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ଓଡ଼ିଶା ରାଜ୍ୟ ମୁକ୍ତ ବିଶ୍ୱବିଦ୍ୟାଳୟ
ସମ୍ବଲପୁର
Odisha State Open University
Sambalpur

Journalism & Mass Communication (JMC)

Development Communication and International Models



Journalism & Mass Communication



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DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION AND INTERNATIONAL MODELS

Block

3

Development Communication and International Models

Unit-1

Concepts of Development Communication

Unit-2

Lerner's Model & Roger's Basic Diffusion Model

Unit-3

Systems Theory, Basic Needs Approach

Unit-4

Participatory Model & ICT for Development Communication

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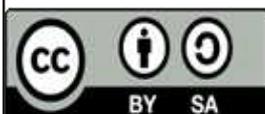
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UNIT – I: CONCEPTS OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

1.0 UNIT STRUCTURE

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 - 1.2 Introduction
 - 1.3 Philosophy and goal of Development Communication
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 - 1.4.1 Dominant Paradigm
 - 1.4.2 The Opposing Paradigm (Dependency)
 - 1.4.3 The Emerging Paradigm (Participation)
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-

1.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

In this unit we will learn about the principles that lay down the understanding about development communication, the three major paradigms of development and the approaches to development communication.

1.2 INTRODUCTION

The term “Development Communication” was first introduced during the period of World War II. Development communication is defined as “communicating to promote social development.” It can be referred to as ‘communication for development’ or ‘development support communication’ or ‘communication for social change’. In order to see that development communication is happening one needs to ensure that the processes and strategies are systematically applied. Following the principles of communication to bring out positive social changes in true sense is called development communication.



Like communication, development too has different meanings to different scholars and practitioners (Melkote & Leslie, 2015). Development means improving the living conditions of society. Though this concept is widely accepted but there is a debate on what constitutes to improved living conditions and how that would be achieved (Melkote & Leslie, 2015). The proponents say that development communication is planned use of strategies of communication to achieve development (Sinha, 2013). The term “Development Communication,” first used by Nora Quebral in 1970 (Srampickal, 2006).

According to Everett Rogers (2008), the purpose of Development Communication is to support sustainable change in development operations by engaging key stakeholders. The major functions are establishing conducive environments for assessing risks and opportunities; disseminate information; induce behavior and social change (Rogers, 2008). It is adequate to say that the scope and functions of development communication is not restricted to passing information and messages alone, it is also about involving the stakeholders and assessing the situation. Daniel Lerner (1958), Everett Rogers (1962), and Wilbur Schramm (1964) are the propagators of development communication with different approaches (Manyozo, 2012).

If we analyse the core concept of development process and its transformation then we can draw a list of characteristics of development of communications from its historical and ideological perspectives (Narula, 1994).

- i The centre of focus is human being and their development. The process could be relevant if it is managed by and with people.
- ii Primary objective is to fulfill basic needs of the people.
- iii The development process must be based on combining local knowledge and modern science and follow the holistic approach by referring ecological and cultural environment of that particular society.
- iv That process must be original, self-reliant and based on the indigenous process rather than borrowing from other cultures or societies.
- v The process must rely on the locally available resources, material and manpower for the economical or infrastructural development.
- vi A structural, social and behavioural transformation is required to implement the process and to overcome the inequalities within and between the societies.
- vii Therefore, the development process depends on the ability to adopt the social change through technological, cultural and political transformation.

Basically, there are various issues and sub-issues which have been discussed by the experts related to development particularly on economic, social, political, cultural growth, eradication of poverty and better healthcare facilities. The major focus is to provide quality of life to the people through development communication programmes. The issues and sub-issues are: development gap between the rich and poor, communication gap and information backlogs, blockages due to bureaucratic processes and political will etc.



1.3 PHILOSOPHY AND GOAL OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

Three main ideas which define the philosophy of development communication and make it different from general communication are as follows:

- a. Development communication is purposive communication; it is value-laden and is pragmatic in nature. In the context of development, a positive value is attached to what is being communicated and it should motivate people for a social change.
- b. Development communication is goal-oriented. The ultimate goal of development communication is a higher quality of life for the people of a society by social and political change.
- c. The goal of development communication is not purely in economic terms, but also in terms of social, political, cultural, and moral values that make a person's life whole, which will enable her/him to attain her/his complete potential. The goal of development communication in a specific society will be influenced by the ends and values of that society.

Development communication has to deal with two types of audience:

- I) The communicators comprising development bureaucracy, media practitioners and professionals, and
- II) The people i.e. the audience who can be informed or uninformed; educated or semi-literate or literate.

1.4 THREE MAJOR PARADIGMS

There are three major paradigms of development identified ideologically and historically (Rogers, 2008) are, a. the dominant paradigm (modernisation), b. the opposing paradigm (dependency), and c. the emerging paradigm (participation).

1.4.1 DOMINANT PARADIGM

This perspective emerged from the concept of development to be “modernisation.” Evolved after the World War II, the central idea of this paradigm was to solve development problems by "modernising" underdeveloped countries. This thought was part of the dominant culture or we can say the majority atleast believed this (capitalism and embracing modernity) to be answer to development issues. This approach advised the society, how to be effective in following the behaviour of the rich and influential or we can say pattern of the capitalist driven western economies. Development was equated with economic growth. The modernisation approach is to promote and support capitalist economic development. In an extent the followers of this paradigm believe that the Western model of economic growth is universally applicable and persuaded people to adopt the modern technology (Melkote & Leslie, 2015).

Paulo Freire (2008) defined four major levels of dominant paradigm:

- ◆ Cultural level,
- ◆ Technocratic level,
- ◆ Political level, and
- ◆ Economic level.

Modernisation promoted to change the mindset of individuals under developed countries and advised to abandon traditional beliefs to embrace innovation and modernity at the cultural level. (Lerner 1958).

At the technocratic level, modernisation proposed to rely on scientific method, whereas political freedom and the adoption of democratic systems need to be followed at the political level. And at the economic level, virtues and power of the free market is blindly followed, with no or minimal government intervention (Freire, 2008).

In 1950s and 1960s, the main aim of modernisation was to measure economic growth as development. Here the conception of development is a linear one based on trust in science, reason, technology, and the free market (Freire, 2008). This perspective is criticised for overtly focusing on the economic aspect and ignoring the broader aspect of socio-cultural impact. Further, this paradigm is believed to be culturally insensitive, theoretically flawed, and methodologically inadequate (Servaes, 1991).

Communication was associated with the dissemination of information and messages aimed at modernising the “backward or under –developed or developing” countries



and their people. Media seemed to be the loadstar as it provided with communication initiatives that is largely dependent on the traditional vertical or one-way model: Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver (SMCR).

“Communication was expected to help modernise people’s attitudes and ways of thinking, which would be conducive to support of the economic model” (Melkote and Stevens 2001). Communication in the dominant paradigm is linked with the *linear mass media model* aimed at transmitting information and messages in a vertical or top-down fashion, believed in the persuasive power of media, till 1970s (Freire, 2008). Lasswell’s (1948) linear communication model reflected the use of communication to persuade audiences to change behaviours. The failure of modernisation caused the re-analysis of the theoretical models of communication, such as “the hypodermic needle theory” or “the bullet theory,” which overemphasised the power of media over people. It is evident that media alone cannot change people’s mind-set and behaviour and moreover audiences are not as passive either (Freire, 2008). The new perspectives in development communication began between 1970 and 1980 subsequently, an alternate way of thinking about development emerged.

1.4.2 THE OPPOSING PARADIGM (DEPENDENCY)

In the 1970s political-economic aspect of development was considered a better alternative for “modernisation” and after strong opposition against the modernisation paradigm, emergence of an alternative theoretical model set afloat, based on the dependency theory.

This school of thought criticises some of the core assumptions of the modernisation paradigm, such as neglecting social, historical, and economic factors. It accuses the dominant paradigm of being very Western-centric, overlooking any alternative route to development. The dependency theorists emphasised the importance of the link between communication and culture. According to A.G. Frank (1969), development and underdevelopment are the two faces of the same coin, shaped by specific historical, economic, and political factors. He developed this view based on a structural analysis of the international capitalist system (Freire, 2008). This alternate thinking of development challenged the dominate pattern of modernisation and argued for political and economic restructuring for an equal distribution in society (Freire, 2008; Melkote & Leslie, 2015). To address the imbalances in the world’s state of affairs, dependency



theory proposed developing countries to work on two levels. National level they need to be economically self-reliant and less dependent on foreign imports. Internationally, they should form alliances among themselves to create a stronger political presence (Freire, 2008). It demanded a more balanced and equitable exchange of communication, information, and cultural programs, among rich and poor countries.

The main idea was to stimulate growth of domestic industrialisation (McMichael 1996). But it was unable to deliver an appropriate method/s to address development challenges. Critics accused this model of becoming too economically focused and not considering social and cultural factors, like dominance theory. And the focus of communication is not prominent in this paradigm. Media and flow of information played a minor role internationally. With all differences between modernisation and dependency theories, their communication model was same: a one-way communication flow, with the main difference between the two theories being who was controlling and sending the message and for what purpose. The supporters of this theory debated for re-analysing the communication agenda in lines of a balanced communication flow internationally. They suggested to ponder the various component of communication within countries and to entrust on the private media and community media (Freire, 2008).

Although the dependency theory had gained a significant impact during the 1970s, yet it started to lose relevance around 1980s.

1.4.3 THE EMERGING PARADIGM (PARTICIPATION)

This participatory model is less oriented towards political-economic dimension and more rooted in cultural realities of development focusing on peoples' participation. Slowly there was a shift from economic aspect towards social aspects.

This development was considered positive for the long run. "Participation" is recognised as an important part of sustainable development strategies. The refusal of the above two paradigms, only put forth this new emerging paradigm, advocating for not just people's participation but also for empowerment. According to Melkote (2015), the emerging perspective is referred as liberation or monastic, a third area of thinking which practices development and social change. Paolo Freire (1973) is the most distinguished scholar advocated development as liberation, derived from liberation theology (Melkote, 2015).

