

**A Communication Strategy for Development Initiatives
with Special Reference to a Population Development
Case Study in North-Eastern KwaZulu-Natal**

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**A Communication Strategy for Development Initiatives with Special
Reference to a Population Development Case Study
in North-Eastern KwaZulu-Natal**

by
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Declaration

I herewith declare that this thesis, "A communication strategy for development initiatives with special reference to a Population Development case study in north-eastern KwaZulu-Natal" represents my own work, both in conception and execution, and that this thesis in fulfilment of the requirements of MA in the Department of Anthropology and Development Studies at the University of Zululand, has not been submitted to another Faculty or University for any other degree.



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Chapter 1

Introduction: Orientation of the study

1. 1 Contextualisation

The concept of *communication assisting development efforts* has been studied and applied extensively throughout the Third World during the last 45 years. These studies are concerned with the question of how communication can assist the development process. This question is especially relevant in South Africa, because of the emphasis placed on development and development-related issues by the government of national unity (cf South Africa, 1996:81-82, 107 and 127).

The field of development planning is informed by two main approaches regarding the role of communication in development efforts, namely the *dominant paradigm* and a number of alternative models, often referred to as the *new paradigm*. The dominant paradigm is the older approach and coincides with the theories of *development communication* (DC). Since the 1970s the dominant school of thinking has fallen into disrepute, mainly because it failed to bring about the desired change, and this resulted in it being gradually replaced by the new paradigm, which corresponds with *development support communication* (DSC), emphasising dialogue and participation.

DC scholars saw development as a diffusion of mainly technology and information to developing countries, that attempts to create a climate for the acceptance of innovations, but without taking the historical, traditional and human conditions of the beneficiaries into account. Progress and quality of life are measured in economic terms. The communication methods accompanying this approach involve an authoritarian, top-down sending of messages to developing countries or communities, supporting the diffusion of information and magic bullet theories of communication, which are applicable mainly to the mass media.

During the 1980s the development support communication (DSC) approach to the role of communication in development programmes, largely replaced the DC paradigm. The thesis of the DSC approach is two-way communication, focusing on participation, dialogue and the exchange of information between facilitators and beneficiaries of development efforts. This approach coincides with communication in the small group context, and employs the so-called "small media" as channels of communication. The DSC approach suggests therefore that development planners should transmit information via the channel of small group communication, and give attendants of small group discussions the opportunity to take part in the process of exchanging ideas and voicing their opinions. One of the biggest problems with the implementation of DSC is that it is almost impossible to implement in large-scale projects, due to the high costs involved.

A polarisation between supporters of small group communication and those who favoured mass media campaigns developed during the 1980s. Before that time scholars simply asked which medium is the best; only after DSC was suggested as a solution to Third World development, did researchers ask which medium is the best for a particular purpose, (Coldevin, 1991:34-35) implying that DC and DSC have different purposes. The dominant school of thought supported development as a change in lifestyle and imposed Western thought on communities, whilst the DSC theorists argued that communities should be encouraged to formulate their own development goals.

Malan (1996:6-14) suggests that the positive aspects of the DC approach could be used constructively within the "new paradigm" of DSC, especially from a communication perspective. This means that the mass media will, in large-scale development programmes, be used in conjunction with the "small media" as proposed by DSC. This argument is supported by various scholars arguing for a symbiotic relationship between culturally accepted traditional media and the mass media, combining the best characteristics of each (Moemeka, 1991:21-27). Malan (1996:6) further argues that DSC still has to be related to local circumstances within the

country, by means of case studies and development projects, in which theory and practice are interlinked.

These two arguments of relating DSC to local circumstances, and using a combination of mass and small media in development efforts are addressed in this thesis. The two main approaches to the role of communication in development efforts, namely DC and DSC, form the basis of the discussion of communication and information campaigns. These theoretical approaches are applied in the following chapters in a case study of a section of northern KwaZulu-Natal (as indicated on the geographical map in chapter 5) with the aim of recommending guidelines for a communication strategy when planning information campaigns aimed at development initiatives.

1.2 Objectives of this study

The main objective of this study is to provide guidelines for the planning of a communication strategy for developmental initiatives in rural and urban transitional areas, by analysing empirical data derived from a Population Development information campaign held in a section of northern KwaZulu-Natal as indicated on the geographical map in chapter 5 within the context of development and communication perspectives.

Secondary objectives of this study are:

- to identify different target groups, consisting of respondents with similar profiles, within the survey sample, resulting in market segmentation;
- to relate the objectives of DSC to local circumstances;
- to provide suggestions for an integrated media approach forming a basis for the planning of a communication strategy for development efforts;
- to provide a brief overview of communication campaign planning strategies as applied in different fields of the communication industry;
- to provide a brief overview of development communication theories;
- to discuss and to provide some clarification of the dilemma development planners have when planning information campaigns in cases where they want to stay within

the DSC paradigm, but the dissemination of information is bound to the DC approach;

- and to analyse the communication value and target audiences of the communication media used in the Population Development campaign.

This study does not pretend to give a comprehensive literature survey of development theories, nor an ethical justification of development and the role of communication in development, but focuses on the communication aspects of development as applied in the survey, limited to the geographical field of the survey and the characteristics of this specific population.

1.3 Method and structure

The method used in this study involves firstly a literature survey of the approaches to the role of communication in development, and the communication media used to support these approaches. A basic explanation of the concept of development, including the paradigm shift from the "dominant paradigm" to the "new paradigm" is given in chapter 2. Chapter 3 deals with development communication (DC) and the mass media, development support communication (DSC) and the "small media". Chapter 4 analyses different approaches to a communication campaign in terms of the DC/DSC discourse. Possible solutions to the problem of a symbiosis between these two approaches is also suggested in this chapter.

Chapter 5 explains the method used in the empirical part of this study. The large data set obtained from the statistical analysis of the Population Development information campaign suggests using two statistical analysis methods to interpret the data. The results of the survey are discussed and evaluated in chapter 6 by employing conventional statistical procedures (frequency tables and cross-tabulations). The aim of chapter 7 is to identify target groups for development projects, resulting in market segmentation, and suggests a media strategy for future Population Development campaigns, by using an advanced statistical method (correspondence analysis).

Concluding remarks, and recommendations towards a communication strategy for development programmes, focusing on market segmentation, and an integrated media approach, as well as an overview of the application of DSC under local circumstances, are presented in chapter 8.

Chapter 2¹

Communication for development: a historical overview

"Development brings freedom, provided it is development of people. But people cannot be developed; they can only develop themselves. (...) it is possible for an outsider to build a man's house, (but) an outsider cannot give the man pride and self-confidence in himself."
(Nyerere, 1973:60.)

2.1 Contextualisation

Communication and its role in social change and development have their roots in the decades between 1890 and 1940, when the propagandistic role of the media was brought to the fore during changes in the political scene in Europe.

In the 45 years after World War II, the political emancipation of most of the Third World from colonisation and the birth of the United Nations (UN) and its various executing agencies and committees, led to the formal beginning of development aid in Third World countries. Harry S. Truman, former president of the USA, the UN's most influential member, proposed in 1949 a Four Point Program, concerning the plight of the subsistence peasants of the Third World, indicating that humanity possesses the knowledge and skills to relieve their suffering, poverty and food shortages. This aid entailed mostly Western scientific and technical knowledge in the fields of agriculture, commerce, industry and health, with the aim of increasing production. Because this method was applied with great success in rebuilding Europe after World War II, it was thought the best option for Third World development. The outcome of Truman's proposal was called *development* (Melkote, 1991:20-21).

Perceptions of the role communication should play in development crystallise in two approaches, the *dominant paradigm* which is the older approach, and the *new paradigm*, which supports a participatory process. The older approach followed similar processes as used in the rebuilding of Europe after the war, and resulted in a transfer of

¹ Sections of chapters 2, 3, 6 and 8 is included in a paper presented at an international symposium at the HSRC (cf. Burger, 1996b).

information and technology to the beneficiaries of development efforts. During the 1970s the newer approaches gained support, mainly because this dominant paradigm couldn't bring about the desired development. The newer approaches implied a mindset change in the mainstream school of thought, from a top-down communication approach to a participatory approach.

The aim of this chapter is to sketch the background to these two main approaches to development, and to discuss the communication approaches that coincide with each. Against this background the role of communication in development will be investigated in further chapters, and applied to South African circumstances, by analysing the results of a survey completed in northern KwaZulu-Natal.

2.2 The dominant paradigm

The concept of development meaning modernisation, Westernisation, Europeanisation, industrialisation, economic growth, political change, nation building and progress, was first used after World War II. The 1950s and 60s were known as the decades of development, when countries struggled for independence and decolonisation, and the West started to aid development efforts in Third World countries (Mowlana & Wilson, 1990:2-3). The newly independent countries of the Third World in Asia, Africa and Latin America were considered to be at the same stage of development as pre-industrialised Europe, circa 1600. The solution was thought to be a repetition of the European development model, with the exception of speeding up the process by rushing through the stages which took Europeans centuries. Monetary aid and the transfer of knowledge were thought to be the best methods of "catching up". This orientation came to be known as the dominant paradigm. The mindset was simple, linear, deterministic and optimistic, as explained by scholars such as Daniel Lerner, Ithiel De Sola Pool, Lucien Pye and Walt Rostow. The communication approach yielded by this mindset is vertical in nature, authority-based, top-down, expert-driven, non-negotiable and well-intentioned (Melkote, 1991:36).

Development agents who adopt this approach to development projects design development projects from their own perspective, disregarding the needs and objectives of the community or beneficiaries. This external communicator does not take the real needs ("felt" needs) of the community into account, and the community is forced to play a passive role in their own development (Moemeka, 1991:23).

Although there are other development perspectives, this thesis discusses only two theories, which are relevant to the case study explained in later chapters, namely the modernisation and the dependency theory.

2.2.1 Modernisation

The main premise of the modernisation approach is to assist a developing country in becoming a replica of a developed country in terms of its economic growth and economic systems, its political system, the transfer of information and technological development, urbanisation, social structures, culture, ideology and communication systems (Mowlana & Wilson, 1990:56-63). According to Servaes (1995:40), this paternalistic approach was practised by most Western countries aiding Third World Development, especially in the case of the USA. The development agents would therefore create messages without a thorough understanding of the situation, perspectives, needs, traditions and preferences of the beneficiary. The selection of innovations and new technology to be transferred to the beneficiaries was undertaken by external forces, and the beneficiaries were passive in the process of development. This approach could therefore be seen as paternalistic, authoritarian, top-down and part of a process of Westernisation.

Western values, including democracy, citizen participation, multi-party states and national unity, were emphasised in this approach, and Melkote (1991:38) adds the transfer of social and psychic mobility to this list. The theorists of modernisation thought traditional societies didn't have complex social structures or communication systems, and didn't consider using the existing traditional communication (and social) systems to achieve the objectives of modernisation (Mowlana & Wilson, 1990:66-67).

The argument was that the communication process of diffusing information and innovation (mainly via the mass media) would generate development, regardless of the prevailing political and socio-economic conditions, and whether it had a negative or positive effect on communities.

Extension workers in the fields of health and agriculture took messages which were externally created by donor agencies, national and regional governments, bureaucrats and scientists, to communities. These pro-development innovations and skills were thought to be "productive" and "useful" knowledge, and were passed on to unsuspecting and passive audiences (Melkote, 1996:3). The developing countries were attracted to development by the new technologies offered by developed countries and the possibility of possible economic wealth (Servaes, 1995:40).

Development was seen to be linear, and to take place in various stages, implying that all societies evolve from a common starting point and develop along a continuum through similar phases until the society is finally developed. This meant that there were islands of developed areas amidst areas with a predominant traditional lifestyle which were seen as being undeveloped. Development can then be measured in terms of economic growth. The belief was that this dual economy would co-exist and the islands of developed areas would somehow grow and inspire the undeveloped areas to develop economically (cf. Fair, 1982:5-11; and Treurnicht, 1997:18-20).

Servaes (1995:40) argues that the modernisation paradigm sees development in two stages. The first stage is a traditional society which co-exists with a modern society and the second stage is the development into a modern society, made possible only once certain "barriers" have been removed. He suggests the following processes for this purpose:

- "catching up" by demonstrating advanced methods and techniques to communities;
- integrating modern methods with the existing culture;
- compressing the "catching up" time;
- preventing repetition of the mistakes made by the developed world;
- and adapting modern practices.

Servaes (1995:40) summarises the modernisation paradigm by arguing that it saw the difference between cultures solely in terms of the degree of development, without reference to the fundamental nature of each. Consequently, this means a transfer of capital, ideology, technology and information, and measuring the success of development in quantifiable terms such as the GNP, literacy levels, the industrial base and urbanisation.

2.2.2 Dependency

The criticism of the modernisation theory leads to a paradigm shift towards the dependency theory. Scholars such as Paul Baran, Roal Prebisch and André Gunter Frank opposed modernisation theories after the failures of those theories became evident. The modernisation theorists argued that development would spread from the islands of developed areas to the surrounding peripheral less developed areas. The dependency school of thought argued that development does not spread to the peripheral areas, but the peripheral areas become and remain dependent on the economies of the developed areas (Treurnicht, 1997:22-24). Supporters of the dependency theory argued that development and underdevelopment are related, and conceptualised the idea of a periphery "inheriting" the socio-economic and political structures of the centre. The centre's capitalist system prevents the periphery from growing out of the shade of the centre, in other words as long as the central economy remains strong, the dependent economy cannot develop independently and the division of labour, technology and economics will remain (Servaes, 1995:41-42).

This dependency is maintained by various factors, such as exploitation of the peripheral areas in terms of labour and the mass export of relatively cheap raw materials from the peripheral areas because of a lack of economic skills among people living in the peripheral areas. These theorists therefore argue from the same base as the modernisation theorists, that development has an economic-political point of departure, but add historical elements and the notion of a world economy to the argument (cf. Treurnicht, 1997:22-24; and Fair, 1982:19-36).

2.2.3 Criticism of the dominant paradigm

Initially the assistance toward development was met with great enthusiasm, but its emphasis on economic development didn't mature into self-sustaining programmes in the Third World (Melkote, 1991:22-36). Although both the modernisation and dependency theorists focused on economic growth, an increase in the GNP of many developing countries did not lead to a decline in unemployment, literacy, starvation and malnutrition (Mowlana & Wilson, 1990:19-20). Melkote (1991:22-28) argues that development in the dominant paradigm is biased towards the transfer of innovations, is pro-persuasion, top-down, mass media, pro-literacy, and suggests that it focuses on socio-psychological problems within developing communities and blames external socio-economic factors for underdevelopment.

The greatest opposition to the modernisation theory is its focus on Westernisation, economic growth, the transfer of technology and the thesis that development is linear. Eilers and Oepen (1990:297-301) indicate that development messages were often remote from the cultural setting in which development programmes are implemented. A further criticism of the modernisation frame of reference is that it brought more underdevelopment and inequality. The progress paradigm is incapable of bringing progress, and sees the process of change very simplistically and little thought is given to the implications of modernisation (economic, political and cultural changes) and traditional values and norms are negated. The modernisation paradigm is a veiled Westernisation (Servaes, 1995:41), which neglects the importance of culture, tradition, political and social factors, and promotes imperialism. The criticism of the dependency paradigm points out the failures of modernisation thinking, although it focuses on the external variables of underdevelopment and almost completely ignores the internal factors. Both schools focus on economic growth, promote Westernisation and suggest that development is linear (Treurnicht, 1997:23).

2.3 The communication approach of the dominant paradigm

The dominant paradigm of development is embedded in an authoritarian, top-down process of diffusing information, technology and monetary aid to beneficiaries. The communication approach supporting this paradigm is therefore inherently top-down. The issue of the influence of information on its audience is discussed in terms of interpersonal communication and the mass media in this section.

The 1940s and 1950s were seen as the decade of the communication model, attempting to explain the process of human communication, focusing on the effects of communication, and the ability of the media messages and opinion leaders to create knowledge of new practices and ideas, and to persuade target audiences to adopt these innovations (Melkote, 1991:75). The assumption was that the media had a direct influence on its audience (cf. DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach, 1989:160). Communication was seen as one-way, linear and focused on the sender of messages (the communicator).

The *hypodermic needle* model, also called the (magic) bullet theory or the stimulus-response (S-R) theory of mass media effects, focused on the effect the mass media supposedly have on their audience. During the period between the two World Wars, the mass media were viewed as powerful and manipulative forces which could change opinions in a short period of time. The hypodermic needle theory argues that each of the audience members would receive the message directly from the source of the message and this information would be "injected" into the person and have a direct influence on perception. The magical and potential dangerous (propagandistic) ability of the mass media is emphasised in this model (Tubbs & Moss, 1983: 344, and Melkote, 1991:67). Examples of studies undertaken with this frame of reference in mind include campaigns encouraging social bonding around World War I. According to DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach (1989:161-2) the mass media were implemented as a tool for propaganda, with carefully designed messages intended to mobilise sentiments of loyalty to authority, hatred and fear of the enemy, to maintain morale and to channel energy into nation-building. The magic bullet theory rests strongly on the stimulus

having a predictable response in the audience mechanism. DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach argue that media influence will have increased potential when a high degree of structural instability due to conflict and change exist in the society.

Paul Lazarsfeld's research of the influence of radio and newspaper coverage of the 1940 US presidential elections in Erie County, Ohio, brought a new perspective to these views. It was reported by interviewees that they learned more from interpersonal communication than from the mass media. The initial election candidate preferences of the voters were merely emphasised by the mass media campaign. Lazarsfeld developed *the two-step flow of information* theory, arguing that the media has an influence on individuals who expose themselves regularly to mass media, and they personally influence others who do not have the same mass media preference (Williams, 1989:235-237; and Tubbs & Moss, 1983:344-345). Early adopters of new ideas are all-around users of communication, and are often knowledgeable about a wide range of topics, and where to get information. They are also in contact with many people and are "leaders" who are respected by their followers, also called opinion leaders (Williams, 1989:241).

The two-step flow of information between the mass communicator and citizens were tested and found to be followed in virtually every sphere, from voter behaviour during election campaigns to the adoption of innovations by rural farmers. These findings emphasise the significance of personal social relationships in how information from the media reached and influenced people (DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach, 1989: 194).

The two-step flow of information theory made the audience active reflectors and disseminators of information, and not merely passive recipients of messages as suggested in the magic bullet theory. Mass media constitute an inherently one-way process of communication which also supports the dominant paradigm.

Tubbs and Moss (1983:349) suggest that the importance of information determines the choice of communication medium. If news reaches almost crisis proportions, it is spread faster by the mass media, but for smaller events, probably on a more personal or

ideological level, interpersonal communication is more effective. Face-to-face and mass communication can therefore be used complementarily. Mass media are less likely than personal influence to have a direct effect on social behaviour. Mass media spread information best, but when the individual has to choose between adoption and rejection, personal communication is more likely to have an influence (Servaes, 1995:44).

The mass media were seen as agents of modernisation, and research focused therefore on the social-psychological characteristics of individuals which were considered to be necessary for transition from a traditional to a modern society (Melkote, 1991:92). Because Western habits were seen as the development goal, the communication media, especially the broadcast media, were used for entertainment and news, and for national campaigns to persuade people to adapt to Western practices, especially in the areas of health care and agriculture (Servaes, 1995:40).

Daniel Lerner's thesis of the mass media supporting modernisation was one of the first important theories of the influence of the mass media. He saw development occurring in stages toward modernisation, which is ultimately Westernisation. A core group of individuals would accept new ideas and the mass media would spread the message further. The core group of individuals would have mobile personalities, with empathy as the building block enabling them to internalise change easily. This group should be exposed to new people, ideas, attitudes and information via the mass media, accelerating the process of modernisation (Melkote, 1991:82-83).

Schramm built on Lerner's ideas and saw the mass media as a "mobility multiplier" which could complement oral channels of communication in a traditional society in the process of growth and suggested that the mass media should be combined with interpersonal communication. He saw three functions for the media, namely as "watchdogs", "policy makers" and "teachers" for change (Servaes, 1995:45). Malan (1996:10) describes the writings of Everett M Rogers, Daniel Lerner, Wilbur Schramm and others who claim that the mass media could transform the "Third World," as optimistic, and maintains that this belief has continually been questioned.

The thesis of the DC approach is to convey "useful" information to a society or community in order to assist development. The DC approach uses either a "change agent" in a face-to-face situation or the mass media to communicate information to an audience. Both these communication methods convey information with the aim of convincing recipients to adopt new information and new lifestyles. The communication method of the DC is therefore a one-way transmission of information and can be described as a top-down process because messages are created outside the community and the community is a passive recipient of these messages.

2.4 The decline of the dominant paradigm: a criticism

The dominant paradigm, having attracted great support during the first part of the 20th century, remained the prominent approach to development communication during the 50s and 60s. This approach is grounded in psychological theories of change where development is seen as enlightenment. These theories displayed an ethnocentric Western bias and the cultures, tradition and history of the Third World were ignored (Mowlana & Wilson, 1990:67). The optimism of the supporters of this paradigm in the 1950s and 1960s didn't last, because of the failure of many Third World development projects, which forced scholars back to the drawing board. The criticism against the dominant paradigm and the communication approach which coincides with it, is briefly outlined in this section.

2.4.1 Criticism of the dominant paradigm of development

Melkote (1991:130-137) offers several shortcomings when applying the dominant paradigm, which was successfully applied in Western Europe and North America, to the Third World. Development was quantified in terms of economic indicators such as GNP and per capita income, and not on the equitable distribution of goods. Political and economic power was often in the hands of a small elite in Third World countries, and development efforts didn't reach all strata of society. The negation of the

importance of culture, tradition and history, in favour of an emphasis on economic growth, wasn't appreciated by the supposed "beneficiaries" of development efforts. Often the reasons for underdevelopment were thought to be the social-psychological make-up of traditional individuals, and little attention was paid to external constraints (such as markets, for instance). In nations where centralised planning for development was implemented, little change was seen, because villages didn't take up ownership of development efforts, which were perceived to be top-down.

The Western-orientated top-down dominant paradigm applied what worked in the West directly to other nations, without taking local conditions into account. Freire asked for a more receiver-orientated model - looking for the needs of the receiver, and taking the social environment of the receiver into account (Mowlana & Wilson, 1990:56-57).

2.4.2 Criticism of the communication approach of the dominant paradigm

Beltran (1976:19) argues that human and democratic development can only be caused by the overall change of societal structure, and communication itself can therefore not cause development, but instead it often drives development in favour of the ruling minority. Using the mass media to spread development messages led to a widening gap between progressive and subsistence farmers, giving rise to frustrations in developing nations because messages didn't supply answers to circumstances and local problems, and messages were created from the perspectives of external developers, resulting in one-way communication (Melkote, 1991:138-173).

2.5 The new paradigm

The idea of development communication as a participatory approach was formed after the failure of the dominant paradigm became evident. The new concern focused not so much on economic and political change, but on the specific human culture, and moved towards an audience-active approach where the community takes part in the

development process. This approach implies a dialogue between the development agent and the community, a two-way flow of information, popular participation and decentralised planning (Melkote, 1991:134).

Several views were held as how to implement this new mindset, and alternative development paradigms emerged. The major thinkers of alternative models didn't write in European languages, but came from the Third World (mainly South America, India and Africa) and Islamic countries. Their work did not take part in Western discussions, and therefore went by unnoticed for a time.

Mowlana and Wilson (1990:34-35 and 71-73) argue that a new wave of self-reliant, humane, monistic, ethical and emancipatory ideas stemmed from criticism of the older model which either failed or became dysfunctional during the 70s. This emancipatory approach promotes self-determinism, and has its roots in the more humane, traditionalist, anti-bloc, spiritual, bottom-up, self-reliant theories of social development. It gained momentum in the 80s and its supporters took a more conservative, defensive and revolutionary approach to the older models, although the focus was on improving quality of life. The quest for community development in Africa, the liberation movements in Latin America, the religio-political currents in Europe, and the Islamic world's new movements are all manifestations of this model.

Traditional and cultural values and "self-reliance, grass-roots initiatives and an ideology of its own" emerges. Julius Nyerere, then president of Tanzania, tried to find an African ideology, separate from that of the West. This African socialism was based on the concept of *ujamaa*" (familyhood) - communal philosophy, tribal culture, shared ownership of land and property, equal distribution of wealth and non-exploitation of people. The individual was the most important element of success in development (Mowlana & Wilson, 1990:32-33).

Swanepoel (1983:76 and 84) argues that African socialism, which is a direct reaction to Africa's development problems, has largely failed, and although it brought political independence, economic independence was in many cases not achieved. The new

African elite didn't support equal distribution of wealth and allowed the state to play a major role in economic planning. For the masses the situation remained largely the same as in the colonial era, and one of the main objectives, social egalitarianism, was not achieved.

Paulo Freire (Brazil) developed a conscientization method, where the individual would break free from silence, because of his right to participation and emancipation to achieve his goal, and change social structures, social relationships and interpersonal relationships that interfere with that goal (Melkote, 1991:246).

Other development approaches emerged, such as the approaches of multiplicity and "another development" arguing that development should be an integral process, and is a multidimensional and dialectic process which can differ from one society to another, embracing the cultural identities of societies (Servaes, 1995:43).

Mowlana and Wilson (1990:57 and 91-99) argue for a model which makes a distinction between the production and the distribution of cultural messages. The shift in emphasis should be away from the communicator (production) toward the message distribution process, taking the prevailing economical and political situation as well as social, traditional and cultural aspects into account. They argued that it is not possible to transfer technology on its own, since technology is always linked to politics and culture. Developing countries must develop plans and policies must strive for more control over the content to reassert their cultural sovereignty in order to protect their cultural heritage. Indigenous cultures around the world are threatened by the influx of technology. "Although it has been demonstrated that the various forms of mass media have considerable potential for use in developing countries, traditional forms and channels of communication and their integration with modern communication systems have been found to be most effective in generating desired results with minimal negative impacts" (Mowlana & Wilson, 1990:57 and 91-99).

Eilers and Oepen (1990:304-315) argue that the means, roles, processes and structures of communication should be investigated, focusing on the role of the medium or media.

in the development process. They support the arguments of Mowlana and Wilson by making a very strong point that traditional means of communication should be included in the planning of projects. Care should be taken to use these traditional means of communication in the right context, otherwise they may lose meaning for both the traditional society and the development effort. This calls for a "holistic" study of communication media used in a traditional society.

The main thesis of the new paradigm is participation in dialogical situations, where the benefactors and beneficiaries have equal status and enter into a dialogue (cf. Melkote, 1991:263). The culture, traditions, religion, history and other perspectives of the beneficiaries will therefore play an important role in the whole development effort.

2.6 The communication approach of the new paradigm

The dominant paradigm emphasised the role of economic growth in the development process, and disregarded the perspectives of the beneficiaries of the development process. The main thesis of the new paradigm is to provide a platform where development issues can be discussed by the benefactors and beneficiaries of development efforts. The aim is therefore to enhance participation of beneficiaries throughout the various stages of the development process. This means that parties are entering the communication process on an equal footing, and that both agree that they can learn from each other. "Learning to listen and listening to learn", is often quoted to describe the process (cf. Russell, 1992).

Servaes (1995:45-46) argues that this approach "stresses the importance of cultural identity of local communities and of democratisation and participation at all levels, international, national, local and individual." The participatory model overcomes stereotyped thinking, promotes understanding of diversity and plurality, and of the dignity and equality of people, encourages reciprocal collaboration, listening, respect, honesty, commitment and trust, and has faith in people's capacity to decide for themselves. In an authentic participation process no one person will dominate the

process of communication, and people in powerful positions might lose status and power in favour of the majority of the participants. Equitable sharing of political and economic power will lead to structural changes in the redistribution of power. New policies for communication and development should therefore be drawn up.

