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GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR MEDIA USE IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The Ohio State University

Ph.D. 1980

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GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR MEDIA USE
IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School
of The Ohio State University

By
Suliman Y. Shwaeb, B.S., M.A.

* * * * *

The Ohio State University
1980

Reading Committee:
Professor I. Keith Tyler
Professor Ali Elgabri
Professor Paul Underwood

Approved by

Advisor
Department of Education
DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my family, first my parents, and second my wife, Gamila, and children, Sammy, Sufyan and Sumia.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to take this opportunity to extend my grateful appreciation to those individuals who provided assistance during the preparation of this study. My thanks go to the members of jury of experts who reacted to the list of the derived principles. I am grateful to Fara{j} El Sharif, for providing necessary information on the development of the Libya broadcast. I am indeed grateful to the members of my committee, Ali Z. Elgabri, Paul Underwood, for all their advice and guidance in the development of this study.

I am especially indebted to I. Keith Tyler, my committee chairman and advisor for his very helpful advice and criticism and for his constant encouragement throughout the writing process.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

During the last half century, mass media has undergone tremendous development. As a result, the information flow between nations has become both greater and easier. Additionally, information has become an important part of the daily lives of people all over the world.

The general technical revolution of recent years has been one factor in the improvement of mass media systems. It has become easier to deliver information to any part of this world. The use of satellites to relay information, both image and sound, on a world-wide range is only one significant example of a development which has brought the nations and peoples of the world closer together.

Researchers in both technical and social fields have been attracted to the field of mass communication. They sensed the importance of these new innovations in enabling people to affect and be affected by each other. So it became necessary to determine the impact of the mass media on society.
There has been a massive growth in the use of television. Similarly, the development of the transistor has meant a great expansion in the use of radio into remote areas. There have been improvements in printing and other production processes and recently the use of radio-facsimile teletype setting for simultaneous publication of newspapers in many locations within a country or even across continents has been introduced.

Education has always been one of the services the mass media rendered to society. The recent developments in mass communication have greatly increased the educational potential of the media. In addition to seeing widespread use of newspapers, books, film and radio, the last few years have witnessed a growing emphasis on the use of television for education.

The trends, unfortunately, have been limited, for the most part, to the more highly developed areas of the world. Globally, there are approximately two billion people, living in more than a hundred countries, representing 70% of the world population, who still lack adequate communication facilities. They have fewer than the minimum of ten copies of daily newspapers, five radio receivers and two cinema seats per 100 people, established as a yardstick by UNESCO in a survey carried out at the request of the United Nations in 1966.¹

This condition, among others, has hindered national progress in developing countries. It is generally accepted that economic and social progress depends on the development of information media. The mass media play an important role in the developing countries and it is critically important to recognize that these countries lack adequate and effective means of communication needed to make change easier and faster. Schramm points out that mass communication serves as the 'great multiplier' in development. He notes that modern mass media can spread needed knowledge and attitudes immeasurably more quickly and widely than was ever before possible.²

Radio, television, and film command audiences of such large size as to astonish many people. They created and are still creating their own "languages" which have become the means by which moving pictures and the spoken word capture and hold the attention of the audiences. They are effective as means of communication in both literate and illiterate societies. They reach into the everyday lives of the people and they can be instruments of persuasion and change.

As society progresses, these means of communication reach beyond the frontiers of present knowledge and indeed beyond any social control. To assess their effects on people and to use them for the welfare of the community has become a major task of social

educators, especially in the developing countries. Some such work has been done by private individuals on their own initiative, but such efforts often have failed due to the lack of adequate financial assistance, high illiteracy rates, government apathy, and a general feeling of despair among the audiences. Vitally needed is a mechanism or strategy for reaching the great masses of people in a way which will restore their confidence, get them involved in decision making, enable them to utilize their energies to transform their lives and thus to achieve their dreams.

A great majority of the population of the underdeveloped nations can neither read nor write, nor do they have the opportunity for acquiring literacy through schooling due to the lack of qualified teaching personnel. It is apparent that the only feasible way for these nations to catch up is to speed the general flow of information, to offer as much education of all types as possible, and to persuade their populations of the need for literacy and technical skills.

In India, the United Nations reported that more than 80% of the people live in some 55,000 villages. Many of these villages are physically and mentally isolated. A large part of India has still to be effectively linked by roads. More than 75% of the adult population is illiterate. There is an urgent need for professional guidance in modern methods of farming to increase food production and improve health and nutrition. There is a need for a new look at family relationships,
at citizenship, and at adapting for adapting village crafts to the requirements of a progressive mid-twentieth century world. Generally speaking, the situation in India is similar to that in other developing nations.

Usually, the best means of communication is face-to-face. In that situation, questions about goals can be answered specifically, instructions can be given to fit specific situations, and special demonstrations of basic techniques can be presented. With regard to the populations of developing nations who are isolated by illiteracy and by the lack of transportation, and more importantly, by the lack of qualified personnel, face-to-face communication on a large scale is simply not possible. Even if there were enough personnel to do the job, the high cost of using them as instructors to millions of people would prevent such practice.

For these reasons, many researchers and social educators have depended upon the use of such various forms of communication as books, posters, displays, films, radio and television. Some of these media, and especially radio, have characteristics which match the needs of developing countries; namely, low cost, no requirement of connection to an electric circuit and effectiveness with both the literate and the illiterate.

It is generally recognized that the communication process is an important form of behavior whether that of individuals, small groups, or large groups. We can study human communication without reference to mass communication, but if we want to deal with the effects and process of mass communication, the sweep must be broad enough to encompass the influence of this form of communication upon persons in groups, as well as upon individuals.

This study will attempt to develop a basic model and strategy for the use of mass media in the process of national development as applied to the Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya (hereafter referred to as Libya).

MASS MEDIA AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Development is the process through which a society moves to acquire the capability to improve the quality of the life of its people, mainly through the solution of its problems. In this sense, although they have been slow to recognize it, the United States and other affluent countries are still underdeveloped in such areas as urban life, environmental protection, race relations, and other social problems.⁴

The development of any country must be undertaken by its own people. Recently, the more developed countries have begun to come to the aid of the less developed, a positive step toward human understanding. But it is the responsibility of the developing country to initiate the first step. Many such countries can not afford the financial requirements for development. But they must recognize and acknowledge the need for development. Technical assistance, at least for a period of time, can be borrowed, imported, or adapted from abroad. But the most important factor is the creativity within the country itself.

In Asia, Africa, and Latin America, states have been formed after long histories of colonization. The populations of these countries have begun a radical transformation from preindustrial to modern societies. At times the problems these developing nations face appear almost insurmountable for they are attempting, over a relatively short period of time, to achieve political, social, and economic changes which took the industrial nations centuries to achieve. Such rapid development hardly seems possible. The fact that authorities in the social sciences express guarded optimism about the future of developing nations is, to a large extent attributable to the part which the mass communication media can play in development.

Basically, the role of the mass communication process in any type of economic or social development is to:

(1) provide people with information about the need for change, what changes can take place, benefits to
be expected as a result of change, and methods and alternatives;

(2) persuade people by providing examples of change such as with new seeds, birth control devices, and sanitation practices;

(3) teach skills which enable people to accept and adopt new changes.

If the people in an overpopulated area learn about birth control devices, their availability, their benefits, and how to use them, the chances for accepting such practices are increased. In other words, any form of communication can play a part in every stage in the process of change.

The course of change in the developing nations, without the use of mass communication, would be very slow. Most of these countries are characterized by internal geographical isolation, with people living in clusters, whose loyalties are primarily to the tribe or to the local community rather than to the nation. This focus of loyalties situation can be attributed to the fact that tribal existence goes back to the pre-history of the nation and the nation is new. Moreover, these nations suffer a high illiteracy rate, a shortage of teachers and social workers, and a lack of modern equipments throughout the nation. With the use of mass media many of these problems can be alleviated. Radio and television can help overcome the illiteracy problem; they can supplement the existing teaching staff, and they can speed up and increase the flow of information. These
media are able to do this and more in a relatively short time, while reaching a large audience.

