaluation, much as they would be in any interview which had relied on the "soft" data-collection approach. These specific comments can be invaluable in understanding and interpreting the reaction to the survey—what is wrong and what is going well.

Advance planning

In order to be effective, the field monitoring research must be planned well before the communication campaign begins. Because there will be need for rapid action, the questionnaire should be drawn up and pre-tested beforehand. The interviewers should be identified and instructed beforehand. The sampling sites and the plan for transporting interviewers to them should be drawn up beforehand. The coding and tabulation plan should be drawn up and tried out beforehand. In other words, there should have been a complete dress-rehearsal of the monitoring step before the communication campaign is launched. If this is done, all of the difficulties and delays that will be experienced will have been discovered and corrected. If the researchers wait until the campaign is already under way before they begin to develop a questionnaire and work up the research plans, the monitoring research will encounter many delays, there is a danger that the data will be poor, and that it will arive too late to be of any practical use. Advance planning is, therefore, absolutely mandatory.

Appendix A

A Prototype Interview for Field Monitoring of a Communication Campaign

A. Is the audience receiving the message?

1. Have you recently seen or heard or talked to anyone about (*nutrition*)?

   Yes . . . . . No . . . . . .

   Ask following of everyone, irrespective of answer to above question:

   a) Did anyone come to visit you in your home to talk about it?
   b) Did you join in a group discussion where this was discussed?
   c) Did you hear anything about this subject on the radio?
   d) Did you see a poster or hoarding about it?
   e) Did you see a leaflet or booklet about it?
   f) Did you (see) (hear) (talk) ... other media used in the campaign?
   g) Did you talk about this with a friend or neighbour?

B. Is the intended audience comprehending the message and remembering its content?

Questions 2, 3, and 4 are to be asked for each item in Question 1 for which a "Yes" answer was obtained.

2. Will you please tell me as much as you can remember of what was said about (*nutrition*) in the (*medium*)? *Record the response word for word as nearly as possible, for content analysis.*

   Probes

   a) Did they want you to try out a new thing? What did they want you to do?
   b) Did they want you to stop doing something you have been doing? What did they want you to stop doing?
   c) What reason did they give for wanting you to do these things?

C. Is the reaction of the audience favourable or unfavourable?

3. What was your feeling about this (*medium*)? Did you like or dislike (hearing) (seeing) (participating in) it?

   If disliked: What was wrong with the (*medium*)? What caused you to dislike it? *Record word for word.*

D. Does the audience accept or reject the content of the message?

4. Did you think the information and advice given to you was correct or incorrect? Was it partly correct and partly incorrect?

   If incorrect (all or part): What did they tell you that you know is not right?

   Probe
   What did they say that you know is incorrect?
   Record word for word.

E. Is the intended audience responding to the message by gaining knowledge and changing its behaviour?

5. Develop and insert a four-item knowledge test. Example:

   a) When a baby is weaned, is it better to feed the baby mostly (starch diet) or to feed it a mixture of (balanced diet)?
   b) Suppose you were preparing a meal for children. Which of the following meals would be better to make them grow strong and healthy: a meal comprised of (traditional meal) or a meal comprised of (recommended balanced diet)?
   c) Have you ever heard of "protein"?

      Yes . . . . . No . . . . . .

      Which of the following foods has more protein?

      Maize or beans?
      Bread or cheese?
      Carrots or chicken?
      Oranges or bananas?

      Which of the above foods is better for helping children grow strong muscles?
   d) Have you ever heard of "vitamins"?

      Yes . . . . . No . . . . . .

      Which of the following foods has more vitamins?

      Oranges or maize?
      Bananas or carrots?
      Cabbage or beans?
      Beef or bread?

      Which of the above foods is better for helping children from getting sick?

F. Is the intended audience changing its behaviour?

6. Since you heard these messages about (*nutrition*) have you changed the way you feed your children?

   Yes . . . . . No . . . . . .

   If "Yes": What changes have you made?

   If "No": What has kept you from making any changes?

   a) Was it because you did not believe the messages?
   b) Was it because you did not think it very important?
   c) Was it because you could not get the foods you needed to make the change?

7. Since you heard these messages about (*nutrition*) have you talked with any neighbours or friends about (*nutrition*)?

   Yes . . . . . No . . . . . .

   a) How many persons have you talked to? Who?
   b) Do most of these people believe in eating mostly (starch diet) or do they believe in eating a mixture of (balanced diet)?

8. Characteristics of respondent:

   a) Sex ... Male/Female.
   b) How old were you on your last birthday? . . . . . (Estimate to nearest 5 years if age not known.)
   c) How far did you go in school? Husband . . . . . Wife . . . . . .
   d) Occupation of husband. . . . . .
   e) Measure of income or wealth . . . . . .
   f) Ethnicity or race . . . . . .
   g) Number of children in family . . . . . .

Folk Media and Social Development, Tanzania

By E. Jengo

The term "Folk Media" refers to indigenous communication systems as illustrated in the use of music, songs, dance, poetry, proverbs, stories and even rituals, to name only a few. All cultures have, and are still employing, folk media to communicate a variety of messages.

This paper attempts to survey some areas in which folk media have been used to achieve specific goals in Tanzania. The importance attached to folk media as a means of communication cannot be over-emphasised. During the opening session of this workshop, the guest of honour, Ndugu Gwagilo, suggested that communication through folk media "is an area that governments and international organisations should explore". Indeed, there is an urgent need to find out the effectiveness of such media in social development.

Let us now examine the extent to which some of the folk media mentioned above have been employed to achieve intended goals.

Music

It has been a regular custom among the Wakerewe of north-western Tanzania to use drum symbols to inform the community members of the arrival of the new moon. The significance of this is, of course, known to the Wakerewe themselves. It can only be suggested here that since the Wakerewe are agriculturalists, the effect of the moon in the planting season may have something to do with the drum symbols.

In the coastal area of Tanzania it used to be fashionable to inform the Muslims of the arrival of the new moon at the end of *Ramadhan*. Big drums known as *Goma Kuu* would be sounded at the sight of the new moon. Like the church bells during Christian festivals, the drum has been used to communicate some simple messages. The message, however, reaches only those who can successfully decode it.

Music, in the present efforts aimed at social development in Tanzania, has been used in the famous *Mtu Ni Afya* (Man is Health) campaign to reinforce positive attitudes. It was, however, used in conjunction with other communication systems, such as the press and interpersonal communication. To find out how many people acquired positive attitudes on health matters as a result of listening to music during the campaign is not the subject of this paper. But it would be useful later to know the impact of music in health campaigns. I say "later", because the *Mtu Ni Afya* evaluation was completed some three years ago. No mention was made of the role of music in changing the target population's attitudes on health matters. Campaigns which will be conducted later should evaluate the music component.

Poetry

The earliest Swahili poetry was written in Arabic. Over the years, poetry in Tanzania has played a very important role as a medium of communication.

During the colonial period, the poets made conscious efforts to praise the colonial powers. One of the most famous East African poets, the late Shaaban Robert, is currently being condemned for having written a long poem praising the British on their triumph over the Germans during the Second World War. This condemnation is based on the assumption that his poem was designed to shatter the confidence of the African of the time. But do poems possess the power to influence or reinforce people's attitudes?

Margaret Jellicoe tells us that in Singida, central

Tanzania, poetry was used to mobilise the people of that area to revolt against the German administration in 1911. It is said that a local poet sang a poem to communicate a war message to his community members. According to Jellicoe, a local person sided with the German military officer who treated the Wanyaturu of Singida in a very unbecoming manner, typical of the German rule. When the people heard the poem, they united and eventually revolted, and the Germans were driven out of Singida.

One can suggest here that the verbal symbols in the poem were so well ordered that the message reinforced attitudes that had existed in the minds of the Singida people.

Today, written and recited poetry is very common in Tanzania. The latest innovation is *Ngonjera*, a form of poetry that is dramatised. Two or three actors are normally required to dramatise *Ngonjera*, which was invented by Mathias Muyampala in the early 70's. *Ngonjera* is used mainly in political socialisation. Its aim is to make people aware of the political issues in the Tanzanian nation. Whether *Ngonjera* can be interpreted as a form of propaganda is an issue that is open to debate. Suffice it to say that *Ngonjera* is a form of folk media that uses verbal symbols and human action to communicate relevant messages to the audience. In *Ngonjera*, media such as charts, photographs and real objects are often incorporated so as to emphasise a point. It is another method of furthering the Kiswahili language.

Space does not allow me here to enumerate many good uses to which poetry is put to communicate useful information. It should, however, be noted that Swahili poetry is so popular that in Tanzania virtually all Swahili newspapers reserve a page for readers' poems. Such well-known newspapers as *Uhuru, Ukulima wa Kisasa* and *Ngurumo*, contain a page of poems.

To assume that poetry does not influence attitudes is to beg the question "Why are governments all over the world banning some publications?" Poetry is a form of literature that is written or sung for a purpose, like all literature. The saying that "the pen is mightier than the sword" should not be taken lightly. With the current efforts in adult literacy in Tanzania, there is every hope that poetry will continue to educate and inform the people about the many aspects of social development.

Proverbs

The role of proverbs in information is that of indirect warning intended to shape people's behaviour. The Swahili proverb *"Mgeni Siku Mbili, Siku ya Tatu Mpe Jembe Akalime"* (Treat your guest for two days; on the third day give him a hoe), is used in many contexts. President Nyerere has used it to illustrate the traditional way of socialism in African societies in which everyone, except the young and the aged, worked.

It is not hard to see from the above example that the proverb challenges loiterers and parasites who shun all work in the villages and towns. Used in the political context by a head of state, the proverb can exert a very strong influence, and it has done so. Right now, there is a big campaign to eradicate the unemployed and unemployables in the cities in Tanzania.

Like many statements, proverbs, I believe, make their impact on people if they come from a credible or respected source. Parents, teachers, and other social agents do use proverbs, but the impact depends on the authority or credibility of such agents, and the sophistication levels of their audiences.

However, for the rural population, proverbs may prove useful if accompanied by other information designed to instruct the people on some vital social issue.

Rituals

There is some evidence which suggests that rituals have been successfully used in East Africa to achieve intended results. The Mau

Mau oaths in the late 1950's testify to this. What started as rituals culminated in nationalism of the highest degree. This was a positive way in which such rituals were employed as media to unite the people against the colonial authority.

Rituals still exist alongside other religious practices. Like all media, they have their positive and negative sides. One of their negative sides was illustrated in Singida, a place which has already been mentioned in this paper. In Singida, over 1,000 children and young men had their front teeth extracted as a result of rumours originating from a local ritual leader. This practice was alleged to have the power to prevent a fatal disease which the ritual leader foresaw. The teeth extraction exercise was conducted by the local followers of the ritual leader and the result was death in most cases.

How can rituals be used to increase economic growth in the rural areas? This has yet to be explored. Whether rituals should be employed in social development efforts, or whether they should be left alone, depends to some extent on the wishes of the agents of social change.

It has been proved that nations like China, India, Malaysia and Thailand make use of their folk media for communication purposes. Africa is rich in folk media, but it needs a confident and knowledgeable social agent to employ such media. For it is not enough to organise music and poetry hours in national radio or television broadcasts. What it means is to know for certain whether the intended results are achieved. This is a challenge facing today's communication specialist in Africa. It is a challenge because no data has been widely obtained from those nations which employ folk media in social development to justify the use of such media in Africa.

However, with international co-operation in the area of folk media for social development, some tangible results may encourage the full adoption of the folk media in Africa's social development efforts which are currently being made, as illustrated by this UNICEF-sponsored workshop on communications for social development.

Comparison of Media Costs in Kenya

By P.L. Vincent

For the purposes of this paper, it is convenient to divide media into two groups. Firstly, the mass media and secondly, what I shall call group media. We are all familiar with the mass media, such as newspapers, books, radio, television and the cinema. The last two in the list represent the mass media of a more recent variety which require a very substantial cost for preparation. Although they have the potential to reach the masses, not many have access to the facilities for production.

The group media usually utilise some form of interpersonal communication along with the hardware. For instance booklets, brochures, pamphlets, educational radio, cassette recordings or tape recordings, some films, video-tapes, slide sets and strips, posters, calendars, flip-charts and flannelgraphs, are best suited to reaching well-defined groups of people whose needs and interests are well known. Their effectiveness is enhanced if the hardware is backed up by person-to-person communication of some form, such as the teacher or extension agent who has been briefed about the purposes of the media presentation, and knows how to reinforce it. A good example of this is educational broadcasting, where the teacher is supplied with a pamphlet or "teacher's note" which he or she will use after the broadcast to continue the lesson.

I. Mass media

The mass media are often considered to be an expensive way of reaching people. It is true that the technology and equipment required to produce these media require a large capital investment. Mostly, however, the facilities to print newspapers and books are available in every country on a commercial basis. Similarly, most countries do have the facilities to broadcast and produce radio shows, and these can be hired for a moderate fee.

Film and television are, in Africa at least, the media which are available to dwellers in the larger towns and cities. Kenya is fortunate to have an excellent 16 and 35 mm mobile cinema circuit. The majority of such mobile cinema vans are run on a commercial basis and reach a very large proportion of the rural population each year. It would not be possible for the Government to provide such an extensive network without the possibility of recouping expenses on paid advertising. If *we* want to use these circuits, however, it must be borne in mind that films or television shows are very expensive to produce (and much higher than radio shows or newspaper articles), although they may be very popular with the audiences, and potentially most effective.

Per capita costing

In order to evaluate the *per capita* costs of various media, certain assumptions have been made in this paper:

(a) All capital investments are discounted;
(b) Charges such as air time and studio time are fully costed.