Face-to-face communication forms the basis of this process, with the implication that the development communicator will spend more time in the field to encourage participation and build trust and rapport. "Continued contact, meetings, commitments, keeping promises and follow-ups between visits is important. Development of social trust precedes task trust. Both parties will need patience". The communication process and the exchange of meanings is the focus of this approach, as compared to the transmission of information in the diffusion approach. The communicator makes way for a 'receiver-centric' orientation where the emphasis is on 'meaning sought'. The focus shifts from creating a need for information (persuasion) to supplying information where there is a need (information exchange). Development workers respond, rather than dictate. Social relational patterns and social institutions will be changed by the process of communication with the joint aim of development (Servaes, 1995:46).

During the 1960s many scholars presented the two-step flow of information, firstly to community leaders and then to the rest of the public as an explanation of how development information can be spread. During the 1970s a shift towards indigenous ways of spreading information were "discovered to be best", such as at church meetings and in marketplaces (Mowlana & Wilson, 1990:58). The medium most often used is face-to-face communication in an interpersonal communication situation, including workshops, formal and informal (community) meetings and follow-up visits, where all people present have the opportunity to participate in knowledge-sharing.

2.7 Summary

The dominant paradigm of development is based on tested West European and North American models of development, which are largely based on the premise of modernisation. Success was measured in economic terms, such as the GNP and per capita income, and when this theory was applied to other countries, the innate circumstances, local traditions, and culture were not taken adequately into account. The communication approach complementing such centrally planned development efforts is usually top-down, authoritarian, and prescriptive, and information is broadcast via the mass media. After three decades of development aid to the Third World, it was realised that development didn't take place according to plan and researchers suggested alternative approaches to development and the role of communication in such initiatives. During the 1970s a participatory approach to development emerged and gained field and status due to its successes. These newer efforts favoured a participatory approach to development, and supported the small media, where two-way communication on an equal basis between beneficiaries of development actions and facilitators is possible.

The contrast in argument between the two main development paradigms (the *dominant* and the *new* paradigm) is clearly indicated in their approaches to the communication aspect of development initiatives. The dominant paradigm uses the concept of Development Communication (DC), and the new paradigm coincides with Development Support Communication (DSC). DC represents a top-down approach to development with the focus on the mass media, while DSC embraces a participatory approach to any development efforts and the so-called small media are used, often in a small group context. DSC turned the focus to the party which was called "the recipient of the message" in the pre-seventies DC era (Melkote, 1991; and Malan, 1996:5).

Following the work of Jayaweera, Jayaweera and Amunugama, Ascroft and Masilela, and Melkote, Malan (1996:34-35) uses the following table to indicate the difference in approach of DC and DSC:

"Top-down" Development and Development Communication	"Grassroots" Development and Development Support Communication
<p>Source: University-based</p> <p>Structure: Top-down; authoritarian</p> <p>Paradigm: Dominant paradigm of externally directed social change</p> <p>Level: International and national</p> <p>Agency: Controlling or mediating agents and benefactors, directed from "First World" to "Third World"</p> <p>Ideological basis: Economic, cultural, political and other interests of controlling stakeholders predominate</p> <p>Community involvement: <i>Beneficiaries who receive capacity building by being trained</i></p> <p>Community participation: Passive recipients who follow instructions of <i>outsider experts</i></p> <p>Communication paradigm: Linear SMR (sender-message-receiver) paradigm: an expert sender conveys the development message through an effective medium to the beneficiaries</p> <p>Media: Big media: TV, radio and newspapers</p> <p>Technology: "High tech", computer-based, controlled and operated by experts</p> <p>Information dissemination: Centralised, e.g. at community centres</p> <p>Cultural contexts: Universal modern culture, to be shared by all nations. Values, perceptions, etc., of controlling agents dominate</p> <p>Source of knowledge: Technical-scientific knowledge. "Expertise" of trained developers.</p> <p>Economic paradigm: Development is economically based and aimed at improving the physical quality of life</p> <p>Research: Complicated, bast quantitative surveys, inconclusive results</p> <p>Effects: To create a climate of acceptance by beneficiaries for exogenous ideas and innovations</p> <p>Development paradigm: Beneficiaries "developed" and "empowered" by benefactors</p>	<p>Development agency-based</p> <p>Horizontal knowledge-sharing between benefactors and beneficiaries</p> <p>Participatory paradigm of an endogenously directed quest to maintain control over basic needs</p> <p>Grassroots</p> <p>Community-based agency. Roles of benefactors and beneficiaries are interlined</p> <p>Interests and needs of the community predominate</p> <p><i>Internal control and capacity building by means of self-training</i></p> <p>Active planners who decide on the expertise and <i>information needed</i></p> <p>Dialogic, horizontal and contextual communication, emancipatory and interactive</p> <p>Small media: video, film strips, traditional media, group and interpersonal communication</p> <p>Minimum technology needed, locally based</p> <p>Endogenous development, based on the traditional way of life and values of the society</p> <p>Unique cultural identity of the community. Development in symbiosis with world view</p> <p>Indigenous cultural knowledge framework. Wisdom of locals acknowledged</p> <p>Development is holistically aimed at improving the entire quality of life; economic considerations are only one of the aspects</p> <p>Easy, limited research of a qualitative and participative nature</p> <p>Create a climate of mutual understanding between benefactors and beneficiaries</p> <p>Self development and self-empowerment</p>

Table 1: Summary of the DC and DSC approaches

The main emphasis of DC is top-down communication, which is authoritarian, and is a process of external control directed at social change on a large-scale, using the mass media with the effect of creating a climate of acceptance of ideas and innovations generated outside the beneficiary/developing community. The DSC approach, on the other hand, is a process of knowledge-sharing between the benefactors and beneficiaries of development, and the process is horizontal, indicating that these two parties are seen as equal partners in the process, one not being superior, creating a climate of mutual understanding between them. This participatory process is aimed at giving the beneficiaries the opportunity to take control over their own basic needs, using small scale projects and small media, not mass media, often focusing on interpersonal communication. The interests and needs of the community predominate in the DSC process and the community's involvement entails internal control and capacity building by means of self-training. The community is therefore an active planner in its own development. The communication paradigm is therefore dialogic, horizontal, emancipatory and interactive, using small media, often in a small group context and interpersonal or face-to-face communication. The minimum technology is therefore needed, assuring community control and not external dependency. The method of information dissemination is not external, but based on the traditional way of life and values of the society, suggesting that the unique identity of the community doesn't need to be sacrificed for development, but that a symbiosis of views is possible. The wisdom of local people are therefore acknowledged and the cultural framework respected. The aim of development is to improve the entire quality of life, meaning self-development and self-empowerment, and economic considerations are only one of the aspects of development.

Malan (1996:5 and 14) argues that the discredited older DC model has a large number of undesirable characteristics, but asks the questions whether large-scale development in South Africa can be divorced from mass communication where millions of people are in need of the most elementary information. He suggests that the negative aspects of the DC model can be used constructively within the DSC context, implying a combination of the mass media with the media approach of the DSC.

The following chapter suggests an integrated media approach be used in development programmes and information campaigns, by combining the mass media with small media techniques. For a development information campaign to be successful, the cultural communication activities within a community, including the traditions and existing myths in which people believe, should be understood and taken into account. The following chapter will investigate the importance and nature of some of these innate characteristics of African communities, with the aim of designing a communication strategy for information campaigns.

Chapter 3

Communication and small scale development projects

"... any communication strategy which completely ignores the values that underlie the context in which the people communicate cannot produce the attitude and behaviour changes necessary for rural development. (...) In traditional societies or rural communities, direct face-to-face communication is valued as the most reliable and authentic form of communication. In such societies, the purpose of communication is usually to promote social harmony rather than individual well-being; to reinforce stability and order rather than to bring about change and growth. (...) The thrust of the integrated approach, therefore, is to feed the interpersonal and traditional network with information that would generate discussions which, in turn, would lead to intelligent understanding of development objectives and each person's role in achieving these objectives. (...) In rural Africa, no communication strategy is likely to succeed unless it takes into account the five basic principles that underlie the system of traditional communication. These are: the supremacy of the community; respect for old age; utility of the individual; sanctity of authority; and religion as a way of life." (Moemeka, 1991:24-25.)

3.1 Introduction

The Development Support Communication (DSC) coincides with a participatory approach, where developers and beneficiaries are involved in dialogue and a two-way process of communication, creating a climate of mutual understanding between benefactors and beneficiaries. This implies empowering communities to take advantage of their newly gained status and power, for the best development possibilities of the community at large, such as self-development and self-empowerment. The mass media may serve as a source of information, but internalising of new information is more likely to take place when face-to-face communication is involved. For this reason many Third World countries are turning to a symbiosis of mass media and the so-called small media, including community media, the performing arts and communication in the small group context. The advantage of this method doesn't offend traditional communities' values and customs, and it provides information in a familiar setting and via familiar media.

Development is never free of ideological baggage (Esteve, 1992 and Melkote, 1991, as quoted by Malan, 1996:14) from both the facilitator of the process and the

perceptions of the beneficiaries. Recent scholars (Servaes, 1995:46-47; Malan, 1996:5-6, 14-17; and Melkote, 1991:262-270) indicated the participatory nature of DSC which suggests a dialogue, or two-way process of communication, where the roles of the communicator and recipients are interchangeable. Such participatory communication should elicit open discussion, and self-expression and could serve as a tool for the diagnosis of community problems, open-ended self-expression and self-management for self-development. This open process will necessarily be linked to a community's cultural identity, because it focuses on a limited sphere, such as working in a time frame within a community. Community and culture-based media which are interactive and participatory will therefore have a far better reach than the mass media.

The difference between small scale (grassroots or community development) and large scale (regional or national development) will be referred to in the next two chapters. This chapter deals with development taking place on a small and localised scale as suggested by the DSC paradigm. Such development often takes place at the community level. This chapter looks therefore at an application of DSC in community development and indicates the importance of each community's unique cultural characteristics.

3.2 Community development

The concept of "community development" has been defined in various ways since it was first used, but these have all followed the main trend of development theories, with an authoritarian top-down approach slowly giving way to a participatory approach. Although these two paradigms determine to a large extent the definition of the concept, this section concentrates on the more recent approach.

The conventional definition of development as "a process of directed, determined or controlled change leading to some form of economic growth, political autonomy and broad basis of social reconstruction" is long overdue (Coetzee, 1990:58). This older top-down approach involves the transfer of technology, and had little success and can

only be successful if it is people-orientated and not production-centred (Swanepoel, 1989:35-36). Swanepoel argues further that development should liberate human potential, and cannot emphasise production or the creation of infrastructure. Self-sustained development can only be reached if the focus falls on the development of human capacity, not when the focus is on the development of infrastructure.

In recent times community development has been seen as an improvement of the well-being and the quality of life of a community, with the aim of empowering community members to take control of their own lives, to take charge of their own destinies, fulfilling their potential and increasingly to take responsibility for the mobilisation and effective utilisation of resources (Bekker & Janeke, 1995:123-125; De Clercq, 1994:379; and Coetzee, 1990:58).

The participatory approach to development efforts, in contrast with the top-down approach, focuses not so much on the economic and material needs of a community, but on humanness and other abstract aims of development (Bekker & Janeke, 1995:123-124 and 140). Coetzee (1990:58-59) emphasise the core values of traditional societal structure, respect for the nature and personality of people, achieving a high self-esteem, assumes that people want fair treatment, social justice, respect for the cultural and social patterns of communities, and advancement through their own endeavours. Training for development is therefore a process which accepts the broader benefits of development without focusing on material needs, but rather helps people to develop a meaningful life. If a community's full participation is not elicited, and the community is not involved as an equal and active partner, its members cannot take over and sustain the development effort (De Clercq, 1994:379). The emphasis should rather be on the socio-political priorities of a community than on infrastructure, even though this may include the propagation of democratic processes, the encouragement of community cohesion, and the incorporation of strategies for solving their problems (Allwood, James & Rankin, 1990:39).

Kotzé and Swanepoel (1983:2-4) support the independent approach to community development, focusing on the following:

- local people have the right and responsibility to choose their own development objectives and make decisions
- *human social growth and improvement of local conditions can only take place when the community agrees to it*
- *lasting progress is only possible through local understanding, local initiative, local self-help and participation of the community*
- *developing the total community, thus a balanced development between physical and human resources*
- *outside resources (counselling and technical assistance) must be available.*

This independent approach will in essence agree with other scholars arguing that *community participation should include all spheres of a community and at all the phases of a development project, because only then the core of the problem can be addressed (cf. Coetzee, 1990:58; and Bekker & Jancke, 1995:135).*

Swanepoel (1989:39-40) argues that the concept of participation can easily become a meaningless slogan or catch-phrase and supports true participation. He gives four reasons why the true participation of all role players is necessary:

- the importance and necessity of using local expertise
- participation is a prerequisite for sustained development (they will maintain the programme)
- participation is a prerequisite for equitable development (community gets its fair share)
- it is part of the process of democratisation

Kubheka (1992:38-40) and Chesterson and Jordaan (1993:30 and 33) describe *community development programmes which were regarded as successful due to the implementation of a participatory approach. They argue that participation gave communities a sense of ownership, but in both cases the appropriate technology was supplied by the developing agents.*

DSC should be directed to individual and community development, but the problem is that community members experience a lack of power and status. Real development should develop the capacity of human beings, and empower and equip them with skills to develop themselves. If the communication strategy of the sharing of knowledge, status and information is followed, fundamental change and reorganisation of power structures should take place, and communities should be empowered to take the newly

gained power and use it for development as "equal" actors in development planning. Empowerment therefore results directly in people's participation in the decision-making processes (Melkote 1996:4-6; and Malan: 1996:18-19). Rensburg (1995:2) argues that paternalistic top-down development efforts which may be well-meant, often result in disempowerment rather than empowerment, because the integrity of the beneficiary is impaired, and it doesn't result in development or education.

Groenewald (1992:74-75) suggests that the mass media should take the social and cultural structures existing within a community into account during the planning processes. He supports the idea that the community should participate in the planning of a campaign. Methods to achieve this objective include involving society forums in setting up learning programmes, and encouraging community participation in creating mass media messages. He supports the democratisation and participation in decision-making processes by the community, regardless of their status. The main advantage of this approach is that no adaptation time is wasted on acquiring a new culture.

The main development areas that should be covered by DSC are, according to Malan (1996:12-13) socio-economics, economics, social and human resources (including capacity building/training, adult basic education, improvements in quality of life), infrastructure, environment, agriculture and institutional development. He suggests further that consultation with and involvement of community representatives (civics, CBOs, NGOs) to identify problems and problem-solving strategies, a workshop with community representatives to plan a self-analysis to determine strengths, weaknesses, skills resources, a needs assessment by means of a survey, impact studies, further follow-up workshops and actions within the community for strategic planning, shared resources, capacity building, addressing needs, the planning and training of facilitators for the implementation of projects, programmes and courses, introduction of guides for facilitators and organisations, and monitoring the first programmes and courses.

The participatory approach involves a fundamental change in the role of policy makers, facilitators and supervisors of community development programmes. According to Kakan, Nturihi and Kinyua (1988:4) they will have to:

- trust in the communities' ability to run their own affairs
- surrender their power to rural communities and leave decision making to them.
- listen to the community's hopes and wishes, to give them encouragement, by helping to clarify and analyse the root causes for the difficulties facing individuals and the whole community.
- challenge hastily proposed solutions and get people to think more critically and systematically about their proposals and plans;
- help them to learn to collect and analyse information before making decisions;
- get all who are involved to share ideas, views and pool their resources and energies to carry out their plans; to harmonise views and solve interpersonal problems;
- form organisations that have proper leadership and which examine and evaluate their performance to see how they work together so that they can make necessary changes.

This approach supports Eilers and Oepen (1990:310-315) and Schuitema (1994:125-126) who identified the needs to acquire a "critical" awareness of themselves.

Eilers and Oepen (1990:310-315) argue that criteria for participatory communication strategies and community development should be self-reliance, fostering the "initiative for self-development, critical consciousness and a commitment to values related to social justice for all members of their communities". A critical reflection of the process, self-discovery, strengthening the participant's self-esteem and identity by self-expression and interaction and mirroring and reflecting reality is achieved only through a participatory process. They argue that Freire's conscientization of "education for liberation" is, an expression of "naive" consciousness. Through the critical and analytical investigation of the theme, a "critical" consciousness develops which ultimately helps in the self-expression and analysis of the problem in question.

Eilers and Oepen (1990:309-310) summarise the participatory development communication approach as being horizontal, democratic, and "through media, developed and managed by people who share values and goals in a limited geographically-defined area. As the people participate in this process as planners, producers, and performers, the media involved become an informing, educating, and entertaining means for an exchange of views and news, not a transmission belt from one source to another. In such a process, the *entry point* for any communication intervention has to be found in the conceptual elements embedded in a community's

learning methods, cultural expression, and forms or media of communications. They argue that empirical evidence "indicates that social transformation occurs where dialogical communication processes at the local level have been initiated at development *entry points*, and spread from there to self-help activities in other areas, both geographically and sectorally". The entry points in the Population Development case study will be further explored in the following chapters.

3.3 The development facilitator

In the participatory approach, the role of the development worker in community development is no longer seen as a *change agent* who propagates change (which is in line with the top-down DC approach), but more as a *facilitator* who merely facilitates change (DSC).

Ewert, Yaccino and Yaccino (1994:20) argue that the most important qualities of effective facilitators are: discernment (wisdom), patience, people-orientation, respect, cultural sensitivity, flexibility, and balance, and the skills that make them effective are: interpersonal communication, the ability to gain confidence, listening skills, group process skills, the ability to ask questions, and the understanding of the social process, in order to understand the communities in which they operate.

The task of the development facilitator is, according to Malan (1996:25) explained in the UNESCO World Commission report *Celebrating Our Creative Diversity* as to:

- "strengthen group identity, social organisation and the community
- generate social energy
- overcome feelings of inferiority and alimentation
- teach and raise awareness
- promote creativity and innovation
- foster democratic discourse and social mediation
- help cope with the challenges of cultural differences
- enter the economy directly through the production of goods and services."

Kotzé and Swanepoel (1983:2-4) summarise the co-operation between the development facilitator, beneficiary and benefactor, in terms of method and process, whereby the process is seen as "the attitude and action of a community in its own improvement", and the method viewed as "the efforts from outside to create the attitude and set the action in motion in order to enable a community to improve itself."

Kerr (1996:10-11) argues that if cultural revitalisation are to be linked to effective programmes of community renewal, the facilitator should preferably come from the community, so that he will not enter the development situation from a position of superiority, but rather from one of humility in an atmosphere of mutual cultural exchange. Facilitators should also be aware that the problems of literacy, primary health care, agriculture, crime, Aids, drugs and other manifestations of underdevelopment are all interrelated and linked to social stratification. If culture is to be used in development programmes, facilitators must realise that culture cannot be reduced to a vehicle for simplistic sectoral campaigns. This is a reason why DSC suggests two-way communication on an equal basis, where the community "must retain or develop cultural forms which contain the complexity required to identify linkages between very different areas of human activity", preventing assaults by external agents. Kerr therefore suggests that the power be taken away from mediating institutions to strong civic organisations created by communities themselves, creating social confidence and cohesion. Kerr (1996:2-8) illustrates some cases where governments hi-jacked development messages by NGOs, for their own political gain, where villagers are intimidated and scared to criticise government health programmes in front of authorities and power structures. He also suggests that if a facilitator of development receives financial remuneration for services, the trust and relationship between the facilitator and the community may be traduced, and if participants of projects are paid, their views are very often altered to portray what they think the donors want to hear.

If such a facilitator lives in the community where a development project might be implemented, he will not only be sensitive to the culture of the community, but will understand it. He will also be a source of valuable information which the development planner or NGO do not have.

3.4 Development and culture

Melkote (1991:203-204) indicates that culture was seen as being in conflict with modernisation before the 1970s, but was later seen as providing a context for development and change, and was necessary to maintain a certain degree of continuity within a community. He argues that the fact that people survived centuries under colonisation proves that culture cannot be rigid, but is flexible, and that it is constantly in interaction with other elements in a society, and is therefore continuously changing.

Assimilation of a culture, is the process when a culture is suppressed and people are forced to accept a new culture. Although cultures are constantly in contact with one another, and although interaction may lead to influence or change in one or both cultures (cf. Herzkovits, 1958:10), acculturation was (probably unintentionally) one of the outcomes of the dominant paradigm.

Berry (1980:9-12) argues that for acculturation to take place, contact between two or more autonomous cultures is necessary, resulting in a change in one or more of the cultures. In practice the dominant culture usually influences the other, often causing conflict (cf. Padilla, 1980:48). Berry (1980:9-12) further suggests that a three-phase course usually takes place during the process of acculturation namely, contact, conflict and adaptation, which may take place on an individual or a group level. The concept of acculturation has been used since the late nineteenth century, but since the 1930s it has gained momentum through the works of Redfield, Linton and Herzkovits (1936). Herzkovits (1938) and Linton (1940) (as quoted by Berry, 1980:9; and Bartel, 1989:176). Bartel (1989:176) reports that earlier scholars argued for a linear direction of cultural change, but modern studies support reciprocal change (often) in both cultures.

Many scholars within the DSC context define both "culture" and "development" in dynamic terms, meaning a process of change, growth, progress, continual renewal and even evolution and maturation (cf. Malan, 1996:8-9, 21-22; Bennett, 1996:2-3; and Jencks, 1993:157-158). "Development" is also widely used in optimistic terms, such as improving on a particular set of needs, improving the present situation, people are

helped to help themselves through a process of change, including the development of skills, self-image and courage, and even raising expectation to new levels and getting involved to reach those new expectations (Malan, 1996:9). Rensburg (1995:2) supports the explanation of development being a change to maturity, growth and gradual evolution.

Coetzee (1990:59) argues that development should also improve general human well-being, and should create a desire for people to work towards achieving an increased well-being by using existing economic and social structures in a way that complement development. *It is therefore beneficial to spread information, knowledge, awareness about the benefits of innovation, creativity and material investment.* This will provide opportunities for participation, improve social justice, education, poverty, and inequality. He also argues that community development can play an important role in social reconstruction and can help to create a sphere of meaningful existence.

Klitgaard (1996:2-13) discusses many studies undertaken that examine the success of development messages, with the aim of finding a model of taking the socio-cultural setting of a community into account when planning development and educational programmes. He found that methods that work for one culture group, will not necessarily work for the next, and might even be the reason for failure, whereby he illustrates the importance of cultural differences when creating development messages. He therefore argues that an in-depth study of each culture group involved in development efforts should be made, before the planning of such efforts takes place.

From the above explanations of development as well as looking at it in the DSC context, development has an element of self-expression within a culturally sensitive context with the aim of improving human well-being. Development is also dynamic, in the sense of changing to a more desirable situation.

3.4.1 Exploitation of culture

Various scholars agree that it might be a good idea to combine local culture and existing community media with new development information, but warn against the exploitation of such cultures.

Malan (1996:22 and 26-28) argues that local culture and knowledge should be combined with new information to achieve culturally based community participation development projects. The world views, values, local knowledge, traditions (especially orality), customs (hierarchy, status and social position), beliefs (presence and guidance of forefathers), and symbols (e.g. Carl Jung's personal and collective unconscious) existing in communities, should be respected and taken into account in development efforts. He warns against the misuse of cultural master codes, particularly of race, class and gender, to marginalize and disempower, elitism, age, education, illiteracy, and that technological expertise, cultural and political forms of hegemony, imperialism should be dealt with very carefully.

Traditional means of communication (drama, dance, storytelling, and music, rumours, and gatherings at the marketplace and other places of communicative exchange) are often specific to contexts. If it is used out of context, it loses its value and impact. The study of these contexts, communication structures and related communication processes in cultural units can be described as *ethnocommunication*. In a traditional society the means of expression is part of society, culture and tradition. The social structures and the value system determine the weight and importance of each communication medium and which communicators are allowed to express what messages during which situations and in what contexts. If the underlying value system and tradition of a culture is not understood, the communication systems relevant in that community cannot be understood (Eilers & Oepen, 1990:304-306).

Melkote (1991:214-216) also warns that some culturally sensitive messages, if not used discreetly, may harm folk media, and he suggests that efforts should be made to preserve the originality of each form of folk media. He indicates with the aid of

Ranganath's writings on Indian and Chinese case studies (1980) that the more rigid folk media are usually ritualistic, very religious and reject all foreign (development) messages. The semi-flexible media might, through certain characters or situations, allow limited insertion of foreign messages, and the flexible media will provide unlimited opportunities for inserting development-orientated messages.

Kerr (1996:2-8) highlights problems with government and NGO interventions in community cultural processes such as using and modifying indigenous culture to carry development messages, especially in the case of using drama and theatre. He warns against the abuse of culture by aliens, for example of initiation or wedding songs, motivating the use of pit latrines or condoms, because such abuse may lead to aggression and a fundamentalist swing back to the protection of tradition, which may include the overuse of using cultural weapons and witch-hunting.

3.5 Community media

To help someone develop a "critical" self-awareness and the ability to place new information in perspective with existing information can, according to the newer approaches of development and DSC arguments, best take place in a situation where people feel secure. Community media, folk media and popular art forms provide that type of environment.

The following section explains a number of community media, folk media and popular arts forms which are relevant to the Population Development case study discussed in later chapters. All these media can either be manipulated in order to modify or change people's behaviour which is in line with DC thinking, or they can be used to help people to develop a critical awareness of problems and build human capacity (DSC) (cf. Kakan, *et al.*, 1988:2).

3.5.1 Folk media

Folk media, make up a component of community media and involve mainly traditional¹, cultural and functional art forms such as the performing arts, music, dance and drama, myths, legends and folk tales, skits, poetry, proverbs, riddles and recitals, which serve as a vehicle for common folk to express the cultural and aesthetic values of their society. These art forms, using face-to-face communication, and gesture, movement and speech that are simple, popular, unsophisticated and down-to-earth, appeal to and involve individual ordinary community members, as well as offering social entertainment, encouraging debate and heightens the level of awareness (Osiako, 1992:1-3).

Kakan *et al.* (1988:3-9) argue that folk media should be used in development efforts mainly because they succeed in encouraging community involvement and participation, and in developing the community whilst members are taking part in such cultural art forms by giving them the opportunity to voice their opinions. Folk media are also culturally familiar and accessible to individuals, are both serious and entertaining, avoid top-down authoritarian passing on of information, build a community consciousness of their own abilities and needs, bring villagers together in re-examining their situation, make people aware of their needs, and stimulate discussion, develop artistic talent and build community groups, overcome the barriers of illiteracy, are accessible they don't use expensive or complicated technology, offer repeat sessions to reinforce messages, provide equal educational opportunity regardless of age, gender or social stance, reduce chances of suspicion to messages, can address problems from more than one perspective, and provide immediate feedback. Folk media distribute information in a social context (entertainment and community get together) and through a more acceptable channel (community media) and are therefore regarded as more successful than the mass media, as proven in various studies, including a Population Development programme in Kenya.

¹ Cannonici (1989:1) explains the term "traditional" in the sense that it has been used for a long time, but it has not necessarily been produced elsewhere in exactly the same manner. This applies for all oral performances which in turn, form part of traditional media.

In the Population Development case study, various forms of folk media are used including skits, music, arts, dance and a small drama. These were found to be very popular amongst the audiences, who participated in song and dance (see chapter 6).

3.5.2 Audience participation

"When performed in its rightful context, the music ... nearly always carries information which ... is intended to elicit some form of response from the listeners among whom, or for whom, it is performed. The process of music-making therefore serves as a communication system in traditional African societies." (Osmondi, 1992:21).

Ekwueme (1992:6-18) argues that there is a thin line in Africa between the performer and his audience, and audience participation forms an integral part of a performance, for instance when children partake in song when adults tell them stories. "Audience participation is so much a part of the African tradition that even in cases where the communication is supposed to be in one direction such as in a film in the cinema house, the African audience insists on participating by communicating in loud shouts to the picture of the actor shouting jubilant cheers in encouragement of the hero, or warning him of dangers that lie ahead, all this as if he could react to them intelligently." (Ekwueme, 1992:19).