A few more theories surfaced in the lines of participatory and people-based development like, multiplicity paradigm (Servaes 1991), the empowerment approach (Friedmann



1992). Common features of this perspective are the emphasis on people, the endogenous vision of development, and the attention to power and rights issues at grass root level (Freire, 2008).

“Participatory” paradigm emphasised upon two-way communication principles and practices. Development communication has increasingly moved toward a horizontal, “two-way” model, which favours peoples’ active and direct interaction through consultation and dialogue with the help of traditional form (one-way information dissemination) of mass media.

It also assesses risks, identifies solutions, and seeks consensus for action. These qualities are seen as a key to the success and sustainable development efforts. This paradigm is changing the way communication is conceived and applied. It shifts the emphasis from information dissemination to situation analysis, from persuasion to participation. Though media is no longer the central element, just a means of communication yet this paradigm is broadening its scope, maintaining the key functions of informing people and promoting change, still **maintaining the importance of using communication** to involve stakeholders in the process of development.

1.5 APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

There are various approaches to handle development communication which are not exclusive to each other. The main approaches are can be summarised under the following heads:

1. Diffusion/extension approach
2. Mass Media approach
3. Development support communication approach
4. Institutional approach
5. Integrated approach
6. Localised approach to development communication
7. Planned strategy to development communication

Now let’s study them in detail:

1. **Diffusion/ Extension Approach to Development Communication:** The focus of this approach is largely on the adoption of technological and social innovations by bringing in new ideas, services and products. Diffusion of both material and social innovations is necessary for development. Material



innovations refer to economic and technological innovations and social innovations pertain to social needs and structure. The process of diffusion starts with the need of individual and community decisions whether to accept or reject the innovation (new findings). This decision primarily depends on the needs of the adopters. Consequences of diffusion can be direct/indirect, latent/manifest, and functional/dysfunctional. The early models of diffusion focussed only on material growth only to realise that social growth along with material growth was necessary for diffusion of products, ideas and services. Therefore, diffusion decisions have to handle the economic, technological and social constraints.



2. **Mass Media Approach Development Communication:** A well-defined developed mass media and interpersonal communication infrastructure is necessary for development communication. It is necessary that these infrastructures should be accessible to the people, both physically and socially. The content of the messages should be balanced. The content should be both rural and urban oriented and should cater masses in both sectors. The messages should be **need-based** and they should **appeal to the audience**.
3. **Development support communication:** In the approach, communication strives not only to inform and educate but also to motivate people and secure public participation in the growth and processes of change. An awareness of development plans is an essential stage in the public cooperation for national development. Development communication and development support communication are thus two different terms.

Development Communication helps in communicating development messages to people for betterment of their economic and social conditions, whereas development support communication addresses development planning and the plan of operation for implementation. But often these two terms are substituted for each other.
4. **Institutional approach:** This approach focuses on education for development. The emphasis is on literacy-universal education, adult education, formal and non-formal education. There is emphasis on need-based training and development – oriented programmes conducive to development.

DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

5. **The Integrated Approach:** This approach to development communication emphasises the need to avoid duplication and waste in development efforts. The balance in the spread of information facilities must be maintained both for rural and urban, backward and prosperous areas.
6. **Localised approach to development communication:** It is also known as Community-based communication system. This approach may be evolved to ensure greater participation of local people in planning and production of communication material which is community-based.
7. **Planned Strategy for Development Communication:** The success of development communication depends on team approach, i.e. the coordination between the communication agencies (extension workers, radio, TV, Press, etc.) and development agencies, according to this approach.



1.6 CONCLUSION

Development Communication is communication with a social conscience. It takes the overall growth and prosperity of people into account. Development communication is not just associated with rural problems, but is also concerned about urban problems. It has two primary roles: a transforming role, as it seeks social change in the direction of higher quality of values of society. In playing its roles, development communication seeks to create an atmosphere for change, as well as providing innovations through which society may change.



Check Your Progress:



1.1 Write a brief note on the opposing paradigm.

1.2 What were the difficulties that were not appropriately addressed which led to the emergence of emerging paradigm?

1.3 Write a brief note on the mass media approach of development communication?





UNIT – II: LERNER’S MODEL & ROGER’S BASIC DIFFUSION MODEL

2.0 UNIT STRUCTURE

- 2.1 Learning Objectives
- 2.2 Introduction
- 2.3 Lerner’s model of development
- 2.4 Rogers’ Diffusion of Innovation communication
- 2.5 Diffusion
- 2.6 Elements of Diffusion of Innovation Model
- 2.7 Innovation and Rate of Adoption
- 2.8 Innovation-Decision Process
 - 2.8.1 First stage: Knowledge
 - 2.8.2 Second stage: Persuasion
 - 2.8.3 Third stage: Decision
 - 2.8.4 Fourth stage: Implementation
 - 2.8.5 Fifth stage: Confirmation
- 2.9 Check your Progress

2.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

In this unit we will learn about the Lerner’s model of development and Rogers’ basic diffusion model. Besides these models, you will also learn about the development issues and sub issues.

2.2 INTRODUCTION



Development is an integral value loaded cultural process. It encompasses the natural environment, social relations, education, production, consumption and well being. The term progress, development and modernisation refer to a single historical phenomena i.e. transition from an agrarian (farming) to an industrial society. The society is slowly growing into complex, adaptive, information bound, and multiple feedback system. Conceptualisations of development is constantly changing over time, this brings forth how we look at the ideology and reality of development, the development issues and sub-issues. The concepts, related issues and sub-issues have been changing because of global changes in social milieu, economy, polity, technology and communication perspectives. These are inter-dependent factors for development.

These five factors have changed the notion of development, how to do development and why the development efforts of developing countries do not equate with the development in these countries. Incidentally, all development issues posed during the four decades have been running concurrently but during a particular decade one or the other development issues became the major focal point due to the development demands of the masses and development strategies and actions of the elites and planners.

The related sub issues posed by development issues are:

- i Development gap between the haves and the have-nots;
- ii Communication gaps and information blockages;
- iii Programmes of planned development;
- iv Development blockages due to bureaucratisation;
- v Political will;
- vi Need for development communication and development support communication;
- vii Efforts of international development organisations; and
- viii Flow of development and investments.

Development issues and sub issues

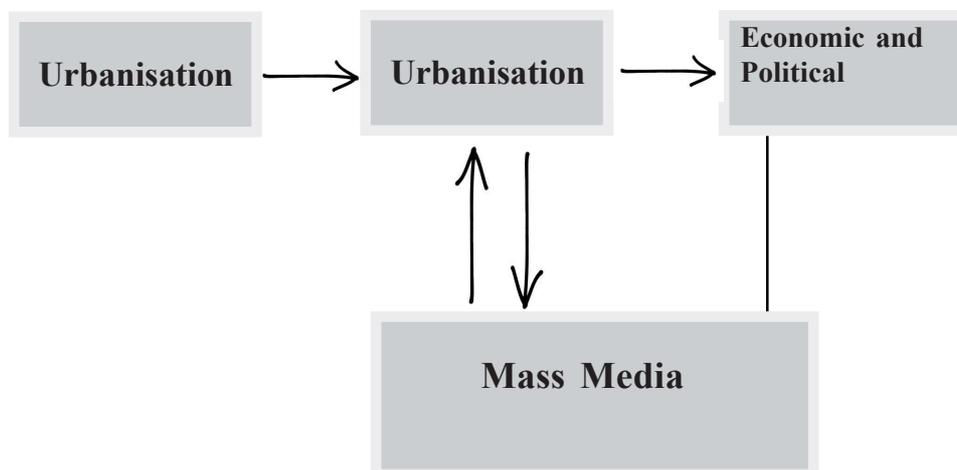


- ◆ Development issues have varied over time for four counts.
- ◆ Development definition assigned.
- ◆ Changing development needs of the masses
- ◆ Changing world economy and technology
- ◆ Politics of development and
- ◆ Resultant supporting issues.

2.3 LERNER'S MODEL OF DEVELOPMENT

The focus of development has always been growth in 1950s and 60s. The economic growth was through industrialisation and modernisation. Modernisation presented the problems of structural constraints, urbanisation, literacy and exposure to mass media.

Lerner (1958) pointed out that the later three are the indices of modernisation.



Lerner's model of development (figure 1)

Development did occur during this period but for already developed societies. The trickle-down theory assumed that the benefits of industrialisation and modernisation will trickle down from rich and middle class to the poor. The poor will have a capital gain as well as gain in knowledge and awareness from developed to developing countries. But this theory did not work as assumed. It rather created a gap between

the rich and the poor, the haves and have-nots. The emphasis on modernisation through media exposure again created communication gap between the haves and have-nots because of media opportunities and media access limitations. Urbanisation created peripheral slum areas around metros and towns as rural population migrated to urban areas in search of new employment opportunities and better quality of life. The efforts towards literacy were a slow process.



The western model for development predominated the 1950s and 60s. Rogers (1960) called this “dominant paradigm” of development as it had excessive ideological influence in the field of development. This model emphasised on increased productivity, economic growth and industrialisation, through heavy industries, capital intensive technologies, urbanisation, centralised planning. Development was measured by gross national product (GNP), total or per capita income. There was a shift from a static, agricultural, primitive and rigid society to a dynamic, industrialised, urbanised and socially mobile nation.

Daniel Lerner and Wilbur Schramm (1964) supported the dominant paradigm and advocated automation (use of technology) and technology for development and change. They made significant contributions in stressing on the role of communication for technological development. The development community argued that the case of underdevelopment in the developing countries was not due to external causes but due to internal causes present within the nation and the individual as well as within the social structure. Lerner and Schramm stressed that the individual was to be blamed to the extent that he was resistant to change and modernisation, whereas Rogers, Bordenave and Beltran (1976) argued that the social structural constraints like government bureaucracy, top-heavy land tenure system, caste, exploitative linkages among others were to be blamed.

Lerner pointed that since the individual was identified as the cause of underdevelopment, she/he was also the starting point to bring about social change. The modernisation of the individual’s traditional values became the priority task.