A. *Newspapers*

Sending your press release to a newspaper is probably the cheapest exposure available to anybody. However, the maximum space you are likely to get from a newspaper will be one or two column-inches. However, it may be possible to get four or five inches of press coverage, and maybe even a picture, if you liaise with the press in advance, and let them send somebody to see your project. It is likely that they will prefer to send their own reporter and photographer.

A good feature, submitted by you, might get as much as one page, but don't expect every line to remain. It might well appear as "From our special correspondent", without your by-line. Good pictures (8" x 10" glossies) should be

provided, if possible. (An article by a professional costs about $200–300 US.)

B. *Books and pamphlets*

Pamphlets and books are not usually considered as mass media in the developing world, since a highly motivated and literate audience is necessary. However, with a well-defined and specific target group, they can be very useful. Usually printed text will be required only in small quantities, with uncomplicated wording, to back up presentations to groups.

To write your own pamphlet or brochure should be simple enough—not requiring the hiring of a professional writer. Printing costs will depend on the number of pictures or drawings, the quality of paper you choose, what binding, and of course the quantity that you require.

C. *Radio*

As a mass medium, radio is without a doubt, the most cost-effective. Production of professional quality radio programmes might be done for as little as $350 US per show (this is from the Kenya experience). This includes the fee for a producer, three actors, studio time and air time (prime time). This appears expensive—but if you take an estimate of the listenership for each show at two million (63 per cent of the estimated total of three million listeners), the cost *per capita* is $0.00015 US, or Kenya cents 0.12. (Source: *Zaa na Uwatunze Evaluation*.)

Breakdown (Zaa na Uwatunze)

Artist's fees: $35 per show x 52 = $1,820 per artist/year	
3 artists x 52 =	$5,460
Studio fees: $42 per show x 52 =	2,200
VOK air-time: $85 per show x 52 =	4,420
Consultant's fees: $1,000 per quarter (13 shows) x 4 =	4,000
Evaluation: $2,000 x 1 =	2,000
Total	$18,080

Total listenership (estimate) 3,000,000

Survey shows 63 per cent listen to shows.

$$\text{Show listenership} = \frac{3{,}000{,}000}{100} \times 63 = 2{,}000{,}000$$

Per capita cost/show = $0.00015.

In Zambia the results, we hope, will be even better. We employed a playwright to work with the Zambia Food and Nutrition Commission—producing 52 scripts. Although 26 shows have been recorded to date, they will not be broadcast until January 1977.

However, the breakdown should be as follows:

Local producers' fees (12 months)	$2,000
UNICEF consultant (2 weeks)	500
Artists' fees $4.80 per show, 3 per show, 3 performers x 52 shows =	750
Broadcast and studio time	nil
	$3,250

Cost/show = $65.

Up-to-date figures on listenership are not available, but an estimate of 500,000 listeners per show would not be far off.

$$\text{*Per capita* costs } \frac{\$65}{500{,}000} = \$0.000013$$

D. *Television*

Television undoubtedly has a greater impact than radio. However, the viewership is greatly reduced since audience is restricted to a few towns and only the rich can afford a receiver.

The *per capita* costs of producing a television programme must be somewhat higher than radio. How much higher? A rough estimate would give (for Kenya) approximately two times the *cost* of radio show production. The potential audience is also greatly reduced. If we assume the audience would be in proportion to the number of sets, the factor is:

$$\frac{\text{TV sets}}{\text{Radio sets}} = \frac{37{,}000}{500{,}000} = \frac{1}{13}\text{ th}$$

Taking the base references of the *per capita* cost of a radio show, we get (for TV in Kenya):

0.12 cents x 2 x 13 = 3.12/- or $0.40.

E. *Film*

The cost of producing film varies enormously, depending on the variables: length (time), gauge (16 mm, 35 mm) and type (feature, documentary, animation, etc.). A government institution can usually get an NGO, bilateral or multilateral agency to help out with production. The costs which remain will be travel, materials, services (printing, processing) and distribution. We must assume that there is some distribution infrastructure already available—so the last item will only consist of the cost of utilising such facilities.

Example

Kenya—Film—Village Polytechnics—30 minutes (Motivational feature/film).

Breakdown

Filmstock, processing, workprinting, 50 x 400 ft =	$3,200
Magnetic stock and transfer =	$1,000
Post production services =	$2,000
Actors and location expenses =	$1,500
Prints (10) =	$1,200
Total	$8,900

If we assume that most of the prints are put in circulation immediately, with both commercial mobile cinema circuits and government information mobiles, the audience could be as high as one million. The costs of running the government information mobiles will not add more than $1,000 to the total cost. The commercial circuits are glad to accept local entertainment films—since they make money solely on the advertising which they carry.

Let us estimate an audience of one million and a cost of $10,500.

$$\textit{Per capita} = \frac{\$10{,}500}{1{,}000{,}000} = \$0.0105$$

One year of shows (52) gives a cost *per capita* $0.008. So, for the price of one film, approximately 60 radio shows can be made and broadcast.

In countries with less well-developed distribution systems, the *per capita* costs will be even greater.

The use of 35 mm film is too expensive to even consider as a possibility. 8 mm film is much cheaper than 16 mm but is so poor in quality when copies are made that it is really not worthwhile. 8 mm film also presents problems for projection to large audiences.

II. Group media

(Usually an audio-visual aid for a group teacher or extension worker.)

A. *Booklets, brochures*

Small quantities of written materials can serve as a valuable back-up to an extension agent, listening group (with a leader) or radio show for self-instruction. They can operate very well in the role of "aides memoire", providing background and reference material. The methods of production will depend on facilities available.

Duplicating (ink or spirit)—one of the cheapest and most widely available techniques for reproducing printed material. For the sake of comparison we have calculated the cost on the basis of four pages (2 sheets) of A4 typewritten:

Maximum copies/stencil = 500

4 stencils	$0.80
2 reams duplicating paper	$8.00
Ink and staples	$0.20
	$9.00

Cost/copy (equivalent *per capita* cost) = $0.018.

Offset (ink only)—facilities found in most large towns—either as government printers or commercial outfits. The machinery is more delicate and expensive but the quality is better. The

paper which can be used is somewhat cheaper:

Maximum copies/stencil = 2000

4 plates (direct typing)	$ 0.50
8 reams offset bond	$24.00
Ink and staples	$ 0.20
	$24.70

Cost/copy (equivalent *per capita* cost) = $0.012.

Offset duplicating (excluding printing charges in commercial work) is approximately 60% of the cost of duplicating.

Pictures—Line drawings can be incorporated in the above with no change in cost. An electronic stencil can be used to reproduce pictures, each stencil costing about $1.00 US and producing up to 500 copies. The equivalent offset screened plate will cost about the same and produce a much finer image and run about 1,000 copies (paper).

The offset picture will cost 50% of that of the duplicated one. If the cost of paper is counted, offset pictures cost still less.

Large-scale production—For large runs, 5,000 copies upwards, there can be no doubt that offset printing with metal plates will be necessary (see graph).

Colour printing—Much too expensive for any application I can think of in PSC. For instance, the four negatives for one picture will cost about $150–200 US, and the printing will have to be undertaken by a commercial firm.

B. *Film and video-tape*

The production of films has already been covered, but it is worthwhile noting that films are available from many libraries in this region on a hire or loan basis. Most films are not really made with this part of the world in mind, but films of any kind are good for attracting a crowd.

Video-tape is much cheaper and more flexible. It gives instant review of the material you, yourself have shot: giving the group with whom you've been working a chance to see themselves. The beauty of the system is in its *instant* and *personal* nature. It seems personal because tape of one group can be carried to another group or person and replayed in the office or home. The small screen enhances this impression of a "personal show" and it can be used to great advantage in many situations.

As far as costs go I have decided in this case to involve the capital costs (since they are low and you are not likely to be able to borrow or rent outfits just yet).

Breakdown

Capital costs:

VTR (Sony Portopack VR 3600) including camera, monitor, tripod and batteries	$2,500

Operating costs:

½ hour Sony V30H tape	$10.00

That's all the expenses there are for field recording. The *per capita* costs are low, depending on how many shows you give with one tape. If we pretend the project deals with one community of 150 households who have a grievance against the planners (10 officers), the tape will only be seen by a total of 160 people.

$$\textit{Per capita} \text{ costs} = \frac{\$10}{160} = \$0.0625$$

This is pretty low for an audio-visual medium which is instant, and whose materials (tapes) are re-usable.

C. *Slide sets/film strips*

This is often an under-utilised medium. Either with or without a recorded commentary, it has the advantages of flexibility (you go as fast or slow as you and the audience wish), low cost and verisimilitude (accurate colours and fine details—depending on a reasonably skilled photographer).

The cost for an average slide set/film strip (36 frames) is as follows:

Original film costs (3 rolls, 36 frames) plus processing	$11.00
10 duplicates of 35 frames (film and processing	30.00
	$41.00

$$\text{Cost/copy of slide set} = \frac{\$41}{10} = \$4.10$$

Each slide set has a very long life (probably hundreds of showings). If we take an arbitrary figure for the total audience of each slide set as 250, the *per capita* cost is given as:

$$\frac{\text{cost/copy}}{\text{total audience}} = \frac{\$4.1}{250} = \$0.0164$$

D. *Posters and calendars*

These media are certainly not overlooked normally. We see reminders of them every day from the advertising world. Posters appear in even the smallest rural shops advertising medicine, bread and tea. Calendars are distributed to retailers by most manufacturers as a reward for selling that brand, and of course, bearing the brand name.

Don't be fooled though: posters and calendars are not always useful. They can have a powerful impact if restricted to a single element of subject matter, like "Take Aspro" or "Drink Brooke Bond Tea". A poster is not something which can convey much information—or teach a message merely by printed words and pictures. For instance, the "Food Groups" poster with three groups and pictures of a cow and a sack of beans for protein cannot be expected to convey much. Even with a demonstration to guide the audience, the statement "if the actual foods are not available for the demonstration, they (the foods) must be unsuitable for that area", may well be made.

A poster definitely has a function in advertising whether it is a product, a forthcoming film show or a public meeting.

Calendars are normally a collection of different posters with one or two months tabulated on each. Thus, any one poster, and its message, will only be displayed for a maximum of two months.

Breakdown of costs

Poster (UNICEF Greeting Cards) 2 colour, duotone black and green:

negatives (3)	$200
paper	$ 50
plates	$ 10
For 200 copies	$260

Cost/copy $1.30. If we had printed 1,000 copies, the cost/copy would have been $0.41.

Calendar (Ministry of Health) 4 colour:
(Actual costing—see case study 1.)
The calendars worked out at more than $1.00 US each, and that was for a large print run—above 10,000.

In the case of the calendar, effort was put into pre-testing and developing a system to make sure that the distribution was efficient. An interesting finding was that the calendar, as an educational tool, was far more effective when field workers were trained in its use—the same as for a poster, in fact.

E. *Flipcharts and flannelgraphs*

These are very cheap instructional media which can be made by the group worker or extension agent. If they are bought ready made, and the charts printed, the costings will be exactly as for posters (multiplied by the number of pages). Small groups usually benefit from demonstrations using these aids, and although large audiences are not reached, flipcharts and flannelgraphs are inexpensive and easily made locally. This makes it possible to produce materials which are particularly relevant to the audience.

III. The extension worker

An interesting exercise would be to discover the

actual cost to a government of a face-to-face worker or extension agent. Very often he is expected to operate with little or no communication support. For a task of promoting better nutritional or health practices, for instance, a mass media campaign backed up by clinic demonstrations might well achieve higher awareness in a shorter time than reliance on the extension workers. Let's look at the costs:

Training of an extension agent (nutrition)

6 months training course (subsistence)	$ 600
Tuition costs and materials	$ 100
Salary	$2,000/year
Transport	$ 0.30/mile*
Per diem	$ 2.50/day

*The high costing of $0.30/mile is a figure used by governments to include maintenance and replacement of vehicle, driver's salary and *per diem*, petrol and oil.

To make sense of these figures we have to make some more guesses. Let us say that our hypothetical extension worker is in the field for 150 days each year and he has to travel an average of 2 miles to see one person. If he spends 30% of his time in the field actually passing on a message (the rest is spent travelling) he has about 50 days (effectively) spent in passing on his message. This gives us a rough cost of his travel if we assume 50 days (one-third of 150 days) are spent travelling at 20 mph:

50 x 8 x 20 = Total miles 8,000
Cost to Government = 8,000 x $0.30 = $2,400.

During his 50 days at meetings and doing home visits, he might reach one thousand individuals, with 10 different messages.