Cannonici (1989:1) argues that a Zulu performer doesn't have a fixed text to go by, and his performance changes and develops to provide entertainment to the audience. He is therefore guided by the needs of the audience, the social situation, and events of concern to the home, the village or the nation.

3.5.3 The musical performance

According to Ekwueme (1992:12-15) the interrelationship of the performing arts in the traditional African society may be illustrated by translating the word *Egwu*. In the Igbo

language it means dance, music, play, game, joke, fun and drama. Music plays a very important role in traditional African life, and is the principal form of recreation in many villages, and is enjoyed by young and old. Dancing is inseparable from music and drama. Rhythm is expressed in both the tones used (music) and gestures (dancing). In traditional African societies, music "is the life of a living spirit working within those who dance and sing" and " ... music accompanies the African from the cradle to the grave ... " writes Ekwueme (1992:7-13), illustrating the importance of music in traditional life by sketching how music accompanies all aspects of life. Dancing usually accompanies music, and is an extension of the message. The movements conform to the mood and the pace of dance-drama. Sometimes a commentator, lead singer or "chorus" is used (Kakan *et al.*, 1988:26-27).

Music has, according to some African scholars, an educational and entertainment value. Musical performance in traditional society motivates audience members to achieve certain goals, either by eliciting physical responses, or by serving as an educational medium in the socialisation process; and secondly it entertains, provides aesthetic entertainment, personal involvement and social interaction (Osmond, 1992:22-23). The function of the performing arts in Nigeria and the rest of Africa is entertainment, to laugh even at oneself in the hope that better times lie ahead, even in the distant future (Ekwueme, 1992:16). Amuka (1992:34) argues that a song containing the right words and melody would seduce or entice the audience to partake by dancing or singing, because people do not sing for the sake of singing. "Artistic, melodious and intentionally infectious sound has far-reaching effects if it enjoys a cultural base familiar to its listeners." ... "Given the required content and objective and adequately rewarded, the singer stands to communicate better than numerous screaming posters and blaring amplifiers mounted on Landrovers. The rhythmic patterns of song give information and knowledge, and a human voice as it passes through the singer's body and thus reduces any semblance of artificiality."

Since music is interrelated with the other performing arts in traditional African societies, it is often used for educational purposes, whilst entertaining. Myers (1996:1-2) emphasises the role of entertainment in the educational process. She explains the

concept of *edutainment* as a helpful communication tool for educating people via entertainment, when individuals' ideas, actions, feelings are shaped through behaviour mimetic of role models. She argues that the origin of edutainment is fairy tales and mythology. She gives the example of Michael Sabedu's telenovellas as a symbiosis of entertainment and education in Mexico. The advantages of edutainment are that it reaches large audiences, uses cultural archetypes and stereotypes, engages the emotions, and supports desirable social behaviour assisting the social learning process, leading to an informed society.

Ekwueme (1992:16-19) suggests employing the performing arts and comedy in development efforts, since they have been proven powerful tools of interpersonal or mass communication in traditional societies of Africa. He refers to comedy and the eagerness of the audience to participate in cultural awareness activities. This can be seen in the increasing popularity of radio and television comedy shows especially in urban centres. He motivates development planners and creative artists to experiment, evaluate and assess, and if proved effective, adopts and disseminates the employment of the performing arts and other folk media as instruments of communication towards the successful implementation of specific policies in Africa. Kakan *et al.* (1988:29) support this argument by saying that even folk songs have become common with choir groups, either using traditional or Western instruments such as acoustic guitars to accompany the piece.

Daley and Netting (1994:101) suggest that community development is more art than science, and therefore drama can serve as a useful tool in development and the change agent should consider using drama to convey information. Folk theatre is not a traditional art form, combining the three performing arts, music, dance and drama, supported by the plastic arts of costume and scenery in a truly integrated idiom (Ekwueme, 1992:17).

Cannonici (1989:I-IV) supports the argument that myth and folktales incorporate change, because traditionally in Zulu communities, the performer will adapt stories to suit in the existing needs of the audience, usually relating them to current situations.

He classifies folktales in myths, legends, animal folktales, entertainment and educational folktales, trickster stories, and stories explaining natural phenomena (cf. Cannonici, 1993). He argues that folktales are often used in an educational sense, where the grandmother would through folktales help in the education and socialisation of children. This medium combines joy and entertainment with education especially for children. Information may be presented in a humoristic way, but often contains much deeper lying answers to philosophical questions.

Kenyan audiences rated a sincere interest on the part of the audience as the main aspect determining the credibility of a speaker. According to Mbennah (1996:10) this manifests in the following seven factors (in order of importance): speaking skills (performance), vitality, physical appearance (clothes, hair, accessories, make-up), orientation (interest in audience), qualification (determined by age, experience and training), objectivity and moral values. The relevance of these characteristics applicable to traditional societies should be taken in account, when the presenter of any edutainment projects is chosen.

3.5.4 The "new" society

The traditional society still exists in some areas, but is often changing or has changed already. Such a changed society is called by Osmondi (1992:24-28) a "new" society, where the traditional forms of the popular arts have changed. As a society changes, the performer also has to change his act, to be appropriate in the new society. Traditional music has a specific message, but once performed out of context loses this meaning, and if now performed even in the right context, has a lesser meaning. Occasions of music are eliminated or modified in this new society, and include night clubs, dance halls, theatres, cultural villages, tourist and national sites, churches and radio and television. The audience is usually a cross section of different societies, for example a burial attended not by tribe only, but also by friends outside the traditional society. Often the original meaning has changed, for example a hunting dance is now a poaching dance.

The neo-traditional, foreign and even the traditional musician often sing in the *lingua franca*, and they compose music to which the audience will be able to relate in terms of the *musical lingua franca*, such as Western scales, harmonic progressions and rhythmic patterns and Western instruments (guitar, accordion). The reason why performances are attended is now sheer entertainment. Audience members with links to the traditional background of the music will receive the message sent by the performer, as well, if the messages are not modified beyond recognition (Osmondi, 1992:27). Pop music is occasionally used in folk media activities, since the younger generation finds it appealing, often in combination with African rhythms such as rumbah, samba, chakacha, and benga, depending on the target audience (Kakan *et al.*, 1988:29).

The mass media (especially films, cartoons, radio and television programmes, phonograph records and tapes) can be employed to reach the masses and the performing arts should contribute to achieve even more effective communication (Ekwueme, 1992:17). Although contemporary communication consists of print and electronic media, almost completely excluding oral tradition, it cannot be successful if it stands totally apart from the oral model, because orality remains the base of human communication (Amuka, 1992:31-32).

3.6 Summary

The dominant development paradigm negates the value of human beings living in a developing country/community, because their views on development are not taken into account. The benefactor plans development from outside the community, and then diffuses development information to the community, with the hope that "they" will develop. Following the evident development failures of the dominant paradigm (top-down DC approach), the DSC perspective, with its focus on participation, became the obvious alternative. Since it is impractical to use the DSC approach on large scale

projects due to the extended time frame and high costs involved , it is suggested that the DSC approach is used in small scale projects, such as on a community level.

The DSC approach suggests that community development should involve as many participants as possible and should focus on the development of human capacity. The DC approach on the other hand focuses on infrastructure and economic growth. The DSC approach suggests that in order to achieve self-sustaining development, people should be assisted to do an analysis of their situation, which will lead to self-development and self-empowerment. Some aspects of the DSC might be difficult to apply to community development, including the issue of shared status and importance in terms of decision-making, planning and access to funding. The DSC suggests a process of democratisation, implying that the opinion of the donor, who might invest thousands of rands in a project, carries the same weight as an illiterate person living in a rural area. This might cause problems for some people who are used to an authoritarian decision-making situation especially if they are the persons taking decisions (cf. Melkote, 1996). Often benefactors donate money with "strings attached" which strengthens their status and authoritarian position, often because of their claims to greater knowledge in the field of development, negating the opinions of the beneficiaries of development. In order to achieve development as proposed by the DSC model, the facilitators should be aware of the cultural aspects of the community. The DSC approach suggests using culturally acceptable communication methods, such as existing community media and other small media of communication. Facilitators should not operate from a position of status, but share equal status with the beneficiaries, in order to learn from them in terms of their development needs and the problems they would like to be addressed. In order to create a climate of mutual understanding between these two parties, communication should take place in a small-group context (cf. Melkote, 1991:263).

In traditional African societies, music (song), dance and other forms of the performing arts usually are interrelated and combined (Ekwueme, 1992:122-15). Various scholars suggest using elements evident in these forms of art to convey development messages, because many of these art forms are used in traditional societies to educate and to

entertain. These performances are not static and they change in order to convey a new message (cf. Amuka, 1992:31-32; and Ekwueme, 1992:17). Care should however be taken not to lower the value of these forms of traditional media by using them in the wrong context. In the spirit of the DSC approach the adaptation of such traditional and other community media should be undertaken by the community themselves (Melkote, 1991:214-216; and Malan, 1996:22-28). Osiako (1992:2-3) supports the use of folk media in the development context. He claims folk media reach very remote areas, are the cheapest media to install and to manage, provide the cheapest entertainment, and conserve the cultural heritage of people.

A combination of mass media, small media and traditional communication methods are suggested by many scholars. For a community to be informed, Tucker and Napier (1994:80), suggest that traditional interpersonal methods of diffusion of information should provide the educational needs, whilst the mass media should fulfil a supporting role in the process, especially with timely information. Tucker and Napier propose that both traditional interpersonal media and the mass media should fulfil the educational information needs of a community in the development process, in order to involve more members of the community, than would have been reached with only one of the two methods. Kakan *et al.* (1988:7) support this combination of media and notes that Kenya's FPPS programme used poetry and verse speaking, story telling, idioms, drama, skits, role play, song, dance, choral music, and pop songs successfully in its Population Development campaigns.

In the "new" society which forms after people have moved away from their traditional land (cf. Osmondi, 1992:24-28), community centres can provide a setting in which performances and the exchange of information on a social or formal basis can take place within an urban environment. Malan (1996:6) takes the usage of small media further, giving community development one step further, arguing that multi-purpose community and information or resource centres will play a major role in the dissemination of development information and suggests that the DSC role in these centres will have to be studied further. Other media which may be employed in development efforts are community mass meetings (imbiso, open forums, mass body

meetings i.e. public speech), existing social structures, traditional leaders, stokvels and arranging workshops in small groups.

This chapter suggests that the DSC model is ideal for small scale, community or grassroots development projects, but that it is impractical and too costly to implement on large scale and national projects. The next chapter will investigate how some of the characteristics of the DSC approach can be implemented in large scale development projects.

Chapter 4'

Large scale development projects and information campaigns

4.1 Introduction

The older approach to development places emphasis on the development of infrastructure, modernisation through urbanisation, dissemination of innovations and technology, and measures success in economic terms such as GNP and per capita income. The communication approaches accompanying this perspective of development is linear. This means that the dissemination of information takes place in one direction, from a communicator to a recipient upon whom this information will have an effect. Social change is the ultimate goal of this type of development, and change agents are employed by external developers.

In South Africa this method of top-down dispersion of information is politically stigmatised as an alignment with the previous government, which is seen as authoritarian, undemocratic and pro-apartheid, looking after the interests of one group only, and not seeking the best (development) option for all the different groups in the country. The connotation attached to this approach is therefore unacceptable in South Africa, and in terms of the democratic DSC approach, and is stigmatised especially with the target audiences of development programmes, which often provides the main reason for failure and suspicion. The problem faced by developing agents is to find ways of dispersing information in a politically acceptable way by incorporating the democratic principles of participation and dialogue, and to stay within a specific budget.

The objectives of the newer approaches to development and the DSC thinking, focus on the development of the human being, sometimes called development of "human resources", in order to develop a mindset through a process of participation, dialogue

¹ Sections of chapter 4 were included in a paper presented at a conference held at the HSRC (cf. Burger, 1997b).

and two-way communication, with the help of a facilitator in a small group context. There is still some support for the DC approach, but there is growing support for a combination of the aspects and characteristics of DSC and DC (cf. Malan, 1996:14; Moemeka, 1991:21-27; and Coldevin, 1991:34-39).

The previous chapter indicated that the participatory DSC approach to development efforts can be applied to a large extent on small scale community development projects, although the issues of power and status might cause conflict between benefactors and beneficiaries. If the development facilitator understands the culture, or is part of the culture of the community, it might enhance the understanding between the various people involved in the development process.

If the benefactor of development who operates from within the frame of reference of the newer approaches needs to communicate a large volume of information to a community, he may find himself in a communication approach dilemma. There are two reasons for this dilemma, firstly the nature of dissemination of information is inherently top-down, coinciding with the DC approach, and secondly it is almost impossible to run a campaign on a national scale by only making use of two-way communication in a face-to-face dialogical setting. It is therefore not practical to apply a pure DSC approach in large scale projects, mainly because of the high costs involved in small group discussions, and the time it will take to have such small group discussions throughout a country.

This chapter will investigate the possibility to combine the certain aspects of the DSC and DC approaches when planning large scale development projects, by analysing the objectives of several communication campaign methods. Most large scale communication campaigns divide the target audience into relatively homogeneous groups in terms of the aspects relevant to the communication campaign. Such market segmentation can only be done after thorough market research, and this chapter therefore looks briefly at market segmentation.

4.2 The development approach of communication campaigns

The thesis of the DSC approach is that the only type of development which is sustainable is that which focuses on human capacity building, which leads to self-development and self-empowerment. It is very difficult to align this objective for instance with development policy of a government which may argue that a certain social concept (such as a health issue), should be promoted and people should be convinced to change their attitude and behaviour, because of conflicting perspectives. Often it is thought that the diffusion of information will change behaviour, or that a change in behaviour will reflect the effectiveness of a campaign, but accepted research results indicate that "attitudes and overt behaviour are seldom uniformly consistent", in fact "a substantial body of research shows without question that they are usually uncorrelated" (DeFleur & Ball-Rokeach, 1989:179).

The main aim of a communication campaign will therefore be to create an awareness about a specific issue, and to elicit response from the audience, increasing the chances that people will start talking about the issues addressed in a campaign. The diffusion of information for large scale communication campaigns is inherently top-down, because it is usually formulated outside the society (such as in the case of a governmental campaign), and one-way communication is often used, especially if the mass media is used. These elements support in essence the authoritarian DC approach and there is a long list of projects which failed because of this paternalistic approach. Coldevin (1991:33-39) indicates a growing list of projects which have failed, due to insufficient information about the community's "real needs" and failure to uphold a "receiver-oriented" communication for the duration of a project.

Two communication approaches will be analysed in the next section, in order to identify in each case the underlying development approach.

Various approaches to the role of communication in development efforts have been explored. This section will investigate the concept of social marketing from the

communicator-orientated communication campaign approach, and then from an approach combining aspects of both the DC and the DSC paradigms.

4.2.1 Communicator orientated communication campaigns

Kotler and Zaltman (1971:3-12) introduced the concept of **social marketing** (also called *social cause marketing*, *idea marketing* or *public issue marketing*) in the early 1970s, arguing that the more the conditions of the social campaign resemble those of a product campaign, the more successful the social campaign, thus applying marketing principles and techniques to marketing a social idea. A product campaign uses the four planning variables (four P's) namely product, promotion, place and price and they argue that a campaign which markets a social idea should do the same (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971:3-12; and Nwosu, 1991:50-51). Rensburg and Angelopulo (1996:10) suggest that social marketing often targets the less accessible (hard-to-reach) parts of a community, suggesting behaviour which are often not desired by the recipients, and often challenging existing practices. Lovelock (1979) sees social marketing as an endeavour that encourages people to do something that will be beneficial to more than just themselves. Bloom and Novelli (1981:79) suggest that campaigns encouraging responsible drinking, safe driving, and smoking cessation can use product marketing techniques.

The social marketing idea does not allow for participation and the exchange of information, and is therefore inherently top-down. An external communicator decides what is good for a community, and then markets those ideas (often with the aim of behavioural change) to a target audience. The concept of social marketing can therefore be seen as an example of the DC approach.

The following section will briefly explain the product campaigns which Kotler and Zaltman refer to, by identifying the fundamental structure of the marketing model and the advertising model as examples of product campaigns.

The **marketing model** suggests the use of four basic elements, namely aspects around product, pricing, distribution (place) and promotion (Four P's). Rensburg and Angelopulo (1996:43-45) add the following steps for a marketing plan:

1. situation analysis
2. problems and opportunities analysis
3. setting of marketing objectives
4. *designing a marketing strategy*
5. implementation and evaluation of the campaign.

As another example the marketing model of Stapleton (1974) is used, suggesting the following activities to plan a marketing campaign:

- development of objectives
- preparation of the sales forecast
- appraisal of competitor profiles
- analysis of market shares
- introduction of new products
- operation of pricing decisions
- control of distribution
- establishment of customer services
- *schedule of publicity*
- evaluation of media
- utilisation of packaging
- organisation of personnel
- arrangement of budgets
- provision of contingencies
- realisation of plans.

Stapleton (1974:14) argues that each of the above elements should be measured against the costs involved because money is the common denominator in a marketing plan.

Criticism from a development perspective against these marketing models is that they are cost-orientated, and focus on the objectives of the communicator. Marketing models may therefore be seen as top-down as the needs of the recipients of the message are neglected and their input is not required, which is in line with DC thinking.

The **advertising model** usually advertises a product or service in a series of advertisements over a specific period. The target audience is usually referred to as the target market. This model concentrates on the commercial promotion of the product or service (Rensburg & Angelopulo, 1996: 45-46 and 50). The advertising model includes

a situational analysis, the setting of objectives and creative strategies, media planning, the sales promotion plan, approval from client and research testing the success of the campaign (cf. Sinclair & Barenblatt, 1990:129-130; and Bovée, Thill, Dovel & Wood, 1995:163-184). Jewler (1992:67-68) adds the importance of basic human needs which should be addressed in an advertising strategy. These include popularity, attractiveness, the possession of material things, the enjoyment of life through comfort and convenience, the creation of a happy family situation, to have love and sex, to have power, to avoid fear, to emulate those you admire, to have new experiences and to protect and maintain health. The **AIDA model** of advertising is used as a quick analysis whether an advertisement "looks right" in terms of the attention it commands, the interest and desire it creates in the product, and finally whether it inspires action from the consumer (Wilmshurst, 1989:201).

Criticism from a development perspective is that it is top-down and preoccupied with the needs of the communicator, which places the advertising models also in line with the DC perspective.

The field of public relations often has to create awareness or a positive image about an idea, issue or organisation, as in the case of the Public Relations Institute of South Africa which created the **PRISA model** (cf. Skinner & Von Essen, 1982:9-12). According to Mersham, Rensburg and Skinner (1995: 156) this model is often used in industry to promote the image of an organisation. The seven key stages used in the public relations programme are:

1. defining the situation / situation analysis and techniques used including a SWOT analysis (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats or problems)
2. setting objectives
3. determining the target audience
4. developing the message
5. determining public relations strategies and action plans
6. budgeting
7. reviewing and evaluation.

All the above communicator-orientated models involve similar stages and processes, namely:

- an analysis of the situation
- determining the goals
- media planning

- creating a promotion plan
- obtaining approval of the client
- implementation
- evaluation.

This amounts to a top-down, communicator-orientated approach with the aim of selling, persuading, and creating awareness, which is in line with DC thinking, because it does not take the needs or preferences of the recipients adequately in account. Further criticism from a DSC perspective is that these frameworks are inherently top-down, aiming at dissemination of information, and not the development of human beings, even if they are disseminating information about social issues.

4.2.2 Interactive model

A number of newer models were created to overcome the problems with one-way communication which the communicator-active models experience and to put them more in line with DSC thinking. The interactive model combines the DC and DSC approaches.

The interactive model of planning communication campaigns sees the needs and predispositions of the audience as fundamental in determining the campaign structure and message. According to this model meaning is shaped as a result of interaction (and negotiation) between the communicator and audience within a real and influential environment. This model therefore aligns the needs and predispositions of the audience with one or more of the objectives of the communicator, analyses the needs of the audience, and creates a message, which better supplies the needs of the audience than the competition and therefore creates a good relationship with the audience, and achieves the communication objectives set by the communication planner (Rensburg & Angelopulo, 1996:51-52).

The interactive model involves four phases, namely to assess the situation, to create the message, to implement and to evaluate the campaign. The only deviation from the communicator-active approaches in terms of the attention given to the beneficiary of

the development communication campaign places it more in line with the objectives of DSC than the previous models. The communication planner "negotiates" the relationship between himself and the target audience from a position of power, which shares characteristics with the authoritarian DC approach, although it seeks involvement from the beneficiary in dialogue which is in direct contrast with the other models. Further criticism from a DSC approach would be that this model and the models discussed in the previous section use "change agents" and not "facilitators" in the implementation phase, implying that decisions are not taken by beneficiaries, as they are not empowered to take those decisions. This model places more emphasis than the other models on the "felt needs" of the community, and downplays the objectives of the communication planner, by trying to overcome the conflict of interests between the objectives of the communication planner and the needs of the community. From a development perspective this model is a combination of the objectives of the DC and DSC approaches, seeking the realisation of the objectives of the communicator and to a large extent those of the community.

4.2.3 Information campaigns

Although the terms communication campaign, public communication campaign and information campaign are often interchangeable, this thesis would like to distinguish between communication campaigns and information campaigns. In this thesis a *communication campaign* refers to a purposive attempt to persuade or motivate behaviour change for the benefit of the individual or the society, communicate to a large audience during a given time period by means of a set of communication activities, usually through the mass media which is often complemented by interpersonal communication. Other objectives may be to inform, or to create awareness, to persuade, to urge to take action, and to educate. Rensburg and Angelopulo (1996:11) distinguish further between commercial campaigns (promoting tangible products and services with distinct profit motives) and non-commercial campaigns promoting ideals and ideologies with no profit motives, but indicate that both these types of campaigns are often based on the same theoretical foundations as explained in the previous sections.

In this thesis the term *information campaign* is used to indicate non-commercial communication with the purpose of disseminating information in order to inform, to create awareness, and to educate in a development context. This coincides with the DSC model, emphasising the development of the human being and self-development, because the element of persuasion is not associated with information campaigns. Information campaigns assist in the empowerment process, because they make information available, and people are left to take decisions which suit them best.

Information about social issues such as health care, Aids, population development, etc. is often released during large scale information campaigns. It is not possible to release information on a large scale, such as on a national or provincial level, using small group communication as suggested by the DSC approach. The diffusion of information is inherently top-down which is in line with the DC approach. In cases like this, it is often suggested to use the mass media in conjunction with the small media, combining the positive aspects of each paradigm (cf. Malan, 1996:14). The following section will investigate the characteristics of these media with reference to the DC/DSC discourse.

4.3 Towards an integrated media approach

4.3.1 The mass media and the small media

In a simplified communication model, a communicator communicates a message, conveys it through a medium to a recipient who receives the message, and the recipient reacts to the message through various means of feedback. Successful communication takes place if mutual understanding is reached between a communicator and a recipient. This process can be impaired by noise, which can be physical, emotional, or environmental, and can be caused by clashes in ideology, psychology, needs, paradigm or frame of reference (such as African vs. Western). The greater the difference between the two parties, the higher the effort will be to reach a point of mutual understanding (cf. Williams, 1992:24-26).

If mutual understanding is not sought, one-way communication without immediate and direct feedback takes place. The mass media is an example of such one-way communication, supporting the underlying theoretical assumption of the magic bullet theory which argues that the mass media has a direct influence on its audience. The dominant paradigm of development, coinciding with the DC approach, also supports this direct influence theory (cf. Malan, 1996:19; and Coldevin, 1991:31-33).

Williams (1989:32-36) argues that mass media messages are usually general but varied, because they are aimed at a large (anonymous) audience. Their greatest advantage is the vast multiplication of their messages. The mass media reaches large audiences simultaneously, but it compromises by supplying general messages to a large and heterogeneous audience. Usually the culture of the largest group in the audience or the dominant culture is emphasised.

Coldevin (1991:35) and Moemeka (1991:23) emphasise the following characteristics of the mass media:

- the broadcast media are fleeting, and messages should therefore be simple;
- the print media, on the other hand, could formulate more sophisticated and detailed messages, because the reader can refer back to the written piece;
- radio proves to be the most accessible and most popular in rural areas;
- the problem with radio transmission is that messages are very general, feedback is limited, and sometimes the production is of a low quality, but it remains much cheaper than face-to-face discussions using extension workers (the cost is 2000 to 3500 times more than diffusing the same message via radio);
- regional radio networks try to overcome the generality of medium and they also try to adapt content to fit in with the agricultural activities of that area;
- when and where available, newspapers are only for the literate but may contain a lot more detail than radio;
- whilst television tends to attract the more urbanised audience the urban elite of Africa.

Moemeka (1991:23) argues that the creation of mass media messages in Africa is often done in a centralised urban unit by media specialists, who decide what they want to broadcast, which is usually in line with government thinking. He criticises this approach because it is not in contact with the "felt needs" of the community, is impersonal, top-down and serves the government instead of the people, and doesn't motivate rural communities to find solutions for their needs and to take positive action.

Two-way communication on the other hand, refers to a communication process taking place in a dialogue. In this context both parties are communicators and receivers, because an exchange of information takes place. An example of two-way communication is found in face-to-face communication taking place between two people or in a small group context where all participants have the opportunity (physical and emotional) to voice their opinions (Williams, 1992:24-36; and Berko, Wolvin & Wolvin, 1995:30-31). The DSC approach involves an exchange of meaning, whereby people-in-culture interact and meaning or understanding is the outcome of the process, and both parties exchange roles between senders and receivers of messages in two-way communication (Malan, 1996:19; and Coldevin, 1991:31-33).

The small media as suggested by the DSC approach include video, film strips, traditional media, group and interpersonal communication (Ascroft & Masilela, 1989:16-17 in Melkote, 1991:263). The message formulated in an interpersonal or face-to-face situation, and the recipient and the communicator exchange roles. The nature of the messages can be very personal and intimate, the exchange of information can be transactional, and feedback is immediate in small group communication situations (Williams, 1989:30).

4.3.2 A symbiosis

Moemeka (1991: 23-24) suggests using a localised mass media method, combining aspects of both the DC and DSC approaches (cf. Coldevin, 1991:34-35). This method involves the community in the planning and production of mass media development

messages. An advantage is that the identification of community needs takes place through meetings, personal calls or media personnel who have close contact with the community. Messages are then specifically generated to serve these needs, and are spread via the local media: local radio, rural press, television production or viewing centres. The community is taking part in the process, ensuring that their needs are interpreted correctly, the aspirations of the community are taken into account, it has credibility and people are willing to participate, and it creates self-confidence within the community.

An integration of each medium's best characteristics may further lead to a symbiotic relationship between the indigenous cultural knowledge framework and the technical-scientific knowledge obtained from research and cross-cultural analysis of world views (Personal communication with Prof. Stanford G Mukasa in Malan, 1996:19-20). The mass media programmes can thus be integrated with interpersonal communication systems, and the traditional and existing community media preferences. The communication strategy can therefore be based on the "felt needs" and the socio-cultural situation of each community by integrating the mass media with interpersonal media. Often the socio-cultural situation in rural areas follows the two-step flow of information model, whereby leaders of a traditional community would receive new knowledge and information via the mass media and the messages are then spread via interpersonal communication (cf. Moemeka, 1991:21-27).

An example of combining media can be found in the field of distance education, where "home based study" is used in conjunction with mass media (study material) and face-to-face communication (teachers seeing students during summer schools for seminars and student groups). The negative aspect of distance education is that it takes a long time to develop. The INADES-Formation programme founded by Jesuits in 1962, working from Abidjan throughout west Africa, specialises in rural distance training for farmers and then extension workers. It is supported by radio programmes and a quarterly journal on agriculture. At least 43 000 people completed this course. This project promises that distance education can be successful in formal and non-formal rural education (Coldevin, 1991:38-39).