Elihu Katz (1969) compared two studies; one dealt with how Iowa farmers adopted hybrid corn; the other with how a group of doctors adopted a new prescription drug for their patients. The hybrid corn research provided a basis for thinking of the stages of adoption and the difference between early and late adopters. The drug study was useful in focusing on the relation of group membership to adoption. The mass media were found to be useful in different ways at different stages of adoption: at first to make potential adopters aware of a new development; later, to legitimize the decision to adopt. Brewester Smith (1965) examined how communication campaigns aided in the adoption of family planning. Smith noted that both the motivational structure of the target population and the political implications of any planned change may, in many ways, be more important than the particular communication strategy a change agent chooses. Daniel Learner (1963) systemized his thoughts about where communication belongs in economic and social development. He referred to William James' (1923) coefficient of satisfaction (achievement divided by aspiration), and he developed from that his often-quoted warning that although communication can help to bring about a revolution of rising expectation, this can also be followed by a revolution of rising frustration if the desired changes do not come about.
Some of the developing countries have already begun to realize the important role of mass communication in the lives of many of their people. Schramm (1976) reported that the growth of radio has been so dramatic that he referred to the decade ending 1973 as the "Decade of the Transistor." In Latin America, the number of radios more than doubled. During those ten years the number of radios in the great developing regions of the world jumped from about 14 million to approximately 114 million in these ten years; in Africa, it more than tripled; in Asia, it more than quadrupled. A conservative estimate is that one-third to one-fourth of all the people in the developing regions now have direct access to radio broadcasts. The number of television sets, too, is increasing sharply in relation to population, although in 1963 the number was near zero. Daily newspaper circulation also is growing, but at a more moderate rate than either of the broadcast media. 5

It is worth noticing that the developing countries are relying heavily on education. The development of universities that are training professionals to work in communication and that are conducting research on communication, and the growing number of academic programs in such fields as agriculture, health, family planning, and the like, are considered positive steps toward national development. These countries are faced with a shortage of skilled and trained human

5Ibid., p. 3.
resources in all fields, particularly in education. Mass media can supplement the present teachers. Schramm (1976) reported that Japanese workers appear to have learned more from newspapers, books, magazines, radio and television than from their earlier education.  

The Koreans for example, are putting up a balloon to provide two-mile-high transmission facilities for instructional television. Schramm (1976) quoted Harry Oshima as saying, "In sum, the role of mass communication is greatly enhanced in a labor-intensive strategy because more people with less education in remote regions must be reached than in the capital intensive strategy. Labor must be re-educated and manpower training re-oriented. Technology of the intermediate type (the up-graded traditional technology, the down-graded modern technology, and the new intermediate technology) must be discovered. New institutions and organizations in the rural areas must be established, while the old values must be modified and new values promoted. The key problem of the new strategy is implementation, so that its success may depend very much on the ability of mass media to inform, persuade, and educate. Mass communication

6 Ibid., p. 29.
7 Ibid., p. 3.
may turn out to be the most important medium of education, whether formal or informal.\textsuperscript{8}

Only recently, some of the developing countries started to experiment with the use of mass media to abolish illiteracy. In Africa the Nigerian Broadcasting Corporation, with the aid of a Ford Foundation grant, undertook in 1961 to provide a regular educational radio service to schools throughout Nigeria. The approach was thorough, with numerous preliminary trips through the country to consult with teachers, administrators, and pupils. Once the program were on the air, the NBC kept in touch with its audiences by creating an advisory council on educational broadcasting and by soliciting regular reports from teachers and students, for which a form was provided. According to the feedback received, the service was both popular and useful.\textsuperscript{9}

A similar experiment with literacy by radio was undertaken in Cameroun in 1957-59 and in Niger in 1961. Both experiments were moderately successful, at least to judge from the number of students (all adults) completing each course: approximately 60\% in Cameroun and 40\% in Niger.\textsuperscript{10} The Ivory Coast has recently conducted an

\textsuperscript{8}Ibid., p. 5.


\textsuperscript{10}Ibid., p. 444.
experiment involving the use of television in literacy instruction. Roughly two-thirds of a class of twelve hundred workmen passed the final examination for the course.\footnote{Myer, Jean. \textit{Learning to Read by Television}, EBU Review, 49B, November 1965, p. 53-55.}

Unfortunately, the real impact of educational broadcasting in many of the developing nations can only be estimated. In Africa, for example, one can judge only from the number of countries using radio and television for educational purposes. There are at least sixteen African nations that are using educational broadcasting and there appears to be a widespread feeling that this approach holds promise, even with the lack of concrete evidence to confirm this faith.\footnote{Emery, Walter, op. cit., p. 445.}

Radio and television have also been used in India and Japan in efforts to modernize agriculture.\footnote{UNESCO, "Rural Development in Japan," Paris, UNESCO, 1960.} In Africa, Ghana took the lead. The Ghana Radio and Television Corporation had a separate rural broadcasts section in 1962, and in 1966 it initiated a special training program in farm radio forum operation for representatives from the ministries of health and of education. The United Ghana
Farmer's Council Cooperative, and several other groups.  

Several other African countries have undertaken similar projects in rural broadcasting. In Dahomey, for example, a thirty minute broadcast program for rural audiences dealt with new agricultural methods. Also, Radio Malagache has reported some success with a series of programs designed to encourage reforestation and prevention of forest fires. Radio Senegal has in the past carried a daily fifteen-minute program in which rural dwellers could freely express their opinion on rural development projects proposed by the government.  

There are several other examples where mass media has played an important role in development. Robert Arnove (1976) reported several case studies on the use of television in education including one in El Salvador, and the Samoan ETV project.  

It seems clear that mass media can play a major role in national development. Researchers have pointed out the indirect contributions of mass communication to development. They say it can be a powerful instrument in building durable and cohesive national

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15Ibid., p. 446.

bonds in multi-religious, multi-ethnic, and multi-lingual societies like India. The media can also create an ethos of change and progress. These capabilities must be reflected adequately in a communication strategy for development. Creation of an attitudinal and motivational infra-structure must be viewed as an important objective of development communication policy. Researchers also warn against expecting mass media to produce instant change. They feel that there must be within the target population the recognition of a need for change and a desire to bring it about. There must also be comprehensive planning and implementation. Only then can the mass media play a role as an agent for change.

All of the developing countries turned to their mass media as soon as they secured independence. The major task of the media was to create a feeling of nation hood among the population. In Africa, for example, as Walter Emery (1969) noted, this task was a difficult one. He relates that, in addition to establishing the common colonial power pattern behavior, both Great Britain and France found it useful to encourage ancient tribal divisions as an antidote to nationalism. Thus, most African nations have acquired legal independence, but without an accompanying awareness, on the part of the population at large as to what this means. 17

One of the most common conditions still facing the newly independent nations is the high illiteracy rate among their populations and the lack of skilled and educated human resources. Some of these countries turned to their mass media to help remedy this situation. Examples are in India, Japan and the nations that have been cited earlier. Radio, film and television have been successfully used in education in El Salvador, Ivory Coast, and Niger. Indeed, according to the Project Profile published by the Academy for Educational Development, media have been used in national development in more than 30 countries.

Developing countries seem to face common problems. Thus, any successful efforts in one country to use media for national development could be beneficial in others. What is needed at this stage is a set of principles, growing out of these experience, governing the use by developing nations of the mass media in national development.
CHAPTER 11

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study concentrates on basic principles for the use of mass media in national development. These basic principles will be derived from writings in the field of communication and development and from reports on experiences of developing nations. These principles will be identified, and will be validated by experts in the field. They will serve as the basis for a proposed communications model for the use of mass media in developing countries. This, in turn, will be applied specifically to the development of a strategy for the use of mass media in the national development of Libya.

The reasons for choosing Libya as a part of this study is due to the fact that the author is a citizen of the country and is familiar with the situation there. Furthermore, the author is one of the very few Libyan students who are studying mass communication and will return back to Libya to participate in the future of the Libyan mass media. In addition, no study of this type that has been conducted on Libya.

The Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya is located in North Africa. Facing the Mediterranean Sea on the north, Libya is
bounded on the east by Egypt and the Sudan, on the south by Chad and Niger, and on the west by Algeria and Tunis. Libya's largest city is Tripoli, which is also the capital of the country. Benghazi, the second largest city, lies approximately six hundred miles east of Tripoli. There are numerous smaller cities along the Mediterranean Sea.

Libya has been subject to many different colonial powers. The Romans, Turks, French, English, and Italians dominated Libya at different times during its history. In 1952, for the first time, Libya had its own government. Only a few Libyans were qualified to take government posts, and the country lacked a modern economic infrastructure. The newly independent state faced economic as well as political problems. Foreign aid came from the United Nations, the United States and the United Kingdom.

In the years since the discovery of oil in 1953-54, Libya went through rapid changes. This discovery freed the country from the need to rely on foreign aid and provided abundant financial resources. The discovery of oil also resulted in the movement of the rural population from villages to cities. Also because of the new financial resources, many Libyans who fled the country during the war, started to return.

Population settlement patterns in Libya have traditionally been determined almost entirely by the availability of natural water
resources and by the fertility of the soil. In the North, where water is available, the population had settled in small, closely-grouped clusters and engaged in agriculture. In the South where water is not available, living was characteristically nomadic, and people traveled from one water source to another in small tribal groups.

But when oil was discovered, many people moved into towns, looking for better jobs, better housing and better living conditions. One major problem they faced involved their lack of skills and education. The country was in urgent need of skilled and educated people. The government encouraged education which was free. To it, education was the only solution to the national shortage of trained people. The present emphasis on education reflects the national need as well as the people's desire for an educated population. Before 1952 there were few educated Libyans. Under the Turkish and Italian administrators education received little official support and only a small population attended school; illiteracy was widespread. The Italians used their language as the teaching language and taught Italian history and culture. Most Libyans did not send their children to these schools for fear of exposing them to un-Islamic thoughts.