Now you can begin to see where all this guestimating is leading. If the Government has to pay for training, salary, travel, *per diem*, etc., to reach 1,000 people with 10 messages, the *per capita* costs are:

Total extension agent cost: training + salary	= $2,700
transport	= $2,400
	$5,100

$$\textit{Per capita} \text{ cost} = \frac{\$5{,}100}{1{,}000 \times 10} = \$0.51$$

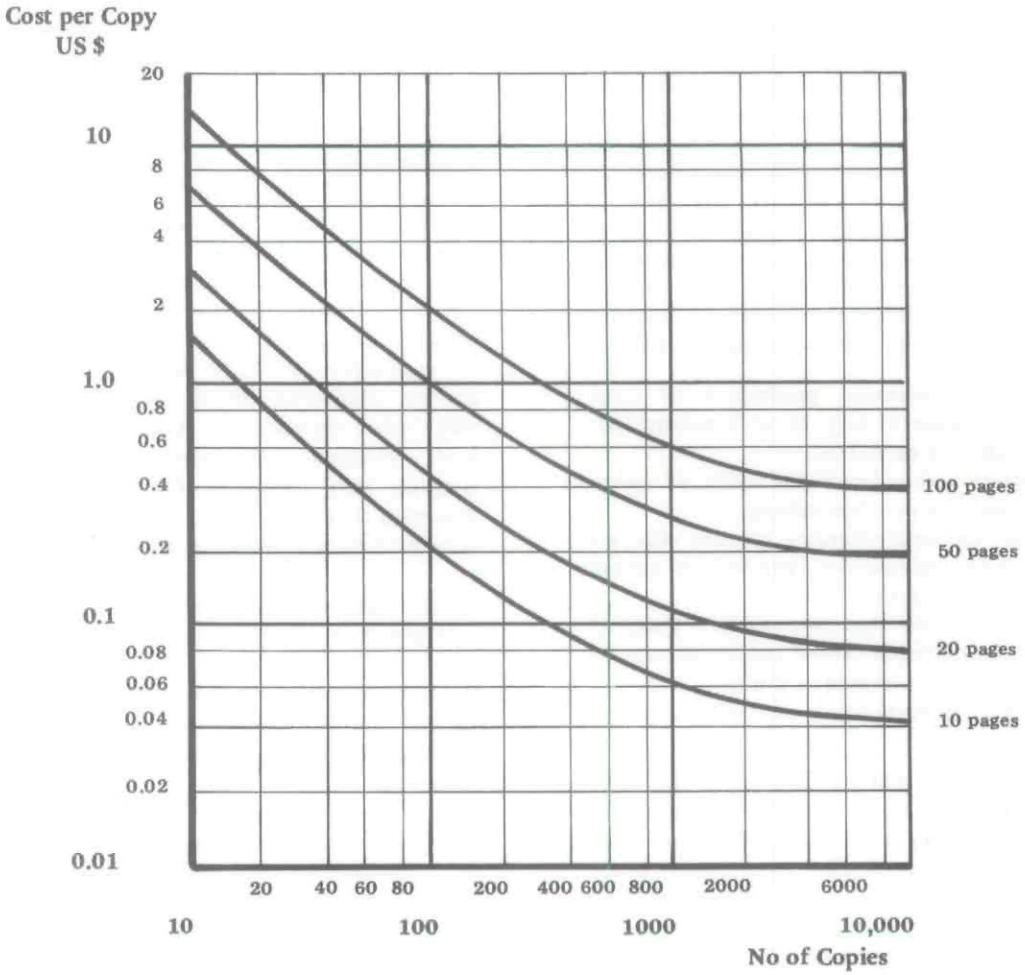
This can now be compared with the cost of producing posters, radio shows and pamphlets to reach the same 1,000 people. For a district of 60,000 people (say 10,000 families):

—600 posters (around the health centres to be used by auxiliaries @ $0.20 each)	$ 120
—training seminar for auxiliaries (for 4 health centres)	$ 500
—10 radio programmes (20,000 listeners)	$ 30
—10,000 copies, 10-page pamphlet ($0.41 per copy x 10,000)	$ 410
	$1,060

$$\textit{Per capita} \text{ cost} = \frac{1{,}060}{10{,}000} = \$0.106$$

The results really speak for themselves. Mass media have only come into being because they are an efficient way of reaching the masses. We ought to use them as much as possible and draw upon the group media to make the present force of extension agents more cost-effective.

GRAPH 1
Cost Curves for
In-House Printing
(line copy, single colour)



Assumptions:
A4 page size
metal plates = $1.50
500 sheets paper = $8.00

Communication Constraints and How They Were Overcome in the *Chakula Ni Uhai* Campaign of 1975 in Tanzania

By B.A.P. Mahai

The *Chakula Ni Uhai* (Food is Life) campaign in Tanzania is an example of a programme which was able to successfully overcome communications constraints in order to improve a basic nutritional problem which had wide political, educational and economic ramifications.

Chakula Ni Uhai was the fifth mass education campaign launched in Tanzania. The Institute of Adult Education, now a parastatal organisation, was responsible for co-ordinating activities clarifying objectives, planning, implementing and evaluating the progress and results. The main objectives of the campaign were to:

1. Encourage increased production of food crops in order to help make Tanzania agriculturally self-sufficient;
2. Inculcate and enhance the spirit of group discussion for problem solving;
3. Create an understanding of the diseases caused by malnutrition, particularly among infants and children;
4. Persuade people that they can solve many of their malnutrition-caused problems, and so involve them in finding solutions;
5. Teach the importance of a balanced diet.

It was expected that by the end of the campaign, there would be increased food production, that Tanzanians would be better capable of preparing balanced diets using locally-available foods and that improved methods of food preservation and storage would have been adapted. All this was aimed at the long-term goal of increasing life expectancy and general health.

An integrated approach was taken in planning and designing the campaign, using resource personnel from the single political party, from the Union of Women of Tanzania, various government Ministries, the University and its Faculty of Medicine, the Tanzania Food and Nutrition Centre, Prime Minister's Office (*Ujamaa* and Co-operatives Division), and Radio Tanzania.

Implementation

For the actual implementation of the *Chakula Ni Uhai* campaign, extensive use was made of radio broadcasts. Listeners were encouraged to form their own radio study groups at which colourful *Chakula Ni Uhai* textbooks were distributed. Discussions revolved around improving agricultural yield by use of fertiliser, improving nutritional status by growing crops with higher nutritional content, and improving seed selection. Preservation and storage methods were discussed. The villagers would then plan their own local projects based on the radio guidelines and ensuing group discussions.

Canteens and day care centres were opened at work-places to allow mothers time for development activities rather than routine drudgeries. Throughout this phase, evaluation teams made regional and district visits to participate in discussions and assess progress in terms of anticipated goals.

Campaign achievements were both broadcast and published. An integrated approach to maintaining open communications was evolved in order to keep communications channels open in both directions between administrative levels and the workers and peasants.

The entire evaluation period was oriented toward determining if the target group had sustained the interest generated by the campaign, and if they continued with campaign-generated activities.

Communications Constraints Encountered

1. Distribution of reading materials, advisors' manuals, posters, evaluation forms and guidelines was hampered somewhat by unreliabilities in the road/air/rail and water transport system. At times *Chakula Ni Uhai* materials were not considered to be shipping priorities, and deliveries were delayed.

   Insufficient funds and supplies of paper posed problems in the production and distribution of evaluation instruments, since a literacy campaign was going on at the same time, and in many cases received priority for supplies. Specific *Chakula Ni Uhai* programmes were radio-broadcast at 3.00 p.m., which, in some areas, was an inappropriate time. Additionally, radio reception was not always clear in remote areas.

2. Study-group composition included both men and women in an integrated age, educational, and economic mix. This proved to be a constraint due to difficulties felt in a society accustomed to rather rigid roles. Although the philosophy of the integrated study group methodology rested in the belief that a sharing of ideas and experiences could take place, what in fact happened was that the women were dominated by the men, and those who appeared to have more knowledge about topics under discussion tended to have control of the session.

   In addition, the move to *ujamaa* villages was taking place; traditional dances, festivals, marriages and other ceremonies tended to interfere with the intent of having a stable population in attendance at meetings.

3. A major problem encountered involved the frequent inability of evaluators to differentiate between fact and opinion.

Overcoming Constraints

Since the campaign was directed at people who had had little formal schooling, the problem of language was seriously considered. Texts of written materials were simplified and printed in large type. Colourful, self-explanatory illustrations depicting local environment and relevant conditions were used. *Kangas* and *kitenges*, the traditional lengths of cloth worn by women, were printed with patterns of basic food items and the phrase, *Chakula Ni Uhai*, to reiterate a constant, silent message.

Wherever other campaign meetings were being held, co-operation between campaign groups was encouraged. For example literacy classes were able to adopt *Chakula Ni Uhai* messages and incorporate them into their programmes. Interministerial co-operation was encouraged, and since government officials considered *Chakula Ni Uhai* as a national campaign, the sharing of planning and of responsibilities tended to act as a levelling agent against problems.

Radio messages were preceded by a special identifying tune and accompanied by related songs and poems.

Training seminars were held at all levels and coding information into simplified categories made the masses of informational pieces gathered easier to manage.

Within the Ministry of National Education, permanent adult education evaluation officers were established with one officer responsible for an entire district.

Some Suggestions for Future Programmes

Experience in five adult education study group campaigns have indicated that there are some unique elements in these programmes in the Tanzanian context. There are also valuable findings open for generalisation.

Programmes must be initiated by the people. The planning must involve the people. To cross-check the programme implementation activities, basic techniques of evaluation must be built into the planning and designing of the programme. This must be supplemented with the

programme consumers participating in evaluation themselves in a formative manner. We advocate the inbuilding of decentralised formative and summative evaluation machinery.

The networking and monitoring procedures of the programme or project design must be specified well in advance to allow a close check-up and to facilitate the day-to-day implementation of programme goals. This participatory approach in planning and evaluation seems to be pragmatic and practical. It may be difficult at first, but in the long run, more appropriate and satisfactory returns can be realised. It is also basic for the programme planners to measure their activities in terms of efficiency and effectiveness, otherwise projects or programmes soon lose their identity and justification for their establishment.

The integrated approach to planning, implementing and evaluating rural programmes seems to be a valuable methodology. Under all circumstances programmes must be initiated in the first place by the peasants themselves who know about their socio-economic problems and their environment. This not only ensures closer co-operation between the experts and the peasants, but also cultivates a harmonious working relationship among the consumers of the programme who feel that the programme is theirs, and is to be permanent. Another advantage is that chances of downgrading the programme are minimised; hence chances of realising the broader goal objectives are increased. Consideration should be given to the idea of creating a permanent, strong steering committee (co-ordinating committee) in order to design and monitor the implementation of the programme for the achievement of the desired ends.

Publicising the community programme well in advance is of paramount importance for achieving goals.

The *radio* has a powerful impact in capturing the interest of all people. It enables an announcer to talk to millions of people within a few minutes. As radios are now widely available in Tanzania, this is the most important mass media component in use both for educational, political and social purposes.

Folk media such as songs, poems, *'ngonjeras'* (dramatised poems), plays and other cultural images are invaluable for publicity purposes and an effective means of communication; they have been used by various tribes throughout the history of mankind. They are stimulating and refreshing, and at the same time transmit a message.

Attractive *visual aids* are advisable: films, television, posters, tape recorders, photos, textbooks with relatively large letters and brightly coloured pictures which should be related to their environment, newspapers that can be read and handled easily, and above all souvenirs, e.g. clothing with printed, illustrated, messages.

During political or religious forums, communication programmes can also be publicised. These forums actually catch the attention of many people and the message can easily be transmitted to the target population. It is necessary to work with politicians, clergy and traditional medicine-men whenever possible.

A nationwide programme like *Chakula Ni Uhai* must in the end *give birth to small scale regional or district programmes* which should enhance the same objectives envisaged by the nationwide programme. These small-scale projects should involve people in particular districts or regions. They should facilitate the implementation of the philosophy of integrated approach and the decentralised formative and summative evaluation. The message of the programme, therefore, can be made to settle permanently and the beneficiaries of the programme in the end will not only be effective implementors but also will become planners and evaluators of their future programmes. They will be able to develop themselves.

The *Chakula Ni Uhai* programme has given birth to a number of small scale programmes which are very encouraging. An example is the Chiwanda Farmer Education Project in Mbinga District of Ruvuma Region. This project had been initiated by the people during the *Chakula Ni Uhai* campaign and its outlined broad objective is to avoid diseases caused by malnutrition by providing the people with a better, balanced diet through growing of fruits and vegetables, raising cocks and egg-laying hens. The target population in the Chiwanda Project is 1,758 families from five villages.The population total is 6,143; 2,728 adults and 3,415 children. The results so far are very encouraging. There are now 10 acres of orange trees and pineapples planted, and about 450 laying hens. The Institute of Adult Education often gives seminars on educational elements of political awareness, planning, networking, designing, evaluation, literacy lessons and other objectives associated with the programme.

Reporting the successes or failures of an undertaking to the public through the press and the radio is important. Especially when a programme is a national programme, reporting ought to be done to inform the public about the effectiveness and efficiency of the programme. Additionally, it is educational and informational to the people who were not involved in the programme. To be most effective, public reporting must identify and analyse problems encountered and suggest alternatives. It must give feedback for future programmes. Public reporting is one way of effectively communicating with the people, keeping them in touch with the kind of activities that are taking place in the country for national development.

Marsabit District Health Education Programme, Kenya: How Communication Constraints Were Overcome

By Joan Harris

This programme is designed to teach health with emphasis on:

1. Maternal and child health;
2. Preventive measures;
3. Reinforcement of good health practices;
4. Instruction about healthier ways to live that require minimal change in daily life;
5. Simple health education methods to affect change;
6. Messages appropriate to seminomadic pastoralists, who comprise the majority of the population of the district.

How this programme works:

1. I planned this Health Education Programme to coincide with and support a Maternal and Child Health Programme in Marsabit District being carried out under the supervision of Dr David Wiseman.

2. In each area, the common serious health problems are identified by health workers as well as the indigenous people. Then we determine which problems are preventable, and from those we decide which are amenable to change.

3. Then I identify who can do Health Education. I talk with these people about Health Education—what it is and how to do it—and encourage them to do Health Education.

4. Then we choose the methods, and I create teaching materials to support their work.

5. I teach the workers how to use the materials.

6. We test the materials and messages, and modify them thus making them more appropriate to the needs of the people.

Constraint Related to Visual Comprehension of Teaching Materials

Most people in this area never see a newspaper, a magazine or photographs. They are not accustomed to visual messages. The most popular and frequent method of exchanging information is talking at length in a group.