Rogers points out that there has been barely any effort to change the social structure though it had been identified as a major cause of underdevelopment. The mass media was used to bring about change. Moreover, the dominant paradigm failed to differentiate the developing countries with rich resources or those with low resources. Since these

two types of developing countries might have needed entirely different development handling to achieve the best results.

Lerner, Schramm and Rogers emphasised role of mass media for development and social, political change. Lerner identified four indices of development:



- ◆ Industrialisation;
- ◆ Literacy;
- ◆ Media exposure; and
- ◆ Political participation.

The right approaches to development are when people are mobile, empathetic and participative. Lerner (1958) suggested that media exposure, political participation and developing psychic empathy are necessary for development. Modern society is a participant society and it works by consensus.

Thus, in the dominant paradigm the communication flow was one way which was top-down vertical communication from the authorities to the people, the mass media channels were used to mobilise the people for development and the audience was assigned a passive role for acceptance of social change.

2.4 ROGERS' DIFFUSION OF INNOVATION

The diffusion model is rooted in the modernisation paradigm, with the intent to use media communication and methods to persuade people to change specific behaviours. Diffusion approaches believe progress is achieved by inducing change in individuals' attitude. This approaches links to the participatory model, instead, acknowledges that there can be different constructions of the same reality. No one single party has the ultimate truth; rather, there are a number of realities that often need to be reconciled through communication. This theoretical framework grows out of the constructivist perspective and carries a number of implications.

The diffusion mode is more media- and message-oriented, while the participation mode is more about dialogue, investigation and analysis. By necessity, the development communication specialist needs to be conversant with research methods of both modalities.

In the initial phases of development projects and programs, i.e. inception, preparation, and design—familiarity with empirical investigation techniques and approaches often becomes more important than familiarity with communication media and messages.



2.5 DIFFUSION

Rogers (Rogers, 2005, p. 5) defines diffusion as “the process in which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system.” There are four key elements in making of this definition: Innovation, communication, time and social system. We will study them in detail.

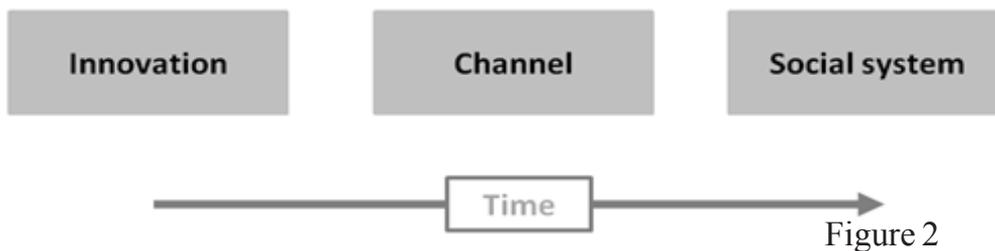


Figure 2

Diffusion of Innovation includes both spontaneous spread of new ideas and a planned method of propagating a new idea (Rogers, 2005, p. 6).

Elements of the Model	Source	Message	Channel	Receiver	Effects
Corresponding elements in the diffusion of innovations	Inventors, Scientists, change agents, opinion leaders	Innovation (Perceived attributes such as relative advantage compatibility, etc.)	Communication channels. (Mass media or interpersonal)	Members of a social system	Consequences over time: 1. Knowledge 2. attitude change (Persuasion) 3. Behavioural change (adoption or rejection)

Figure 3: Diffusion of Innovation

2.6 ELEMENTS OF DIFFUSION OF INNOVATION MODEL

1. INNOVATION

Rogers (2005, p. 12) defines Innovation as “an idea, practice or object that has perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption.” First time knowledge about a well-established practice can be perceived as ‘new,’ and an innovation, for

that particular group of individuals. As Rogers said, “newness can be expressed in terms of knowledge, persuasion or a decision to adopt.”

It is incorrect to assume that all innovations are beneficial and that all innovations are equally adopted. The main characteristics of an innovation that significantly affect its adoption (or rejection) are

- i. Relative advantage
- ii. Compatibility
- iii. Complexity
- iv. Trial-ability
- v. Observability.

2. COMMUNICATION CHANNELS

Communication is crucial in spreading ideas and to exchange of information. As defined by Rogers (2005, p. 18), communication is the “process by which participants create and share information with one another to reach a mutual understanding.” Messages are transmitted from one individual to another through communication channels. The two most powerful communication channels are the mass media and interpersonal communication. The former helps in creating awareness and spreading knowledge about an innovation, whereas, the latter is effective in creating an opinion and possible adoption or rejection of the innovation. Most effective communication takes place between individuals who have similar backgrounds such as education and socio-economic status, and so forth. Such a communication is called homophilic. But, often, in diffusion of innovation, heterophilic communication occurs between an individual who has better knowledge and understanding of the innovation to an individual with lesser awareness.

3. TIME

Time is an important factor in studying diffusion research. Time is involved in various phases of the diffusion process, namely,

- i. The innovation decision process;
- ii. The individual innovativeness, i.e., the time taken for an individual to accept/reject an innovation as compared to others; and
- iii. The rate of adoption of the innovation.



4. SOCIAL SYSTEM

A social system has a definite structure, defined as the patterned arrangements of the units in a system (Rogers, 2005, p. 25) and a set of norms. Hence, it is clear diffusion and adoption of innovation are greatly affected by the social system and the characteristics of the individual units of that system.



2.7 INNOVATION AND RATE OF ADOPTION

When a new idea manifests, the foremost reaction is to scrutinise it. This attribute and attitude helps to understand the related features, advantages and disadvantages. It helps us make a mental picture and comprehend the innovation better. This is where the importance of understanding the attributes of an innovation comes to picture, which then affects its rate of adoption.

Rogers (2005) defined the rate of adoption as “the relative speed with which an innovation is adopted by members of a social system.” For instance, personal and optional innovations usually are adopted faster than the innovations involving an organisation or at best a collective innovation-decision. Moreover, the cumulative (which increases in successive addition) function of the rate of adoption of an innovation is an S-Shaped curve. The S-shaped curve rises very slowly in the beginning, which implies only a few adopters. It gradually increases and then shoots up to a maximum when more than half of the adopters have adopted. It continues to rise gradually, yet slowly, signifying the left out group of people to adopt the innovation.

1. RELATIVE ADVANTAGE

Rogers (2005, p. 219) defines relative advantage as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being better than the idea it supersedes.” For early adopters, innovators, and early majority social status is a highly motivating factor. The greater the relative advantages of an innovation, the greater its rate of adoption. E.g. in order to integrate technology into education, teachers should first see its usefulness and that it helps with their instructions (Finley, 2003). Once the adopter sees the relative advantages of an innovation, the adopter generally perceives how compatible the innovation is to their current situation.

2. COMPATIBILITY

Compatibility is defined as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived to be consistent with the existing value system, past experiences and needs of potential adopters.” A compatible innovation has a good rate of adoption.



3. COMPLEXITY

Some innovations are easy to understand and use while others are more difficult to comprehend. In general, the complexity of an innovation lowers its chances of adoption. Complexity is defined as the “degree to which an innovation is perceived as relatively difficult to understand and use.”

4. TRIALABILITY

It is the “degree to which an innovation can be experimented on with a limited basis.” When an innovation can be tried, it increases its chances of adoption. An innovation is changed according to the user feedback during the trial phase. Similarly, most of the pharmaceutical drugs have to cross a mandatory trial phase before their actual market launch. In general, adopters wish to benefit from the functional effects of an innovation, but avoid any dysfunctional effects. However, Trialability may reduce the rate of adoption.

5. OBSERVABILITY

It is defined as “the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others.” This is positively related to the rate of adoption. When we see our peers using a new technological gizmo, we are more likely to buy and try it out on our own. This shows that ideas easily observed and communicated are more likely to be adopted.

2.8 INNOVATION-DECISION PROCESS

This is a process that happens over time where the advantages and disadvantages of an innovation are weighed and a decision is made, with regards to adopting the innovation or rejecting it. It consists of 5 stages: knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation, and confirmation.

2.8.1 First stage: Knowledge

This is the stage when the users or possible adopters first hear about the existence of the innovation, and then gain knowledge and understanding about its various functions.

There are three types of knowledge associated with these questions:

(a) Awareness-Knowledge: When a possible adopter seeks information regarding what the innovation is all about, has inquisitiveness that falls under the first category of knowledge. This might motivate other fellow adopters to seek similar information about the innovation and also lead them to ask further questions.



(b) How-to-Knowledge: This type of knowledge elucidates the users about how to correctly use an innovation. If the user has proper and correct “how-to” knowledge before the trial and adoption of the innovation, it increases the likelihood of its adoption.

(c) Principle-Knowledge: Lack of principle knowledge may lead to misutilisation of an innovation and subsequent discontinuity. By all this “know-how” knowledge, individuals are well-equipped to judge the effectiveness of any innovation. But this does not guarantee the adoption of the innovation as it also depends on the attitude of the individual towards it.

2.8.2 Second stage: Persuasion

At this stage, an individual forms a favourable or an unfavourable attitude towards an innovation, but this attitude does not necessarily lead to adoption or rejection of the innovation. Rogers states that the former is more cognitive or knowing, whereas the latter is more affective or feeling. It is the integral step where the user starts forming a perception about the innovation and hence, more intricately and psychologically involved. The user continues to seek information about the innovation.

2.8.3 Third stage: Decision

At this stage, the individual puts his knowledge and opinion into practice and decides whether to adopt or reject an innovation. Adoption is the decision “to make full use of the innovation as the best course of action available” and rejection implies not to adopt an innovation.