The per capita in Libya is $3000 per annum (World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1977). This means Libya is richer than neighboring Arab countries and among the high income nations in
world, on the United Nations standard.

One of the major problems in Libya is the high rate of illiteracy (93% among women and 78% among men, "Area Handbook 1973"). This constitutes a serious threat to a fast growing country like Libya. While it is true that there is enough money, there are few, if any, trained personnel in many essential fields. Furthermore, the bulk of those who are illiterate are in the remote areas. The government has tried to provide some kind of education, but the efforts are not well systematized.

Daniel Lerner (1976) suggested a sequence of institutional development leading to take-off: urbanization, literacy, extension of mass media, high per capita income, and political participation. In Libya, the per capita income is high, the literacy rate is low, the mass media are centralized, successful urbanization is difficult for an uneducated population, and political participation is available through the popular committees. One way for Libya to tackle these problems is to develop a program for using mass media effectively. It must be noted here that Libya has a small population (2.5 million) scattered in a large country (twice the size of the state of Texas) and the only practical way to reach much of this population is through the mass media.

What is needed, at this stage, is a feasible strategy for the use of mass media in solving many of these problems. Such a strategy must be based on a systematic method supported by experts in the
field of communication and development.

After describing the role of mass media in national development, this study will identify and validate a set of basic principles for the use of media in such development, design a model based on these principles for national development, and apply this model specifically to Libya.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The design of this study involves five stages:

(1) Specifying in greater detail the role which should be played by radio, film, and television in national development;

(2) Identifying basic principles for the use of mass media in national development;

(3) Validating those principles by a jury of experts;

(4) Designing a model for the use of mass media in national development based on these principles;

(5) Applying this model to the use of mass media in the national development in Libya.

(1) Specifying the detailed role of non-print media. To accomplish this, a careful review of all available literature related to mass communication and national development was carried out. This included examining case studies of the use of these media, both those resulting in success and those not successful in assisting in national development. This review resulted in a detailed description of the functions assigned to the media, the ways they were used, the inter-relations among the media and other pertinent data revealing the specific roles played by the media.
(2) **Identifying principles.** The review above described was also the basis for identifying basic principles of effective media use, whether stated or implied. These principles were formulated as guides to action, with potential universality of application.

(3) **Validating the principles.** The principles as formulated were placed in logical categories and submitted to a jury of experts in the field of communication and development. The selection of experts was based on the following criteria: (1) They are represented in the literature either by research reports or by authoritative accounts of development projects; (2) They have had experience, either personally or in association with others, with mass media in developing countries; and (3) They have themselves been engaged in developing projects in the emerging countries. The choice of the experts was also dependent on their availability.

An instrument was developed for submitting the principles to these experts by mail. They were asked to rate each principle in terms of its relative importance and on its relative validity.

(4) **Developing a model.** A generalized model, based upon these principles, for the use of mass media in national development was developed.

(5) **Applying the model.** The model, in turn, was applied to the development of a strategy plan for the use of mass media in
national development in Libya. The fitting of this model to the
particular situation in Libya took into account financial resources,
available manpower, educational status and the various political,
cultural, economic and geographic characteristics of the country.
CHAPTER IV

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The Development of Mass Communication

The purpose of this chapter is simply to identify basic principles for the use of mass media in national development. It deals with different researches in the field of mass communication and development and also with experiences using mass media in national development.

Many of the developing societies, due to such characteristics, as small size, relative homogeneity, technological inefficiency, high illiteracy rate, and low per capita income, still depend on traditional oral means of communication. This situation has resulted in dependence on memory of folklore for historical records. This is also responsible to some degree for the success of the broadcast media (radio, television, and film) rather than print in developing societies.

These countries face many problems that hinder any progress attempts. As Smelser (1966) described it, "a developing nation if it could be depicted graphically, would resemble a large, awkward
animal lumbering forward by moving each of its parts, sometimes in partial coordination and sometimes in opposition to each other."

Development, change, and modernization in developing countries often have been limited to certain areas such as agriculture while other areas have been ignored. When change occurs it must be complete running through the government, the social system, the culture, the economy and extending to the level of the individual personality. A truly integrated and holistic picture of development would present a coordinated portrayal of the process at each of these levels.

Norton Ginsburg in his book *Atlas of Economic Development*, selected six indicators and displayed them graphically on world maps. These maps were shaded with vertical and diagonal lines of various weights. On the basis of these data the countries were divided into six classes for each indicator, the classes reflecting how much or how little of the characteristic represented by the indicator, the nation individually possessed. The higher the country's relative standing on the indicator, the lighter its shading. The lower its standing, the darker its shading.

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Even though these indicators were chosen in the late fifties, the world situation has not greatly changed. These indicators were: gross national product per capita in US dollars, gross energy consumption in megawatt hours per capita, percentage of active population in agriculture, percentage of adults literate, daily newspaper circulation per 1000 population, and pieces of international mail per 1000 population.²

Look at the first indicator, Gross National Product, in Figure 1, which is in per capita terms. It seems clear that, at least geographically, the darker areas, denoting lower levels of GNP per capita, are not randomly distributed about the globe. On the contrary, they clearly tend to cluster in a band on both sides of the equator. They tend to lie in the continents or subcontinents of Latin America, Africa, and South Asia.

Figure 2, which shows worldwide energy consumption per capita, is to some degree the same picture. Although the Soviet Union, the countries of Southern Europe, and the oil- and coffee-producing nations of Northern Latin America have shifted a little compared to their GNP position, the overall pattern is still strikingly the same.

Figure 1. Relative Standing of the Nations in Gross National Product: (From De Sola Pool, Schramm and others, 1973).
Figure 2. Relative Standing of Nations in Energy Potentials, (From De Sola Pool, Schramm and others, 1974).
Figure 3. Relative Standing of Nations in Agricultural Population, (From De Sola Pool, Schramm and others, 1974).
Figure 4. Relative Standing of Nations in Daily Newspaper Circulation, (From De Sola Pool, Schramm and others, 1974).
Figure 5. Relative Standing of Nations in International Mail Flow, (From De Sola Pool, Schramm and others, 1973).
Figure 6. Relative Standing of Nations in Literacy Rate, (From De Sola Pool, Schramm and others, 1973).
Figure 3, the percentage of active population in agriculture, with slight changes in the Soviet Union and Southeast Asia, still reflects the same result.

Figure 4, 5 and 6, shows newspaper circulation, international mail flow, and literacy rate. Except the Soviet Union in Figure 4 and China in Figure 6 with little change, the general impression remains the same.

On the whole, the nations that have the least levels of development--economic, education, transportation, and communication--tend to cluster in what Schram called a "band of scarcity" that girdles the globe about the equator. ³

Recognizing the great role that mass media seemed destined to play in national development, many of the countries of the world started to rely upon and to improve their mass media. In Chart 1, 2, and 3, DeSola, Schramm and others (1973) show the rate of growth over approximately the last two decades, 1950-1970 of the three major mass media, daily newspaper circulation, radio receivers, and television sets.⁴


Chart 1. Daily newspaper circulation per 1,000 population, 1950-1970 for selected countries.

Chart 3. Television receivers per 1,000 population, 1950-1970, for selected countries.

If we compare the growth of broadcast media (radio, and television) to the print media (newspapers) in these graphs, it will reflect the great growth in this twenty year period. This advance is particularly striking with regard to radio. Uganda, for example, moved in the course of two decades from less than one radio per 1000 persons to more than sixty. Ghana moved from three to eight. Such changes are truly impressive and imply momentous alterations in the life-styles of the people as well as changing functions of these media as institutions in the developing nations.\(^5\) A similar but not so dramatic situation occurred with television (see graphs).

If these graphs represent anything, they represent the great awareness in developing countries of the important role the mass media can play in helping to eliminate many of their national problems.

There is little doubt that modern communication is very influential in developing cultures. However, how much and what types of communication, and under what circumstances they can be most effective in reaching what goals remains to be determined.

THE MEDIA ROLE IN DEVELOPMENT

One of the pioneers in the field of mass communication and development is Wilbur Schramm. He believes that mass media of

\(^5\)Ibid., p. 350.
information work best alongside education in a developing country where they serve to speed and ease the long, slow social transformation required for economic development, and in particular, to speed and smooth the task of mobilizing human resources behind the national effort. 6

Information plays three roles in developing countries, according to Schramm—the watchman role (to scan the horizon and report back), the policy role (to decide policy, to lead and legislate), and the teacher role (to socialize, to bring new members into the society with the skills and beliefs valued by the society). 7 However, these depend on the level of communication employed by the specific country, but Schramm claimed that it was futile to argue whether information creates some of the structures and forms of the society, or the structures and forms of society create a certain stage of communication development.