Examples where interpersonal communication is used in nation-wide development efforts, can be found in India and Tanzania, although implemented with different purposes. In both cases the country is divided into small communities, and information is passed to this community through a "development" worker. In India agricultural, sanitation, health and home economics information was passed on, with the aim of physical and human development. In Tanzania the motivation was political development, whereby political information was passed on to a community (Moemeka, 1991:21-22).

Coldevin (1991:35-39) suggests the following in terms of a symbiotic approach using the small media in conjunction with the large media to support development efforts:

- although interpersonal communication (through leaders or extension workers) has a bigger chance to change attitudes, radio reaches big audiences quickly, and the print media (posters and pamphlets) can reinforce radio messages;
- when regional radio stations broadcast agricultural programmes, communities may form short term listening groups for a specific field of interest, or long term listening groups for general information;
- video, slide-tapes, film-strips, audio-cassettes, overhead transparencies, and traditional puppet shows and theatre, flipcharts, photographs, models etc. can be used for in-depth training of farmers and field-workers;
- a pre-recorded cassette can be stopped and stages explained by field-workers, and targeted to reach specific target groups, the combination of sound and picture is impressive, and can be accompanied by commentaries in the local language;
- although using the mass media is expensive, the "novelty" effect usually ensures the attention of an audience and the mere arrival of a media presentation also attracts attention;
- a multi-channel approach is often used such as radio, print materials and field workers, slide-tape/filmstrips, television, jackets and T-shirts bearing the campaign slogan;
- and if a country's President (or another prominent leader) announces such a large scale approach, it may get more attention and people might think it is therefore important.

Selecting the right media for a communication campaign is, according to Green and Lascaris (1990:132-147) a creative process comprising three steps, namely to identify the message, the audience and the medium to be used. In the case of large scale information campaigns, the technique of market segmentation is often used to group the target audience into sections with similar characteristics, such as language group, age, educational levels, literacy levels etc. The following section will briefly look at main trends in the field of market segmentation and its relevance to the DC/DSC paradigms.

4.4 Market segmentation

Scholars of the newer approaches to the role of communication in development efforts, and supporters of the DSC approach suggest the use of small media in a dialogic, horizontal, participatory context with the aim of self-development, meaning beneficiaries of development projects should reach a stage where they are developing themselves (cf. Melkote, 1991:263). If this approach is supported, it would be helpful if the beneficiaries of large scale (national or provincial) projects were divided into smaller groups leading to enhanced participation. The DSC approach suggests that the interests and needs of the community should predominate and be the starting point of the process, and that the traditional and cultural knowledge frameworks should be incorporated in the process. Even in large scale (national) projects, this can be done, if market segmentation is implemented.

The technique of market segmentation divides a large group or a community into smaller groups (subgroups) with some homogenous characteristics, such as problems experienced in life, personal preferences, language, needs, fears, tradition, culture, hopes, behaviour, desires and dreams. Market segmentation makes efficient use of resources (money, time, people), gives a better understanding of beneficiaries' needs, existing beliefs which may contradict campaign information, and other misconceptions (Bovée *et al*, 1995:115 and 129).

The underlying assumption of the technique of market segmentation is that not all members of society are similar and that different social groups exist within a society. The logical implication is that communication messages should be tailored to suit the specific interests, needs, values, and beliefs of the group to be reached by that message. To make the message more effective, the appeal, slogans, arguments and other features should be addressed to that specific segment of the audience to trigger participation (DeFleur & Ball-Rokeach, 1989:179-181). Uninhibited communication may be the result of grouping individuals with similar profiles together, especially in a development setting, where sensitive issues are often discussed. Information may then be made available to group members in a culturally acceptable format, and be discussed in a small group context.

Market segmentation can therefore be used successfully in both small scale projects such as on community level, and large scale projects such as on national, provincial or regional level. Different criteria of identifying groups exist, but the identification of the right criteria is usually based on the outcomes of surveys (DeFleur & Ball-Rokeach, 1989:183 and 188).

Market segmentation criteria focus usually on either socio-economic factors (behaviour) or psychological factors (frame of reference). The following market segmentation criteria are most commonly used:

- social grades or social class system (cf. Jefkins, 1973:179)
- income groups (cf. Sinclair & Barenblatt, 1993:118 and 235)
- living standards measure (LSM) groups based on possession of household implements (cf. Sinclair and Barenblatt, 1993:236)
- marketing bands based on income and occupation (cf. Green & Lascaris, 1990:35-50)
- community groups based on association with groups (cf. Mersham *et al.*, 1995:119-120)
- lifestyle groups (Boveé *et al.*, 1995:123)
- sociographic groups based on personality traits (cf. Sinclair & Barenblatt, 1993:282-286).

4.5 Summary

The main thesis of the dominant development approach is to convince people to change behaviour by adopting innovations. The success of such development is then measured in terms of economic growth. The development communication (DC) theory is in line with this approach which is in nature top-down, authoritarian and uses one-way transmission of information. After more than four decades of DC development, little change has occurred in the poverty problems of the Third World. During the 1970s alternative development theories became prominent, suggesting a participatory approach. This approach invites community participation and implies a face-to-face or interpersonal communication processes. This is in line with the development support communication (DSC) thesis. The main focus of the DSC is knowledge sharing between benefactors and beneficiaries, dialogue, and an equal status of these two parties involved in the development process. It uses the small media and supports small group communication, with the aim of creating a climate of mutual understanding between benefactors and beneficiaries.

The DSC approach may be applied effectively in small scale development projects, such as community projects, provided the benefactors are willing to learn from the community, and do not "negotiate" development from a position of status, but provide a non-threatening situation and foster trust, in order to identify the community's real needs. It is not practical to apply the DSC approach without adaptation in large scale (national, provincial, or even regional level) development projects, for the simple reason of the high costs involved and timeliness of small groups discussions.

These reasons often prompt benefactors to choose the option of a communication campaign as a medium to convey messages. The DC/DSC discourse permeates the field of communication campaigns, dividing these practical frameworks into communicator-orientated campaigns (DC), and campaigns which combine aspects of both the DC and DSC approaches (integrative model). Communicator-orientated communication campaigns are found mainly in the field of marketing, advertising and public relations. These campaigns focus on persuasion, selling, creating awareness, and

a change in attitude or behaviour. The modification of behaviour or perception is the main aim of such a campaign rather than the needs or preferences of the community. The planning of a typical communication campaign will include the following steps: situation analysis, determining the goals and strategy, media planning, promotion/marketing plan, obtaining approval from client, implementation and finally the evaluation of the campaign. The integrative model on the other hand, inherited the top-down nature of diffusion of information from the DC approach as well as its focus on large scale projects, the mass media and externally created messages. These characteristics are then combined with the DSC aspects of information sharing on an equal level, *beneficiary participation, small media, aiming at helping people to empower themselves by acquiring information, to formulate their problems, to suggest solutions and to take their own decisions by focusing on the needs and interests of the beneficiaries.*

In large scale development projects it is suggested to use the mass media in conjunction with the small media. When both the mass media and the small media are used, it is important to apply the techniques of market segmentation, dividing the benefactors into (relatively) homogeneous groups, such as media exposure groups (radio, television and the print media), groups living in the same geographical area, language groups, people with the same literacy levels, etc. The mass media is often used to create a general awareness about the existence of an issue, and face-to-face situations are created where the issues dealt with in the mass media are discussed in detail. The mass media may also be used simultaneously with small group discussions to reinforce information discussed in the small group context.

Malan (1996:6-14 and 31) agrees with this argument that the positive aspects of the DC approach could be used constructively within the new paradigm of DSC, and suggests that the combination of these two approaches should be tested in South Africa. The following chapters will discuss a Population Development case study in terms of the DC/DSC discourse, with the main focus on the communication media used by the respondents and the media they suggest to be used for future development

initiatives in their area. The case study also identifies various groups with similar media preferences within the sample, which leads to market segmentation recommendations.

Chapter 5

The case study: research methods

5.1 Brief project description

The survey results of the Population Development campaign, which was held in a part of northern KwaZulu-Natal will be discussed in the following chapters in terms of the DC/DSC discourse and the media used in the campaign, in order to make recommendations towards a communication strategy for future campaigns in terms of the media to be used and market segmentation in large scale campaigns in this area.

This chapter will briefly explain the research methodology used for the empirical part of the research, including the objectives of the investigation and the statistical analysis.

Over the last couple of years, the Chief Directorate: Population Development, Department of Welfare and Population Development, has made extensive use of a marketing company, using the methods of roadshows, Ladies Clubs and RTV (Roots Television) promoting Population Development messages to the various communities it serves. Although preliminary evaluations of the campaign, were extremely positive, Population Development felt that a proper scientific investigation was necessary. The Chief Directorate commissioned such an investigation and the empirical part of this thesis is based on the results of that study.

5.2 Objectives of case study

The objectives of this survey are:

- to analyse the sample in order to identify market segments which will serve as guidelines for future information campaigns and development initiatives,

- to identify trends useful for planning future developmental campaigns in terms of media exposure and media preference, and
- to evaluate the campaign in terms of:
 - preference of three media used in the campaign (roadshows, Ladies Clubs and RTV),
 - enjoyment derived from being exposed to each of the media,
 - educational and informational value of each of the media, and
 - communication media preference for developmental campaigns.

5.3 Method

After consultation with Population Development, it was decided, that the investigation will focus on analytical survey research. The survey was conducted as follow:

5.3.1 Interviews

A total of 349 interviews were conducted in areas where the campaign was held. Only respondents between 14 and 49 years of age, who were exposed to one or more of the components of the campaign, were interviewed.

In the Population Development study a quota sample was used, because it was impractical and impossible to compile a list of the population who were exposed to the campaign, for the process of random sampling. The study was repeated in 10 venues, counteracting the possibility that the findings are only one-time occurrences, and expanding the validity of the study. The advantage of using a quota sample is that it can be ensured that the characteristics or parameters found in the population, is represented in the sample (Du Plooy, 1996:61-63). The demographic characteristics such as age, gender, level of income, living area, level of education, and mass media exposure were used as guidelines of the population parameters.

Semi-structured questionnaires were used as discussion guides for the field interviews administered in a face-to-face situation (cf. Leedy, 1985:135). The questionnaire design firstly consisted of structured questions, dealing with biographics, media aspects and predisposition to messages in the context of population development, whilst open-ended questions dealt with value orientations of respondents, and provided the basis for criteria towards a strategy formulation.

These questionnaires, were administered by a interviewing team consisting of senior Communication Science students of the University of Zululand, who are conversant with relevant aspects of the local rural situation, research methodology, interviewing techniques and were able to conduct interviews in Zulu.

5.3.2 Statistical analysis

Both conventional statistical techniques and correspondence analysis were used to provide a comprehensive analysis of the data. According to Greenacre (1984a:21-22) the task of statistics is to summarise, simplify and provide a basis for interpretation of data. Greenacre (1984b:4) suggest the use of cross-tabulations to summarise the association or the "interaction" between variables.

Basic frequencies of all variables of all the questions were calculated, including the frequency of missing observations and "not applicables". Cross-tabulations between certain selected pairs of variables were computed. In most cases cross-tabulations were performed on males and females separately, since the results were suspected to be different for the two gender groups.

Where appropriate the conventional chi-square test was used to ascertain whether variables were significantly associated, using the 5% level as a threshold of significance. It should be remembered that this approach is mainly of an exploratory nature rather than confirmatory, so the chi-square test serves merely as a guide to interpretation (cf. Leedy, 1985:201-205).

Since the number of cross-tabulations is very large and because histograms and cross-tabulations are inadequate to summarise the data set, correspondence analysis was used in some specific cases to visualise the relationship between the responses and some selected biographical variables, such as gender, education and age (Greenacre, 1993, and 1984b:3-7).

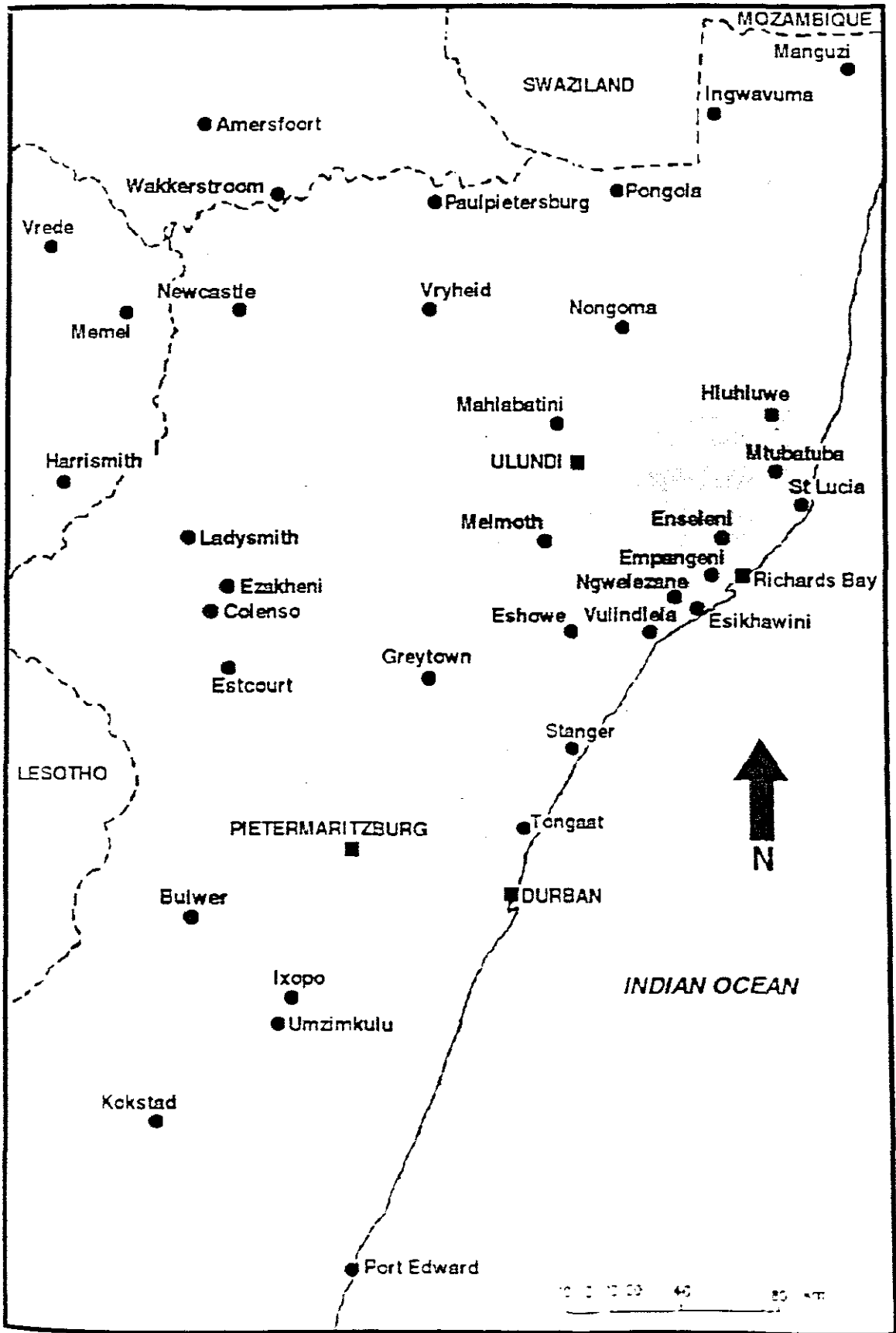
5.4 Survey area

The selection of towns and/or shops where respondents were interviewed was largely administered by Population Development, based on the area of the campaign where all three media were used. This includes some of the rural areas of northern KwaZulu-Natal with the following boundaries: from the Tugela River in the south to Hluhluwe in the north, and from Melmoth and Eshowe in the west, to the coast. The pilot study was administered at KwaMbonambi as indicated in the geographical area map.

In total, 349 interviews were conducted between 15 and 25 June 1995, of which 50 were completed in the pilot study. Two of the three media used in the campaign, namely roadshows and RTV were used to broadcast Population Development messages on various days of the week, and at various times of the day. Ladies club meetings took place only during the week, and in the late mornings, when ladies had completed their duties at home, before the children returned from school.

The questionnaire was compiled after discussion with Population Development. Certain questions were included in the questionnaire to inform either the marketing company or Population Development for purposes other than the objectives of this thesis. A discussion of these questions, as well as of qualifying and control questions is therefore omitted (See questionnaire questions 1-10, 19-23, 29-33, 37-41, and 43-45). Only questions and answers relevant to the objectives of this thesis are reflected in the discussion of the survey results given in the following chapter.

Area map 1: Survey area



5.5 Structure

The following chapter deals with the primary aim of the survey which was the reason why Population Development commissioned the survey, namely to assess the communicational effectiveness of the campaign and to identify trends useful for planning future development projects in terms of media preference and market segmentation, and to suggest a communication strategy for future Population Development information campaigns.

An analysis of the target audience should form part of the planning of any information campaign, as indicated in chapter 4. The following chapter analyses the responses to the Population Development questionnaire, with the aim of providing a basis for the planning of a communication strategy for future information campaigns in northern KwaZulu-Natal, using the technique of market segmentation.

Chapter 6¹

Results of the survey

6.1 Introduction

The results of the Population Development survey data are analysed, interpreted, and reported in this chapter in terms of the statistical analysis. Frequency tables are used as the first level of interpretation which gives an indication of possible tendencies. As a second step, the data is discussed in terms of cross-tabulations, with the aim of identifying tendencies relevant to the survey.

6.2 First level of interpretation

The following frequency tables give a first level of interpretation of the answers given in the interviews, which aims at clarifying the sample, to provide a preliminary interpretation of the frequency tables pointing towards the identification of tendencies.

6.2.1 Biographical information of the sample

The following biographical information derived from the interviews is presented in terms of frequency tables, indicating the nature of the sample:

¹ Sections of chapter 6, 7 and 8 were included in a report for Population Development (cf. Burger, 1995).

Frequency table 1: Age distribution

	Frequency	Valid %
14-19	146	42.3
20-29	132	38.3
30-39	43	12.5
40-49	24	7.0

Valid cases (N)=345

Frequency table 2: Gender

	Frequency	Valid %
Female	207	60.0
Male	138	40.0

Valid cases (N)=347

Frequency table 3: Marital status

	Frequency	Valid %
Unmarried	280	82.1
Engaged	22	6.5
Customary law married	19	5.6
Western law married	16	4.7
Divorced	1	0.3
Live in different areas	1	0.3
Widowed	2	0.6

Valid cases (N)=341

Frequency table 4: Length of stay in the area

	Frequency	Valid %
-1 year	33	9.9
1-2 year	24	7.2
3-4 years	21	6.3
4-5 years	16	4.8
6+ years	241	71.9

Valid cases (N)=335

Frequency table 5: Monthly income

	Frequency	Valid %
R0-300	257	73.9
R301-600	32	9.2
R601-1000	24	6.9
R1000-1500	16	4.6
R1500+	18	5.2

Valid cases (N)=348

Frequency table 6: Number of children under the age of 16

	Frequency	Valid %
0	173	55.6
1	50	16.1
2	47	15.1
3	17	5.5
4	11	3.5
5	4	1.3
6	3	1.0
7	4	1.3
8	1	0.3
10	1	0.3

Valid cases (N)=311

Frequency table 7: Educational level

	Frequency	Valid %
None	28	8.2
Some schooling	205	60.1
Matric completed	91	26.7
Tertiary education	17	5.0

Valid cases (N)=341

This sample represents mainly the youth (sub 35 years of age) (Frequency table 1), but this is in line with other surveys in this area, indicating that the youth makes up the largest population age segment (cf. SA2Z, 1996:G5). The sample is slightly skewed towards female opinion (Frequency table 2), and towards unmarried or betrothed people, with some respondents being married under either customary or western law (Frequency table 3). The majority of respondents have been staying in the area of interview for more than six years (Frequency table 4), with a monthly income of up to R300 (Frequency table 5), have a small number of children (Frequency table 6) and some formal school education (Frequency table 7). The indication of education is again in line with findings of other surveys (cf. SA2Z, 1996:G5).

The outcome of the research will therefore be particularly valid for respondents who match the above profile.

6.2.2 Mass media exposure of the sample

The following frequency table indicates that radio is the most preferred mass medium (38,6%), television is the second most popular (26,2%) and radio and television in combination is placed third (20,9%), and only a small number of respondents expose themselves regularly to the print media (14,4%).

Frequency table 8: Mass media exposure of the sample

	Frequency	Valid %
Radio	236	38.6
TV	194	26.2
Radio and TV	155	20.9
Print media	106	14.3

Valid cases (N)=741

6.2.3 The three different media used in the campaign

The following frequency tables indicate information about each of the three media used in the campaign (roadshows, ladies clubs and RTV), in terms of how respondents became aware of the campaign, and the perceived value of different elements of each of the media.

6.2.3.1 Roadshows

The following frequency tables inform the discussion of roadshows below:

Frequency table 9: How respondents became aware of the roadshows

	Frequency	Valid %
Friends	52	20.9
Family	9	3.6
Posters	115	46.2
Shopkeeper	21	8.4
Passing by	28	11.2
Church	1	0.4
Group Africa announcement at school	6	2.4
Posters and shopkeeper	1	0.4
Friends and posters	5	2.0
Teachers	8	3.2
Induna (tribal leader)	1	0.4
Newspapers	1	0.4
Women's organisation, posters, shopkeeper	1	0.4

Valid cases (N)=349

Frequency table 10: Positive attitude towards segments of the roadshows

	Frequency - Yes	Frequency - No
Songs (N=241)	218	23
Drama (N=226)	180	46
Games (N=224)	159	65
Talk (N=223)	151	72
Presenter (N=226)	146	80
Stage (N=222)	151	71
Venue (N=221)	147	74
Presentation (N=220)	148	72
Zulu dance (N=231)	190	41
Content (N=218)	139	79
Theme (N=210)	127	83
Time when presented (N=222)	142	80

Frequency table 11: Useful information found in roadshows

	Frequency - Yes	Frequency - No
Song N=232	198	34
Drama N=218	173	45
Games N=213	138	75
Talk N=213	144	69
Presenter N=211	129	82
Stage N=209	130	79
Promotional items N=205	133	72

Frequency table 22: The most effective part of the roadshows

	Frequency	Valid %
Songs	73	32.7
Drama	91	40.8
Games	7	3.1
Talk before the time	11	4.9
Stage	2	3.6
Presenter	8	0.9
Promotional items	23	10.3
Presentation	1	0.4
The whole show	2	0.9
Dance	4	1.8
Other	1	0.4

Valid cases (N)=223

Frequency table 13: Respondents had difficulties with the following sections of the roadshows:

	Frequency	Valid %
Songs	11	6.6
Drama	11	6.6
Games	13	7.8
Talk before the time	4	2.4
Stage	6	3.6
Presenter	2	1.2
Promotional items	1	0.6
Too few promotional items	3	1.8
None	109	65.3

Valid cases (N)=167

The majority of respondents (46,2%) indicated that they learned about the existence of roadshows through posters and just over 20% indicated that friends informed them about these shows (Frequency table 9).

The element of song was liked most by respondents, and to a lesser extent the Zulu dancing, the drama and the games played on stage (Frequency table 10). Respondents indicated that useful information was derived mostly from the songs and the drama (Frequency table 11), and the drama was voted the most effective part of the roadshow with the songs second (Frequency table 12). In general a positive attitude towards roadshows was reflected, with 65% of respondents indicating that they had no problems with any part of the roadshows (Frequency table 13).

6.2.3.2 Ladies Clubs

The following frequency tables inform the discussion of ladies club meetings below:

Frequency table 14: Positive attitude towards sections of ladies club meetings

	Frequency - Yes	Frequency - No
ID cards <i>N=34</i>	18	22
Presenter <i>N=45</i>	37	8
Social gathering <i>N=45</i>	38	7
Talk/content <i>N=42</i>	40	1
Promotional items <i>N=43</i>	35	8
Time presented <i>N=42</i>	28	14

Frequency table 15: The most effective part of ladies club meetings

	Frequency
ID cards	4
Presenter	7
Social gathering	15
Talk/content	4
Promotional items	7

Valid cases (N)=37

Frequency table 16: The least effective part of ladies club meetings

	Frequency	Valid %
ID cards	18	60.0
Talk / content	2	6.7
Promotional items	2	6.7
None	1	3.3

Valid cases (N)=30

The social interaction (social gathering) derived from the ladies club meetings was indicated to be the reason why the respondents who attended these meetings thought it was the most effective (Frequency tables 14 and 15). Most information was gathered through group discussion (see "social gathering" in Frequency table 15). They indicated that the exclusivity of the group, represented by being invited to the meetings and having to carry ladies club ID cards wasn't appreciated (Frequency table 16).

6.2.3.3 RTV

The following frequency tables gives information about respondents' perceptions of RTV:

Frequency table 17: What respondents liked about the Population Development EduAd on RTV

	Frequency - Yes	Frequency - No
Message <i>N</i> = 299	164	34
Soundtrack (song and music) <i>N</i> = 302	151	50
Presenter <i>N</i> = 298	142	55
Drama <i>N</i> = 296	156	39
Time presented <i>N</i> = 292	140	51

Frequency table 18: What respondents liked about RTV in general

	Frequency - Yes	Frequency - No
Soccer <i>N</i> =209	155	54
Other sports <i>N</i> =199	131	68
Weddings <i>N</i> =206	120	86
Coming of age ceremonies <i>N</i> =198	104	94
Social gathering <i>N</i> =199	135	64

Between programmes on RTV, different advertisements are screened, including an educational advertisement (EduAd) about Population Development. Respondents indicated that they enjoyed the message most of all, and to a lesser extent the songs and music carrying Population Development information (Frequency table 17).

6.2.4 Enjoyment of the campaign

The following Frequency table gives information about the enjoyment of the campaign:

Frequency table 19: Do you like the whole experience around the campaign in terms of:

	Frequency - Yes	Frequency - No
Roadshows <i>N</i> =245	225	20
Ladies Clubs <i>N</i> =195	51	144
RTV <i>N</i> =233	199	34

In general, the roadshows were enjoyed most by respondents, with RTV placed second in terms of popularity. Ladies Clubs seem to be very unpopular, but this question was answered by both respondents who attended the meetings and those not invited. The information in the Frequency table above is therefore not a true reflection of the attitudes of respondents who attended the meetings.

6.2.5 Attitudes towards the campaign

The following frequency tables inform the discussion below of attitudes toward the campaign and reasons clarifying these difficulties, problems experienced in the personal lives of respondents and how they prefer help to be offered:

Frequency table 20: Negative attitudes: main difficulties respondents had with the campaign

	Frequency	Valid %
Women's empowerment	46	22.7
Family planning/size	39	19.2
Family economy	13	6.4
Health	30	14.8
Education Skills	24	11.8
Combinations of the above	51	25.1

Valid cases (N)=203

Frequency table 21: Reasons for negative attitude

	Frequency	Valid %
Against tradition	36	14.2
Against Bible	3	1.2
New idea/don't understand/need more info	25	9.9
I don't like the idea	9	3.6
Answer not applicable	71	28.1
Misconceptions about contraceptives	6	2.4
No problems	75	29.6
Other	28	11.1

Valid cases (N)=253

Frequency table 22: Respondents' biggest problem in family life

	Frequency	Valid %
None	92	32.6
Financial	86	30.5
Education/Skills	37	13.1
Family planning	44	15.6
Other	23	8.2

Valid cases (N)=282

Frequency table 23: How should help be offered alleviating this problem in terms of media

	Frequency	Valid %
Money	51	21.3
Small group info	47	19.6
RTV	14	5.8
Roadshows	19	7.9
TV	24	10.0
Radio	23	9.6
Group Africa programmes	22	5.0
Other	91	45.5

Valid cases (N)=291

From frequency table 19 it is evident that respondents had problems mainly with the woman's empowerment aspect of the campaign (23%) and almost 20% of the respondents had problems with the family planning and family size component of the

campaign. Many respondents indicated that they had problems with the health, and education and skills information given in the campaign.