2.8.4 Fourth stage: Implementation

Implementation happens when the innovation is put into practice. A person gathers all necessary information regarding the innovation and comes to a decision of adopting or rejecting it. Finally, in this stage it is put into practice. The role of change agents is significant here as technical advisors as they answer various questions regarding the

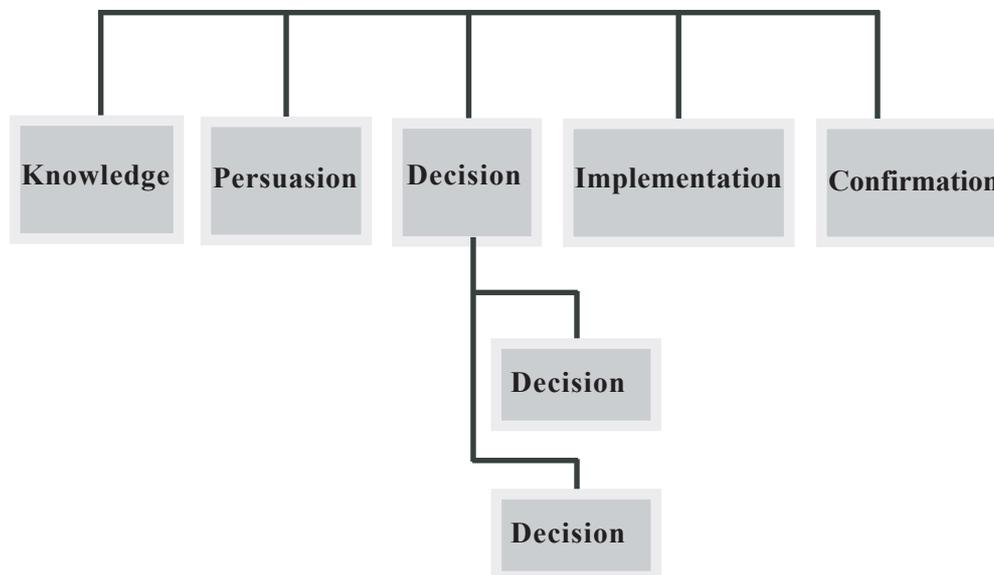
innovation. Implementation is a more challenging process when an organisation is involved as the users are different sets of people, and often, different than the deciders.



2.8.5 Fifth stage: Confirmation

This stage reinforces the adoption of decision and integration of new innovation within the framework of existing practices. It is also possible that the individual also decides to reverse his decision of adoption, if he comes across any conflicting views about the innovation.

Five Stages in the Decision Innovation Process





Check Your Progress:



2.1 What are the four elements of Diffusion of Innovation.

2.2 Write a brief note on Rogers' Diffusion of Innovation model?

2.3 What are the various development issues and sub issues?



UNIT – III: SYSTEMS THEORY, BASIC NEEDS APPROACH



3.0 UNIT STRUCTURE

- 3.1 Learning Objectives
- 3.2 Introduction to World-system theory
- 3.3 Evolution of World-systems theory
- 3.4 Aims of the world-system theory
- 3.5 Roots of the theory
- 3.6 Political aspect of world-system theory
- 3.7 Applications and Prospects
- 3.8 Limitations
- 3.9 Introduction to Basic Needs Approach
- 3.10 Evolution of Basic needs approach
- 3.11 Limitations of Basic needs approach
- 3.12 Check your Progress

3.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

In this unit we will learn about the rejection of capitalist system, with the emergence world-system theory, its discipline and about contribution of Immanuel Wallerstein towards the theory. We will also learn about the basic needs approach and the factors that limits it in developing or third world countries.

3.2 INTRODUCTION TO WORLD-SYSTEM THEORY

The approach to World-system theory is a macro-sociological perspective that seeks to explain the dynamics of the “capitalist world economy” as a “total social system.”



A classic example of this approach is associated with Immanuel Wallerstein, who in 1974 published ‘The Rise and Future Demise of the World Capitalist System: Concepts for Comparative Analysis’. In 1976, Wallerstein published ‘The Modern World System I: Capitalist Agriculture and the Origins of the European World-Economy in the Sixteenth Century’. This is Wallerstein’s landmark contribution to sociological and historical thought. Because of the main concepts and intellectual building blocks of world-system theory, it has been welcomed by developing world.

World-system theory is categorised under historical sociology and economic history. In addition, because of its emphasis on development and unequal opportunities across nations, it has been embraced by development theorists and practitioners.

Wallerstein’s approach is one of praxis, in which theory and practice are closely interrelated, and the objective of intellectual activity is to create knowledge that uncovers hidden structures and allows oneself to act upon the world and change it. “Man’s ability to participate intelligently in the evolution of his own system is dependent on his ability to perceive the whole” (p. 10).

World-system research is largely qualitative, although early on Wallerstein rejected the distinction between nomothetic and idiographic methodologies to understand the world. For Wallerstein, there is an objective world which can be understood quantitatively, but it is a product of history. But to the most part, his methods are associated with history and with interpretive sociology. His work is methodologically somewhere in between Marx and Weber, both of whom were important inspirations for his own work.

3.3 EVOLUTION OF WORLD-SYSTEMS THEORY

World-system theory has been closely associated with Immanuel Wallerstein, so it is important we learn about the Wallerstein:

Immanuel Wallerstein was born in 1930 in New York, where he grew up and did all his studies. He entered Columbia University, where he obtained his BS, MA and PhD degrees. He remained a faculty member in Columbia’s Department of Sociology from 1958 to 1971. His time in Columbia was during the peak of Columbia’s cosmopolitanism

and rebelliousness which was in sharp contrast of gentle liberalism of Harvard and Yale. His primary mentor was C. Wright Mills, from whom, Wallerstein learned his historical sensitivity, his ambition to understand macro-structures, and his rejection of both liberalism and, to a lesser degree, Marxism. While working as a faculty at Columbia, Wallerstein showed interest in Africa and he got to spent time in Paris as well. In Paris he was exposed to two major intellectual influences, the Annales group of historians, and also to what by the time were radical political ideas. Paris was the centre for political and intellectual radicalism among Africans, Asians and Latin Americans, and the locus of the major challenges to Anglo-American liberalism and empiricism. In Africa he did field work that exposed him to the Third World, and he wrote his dissertation on the processes of national formation in West Africa. His exposure to the third world had a great impact on his work. In his introduction to *The Modern World System*, Wallerstein, in a revealing statement, says that “In general, in a deep conflict, the eyes of the downtrodden are more acute about the reality of the present. For it is in their interest to perceive correctly in order to expose the hypocrisies of the rulers. They have less interest in ideological deflection.”



3.4 AIMS OF THE WORLD-SYSTEM THEORY

Wallerstein’s work developed at a time when the dominant approach to understanding development, modernisation theory (dominant paradigm) was under attack from many fronts, and he followed suit. He himself acknowledges that his aim was to create an alternative explanation (Wallerstein, 2000). He aimed at achieving “a clear conceptual break with theories of ‘modernisation’ and thus provide a new theoretical paradigm to guide our investigations of the emergence and development of capitalism, industrialism, and national states” (Skocpol, 1977, p. 1075). Criticisms to modernisation include,

- i. The reification of the nation-state as the sole unit of analysis;
- ii. Assumption that all countries can follow only a single path of evolutionary development;
- iii. Disregard of the world-historical development of transnational structures that constrain local and national development; and
- iv. Explaining in terms of ahistorical ideal types of “tradition” versus “modernity,” which are elaborated and applied to national cases.

In reacting to modernisation theory, Wallerstein outlined a research agenda with five major subjects: the functioning of the capitalist world-economy as a system, the how and why of its origins, its relations with non-capitalist structures in previous centuries, comparative study of alternative modes of production, and the ongoing transition to socialism (Goldfrank, 2000; Wallerstein, 1979).



3.5 ROOTS OF THE THEORY

There are three major intellectual building blocks of world-system theory, as conceived by Wallerstein- the Annales school, Marx, and dependency theory. These building blocks

are associated with Wallerstein's life experience and exposure to various issues, theories, and situations.



**IMMANUEL
WALLERSTEIN**

World-system theory owes to the Annales school, whose major representative is Fernand Braudel, its historical approach.

Wallerstein got from Braudel's his insistence on the long term (*la longue durée*). He also learned to focus on geo-ecological regions as units of analysis (think of Braudel's *The Mediterranean*), attention to rural history, and reliance on empirical materials from Braudel. The impact of the Annales is at the general methodological level.

From Marx, Wallerstein accumulated that,

- i. The fundamental reality of social conflict among materially based human groups;
- ii. The concern with a relevant totality;
- iii. The transitory nature of social forms and theories about them;
- iv. The centrality of the accumulation process and competitive class struggles that result from it; and
- v. A dialectical sense of motion through conflict and contradiction. (Wallerstein's ambition has been to revise Marxism itself).

World-system theory is in many ways an adaptation of dependency theory (Chirot and Hall, 1982). Wallerstein draws heavily from dependency theory, a neo-Marxist explanation of development processes, popular in the developing world.



Dependency theory focuses on understanding the “periphery” by looking at core-periphery relations, and it has flourished in peripheral regions like Latin America. It is from a dependency theory perspective that many contemporary critiques to global capitalism come from.

Other important influences in Wallerstein’s work, still present in contemporary world-system research, are Karl Polanyi and Joseph Schumpeter. From the latter comes world system interest in business cycles, and from the former, the notion of three basic modes of economic organisation, i.e. reciprocal, redistributive, and market modes.

These are analogous to Wallerstein’s concepts of mini-systems, world-empires, and world-economies.

For Wallerstein, "a world-system is a social system, which has boundaries, structures, member groups, rules of legitimating and coherence. It has the characteristics of an organism, in that it has a lifespan over which its characteristics change in some respects and remain stable in others. . . . Life within it is largely self-contained, and the dynamics of its development are largely internal" (Wallerstein, p. 347). A world-system is what Wallerstein terms a “world economy,” integrated through the market rather than a political centre, in which two or more regions are interdependent with respect to necessities like food, fuel, and protection, and two or more polities compete for domination without the emergence of one single centre forever (Goldfrank, 2000).