Schramm claimed that as national development gets under way, it is not the function of communication that changes, but rather the amount of it. He said that the increased flow of information plants the first seeds of change and furnishes the climate for 'Nationness';


7Ibid., p. 38.
making knowledge available, and providing a forum for discussion, leadership and decision making.\textsuperscript{8}

Increasing the number of radios, newspapers and cinemas however, will not necessarily bring about a corresponding increase in the rate of social change, since the channel is only one step in the communication process. There must be a substantial change in attitudes, beliefs, skills and social norms in order for the media to be effective in aiding the transition to new customs, practices, and social relationships.\textsuperscript{9} It is true, that until a large number of men can read and have suitable material to read, there is a little likelihood of wide participation in social development schemes.\textsuperscript{10}

Milikan and Blackmer, in their book, \textit{The Emerging Nations}, stressed the fact that, "the paramount requirement of change in any society is that the people themselves must change."\textsuperscript{11} In a study concerning the manpower problems of 75 countries, Fredrick Harbison said:

\begin{quote}
The progress of a nation depends first and foremost on the progress of its people. Unless it develops their spirit and human potentialities, it cannot develop much else materially,
\end{quote}

\textsuperscript{8}Ibid., p. 43.

\textsuperscript{9}Ibid., p. 114.

\textsuperscript{10}Ibid., p. 41.

economically, politically, or culturally. The basic problem of most of the underdeveloped countries is not a poverty of natural resources but the underdevelopment of their human resources. Hence their first task must be to build up their human capital. To put it in more human terms, that means improving the education, skills, and hopefulness, and thus the mental and physical health, of their men, women, and children.\textsuperscript{12}

Schramm compared the flow of information to a type of thermometer that measures and regulates the level of social tension. Communication can raise the social temperature by raising aspirations when the developing economy is not ready to satisfy them. It can reduce temperature by providing explanation, holding out rewards, speeding up development, permitting change, cutting through the entire culture and enabling the people and the leaders to be heard.\textsuperscript{13}

Of course there is a limit to that which the mass media can accomplish on their own. Some tasks they can only help to do. The media can not take over the task of community decision making, for example. Understanding where the media can accomplish goals in support of interpersonal communication is one of the most important tasks for a nation's leaders before they learn how to use the media effectively.\textsuperscript{14}


\textsuperscript{13}Schramm, Wilbur, op. cit., p. 37.

\textsuperscript{14}Ibid., p. 124.
According to Schramm the mass media can:

* Widen horizons
* Raise aspirations
* Focus attention
* Create a climate for development
* Help only indirectly to change strongly held attitudes or valued practices
* Feed the interpersonal channels
* Confer status
* Broaden the policy dialogue
* Enforce social norms
* Help form tastes
* Affect attitudes lightly held, and slightly canalize stronger attitudes
* Help substantially in all types of education and training\footnote{Ibid., p. 127.}

There is an urgent need to look at some evidence on how the mass media may be used effectively. Some accounts deal with the tasks media can accomplish. Others deals with how they can be used, which has much to do with their effectiveness.

The role of the mass media is to help in any change in the transition to new customs and practices and, in some cases, to different social relationships. Behind these changes in behavior there
must be substantial changes in attitudes, beliefs, skills, and social norms.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Knowledge of Local Culture

There have been many campaigns that failed in many developing countries. The major reasons for these failures were either that the media people misjudged or that they misunderstood the local situation. Foster (1962) reported that there was a major effort in Bolivia to introduce a new maize which seemed in every way superior to the old variety. The new maize grew well in the tropics, had more food value, produced a higher yield, and was less subject to insect attack. Thus, the prospects for improving the diet and health of the locals and their animals were very good. As it turned out, the maize was very hard to grind by hand, and the villagers did not want to haul it to the mill in town. But it proved to make excellent commercial alcohol. So the campaign resulted not in improving the local diet and health but in promoting alcoholism.16

There were other instances in Africa, Asia, and Latin America where women, for example, refused to make use of the newly

installed running water in their homes for washing clothes, because they would miss meeting with other women in their usual social activity. Also in India some villages rejected the idea of installing new and inexpensive smokeless stoves, although without it they had to cook on the floor of the house. When they did so the house soon filled with smoke which eventually filtered through the thatch roof. Many of the residents had eye ailments and upper respiratory infections. But the smokey houses had a great advantage the proposers of the new stoves were not aware of: the smoke kept down the white ants which infested the roof. It if were not for the smoke, the ants would soon eat all the thatch and the roof would have to be replaced much more often.  

Cases like these represent the unforeseen consequences of campaigns which failed due to the lack of knowledge of local problems. Schramm claimed that localness is not a strong attribute of the mass media and without a local field staff the media are not likely to know such things about the small localities they serve.  

It is difficult to change villagers by demonstration, unless the demonstration is administered by locals who are aware of the local situation. A demonstration that is based on general rather than local

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17 Ibid., p. 96.
18 Ibid., p. 81
19 Schramm, op. cit., p. 124.
knowledge will tend to have negative influences far wider than the immediate setting. An example is in Burma where farmers were taught to plow their rice paddies deeply. This resulted in destroying the soil pan that held the water in the paddy.\textsuperscript{20}

It must be recognized that most of the people in developing nations have learned over a long period of time a relatively sure and safe way to farm their fields. They have learned it from their fathers who learned it from theirs. They have also seen their neighbors practice the same methods over the years. For them it is a successful method and they have become skilled in it through many years of trials. They trust the method and they trust their teachers whom they know well. But they have no reason to trust an outsider who suggests strange and unfamiliar changes. For these farmers, what they have tried themselves, and what has been successful for them is considered safe. What comes to them from a distance, brought in by a stranger, and untried in their area, they will distrust. They are careful not to gamble with the food of their families. Being local is being aware of the local culture and symbol system. Doob reported that films failed because they were not adapted to the audience

at hand. An educational picture produced in Nigeria and aiming to instruct mothers on how to bathe a baby, offended women in Uganda a child, they say, should not be shown naked, and his head must be washed first.

Even what appears to be universally accepted cartoons can cause trouble. Some Congo soldiers during World War II, meeting Donald Duck for the first time, threw stones at the screen because they thought they were ridiculed. "Animals don't talk," they shouted. "Who ever saw a duck in uniform?" 21

Doob believes that it is possible to adapt familiar communication patterns to the new media. For example, when radio was introduced into what was then the Gold Coast, the introducers deliberately tried to fit it into an African framework. They believed that its initial prestige depended in large part on the kind of translation that was used since people allegedly had confidence only in "the deep vernacular," a highly figurative and illusive form of language which requires a knowledge of the doings of mythical figures, the traditions, the folklore, the proverbs and rough country humor passed orally from one generation to another. A format was used which resembled the pattern of the linguist who transmits messages between the chief and the people--A "signature drum" announced the start of the transmission, the way a drum in the village assembled the people. Programs began,

as linguists open a meeting, by greeting dignitaries (such as the paramount chief and the village headman) and by offering good wishes for the sowing and protection of crops. 22

Willis Sibley points to the fact that planned changes must be congruous with existing cultural beliefs and must be presented in a manner which makes full use of the existing social structural arrangement. 23

William Sellers believes that the use of local people who are known will allow the locals to accept the medium as recording and reproducing scenes from real life. 24

Sellers recommended that films be made in the local idiom and use a technique which follows closely on the lines of traditional story-telling. This requires a most intimate knowledge of the people and their habits and customs, which few outsiders possess. This means that films must be made for the people, with the people, and by the people. 25

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22 Ibid., p. 286.


25 Ibid., p. 18.
Another study which was conducted about film in Libya, Iraq and Iran by John Humphrey in 1961, supported the importance of the use of local people. The author felt that it is important to produce films in local communities, using local people, and applying the situation to the local standards. 26

It is generally understood that the effectiveness of any communication medium is indeed dependent on the technique employed in the medium. Here, again, according to Holmberg: "The improving of communication media involves more than simply teaching the people to read and write, or imparting information through the written word. Many isolated villagers of the Sierra have not learned to look at photographs in such a way as to grasp their full meaning. For example, the showing of a public health film at Vieos revealed that the picture had failed to convey its intended message, for each scene was understood as a separate incident. The audience was wholly unable to see any connection between the film and its own life, and it misunderstood many features that were not completely realistic. When lice were depicted as larger than life, the conclusion was that they were an entirely different species of animals. Except for religious fiestas, few rural villagers had seen any variety of drama, and the functioning and purpose of radio are known only to a few individuals. Because

26Humphrey, John, "Experience in Motion Picture Production For Film Illiterates." In Elgabri, Ali, op. cit., p. 39.
radio, newspapers, and films can play a leading role in the process of accelerated modernization, the establishment of regional newspapers and radio stations would be a major step forward.  