How this constraint is overcome:

1. The picture and message are SIMPLE. All superfluous parts of the picture are cut out. Only the person performing the action is depicted.

2. The picture must be recognisable. Nothing in the picture is strange or out of context.

   a) Photographs, rather than drawings, are used.
   b) The person photographed must be a respected member of the community.
   c) He or she must do the action just as always, and not in the way she thinks I want it done for the photo. For example, Rendille wash their hands by having someone pour a cup of water over them, not by using a wash basin.
   d) The person photographed must be doing something he or she normally does, not something new.
   e) Depicting proper family relationships is essential, i.e. the mother must sit where she always sits when feeding her child, must wear typical clothing, and must have the baby in typical clothing.

Family Health Field Educators and dressers in the dispensaries are invaluable in criticising pictures and messages as well as offering acceptable alternatives. This takes a lot of discussion, trial and error, and repetition of photographs.

3. When the teaching materials are used, there should be a discussion that is unhurried, and the discussion must start with identification of the picture—who the people are and what they are doing.

4. The people being photographed must be taught the health concept thoroughly. Then when I give them a copy of their picture they know why I took it and are able to tell others.

Constraints Related to Understanding and Credibility of Messages

1. *Constraint:*
   Messages and materials from the Health Education Division in Nairobi are often too complex and inappropriate for this area. There has been no programme made previously for this district, so there was no basis on which to develop messages and methods of communication.

   How it is overcome:
   Through extensive conversations with Family Health Field Educators, dressers in dispensaries, and teachers, messages were developed, criticised, tested and modified. Our conversations are often about beliefs and practices of the people. For instance, before determining a message to suggest a good diet for a women who has recently given birth, we discussed the traditional practice. Then we discussed which existing practices could be reinforced, and finally what could be added to that diet to improve it. In this way, we can develop messages that are appropriate to the people. Each message is very simple and deals with one topic. Every topic is approached in this way. When a message is developed, the field workers test it with local people, and we later modify it.

2. *Constraint:*
   Most people in Marsabit District have little or no familiarity with health education messages. They have never heard a message on a radio, things were not explained during vaccination campaigns, and there have been few *barazas* (meetings) about health and what individuals can do to maintain good health. The ideas are new, or at best people have a vague recognition of the ideas but don't understand them.

   How it is overcome:
   The teaching is done by local people who are known and respected in the community.

   a) Family Health Field Educators (mothers who have lived in Marsabit for many years and are employed by the Ministry of Health to teach MCH/FP and encourage use of government services) have made a tremendous impact on the population of Marsabit Town and the surrounding *manyattas* (homesteads). I work with them, providing information, encouragement, and materials for teaching.
   b) Chiefs hold *barazas* to explain things, especially about vaccinations. We (Dr Wiseman and I) have several extended conversations with chiefs and other important men to explain the information and procedures before and after *barazas*.
   c) Dressers in the dispensaries are familiarising people with health concepts.
   d) Unemployed individuals who have a strong interest in progress often appear, and I explain simple important health concepts to them.

3. *Constraint:*
   I teach primarily in English, develop materials in Swahili and English, and the health workers teach almost exclusively in their local languages. Unless a worker understands the message well, all of this translating could lead to misinformation.

   How this is overcome:
   I discuss all messages and materials together with the Field Educators (or dressers) and Dr Wiseman. English is the only common language for discussion, but we identify the

important concepts in the local language and in Swahili. Things are not written in the local language because:

a) People who can read are taught to read Swahili and English—not the local language.
b) The health workers find English to be the easiest written language to understand.
c) They like messages on the teaching materials to be in Swahili because many people who cannot read can understand Swahili when it is read to them.
d) Swahili is a common language.

4. *Other constraints:*

i) *Constraint.* Inability to produce materials on the spot, and long waits between the time artwork is finished, and materials produced.

This problem has not been overcome.

ii) *Constraint.* Intolerant or superior attitudes of the health personnel towards the general population.

How this constraint is overcome:
We have many discussions about:

a) Respect for tradition and other people's cultural values.
b) The difficulties of asking people to change.
c) The importance of patience.
d) The importance of repetition.
e) The slow nature of change.
f) Serving the people.

iii) *Constraint.* Resistant attitudes concerning good health practices and health education by health personnel, teachers and missionaries.

How constraint is overcome:
Extended discussions about the benefits of specific practices and health education as well as those things mentioned in constraint (ii).

iv) *Constraint.* Suspicion on the part of missionaries and teachers.

How this constraint is overcome:

a) We begin by doing an informal KAP* concerning health work.
b) We encourage them as much as possible.
c) We avoid criticism—offer to help and suggest alternatives.
d) We work slowly.

*Knowledge, attitude, practice.

The Listening Forums Programme, Kenya: An Additional Dimension to Communication Extension through Women's Groups

By T.H. Gatara

Introduction

A problem that has faced the Kenya Government's efforts in reaching rural families has been the shortage of extension personnel. It has been necessary for the Government, with the help of other agencies, to initiate programmes that aim at developing educational materials and techniques, and to do whatever else is possible to strengthen the reach of the limited extension force that is available.

In the past three years, PBFL[1] has assisted the Government in development of educational techniques and in the training of field staff. One important aspect of the programme has been the development of techniques for group extension.

The PBFL Listening Forums Programme is aimed at developing cassette lessons on all aspects of family life and making them available to groups to supplement the work of the extension staff. The programme utilises experience gained in the Integrated Functional Education Project development in Machakos District of eastern Kenya, and in the Women's Group Programme, which have served as channels for reaching rural families.

The strategy aims at organising Listening Forums, training group discussion leaders, producing lessons on cassettes, and integrating these into other visual aids already developed. Ultimately, the listening forums will serve as a focus for continuous training, production of educational materials, and development of new educational and communication techniques that will ease the task of reaching rural families. It is also hoped that through successful experimentation with Listening Forums Programmes, a workable model could be developed in other areas of Kenya.

Programme Justification

The limited reach of the extension force to rural families will be strengthened by the taped lessons. In this process, the staff will be able to add training and communication skills to their experience in the field.

The programme will provide a chance for other agencies to reach more people in the rural areas. It could also enhance integration by strengthening the use of teamwork and increasing the impact of the Government's development effort.

The programme is likely to improve the economic viability of groups involved, e.g. co-operatives could realise more income from their activities. Income could be further invested in improvement of homes and other aspects of improvement.

Cassette lessons have definite advantages:

a) They enable women to listen to the cassette lessons as often as necessary.
b) They enable women to meet at times convenient to them.
c) They provide a chance to produce lessons using the local vernacular.
d) They enable groups to repeat lessons broadcast over the National Service, thus strengthening the national effort to educate the rural people.
e) The use of cassettes provides an opportunity for

[1] PBFL—Programmes for Better Family Living; a programme of the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, operating in Kenya.

women to utilise development in educational technology.

f) Finally, they give both researchers and planners a chance to experiment with a new model, which if successful, could be more widely utilised throughout the country.

Plan of Action

The plan of action was aimed at utilising the Women's Group Programme and to continue operation through interdepartmental teamwork at the national, district and divisional level.

The plan was scheduled to start in January 1975 and continue operating into the second half of 1978. It covered the following steps:

a) The formation of an advisory group.
b) The formation of an interministerial Steering Committee.
c) Establishment of local planning groups in 12 districts.
d) Location of district centres for local production of material.
e) Selection of up to 10 groups in one division in each district.
f) Identification of group needs and priorities through use of surveys.
g) Establishment of content, advisory groups, preparation of programme scripts, production of written materials and visual aids and recording of programmes.
h) Establishment of listening forums:
   i) National workshops for training trainers.
   ii) Regional workshops for training discussion leaders.
i) Monitoring and evaluation.

These steps were anticipated to see the programme through to February 1977. After the final step, an evaluation workshop was proposed after which programme expansion would be effected.

The Operational Model

The main reason for outlining the steps conceived by the planners as key components of the theoretical model is to allow comparison and contrast between *what theory was, and what practice turned out to be.*

The Listening Forums Programme has at its apex the national working group. This is an interministerial team set up to start the project and later to advise on problems that are brought to its notice through operations in the field.

The team is comprised of representatives from the Ministries of Agriculture, Co-operative Development, Health, Housing and Social Services, Education, Finance and Planning, Information and Broadcasting, Family Planning Association of Kenya, Kenya National Federation of Co-operatives, UNICEF, Institute of Adult Studies and PBFL, which does co-ordination.

However, this has proved to be too large a group to be functional and produce lessons in the field. This last factor has led to the formation of an action-oriented material production team at the national level.

The Production Team

This team was selected from the larger working group to:

a) Prepare guidelines for producing cassette programmes.
b) Develop the format to be used in producing materials.
c) Assist in production of lessons as well as supplementing materials to go with the lessons.

Though guidelines have been developed, it is clear that they must be extremely flexible to be suitable for production of lessons throughout the country. The final format for replication will very much depend on the experimental project outcomes.

The third aim has been the main concern of the production committee, and this is one area where much work has been done by the team.

Material Production

The national-level production team involved people with special skills, e.g. technical, who would be used in both production and in

training of leaders in the later stages of the programme.

At the local level, however, no such team existed at the inception of the programme. Therefore, the need was felt to establish these teams in the chosen experimental areas. This was intended to strengthen the already existing integrated approach evident in various districts of Kenya and to ensure continuity of the programme.

Experience showed that starting the programme in 12 districts was too ambitious, and three operational areas for experimentation were selected.

Planning Meetings

Meetings are arranged by a senior officer at the district level, who consequently emerges as the programme co-ordinator in the respective district. The officer invites other extension officers from various ministries, who together forge a plan.

The Production Workshops

The main objectives of the production workshops are:

a) To discuss programme content and agree on facts about a given lesson;
b) To produce and edit scripts;
c) To record the lessons in local languages;
d) To consolidate the participants from the district into a local production team;
e) To allow the production team at the national level to develop improved techniques in material production.

In Nyeri, for example, a team comprised of the Home Economics Officer, 2 teachers from a Farmers' Training Centre and the District Crops Officer produced the first lessons on hybrid maize.

Background work has been done in the local Farmers' Training Centre on hybrid maize content. Recording was a bit of a problem for the production team since this was its first experience. However, after repeated attempts, a lesson on hybrid maize was produced in two 5-day workshops. The lesson was produced in Swahili under the assumption that a translation into the local language could then be done easily.

The choice of the Soya Bean as the target crop in Kisii and Migori was justified by the arguments that soya beans have a high protein content (40%) relative to other protein sources, and also that despite this high protein value, only a few families used these beans as food.

The first production workshop for Kisii had the following objectives:

a) To develop information on the growing of the soya bean;
b) To experiment and test soya bean recipes;
c) Record lessons on soya beans in Kigusii language;
d) Pre-test the soya bean lessons;
e) Train the participants on the use of cassettes.

Only the first three objectives were achieved at that time.

A second workshop involved interdepartmental teams from both Migori and Kisii and was held to complete the production work on soya beans, to develop lessons on soya bean, hybrid maize and millet in Kigusii, and on the soya bean, hybrid maize and tobacco in Dholuo.

Experimentation was made with reel to reel local production using local personnel to produce final lessons that did not need further editing. This was an important step whose success proved the capability of the local production teams to produce standard lessons for use by the groups.

Group Leaders' Training

This has tended to be the next operational step following the production workshops.

The main objectives were to:

a) Develop the leaders' skill in leading discussions after the group has heard the lesson;
b) Develop the leaders' skills in problem-solving and helping the group to reach consensus;

c) Develop skills in helping groups take action after listening to the lesson;
d) Learn how to reach and use the available extension services to aid the group in implementing their decisions;
e) Learn how to use and maintain the cassette recorders;
f) Learn how to do follow-up and co-ordination.

Responsibility for selecting groups in each of the three areas fell on the production teams already established. They were encouraged to select leaders from groups that were:

a) In geographical proximity to facilitate easy follow-up;
b) Strong and active to ensure continuity;
c) Interested in the subjects on which lessons were being prepared;
d) Interested in using the new approach.

On the basis of these criteria, 3 experimental groups were selected in Nyeri, 6 in Machakos, 3 in Kisii and 3 in Migori. From each of these groups, two leaders came to training.

The Kisii/Migori Workshop differed slightly from the other two:

a) It was the first training workshop where two production teams speaking two different languages were handled together.
b) It was the first workshop where the production team from Kisii was first given training in leadership and cassette recorder operation, and they in turn trained the leaders. This was made necessary by the language problem. The women leaders who came to the training could not understand Swahili. The national production team had used Swahili in the other areas to train leaders.

Training in all areas was done by the national production committee with key participation of the Institute of Adult Studies and PBFL personnel.

Cassette recorders were handed over to the groups through a District Officer on the understanding that:

a) Recorders were the property of the Kenya Government, and were loaned to groups until such time that they were able to purchase their own or was convenient for the Government;
b) Groups would buy their own batteries;
c) They would also maintain the cassette recorders and pay for repairs in case of damage.

The programme is now operating at the group level in all the pilot areas.

Follow-up and Evaluation

Since no production of lessons is going on during this period, the production teams are mainly doing follow-up and evaluation in their respective areas. They are also monitoring and reporting back on problems experienced by groups and how local resources have been used to offset the problems.

One Project Result

Two follow-up trips have been made in both Nyeri and Machakos. These have not been full-scale evaluation trips, since in 2 of the areas the programme is still in its early stages.

In Nyeri, what looked like a notable outcome of the programme was on the diffusion of hybrid 512 to the Tetu Community to replace the earlier breed, hybrid 632.