In his own first definition, Wallerstein (1974) accounts world-system as a “multicultural territorial division of labour in which the production and exchange of basic goods and raw materials is necessary for the everyday life of its inhabitants.” This division of labour refers to the forces and relations of production of the world economy as a whole and it leads to the existence of two interdependent regions: core and periphery. These are geographically and culturally different, one focusing on labour-intensive, and the other on capital-intensive production (Goldfrank, 2000). The core-periphery relationship is structural. Semi-peripheral states acts as a buffer zone between core

and periphery, and has a mix of the kinds of activities and institutions that exist on them (Skocpol, 1977).

Among the most important structures of the current world-system is a power hierarchy between core and periphery, in which powerful and wealthy “core” societies dominate and exploit weak and poor peripheral societies. Technology is a central factor in the positioning of a region in the core or the periphery. Advanced or developed countries are the core, and the less developed are in the periphery. Peripheral countries are structurally constrained to experience a kind of development that reproduces their subordinate status (Chase-Dunn and Grimes, (1995). The differential strength of the multiple states within the system is crucial to maintain the system as a whole, because strong states reinforce and increase the differential flow of surplus to the core zone (Skocpol, 1977). This is what Wallerstein called unequal exchange, the systematic transfer of surplus from semiproletarian sectors in the periphery to the high-technology, industrialised core (Goldfrank, 2000). This leads to a process of capital accumulation at a global scale, and necessarily involves the appropriation and transformation of peripheral surplus.



3.6 POLITICAL ASPECT OF WORLD-SYSTEM THEORY

For Wallerstein, nation-states are variables, i.e. elements within the system. States are used by class forces to pursue their interest, in the case of core countries.

Imperialism refers to the domination of weak peripheral regions by strong core states. **Hegemony** refers to the existence of one core state temporarily outstripping the rest. Hegemonic powers maintain a stable balance of power and enforce free trade as long as it is to their advantage. However, hegemony is temporary due to class struggles and the diffusion of technical advantages. Finally, there is a global class struggle.

The current world-economy is characterised by regular cyclical rhythms, which provide the basis of Wallerstein's periodisation of modern history (Goldfrank, 2000). After our current stage, Wallerstein envisions the emergence of a socialist world-government, which is the only-alternative world-system that could maintain a high level of productivity and change the distribution, by integrating the levels of political and economic decision-

making. In other words, Wallerstein viewed the world as a single, capitalist economic system. This theory moved ahead by defining the world system in three sets states; i) a set of core states like, the US, European Union and Japan, ii) Peripheral states like, Africa, Latin America and Asia are weak and some extent dependent economically on the core countries, and iii) Semi-periphery like, oil producing countries and some states of Southeast Asia. According to Wallerstein, the core states are able to maintain their supremacy through higher level of skill and greater capital reserve and control. The state plays an important role in maintaining the world system. The system is different from dependency paradigm in terms of defining state structure. The state helps to stabilise capitalism by absorbing its costs and managing the social problems which it creates (Waters, 1995).



3.7 APPLICATIONS AND PROSPECTS

The current hub of research on world-systems is SUNY Binghamton, at the “Fernand Braudel Center for the Study of Economies, Historical Systems and Civilizations.” Although some researchers pursue this approach around the country, it has had its greatest impact among intellectuals in the third-world, where Wallerstein is regarded a first-rate intellectual and contributor to the understanding of world-dynamics.

Most publications take place in the Journal of World Systems Research, and in the Review published by the Fernand Braudel Centre. Within the American Sociological Association, there is a chapter on the Political Economy of the World System. In addition, Wallerstein was president of the International Sociological Association between 1994 and 1998. Although his attention has moved more towards the philosophy of the social sciences, Wallerstein continues to be the major figure in world-system research.

After legitimising historical sociology for its own sake, world-system research has inspired numerous research programs, with perhaps the most notorious one to date being the study of long-term business cycles. In addition, it is an approach widely used to talk about development dynamics in order to understand the relationships between the advanced economies and the third world. As an interdisciplinary theory, it has also drawn the attention of scholars from several disciplines in the social sciences: history, anthropology, cultural studies, economic history and development studies.

3.8 LIMITATIONS

The political and economic elite and military rulers play an important role in the peripheral states in maintaining the world system (Melkote, 2015). World-system theory is known for its global outlook. However, it does not provide strategies for tackling challenges of development like dependency theory. Unnecessary focus on economics fails to explain differences between the core, semi-periphery and periphery concepts.



3.9 INTRODUCTION TO BASIC NEEDS APPROACH

Basic need approach is contrary of modernisation theory, dependency theory and world-system theory. It shifts the focus away from prude economics. The concept emerged in 1970s, to address the basic requirements of individual to maintain a decent quality of life. It aimed to eliminate some of the worst aspect of poverty rather measuring development through GDP or per capita income. “The idea was to go beyond mere capital investment towards investment into human resources in the form of equitable distribution of wealth and income, social justice and improvement of facilities for education, health, social security and so on as salient features” (Braidotti et al., 1994: 17) (Melkote, 2015). This approach emphasised on basic fundamental needs of people and respect for human rights. Paul Streeten (1979), summarised the main objectives of the basic need approach:

- i. Provide adequate food and clean drinking water;
- ii. Provide decent shelter;
- iii. Provide education;
- iv. Provide security of livelihood;
- v. Provide adequate transport;
- vi. Help people participate in decision making; and
- vii. Uphold a person’s dignity and self-respect

3.10 EVOLUTION OF BASIC NEEDS APPROACH



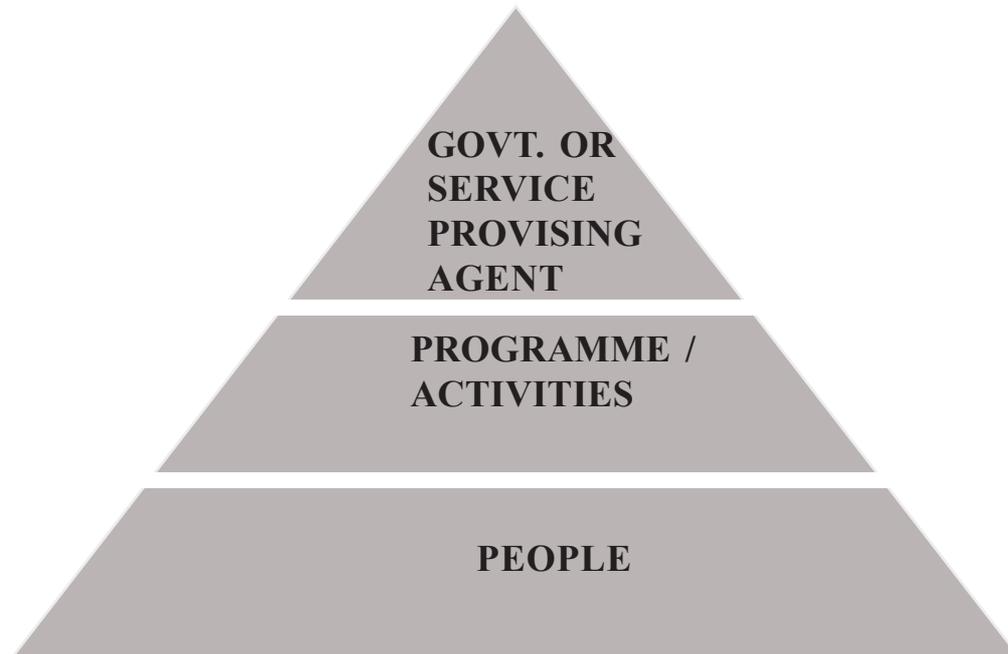
The Bariloche Foundation in Argentina (1972) first developed a world model based on the basic needs of people assuming availability of resources and environmental constraints. This approach was subsequently endorsed by many development theorists. The effort was the welfare of the poor and meeting their minimum (basic) needs. It was an attempt to address the world poverty by meeting the basic needs of the ‘lowest income groups’ in terms of providing food, nutrition, education and housing through employment and income. It was an attempt to deal directly with world poverty by meeting the basic needs of the lowest 40 per cent income groups in the fields of food, nutrition, health, education, housing through employment and income (Narula Uma, 1994). In 1976 International Labour Office (ILO) gave shape to this commitment and adopted the Basic Minimum Need Model. A variety of factors led to the success of this model, especially, individual’s awareness of their environments, availability of resources, means to satisfy needs, perception of the level of development achieved, and the perceptions of the planners and decision makers (Narula, 1994). The ILO emphasised on a category of needs, which is essential for development, like:

- i. Normative needs- minimum level of health and nutrition, without it development cannot be succeeded;
- ii. Felt needs- Individuals perception of their needs;
- iii. Expressed/demand needs- People’s demand based up on their felt needs; and
- iv. Comparative needs- Claimed needs of a group in relevant to characteristics of other groups.

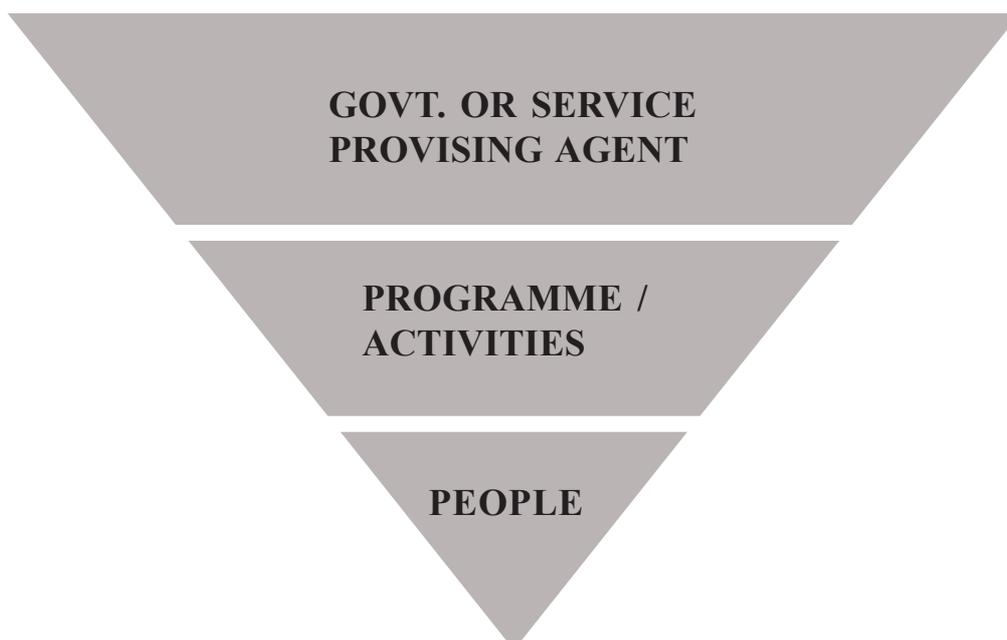
The marginalised section of the society was believed to be surviving with minimum resources at their disposal in developing countries. This helped in concluding the preoccupation of the poor is acquiring basics with their income. Where all the focus is on survival alone, participation as a deciding body in the development process is not feasible. In this model of development, the participation of individual is a prerequisite in terms of planning. Decentralisation is the key towards autonomy of villages and



active village participation helps in proper planning and implementation of development process. **So, this model suggests two-way communication, both top-down and bottom-up approach.** The top-down communication is from government to people to provide awareness and facilities about particular programmes. And the bottom-up approach is from individual to government for need-based programmes.