Doob described communication as the very center of existence for developing countries. Whenever a decision needs to be reached, new information needs to be distributed, or opportunities need to be reported, there is a flow of information. These needs are desperately important in developing countries and the mass media can thus play a decisive role. But this requires more knowledge and understanding of the cultural background, the social patterns, and the educational level of the people to be reached. There must be a comprehensive and detailed study of the various communities involved. The key to successful communication in developing nations is to stress the local situation.

One major factor resulting in ineffectiveness of mass media is a lack of adequate knowledge of the local culture of the target audience. This is especially characteristic of mass media because they cover large areas where local situations differ and the "senders" get less feedback due to being at a distance from their "receivers." When a village social worker talks to the people in his village he can easily tell if he is being understood. But if the same social worker

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27 As quoted by Schramm, Wilbur, op. cit., p. 56.
speaks on the radio he cannot know if his audience understands him, and certainly will not secure helpful reactions in time to make any changes in his speech. Thus, for mass media to be effective they must be as local as possible. The content of the media messages should be prepared by those who understand the culture of those to be reached. Even more important is the availability of means through which feedback can reach those who prepare and produce the media messages. A report by UNESCO on the development of information in Africa concluded that it was not so much a matter of increasing local program production, but rather involving a closer contact between the broadcasting station and the audience. It recommended that new forms of programs be developed through careful research and experimentation. The report also stressed that attention should be given to the importance and difficulties of providing programs suitable for African audiences and adapted to the social and educational objectives of government. It emphasized the necessity of developing national and regional facilities for the production of programs in Africa.  

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29 Ibid., p. 29.
Localness and Feedback

Another major problem still facing many of the developing countries is determining the proper form in which to transmit messages to unsophisticated audiences. In the early days of broadcasting in Ghana, as reported by UNESCO, they employed a simple local approach:

The simplest form of dramatization involved one of the basic two broadcasters playing the part of the village fool or sluggard, and having his foolishness or idleness exposed by his opposite number... The exchange of dialogue was generally interspersed with, and certainly always ended with a proverb, often pithy enough to be a wise-crack from the deep vernacular which, in the true African manner, always led again to the inevitable song. 30

These are only a few examples of problems facing media planners in the developing nations. These examples stress the urgent need for preparation and research to make the communication process in these countries as effective as possible. The importance of continuing audience research is a reality. One of the paramount problems of developing societies is that communication is lacking or at least inadequate, not merely in the gathering and dissemination of information but also in the encoding, decoding, and interpreting abilities of significant actors. 31 Broadcasting in developing countries will be


31 DeSola Pool, Schramm, op. cit., p. 369.
worthless unless the programs are meaningful to the population. The media are ineffective if their messages are not received either because of their language or because of the mode of presentation.

The three essentials for an effective media service are programs designed for local audiences, a well trained local staff, and continuing audience research and feedback. John Lent (1975) goes even beyond this by stressing the need for national production of the media hardware, indigenous content, locally trained personnel, and use of the native language and culture. Lent admonishes those developing countries which are in a hurry to have the latest and the best. He warns that a nation should not be tempted by the paraphernalia of modernity until it is sure there are elements in the society capable of keeping them indigenous and free. For once mass media development is initiated, it is difficult to halt. It builds a momentum of its own, which in the long run becomes too demanding for the poor nations of the world. Once television sets are purchased, for example, people demand more programming, which, because of the prohibitively high cost of domestic production, must be imported. And then we are back where we began.

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33 Ibid., p. 36.
These examples are not presented to weaken faith in the use of mass media in developing countries. Rather they warn against repetition of the same mistakes. There are many communication tasks involved in economic and social development, and most of them are clearly within the capability of mass communication. However if the developing nations use their mass media for all the tasks which mass media can do best, their systems would become overcrowded.

Due to the high illiteracy rate and the difficulties of transportation in many of the developing countries, the broadcasting media have been asked to do too much. The planners appear to be overlooking the fact that when they broadcast to farmers they are not serving the other parts of the community. And when they broadcast to the schools, they ignore the adult population. Schramm attempted to solve this problem by asking, what can be done in such a case? He noted that in the United Kingdom, the national radio operates on three channels, at different cultural levels. This solution may not be possible for many developing countries, but they must somehow allocate their radio time by function and content. Should there be special station for rural regions? Should there be a station for light entertainment? Should there be a special education station? Should all these functions be combined in a single station or network, and if so what proportion and at what times of the day? These are not easy decisions, and it is sometimes hard to know whether one has made
them wisely. 34

When a country undertakes development there are a huge number of changes that will need to take place within that country. These changes will involve the population of that country, so they will have to come through agents who understand the local culture and who comprehend the whole pattern of life of which the proposed change is a part. But what will these changes mean to the people who are asked to change? Schramm considered this question as the pertinent question. 35 It does not seem feasible to fulfill all the needs and interests of a developing community with a balanced program directed by a certain medium. If the various media were to present enough different kinds of programs so that each need and interest received some satisfaction, the system would not have presented sufficient quantity of some types to have satisfied the need for that type. This would result in ineffective programming.

Empathy has been shown to be one factor in effective communication. A group of radio programs directed toward a special group will develop the kind of association, empathy, and feeling of belonging which are important for effective programming. If such empathy is developed by programming, it can help to bring about a

smoother cultural transition. This would be possible if a chain of local programs were consciously directed toward achieving feelings of loyalty and a sense of dependability toward the medium on the part of the target audience. This would increase the effectiveness of the medium in achieving needed changes in the community.

One important part of any communication process is feedback. Operators of mass media are concerned with two kinds of feedback. One is the feedback they themselves can bring about through their programs. This, according to Schramm, has been accomplished by building 'localness' into the medium. Radio becomes 'local' radio; newspapers move into the towns and send their reporters into the villages. They abandon the idea that programs must be produced entirely in the radio or TV studio, films must be made wholly in the film studio, or news found only in the cities or on the news agency wire. Instead, planners for communication media go out to the villages and towns seeking interviews on farm plans and problems, inviting question for the media to answer, soliciting letters to the editor, securing local speakers and panels to put on the air. While they rely on local production to bring about feedback of local news and opinion into the media, they also encourage people from the audience

36 Ibid., p. 176
to participate. Thus the audience comes to believe it is their system and not merely a message from a local source who is aware of their needs. It is important to notice Schramm's observation that in Africa or in Asia the highly educated directors or information chiefs trained in European or American universities, seem much closer to their European or American counterparts than to the village people in their own countries. Their programs or films or printed materials are likely to be ill-adapted for the audience that needs them most. 37

One other striking effect of global communication on developing countries is that the popular culture material to which the people of these countries are exposed are too "equal" to those that entertain the peoples of more developed societies. As Kato pointed out, for example, a recent UNESCO survey reported that most television stations in developing countries in Asia, Africa, and South America broadcast a large proportion of programs produced in more developed countries. In an extreme case, imported programs in Guatemala occupy 84 percent of the total broadcasting time; in Zambia, the figure is 64 percent; in Malaysia, 71 percent; and in Singapore, 78 percent. 38

37 Ibid., p. 178.

The people of these countries are exposed to programs which were originally targeted to the urban middle-class families of the exporting countries, notably the United States and Japan. In these programs the American and Japanese actors are surrounded by durable commodities, material conveniences and many aspects of the affluent society. In addition to that the content of American and Japanese programs are, generally speaking, consumption-oriented. It is not to be inferred that the viewers in developing countries are unduly influenced by consumer philosophy. The danger in the approach is that the people of developing countries may acquire a much increased sense of consumership. It is generally assumed that in the process of development, increased consumption must be accompanied by increased production.

For these reasons, it is desirable to require local or centralized media planners to go through a social reorientation program in their own countries before they are assigned to their duties. Also local media production must be encouraged as much as possible.

One of the important factors in any communication process is the audience. In the developing countries there is usually a diversity of audiences and receiving conditions, and, unfortunately, a scarcity of detailed knowledge about them. Many audiences will be new to the medium and therefore they will be unpredictable. Due to
the fact that traditional society maintains little contact between communities, the groups within the potential audience have grown up in relative isolation and may be expected to represent a variety of cultural differences. Thus, audiences in the developing countries are relatively less homogeneous than in the developed ones. The situation in the latter case could be linked to the relative ease of transportation and the widespread possession of communication devices especially television. Television in America, according to Vonter, represents the common cultural background of Americans with electricity in their homes, and that is nearly everyone. He points out that it is just as surely as the people of India once drew their impressions of Americans from watching silent westerns and Charlie Chaplin movies, the Americans today draw their impressions of the world beyond their door steps from what they see on the television screen. 39

Vonier asked the question of how vast and how complete is this process of homogenizing the popular attitudes, impressions, and standards of the American nation? Ninety three percent, he answered, of all homes wired for electricity in the United States have television sets, or over 50 million television homes. It has never been possible before in all human history, to get so many people concerned over one

thing—even the need for water, food, or shelter. The vast number of
people having in common an electric possession is of no small
significance in drawing conclusions about our society. American
television is projecting to the public points of view, and outlooks
attitudes, and a set of standards that are very rarely uniform and
consistent. 40

This means that a relative uniformity of behavior and attitudes
have been established through television viewing in the United States.
With regard to developing nations, television is still far from being
widely introduced due to the lack of electricity and other necessities
for the population.