Frequency table 21 indicates that almost 33% of respondents indicated that they have no big problems in life and more than 30% indicated that their biggest problem in life is financial. The relative young age of the sample clarifies the first answer, because many respondents are still at school, but a large number of respondents indicated that they experience financial difficulty.

If the negative attitude towards the "health" and "education/skills" (Frequency table 19) component of the campaign is compared with the biggest problems experienced in life ("financial" in Frequency table 21) and how that should be resolved ("money" in Frequency table 22), then it can be interpreted that this campaign didn't provide enough information about health, and education/skills improvement. It is important to note that almost 20% of the respondents indicated that they would like to receive more information about the message of the campaign, and that it should be offered in the context of small groups (Frequency table 22).

The reasons offered for the negative attitude is either because it is against tradition (14,4%), and many people didn't give answers or gave inapplicable answers, indicating a discomfort with the question (Frequency table 20).

There seems to be a need for information, indicated by the respondents who either asked for more information, or who indicated that the campaign brought new ideas to them, or that they don't understand the message (Frequency table 20).

6.2.6 Value attributed to the campaign

The following Frequency tables give a reflection on the informational value of the campaign:

Frequency table 24: What was learned from the campaign in general

	Frequency	Valid %
Women's empowerment	12	4.4
Family planning/size	45	16.4
Family economy	8	2.9
Education Skills	21	7.6
Entertaining	52	18.9
Family planning and entertaining	15	4.0
Combinations of above	122	44.4

Valid cases (N)=275

Frequency table 25: Which applies to you?

	Frequency	Valid %
Women's empowerment	20	7.5
Family planning/size	46	17.4
Family economy	11	4.2
Health	69	26.0
Combinations of above and other	107	42.3

Valid cases (N)=253

Almost 20% of respondents indicated that they enjoyed the campaign because of its entertainment value. This was not a primary objective of the campaign, but could help to create a positive attitude towards the campaign. Only 16,4% of the respondents indicated that they gained information about family planning and family size (Frequency table 23). Many respondents (44,4%) indicated a combination of elements were learned from the campaign.

In Frequency table 24, it is found that around 17,4% of the respondents indicated that family planning and family size is important to them personally, but more respondents (26%) indicated that health is important to them.

6.2.7 Summary of frequency tables

The data analysed in the frequency tables gives some clarity about the sample, the three media used, information about the general attitude of respondents toward the campaign, as well as a preliminary evaluation of the campaign.

The biographic profile of the sample is young, includes more females than males, and the respondents of the sample have been living in the area for a relatively long time (the majority longer than 6 years in the area), have a small number of children, and have some formal school education (Frequency tables 1-7). Radio is the most preferred mass medium (Frequency table 8).

These findings are in line with the 1996 Eskom Omni-Panel survey, conducted countrywide. In the same area as used for the Population Development survey, the Eskom Omni-Panel results indicate that black people speak predominantly Zulu, have some formal school education, have a similar gender distribution and monthly income as the sample of the Population Development survey, and a young population. In the Eskom study radio is found to be the most popular of the mass media (Eskom, 1996:2-5).

Roadshows proved to be very popular (Frequency table 18), especially the songs and the drama (Frequency tables 9-13), whilst the social aspect of the ladies club meetings were appreciated, but the exclusivity around the carrying of ID cards raised concern (Frequency tables 14-16), and RTV's messages and accompanying music was enjoyed (Frequency tables 17-18).

In general it seems that the marketing company managed to create a positive attitude towards the campaign (Frequency table 18), and only a few respondents experienced negative attitudes towards messages (Frequency table 20). Only a small percentage of respondents indicated that they have gained information about issues relevant to the campaign messages (Frequency table 24 and 25). Frequency tables 21 and 23 can be interpreted as a self-identified need for more information in a context of small group communication amongst respondents.

These frequency tables do not only give an indication of the number of responses per variable in each question, but provide a general foundation for the identification of tendencies. This information could be valuable in planning campaigns, and will be discussed in detail in the following section.

6.3 Tendencies

After statistical analysis of the data set, the following tendencies were indicated. The chi-square test, using a 5% threshold of significance, was used and the data is presented in cross-tabulations indicating the relationship between variables. These tendencies are grouped under the sections of campaign attendance, how respondents became aware of roadshows, informational value of the campaign, difficulties with the campaign and reasons offered explaining these difficulties, biggest problems experienced in life, and how help should be offered. Percentages are given throughout this section.

6.3.1 Campaign attendance

The following four cross-tabulations clarify attendance of the various media used in the campaign, namely roadshows, ladies clubs, and RTV:

Cross-tabulation 1: Age x Male attendance of roadshows

	14-19 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years
Yes	52.6	39.2	5.2	3.1
No	25.9	37.0	25.9	11.1

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between age and male attendance of roadshows. There is a definite association ($P < 0.001$) between the different age groups and males who attended roadshows. Younger males attended roadshows more regularly than older males.

Cross-tabulation 2: Mass media exposure x Male attendance roadshows

	Radio	TV	Print media (newspapers & magazines)	Print & broadcast combination
Yes	100.0	83.3	72.7	93.8
No	0	16.7	27.8	6.3

Cross-tabulation 2 reflects the relationship between mass media exposure and males attendance of roadshows. There is an association ($P < 0.01$) between media exposure and males attending roadshows. Males who listen regularly to radio *only*, attend roadshows more than other males. The second highest attendance comes from males who are exposed to both print and broadcast media.

Cross-tabulation 3: Age x Female attendance of ladies clubs

	14-19 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years
Yes	0	6.7	1.9	0
No	98.1	93.3	100.0	100.0

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between age and female attendance of ladies club meetings. There is a strong association ($P < 0.01$) between age and females attending ladies clubs. Ladies in their twenties tend to attend ladies club meetings.

Cross-tabulation 4: Education x Female attendance of ladies clubs

	No school	Some	Matric	Tertiary
Yes	41.2	22.9	31.6	75.0
No	58.8	77.1	68.4	25.0

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between education and female attendance of ladies club meetings. There is a strong association ($P < 0.01$) between education and females attending ladies clubs. Females in the higher education group tend to attend the ladies club meetings.

6.3.2 How respondents became aware of roadshows

The following four cross-tabulations explain how respondents became aware of the roadshow medium used in the Population Development campaign:

Cross-tabulation 5: Age x How heard about roadshows (both genders)

	14-19 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years
Friends	51.9	32.7	5.8	9.6
Family	33.3	33.3	22.2	11.1
Posters	34.2	45.6	14.9	5.3
Shopkeeper	42.9	23.8	28.6	4.8
Other	54.9	37.3	5.9	2.0

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between age and how the respondents became aware of the roadshows. There is an association ($P < 0.05$) between age and how the respondents became aware of the roadshows. Respondents in the younger age groups tend to learn about roadshows from posters and friends.

Cross-tabulation 6: Age x How males heard about roadshows

	14-19 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years
Friends	39.5	12.5	0	50.0
Family	0	2.5	0	0
Posters	34.9	67.5	66.7	25.0
Shopkeeper	9.3	7.5	33.3	25.0
Other	16.3	10.0	0	0

This cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between age and the ways male respondents became aware of the roadshows. There is an association ($P < 0.05$) between age and how male respondents became aware of the roadshows. Young males heard about roadshows from posters, and to a lesser extent from their friends.

Cross-tabulation 7: Education x How females heard about roadshows

	No school	Some	Matric	Tertiary
Friends	10.0	18.2	38.2	0
Family	0	6.5	2.9	16.7
Posters	30.0	54.5	44.1	66.7
Shopkeeper	20.0	11.7	0	0
Other	40.0	9.1	14.7	16.7

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between age and the ways female respondents became aware of the roadshows. There is an association ($P < 0.05$) between age and how female respondents became aware of the roadshows. Female respondents with matric or some schooling heard about roadshows from posters, and to a lesser extent from their friends.

Cross-tabulation 8: Mass media exposure x How females heard about roadshows

	Radio	TV	Broadcast	Print
Friends	13.7	30.8	18.2	29.5
Family	2.0	0	4.5	11.4
Posters	54.9	46.2	54.5	47.7
Shopkeeper	7.8	0	22.7	4.5
Other	21.6	23.1	0	6.8

Cross-tabulation 8 reflects the relationship between media exposure and the ways female respondents became aware of the roadshows. There is an association ($P < 0.05$) between media exposure and how female respondents became aware of the roadshows. Most female respondents who either listen to radio *only* or are exposed to both print and broadcast, tend to learn about roadshows from posters, and from their friends.

6.2.3 What was learned from the campaign

The following four cross-tabulations explain what was learned from the campaign matched with various aspects:

Cross-tabulation 9: Learned x Gender

	Female	Male
Not applicable answers/missing data	63.4	36.6
Women's empowerment	100.0	0
Family planning/family size	64.4	35.6
Education/Skills	52.4	47.6

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between information gained from the campaign and gender. There is an association ($P < 0.05$) between what was learned from the campaign and gender. A few women learned about women's empowerment, but *no* males learned anything about this concept. Some 65% of the respondents to this question were females and 35% males. Twice as many females as compared to men learned about family planning/size.

Cross-tabulation 10: Learned x Mass media exposure

	Radio	TV	Broadcast	Print
Not applicable answers/missing data	39.2	9.5	13.5	37.8
Women's empowerment	45.5	0	9.1	45.5
Family planning/family size	42.2	6.7	31.1	20.0
Education/Skills	23.8	19.0	9.5	47.6

Cross-tabulation 10 reflects the relationship between information gained from the campaign and mass media exposure. There is an association ($P < 0.06$) between what was learned from the campaign and the type of mass media respondents are exposed to. A 6% threshold of significance was used for this Cross-tabulation. Respondents who listen to radio *only* (group 1) learned more from this campaign, than people who are exposed to other form/s of mass media. Respondents who are exposed to print media learned more from this campaign than people who watch television *only* or people who are exposed to a radio/TV combination (broadcast media). Only a few people learned about family planning/size. Here the people who learned most are the radio listeners (group 1) or the people who are exposed to the print and broadcast media in combination (group 4). Some 46% of the respondents who are exposed to radio *only* (group 1) and 46% who are exposed to broadcast/print media in combination (group 4) learned about women's empowerment.

Cross-tabulation 11: What females learned from campaign x mass media exposure

	Radio	TV	Broadcast	Print
Not applicable answers/missing data	26.3	30.0	17.1	17.1
Women's empowerment	6.3	0	2.9	7.1
Family planning/family size	17.5	10.0	25.7	5.7
Education/skills	45.0	45.0	54.3	64.3

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between information gained from the campaign by female respondents and mass media exposure. There is an association between what was learned from the campaign and the type of mass media they are exposed to. Female respondents who are regularly exposed to radio and a broadcast/print media combination learned more from this campaign than the other media attendance groups.

Cross-tabulation 12: Number of children x Females who learned about family economy

	None	1	2	3	4	5
Yes	12.4	24.4	37.1	26.7	9.1	33.3
No	87.6	75.6	62.9	73.3	90.9	66.7

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between the number of children and females who learned about the concept of family planning/family size. There is an association ($P < 0.01$) between the number of children and females who learned about the concept of family planning/family size. Very few female respondents indicated that they have learned anything about family economy (about 20%). Females with children learned more about family economy than those without children.

6.2.4 Difficulties with the campaign

The following three cross-tabulations explain various aspects of difficulties respondents had with the campaign:

Cross-tabulation 13: Number of children x Females who had difficulties with family economy

	None	1	2	3	4	5
Yes	14.3	20.8	32.1	55.6	12.5	42.9
No	85.7	79.2	67.9	44.4	87.5	57.1

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between the number of children and females who had difficulties with the concept of family economy. There is an association ($P < 0.05$) between the number of children and females who had difficulties with the concept of family economy. Females with children indicated that they have difficulties with the concept of family economy in the context of this campaign.

Cross-tabulation 14: Gender x Difficulties with the campaign

	Female	Male
Not applicable answers/missing data	62.9	37.1
Women's empowerment	45.7	54.3
Family planning/family size	61.5	38.5
Family economy	92.3	7.7
Education/skills	56.7	43.3
Entertainment	75.0	25.0
All of the above	43.8	56.3
Other	52.9	47.1

Cross-tabulation 14 reflects the relationship between difficulties with the campaign and gender. There is an association ($P < 0.05$) between the type of difficulties respondents had with the campaign and gender. Women have difficulties with the concept of family economy, and to a lesser extent with the entertainment component of the campaign. The survey sample has 60% females and 90% of these females had difficulties with (didn't like or didn't understand) the family economy segment of the campaign and to a lesser extent with the entertainment aspect of the campaign.

Cross-tabulation 15: Difficulties males have with campaign x education

	No school	Some	Matric	Tertiary
Not applicable answers/missing data	0	39.7	40.4	62.5
Women's empowerment	0	16.4	25.5	12.5
Family planning/family size	33.3	11.0	6.4	12.5
Family economy	0	0	2.1	0
Education/skills	22.2	11.0	6.4	0
Entertainment	0	2.7	4.3	12.5
All of the above	33.3	4.1	6.4	0
Other	11.1	15.1	8.5	0

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between education and the difficulties males had with the campaign. There is an association ($P < 0.05$) between education and the difficulties males had with the campaign. Men with a higher education tended not to enjoy the campaign as much as men with a lesser education.

6.2.5 Motivating these difficulties

The following two cross-tabulations seek to give reasons for difficulties respondents had with the campaign:

Cross-tabulation 16: Motivating difficulties (males) x Mass media exposure

	Radio	TV	Broadcast	Print
Missing data	41.1	9.5	12.6	36.8
Against tradition	25.0	8.3	13.9	52.8
New information/don't understand/more info	24.0	28.0	12.0	36.0
Not applicable answers	32.9	7.1	20.0	40.0
No problems	25.3	12.0	22.7	40.0
Other	21.7	2.2	13.0	63.0

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between media exposure and the explanations of men for the difficulties they had with the campaign. There is an association ($P < 0.05$) between media exposure and the reasons men gave for the difficulties they had with the campaign. There is a split between males who listen to radio only (group 1) and those who are exposed to both broadcast and print media (group 4), and the other groups. Within groups 1 and 4 there is also a split between those who liked the campaign and those who did not (mainly because it is against their tradition).

Cross-tabulation 17: Motivating difficulties males have with campaign x Age

	14-19 yrs	20-29 yrs	30-39 yrs	40-49 yrs
Missing data	11.1	28.3	50.0	42.9
Against tradition	22.2	9.4	14.3	14.3
New information/don't understand/more info	6.3	9.4	0	0
Not applicable answers	12.7	22.6	35.7	0
No problems	28.6	20.8	0	14.3
Other	19.0	9.4	0	28.6

Cross-tabulation 17 reflects the relationship between education and the explanations of men for the difficulties they have with the campaign. There is an association ($P < 0.05$) between education and the reasons men gave for the difficulties they have with the campaign. A polarisation between younger and older males is evident. Younger males tend to split between those who have positive feelings about the campaign, and those who felt it is against their tradition.

6.2.6 Biggest problem in family life

The following two cross-tabulations give some clarity of the biggest problems respondents' experience in life:

Cross-tabulation 18: Age x Biggest problem in family life

	14-19 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years
Missing data	38.5	35.4	16.9	9.2
No problem in life	58.9	30.0	11.1	0
Financial	31.4	47.7	9.3	11.6
Education/skills	32.4	48.6	8.1	10.8
Family planning/family size	43.2	31.8	15.9	9.1
Other	43.5	39.1	17.4	0

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between age and the biggest problem respondents experience. There is an association ($P < 0.01$) between age and the biggest problem in respondents' family life. Younger people indicated more problems in their family life than older people. 25% of the respondents (more people in the younger age groups than in the older age group) indicated that a lack of funds is the biggest problem in their family lives. Younger people tend to say that they don't have enough money.

Cross-tabulation 19: Males' biggest problem in family life x Age

	14-19 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years
Missing data	9.5	17.0	50.0	28.6
No problem in life	36.5	22.6	14.3	0
Financial	19.0	32.1	7.1	42.9
Education/Skills	9.5	18.9	0	14.3
Family planning/family size	14.3	3.8	21.4	14.3
Other	11.1	5.7	7.1	0

Cross-tabulation 19 reflects the relationship between age and the biggest problem male respondents have. There is a strong association ($P < 0.01$) between age and male respondents' biggest problem in their family lives. Most men feel their biggest problem in family life is the lack of funds and education/skills/knowledge in general. It seems they are more focused on basic needs.

6.2.7 How helped

The following two cross-tabulations explain how respondents would like to be helped to alleviate their personal problems:

Cross-tabulation 20: How males would like to be helped with these difficulties x Education

	No school	Some	Matric	Tertiary
Missing data	22.2	27.4	31.9	50.0
Financial	0	23.3	12.8	25.0
Small group	0	11.0	27.7	12.5
Roadshows	33.3	4.1	0	0
TV	0	1.4	8.5	0
Radio	22.2	4.1	4.3	0
Similar campaigns	0	12.3	2.1	0
Other	22.2	16.4	12.8	12.5

The above cross-tabulation reflects the relationship between education and how male respondents would like to be helped with these difficulties. There is a strong association ($P < 0.001$) between education and how male respondents would like to be helped with these difficulties. Men with some education or matric, would like to be helped in the form of financial donations (to alleviate their financial problems) or they would like to have information (probably career education or training) in a small group context.

Cross-tabulation 21: How females would like to be helped with these difficulties x Mass media exposure

	Radio	TV	Broadcast	Broadcast and print
Missing data	36.3	25.0	37.1	24.3
Financial	11.3	0	5.7	21.4
Small group	8.8	5.0	20.0	14.3
Roadshows	6.3	10.0	8.6	4.3
TV	10.0	35.0	5.7	2.9
Radio	10.0	20.0	5.7	2.9
Similar campaigns	5.0	0	2.9	8.6
Other	12.5	5.0	14.3	21.4

Cross-tabulation 21 reflects the relationship between mass media exposure and how female respondents would like to be helped with these difficulties. There is a strong association ($P < 0.001$) between mass media exposure and how female respondents would like to be helped with these difficulties. Respondents in the mass media exposure groups 1 (radio only) and 4 (broadcast/print media combination) would like to be helped in terms of financial donations, and indicated that they need information and would appreciate it in a small group context.

6.2.8 Summary of cross-tabulations

The cross-tabulations identified tendencies regarding campaign attendance, what female respondents learned from the campaign, what male respondents regarded as the biggest problem in their lives, and information about media exposure.

Roadshows tend to be attended mostly by younger males who listen to radio regularly (cross-tabulations 1-2), whilst ladies club meetings tend to be supported by older females with a high educational level (cross-tabulations 3-4). Young respondents, especially females with some formal education who listen to radio regularly tend to hear about roadshows from friends and posters (cross-tabulations 4-7).

Respondents, especially females who listen to radio regularly, learned more from the campaign than any other group (cross-tabulations 9-11). A few female respondents learned about women's empowerment, but no males did (cross-tabulation 9-11). Very few female respondents indicated that they learned anything about family economy (about 20%) (cross-tabulation 12). Women, especially if they have children, have difficulties with the concept of family economy, and to a lesser extent with the entertainment component of the campaign (cross-tabulation 12-14). Female respondents in the mass media exposure groups 1 (radio only) and 4 (broadcast/print media combination) would like to be helped in terms of financial donations, and indicated that they need information and would appreciate it in a small group context (cross-tabulation 21).

A polarisation in perceptions between younger and older males is evident. Men with higher education tended not to enjoy the campaign as much as men with a lesser education (cross-tabulation 15). There is a split in perceptions between those who appreciated the campaign and those who didn't (some indicated it is against their tradition) (cross-tabulations 16-17). Younger people indicated more problems in their family life than older people. 25% of the respondents indicated that a lack of funds is the biggest problem in their family lives, and to a lesser extent education/skills/knowledge (cross-tabulation 18-19). Men with some education or matric would

like to be helped in the form of financial donations (to alleviate their financial problems) or they would like to have information (probably career education or training) in a small group context (cross-tabulation 20).

As far as the media attendance groups are concerned, it is important to note that radio listeners learned more from the campaign than any other group and they would like to solve their biggest problem, a lack of money, with financial donations. but they also indicated a need for information presented in a small group context. Older females also enjoyed participating and receiving information in the small group context (ladies' clubs).

Both males and females with matric, indicated a clear interest in small group discussions with the aim of gaining information and learning (cross-tabulations 20 and 21).

6.3 Summary

The first level of interpretation of the data set (frequency tables), indicated the biographic profile of the sample and the value attached to the campaign by the respondents. In general the respondents felt positive towards the campaign, and only a few respondents indicated a negative attitude. What is alarming is that only a small percentage of respondents indicated that they had learnt anything from the campaign messages, but a definitive need for more information is indicated. Younger respondents enjoyed the roadshow medium, and there are some indications that the music and songs were enjoyed by this group. Radio seems to be the most popular of the mass media, especially among the younger people. Older ladies enjoyed the social interaction of ladies' clubs. RTV's messages and the music broadcast were enjoyed by a large audience.

From the cross-tabulations certain tendencies regarding campaign attendance, what was learnt from the campaign, the biggest problems in respondents' personal lives and communication media attendance, can be identified. It is evident that radio is a very

popular medium and its listeners tend to be young and have learnt more than other groups from the campaign, whilst older people with a higher educational level suggested small group communication to discuss their problems. Young respondents, especially female radio listeners with some formal education, heard about the roadshows from friends and posters, and learnt more from the campaign than any other group. A few female respondents indicated that they had learnt about women's empowerment and to a lesser extent about family economy. Women with children have problems understanding the concept of family economy, and didn't enjoy the entertain aspect of the campaign. Females, especially female radio listeners, indicated that they have a need for more information about the campaign topic, and would appreciate the small group context for informational discussions, and they indicated that they have financial problems.

Young males who listen to radio regularly enjoyed the roadshows, whilst ladies' club meetings were enjoyed by older females with a high educational level. There is a strong polarisation in perceptions between younger and older males, and the older men (with a higher educational level) didn't enjoy the campaign as much as the younger males (with a lower level of education), especially the entertainment aspect and enjoyment of the campaign in general. Younger people indicated more problems in their lives than older people, whilst a quarter of respondents indicated that they have serious financial problems, as well as a lack of education/skills and knowledge. Men with some education or matric would like to be helped in the form of donations and information in the small group context. Radio listeners learnt more than any other media attendance group from this campaign. Their biggest problem in life in financial, and they would like to alleviate it through donations and information in small groups. Older ladies, and males and females with matric, also enjoyed receiving information in small groups.

The following groups within the sample can be identified as respondents with similar profiles, with the aim of market segmentation:

Males (14-19)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enjoy roadshows very much (C2) • extensive users of the mass media, especially radio and television (C2) • have difficulties with campaign because it is against their tradition or it brought new ideas to them (C17) • biggest problem in life is family planning/size, and to a lesser extent finances (C18-19)
Males (20-29)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enjoy roadshows (C1) • became aware of roadshows by reading posters (C6) • have difficulties with campaign because it is against their tradition or it brought new ideas to them (C17) • biggest problem in life is financial and to a lesser extent a lack of education/skills (C18-19)
Males (30-39)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • dislike roadshows (C1) • became aware of roadshows by reading posters (C6) • have difficulties with campaign because it is against their tradition (C17) • biggest problem in life is a lack of finances and to a lesser extent family planning/size (C18-19)
Males (40-49)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • dislike roadshows (C1) • have difficulties with campaign because it is against their tradition (C17) • biggest problem in life is lack of education/skills and finances (C18-19)
Females (14-19)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • biggest problem in life is family planning/size, lack of education/skills and finances (C18)
Females (20-29)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enjoy ladies club meetings (C3) • tertiary education (C4) • biggest problem in life is lack of education/skills and finances (C18)
Females (30-39)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • biggest problem in life is family planning/size (C18)
Females (40-49)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • biggest problem in life is lack of education/skills and finances (C18)
Females in general	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • heard about roadshows via posters (educated females) and friends (low level of school) (C7-8) • learnt about women's empowerment, and to a lesser extent family planning/size and education/skills from campaign, especially ladies who expose themselves to the mass media regularly (C9) • females with children learnt more about family economy than females without children (C12), and the more children females have, the more they want to learn about family economy (C13) • would liked to be helped via radio and roadshows (no education group), financial, small groups and similar campaigns (ladies with some formal education), financial and small groups (matric and tertiary education) (C20) • would like to receive help in the form of donations, radio and tv information (radio listeners), tv, radio and roadshows (tv watchers), small group discussions (broadcast media group) and donations and small groups (broadcast and print media group) (C21) • female radio listeners learnt more from campaign than other groups (C9-11) • have difficulties with the concept of family economy (especially those with children) and to a lesser extent with the entertainment aspect of the campaign (C12-14) • who listen to radio, and those who attend to broadcast and print media, would like to be helped in their private lives with financial donations, and indicated a need for information in the small group context (C21) • older females have a higher educational level, enjoy ladies club meetings (C3-4) • ladies with matric, enjoyed the small group context (C20)
Males in general	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • didn't learn about women's empowerment from campaign (C9) • learnt about education and skills from campaign (C9) • young males enjoy radio and roadshows (C1-2) • split between those who enjoyed the campaign and those who didn't (C16-17) • with some education/matric, would like to be helped in the form of money or they indicated a need for more information in the small group context (C20)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • with matric would like to receive information in the small group context (C20) • highly educated men didn't enjoy the campaign as much as men with less education (C15)
Young people	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • indicated more problems in their life than older people, namely lack of funds and to a lesser extent a lack of education, skills and knowledge (C18-19)

Table 2: Preliminary market segmentation groups

The frequency tables indicate the following information regarding communication media in the Population Development sample:

F = frequency table; C=cross tabulation

Posters	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • most people heard about roadshows via posters, especially female radio listeners (C8)
TV	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a very popular mass medium (F8 and F23)
Radio	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the most popular mass medium (F8 and F23) • especially males who enjoyed roadshows (C2) • female radio listeners heard about roadshows via posters (C8) • radio listeners learnt more about women's empowerment, and family planning and family size than any other mass media group (C10) • female radio listeners also learnt about education/skills from the campaign (C11) • male radio listeners indicated that they had difficulties with the campaign messages because they are against their tradition (C16) • females with little education are frequent radio listeners (21) • males and females with no or little formal school education indicated that they would like to be helped in terms of the problems they experience in life, through information via the radio and roadshows (C20)
RTV	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • music on RTV enjoyed (F17-18)
Ladies Clubs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • social and small group aspects enjoyed, as well as contact with the presenter and the message (F14-16) • ladies aged 20-29 attend ladies club meetings regularly (C3) • ladies with tertiary education enjoy ladies club meetings most (C4)
Roadshows	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • very popular, especially songs and drama (F19) • most people learnt about roadshows via posters and to a lesser extent friends (F9) • young males enjoyed roadshows more than other male groups (C1) • males who enjoy radio also enjoy roadshows (C2)
Small groups / face-to-face	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • this suggested media is very popular (F23) • most people heard about roadshows via face-to-face media (F9) • males and females with some education or tertiary education would like to be helped in terms of problems experienced in their private lives through small group discussions (C20)
Print media	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • less popular than the broadcast media (F8) • males who often read magazines and newspapers indicated that they had difficulties with the campaign messages because they are against their tradition (C16) • people who read newspapers and magazines regularly, indicated that they had learnt most about the campaign message than any other group (C10)

Table 3: Campaign media

This preliminary statistical analysis can be related to the DC/DSC discourse. The DC approach is to diffuse pre-packaged messages to an audience via the mass media. From

the case study it is evident that radio is the most popular of all the mass media, and that television is also popular to a lesser extent, whilst very few people in the sample read magazines and newspapers regularly. Many respondents expose themselves to a combination of the various mass media. The DSC approach, on the other hand, suggests using face-to-face interpersonal communication, often in a small group. Many respondents indicated that their problem in life is a lack of finances which is often related to a self-identified need for more information, which should be released in a small group situation. The argument of combining the mass media with interpersonal media, as suggested by various scholars, is supported by the case study findings. It seems therefore that respondents indicated that they would support a combination of mass media (especially radio) and interpersonal communication as media to gain more information. These findings are in line with other surveys in the same geographical area which relate the interpersonal communication preference as between 50% and 42%, and indicate that the higher the urbanisation level, the lower the value attributed to interpersonal communication and radio, and the more towards television (cf. Burger, 1996b; and Merham & Hooyberg, 1996:21).