Bottom – up approach (figure 1)



Top - down approach (figure 2)

The centralisation of information networks and the democratisation of their control is an essential prerequisite to the success of this model. This approach is essential even if the poverty eradication occurred well in time. It is not only about accessing the information but is also about sharing and controlling the same. So, the total control of communication must be managed in regional and local level. Both mass media and interpersonal channels of communication are required to achieve all kind of needs (normative, felt, expressed and comparative). But priority must be given to the interpersonal channels over mass media. The reach of media would be low because of the low purchasing power which is connected to low income of a particular section of society. Though, the government provides community television, radio services and newspapers, mere physical access to these facilities does not help them. They require proper instructive support. (Narula, 1994).



3.11 LIMITATIONS OF BASIC NEEDS APPROACH

Most of third-world countries refused the concept of basic needs model, though it is originated in third world country itself. This attitude was due to the manner in which the concept was perceived and used by the developed countries.

- i. The developed countries tied their foreign aid resources to basic needs projects, which were more beneficial to elite sections of the third world countries rather meeting the basic needs of poor individuals.
- ii. The attempts of developed countries looked like nursing a desire to keep third world countries as noncompetitive-pastoral societies, though a little better fed, housed and educated.
- iii. At national level, the model faces serious drawbacks when it comes to reaching the absolutely poor.
- iv. The authoritarian approach may have led to the powerlessness and dependency.
- v. The missing factor in this model was the inability to delegate authority to poor to lead the whole process of development in order to address their issues. Consequently it failed to motivate the needy to participate.

Despite of all these constraints, the basic need model provided a conceptual and operational tool for the development which led to a new emerging paradigm based on the participatory approach of development communication. The “Basic Needs Model” approach is not a development strategy by itself. It is rather an essential element of growth underlying the development strategy.



Check Your Progress:

3.1 What is World-system theory?

3.2 What is the Political aspect of world-system theory?

3.3 What is Basic needs approach?



UNIT – IV: PARTICIPATORY MODEL & ICT FOR DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION



4.0 UNIT STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Learning Objectives
 - 4.2 Introduction to the Participatory Model
 - 4.3 Approaches towards Participatory Model
 - 4.4 The Emerging Paradigm: Participation
 - 4.5 Key Issues about Development Communication
 - 4.6 Basic Principles of Development Communication
 - 4.7 The Participatory Model for Development Communication
 - 4.8 Information and Communication Technologies for Development
 - 4.9 Check your Progress
-

4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

In this unit we will learn about the importance of the participatory model for development communication and also about the Information communication technologies (ICTs) for development communication.

4.2 INTRODUCTION

The participatory model finds its root in the “Emerging paradigms.” With the changing world scenario, the use of communication for social change is adapting to the new age perspective. In recent years, the world has paced to adapt to advancements in communications technology. People are increasingly mobile and urban. Geographical, political and social landscapes are also changing. These factors gradually shape up the way we communicate. These changes have posed valid questions to the existing paradigms in communication for social change. We have learnt in Unit 1, how rejection of the Dominant Paradigm and the Opposing Paradigm made way for a new paradigm, i.e. “the Emerging Paradigm.”

This approach was adopted in the 1990s by the United Nations and other development organisations in order to address key challenges ahead of development communication for social change.



4.3 APPROACHES TOWARDS PARTICIPATORY MODEL

This perspective emphasises on people and their vision of development and about their empowerment. Participatory approaches convert individuals from being mere passive recipients to active agents of development efforts.

The priorities out-lined are within the political frameworks based on following good governance and democratic principles, e.g. freedom and human rights. In addition to poverty reduction, they consider gender equality and health issues as hindrances to development.

The major reasons for adoption of this approach in development initiatives are in order:

- i. To provide services at a lower cost;
- ii. As participation has intrinsic values for participants, it does not make people feel alienated or left out;
- iii. As participation is a catalyst for other efforts towards development;
- iv. Participation also leads to a sense of responsibility for the project; and
- v. Participation ensures the use of indigenous knowledge and expertise.

The participation is not an absolute concept, and that it can be applied in **different degrees**, is part of the problem. A typology that includes **seven different types of participation** as interpreted and applied by various development organisations is as follows:

- ◆ Passive participation;
- ◆ Participation in information giving;
- ◆ Participation by consultation;

- ◆ Participation for material incentives;
- ◆ Functional participation;
- ◆ Interactive participation; and
- ◆ Self-mobilisation.



In passive participation, stakeholders attend meetings to be informed. In participation by consultation, stakeholders are consulted but the decision making rests in the hands of the experts and in functional participation, stakeholders are allowed to have some input, although not necessarily from the beginning of the process and not in equal partnership. In empowered participation, relevant stakeholders take part throughout the whole cycle of the development initiative and have an equal influence on the decision-making process.

Information sharing and consultation are considered lower forms of participation. In particular, participatory research methods allow for major role for local stakeholders and indigenous knowledge in the problem-analysis and problem-solving processes of development initiatives.

The model of reference is significantly different from the traditional one, since it is now characterised by dialogue and by a horizontal flow, enabling the balanced sharing of perceptions and knowledge.

In this perspective, the communication acquires a more interactive connotation aimed at facilitating participation and empowerment. Even when using mass media, messages can be expected to originate from people themselves rather than from “outside experts.”

The World Bank (1995) identified four types of participation:

- a. Information sharing;
- b. Consultation;
- c. Collaboration; and
- d. Empowerment.

4.4 THE EMERGING PARADIGM: PARTICIPATION



This participatory model is less oriented to the political-economic dimension and more rooted in the cultural realities of development focusing on peoples' participation.

This model emphasised on the application of genuine two-way communication principles and practices. Development communication has increasingly moved toward a horizontal, “two-way” model, which favours peoples' active and direct interaction through consultation and dialogue over the traditional **one-way information dissemination** through mass media.

This approach demands to involve affected people in the decision-making process. The horizontal use of communication, which opens up dialogue, assesses risks, identifies solutions, and seeks consensus for action. This was seen as a key to the success and sustainability of development efforts. This paradigm is changing the way communication is conceived and applied. It shifts the emphasis from information dissemination to situation analysis, from persuasion to participation. It is broadening its scope, maintaining the key functions of informing people and promoting change, yet emphasising the importance of using communication to involve stakeholders in the development process.

4.5 KEY ISSUES ABOUT DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

There are myths and misconceptions about development communication. These misconceptions can often be the cause of misunderstandings and lead to inconsistent and ineffective use of communication concepts and practices. The first two points on this list are about communication in general, while the others refer to development communication in particular.

1. **“Communications” and “communication” are not same.** The plural form refers mainly to activities and products, including information technologies, media products, and services (the Internet, satellites, broadcasts, and so forth). The singular form, on the other hand, usually refers to the process of communication, emphasising its dialogical and analytical functions rather than

its informative nature and media products. This distinction is significant at the theoretical, methodological and operational levels.



2. **There is a sharp difference between everyday communication and professional communication.** A person who communicates well is not necessarily a person who can make effective and professional use of communication. A professional (development) communication specialist understands relevant theories and practices and is capable of designing effective strategies that draw from the full range of communication approaches and methods to achieve intended objectives.
3. **Existence of differences between development communication and other types of communication studies.** Both theoretically and practically, there are different types of applications of communication. There are four main types of communication; they are advocacy communication, corporate communication, internal communication, and development communication. They have different scopes and require specific knowledge and skills to master.
4. **The main scope and functions of development communications are not exclusively about communicating information and messages, but they also involve engaging stakeholders and assessing the situation.** Currently, the scope of development communication has broadened to include an analytical aspect as well as a process of dialogue within in order to open public space where perceptions, opinions and knowledge of relevant stakeholders are exchanged.
5. **Development communication initiatives can never be successful unless proper communication research is conducted before deciding on the strategy.** A communication professional should design a communication campaign or strategy which should have the relevant data to inform, to identify gaps in decision-making.
6. **To be proficient, development communication specialists need to have in-depth knowledge of the theory and practical applications of their discipline.** In addition to being familiar with the relevant literature about various communication theories, models and applications, development communication

specialists should also be educated in the basic principles and practices of other inter-related disciplines, e.g. anthropology, marketing, sociology, ethnography, psychology, adult education and social research. A good professional should also have the right attitude towards people. Being empathetic and a good listener help in dialogue. A professional development communication specialist needs to be issue-focused, rather than being institution-focused.



7. **Development communication Objectives design.** If the objectives of the project are not properly determined or there is an absence of a broad consensus among stakeholders, communication strategy will fail. If the basic foundations of development communication are neglected it results leads to disappointment.
8. **Development communication is not exclusively about behaviour change.** The areas of intervention and the applications of development communication extend beyond the traditional notion of behaviour change.
9. **Media and information technologies are not the backbone of development communication.** Media and information technologies are indeed part of development communication, and they are important and useful means to support development. Their impact is greatly affected by the communication work done in the research phase. Past experience indicates that unless such instruments are used in connection with other approaches and based on proper research, they do not deliver the intended results.
10. **Participatory approaches and participatory communication approaches are not equal.** Participatory approaches and participatory communication approaches are not the same thing and should not be used interchangeably. Though these terms can be used together during the research phase, as their functions are often complementary.