As mentioned before, the mass media cannot do everything by
themselves. Those in charge must be aware of how much the audience
knows about the topics about which information is being sent. They
must know what attitudes the audience holds that might affect its
acceptance or rejection of the information, what kind of language and
symbolism it can comprehend, and several other sorts of related
information. As noted earlier, misinterpretation of a message can
happen in any case where there is a lack of knowledge of the local
beliefs, behaviors, and needs. Lerner points to the fact that a
picture must be perceived, evaluated, and acted upon. Indeed, as in

40 Ibid., p. 25.
most communication, it is the response side of the process that determines its effectiveness. 41

It is important to know the audience; what they like, what they need, and what type of changes can take place in which the audience can participate. Planners must know how the social system, and the community customs and values relate to any campaign objectives. Mead's findings support this general idea. She reported that, "it makes sense generally, to fence pasture land and to plant trees to preserve land from erosion. However, chiefs of Basutoland, and in Madagascar, have opposed it as an attack on their communal ownership of land and communal responsibility in agriculture which offer them security and make possible certain valued social structures." 42

It is very important for the media planners to create some kind of relationship with their audience. Through this relationship the planners will be able to determine which medium is most effective in carrying an intended message. Programs must carry answers to the questions that puzzle the community. The planners must know who are the audiences; what they think of the different media; and other information which planners need before starting any campaign. Klapper


stresses the fact that, "the audience's image of the source affects the audience's interpretation of the communication and its persuasive effectiveness."\(^{43}\)

Among the many other things that the mass media in developing nations need to know about their audiences, according to Schramm is, "a set of questions directed to the relationship between the media and the audience: Who is the audience? What do they read or listen to? What do they think of different media? What need do they feel that ought to be satisfied by information? What special needs are felt by what special group among them? Any publisher or station manager would think of many more such questions."\(^{44}\)

It is generally true that a person from the local culture, sensitive to what is going on around him, would know who are the influential persons in making local decisions. To the extent that qualified local representatives are available, and are continually reporting on such matters to the mass media, they constitute a valuable resource. But it is unfortunate that the media in many of the developing countries are usually not very well represented locally. Their feedback is very thin, and they cover large areas that include


\(^{44}\)Schramm, op. cit., p. 191.
many communities. Therefore it is necessary to make special efforts and arrangements to collect the information the media need.

Doob reported an instance in which the same film, about farming, produced radically different reactions in four different Nigerian societies—the Yorba, Hausa, Ibo, and Birom. In three of them the picture was laughed at, but not in the fourth one. Some of them understood the picture very well, but in one group even the commentator (who substituted in the native language for a sound track) seemed unable to follow the message. Obviously there were some differences within the audience that had not been anticipated and, indeed, that would not be thoroughly understood without some audience research.45

To stress the importance of feedback and the importance of local knowledge the following examples may help. Some local customs have been known to get in the way of successful communication. A film in which the speaker gesticulated with his left hand would be regarded as insulting by Ashanti of Ghana.46 Competition is usually good motivation, but singling out a Samoan child and permitting him to skip a grade will cause him acute misery; similarly, singling out Navaho

46 Ibid., p. 72.
and Hopi children for special praise will lead egregious failure. It is also customary that a physician ask questions of his patient and expect frank responses. But many Zulus will not tell their symptoms because they feel that this does not permit the physician to demonstrate his skill adequately. These are only few examples which indicate the range of differences in customs which may obstruct the communication process.

Another important aspect of effective communication in developing countries is knowing how the information reaches the population. In most of the well developed nations it is known, for example, what a given kind of individual is likely to read a newspaper or a magazine, what kind of film he is likely to see, what kinds of radio and television he is likely to choose. These kinds of questions have been studied in great detail. The operators and publishers know a great deal about their audience. They know, for example, where a farmer would look for agricultural news. These kinds of information are very important in the process of communication but do not exist in most of the developing countries.

Due to the geographical situation and the lack of transportation, the mass media in most of the developing countries do not reach the

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47 Mead, Margaret, op. cit., p. 255.

whole population and the main stream of information is usually interpersonal communication. For communication planners it is important to know, for example, who are the influential persons in the community, and who are the people whose advice is likely to be sought by the community. For example, Doob reported that among Tallensi of Ghana face-to-face communication is heavily influenced by one’s "genealogical relationships." These persons are relatively well acquainted with the other settlements of their clan and somewhat less acquainted with the areas where their mothers were born, but almost completely ignorant of settlements and persons, even close at hand, where they have no kinship bonds. 49

Depending on each situation and each society there are different channels for different communication. As an example of formal communication in Moslem communities, communication channels among women are often established due to long history of female isolation. Doob cites another example in Africa. He reported that in some societies of Africa the giving of orders or directions must be transmitted formally through the hierarchies of chiefs. The king cannot transmit such information directly to the people, who are under a lesser chief; instead, a messenger must go to

the subordinate chief, and his messenger to a still lower chief, until the tidings arrive at the level where they are intended for use. On the other hand, there are a number of information channels by which news can travel through the same society without any such restrictions.

These examples demonstrate the importance of knowing the interpersonal communication linkages. Their use can save time and money in any projected campaign. It is important, then, to know the persons through whom interpersonal information reaches the community so that such persons can be utilized effectively. It is also important to know what kind of resistance to interpersonal information may be encountered.

Generally speaking, in any country the great battles of development are continuing ones, and the result comes less from the impact of single messages or a single medium than from a succession of impacts of related messages and reinforcing channels. Campaigns to modernize some part of a community will almost invariably make use of face-to-face communication as well as the media. Whenever it is possible, the use of a more than one medium will be beneficial.

As the campaign goes on the nature of the messages will change and different channels may be required, or even a mix of

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50 Ibid., p. 182-183.
channels. For example, Schramm suggests that in early campaigns a medium like radio may be most useful in making the people aware of needs and opportunities; later in the campaign, the emphasis may have to be on face-to-face demonstration or discussion, to help the people come to a decision on a proposed change.  

Based upon their years of experience in the field of mass media and national development, Schramm and Lerner asked themselves the question, "What have we learned in ten years about the use of communication in development?" Their answer is that there is encouraging evidence from the field to show communication has come to be considered an essential part of most development programs, especially in family planning, health, and agriculture; that more adequate budgets are being allocated to it; and that staff members in increasing numbers are being sent for the necessary professional training. Furthermore, communication research is beginning to demonstrate its direct usefulness to development programs, and it, too, is being called upon far more widely than was the case ten years ago, to guide planning and operations.

51 Schramm, op. cit., p. 145.

Additionally they conclude that most media, well used, can contribute to development—not only television from the ATS-6 satellite to India or from tall towers to El Salvador and the Ivory Coast, but also the humbler, less costly, less complex media such as slides and posters at village meetings, traditional media like dances and puppet shows of Southeast Asia, and above all the medium of interpersonal, face-to-face talk. Dollar for dollar, in a development program, the smaller, less expensive media may often be more efficient than the larger, more expensive ones. And any medium is likely to be more effective when combined with two-way communication of one kind of another.53

Schramm and Lerner point out, finally, as a conclusion from their ten years' experience in the field of mass communication and development, that any program aimed at catalyzing local activity, local planning, or local communication cannot be accomplished with conventional mass media thinking which emphasizes one-way communication and generalized messages. It must include a strong component of social organization and interpersonal communication. It requires persons in charge of the planning to understand the social stream and how change takes place in it—not merely how messages get out.54

53Ibid., p. 343. 54Ibid., p. 344.
Some Cases Where Media Played A Major Role

As cited earlier, many developing countries turned to their mass media to assist in their national development. Experience shows that mass media have been very helpful in many fields such as agriculture, education, health, nutrition and so on. The following cases, from Project Profiles,* published by the Clearinghouse on Development Communication, demonstrate some media successes in different fields:

Agriculture

In 1968 the Department of Agricultural Extension of the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives of the Royal Thai government with the assistance of the United Nations Development Program conducted a pilot project to test the applicability of the radio forum concept to Thailand's farming region. After the study areas were systematically selected, listening groups were formed with the cooperation of the village headmen. This was followed by peer-selection of four Radio Farm forum leaders in each of the eight village groups in the project. Finally training programs for local forum leaders were conducted.