This section identified tendencies by means of conventional statistical analysis. These tendencies could be regarded as of an exploratory nature and will be used to serve as a guide to further interpretation in the next chapter.

Chapter 7¹

Interpretation of survey results

7.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the final interpretation stage of the data set, identifying trends which provide a basis for the communication strategy of future developmental campaigns in this area. These trends focus on communication media used and preferred by respondents, and market segmentation.

The statistical method of correspondence analysis is usually employed to provide clarity when a large data set is analysed such as in the present case. The correspondence analysis displayed in this chapter builds on the conclusions of the statistical analysis in the previous chapter. Conventional statistical tables usually indicate the relationship among two or three variables. Correspondence analysis indicate mainly trends and associations between a large number of variables (more than 50 in this case study). This statistical method visually explains the relationship between these variables:

- the closer the points are to one another on the graphic display, the stronger the association, and
- the stronger the association between variables, the more effective it will be to combine these variables in an information campaign.

The large number of variables which are used in this case study suggests a breakdown of the graphic display, indicating the relationship between variables. This chapter will therefore use different aspects of the same map to illustrate market segmentation groups in terms of biographical detail, and to illustrate the characteristics (profile) of each group.

¹ Sections of chapter 6 and 7 are included in a paper presented at the International Symposium: Culture, Communication and Development, held at the HSRC (cf. Burger, 1996b).

This chapter will use a number of graphic displays to illustrate market segmentation groups. Although for the sake of clarity, these displays are analysed on their own, they are based on the same statistical procedures, implying that they could be analysed simultaneously if all the points were placed on the same map. This would however, be confusing, because of the large number of variables presented in such a combined display. A complete map, indicating all the variables are however given in appendix 1. A summary of these trends is given in table 5 (at the end of this chapter).

The first display illustrates the distribution of age and gender groups which will form the basis for the other displays analysed in this chapter.

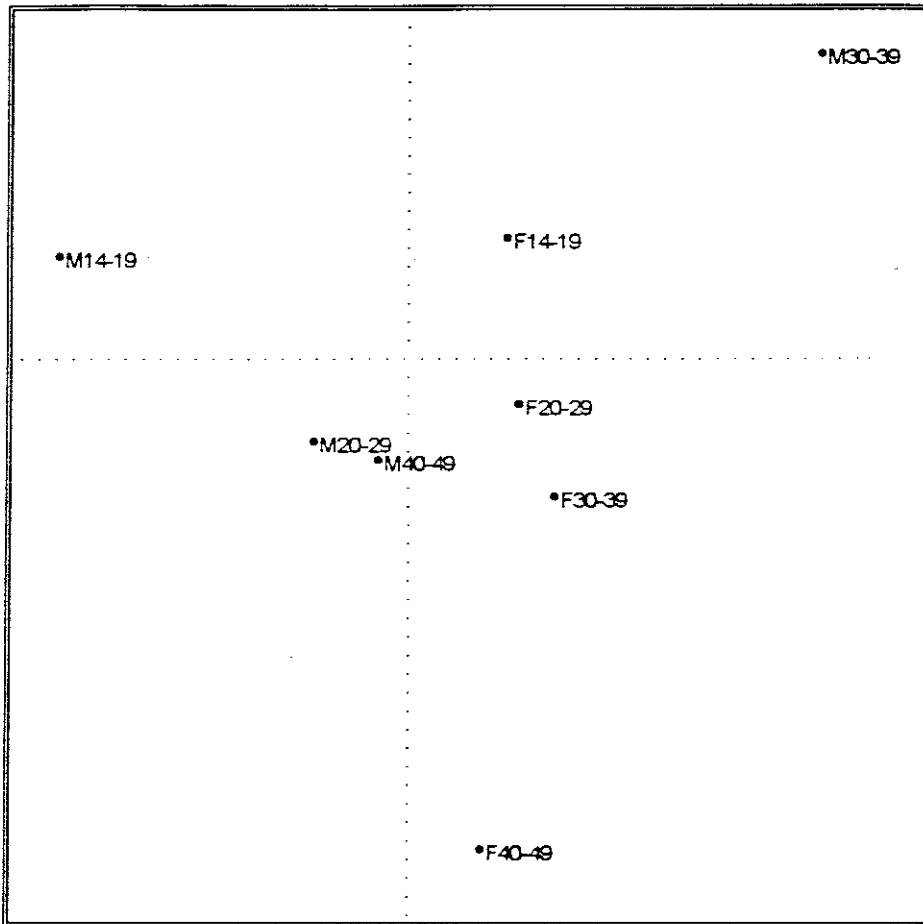
The other graphic displays illustrate the following characteristics of each market segmentation group in terms of survey questions 11, 12, 17, 18, 46, 48, 49, 52 and 53 of the questionnaire (see appendix 1):

- age
- gender
- educational levels
- mass media attendance
- communication media suggested by respondents for information campaigns
- campaign topics interested in
- unpopular campaign topics
- motivations for this dislike
- problems respondents experience in their personal lives

7.2 Distribution of age and gender groups

Market segmentation is the technique of dividing the target audience into groups embracing the same interests and who match similar profiles. The technique of market analysis is applied to the data set in this chapter by using correspondence analysis, with the result of identifying different markets of the target audience of an information campaign or development programme.

Correspondence analysis display 1 indicates the relationship between the four female age groups and four male age groups used in this survey.



LEGEND

F - female respondents - age groups
 M - male respondents - age groups

The four female age groups are displayed along a smooth vertical line to the right of the display, with the older group (40-49 years) removed from the adult age groups (20-29 and 30-39 years). The younger females (14-19) are placed to the top of the display. This indicates that the perspectives of older females about the various aspects of the Population Development survey differ from those of the younger ladies. In a campaign the mature ladies should be treated separately from the rest of the ladies. The other three groups are close enough together in terms of their perspectives on the campaign to be treated as a unit in future development programmes, unless they need to be combined with some of the male groups.

The four male age groups are placed in the upper half of the display, in a horizontal plane, with the males aged 30-39 clearly removed from the other groups. The males aged 20-29

and 40-49 are grouped together, and the young males (14-19) towards the left of the display. In future campaigns the young males should be treated as a separate group, as well as the males 30-39, but the males aged 20-29 and 40-49 may be treated as a unit. With careful planning it may be possible to group the males only in three groups similar to the female groups, namely 14-19 years, 20-39 and older males.

If both genders are combined, different communication strategies will have to be designed, each focusing on different age groups. Older females (aged 40-49) should be treated as a unit, males aged 20+ and younger females (14-39) as a second unit and a third strategy for the youngest males should be designed. A fourth unit may be formed of men aged 30-39.

There is a certain amount of overlap in the adult/mature males, adult females and young female groups in terms of the questions asked in the survey, indicating the possibility of combining these groups as a target audience in campaigns. The young males aged 14-19 and the males aged 30-39 are removed from the other variables in the data, as well as the older ladies aged 40-49.

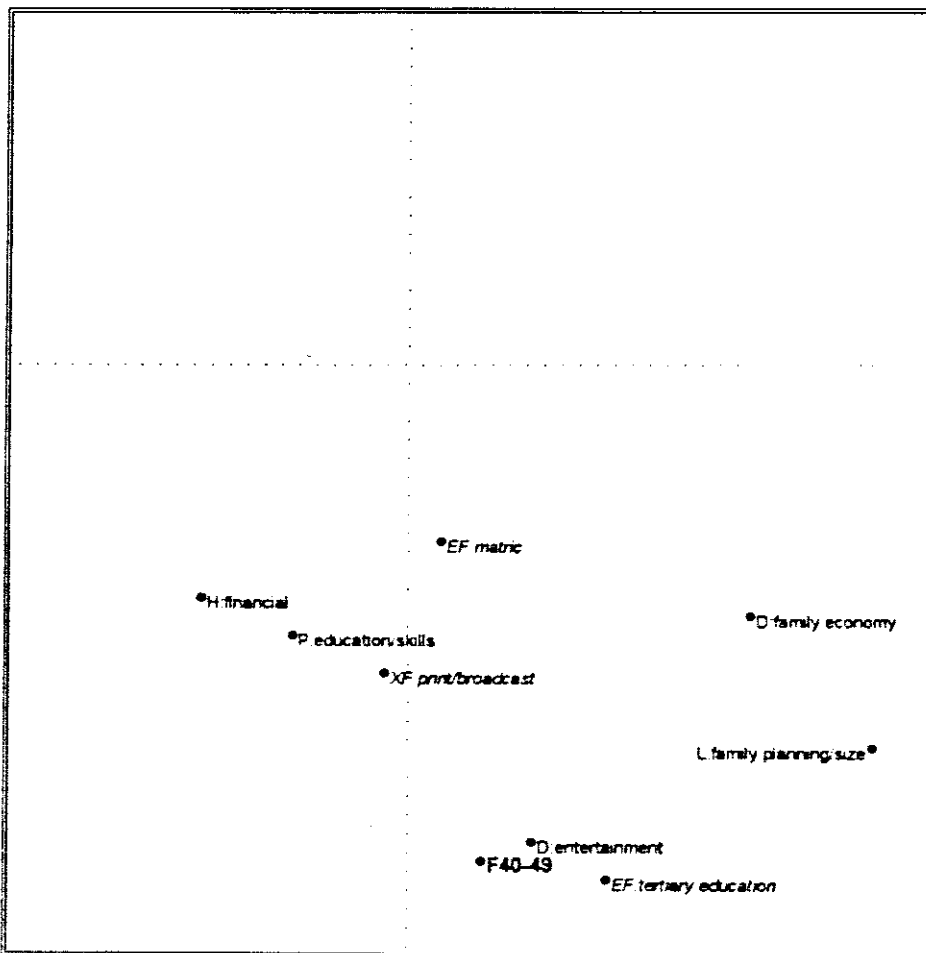
7.3 Market segmentation

This section will suggest further guidelines for a communication strategy for future Population Development campaigns, by analysing other biographic data and respondents' perceptions of the Population Development campaign message. The following six maps each represent a segment of the "market" to be "targeted" in an information campaign, indicating *only the variables with a relatively strong association* (points closest to each group). For a full picture of the association between all the variables see the combined map in appendix I. The scale of all the maps displayed in this chapter is the same and the maps could be read together in the combined map. The segments as displayed in each map, consist of the groups as indicated in the previous map, namely:

- mature females (aged 40-49)
- adult males (aged 20-29 and 40-49)
- adult males (aged 30-39)
- adult females (aged 20-39)
- young females (aged 14-19)
- young males (aged 14-19)

7.3.1 Females aged 40-49 (CA Map 2)

The females aged 40-49 are placed towards the bottom of the map. They didn't enjoy the entertainment aspect of the campaign and are associated closely with tertiary education. They don't expose themselves frequently to the mass media, but when doing so, they are exposed to the combination of broadcast/print media. They gained some information from the family planning/family size segment of the campaign and are associated with tertiary education. This group either disliked or didn't understand the family economy section of the campaign, and indicated that they would like to acquire a higher level of education/skills, and if help is offered to them it should alleviate their financial problems. An entry point to this groups would be to focus on their finances in order to improve their existing situation (probably employment/job) because they would like to care better for their respective families.

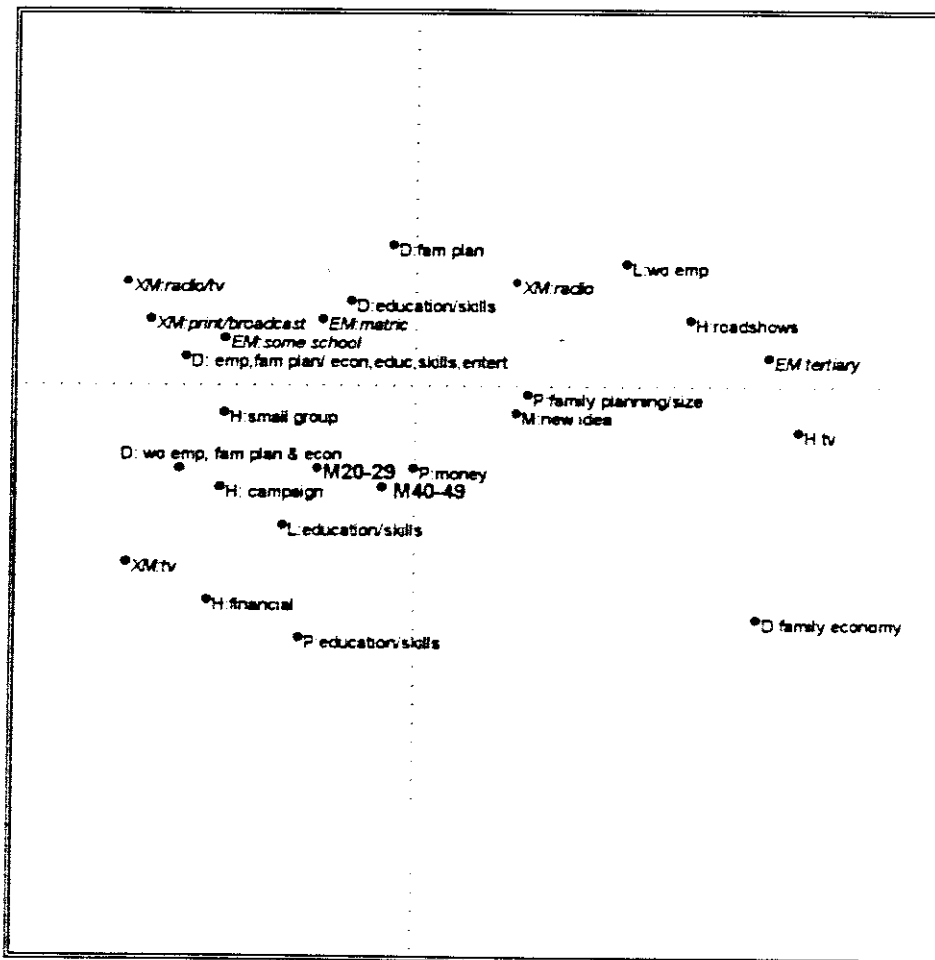


LEGEND

- | | |
|--|--|
| M - Male age groups (eg 14-19) | D - difficulties with campaign: didn't like /didn't understand it |
| F - Female age groups (eg 14-19) | L - learnt from campaign |
| EF - education female | P - problems in personal life |
| EM - education male | M - motivating difficulties |
| XF - current mass media exposure (females) | H - how should help be offered (or through which media should information be released) |
| XM - current mass media exposure (males) | |

7.3.2 Males aged 20-29 and 40-49 (CA Map 3)

Males aged 20-29 and 40-49 are grouped close to each other. This group is exposed to television and the men in their twenties are also exposed to radio, television and the print media. Most have some formal school education, especially the younger men in this group. They indicated that the concept of population development is a new idea to them, explaining the negativity experienced towards the campaign. What they've enjoyed is the skills/educational side of the campaign. The biggest problem they experience in their private lives are the lack of education/skills, finances, and family planning/family size. They didn't appreciate the women's empowerment, family economy and family planning/family size aspects of the campaign. They would enjoy a campaign using small groups and the media used in the Population Development campaign in general. In order to alleviate their personal problems, information should be released and education should take place in small groups, and the campaign media. There is an association between their financial problems and an eagerness about gaining skills or being educated.

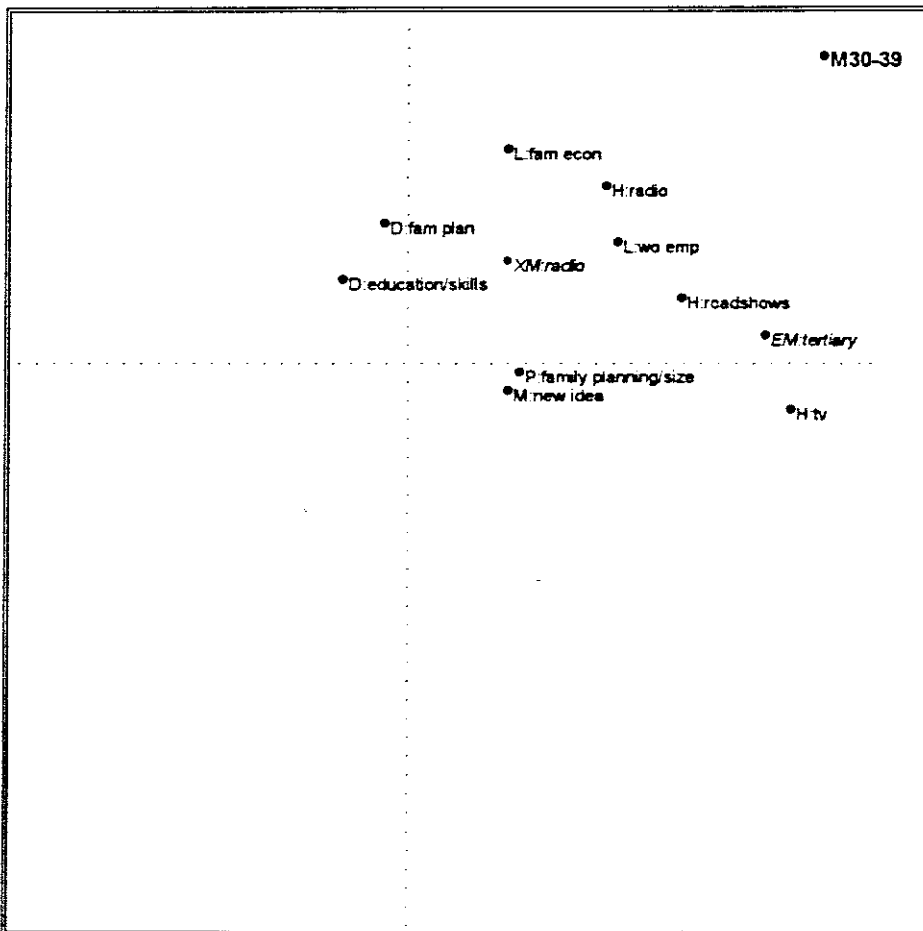


M - Male age groups (eg 14-19)
 F - Female age groups (eg 14-19)
 EF - education female
 EM - education male
 XF - current mass media exposure (females)
 XM - current mass media exposure (males)

D - difficulties with campaign, didn't like /didn't understand it
 L - learnt from campaign
 P - problems in personal life
 M - motivating difficulties
 H - how should help be offered (or through which media should information be released)

7.3.3 Males aged 30-39 (CA Map 4)

The group to the top right hand of the map is the males aged 30-39. They dissociate themselves from the other groups. The variables discussed in this section do not have a very close association. The closest ones, however are indicated on the graphic display. They have indicated that they believe that radio and sometimes television or roadshows should be used in campaigns, although they are not using it frequently at the moment. They have indicated that they learnt about women's empowerment and family economy matters from the campaign. Generally they have formal school education, and indicated that roadshows should be used to bring information to them.

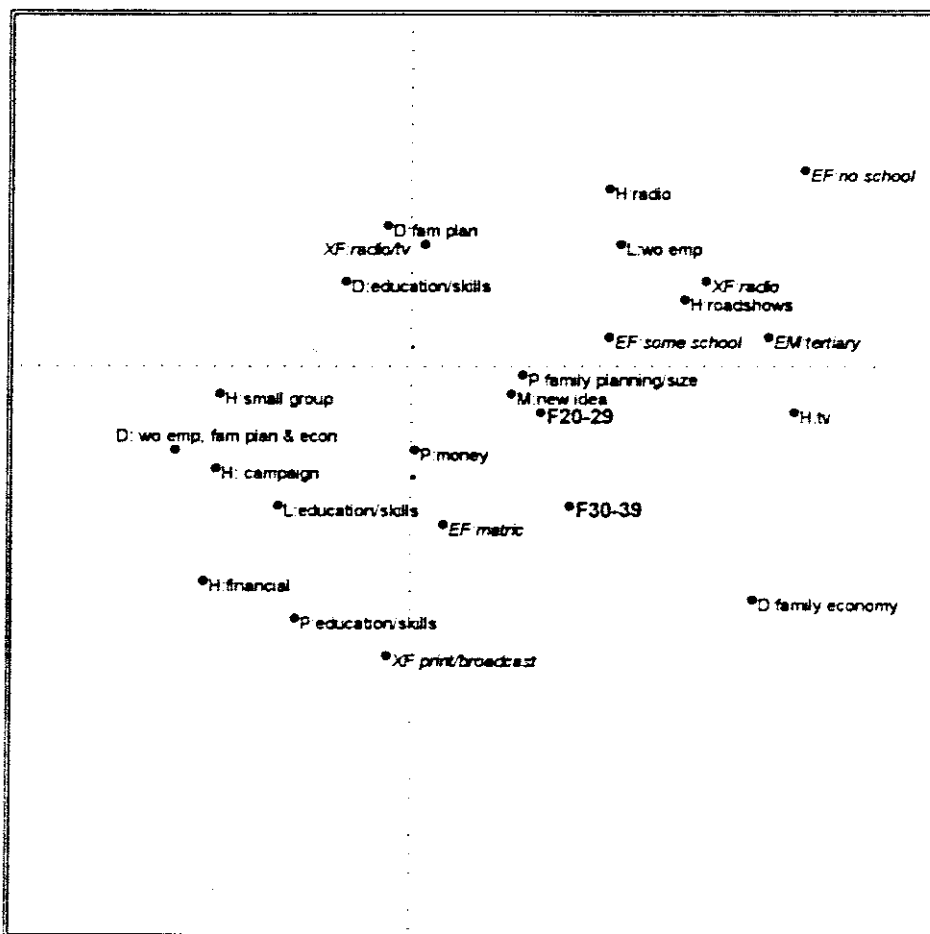


LEGEND

- | | |
|--|--|
| M - Male age groups (eg 14-19) | D - difficulties with campaign: didn't like /didn't understand it |
| F - Female age groups (eg 14-19) | L - learnt from campaign |
| EF - education female | P - problems in personal life |
| EM - education male | M - motivating difficulties |
| XF - current mass media exposure (females) | H - how should help be offered (or through which media should information be released) |
| XM - current mass media exposure (males) | |

7.3.4 Females aged 20-29 and 30-39 (CA Map 5)

The females aged 20-39 have generally achieved an educational level of matric or have at least received some secondary schooling. These women, especially those in their twenties saw the population development message as a new idea. The biggest problems in their private lives are family planning/family size, and a lack of finances. The group aged 20-29 identifies closely with radio and to a lesser extent with television, whilst the group aged 30-39 prefers the print/broadcast media. Both groups identified television as a suitable medium to convey educational messages. They had difficulties with or didn't understand the family economy, family planning, education/skills part of the campaign, and indicated that they liked the women's empowerment aspect of the campaign. The biggest problem in their personal lives is a lack of education/skills. They indicated that they would like to gain information, particularly via roadshows.



LEGEND

M - Male age groups (eg 14-19)

F - Female age groups (eg 14-19)

EF - education female

EM - education male

XF - current mass media exposure (females)

XM - current mass media exposure (males)

D - difficulties with campaign didn't like /didn't understand it

L - learnt from campaign

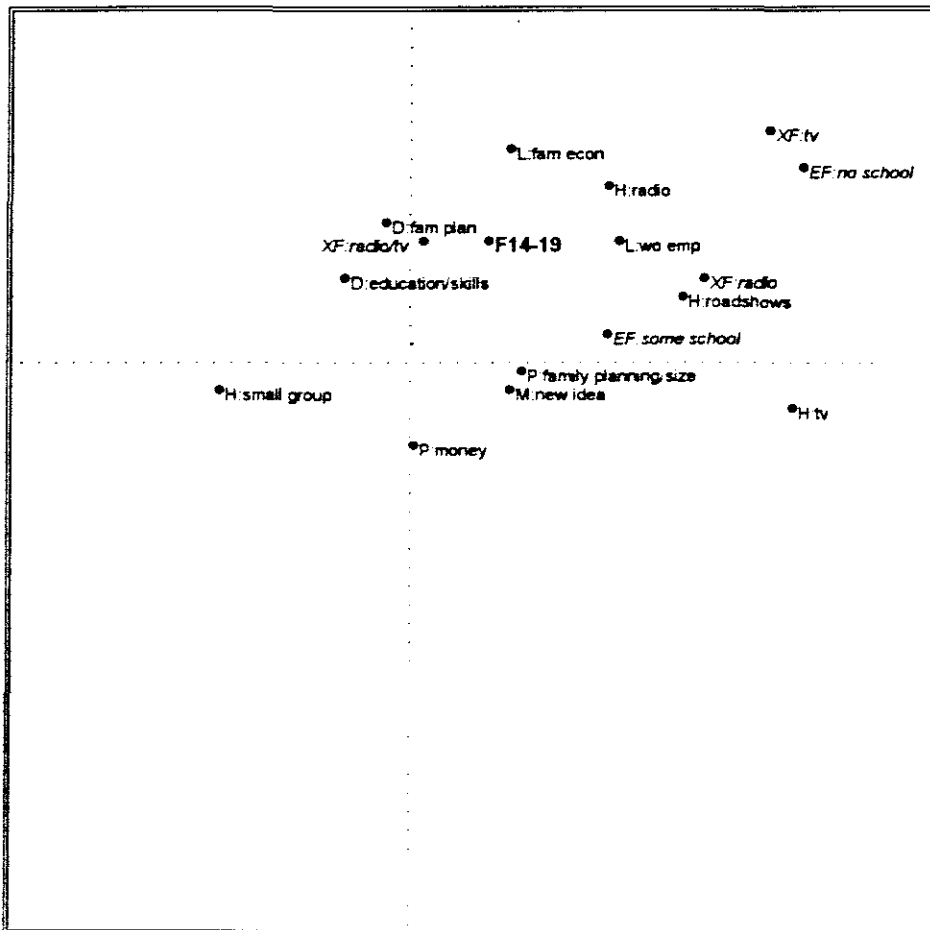
P - problems in personal life

M - motivating difficulties

H - how should help be offered (or through which media should information be released)

7.3.5 Females aged 14-19 (CA Map 6)

The younger females aged 14-19 indicated that they have learned about family economy and women's empowerment from this campaign. They had difficulties with the family planning/family size segment of the campaign, indicating that they did not acquire educational information from this campaign. They are regularly exposed to radio and sometimes to television. They suggested that radio and roadshows should be used in future campaigns. The biggest problem in their personal lives is family planning/family size, and this indicated that planning in this regard is a new idea to them. They have completed some formal education, but not yet matric.