In one of the seasons, the groups that received the cassette lessons on hybrid maize planted hybrid 512 because it was said to in the lesson. Others who did not have the lesson planted hybrid 632.

One advantage of hybrid 512 is that it matures in a shorter period than hybrid 632. This means that those who plant hybrid 512 can still harvest even if rains fail. In Nyeri, after a rain failure, only the group who planted hybrid 512 had a harvest.

The outcome was noted by the District Agricultural Officer who soon arranged to shift the local farmers from hybrid 632 to hybrid 512. The groups in the listening forums would be used as examples.

In Machakos only the first few stages have been implemented with minor new experiences for women, e.g. planting in lines applying the correct amount of fertilizer, etc.

Problems Faced

Most of the problems experienced may be said to be characteristic of a pilot programme.

The first problem was with co-ordination. This task fell to PBFL. There is need, however, for a local body to take over programme operation and to establish a system of co-ordination. Secondly, the programme does not yet have a separate budget.

Thirdly, the programme has not operated on the dimensions set out in the original plan, and it could be delayed in terms of target objective, i.e. reaching 10,080 groups by 1980. After nearly a year of operation we have only 15 groups.

Other problems are common to pilot programmes, and include communication breakdown between national and local production teams, bringing delaying action in the field, and erasure of programmes by the groups.

Programme Expansion

One of the hopes for both the continuity and programme expansion is the consolidation of the local production teams to produce lessons and other educational materials and to train group leaders.

Work has already started to achieve this aim in the pilot areas. A PBFL consultant has been carrying out experiments in the field on techniques of producing audio-visual materials locally using the resources available. The experience gained here has shown that it is possible for local production teams to produce good quality lessons without relying on sophisticated technology. The next step in the programme could well be training of local production teams in all aspects of the programme, allowing them a chance to carry the experiment to other areas. Additional lessons are also being developed on family planning motivation, and other family life areas.

The operational model differs considerably from the original plan of action. This means even the present model could undergo modification to adapt it to problems faced in various circumstances.

Laedza Batanani: An Integrated Rural Development Communication Case Study, Botswana

By Paul Hurly

Overview

Laedza Batanani (the sun is already up—it's time to come and work together, or Community Awakening) is the name of an educational festival in the Bokalaka region of Botswana. It uses a mixture of popular theatre (drama, song and dance) and community discussion to foster two-way communication and to disseminate extension information via an integrated approach. Started in November 1974, it has been conducted for three successive years.

The slogan *Laedza Batanani* summarises the objectives of the campaign:

a) To present local issues through an entertainment medium which "wakes people up"—makes them aware of common concerns;
b) To encourage the community, through discussion, to develop a deeper awareness of these problems, and the commitment to take collective action to solve some of them.

Laedza Batanani is concerned with developing among community members an understanding of their living situation with a view to promoting active involvement in their community's development. The dramatisation of local issues *—that have been identified by members—*is used to communicate these issues in a way which people can comprehend.

Laedza Batanani also has a broader set of aims designed to:

a) Increase communication between the scattered villages of the Bokalaka, with regard to rural development and social change;
b) Stimulate traditional cultural art;
c) Provide extension workers with additional information, and to provide a stimulus for community-oriented adult education programmes in the Bokalaka;
d) Gain increased knowledge about the use of drama, video-tape and audio-visual aids as a learning and communication medium at village level in Botswana.

Communication Constraints

Cultural

The Bokalaka is a region north-north-west of Francistown. The 30,000–50,000 people who reside there do not constitute a homogeneous group, but the language and customs of the Kalanga tribe predominate. Historical circumstances denied the Kalanga a tribal reserve of their own when the British colonial administration was invited to protect Bechuanaland from the Voertrekkers. The Kalanga were placed in vassalage on Bamangwato territory in 1899.

Thus an uneasy relationship exists today between the Kalangas and the central Government, whose president is a member of the Bamangwato royal family.

Minority language rights and regional economic disparity are a source of tension. Extension workers from the southern tribes find some difficulty in being accepted by the local populace. People complain because radio programmes and government publications only use Setswana and English. Government policy prohibits the use of any other language for official purposes.

There is also a significant degree of resentment against traditional leaders (headmen) appointed by the Bamangwato tribal headquarters in Serowe, and a feeling that the Central District Council, which has its headquarters in Serowe, is not doing enough for the region.

Demographic pattern

Along the 75-mile long road through the Bokalaka are located the five primary villages of the region. The settlement pattern is dispersed; village centres are generally denoted solely by the presence of a shop and a primary school. Each of the five villages consists of a

large area of scattered sub-villages who owe their tribal allegiance to the *kgotla* (traditional community assembly) and the salaried chief of the main village.

People in the Bokalaka are further dispersed by the seasonal migration in October/November to the lands area for crop cultivation, and by the trips made by the men to distant cattle posts. The people have remained at "the lands" the past three years because of abundant rainfall. This has made the provision of basic services—which by definition require village grouping—almost impossible.

People are reluctant to attend community meetings at the *kgotla*, to work on self-help projects or attend addresses by local extension workers, since the distances involved are vast and little intracommunity discussion of issues can be generated beforehand.

Transportation/mass media

The many rivers which dissect the Bokalaka make transportation difficult in the rainy season since there are few bridges. The road network is poor. Though Tutume, located centrally in the region, is only 65 miles from Francistown, it can take up to two weeks for a letter to arrive. However, radio reception in the area is fair to good, and it is estimated that two out of every ten households possess a radio.

The high level of illiteracy (national estimate—80%) is a major obstacle to the use of print media. Only 20 copies of the *Daily News* are circulated in the region. A local bilingual monthly newsletter published at Tutume Community College has a circulation of 300 copies.

Film shows are rarely seen in the area, although campaign slide shows are periodically circulated by the Ministry of Agriculture.

Other constraints

There is a general sense of apathy within the community concerning development meetings. People feel that meetings "only produce talk, no action".

The reduced authority of traditional leaders and conflicts between sub-headmen have led to a sense of "anomie" and a loss of indigenous ability to get people to participate in local development meetings.

The large numbers of extension cadres (Assistant Community Development Officers, Family Welfare Educators, Agricultural Demonstrators, Animal Production Officers, and Village Development Assistants) which each call their own separate mettings and conduct their individual programmes, have tended to work at cross-purposes and mitigate support for any one effort.

Many men are absent eight months of the year on mining contracts in South Africa. Their return is the source of tensions as well as glad tidings, for they seem to resent the loss of influence they suffer in the village. They frequently criticise development changes which occur in their absence. Women, who had to make decisions concerning the household and community while the men were away, are forced back into subservient roles.

A sense of despair prevailed in the Bokalaka among government extension workers and concerned individuals. Local leaders had largely abandoned self-help projects to concentrate on pushing the Government to provide improvements and new services in the region. The populace at large seemed resigned to its present economic standard of self-sufficient agriculture, yet, at the same time, strongly resented the achievements occurring elsewhere.

Planning a Campaign

The first *Laedza Batanani* campaign was proposed and organised by several expatriate adult educators in 1974.

Problem identification

Lack of time made it impossible to consult a broad cross-section of the community, but a workshop was held with the main extension workers, who selected the issue for the first campaign.

A committee of local elders was elected. Their willingness to become involved resulted from the success and popularity of the 1974 campaign. Large workshops were conducted to which between 60 and 100 community members were invited. Small group "brainstorming" sessions generated a list of issues (*Appendix A*). These were then grouped into five major themes:

1. Village development problems;
2. Family problems;
3. Value conflicts and social problems;
4. Economic concerns;
5. Consumer concerns.

Group discussions were then used to rate the issues on a priority basis. Small groups then were asked to choose one issue and to improvise a ten-minute drama and to perform it in front of the rest of the participants. This helped to work out some of the eventual plot lines and also helped to identify potential actors. Performances were recorded on video-tape and played back at the plenary session. The local adult educator played an advisory role to the committee.

Drama scripting

A second workshop was held to allow the actors, who were chosen by the committee, to work out a script in the form of a loose sequence of events. The actors develop their own characterisations based on a set of core set-types (miner, village drunkard, juvenile delinquent, etc.). Care must be taken at this stage to ensure that the major development messages are not lost in the process.

Development and use of other media

Media production and training services were provided by the national adult education agencies.

Puppets, originally planned as early morning entertainment for the children[1] during the festival, were eventually used in a more significant context. The actors suggested that controversial village persons such as the traditional doctor could be portrayed without giving offence by using puppets. Made of toilet paper rolls, papier mache and bits of cloth, the construction of the puppets was one workshop task. A special collapsible puppet stage was made at Tutume Community College.

Singing and dancing are important components of traditional Botswana culture. In the festivals they have served an important role by restating and summarising major themes with catchy, easy-to-remember slogans (*Appendix B*). Songs also have been used to make statements which otherwise would be difficult to make. An example of this is an actual folk song "The Thief Has Won" created in the village of Nkange and incorporated into the 1975 festival. It was used by villagers to tease local policemen and headmen that "it pays to steal cattle" when the punishment does not fit the crime. The festival theme song was written by a local councillor, and is now sung throughout the year.

In 1975 and 1976 video-tapes were made in several villages, with the help of local committees. Tapes were shown during the festival evenings as entertainment. One drama depicted a current problem—self-allocation of land without consulting the land board. Another tape was produced of the region's MP who conducted a tour of the National Assembly districts and spoke about the role of the *Laedza Batanani* festival in the promotion of self-reliance in national development. In 1975–76, a separate film tour of 11 communities was conducted by the *Laedza Batanani* committee with the help of Tutume Community College.

On seeing the tapes, people commented that they appreciated seeing what was going on in other villages. This helped put development in their own village into a broader context. As part of the follow-up campaign for 1976, the Botswana Extension College produced several small illustrated bilingual readers on issues

[1]The English Department and the Library at Tutume Community College had already used puppet drama as part of a mobile programme for the feeder primary schools in 1974.

dramatised by the festival. These were handed out following the festival, and will be used again when extension workers visit the villages during the coming months. They also serve an important role in providing reading material suitable for the primary schools of the Bokalaka.

Festival discussion groups

After each performance the actors asked the adult audiences to join them in small group discussion. Three questions focused the activity:

1. Are the problems dramatised real problems in your village?
2. How can these problems be solved?
3. Does *Laedza Batanani* help you in overcoming these problems?

These discussions helped to focus the audience's concerns, and sought to encourage an examination of solutions which the community itself could undertake. After the 1975 tour, the actors, during an evaluation workshop, felt that this aspect of the tour needed more emphasis. As a result, the adult educators organised a special workshop prior to the 1976 tour in order that actors might role-play discussion leading techniques.

Publicity

Prior to each festival, extension workers and committee representatives from each of the five main villages distributed promotional leaflets and posters to local organisations and such natural focal points as the village shop. Short 'spot' announcements were aired over Radio Botswana. The Tutume newspaper, *Focus*, also publicised the campaign. Before each performance, the arrival of the festival troupe was announced in the village by the use of a loud hailer and music played over a PA system.

Evaluation

Method

It has been difficult to collect usable raw data. In 1974 and 1976 a full-time evaluator was employed. In 1976, a pre-festival questionnaire was administered to people wherever they were gathered, and willing to assist (at the bottle-store, shop, primary school, market, etc.). This was designed to gain broader knowledge of the level of understanding of issues to be used in the 1976 festival dramas. Follow-up evaluations will be conducted by a team of university students in December 1976 and January 1977.

Group discussions are recorded and the actors are debriefed after each festival performance. A post-campaign evaluation by the actors in 1975 produced some valuable analysis which resulted in changes incorporated into the 1976 programme.

More emphasis on the development of the extension technique of capitalising on a "community's awakening" has been employed in 1976. "Vegetables" was one of the themes. Agricultural demonstrators in the Bokalaka now have seed packets which they will give free-of-charge to anyone who asks for them, or to those showing an interest in starting a garden. The clinic nurse at Tutume has noticed an increase in the number of people reporting cases of venereal disease and coming for injections; she attributes this to the October 1976 festival's VD message. A report compiling "participant observations" and data evaluation will be issued.

Community participation

Attendance figures for each village range from 80 to 150 people during the morning, and 200 to 400 during the evening. The largest to date was an estimated 1,000 people in Maitengwe in 1974. A number of attempts are being made to further involve local people:

a) Small group discussions are conducted.
b) "Extras" from each village are invited to act in the drama performed by the troupe.
c) Community committees organise traditional dancing and singing.
d) Villagers help in the making of pre-festival video-tapes.
e) Villagers provide logistic support (firewood, water, accommodation).

Impact

The importance of the festival can be assessed

to some extent by its effect on the community. Many effects are subtle and could be attributed to many factors. Nevertheless, some changes are noticeable.

Laws dealing with cattle theft have been made more severe. Increased participation in some development programmes has occurred after a festival tour. Festival characters, such as Tamagada, the drunken lazy man who does not help in village development projects, have become "folk villains", and are discussed with great animation when people gather at beer parties and shops.

Village Extension Team

The feasibility and utility of the "extension team" approach to programming at the village level has been demonstrated by the festival campaign. Extension teams can manage projects which individual agencies could not possibly manage themselves. It has been demonstrated that several extension messages can be coordinated and presented during a single public *kgotla* gathering. The festival has played an important role in the building of spirit and cooperation within the Bokalaka extension team.

Extension workers have also learned new techniques such as group discussion for identifying local problems, and for generating community-wide discussion about these problems and action for solution.

Replicability

The *Laedza Batanani* format has now been used by the Kgatleng District Development Team in southern Botswana. This is a strong autonomous group capable of controlling such a programme itself in a large village context, i.e. Mochudi. This development has shown that the basic format can be used in other areas of Botswana to generate discussion on topics of development.