*The Project Profiles include many cases on the use of media in different fields. Each case has been summarized in a single format. They are produced at a rate of eight per quarter.
When the parts of the projects were in place, weekly programs were broadcast. After each half-hour program, village training groups discussed the content of the program and of supplementary printed materials prepared by the Department of Agricultural Extension. They were encouraged to comment on both the programs and the literature and to find local practical applications for the ideas and practices suggested in both. Problems that could not be worked out among the village listening groups were referred via weekly reports prepared by the Radio Farm forum leaders to the extension officer of the DOAE and to the other people or organization able to offer assistance.

The Radio Farm Forum Project increased the flow of information between the farmers and the extension agents in both directions. Extension personnel saw the value of making regular and frequent contacts with farmers which resulted from the continuity of the program. The farmers tended to rely increasingly upon the agents once they came to feel that the agents were dealing with their problems and needs on a timely basis. Moreover, because the messages dealt with specific problems the farmers tended to remember them.

Generally, the project succeeded in organizing interest groups to solve shared problems and in demonstrating the effectiveness of reinforcing consistent messages through various communication channels. The Farm Forum in many cases became a forum for other
local problems. It combined with an FAO sponsored project to improve irrigated agriculture in Northeastern Thailand. The success of the Radio Farm Forum prompted the Thai government to consider integrating the radio forum into other activities.

A similar project was conducted in 1975 by All India Radio that developed a strategy to deal with the complex problems of delivering, in a short time, modern farming information systematically through channels acceptable to the rural farming population of West Bengal. The radio station chose literate farmer listeners with access to radio as the target audience for a broadcast series on agriculture science information. The staff assumed that if systematic knowledge of agriculture was imparted to the farmer listeners, they would become 'contact farmers' and disseminate modern agricultural innovation to villagers.

During the first season, responses were analyzed by members of the Department of Agriculture of West Bengal. As a result, the 1976-1977 School-on-the-Air was alerted to stress the most popular subjects, and broadcast times were changed to be more convenient. The 1976-77 courses subsequently drew a higher number of active participants (from 155 to 180, depending on the course). According to the project director, the evaluation showed that the likeliest courses would be those directed to prospective farm leaders--potential contract farmers.

There are other examples where broadcasting related to
some other type of media was used in agriculture. In Senegal in 1968, Radio Educative played an important role in providing food producers with practical information, with technical training, and with the opportunity to express their opinions systematically and effectively. In 1973, Afghanistan Radio used improved rural broadcasting as a means of supporting rural development activities and of testing the feasibility of establishing a communication system involving radio, cassettes and farmer feedback. In Mali in 1977, radio was used, with the support of audiovisual materials, to introduce conservation techniques and range management practices and to improve breeding and production techniques in order to raise the nutritional and economic status of Malians, and to generate foreign exchange.

**Nutrition**

In the field of nutrition mass media have been used effectively in many developing countries. For example, in 1974 Trinidad and Tobago used television, radio, film and some printed materials to publicize the relationship between breastfeeding and both good nutrition and improved living standards. On the basis of an evaluation, the staff deemed the breastfeeding campaign a success and concluded that the components of the campaign ought to be made permanent features of Trinidad’s nutrition education program. It also affirmed the effectiveness of the multi-media approach. The team further recommended that even more time and space in the mass media be
devoted to this vital issue.

Another campaign was undertaken in 1971 in India. The objective was to determine the effectiveness of a mixed media campaign in raising levels of awareness and understanding about weaning and pregnancy among rural, largely illiterate populations. The evaluation of the campaign indicated that mixed media can successfully reach isolated rural audiences with new concepts and information. The campaign also concluded that mixed media designed especially to reach different sub-audiences can, through direct appeal, cross socio-economic and cultural lines.

**Population**

In the field of population control the mass media were used extensively in Iran in 1972. The objective was to increase women's acceptance of contraceptives and to stimulate continued use on the part of those initially enlisted in family planning programs. The overall effect of the campaign was considered a success: the number of married women between the age of 15 and 44 who used contraception increased between June 1972 and June 1974 from 6 to 21 percent. The evaluators believed that mass communication played an important role in reinforcing interpersonal communication.

Another example where broadcasting with other kinds of supporting media were used in connection with population control, was in Jamaica. In 1975, radio and newspapers were used to convince Jamaican men and
women of reproductive age of the impact family planning can have on
the quality of life, and to dislodge the belief that fertility is a
reflection of virility or womanliness. The campaign's use of media
was so successful that the National Family Planning Board activities
scheduled through 1980 will follow a similar plan, carrying the approach
even further to include a fuller use of community-based communication
channels.

In the Philippines, in 1974, in Korea in early 1960 and in 1968,
and in Nigeria in 1971, multi-media were used effectively in population
control campaigns.

In the field of health, mass media were very successful in
Tanzania in 1971 where media were used to provide villagers with
basic information on disease control and the relationship between
environment and health. In Guatemala a campaign was undertaken in
1975, to teach women basic ways of improving nutrition and health at
home. In 1971, the United States' two-way radio satellite (ATS-1),
TV satellite (ATS-6), as well as videotape, and computerized health
records were used both to improve access to health care and to raise
its quality in rural Alaska. In Ghana, film, flipcharts and interpersonal
contact were used in a campaign in 1970, to make integrated health
services a key part of rural development.

In the field of education and human resources, broadcasting
media were used extensively in Nicaragua, in El Salvador, Guatemala,
Mauritius, American Samoa, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Niger, and Nepal. All these experiences have proved a major success.

In the field of integrated development the broadcasting media with the support of other types of media have been successfully applied in Ecuador, the United States, Botswana, Columbia, Ethiopia, Ivory Coast, Upper Volta, and Pakistan.

Generally speaking, the mass media have done well in arousing awareness and interest; however, this function must be carried out with extreme care in order that only realistic and attainable expectations are aroused. Those in charge must continue to focus attention on significant national problems, and to initiate debates on alternative strategies for solving them.

The watchdog function of the mass media is well known. They should continue close surveillance of the economic, social, and political environments in the developing countries and bring to light mistakes and failures. In so doing, however, they must take care not to demoralize and destroy those who make mistakes in good faith or those who are innocent of wrong-doing.

From this review it is evident that there are basic principles governing the success of mass media in aiding national development. These principles must be followed in any effort to use mass media in national development. These principles will be listed under appropriate categories in the next chapter.
CHAPTER V

DERIVED PRINCIPLES FOR MEDIA USE

As a result of the literature review, a set of basic principles for the use of media in national development was identified. These principles can be considered as guides to action with broad, general application. Some of them represent statements by research workers in the field of mass communication; others were derived from literature reporting development activities in various emerging countries. For the convenience of the reader, they are listed below in functional categories.

Principles Concerned with General Planning

1. Before initiating any campaign there should be a sufficient financial allocation to cover the entire campaign.

   It is understood that all kinds of development require substantial financial resources. Thus, campaigns involving mass media require financial allocations to cover the campaign, such as materials, equipment, salaries and the like.

   According to Schramm, the first requirement for accelerating national development through mass communication is that a nation must be willing to make a serious investment in media growth, an investment
that is in rational and equitable proportion to other related investment. "It is our observation," Schramm reported, that "the mass media are underfinanced and underdeveloped and therefore are not contributing what they might contribute if fully and adequately used."\(^1\)

2. A campaign should embrace enough time to enable its success or failure to be determined.

The purpose of using mass media in developing nations is usually to modernize their populations. Such modernization will involve, among other things, changes in attitudes and behaviors. This process will not come over night, it will require considerable time to produce the desired changes.

For example when a muslim country like Egypt wants to control over-population by introducing birth control devices, such a campaign will require a considerable amount of time. Time will be needed to overcome religious opposition, and time will be needed to demonstrate to villagers that those who have fewer children can live better lives than those who have more children. Such campaigns will require a long time involving appropriate surveys and designing a number of experimental techniques geared to produce positive changes in attitudes and behavior. On the other hand a campaign that extends over more time

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\(^1\) Schramm, Wilbur, Mass Media and National Development, The Role of Information in Developing Countries, (Stanford University Press, Stanford, California), 1964, p. 208-209.
than is actually needed might get the population excited because there
is delay in the results of the campaign.

3. Important decisions in the planning and implementation of a media
campaign should involve the participation of those who will be most
affected by such decisions.

In introducing an innovation to any community, representatives
from that community should be involved in the decisions about the pro­
posed changes because implementing the innovation will affect the
people in the community. True, in some instances, especially in
developing nations, it is almost impossible to find qualified locals who
can carry such responsibilities. But if there is a way of involving locals
in the decision making and in the implementation, it will enhance the
acceptance rate of the proposed changes. Other methods of involving
locals in the implementation can be through training locals on the
different tasks which will contribute to the credibility of the information.

4. In organizing a program for media use in national development,
provision must be made for coordination between the agencies involved
in planning, production, distribution, utilization, evaluation and re­
search.