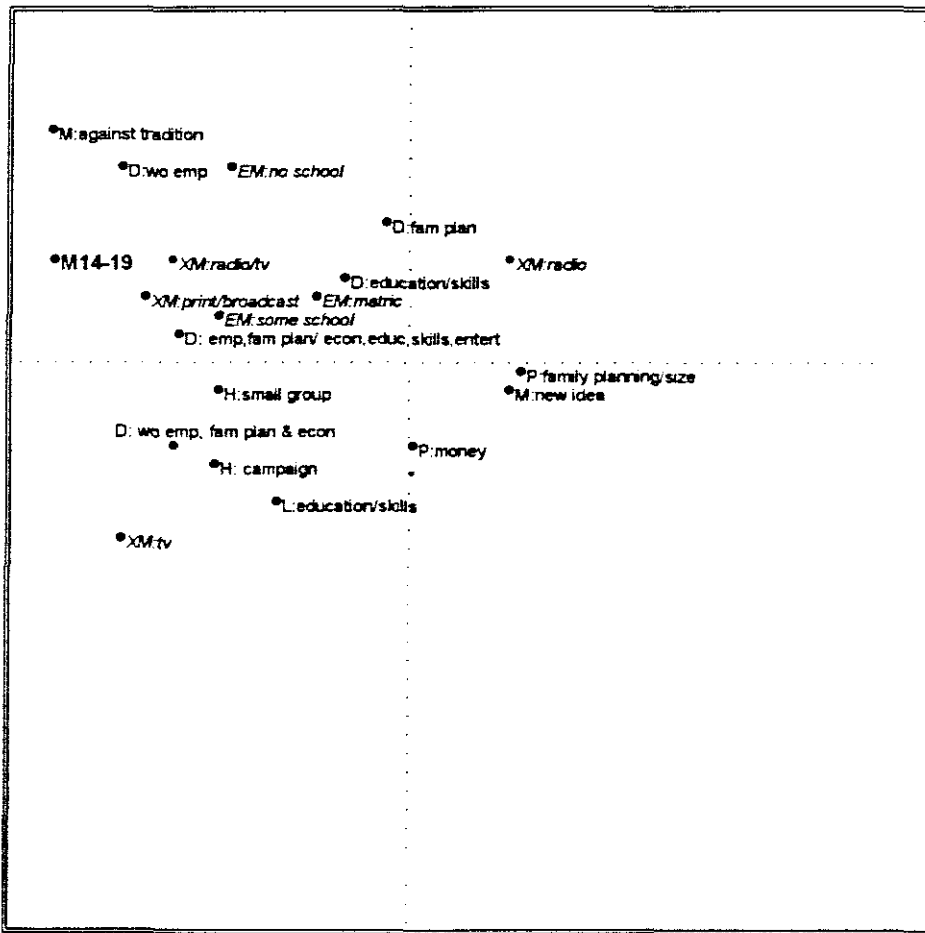


LEGEND

- | | |
|--|---|
| M - Male age groups (eg 14-19) | D - difficulties with campaign: didn't like /didn't understand it |
| F - Female age groups (eg 14-19) | L - learnt from campaign |
| EF - education female | P - problems in personal life |
| EM - education male | M - motivating difficulties |
| XF - current mass media exposure (females) | H - how should help be offered (or through which media |
| XM - current mass media exposure (males) | should information be released) |

7.3.6 Males aged 14-19 (CA Map 7)

The young males aged 14-19 didn't like the women's empowerment component of the campaign and to a lesser extent the family economy and planning segments, the reason being that these ideas are against their traditions. They are exposed to radio, television and the print media. They suggested that information should be conveyed in small groups. Some of these young males have some formal education, while others have not attended any formal school.



LEGEND

- | | |
|--|---|
| M - Male age groups (eg 14-19) | D - difficulties with campaign: didn't like /didn't understand it |
| F - Female age groups (eg 14-19) | L - learnt from campaign |
| EF - education female | P - problems in personal life |
| EM - education male | M - motivating difficulties |
| XF - current mass media exposure (females) | H - how should help be offered (or through which media |
| XM - current mass media exposure (males) | should information be released) |

7.4 Summary

On the basis of answers given to questions stated in the questionnaire, correspondence analysis displays were statistically calculated. From the correspondence analysis maps discussed, it is clear that there are definite groups within the sample, according to attributes such as biographics, problems in life, perceptions about the campaign and mass media attendance. Respondents in these groups fit a similar profile, and can therefore be treated as a unit in development programmes and information campaigns. The older people should be grouped in separate genders, but the younger people may be combined for an information campaign.

Table 4 summarises the above-mentioned discussion in terms of the campaign topics in which the respondents were interested and the topics they didn't appreciate, the reasons for this negative perception and the problems they experience in life, combined with their age, gender, education and media preferences. This table gives detail about the four different male age groups, whilst the ladies are arranged in only three groups, because the profiles of the ladies 20-29 and 30-39 are similar.

It is suggested that a campaign for mature females (aged 40-49) should employ small group media, since they are not extensive users of the mass media and they reacted positively to the ladies club meetings of the campaign. They also indicated that the topics of family planning and family size interest them, as well as providing information regarding the improvement of education and skills, since they indicated that they are interested in these topics and they experience financial problems. Generally this group has the highest educational level of the all the groups in the sample.

Age & Gender	Educational level	Media attendance and suggestions (printed in italics)	Campaign topics interested in	Campaign topics don't like and motivation (printed in italics)	Problems in life
Males 40-49	matric completed or some school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>similar campaign</i> • <i>small groups</i> • TV • print broadcast • radio • radio-TV 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • education /skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • message <i>Motivation:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • new idea / didn't understand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • financial • education /skills • family planning
Males 30-39	some school to tertiary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>radio</i> • <i>roadshows</i> • <i>television</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • women's empowerment • family economy 		
Males 20-29	some schooling to matric completed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>small groups</i> • <i>similar campaign</i> • TV • print broadcast • radio-TV • radio 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • education skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • message <i>Motivation:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • new idea / didn't understand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • financial • education skills • family planning
Males 14-19	no to some schooling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • radio-TV • print broadcast • <i>small groups</i> • <i>similar campaign</i> 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • women's empowerment • message • education/skills <i>Motivation:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • against tradition (respondents with no school education) 	
Females 14-19	some formal school education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • radio-TV • <i>roadshows</i> • television 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • women's empowerment • family economy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • family planning • education/skills <i>Motivation:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • new idea / didn't understand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • family planning/size
Females 20-39	some schooling to matric (the older the higher the education)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • radio • <i>roadshows</i> • <i>television</i> • print broadcast • radio-TV 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • women's empowerment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • family economy • education/skills <i>Motivation:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • new idea / didn't understand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • family planning/size • financial • education skills
Females 40-49	tertiary education, some with matric only	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>print broadcast and small groups (not indicated on CA map but a positive response towards Ladies Clubs was indicated in cross-tabulation 21)</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • family planning/size 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • entertainment • family economy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • education skills

Table 4: Summary of results: market segmentation

LEGEND

- *Media attendance* refers to the mass media respondents regularly expose themselves to
- *Message* refers to the combination of woman's empowerment and family planning, size and economy.
- The order in which the variables are stated indicates closeness of association, the variables at the top of each block have the closest association with the particular gender/age group.
- Some of the media are used in combination e.g. radio/TV

Females in their twenties and thirties enjoy radio, television and the print media, and are interested in many topics related to the Population Development campaigns, namely, financial skills, education, entertainment and family planning. They indicated that they didn't appreciate the family economy and education/skills aspects of the campaign, because they found these to be new ideas and didn't understand the concepts, but they enjoy ideas about women's empowerment. An entry point (cf. Eilers and Oepen, 1990:309-310) to conversations with this group may be conveying information about the improvement of their financial position in life, raising educational levels, passing on of skills and family planning. They have a similar or higher educational level as compared to that of the younger ladies, which suggests that the higher the age, the higher the educational level.

Young females enjoyed both radio and television, and suggested that roadshows be used in campaigns. They have some formal school education, but have not completed matric. They would like more information about family planning and have a need for education and acquiring skills. They enjoyed the women's empowerment and family economy aspects of the campaign. It is therefore recommended that this group receive information via the media they prefer (radio, and to a lesser extent television and print media), with the focus on entertainment conveying messages about family planning and other educational aspects. This is in line with the reasons Cannonici (1989:IV) gives, explaining that young Zulu people enjoy the entertainment aspect when a grandmother in a traditional setting tells folktales.

Males in their twenties and thirties and young females suggested the same media and have the same preferences about campaign topics as the young females. A campaign combining the young people in one group may therefore be considered. Males in their teens seem to have a low educational level, and are very traditional. A separate message should be designed for them. They are extensive users of radio and television, and to a lesser extent roadshows, and indicated that they would enjoy information in the small group context. Having many informal discussions may be seen as an entry point.

Mature males in this sample have either completed some formal school education or have passed matric, with some respondents having completed a tertiary qualification. This group may be reached with an educational message aiming at the improvement of the financial situation of the person. They have indicated that the campaign message brought new ideas to them which they don't understand. This indicates a need for information, and a rational approach conveying information may be the entry point to this group. Radio, print, television, as well as small group communication may be used to reach this group.

This market analysis therefore indicates clearly the different groups to be targeted in an information campaign. Groups with similar profiles can be regarded as a market segment. This analysis suggests that older ladies should be treated separately from the men. The smooth vertical line representing the female groups suggests that it would be possible to draw the adult ladies and mature ladies into one group, and some of the younger ladies of this group, possibly in their twenties, should be targeted along with the women in their teens. In that case only two main female target groups are identified, simplifying a media campaign. The distribution of male groups on the correspondence analysis map indicates a split in perceptions between younger men (aged 14-19) and older men. The group of younger ladies have a similar profile to that of the males aged 20-29 and may be grouped together. A separate campaign for older men (30+) is suggested, but some of the older men (40-49) may enjoy the campaign targeted at younger people. Therefore age, more than gender, should be the dividing factor for the younger people, although a strong polarisation between the older and younger respondents is evident in both genders.

It is therefore strongly recommended that the above market segmentation information is used when planning a communication strategy for future information campaigns, especially if the target audience matches that of the profile of the Population Development survey in a section of north-eastern KwaZulu-Natal.

In terms of the DC/DSC discourse, after analysis of the responses given, it is clear that a combination of mass media and small group communication should be used in future development initiatives. All groups, except males aged 30-39, suggest the use of small group communication, whilst most groups also use the radio for developmental messages. Television is not as popular as radio, but has a far better market penetration than the print media, namely newspapers and commercial magazines.

Chapter 8

Conclusion and recommendations:

Towards a communication strategy for development initiatives

8.1 The DC/DSC discourse

Since the aftermath of the Second World War, when the West became actively involved in Third World development aid, the dominant development perspective has led to little change in the plight of the Third World poor. According to the dominant paradigm Third World development should be a sped-up version of West-European reconstruction after the devastating war. This type of development aid focuses mainly on economic growth, the diffusion of innovations and technology, and motivating people to adopt new or to change existing behaviour. The effects of development are modernisation and Westernisation because the influx of innovations and technology was accompanied by Western culture and political ideologies. Although this type of development was often well-intentioned, it usually propagated change to the extent that the indigenous culture was endangered. The accompanying communication strategy is called Development Communication (DC).

DC consists of messages created outside the beneficiary's immediate environment, usually by people ignorant of the immediate circumstances of the beneficiary. This fact led to DC being seen as top-down and authoritarian. DC usually operates at an international or regional level. The beneficiaries are passive in the development process, which is run by experts from outside the community. This argument is based on the stimulus-response theory, arguing that a development message (stimulus) will lead to development (response). The mass media are often used to convey development messages which are supposed to create a climate of acceptance among beneficiaries of new ideas. The development facilitators or change agents are usually experts in a specific field (such as agriculture or health) and bring technology.

innovations, and scientific knowledge to beneficiaries, aiming to improve the physical quality of their lives. The beneficiaries are therefore "developed" and "empowered" by the benefactors. During the 1970s, after the failure of the dominant paradigm became evident, new development approaches emerged. These alternative approaches coincided with the Development Support Communication (DSC) model.

In contrast with the DC approach, the DSC approach argues for a participatory situation in which the benefactor and the beneficiary will have discussions on a level of equal status, whilst determining the community's development needs. The process of communication is therefore horizontal and aims at knowledge-sharing, the beneficiary's knowledge is valued and his desire to maintain control over his basic needs is respected. The interests and needs of the community therefore predominate in this type of development. The roles of the benefactors and beneficiaries are often interlinked, to such an extent that self-training, self-development and self-empowerment take place. The wisdom of the community, its traditions and the framework of indigenous cultural knowledge is respected. Development is therefore aimed at improving not only physical and economic aspects, but the entire quality of life, focusing on the development of the human being.

8.2 The scale of development initiatives

DSC is therefore ideally suited to small development initiatives such as "grassroots" or community development. The existing traditions and culture of the community are respected, and the community retains dignity.

Large scale development programmes often use the mass media, because it is time-consuming and costly to run small group discussions on a large scale. The communication strategy is then communicator-orientated. Examples of such campaigns are found in the fields of advertising, marketing and public relations, and take the following steps: situation analysis, determining goals, media planning, defining the promotion plan, obtaining approval from the client, implementation and evaluation.

Criticism from a DSC perspective includes the preoccupation with the needs of the communicator and the disregard of the needs of the beneficiary.

8.3 A combination of media

Since it is impractical to embark on large scale or nationwide development initiatives from the DSC/new paradigm perspective, various scholars support the idea of combining the positive aspects of the DC and DSC approaches. The integrative approach aims at combining the DSC aspects of participation, focusing on most of the development needs of the beneficiary, and using small group communication situations. The DC aspect of retaining power with the benefactor is used in this approach. Through negotiations between the benefactor and beneficiary the development goals of the two parties are determined and aligned.

Large scale development projects often focus on issues determined outside the benefactor's environment, such as government revealing the latest research on health issues which may have an effect on benefactors' perceptions of the topic and on their subsequent behaviour. Here a combination of communication media and development approaches is suggested. The decision to release information takes place outside the community, and the diffusion of information is inherently top-down and characteristic of the dominant paradigm. The announcement of the existence of the program often takes place on the national mass media, by a leading figure, and is also typical of the dominant paradigm and a DC approach. This announcement sets the agenda for informal conversation throughout the area in question, and is followed up with smaller, regional or community media releasing further information as well as small group discussion sessions.

The main feature of the mass media is to multiply a general message rapidly to a large audience in a short space of time, implying a general awareness campaign, before a more intensive and detailed phase of the campaign, which will take place in the small group context, in a face-to-face situation. The mass media are usually used to reach a

heterogeneous audience, therefore the message is general, but since small media are used in smaller groups, it is possible to shape the message to accommodate a homogeneous audience.

The multi-channel approach suggested by various scholars is supported in this thesis. One example of such an approach would be to reinforce radio messages in the print media, while another would be to use interpersonal communication in conjunction with the mass media in the form of radio listening groups or forums. In a training session pre-packaged electronic messages should be interrupted by the presenter. Other media designed for training sessions include the sound-picture combination, (videos and audio-cassettes), flipcharts, photographs, overhead transparencies, and competitions. The "novelty" effect of the electronic media attracts attention and this should be used to convey the message, especially if it can be linked to a prominent leader (such as the president) announcing large-scale projects.

The Population Development case study indicated clearly the suggestion from respondents that they value both face-to-face communication and the mass media. The more rural the respondent, the higher face-to-face communication and radio are valued, whilst the more urbanised, the more television is preferred over radio, and the less face-to-face communication is valued. Radio seems to be enjoyed by the younger generation who have in respect of their age, a relatively low level of formal school education. The print media are not highly valued amongst the respondents, whilst television is popular. The entertainment part of the Population Development campaign was enjoyed by younger people, who liked the medium of roadshows most. In the roadshows the songs, dance, and drama were very popular.

8.4 Market segmentation

The technique of market segmentation, whereby beneficiaries are divided into groups with the same characteristics, such as age, gender, income/financial situation, communication media preference, perceptions about specific issues, interests.

influences, needs and problems can be useful in both small and large scale development initiatives.

In small scale projects, such groups may already exist within a community, and should merely be identified, for example church groups, age/gender groups, sports groups, political affiliations, stokvels, etc. In small scale development projects the communication emphasis will be on the small group situation and face-to-face communication. The DSC argument suggests that the existing systems of organisation in a community should be used for development purposes. The survey identified groups with similar characteristics within a number of communities.

The Population Development survey indicated that age, more than gender, should be the guideline for market segmentation in the survey area. Young people of both genders tend to have a similar profile, whilst the older men differ vastly from the younger men. The older ladies' perceptions differ from the younger ladies' ideas, but the female generation gap is smaller than the male generation gap.

Young people have some formal school education or have completed matric. They tend to listen to radio and watch television, and enjoy roadshows. They also indicated an interest in small group communication. Young people appreciate the music and entertainment aspects of these media. This finding is consistent with arguments of scholars about the importance of music and other community media in traditional African communities, suggesting that music, dance, drama (storytelling), and entertainment are often inseparable. Another argument which is supported in this thesis suggests that entertainment and social interaction are often linked to education. In African societies the learning of social values and skills often takes place in an informal situation, where education and entertainment are combined. This concept is nowadays called edutainment. In the "new" society, where people don't live in their traditional areas any more, but in an urbanised setting, some of the traditional music, dance, and stories still occur but in an adapted form. Some scholars argue that this natural process of change to traditional media may be used by development initiatives to convey developmental messages. This often culminates in comedies on television, or face-to-

face situations where entertainment and education are joined in edutainment. The performing arts and comedy are often combined in the mass media, and in particular in popular television shows (sitcoms). In the Population Development campaign these media, which are culturally acceptable, were combined in a roadshow which was very popular with the younger generation. If music is performed in the right context it always elicits audience participation both in the traditional setting and in a more urbanised or changed society.

Young females indicated that apart from the entertainment aspects of the Population Development campaign, they would like more information about family planning, education and skills. These elements could be an "entry point" to this group, and it would be appreciated if it were combined with entertainment.

Older males and females differ vastly and should be treated as separate groups. The ladies (20-49) were interested in the Population Development topics of family planning and family size, and indicated a need for information to improve their educational levels and skills in order to alleviate their financial problems. Older females don't expose themselves to the mass media regularly, but indicated an interest in small groups, and they didn't like the entertainment aspect of the campaign. Ladies in their twenties and thirties can easily be associated with the older ladies in an information campaign, as they appreciated the same elements in the campaign, but attend to all the mass media more regularly than the older ladies. The mature males would like to improve their knowledge or skills base and indicated that new ideas were brought to them in the Population Development campaign. The entry point to this group would therefore be via rational information. This cultural characteristic of the older generation should be respected in information campaigns. In a performance in traditional African societies the text of a drama is not rigid, but can be adapted according to audience response. This will probably happen in small group meetings, since the roles of the performer and the audience in traditional societies were interlinked. Small group meetings held according to the DSC approach suggest that the communicator and the recipient should exchange roles.

Other findings of the survey indicate that older males expose themselves to the mass media more than older ladies, and some also enjoy roadshows, which weren't appreciated by the adult and older ladies. Young people of both genders fit similar profiles (except for some males under 20), but the older people's profiles differ vastly and separate information campaigns should be designed to reach these groups.

The Population Development study identified homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 5, which have similar profiles in terms of interest in certain social issues. The community can be divided to group younger people, older women and older men as three separate groups (example 1), or alternatively the men can be divided into an older and a younger group, and women of all ages may then be grouped together (example 2) in an information campaign or a development programme.

Market segmentation example 1	Market segmentation example 2
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Males 14-29/35 and Females 14-24 • Males 30/35-49 • Females 25-49 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Males 14-29/35 • Males 30/35-49 • Females 14-24 • Females 25-49

Table 5: Market segmentation examples

The above market segmentation groups are based on age, gender, mass media exposure and perceptions about the Population Development campaign message. In large scale development projects, it is suggested that the mass media are used to create a general awareness about the theme of such an information campaign, and interpersonal media are employed to convey detailed information about issues within the broad theme of the campaign.

8.5 Future development initiatives

Researchers and development workers have argued for the last two decades that community media, especially face-to-face media and the mass media should be used in combination in development work.

In practice many examples exist where face-to-face communication is used in conjunction with the mass media in information campaigns. In most cases the process of communication between the development planner and the community would use both face-to-face communication and mass media to reinforce messages emerging out of discussions and dialogues. This thesis indicates that interpersonal communication is valued as much as, if not more than, the mass media in the communities included in the Population Development survey area. Face-to-face communication is valued more than the mass media in rural areas. Radio is often considered the most popular of all the mass media, regardless of the respondents' degree of urbanisation and level of education, and without implying that all people listen to the radio regularly. The higher the level of urbanisation the higher the tendency to attend to the mass media on a regular basis. The higher the educational level of the survey sample, the bigger the tendency to read the print media.

There is not one single perspective of development communication or a single development formula that will be successful in all development projects. Despite trends away from the "top-down" approach, many developers are still supporting this discourse. This thesis suggests combining the positive aspects of the old DC with the newer DSC models, resulting in an integrated media usage in information campaigns. This symbiosis of using the "small media" (suggested by DSC) in conjunction with the conventional mass media (suggested by the DC model) as a communication strategy for development efforts, is supported by a number of researchers in sub-Saharan Africa. The Population Development survey, which forms the basis of this study, identifies groups within the sample with similar biographical and mass media preference profiles. A number of other surveys undertaken in the same geographical area as the Population Development survey indicate that almost half of the respondents

value information received via interpersonal channels. This thesis therefore suggests using the mass media in conjunction with interpersonal media as the basis of a communication strategy for future information campaigns in this area.

An initial general awareness is often created via mass media messages, and then small group discussion sessions follow with the emphasis on mass participation. The issues discussed in these sessions are then emphasised via the mass media.

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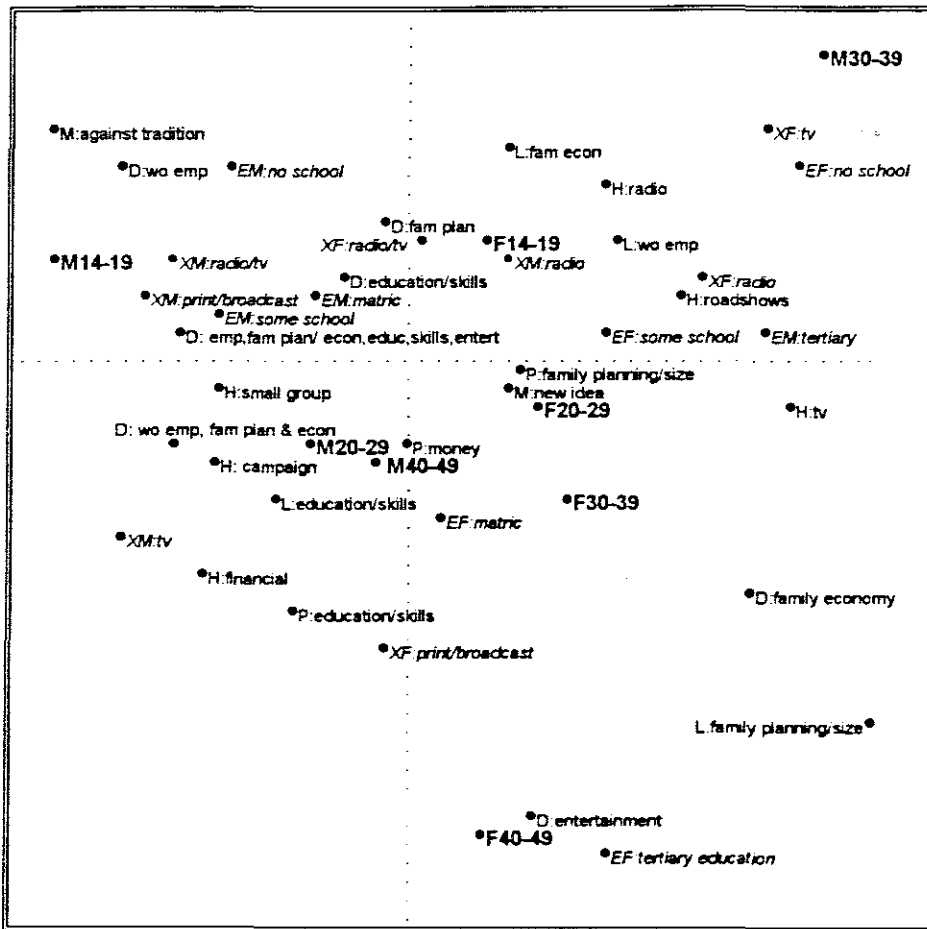
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Appendices

Combined Correspondence Analysis Graphic Display



LEGEND

M - Male age groups (eg 14-19)
 F - Female age groups (eg 14-19)
 EF - education female
 EM - education male
 XF - current mass media exposure (females)
 XM - current mass media exposure (males)

D - difficulties with campaign: didn't like /didn't understand it
 L - learnt from campaign
 P - problems in personal life
 M - motivating difficulties
 H - how should help be offered (or through which media should information be released)

**University of Zululand Research Project:
Group Africa's activities for
Population Development Programme**

Questionnaire

1. Interview

*(Interviews will be done verbally and the respondent will not see read the questionnaire)
(Explain that the rank order listed in questions is arbitrary)*

Please encircle the right answer!!

(Coding - missing data is coded ".")

1. Interviewer
2. Date
3. Place
4. Day of week
5. Time of day (morning/afternoon/evening)
6. Language in which interview is conducted
 1. Zulu
 2. Seswati
 3. English
 4. Other (specify)

Preamble

We are from the University of Zululand. We are here to talk to attendants of Group Africa's Roadshows, Ladies Club meetings and RTV screenings about how they perceive the Population Development Programme messages.

We are interested in the feelings and opinions of attendants. Therefore there are no right or wrong answers. This is not a test.

Personal information contained in this questionnaire will be kept confidential.

Please give us honest answers and evaluations, and feel free to ask for clarification of questions if necessary.

2. Exposure to Population Development's campaign

7. Have you heard about any of the following:

CARD 1 & 2 (photos)

- | | |
|-------------------|--------|
| 1. Roadshows | Yes/No |
| 2. Ladies Clubs | Yes/No |
| 3. Rural TV (RTV) | Yes/No |

In these Roadshows, RTV and Ladies Clubs, a period of time is spend on Population Development. We are going to talk about that part only.

CARD 3 (line drawings of time)

We want to make sure that we talk to people who really attended these activities. It would not only help us, but the messages you give us, will be used to improve the situation of your community.

8. Have you seen/attended the section in these about Population Development?

- | | |
|-------------------|--------|
| 1. Roadshows | Yes/No |
| 2. Ladies Clubs | Yes/No |
| 3. Rural TV (RTV) | Yes/No |

9. In the part about Population Development, a drama depicts two families. Can you remember the difference between the two families.

9.1 Yes/No

9.2 If Yes, what was the difference

10. Please try to complete the following slogan:

Modern trend families

If the respondent couldn't answer question 9 and 10 or chose No as an option in question 8, don't terminate the interview yet, continue with the section about demographics and then terminate the interview.

3. Demographics

Please encircle the right number

11. Age

1. 14-19
2. 20-29
3. 30-39
4. 40-49

If the respondent is not between 14 and 49 terminate the interview immediately!

12. Gender

1. Female
2. Male

13. Marital status

1. Unmarried
2. Engaged
3. Customarily married
4. Western law married
5. Divorced
6. Live in different areas
7. Widowed

14. Length of stay in area

1. -1 year
2. 1-2 year
3. 3-4 years
4. 4-5 years
5. 6+ years

15. Income in Rand per month

1. 0-300
2. 301-600
3. 601-1000
4. 1000-1500
5. 1500+

16. How many children under the age of 16 do YOU have?

17. Education

1. None
2. Some schooling
3. Matric completed
4. Tertiary education

18. Mass media exposure - Have you been exposed to media in the last month?

(select any number of responses)

1. Radio
2. Television
3. Newspapers
4. Magazines

If the respondents didn't see or attend any of the Population Development activities, terminate the interview now!

Make sure that you continue with the interview only if you are sure that the respondent attended / saw these activities!

4. Population Development's part in Roadshows

We spoke about Population Development's campaigns before. Now we are going to talk about the Roadshow part of Population Development.

CARD 1 (photo)

CARD 3 (line drawing)

19. Have you ever seen a Population Development part of the Roadshows?

Yes/No

If Yes, continue with this section.