Ghanzi District, which has a cohesive Community Development staff, may conduct a popular theatre campaign in 1977. The Self-Help Housing Agency in Lobatse is considering employing this approach as part of its increased efforts to create a greater sense of community awareness regarding urban social/housing problems. The mobile unit of Agricultural Information Services will be trained in early 1977 by UBS/DEMS to utilise popular theatre and discussion techniques to improve their operation. Two upcoming workshops for Family Welfare Educators will demonstrate how this technique can enliven health lectures and create a greater sense of involvement and concern among local women regarding matters of child care and nutrition.

The tactic during the next several years will be to introduce this concept, or technique, of extension work to field staff who show interest, and who have demonstrated the internal unity and level of supervision necessary to conduct a popular theatre campaign.

Summary

Folk media and popular theatre campaigns have been employed in a variety of social settings throughout the world, from Ecuador to India. *Laedza Batanani* is significant in its attempt to use local actors performing in their own area, often including the extension workers, to break down the many internal communications constraints sighted above. Like its sister programmes elsewhere in the world, *Laedza Batanani* serves as a facilitator for the most effective form of extension communication—face-to-face discussion and demonstration—by focusing people's attention on particular local issues, generating concerned discussion about these issues, and by raising the notion that there are solutions to problems which individuals and groups of individuals can determine.

Local people have praised the festival for the opportunities it has provided for them to discuss issues which otherwise might not be discussed in a frank, open manner (e.g. the nature of the woman's role in domestic decision-making when the man is absent for long periods). The festival has also done a great deal

to co-ordinate and focus extension messages in the Bokalaka, and to build a much needed sense of teamwork among the extension cadre. The assistance and morale boost which they derive may be one of the major short-term effects of this type of media extension programme.

Appendix A

Community Issues and Problems

These represent some of the issues identified during the past three years of community workshop discussions.

A. Village problems

1. Scattered homesteads impede community co-operation in village development.
2. Poor relations exist between government officials and the public.
3. Seasonal migration leads to underdevelopment of villages and lands.
4. Migration means children are often left unattended in the village; this occasionally results in illnesses or a death while going to school, or that children are forced to travel tiring distances from the lands.
5. People living far from the central *kgotla* miss out on public information.
6. Unpaid headmen are reluctant to attend meetings.
7. There has been little participation in self-help schemes.
8. Attendance has been poor at development meetings.
9. False information is sometimes circulated to further self-interest.
10. Misbehaviour occurs at the *kgotla*.
11. Although fines are assessed at the *kgotla*, the amounts are too low to discourage misdemeanours.
12. There is concern over refugees crossing in from Rhodesia and Botswana children crossing into Rhodesia.

B. Family problems

1. Husbands refuse to allow wives to enter teaching, etc.
2. Older people mislead the young by encouraging drinking. This leads to other forms of misbehaviour and poor school attendance.
3. Women have far more work to do throughout the year, while men spend their time eating, drinking, and talking.
4. Children are left alone when parents go to the lands.

C. Value conflicts and social problems

1. Older people mislead the young.
2. Juvenile delinquency.
3. Men refuse to fulfil social functions, so women attend in their place.
4. Old-fashioned ideas remain, e.g. pregnant women should not eat eggs.
5. People fear going to the clinic.
6. Gumba-gumba parties foster violence, prostitution, disturb other people.
7. People are forgetting traditional customs and culture.
8. House-breaking and stealing of grain still occurs.

D. Economic concerns

1. Jobs are difficult to find—only the educated seem to get jobs.
2. Crop prices from the Marketing Board are too low.
3. Speculators buy stolen cattle.
4. Laws concerning veld fires are not enforced and thus much grazing land is destroyed.
5. Cattle and goats often destroy crops.
6. Harvesting is often done late, and grain poorly stored.
7. Disputes arise over payment for borrowing oxen for ploughing.
8. Worries about land allocation.
9. Money which migrant labourers earn in South Africa does not reach their families.

E. Consumer concerns

1. Inflation.
2. Public transport fares are too high and service is inconsistent.
3. Health services are insufficient.
4. There is no water reticulation.
5. There are no social services for the physically handicapped or the poverty-stricken.
6. Butcheries are health hazards, often selling contaminated meat.
7. Roads are poor; there are few bridges crossing the rivers.
8. Laws for protecting lions are unjust; they do not recognise the damage lions cause among livestock.

Appendix B

Laedza Batanani Folk Songs[1]

Laedza Batanani

Build your villages together
Leave staying at the lands and build homes
Attend meetings and hear what's happening to
your country
Men should work and give money to their wives
Leave fighting in the Gumba-Gumba
Teach your children to respect adults
Awake and come together to build Botswana.

The Thief Has Won[2]

It's true the thief has won.
It's true Ndoli is a slippery customer.
It's true Phot (the court clerk) was burnt by a pen.
It's true headman Senete can witness this event.
It's true tomorrow we'll send the cattle to the
BMC (the abattoir).

Parents, You Should Develop Your Country

Parents, stop sending children to the bars
That's where dice is played
That's where people smoke dagga (marijuana)
All this is brought by liquor.
Here in Botswana
We work hard to get things done
Because we want our country to develop.

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[1] Roughly translated from Sekalaka.

[2] Allegedly composed by the thief, Ndoli, after he was charged very little for stealing several head of cattle. It was sung by the people of Nkanye to tease the headman and policemen.

Chawama, Chawama!*, Lusaka Housing Unit, Zambia

By Maurice Bryan

Zambia is the most urbanised African state south of the Sahara: over 40% of the population is now living in urban areas.

Lusaka, the capital city, has a population of 400,000 people extending over a 360 sq km area. Due to the social and economic pattern of its development, a vestige of the colonial past, today approximately half of Lusaka's residents live in unauthorised settlements locally known as squatter compounds.

With the assistance of the World Bank and the Government of Zambia, the Lusaka City Council has embarked on a 40 million dollar programme designed to upgrade four of the major squatter settlements, known as George, Chaisa, Chawama, and Chipata.

In the upgrading programme, residents will be provided with the services they now lack, e.g. roads, piped water, clinics, schools, etc., as well as loans to encourage house improvement. The policy of upgrading recognises the contributions of time and money that "squatter" residents have made in providing shelter for themselves. Instead of destroying these efforts, the policy aims at legitimising and improving the areas with a minimum of social disruption.

Residents' participation in planning is given high priority, so there is a large social service component built into the project. Great care has to be taken in acquiring the trust and co-operation of the residents, not only to facilitate the work of the Housing Project Unit (HPU) which is the task force responsible for upgrading, but also to ensure that the needs and opinions of the residents are adequately conveyed to the implementation staff.

*An expression in Bemba and Nyanja, the two most widely spoken languages of Zambia, meaning "Things have become better".

Following two years of intense discussion with the main funding agency, it was finally decided that it would be most unwise if a project of this size and sensitivity did not have a special section specifically concerned with the eventual communication needs. The Communications Section of the Lusaka City Council Housing Project Unit came into existence 9 months after the official start of the project.

The communications needs in Lusaka fall into two main categories. Publicity (i.e. distribution of information) and attitudinal change as regards both the servicers and those serviced.

Because the success of the project depends on the acceptance of the programme by people who have functioned in an autonomous manner for the entire duration of the community's existence, it was very important in the early period to avoid the dissemination of detrimental misinformation.

Outside these areas the project was greeted with scepticism, and the press corps who naturally tend to suspect the aims and objectives of the Lusaka City Council were part of this group.

Therefore, it was first necessary to present the "facts" to this body of opinion-makers. A visit for all the media in Lusaka was arranged to the first area being upgraded. It was possible for them to see that a genuine effort to improve the areas was being made by all concerned. They were able to question HPU staff, as well as residents. Once the media group was informed about the "facts" and their social responsibility in making the project a success became apparent, there was a remarkable attitude change. This change has continued, and has been strengthened by continual briefings.

Having media co-operation in communication is

a must for anyone involved in project support communication. Through the use of straight news, features and serialisations on topics sometimes only vaguely related to a programme, public interest in the existence of that programme can be maintained. Also, valuable information can be passed on to the public.

A substantial amount of information is passed on to residents of self-help settlements by community development workers. However, there are limits to the effectiveness of verbal presentations about future improvements when there is a large gap between the presentation and current conditions. To counter misinterpretation, the Community Development Staff is assisted in delivering their message by film and slide presentations.

Because of a shortage of time, communications equipment and local repair/maintenance technicians, it was not possible to train all members of the Community Development Section in the use of audio-visual tools. However, one Community Development Worker is permanently assigned to the Section and he briefs other CD's on integrating their presentations to the public with slides and films. Presentations are made in the evenings, so earlier in the day CD Workers preview films and slide sets, familiarising themselves with the order and pictoral content.

There is a growing need for simple-to-operate, durable communications equipment, which can withstand rigorous field conditions. Presently available professional equipment, while durable, is excessively sophisticated and overly expensive. Audio and video equipment now available, which is operable by a novice after simple instruction, is manufactured primarily for the home consumer marker and at planned obsolescence. Plastic or soft metal knobs, buttons, switches, circuit boards and outer cases which are designed for sporadic home use, come apart under the demands of field conditions. Designing new equipment is not necessary—the same models can be specifically made (perhaps for UNICEF) with stronger components.

Briefing in the target areas is done on a section or branch level, with the cognisance of the local party structure (UNIP). When slide and film shows are presented electricity is required. Budget constraints disallow the purchase of a generator or a special film mobile, so there has to be improvisation.

Therefore, shows are held with the co-operation of grocery or bar owners, who allow their electrical outlets to be used. A 120 ft extension cord is adequate for most situations and the businessmen are happy about the additional clientele attracted. Using the roof of the vanette as a platform for slide and film projectors not only provides a good working table, but places the equipment out of the way of large, enthusiastic crowds.

The design of film projectors enables the CD Workers to utilise the amplifier during the slide presentations. In cases where the sound track of the film is in an unfamiliar language, the original sound is turned off and the images and content explained by the CD Worker.

The input of services is an important aspect of upgrading, but this means some houses have to be removed. The thoughts and opinions of residents are, therefore, important in this phase of the planning process. However, it is impossible to communicate with every member of the community on this matter. The solution was to form a Road Planning Group, consisting of community representatives and personnel from the HPU.

Residents who have not been trained have difficulty in understanding maps and road plans. This problem is solved by having the residents walk along the proposed routes, and at that time their opinions and suggestions are solicited. The planners can then incorporate these opinions into their final designs.

The areas that are being upgraded are widely separated from each other, and the main project unit office. The phone system of Lusaka, like many other services, does not reach the

settlements. In order to ease the process of co-ordination of material and personnel, two-way radios have been installed in most of the vehicles, and also at the field offices.

Having communication of this sort not only saves time and material, but also contributes to a sense of cohesiveness and accessibility. Awareness of access is sometimes just as important as actual communication. If individuals feel they can be heard and recognised in the eventuality of need, this can create a sense of belonging and mission.

One method of ensuring interdepartmental communication was to organise regular inter- and intradepartmental seminars. In addition, heads of the various sections meet on a regular weekly basis.

Another device popular with staff is a monthly in-house newsletter. This provides a forum for the disgruntled or puzzled, and ensures that information on project progress and problems are communicated to those who may not lie in the path of memos and other official information channels.

Regular seminars are also held with residents in the areas being upgraded. These serve not only to familiarise the community with the City Council administrative practices and to clarify issues, but also as an important source of feedback on the effects of the project on the community.

The project staff come from a wide variety of countries and backgrounds. They are not always familiar with the Zambian context in general, or the nature of "squatter" compounds and their residents. If they are in decision-making positions, this unfamiliarity and sometimes scepticism can be a barrier to progress, since preconceptions lead to inappropriate action. These preconceptions must be removed.

Videotape has proven to be a good tool for this purpose. It is possible through tape for residents to be seen as well as heard. It is possible through tape to show part of the reality of their lives and for them to articulate their problems or approval. New arrivals to the project, or office-bound officers, can then have something more concrete on which to base their attitudes.

The advantages of video-tape is that it is portable, cheap and re-usable. The combined audio and video function provide more information than either one or the other alone, and it is interesting to watch. While it may not cause outright attitudinal change, it can certainly instigate the re-examination process, which is the forerunner of opinion modification. Videotape has also been useful in briefing the constant flow of visitors to the housing project.

The rising cost of building materials is a problem that threatens the progress of the project; steps have been taken to encourage the use of cheaper, but equally effective substitutes like soil-cement blocks. Frequent demonstrations have been held which have not always attracted as many people as they should. The communications section works with a band of young musicians who make their own instruments and songs, so it has been possible to produce songs dealing with the advantages of soil-cement blocks.

The music is based on a popular urban form, only the lyrics needed modification. Having the musicians at demonstrations helps to attract larger crowds and the children quickly learn the instructive refrains. The band also plays at seminars, presenting songs that deal with various aspects of upgrading and community growth.

The Buntungwa Star Band also plays an integral part in the production of the play "It Will Be Better Tomorrow", which was specially scripted for presentation in the "upgrading" areas. The play deals with the attitude change of an individual who is first dubious about the motives of the HPU. The play is presented for residents in the open air. It was found necessary to have the Zambian equivalent of a Japanese

bensbi, someone who summarises and explains the previous and coming action at major transition points. The audience is very active during these presentations, and the actors have to be flexible enough to include their comments or actions in the presentation.

There have been no studies of the effectiveness of these various forms of instructional entertainment. One problem is that it has not always been possible to utilise the interest generated (for soil-cement blocks) due to logistical problems like unavailability or malfunctioning of machines supplied by manufacturers.