4.6 BASIC PRINCIPLES OF DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

- a) **Dialogue-** Dialogue is the heart of the new communication paradigm. Development communication should foster dialog to facilitate mutual understanding, to assess the situation, and to seek wider consensus.

Professionally directed, dialogue is an invaluable research tool to build trust, optimise knowledge, minimise risks, and reconcile different positions.



- b) **Inclusive**-This methodological frame work might focus only on selected groups of stake-holders. Omitting a group on a basis that might seem irrelevant and can cause problems. Two-way communication should always pay special attention to groups that are marginalised or at a disadvantage in society. Gender issues are always a primary concern in this context, as well as issues related to the poor, or any other vulnerable group.
- c) **Heuristic**- The heuristic and explorative scope of development communication gets their strength from analysis and dialogue. They value-addition is in addressing and rectifying the past fail-ures in development initiatives.
- d) **Analytical**-It assesses the political risks and opportunities, the effectiveness of diffusion and dissemination of activ-ities and it empowers peoples' perceptions and opinions.
- e) **Participatory**- Only genuine communication can facilitate effective participation and there are different types of participation.

Participation Level	Basic Features Related to Communication
Information sharing	One-way communication—basically, people are included by informing them about what is being done.
Consultation	Primarily one-way communication with a stronger emphasis on feedback—stakeholders provide their input but do not have a significant say in the decision-making process.
Collaboration	Two-way communication supporting open interaction in decision making—input in decision making is balanced.
Empowerment	Transfer of control over decisions and resources—two-way communication ensures shared decision making.

- f) **Inter disciplinary**-A development communication body of knowledge includes a number of principles borrowed from other disciplines such as ethnography, sociology, political economy, adult education and marketing.

- g) **Strategic**-The principle of strategy emphasises the professional and timely application of communication techniques and methods to achieve intended objectives.
- h) **Persuasive**- In development communication, persuasion can be used to induce voluntary changes in individuals. Persuasion should be based on accurate information and within a context of two-way communication.



4.7 THE PARTICIPATORY MODEL FOR DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

The approach of “participatory development communication” is a two-way communication process, unlike the earlier models which supported one-way communication approaches that involve disseminating messages, transmitting information or persuading people to change their behaviour (Refer- Figure-10). This model gives priority to horizontal approaches that encourages dialogue for analysis of issues and find their solutions, as well as bottom-up approaches that aim to raise the awareness of decision-makers (Otsyina & Rosenberg, 1997). There is a common agreement that the need for grassroots participation in development is an essential component to promote development in the real sense.

Elements	Modernization/ Diffusion/Monologic	Participation/ Participatory/Dialogic
Main scope	Disseminate information and/or persuade audiences to change attitudes/ behaviors	Ensure proper dialog for sharing knowledge and perceptions to achieve broad consensus leading to change
Model of reference	One-way, linear, often top-down	Two-way, horizontal, and circular
Model orientation	Output-oriented, with the outputs defined at the outset	Process-oriented, with the outcome determined by and through the process
Basic conception of development communication	Communication methods and media applied in the development context	Professional use of dialogic methods to assess and ensure stakeholders’ involvement
Main role of the communication specialist	Decide, design, and use methods and media products to persuade audiences to change	Facilitate dialog, analyze the situation, and propose the appropriate strategy for change
Timing of the communication intervention	Usually at the implementation stage when objectives have already been decided	Best used at the beginning of the project, before objectives have been defined

Source: (Freire, Paulo 2008, PP. 59)

Another perspective of this paradigm, also inspired also by Freire—the “paradigm of another development”— emphasises not only material development but also the development of values and cultures (Richards, Thomas, & Nain, 2001), where development communication emphasises on the small media operating in networks and the use of grassroots communication approaches. In this theory, reinforcement of grassroots participation is majorly used to create chances for communities to adopt activities which are appropriate for them.



One of the models attached to this paradigm is the methodology of community media. Burkey (1993) also pointed out, self-reliance among rural people through their participation in local communication.

The concept of interactivity, with traditional media as its operational instrument, helps acquiring knowledge and skills. This methodology of community media has as its principal elements (Srampickal, 2006):

- ◆ Identification of needs by means of direct contacts with the groups;
- ◆ Examination of the problem identified by the groups in the light of local conditions;
- ◆ Selection of priority problems by the groups;
- ◆ Formulation of a durable methodology for seeking solutions;
- ◆ Identification of the amount of information required and access to this information;
- ◆ Execution by the groups of the projects they have designed;
- ◆ Expansion towards the outside to make known the points of view of the groups to other groups or to the authorities; and
- ◆ Liaison with the communication system to make known their action (Berrigan, 1981).

Now there is a concept of using small media channels as a participatory format to disseminate new innovations via community to support communication in development

projects. This method focuses the planning of communication activities as a support to a development project.



4.8 INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES FOR DEVELOPMENT

The term Information and Communication Technology for Development (ICT4D) became popular in the first decade of new millennium. Basically, the approach is the use of digital technology through Information and Communication Technology (ICT) for the development programmes. According to Everett M. Rogers and Arvind Singhal, “informatisation” is the process of communication and social change made possible by communication technology that moves a nation more and more toward becoming an information society. The computer software industry and digital information and communication technologies (ICT) have aided this rapid growth of globalisation enabling middle class from the Third World to reach global markets (Singhal & Rogers, 2001).

Every medium has an alternative use. The clear majority in rural areas can benefit from ICTs (Prasad, 2004). ICT helps NGOs and action groups to share ideas and create awareness and consensus on vital issues pertaining to people and their needs, especially to those neglected by the mainstream media. Access to information for every one is the major criteria to measure the development process and healthy functioning of democracy in a country. Initiatives are reported from rural areas to assemble computers which can be used by farmers, fisherman, factory workers, etc. to get reliable and useful information regarding their area of work and to communicate using the Internet (Richardson, 1996).

However simplified the process and technology may be minimum literacy is needed for Internet usage. The databases at the rural people’s movements may be used for resource collection, while folk media can very well offer adequate support for dissemination of these. E-zines, e-groups, weblogs and websites can be used for rural development if development workers opt for it. As ICTs spread, more researchers focus on their possible uses in development (Richardson, 1995; Mansel, & Wenn 1998; Tine, 2003; Thioune, 2003; and Lefebvre, 2004). Any discussion on modern information technologies has to address the problem of a digital divide, too, in the



context of development communication (Inyang, 1996). There still exists an undoubtedly wide gap between the information-poor and the information-rich today. This exists not only between developed and less developed countries but also within the less developed countries.

According to Rao (2005), eight Cs (Connectivity, content, community, commerce, culture, capacity, cooperation, and capital) can be used analyse ICT as instrument in terms of their usage and as an industry in terms of their creation. The Millennium Summit in 2000 also discussed and agreed the Millennium Development Goal which can be achieved by technological support and interconnecting technology with development communication process. However there is a constraint of ICT in terms of people’s ability to receive, use and transmit the information, especially rural the poor (Refer to Figure-11).

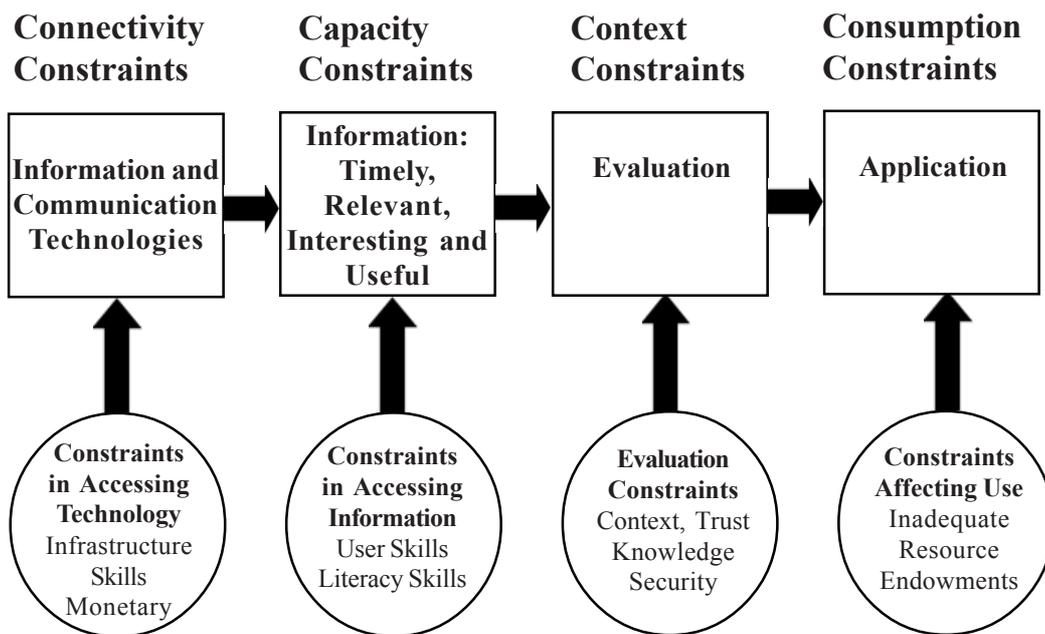


Figure 11- Constraints in the Use of ICT- based Information by the Poor. (Source: Melkote and Stevens, 2015, PP.296)

Manyozo (2015), mediated three approaches of media (media for development, media development and participatory/community communication) relating to ICT for development in relation to development theory (Refer-Figure-12). We have already discussed about three approaches of media and major development theories in the introduction section then further in other sections.

DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

<i>The Three Approached in Relation to Development Theory</i>			
<i>Development Thinking</i>	<i>Media for Development</i>	<i>Media Development</i>	<i>Participatory / Community Communication</i>
Modernisation Paradigm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Top-down traditional approaches to entertainment-education (no audience consultation) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Top-down externally driven and funded, institutional, technologically deterministic • Focuses on scaling up/out Western-like media systems, structures and professional values 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Top-down system and approaches • Institutionalised, instrumentalist initiatives
Dependency Paradigm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Still top-down, but now beginning to capture limited audience voices and perspectives through formative research pretesting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Top-down, externally driven and funded, but beginning to consult public in media policy formulation, emergence of public broadcasting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Therapeutic participation • Minimal consultation within system / institutional approaches
Multiplicity Paradigm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Combining top-down approaches with stakeholder / community engagement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Combining top-down with bottom-up • Democratisation of communication (Community Media) • Emergence of ICT for development which improves access and participation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Delegated Power • Consolidation of researcher • Local ownership and control of communication / engagement activities



Figure - Source: (Manyozo, 2011-pp.23)

Despite the shortcomings, media and ICTs can play a major role in the process of development communication. Technologies like internet as well as sophisticated media like community radio and participatory video can engage people to participate in development programmes. These technologies also help to empower the under privileged as well as the privileged sections of society.



Check Your Progress:



4.1 What are the basic principles of development Communication?

3.2 Write a brief note on ICT?

3.3 What are the types of participation identified by World Bank?



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ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS



1.1 In the 1970s political-economic aspect of development was considered a better alternative for “modernisation” and after strong opposition against the modernisation paradigm, emergence of an alternative theoretical model set afloat, based on the dependency theory.

(For further details refer to Unit 1)

1.2 The difficulties that were not appropriately addressed which led to the emergence of emerging paradigm are that the model was less oriented towards political-economic dimension and more rooted in cultural realities of development focusing on peoples’ participation. Slowly there was a shift from economic aspect towards social aspects.

(For further details refer to Unit 1)

1.3 A well-defined developed mass media and interpersonal communication infrastructure is necessary for development communication. It is necessary that these infrastructures should be accessible to the people, both physically and socially.

(For further details refer to Unit 1)

2.1 The four elements of diffusion of innovation model are as follows,

a) Innovation

Rogers (2005, p. 12) defines Innovation as “an idea, practice or object that has perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption.” First time knowledge about a well-established practice can be perceived as ‘new,’ and an innovation, for that particular group of individuals. As Rogers said, “newness can be expressed in terms of knowledge, persuasion or a decision to adopt.”

b) Communication Channels

Communication is crucial in spreading ideas and to exchange of information. As defined by Rogers (2005, p. 18), communication is the “process by which participants create and share information with one another to reach a mutual understanding.”

c) Time

Time is an important factor in studying diffusion research. Time is involved in various phases of the diffusion process, namely,

- ◆ The innovation decision process;
- ◆ The individual innovativeness, i.e., the time taken for an individual to accept/reject an innovation as compared to others; and
- ◆ The rate of adoption of the innovation.



d) Social System

A social system has a definite structure, defined as the patterned arrangements of the units in a system (Rogers, 2005, p. 25) and a set of norms. Hence, it is clear diffusion and adoption of innovation are greatly affected by the social system and the characteristics of the individual units of that system.

(For further details refer to Unit 2)

2.2 Write a brief note on Rogers' Diffusion of Innovation model.

Answer: The diffusion model is rooted in the modernisation paradigm, with the intent to use media communication and methods to persuade people to change specific behaviours. Diffusion approaches believe progress is achieved by inducing change in individuals' attitude. This approaches links to the participatory model, instead, acknowledges that there can be different constructions of the same reality. No one single party has the ultimate truth; rather, there are a number of realities that often need to be reconciled through communication. This theoretical framework grows out of the constructivist perspective and carries a number of implications.

(For further details refer to Unit 2)

2.3 The development issues and sub issues are as follows:-

- ◆ Development issues have varied over time for four counts.
- ◆ Development definition assigned.
- ◆ Changing development needs of the masses
- ◆ Changing world economy and technology
- ◆ Politics of development and
- ◆ Resultant supporting issues.

(For further details refer to Unit 2)

3.1 The approach to World-system theory is a macro-sociological perspective that seeks to explain the dynamics of the “capitalist world economy” as a “total social system.” A classic example of this approach is associated with Immanuel Wallerstein, who in 1974 published ‘The Rise and Future Demise of the World Capitalist System: Concepts for Comparative Analysis’.



(For further details refer to Unit 3)

3.2 The current world-economy is characterised by regular cyclical rhythms, which provide the basis of Wallerstein's periodisation of modern history (Goldfrank, 2000). After our current stage, Wallerstein envisions the emergence of a socialist world-government, which is the only-alternative world-system that could maintain a high level of productivity and change the distribution, by integrating the levels of political and economic decision-making.

(For further details refer to Unit 3)

3.3 Basic need approach is contrary of modernisation theory, dependency theory and world-system theory. It shifts the focus away from prude economics. The concept emerged in 1970s, to address the basic requirements of individual to maintain a decent quality of life. It aimed to eliminate some of the worst aspect of poverty rather measuring development through GDP or per capita income. “The idea was to go beyond mere capital investment towards investment into human resources in the form of equitable distribution of wealth and income, social justice and improvement of facilities for education, health, social security and so on as salient features” (Braidotti et al., 1994: 17) (Melkote, 2015). This approach emphasised on basic fundamental needs of people and respect for human rights. Paul Streeten (1979), summarised the main objectives of the basic need approach:

- i. Provide adequate food and clean drinking water;
- ii. Provide decent shelter;
- iii. Provide education;
- iv. Provide security of livelihood;
- v. Provide adequate transport;
- vi. Help people participate in decision making; and
- vii. Uphold a person’s dignity and self-respect

(For further details refer to Unit 3)

4.1 The basic principles of development Communication are as follows:



- a) Dialogue- Dialogue is the heart of the new communication paradigm. Development communication should foster dialog to facilitate mutual understanding, to assess the situation, and to seek wider consensus.
- b) Inclusive-This methodological frame work might focus only on selected groups of stake-holders. Omitting a group on a basis that might seem irrelevant and can cause problems. Two-way communication should always pay special attention to groups that are marginalised or at a disadvantage in society.
- c) Heuristic- The heuristic and explorative scope of development communication gets their strength from analysis and dialogue. They value-addition is in addressing and rectifying the past failures in development initiatives.
- d) Analytical-It assesses the political risks and opportunities, the effectiveness of diffusion and dissemination of activities and it empowers peoples' perceptions and opinions.
- e) Participatory- Only genuine communication can facilitate effective participation and there are different types of participation.
- f) Inter disciplinary-A development communication body of knowledge includes a number of principles borrowed from other disciplines such as ethnography, sociology, political economy, adult education and marketing.
- g) Strategic-The principle of strategy emphasises the professional and timely application of communication techniques and methods to achieve intended objectives.
- h) Persuasive- In development communication, persuasion can be used to induce voluntary changes in individuals. Persuasion should be based on accurate information and within a context of two-way communication.

4.2 According to Rao (2005), eight Cs (Connectivity, content, community, commerce, culture, capacity, cooperation, and capital) can be used analyse ICT as instrument in terms of their usage and as an industry in terms of their creation. The Millennium Summit in 2000 also discussed and agreed the Millennium Development Goal which can be achieved by technological support and interconnecting technology with development communication process.

(For further details refer to Unit 4)

DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

4.3 The World Bank in 1995 identified four types of participation. These are:

- a. Information sharing;
- b. Consultation;
- c. Collaboration; and
- d. Empowerment.



MODEL QUESTIONS

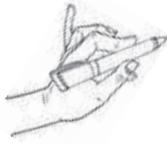
1. Write about the principle on which development communication is based upon.
2. What are the three major paradigms of development communication?
3. Write a brief note on the dominant paradigm.
4. Brief about Lerner's model of development.
5. What are the elements of Diffusion of Innovation?
6. Write a short note on integrated approach of development communication.
7. Write a brief note on the evolution of World-system theory.
8. What are the aims of the World-system theory?
9. What are the roots of the World-system theory?
10. What are the limitations of world-system theory?
11. Brief about the evolution of Basic needs approach and its limitations
12. What are the key approaches towards participatory Model?
13. What are the key issues of development communication?
14. What are the basic principles of development communication?



Comments

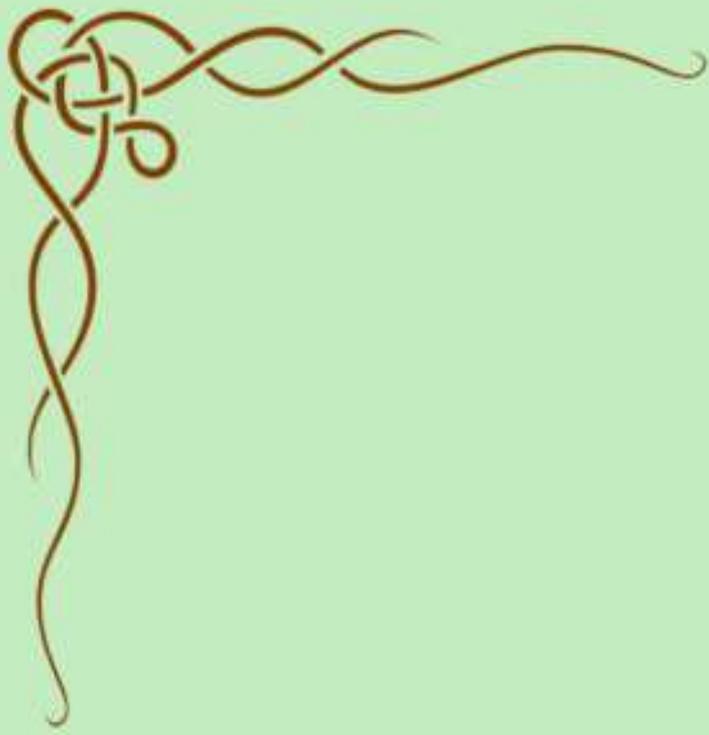


Comments



Comments





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