If No, skip this section and proceed to the Ladies Club section.

20. When last did you see the Population Development part of a Roadshow?

1. 1995
2. 1994
3. 1993
4. 1992
5. Before 1992

21. Where did you see this last Roadshow? (Town and shop

22. Was the Population Development part of the Roadshow presented at a convenient time for you?

1. Yes
2. No

23. If No, when was it presented

24. How did you first learn about these activities of Population Development ?

1. Friends
2. Family
3. Posters
4. Shopkeeper
5. Passing by
6. Church
7. Community organisation (specify)
8. Other (specify)

25. Now, about the Population Development part of the Roadshow only ... Did you like the following?

(Encircle Yes or No at each of these items)

Aspects liked, should be rated: 1 - excellent

2 - good

3 - average

- | | | |
|---------------------------|----------|---------|
| 1. Songs | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 2. Drama | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 3. Games | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 4. Talk before the time | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 5. Presenter | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 6. Stage | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 7. Venue | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 8. Presentation | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 9. Time | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 10. Zulu dance | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 11. Content | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 12. Theme | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 13. Other (specify) | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |

26. Have you obtained any useful information from the Population Development's part of the Roadshow?

(Encircle Yes or No at each of these items)
Aspects liked, should be rated: 1 - excellent

2 - good
 3 - average

- | | | |
|--------------------------|----------|---------|
| 1. Songs | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 2. Drama | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 3. Games | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 4. Talk before the time | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 5. Presenter | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 6. Stage | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 7. Promotional items | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 8. Other (specify) | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |

27. Which of the above is the most effective in the Population Development part of the show?

28. Which, if any, of the above presented difficulties for you?

5. Population Development's part in Ladies Clubs

Now we are going to talk about the Ladies Club part of Population Development.

CARD (line drawing)

29. Have you ever attended a Ladies Club meeting which had a Population Development part in it?

Yes No

If Yes continue with this section

If No, skip this section

30. When last did you attend the *Population Development* part of the Ladies' Club meeting?

1. 1995
2. 1994
3. 1993
4. 1992
5. Before 1992

31. Where did you attend the meeting?

32. Were these activities presented at a convenient time for you?

1. Yes
2. No

33. If No, when were they presented

34. Here are some aspects of Population Development's Ladies Clubs. What did you like?

(Tick Yes or No at each of these items)

Aspects liked, should be rated: 1 - excellent

2 - good

3 - average

- | | | |
|--------------|----------|---------|
| 1. ID cards | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |
| 2. Presenter | (Yes/No) | (1 2 3) |

- 3. Social gathering (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 4. Talk / content (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 5. Promotional items (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 6. Time presented (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 7. Other (specify) (Yes/No) (1 2 3)

35. Which of the above is the most effective?

36. Which of the above is the least effective in the Population Development part of the meeting ?
.....

6. Population Development's advertisement on Rural Television (RTV)

Now we are going to talk about the RTV part of Population Development.

CARD 2

37. Have you ever seen the Population Development advertisement on RTV?

Yes No

If Yes continue with this section

If No, skip this section

38. When last did you see this Population Development advertisement on RTV?

- 1. 1995
- 2. 1994
- 3. 1993
- 4. 1992
- 5. Before 1992

39. Where did you see the last Population Development advertisement of a RTV screening?
.....

40. Was the Population Development advertisement presented at a convenient time for you?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

41. If No, when was it presented

42. Did you like the following in this advertisement?

(Encircle Yes or No at each of these items)

Aspects liked, should be rated: 1 - excellent

2 - good

3 - average

- 1. Message (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 2. Soundtrack (song and music) (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 3. Presenter (actor) (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 4. Drama (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 5. Time presented (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 6. Other (specify) (Yes/No) (1 2 3)

43. Here are some aspects of Rural Television. What did you like about RTV?

(Encircle Yes or No at each of these items)

*Aspects liked, should be rated: 1 - excellent
2 - good
3 - average*

- 1. Soccer (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 2. Other sports (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 3. Weddings (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 4. Coming of age ceremonies (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 5. Social gathering (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 6. Other (specify)..... (Yes/No) (1 2 3)

7. General

44. Were you given any promotional item?

Yes/No

45. Did you like the following promotional items? (Regardless whether you were given any)

(Encircle Yes or No at each of these items)

*Aspects liked, should be rated: 1 - excellent
2 - good
3 - average*

- 1. T-shirts (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 2. Bags (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 3. Caps (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 4. Trays (Yes/No) (1 2 3)
- 5. Rulers (Yes/No) (1 2 3)

46. Can you tell me briefly what you've learnt from the Population Development information?

(Let the respondent explain and interviewer encircle the right number)

- 1. Woman's empowerment
- 2. Family planning/size
- 3. Family economy
- 4. Health
- 5. Education/Skills
- 6. Entertaining
- 7. Other (Specify)

47. Which of the following applies to you?

(Read list to respondent and encircle the right number)

- 1. Woman's empowerment
- 2. Family planning/size
- 3. Family economy
- 4. Education/Skills
- 5. Entertaining
- 6. Other (Specify)

48. Which of the following do you have difficulties with?

(Read list to respondent and encircle)

- 1. Woman's empowerment
- 2. Family planning/size

- 3. Family economy
- 4. Education/Skills
- 5. Entertaining
- 6. Other (Specify)

49. Why do you say so?

.....

.....

50. Did you like the whole experience of the *Population Development* part of:

- 1. Roadshows Yes/No
- 2. Ladies Clubs Yes/No
- 3. RTV Yes/No

51. Can you be more specific and tell us whether you:

- 1. Liked it very much
- 2. Liked it moderately
- 3. Liked it slightly
- 4. Disliked it slightly
- 5. Disliked it moderately
- 6. Disliked it very much

52. Could you tell me what the biggest problems in your family life are?

.....

.....

.....

53. Finally, if someone or an organisation wants to help you to solve problems in your family life, how should this be done?

.....

.....

.....

Thank you very much!

Remember the information you gave me today will be kept totally confidential - your name will not be used with the information you gave me.

**Ucwaningo olwenziwa Inyuvesi Yakwa Zulu
Ukuzibandakanya Kwabaka Group Africa
ezinhlelweni zokufundisa ngokuthuthukiswa
komphakathi.**

Uhlelo lwemibuzo

1. Udlwanondlebe

*(Interviews will be done verbally and the respondent will not see read the questionnaire)
(Explain with relevant questions that ranking order is arbitrary)*

Encircle all right answers!!

(Coding: Missing data should be ".")

1. Obuza imibuzo
2. Usuku
3. Indawo
4. Usuku lweviki
5. Isikhathi sosuku *(morning afternoon evening)*
6. Ulimi okubuzwa ngalo
 1. IsiZulu
 2. IsiSwati
 3. IsiNgisi
 4. Olunye ulimi (lusho)

Uhlaka/Inhloso

Siqhamuka eNyuvesi YakwaZulu. Silapha ukuzoxoxisana nabantu ngemibukiso eye thulwa ngabakwa group Africa esingabhla kuyo

1. Imiboniso engumahamba nendlwana

Imihlangano yamaqembu abesimame

3. Sifisa ukwazi ukuthi abantu bayibona kanjani imilayezo ethulwa ezinhlelwani zoku phucula / zokusimanisa umphatathi silangazelela ukuthola imizwa nemibono yabantu. Ngakho-ke, azikho izimpendulo ezamkelekile nezingamkelekile

- zonke izimpendulo ezizonikezwa zizobayimfihlo

- sicela nisinikeze izimpendulo nemibono ngomkwethembeka.

Sicela futhi nikhululeke, nisibuse lapho ningacacelwa khona ukuze nichazeleke.

2. Umkhankaso wokwazisa ngePopulation Development

7. Ngabe usuke wezwa yini ngalokhu okungezansi / okulandelayo

CARD 1 & 2 (photos)

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------|
| 1. Imibukiso engumahamba nendwana | Yebo/Cha |
| 2. Amaqembu abesimame | Yebo/Cha |
| 3. Rural TV (RTV) | Yebo/Cha |

Umabonakude wasemaphandleni

Kunesikhathi ikukhulunywa ngaso ngokuphuculwa komphakathi kulezinhlelo ezingenhla. Sifisa ukukhuluma nani ngalezinhlelo kuphela

CARD 3 (line drawings of time)

Sifisa ukukhuluma nabantu ababekhona ngempela kulezinhlelo / kulemibukiso. Lokhu ngeke kusize thina kuphela, kepha izimpendulo esizazithola zizosetshenziswa ekuthuthukiseni isimo somphakathi.

8. Kungabe kukhona yini owake wakubona kulokhu okungezansi ezinhlelweni zokuthuthukisa umphakathi

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------|
| 1. Imibukiso engumahamba nendwana | Yebo/Cha |
| 2. Amaqembu abesifazane | Yebo/Cha |
| 3. Rural TV (RTV) | Yebo/Cha |

9. Lapho ekukhulunywa khona ngokisima miswa komphakathi, umdlalo weshashalazi ubonisa imindeni emibili. Kungabe uyawukhumbula yini umehluko kulemindeni.

9.1 Yebo/Cha

9.2 Uma impendulo yakhoku ngo-Yebo, kwakuyini umehlubo?

.....

10. Sicela uqedele isiqubulo esilandelayo:

CARD 4 (logo)

Umndeni inqubo yesikhathi samanje

If the respondent couldn't answer question 9 and 10 or chose No as an option in question 8, don't terminate the interview yet. continue with the section about demographics and then terminate the interview.

3. Imikhakha yomphakathi

11. Iminyaka (Please encircle correct number)

1. 14-19
2. 20-29
3. 30-39
4. 40-49

- If the respondent is NOT between 14 and 49, terminate the interview immediately!

- Ungaqhubeki nodliwanodlebe uma umuntu engekho phakathi kweminyaka eyishuminane kuya kwangamashumi amane nesishiyagalolunye.

12. Ubulili

1. Owesifazane
2. Owesilisa

13. Izinga ngokomshado

1. Owushadile
2. Ucelile / uceliwe
3. Ushade ngokwesiko

4. Ushade ngokwesilungu
5. Uhlukanisile
6. Nihlala ezindaweni ezehlukene
7. Umfelokazi

14. Isikhathi isusihlalile endaweni

1. Ngaphansi konyaka owodwa
2. Phakathi konyaka owodwa nemibili
3. Phakathi kweminyaka emithathu nemine
4. Phakathi kweminyaka emine neyisihlanu
5. Ngaphezu kweminyaka eziyisithupha

15. Iholo olitholayo ngenyanga

1. R0-300
2. R301-600
3. R601-1000
4. R1000-1500
5. R1500+

16. Unezingane ezingaki ezingaphansi kweminyaka eyishumi nesithupha?

17. Izinga ngokwemfundo

1. Awufundile
2. Ufunde kancane
3. Ugcine kumatikuletshe
4. Unemfundo esezingeni eliphezulu

18. Yiziphi izinhlelo zokuxhumana ozijwayele?

1. Umsakazo
2. Umabonakude (TV)
3. Iphephandaba
4. Iphephabhuku

If the respondents didn't see or attend any of the Population Development activities, terminate the interview now!

Make sure that you continue with the interview only if you are sure that the respondent attend saw these activities!

4. Umabambangedlwana yemibukiso yakwa Population Development (Roadshows)

Sixoxile ngezinhlelo zokuthuthukisa umphakathi ngaphambili. Njengamanje sizokhuluma ngemibukiso engumahamanendlwana ekuthuthukisweni komphakathi.

CARD 1 (photo)

CARD 3 (line drawings)

19. Iqhaza elingabanjwa yimibukiso engumahamanendlwana ekuthuthukisweni komphakathi?

Yebo/Cha

Uma impendulo kungu YEBO, qhubeka nohla lwemibuzo.

Uma impendulo kungu CHA, yeqa uyobuza ngengxenyekhuluma ngamaqembu esifazane.

20. Wagcina nini ukubona imibukiso engumahamanendlwana ezinhlelweni zokuthuthukisa umphakathi? Kungabe ngo:

1. 1995
2. 1994
3. 1993
4. 1992
5. Ngaphambi kuka 1992

21. **Kungabe wayibona kuphi lemibukiso? (Town and shop)**

.....

22. **Kungabe lemibukiso yenziwa ngesikhathi esikahle yini? (Population Development part only)**

Yebo/Cha

23. **Uma impendulo kungu-CHA, wayibona nini?**

.....

24. **Kungabe waqala wezwa ngobani/kanjani ngalezinhlelo zokuthuthukiswa kwabantu? (Please encircle correct number)**

1. Ngabangani
2. Ngamalunga omndeni
3. Izaziso
4. Ngomninitolo
5. Udlula ngendlela
6. Esontweni
7. Ngenhlangano yomphakathi (Yisho igama)
8. Omunye owezwa ngaye (Musho)

25. **Manje uzophendula ngendima edlalwa imibukiso engumahambanendlwana ezinhlelweni zokuthuthukisa umphakathi. Kungabe wakuthanda yini lokhu okulandelayo:**

Uzobhala u-YEBO noma CHA.

Khetha okuthandayo

1 = okuhle kakhulu.

2 = kuhle.

3 = kuphakathi nendawo

(Please encircle answers)

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. Izingoma | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 2. Umidlalo weshashalazi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 3. Imidlalo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 4. Isendlalelo-nkulumo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 5. Umethuli-hlelo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 6. Ishashalazi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 7. Indawo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 8. Indlela uhlelo olwethulwa ngayo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 9. Isikhathi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 10. Indlamu | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 11. Ingqikithi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 12. Indikimba | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 13. Okunye (kusho) | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |

26. **Kungabe uthole umyalezo owusizo yini kulemiboniso engumahambanendlwana mayelana nokuthuthukiswa komphakathi?**

Uzobhala u-YEBO noma CHA.

Khetha okuthandayo

1 = okuhle kakhulu.

2 = kuhle.

3 = kuphakathi nendawo

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------|
| 1. Izingoma | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 2. Imidlalo yeshashalazi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 3. Imidlalo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 4. Isendlalelo-nkulumo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |

- | | |
|-------------------------|------------------|
| 5. Umethuli-hlelo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 6. Ishashalazi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 7. Izipho | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 8. Okunye (kusho) | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |

27. **Yikuphi kulokhu okungenhla okubona kunesigqi/kusebenza kakhulu kuwena?** (Population Development part only)

28. **Yikuphi, uma kukhona, kokungenhla obenenkinga ngakho?** (Population Development part only)

5. Iqhaza elingabanjwa amaqembu abesifazane ekufundiseni ngokuthuthukiswa komphakathi. (Ladies Clubs)

Manje sizokhuluma ngeqhaza elibanjwa ngamaqembu abesifazane.

CARD (line drawing)

29. **Kungabe usuke waya yini emhlanganweni weqembu labesifazane lapho kukhulunywa khona ngokuthuthukiswa komphakathi?**

Yebo/Cha

Uma impendulo kungu "YEBO" qhubeka nalengxenywe.

Uma impendulo kungu "CHA" yeqe lengxenywe.

30. **Wagcina nini ukuya kulomhlangano okhuluma ngokuthuthukiswa komphakathi. Kungabe ngo:**

1. 1995
2. 1994
3. 1993
4. 1992
5. Ngaphambi kuka 1992

31. **Wawukuphi lomhlangano?**

32. **Kungabe lomhlangano waba ngesikhathi esikahle yini?** Yebo/Cha

33. **Uma ngabe impendulo iyaphikisa, buza ukuthi umhlangano wenziwa yini?**
.....

34. **Nakhu okutholakala emihlanganweni yabesifazane ekhuluma ngokuthuthukiswa kwabantu. Ikuphi owakuthanda?**

Uzobhala u-YEBO noma CHA.

Khetha okuthandayo

1 = okuhle kakhulu,

2 = kuhle,

3 = kuphakathi nendawo

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. Omazisi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 2. Umethuli-hlelo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 3. Ukuhlangana kwabantu | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 4. Inkulumo/Indikimba | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 5. Inkulumo/Indikimba (Talk/content) | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 6. Isikhathi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 7. Okunye (Chaza) | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |

35. **Ikuphi kulokhu okungaphezulu okunesigqi kakhulu kuwena?** (Population Development part only)

36. Yikuphi kulokhu okungaphezulu okunesigqi esincane ngokufundiswa ngokuthuthukiswa kwabantu? (Population Development part only)

6. Imiboniso ngokuthuthukiswa komphakathi evela kwi RTV

Njengamanje sizokhuluma ngemiboniso eyisaziso ebonakala kwi RTV mayelana nokuthuthukiswa komphakathi.

CARD 2.

37. Kungabe wake wayibona yini imiboniso ngokuthuthukiswa komphakathi kwi RTV?
Yebo/Cha

*Uma impendulo kungu YEBO, qhubeka nalengxenywe yemibuzo.
Uma impendulo kungu CHA, yeqe.*

38. Kungabe wagcina nini ukubona imiboniso ngokuthuthukiswa komphakathi kwi RTV?

1. 1995
2. 1994
3. 1993
4. 1992
5. Ngaphambi kuka 1992

39. Wayibona kuphi lemibukiso ye RTV?

40. Kungabe lemibukiso yenziwa ngesikhathi esikahle yini?
Yebo/Cha

41. Cha, yaqalwa ukweziwa nini

42. Kungabe wakuthanda yini lokhu okulandelayo njengoba kuboniswa kwi RTV?
(Population Development advertisement only)

*Uzobhala u-YEBO noma CHA.
Khetha okuthandayo*

*1 - okuhle kakhulu.
2 - kuhle.
3 - kumphakathi nendawo*

- | | |
|--|------------------|
| 1. Umyalezo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 2. Isingeniso-ngoma nomculo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 3. Umethuli-hlelo/umdlali weshashalazi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 4. Umdlalo weshashalazi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 5. Isikhathi odlalwa ngaso | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 6. Okunye (kusho) | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |

43. Nakhu okunye okutholakala kwi RTV.

*Uzobhala u-YEBO noma CHA.
Khetha okuthandayo*

*1 - okuhle kakhulu.
2 - kuhle.
3 - kumphakathi nendawo*

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. Ibhola likanobhutshuzwayo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 2. Eminye imidlalo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 3. Imishado | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 4. Umemulo | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 5. Ukuhlengana kwabantu | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 6. Okunye (kusho) | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |

7. Okujwayelekile

44. Ngabe ikhona impahla owayiphiwa kulezimpahla okuphiwana ngazo ngenhloso yentengiso?

Yebo/Cha

45. Ngabe wazithanda yini lezimpahla okuphiwana ngazo ezingezansi?

Uzobhala u-YEBO noma CHA. Khetha okuthandayo

1 = okuhle kakhulu,

2 = kuhle,

3 = kuphakathi nendawo

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| 1. Izikibha | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 2. Izikhwama | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 3. Amakepisi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 4. Amathileyi | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |
| 5. Amalula | Yebo/Cha (1 2 3) |

46. Ngicela ungitshele ngokufundile ngemiyalezo emayelana nokuthuthukiswa komphakathi. (Ngesikhathi ophendulayo ekhuluma, dwebela akubalayo). Ungamphazamisi ngendlela yokumtshela. *(Let the respondents explain and encircle the right number)*

1. Ukuthuthukiswa kwabe/kowesifazane
2. Ukuhlelwa kwemindeni/ubukhulu
3. Umnotho womndeni
4. Ezempilo
5. Ezemfundo/Ubuciko/Amakhono
6. Ezenjabulo
7. Okunye (kusho)

47. Yikuphi kokungezansi okubandakanya wena? (Mfundele uhla ophendulayo bese uyadwebela).(Population Development part only)

(Read list to respondent and encircle)

1. Ukuthuthukiswa kowesifazane
2. Ukuhlelwa komndeni
3. Umnotho womndeni
4. Ezemfundo/Amakhono
5. Ezenjabulo
6. Okunye (kusho)

48. Yikuphi kokulandelayo onobunzima kukho? (Population Development part only)

(Read list to respondent and encircle)

1. Ukuthuthukiswa kwabesifazane
2. Ukuhlela umndeni
3. Umnotho womndeni
4. Ezemfundo/Amakhono
5. Ezenjabulo
6. Okunye (kusho)

49. Usho ngani ukuthi waba nenkinga ngakho?

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.....
.....

50. Ngabe wakuthanda konke yini ngendima edlalwa ngokulandelayo ekufundiseni ngokuthuthukiswa komphakathi?

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------|
| 1. Imibukiso engumahambanendiwana | Yebo/Cha |
| 2. Amaqembu abesifazane | Yebo/Cha |
| 3. RTV (Umabonakude wasemaphandleni) | Yebo/Cha |

51. **Ungacacisa, usitshele noma:**

1. Wayithakasela kakhulu
2. Wayithanda nje
3. Wayithanda kancane
4. Awuyithandanga kancane
5. Awuyithandanga nje
6. Awuyithandanga kakhulu

52. **Ungangixoxela yini ngenkinga enkulu onayo empilweni yakho emndenini?**

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53. **Okokugcina, uma ngabe kukhona umuntu noma inhlangothi efisa ukukusiza ixazulule izinkinga zakho, ungafisa ukuthi bakusize kanjani?**

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.....

NGIYABONGA KAKHULU!

Ngcela ukukwazisa ukuthi konke ongitshele khona kuyimfihlo futhi negama lakho ngeke lidalulwe.

Abstract

After the Second World War the West became actively involved in Third World development, focusing on the diffusion of information and technology, in its plight to persuade the Third World to adopt Western innovations and to change its behaviour accordingly. Growth and success were measured in economic terms and infrastructural development was usually the outcome of development. The communication approach (*development communication* or DC) coincides with this paternalistic approach and is top-down and one-directional. After the failures of this *dominant approach* became evident, a number of alternative approaches were proposed, culminating in the *new paradigm*, which supported equal status between benefactor and beneficiary, two-way communication, dialogue, and community participation, and emphasising the value of beneficiaries and their culture and traditions. In contrast to DC arguments for the mass media, the new *development support communication* (DSC) theory supports the small community media.

The DSC approach may be applied effectively in small scale development efforts, such as community projects, provided the benefactors are willing to learn from the community, and do not "negotiate" development from a position of status or power, in order to identify the community's real needs. It is impractical to apply the DSC approach on large scale (national, provincial, or regional) development projects, due to high costs and the time needed for of small group discussions.

These reasons often prompt benefactors to choose the option of a communication campaign as a medium to convey messages. The DC/DSC discourse permeates the field of communication campaigns, dividing these practical frameworks into communicator-orientated campaigns (DC), and campaigns that combine aspects of both the DC and DSC approaches (integrative model). The integrative model inherited the top-down nature of diffusion of information from the DC approach as well as its focus on large scale projects, the mass media and externally created messages. These characteristics are then combined with the DSC aspects which are aimed at assisting

beneficiaries to empower themselves by acquiring information, to formulate their problems, to suggest solutions and to take their own decisions by focusing on their own needs and interests. This includes aspects such as information sharing on an equal level, beneficiary participation, and the small media.

The technique of market segmentation, dividing beneficiaries into (relatively) homogeneous groups, can be applied in large scale and small scale projects. In small scale projects such groups might already exist within a community, and need only to be identified. The Population Development Survey indicated that age, more than gender, should be the guideline for market segmentation in north-eastern KwaZulu-Natal. Younger people tend to enjoy the entertainment provided by roadshows. Edutainment combines entertainment with education, which is culturally not a new concept for these respondents. The older and more rural the respondents, the more they value interpersonal communication, but of the mass media, radio is the most popular. In large scale development projects the study suggests using the mass media in conjunction with the small media. The mass media are often used to create a general awareness of the existence of an issue/campaign, and face-to-face situations are created where the issues, dealt with in the mass media, are discussed in detail.

Opsomming

Sedert the tweede Wêreldoorlog het die Weste aktief betrokke begin raak in Derde Wêreldontwikkeling, en het aanvanklik die verspreiding van inligting en tegnologie beklemtoon, in 'n poging om die Derde Wêreld te oortuig om nuwe konsepte in die uitvoering van hul take te inkorporeer. Groei en sukses is op 'n ekonomiese basis gemeet en manifesteer in die ontwikkeling van infrastruktuur. Een-rigtingkommunikasie vanuit 'n magposisie (*ontwikkelingskommunikasie* (OK) / "*development communication*" (DC) gaan gepaard met hierdie paternalistiese benadering. Sedert dit algemeen aanvaar is dat die *dominante paradigma* gefaal het, het 'n aantal alternatiewe ontwikkelingsbenaderings ontstaan, wat gekulmineer het in die *nuwe paradigma*. Hierdie denkrigting steun gelyke status tussen die weldoener en die begunstigde, twee-rigtingkommunikasie, dialoog, gemeenskapsdeelname, beklemtoning van die waarde van die gemeenskap en sy kultuur en tradisies. In kontras met die OK se argumente ten gunste van die massamedia, gebruik die nuwe benadering (*ontwikkelingondersteuningskommunikasie* (OOK) / "*development support communication*" (DSC) die klein-media.

Dit is slegs moontlik om die OOK-benadering effektief in kleinskaal-ontwikkelingspogings soos gemeenskapsprojekte aan te wend, indien the weldoener gewillig is om van die begunstigdes te leer, en nie ontwikkeling vanuit 'n mag- of statusposisie te "beding" in 'n poging om die werklike behoeftes van die gemeenskap te identifiseer nie. Dit is nie prakties uitvoerbaar om die OOK-benadering sonder aanpassing op grootskaalontwikkelingsprojekte (soos op nasionale, provinsiale or selfs streeksvlak) toe te pas nie, aangesien kleingroepbesprekings die koste verhoog en die tydsuur verleng.

Hierdie redes dwing weldoeners gereeld om kommunikasieveldtogte as medium vir boodskapoordraging te kies. Die OK/OOK-diskoers oorskadu ook die veld van kommunikasieveldtogte, en verdeel hierdie praktiese raamwerke in kommunikator-georiënteerde veldtogte (OK), en 'n kombinasie van die OK- en OOK-benaderings

(geïntegreerde model). Die geïntegreerde model het die eenrigtingkommunikasie, die fokus op grootskaalontwikkelingsveldtogte, die massa media en die skep van boodskappe buite die gemeenskap van die OK-benadering geërf. Hierdie karaktereenskappe word dan gekombineer met OOK-aspekte wat op die behoeftes en belange van die begunstigdes te konsentreer met die doel om die begunstigdes te help om hulself te bemagtig deur inligting te bekom, om hul probleme te identifiseer, voestelle te maak, en om hulle eie besluite te neem. Dit sluit aspekte soos die uitruil van inligting op 'n gelyke vlak, deelname van die begunstigde, en die klein-media in.

Die tegniek van marksegmentasie wat begunstigdes in (relatiewe) homogene groepe verdeel, kan op beide groot- en kleinskaalontwikkelingsprojekte toegepas word. In die geval van kleinskaalontwikkelingsprojekte dan dit gebruik word om bestaande gemeenskapsgroepe te identifiseer. Die Bevolkingsontwikkelingsopname het getoon dat ouderdom, eerder as geslag, die riglyn vir marksegmentasie in noordoos KwaZulu-Natal behoort te wees. Jongmense is geneig om die vermaaklikheid van padvertonings ("roadshows") te geniet. "Edutainment" kombineer vermaak met opvoeding en is nie kultuurvreemd vir hierdie groep nie. Hoe ouer en hoe meer plattelands die respondente, hoe meer word waarde aan interpersoonlike kommunikasie geheg, maar van die massamedia, blyk radio die meeste aanhang te hê. Navorsing het in grootskaalontwikkelingsveldtogte getoon dat die massamedia in kombinasie met die klein-media gebruik behoort te word. Die massamedia word gewoonlik gebruik om 'n algemene boodskap oor die bestaan van 'n saak/veldtog bekend te maak, terwyl interpersoonlike situasies geskep word waar hierdie onderwerpe in besonderhede bespreek kan word.