The process of upgrading in its over-all philosophical form is generally predetermined. Room for flexibility lies in the details of implementation, and it is here that the content of any communcation has its greatest input. The communications section, however, works within a bureaucracy, and must undergo a degree of scrutiny. This means that the content of any message has to be carefully discussed and agreed upon before it is disseminated. Fortunately, mechanisms exist where valuable input can be made on policy by all the sections in the HPU, and although disagreements occasionally occur, the discursive process minimises their occurrence.

It is crucial to communication that the communicators believe in their message. It is unfair both to themselves and the recipients if they insist on communicating a message they feel will ultimately be detrimental. Their first responsibility is to use their talents to communicate to the decision-makers some of the problems they foresee if certain policy decisions are carried out. The success of this action, however, may depend on their mandate and the organisational structure of their project, ministry or department.

The HPU is fortunate to have an evaluation section which carries out baseline surveys dealing with the effects of the project on the community. In an effort to gauge the effect of information distribution, 380 people were interviewed on information reception.

Film Shows

Of those interviewed

284 or 74.35% heard of the shows
96 or 25.13% did not hear of the shows.

Sources of Information

23.00% heard via HPU staff
.52% heard via constituency officials
4.97% heard via branch officials
13.87% heard via section leaders
.26% heard via ward development committee
.52% heard via relatives.

Attendance

41.62% of those who heard attended
31.94% of those who heard did not attend
.26% did not hear but attended anyway.

Over-all Assessment of the Best Method of Information Dissemination

30.45% learned of upgrading from HPU briefing meetings
12.60% learned of upgrading from political party officials
5.25% learned of upgrading from posters
26.25% learned of upgrading from film shows
23.36% learned of upgrading from tours of the areas.

With 30.45% of those interviewed indicating that the HPU briefing meetings informed them of upgrading, that method is the single most important communication method.

31.50% learned of upgrading from a combination of posters and films. This indicates that the communications section which is responsible for posters and film shows is playing a healthy supportive role in communication.

Community Involvement in Solving Local Health Problems in Ghana

By F.K. Aikins and Peter Brown

Project Area

The Wenchi and Nkroanza/Techiman Districts of the Brong-Ahafo Region were chosen for the project. The area is 5,668 sq miles and located in the transitional zone between savanna and forest areas. According to the 1970 census it had a population of 220,510. There are four towns with a population of over 5,000, and most people live in villages with from 100 to 2,000 inhabitants. It is a rural farming area, and the dominant staples produced are maize, yam, and cassava.

It is a hilly countryside. Several major roads go through the area leading through the villages in the district. A network of feeder roads has been, and is being, constructed and maintained by local councils, but still the majority of villages can be reached only by paths.

The district capitals are the towns of Wenchi and Kintampo where offices for the governmental district authorities are located.

There are no government hospitals in the districts, but there are four mission hospitals to which the government basic health services refer patients. The government basic health services presently consist of three health centres, and two health posts. Four health posts are under construction. There are also four dressing stations run by local authorities.

The health problems in the area are similar, and of the same magnitude, as those of the rest of the rural districts of the country—communicable diseases, poor environmental sanitation, problems related to maternity, child birth, and malnutrition.

Project Objectives

They include the following:

a) The improvement of the health status of the rural population of Ghana by the provision of important basic health care through community projects is to be decided on, organised and performed by the communities themselves. This objective includes strengthening the existing health care delivery system.
b) The establishment over a 5-year period of a system of health care delivery, and promotion of social well-being among the populations in the Wenchi and Nkoranza/Techiman Districts of Ghana. These projects can be evaluated in terms of defined criteria of methods, content and coverage.[1]

Unstated objectives of the project include the motivation of people to *act*, *change* and *adopt* new attitudes towards their health problems, and thereby *achieve* positive results.

Pre-operational Communications Research

The social survey that preceded the implementation of the project indicated the cultural background, the language, and interests of the people in the project area.

Communications Inputs

Forms of communication envisaged for the project included:

a) Home visits where non-projected visual-aids could be used;
b) Demonstrations;

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[1] *Note:* Descriptive material on the target area and project objectives are taken from "Plan of Operation—Research Project on Community Involvement in Solving Health Problems in Ghana", Ref. No PRC 180 of 10/2/75.

c) Discussions with small groups where both projected and non-projected aids could be used;
d) Mass communication media, covering large groups and masses, where projected, non-projected and audio-visual aids could be used.

Communications inputs, therefore, included projected cine vans and projectors and film-slide projectors.

Non-projected were flannelgraphs, flip charts, charts, and posters, etc. Audio-visual aids included village drama, role-play, and puppet shows.

Monitoring and Evaluations Technique

The project has an evaluation team, but the field workers constantly undertake self-evaluation by filling in forms which have an inbuilt evaluation element. Evaluation includes a report on the feedback from the audience which is required by cybenetics.

Principal Constraints

Constraints on communication in the project include:

1. Poor mobility due to lack of good roads (especially feeder roads) in the project area. Village workers sometimes trek long distances on foot to get to the remote villages in the district;
2. Lack of materials for the production of teaching/communications aids. Some items like flannellette and flock paper for the production of flannelgraphs are not available in the local markets;
3. Lack of spare parts for equipment and vehicles. Much precious time is wasted sometimes in looking round for spares for vehicles and equipment;
4. Local politics: political disputes create problems in communication—rival factions may not like to merge for action in the interest of the whole community.

Young Farmers Applied Nutrition and Co-operative Activities Project, Uganda

By A.R. Semana

The interests of FAO and UNICEF in the potential of the Young Farmers programme as a means of improving nutrition in Uganda and the existing involvement of USAID in the rural co-operative movement, led to the discussions between the Government and these agencies on the possibility of developing Young Farmers groups specifically oriented towards (i) production and use of nutritious foods and (ii) training co-operative methods. The general and specific objectives of the project are outlined below.

The project which was started in 1964 now involves 200 societies, with a membership of 4,000 Young Farmers.

General Objectives

The purpose of the project is to encourage rural youth to:

1. Take an interest in nutrition and production of high protein and other protective foods, as well as improved storage, conservation, and preparation, of nutritious products;
2. Involve themselves in rational production of nutritious food crops for marketing and for home consumption;
3. Plan and work together in co-operative groups in a business-like manner, and thereby experience the benefits of mutual aid, and to undertake income-producing activities, thus helping to alleviate the problems of unemployed school leavers, and;
4. Participate actively in family and community development.

Specific Objectives

Expanding on the activities of the Young Farmers of Uganda, the specific objectives are:

1. To increase opportunities for rural youth and youth leaders to acquire knowledge and training in relation to nutrition, agriculture, horticulture, poultry raising, co-operative and rural home-making;
2. To introduce more intensive nutrition and health education for rural youth, including storage, conservation, and preparation of nutritious foods;
3. To help the youth to acquire understanding and acceptance of the assistance the Agricultural Extension Service and the Community Development Services may be able to offer, and make maximum use of them;
4. To stimulate rural youth to do useful work for the benefit of themselves, their families, and their communities;
5. To involve rural youth in greater production of nutritious foods for co-operative marketing and home consumption;
6. To develop a youth co-operative movement which, by affiliation with existing co-operative unions, through well-operated primary societies, would stimulate greater youth-adult communication and interaction and also encourage youth to consider careers in modern market-oriented agriculture;
7. To promote self-help projects which have a bearing on increased production, storage and marketing of produce, for example, irrigation schemes, feeder roads, etc., improved environmental health conditions, such as general sanitation measures and portable water supply schemes, etc.;
8. To prepare youth to become good and self-reliant community members, and a strong element in the co-operative movement in the future, and also to become more knowledgeable parents themselves;
9. To encourage, through youth demonstrations, parents and other adults in the communities to adopt improved agricultural methods and co-operative activity;
10. To orientate the programme and service staff by a special in-service training programme;
11. To strengthen the training facilities available in the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Marketing and Co-operatives, and the Ministry of Culture and Community Development.

Pre-operational Communication Research

There was no pre-operational communication research incorporated into the project. That is, there were no intentional measures built into the project to test for communication effects.

However, there was an evaluation component in the project, as will be explained later.

Communication Inputs

A. *Training Programme*

In order to ensure the successful and efficient implementation and execution of the project, a series of training and instruction courses was (and still is) held for field staff and local leaders at all relevant levels, as well as for officers and members of Young Farmers Applied Nutrition and Co-operative Activities Projects.

The courses covered:

a) Nutrition, agricultural production and animal husbandry;
b) Organisation and operation of co-operative production and marketing of produce;
c) Vocational training regarding growing of nutritious food crops selected for the project.

A special joint course was set up at Bukalasa Agricultural and Co-operative College to produce supervisory staff for the District Farm Institutes, which are fully geared to approaches related to working with rural youth.

B. *Production of Educational Materials*

The Visual Aids Centre of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, and the Co-operative Alliance continued to produce newsletters, calendars and other educational materials. The publications are on:

a) Nutrition and child care;
b) Storage, conservation, and preparation of nutritious foods;
c) Production of nutritious foods;
d) Soya beans;
e) Legumes;
f) Vegetables;
g) Co-operative marketing;
h) Any other fields relevant to the project.

C. The Young Farmers mobile cinema van shows educational films and slides relevant to the project in the rural areas where the project is in operation.

D. The radio programme "Calling Farmers" broadcasts some messages specially geared to the project, and other related subjects on agriculture, daily.

E. Every year there is an "achievement day" for each society, when young people exhibit their products and demonstrate their skills, thereby learning from each other's experience through seeing and hearing.

Monitoring and Evaluation Techniques

The Young Farmers have record books where they record all their activities, including learning. After thorough inspection of these records, an evaluation is made. Secondly, the observation and reports on these activities by the field staff serves as another means of getting information which may be used for evaluation.

Finally, a structured evaluation is supposed to be carried out every year to collect basic data on all aspects of the project, including communications.

The evaluation at the pre-implementation phase was carried out and a comprehensive evaluation made, with the participation of FAO and UNICEF, in mid-1972. A structured questionnaire was used for the members of the Young Farmers, the volunteer leaders and the staff on the project, plus field observations of field activities.

Principal Communication Constraints

As far as communication is concerned, the main bottleneck is equipment. For example, professional tape recorders for recording messages for radio braodcast, professional cameras, slide and motion projectors and transport such as landrovers for showing film strips in rural areas are lacking.

There is also a very great need for training staff in the field of communication and communication research.

More training is needed for Young Farmers and volunteer leaders.

Limited financial resources make it difficult for progressive Young Farmers to expand on the size of their operations once the interest is established.

Communication and Media, Swaziland

By P.N. Mohammed

Who? Says What? To Whom? How? Why? What Happens?

Communication Approach

1. Personal contact;
2. Group method (mass media);
3. Radio;
4. Written material;
5. Hand outs—posters;
6. Photographs and slides;
7. Film shows;
8. Telephones.

Although Swaziland is a small country—half a million people, 6,704 sq miles—radio communication is not available throughout the area. Provision has been made to improve the present radio broadcasting system during 1977 and 1978.

Personal contact has been often carried out by extension workers from various Ministries. They have not been successful due to the fact that extension workers were competing for results, even though teaching in the same communities. An extension workers' workshop for integration was introduced early last year for joint planning and programming.

Group method is only successful among organisations such as: farmers' co-operatives, women's organisations, resettlement development committees, schools committees, and marketing organisations. However, many rural people do not belong to any organisation. Even organising mass meetings through chiefs is difficult because homesteads are scattered and transport shortages are serious.

Although Sebenta National Institute for Adult Literacy was opened in 1966, 70% of the population cannot read and write. Most people attending the Institute's classes are women. Except for some farmers, men are not yet convinced of the importance of the classes.

Film shows and slides cannot be used extensively since there are only two rural centres with electricity. Mobile vans would be of great help to meet rural communities' needs.

Posters have been introduced by the Ministries dealing with rural community problems. Public health, agricultural, and co-operative posters are very useful, and have been designed on the premise that adults believe on seeing and doing.

In Swaziland, women are co-operating well, and they are contributors towards development of the country.

Communications Problems

Mechanical transport for extension workers is needed. In areas where people live in scattered homesteads in the mountains, the transport problem remains unsolved.

In Swaziland there are four Rural Development Areas where people were resettled. Under the Ministry of Agriculture, the processing of these areas took more than three years because the planning was in the hands of rural development committees. The Government did not tell the leaders what to do. Problems were to be solved by natural leaders and their committees; people did not want to leave their fathers' and their children's graves and their fields. When development is required, one has to consider tradition, culture, belief, customs, etc. This takes time. Swazi people have the advantage of speaking one language; verbal communication is thus the most successful method of reaching the people.

Traditional leaders in Swaziland are very useful to extension workers when organising meetings. But problems arise, as followers do not accept suggestions made by extension workers unless chiefs support them. Before an extension

worker is posted to an area, his senior officer must first introduce him to the chief and his councillors.

Two of the four Rural Development Areas have shown tremendous progress. In these RDA's the Ministry of Agriculture has constructed irrigation, grazing camps, communal gardens, poultry schemes, livestock production for cross breeding, etc.

Project for Integration of Women in Development. UNDP—supported.

Communication Equipment

1. Camera;
2. Tape recorder;
3. Projector super 8 + 16 mm;
4. Projector for slides;
5. Portable screen;
6. Carpentry tools;
7. Building tools.

Activities undertaken by the project staff for home improvement have recently started being integrated. The idea is that all extension workers of the area should participate in a project.

Home Improvements

1. Home-made mud bricks, stove;
2. Soak pit and dish-washing table;
3. Vegetable solar drier;
4. Home-made family beds;
5. Iceless refrigerator;
6. Home garden;
7. Spring water protection;
8. Pit latrines.

One homestead in each *inkhundhla* was chosen by a women's group as a model home to demonstrate the above, and to teach all women's groups at one central point. The demonstration is being continued in various places in Swaziland.

The *Lefatshe La Rona* Radio Learning Group Campaign of Botswana

Abstract of a paper by Paul Hurly

Major reforms in the division and allocation of communal grazing lands in Botswana were announced in 1975.

In an attempt to improve cattle management and increase production of beef for national export, to conserve the veld and permit redistribution of income in the rural sector, the Government recommended that grazing land be zoned into communal, commercial and reserve areas.

Reaction from cattle owners was mixed.

An interministerial media campaign was initiated to explain the new policy and to allow the people to ask questions about it.

A radio learning group campaign was chosen as a potentially efficient way of reaching Botswana's widely scattered population, since 79% of the population over 15 years is thought to be illiterate.

Approximately 3,000 radio study groups were formed, directly involving 50,000 people in the project. These groups gave an opportunity for two-way communication between the group members and the policy planners.

Thirty-minute programmes were pre-recorded onto cassettes. Information revolved around the stated Government aims. Much local interest was generated in the radio campaign itself, but public response demonstrated that interests were focused on other farm management topics, and this proved to be a constraint.

A considerable number of other constraints were encountered; not all were overcome.

One serious problem involved media overkill—four major media campaigns were held in 1976 involving radio messages, distribution of pamphlets, and speeches at local meetings.

Government policy mandates that Setswana, the official language, be used for radio broadcasts. However, many people do not have a complete understanding of Setswana. Further, a large number of expatriates were involved in developing the policy and the subsequent radio messages; ideas were written first in English, then translated, and errors resulted.

Due to late rains, the harvest was delayed; therefore, the radio campaign was aired during the season when people were at their busiest. However, since messages were pre-recorded and repeated, people had a choice of broadcast days and times.

Political jurisdictional frictions were encountered. However, district officers were used to resolve misunderstandings with reluctant headmen and councillors, while field workers stressed that radio learning groups were open to anyone, regardless of political affiliation.

Low morale and other field staff problems were encountered, but monthly debriefings were held, and establishment of a clear channel of responsibilities helped to diffuse problems and provide support. Monthly allowances for field workers were increased in order to compensate for increased work-related expenses.

Attempts were made to keep organisation staff informed of the campaign progress. A newsletter was circulated in early 1976. Regular meetings were held for field staff; permission was granted for community development and Ministry of Agriculture staff to meet together. Each District Team was assigned an adult educator as advisor; weekly meetings were held and the Grazing Committee was kept informed of campaign events.

Some problems were not solved—delays of materials production due to inefficient communications infrastructure, time constraints, changes in policy decisions, financial problems.

Despite the difficulties encountered, however, the programme was completed. Knowledge-gain tests indicated that there had been an increased understanding of the land-grazing policy as a result of the radio campaign.

The Youth Development Programme in Kenya

Abstract of a paper by B.W. Beauttah

The Government of Kenya is taking decisive steps to relate the training of youth to the needs and economic opportunities available in the local communities.

Even prior to Independence, young people out of school attended youth centres which offered literacy and handicraft training and recreational opportunities. After Independence, a determined effort was initiated to expand facilities and services. Increased numbers of Kenyan children were able to attend primary school, but without further training there were no employment prospects for them.

The first Village Polytechnics (VPs) were established in 1968 to give employment-oriented training to school leavers. Both young men and young women were enrolled in courses designed to develop skills in generating income and saving funds, to improve their living conditions and develop local communities. There are now 132 Village Polytechnics, with a combined enrolment of 7,600.

Courses are currently offered in:

Carpentry;
Motor mechanics;
Tailoring/dressmaking;
Signwriting;
Masonry;
Agriculture (farm and home-based);
Business management/typing and book-keeping;
Electrical courses;
Leather work/tannery;
Metalwork;
Home economics (including knitting and dressmaking).

In a Village Polytechnic trainees receive on-the-job training, acquire management skills, and earn money. Their work experience actually begins in the Village Polytechnic, not after graduation.

Difficulties have been encountered in some areas of the country in encouraging young women to enrol in VPs. Reasons have been due to strong attachment to customs and traditions on the part of the community, and initial lack of understanding of the intentions of the VP programme. Constraints, however, are usually overcome by explanations at local community meetings.

A National Centre for Research and Training has been established at Karen, Nairobi, in order to ensure that types of training offered in various parts of the country will be suited to local needs. It is anticipated that by 1980, 250 VPs will have been established, with a capacity for 22,500 students.

Social Development—Rural and Urban

Abstract of a paper by Norman Scotney

Social development is, in essence, an educational process, a process of growth in community self-awareness. The community, perceiving its needs, begins to see the resources it does or might command and the possibilities in community action and improvement opening before it.

"Teachers" and "change agents" can contribute to this process as catalysts and facilitators. But, equally, they can stand between the community and growth in self-awareness and self-confidence. Rural people often present complex, even contradictory, attitudes so that they seem inaccessible. The pressures of social change upon them are too diverse and too persistent to be digested and assimilated. They live uneasily with one foot in each of two worlds.

Success in encouraging community self-awareness depends upon sensitivity to the dilemmas of community life, and demands the development of personal self-awareness. But these processes then make possible more effective communication and also communication in more significant areas of decision making.

The social disorganisation of the cities mirrors the social failures of village communities. The outcasts and drifters of the cities are the products of unresolved family and community conflicts in the villages. Boredom, jealousies and stagnation in the rural areas drive the misfits to "chance their luck" in the slums and shanty towns. There the sub-culture of crime and drift creates massive social problems perpetually draining scarce resources and eroding community confidence.

The social disorganisation of the city can best be tackled by the enhancement of social life in the villages—that is, by social development.

UNICEF and the Developing Countries*

UNICEF was created by the United Nations General Assembly in December, 1946. Its initial task was to help meet the emergency needs of children and mothers in countries devastated by World War II. In 1950, UNICEF shifted its attention to the needs of children and mothers in the developing countries. Today UNICEF is helping the Governments of 109 countries in their programmes to meet the needs of these two "most vulnerable" groups of the population on a long-term basis. Originally, the acronym UNICEF stood for "United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund". In 1953 the name was shortened to "United Nations Children's Fund", but the acronym UNICEF was retained, since it had by then become a symbol recognised throughout the world.

UNICEF is not a separate agency but is part of the United Nations proper. It has a semi-autonomous status, however, with its own governing body and secretariat. It is governed by a 30-nation Executive Board, representing both developed countries—the principal donors—and developing countries. The Board meets annually to determine policy, review the work of the organisation and approve assistance commitments. UNICEF is financed principally by voluntary contributions from Governments throughout both the developing and the developed world. A smaller but significant part of its income comes from the sale of the world-famous UNICEF Greetings Cards, through fund-raising campaigns conducted by UNICEF National Committees, and through contributions from individuals in all walks of life. Over the years, UNICEF's income has grown to about $140 million a year.

UNICEF Headquarters is in New York, but most of its staff are deployed in 40 field offices scattered around the world, including 11 offices in sub-Saharan Africa. It is at field level that day-to-day co-operation with the developing countries occurs. All requests for UNICEF assistance originate at country level.

UNICEF has no projects of its own. All projects it assists are Government projects. The forms of UNICEF assistance include supplies and equipment, cash grants for training and other activities, and, on occasion, the provision of experts, either through project staff recruited by UNICEF itself or through staff provided on arrangement with other United Nations agencies.

Policy Guidelines

The major objective of UNICEF is to co-operate with the developing countries in their efforts to improve the situation of their children and give them a good start in life. UNICEF believes that its humanitarian aims can best be furthered by assistance to policies which contribute not only to the immediate benefit of children, but also their long-term personal development and to the development of the countries in which they live.

Although each Government has to evolve its own policies and priorities affecting the oncoming generation, UNICEF is always willing to assist planning authorities and relevant ministries in establishing priorities directed towards the protection and development of this specially vulnerable group.

As part of this "country approach", a main goal in UNICEF programming is to move away from individual projects, seen more or less as separate entities, towards those forming an integral part of the countries' development plans and efforts. UNICEF programme officers

*This note is included in the report at the request of the workshop participants.

discuss with Government officials various possibilities of action benefiting children which would appear to be the most helpful, and indicate the assistance which would be available from UNICEF. Account is taken of aid which might be available from other sources. Wherever possible, projects assisted by UNICEF have the same cycle time as the national plan periods of the country concerned.

This does not mean, however, that UNICEF does not believe it is important to help countries test project designs and strategies which may be potential "growing points" for services benefiting children. Aid is thus available for demonstration, pilot and "starter" projects under varying conditions, which involve concepts of innovation and change and have the potential of reaching more children more effectively.

UNICEF has recently become concerned that, despite its efforts, many children and mothers remain essentially unreached. In order to increase the effectiveness of these and future efforts, it is encouraging Governments and its programme officers to consider the concept of basic services, which if implemented would assure every child a good start in life. These services can be summarised as health services, clean water supplies, nutrition and education. The new element of the basic services concept is the community participation or "self-help" axis upon which it revolves. Doctors cannot be trained or paid in sufficient numbers. The people must provide their own auxiliaries to be trained. In the same way they must take part, from the very inception, in all project activities to improve their community and home environment. By emphasising this approach, UNICEF hopes to assist Governments to improve the lives of the children in communities where they, until now, have remained relatively untouched by development efforts.

UNICEF's Project Support Communications Policies

For many years UNICEF has assisted Governments through the provision of supplies and equipment for health education, nutrition education and the like. In recent years, UNICEF has embarked on a deliberate policy of working with Governments to develop more systematic and effective ways of using communications resources in furtherance of project objectives. This has coincided with the appointment of UNICEF PSC officers in a number of regional and sub-regional offices. In 1975, UNICEF Headquarters issued a policy directive to all its field offices outlining the tasks of a PSC officer:

Primary tasks

1. To participate in the preliminary planning of projects to make certain that appropriate communication elements are included from the start;
2. To assist in working out plans, strategies and tactics for the communication elements to be included in a project. These will include determining time elements, budget and research;
3. Occasionally to assist in carrying out such plans;
4. To assist in evaluating the communication input.

Secondary tasks

1. To bring about increased awareness, interest and understanding of the effectiveness of communication activities when integrated into a project;
2. To bring about a better use of PSC in projects in which UNICEF and the Government are involved.

The directive also notes that an inventory of communication resources within each country is a necessary precursor to any PSC planning activities. It is the task of the PSC officer, in co-operation with the various UNICEF country representatives and programme officers, to ensure that everything is done to assist and develop the national PSC capability—so that eventually PSC can be incorporated into every

Government plan and project dealing with the needs of children.

UNICEF policy is quite flexible on forms of assistance the organisation may offer in the field of PSC. These include:

- —supplies and equipment of all kinds;
- —aid in developing the local manufacture of critical supplies and equipment;
- —limited assistance in the actual production of educational materials, audio-visual aids and printed matter;
- —contribution to local costs of training, research, project-monitoring, etc.;
- —assistance of UNICEF communications staff in project appraisal, design, etc.;
- —provision of UN volunteers or short-term experts.

UNICEF Supply Practices

Officials counting on UNICEF supplies or equipment for the implementation of a project must take into account certain "facts of life" concerning the lead-time required.

UNICEF's Executive Board does not generally approve country assistance requests on a yearly basis. Usually, requests are approved for two to three years at a time.

Programme officers and country representatives submit their country programme recommendations about six months prior to the annual meeting of the Executive Board in May.

This means that about a year will elapse between the time various ministry officials begin discussing their supply and equipment needs with the UNICEF representative and the time the Executive Board approves the funds for these supplies.

Once funds are approved, procurement and shipping will take another 6–12 months. Manufacturers' delivery lead-times may further delay the arrival of certain items; in the case of landlocked countries, shipping problems may entail even further delays.

Officials must thus allow at least 18 months to two years to get new assistance requests approved and overseas supplies and equipment delivered. Furthermore, they will generally have to think in terms of their needs over a three-year period commencing with the first delivery of supplies.

(In the case of cash grants for training and other purposes, funds can be released shortly after Executive Board approval of a request, so a delay of no more than twelve months needs to be taken into account.)

Specifications

It is important that Government officials specify precisely the supplies and equipment they require. Frequently officials complain about receiving sub-standard items from UNICEF, or at least items not suitable for the job they are expected to do. According to the rules of the UN, all supplies and equipment must be purchased on international tender. If only general descriptions are given, the cheapest models tendered which meet these loose specifications will be supplied. For example, it is not sufficient to say "reel-to-reel tape recorder for recording radio shows". A professional machine will not be supplied unless full specifications are given. In the case where a particular make and type are required for reasons of compatibility with existing equipment, this should be stated. The regional PSC staff in Nairobi and PSC consultants are available to help with this task.

Annex B

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Report

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Notes

The book was scanned in two parts to limit file size. Part One contains the workshop report. This is part two containing workshop papers, written by participants and resource persons, as well as a list of participants. Out of a total of 23 working papers, these 12 were edited or abridged, being the ones judged most relevant to the workshop and limiting the selection to one paper per author.
Topics include: the running of communications campaigns; folk media and social development; comparison of media costs; overcoming communication constraints; communication through women's groups; overcoming health problems; nutrition dimension; youth programmes; radio learning.

John Balcomb was at the time Chief, Communications and Information Service, UNICEF Eastern Africa Office, Nairobi

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