A development campaign usually involves different agencies.
For example if a campaign were to use radio in rural development, the
Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health and Welfare and the
Ministry of Information would be involved in the project. There should,
therefore, be some kind of cooperation among these agencies to
achieve the desired goals. Any conflict among these ministries will
McAnany (1972) reported that there was an obvious lack of coordination between the Rural Radio and the Audio-Visual Center of the Ministry of Information in Porto Novo, Dahomey. Without trying to sort out the personal reasons for the situation, McAnany reported, it was obvious that the fleet of eight landrovers, fully equipped with projectors, loud speakers, screens, etc., belonging to the Audio-Visual Center of the Ministry of Information should have been combined with the Rural Radio to establish not only the mass media contact, but also the personalized media relationship that could have made the effort of rural development much more effective.  

5. In mounting a campaign involving social changes, focus only on those for which the social situation is favorable.

Regardless of the pattern of media, if a campaign is aimed at achieving social changes, the social situation must be favorable for the desired kind of change. According to Schramm, in some cases it may be necessary to bring about changes in the social structure before a campaign can do what is expected of it. He cited that the People's Republic of China felt it must make fundamental changes in the country's social structure before its program of group, cadre, and media

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2McAnany, Emile, "Rural Radio in Dahomey," Stanford University Institute for Communication Research, Stanford, California, 1972, p. 3.
communication could accomplish what was expected of it.³

6. Changes should not be imposed from an outside culture; they must evolve organically within the cultural context of the particular group.

This does not mean that nations should not use the experience of the many international agencies and authorities in the field of mass communication and development. Rather, it means that the changes should be closely related to the needs of the specific society.

Many developing nations depend on international assistance in their national development. Most of these countries are dependent either on the United States or on Western European countries. As a result foreign values and culture enter the developing country in one way or another. This is true with mass media information. Beltran (1974) points out that the main mass media institutions of Latin America are heavily dependent, both for information and for financing, on extra-regional firms, mostly located in the United States. This situation accounts for much of the conservative, alienating, and mercantilistic orientation of those channels.⁴


7. Mass media strategies must go hand in hand with economic, social, and political strategies for national development.

It has been proven that mass media have contributed to many changes in the developing world such as extending the opportunities for learning, expanding the people's horizon, changing their expectations, setting new agendas for national effort, and the like. With such important roles to play the mass media become integral parts of any national development. Therefore, effective ways of employing communication must be considered in connection with the strategies of other parts of the development program.

Schramm points out that communication development is not really in competition with industrialization, agricultural modernization, educational development, health improvement, community development, the growth of nationness, broad participation in public affairs, or any of the other great goals of national development, although in budget hearings it is sometimes made to seem so. It is the servant and ally of each of these. It must go forward with them. It is society that moves forward, not agriculture or health information. Skillful planning, therefore, will be concerned not with how much is given something else, but rather with the size of the information component curve of social development as projected.\(^5\)

The growth in industry and agriculture requires literate workers and farmers which the mass media can help these industries by providing.

8. To insure success, undertake campaigns with the full support at the highest level of government.

This is an important factor in many parts of the developing world. Unless full support comes from the top, in most cases campaigns are very likely to fail.

Schramm, among his conclusions concerning campaigns using mass media in developing nations, stated that:

None of these projects could have come into existence, and none of them could have continued very long, without strong support from the top. In Samoa it was the vigorous backing of Governor Lee; in El Salvador, the strong support of Minister Beneke; in Ivory Coast, the support of President Huophoet-Boiguy. In Niger, President Dioris' interest made possible the existance of the project, and the fact that almost no other strong support existed in the government made it difficult for the project to expand beyond the experimental stage.6

9. Every development campaign should have clear, attainable, agreed-upon goals.

In any campaign using mass media, the objectives of the campaign must be defined and agreed upon. If such a requirement is not met, the outcome of such a campaign will, without doubt, be

confusion and failure.

In the case of American Samoa, the ETV project was introduced to improve the educational system. But later the objectives of the project seemed, at least for the Samoans, to be teaching English to Samoans just in case any of them wished to move to the United States. In both primary and secondary education in Samoa there was reflected a preoccupation with gaining English language proficiency.\(^7\)

10. Mass media campaigns should focus upon the basic motivations—economic, social, political or religious—or the target audience.

This should be a basic requirement for convincing a population to adopt specific innovations. For example, if the aim of the campaign is to abolish illiteracy among farmers, there must be incentives for the farmer to join the campaign. One such incentive could be that the farmer will need to know what fertilizer is better and how he can use it according to the written directions. Or, if the aim of the campaign is to introduce new methods of farming, it will take some convincing to persuade farmers to give up their traditional agricultural methods without corresponding rewards. Again, one who has learned about child spacing techniques can almost immediately begin to apply them so as to raise his or her standard of living—a tangible reward. Another

approach is the presentation of gifts. For example, if radio has been or will be used in a particular project, a small transistor radio can be given to each participant early in the sessions. This will simultaneously reward his efforts, provide increased personal status, and be a vehicle for further media use.  

11. The target audience should have representation in the planning, implementation and evaluation of the media campaign.

Principle #3 pointed out the importance of local participation in the decision making of development campaigns. The present principle stresses the continuous involvement of representatives of those to be reached in the entire process of planning, implementation and evaluation. For example, using locals in collecting feedback from their community will contribute greatly to the success of the process. They are locally well known and have credibility as sources of information to the community. They are trusted by their peers as channels of feedback to the media planner. Getting the local people involved gives them the feeling of being a part of that specific communication campaign. They feel that they are serving themselves and their community. In addition, some of them may be capable, after a time, of taking the full responsibility for the development process in their community.

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12. The head of the communication media should have direct access to the top planners of national development in case of jurisdictional disputes among ministries, offices, bureaus and the like.

As was stated earlier in principle #8 with regard to the necessity of full support from top government, the head of the communication campaign must also be supported. Additionally he must have direct access to the top decision makers. In a series of articles in the quarterly reports published by the Clearinghouse in Development Communication, it was cited many times that personal conflicts among different ministries hindered development campaigns. These articles are listed under "Dilemmas in Country X: Candid discussion about failure." In these articles, each of several different experts reported on experiences they had had in a particular un-named developing nation. For example it was reported in one of these articles that two ministers in an un-named country were political enemies and as a result the joint program for educational development in rural areas was cancelled. 9

In the Ivory Coast, as in Samoa and Niger, not all ministries were convinced that television should be brought in. A minister had to be replaced, apparently because of his opposition, and the reform put in the charge of a new Secretary of State for Television and

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13. Consider and take into account side effects of the development campaigns; no change is accomplished without ramifications throughout the society, often unintended and sometimes threatening to the total program.

When industrialization, for example, is introduced into a community, such side effects as changes in the eating, and resting habits can take place. It can also involve changes in the status of women as they seek jobs to help the family. Such joining of the labor force will, in turn, dramatically affect the family structure, and the family routines. In addition, the mother's traditional responsibilities will be divided among the rest of the family. In many developing nations the woman's job is to take care of the children and the husband. Involving the woman in a job, for example, can bring about some side effects not intended in the campaign. Iran is an excellent example of the unintended result of modernization. In a traditional Islamic society women are supposed to be veiled; non-Islamic values are not accepted. These changes coupled with political and economic factors resulted in the recent revolution in Iran.

Principles concerned with Research and Evaluation

1. Prior to any campaign, there should be an audience survey in the target area to discover the sort of opposition and/or other difficulties

likely to be encountered.

When introducing an innovation into a community, it is important to find out what is likely to be acceptable and what is likely to be rejected in the community before undertaking a major project.

According to Schramm, in many developing countries beliefs about the supernatural have a great deal to do with the kind of innovation which will be accepted and with the manner in which it can be introduced. A society on Luzon believes that each step of each act has to be given its effectiveness by a specific god; man has very little to do with events. In many Latin American countries, it is the custom to accept events as God's will or Fate. Thus it is difficult to persuade people who hold such beliefs to use fertilizer or to vaccinate animals. These are but a few examples of why it is important to gather pertinent information about a community before carrying on the intended campaign.

2. Regardless of the medium or media used, a mechanism for collecting continuous feedback must be developed.

The communication cycle is not complete without feedback to enable the change agent to assess the effectiveness of the various measures. In the developing nations the use of mass media is intended to produce desired changes among members of the population. If such goals are to be attained there must be continuous appraisal to determine

Schramm, W., op. cit., p. 214.
the effects of such media use. Schramm characterizes the existing feedback process in developing nations as very thin. Therefore it is extremely important to make special efforts and arrangements to collect the information the media need. To make the result of past experiences of practical use in improving future practice, some of the most useful information can be obtained by studying current campaigns as they are under way, for example, by examining the results of using a program, a film, or a piece of printed material with a given audience. As a result of collecting feedback, programs can be improved, objectives can be restated and, most important, the reaction of audiences to media content can be ascertained.

3. A pilot project should precede any large scale campaign in order to discover problems and difficulties, and to save time, effort, and money.

It is wise, before carrying on a major campaign, to designate a small area, for example within the specific community, where a pilot project can be undertaken. Such a project will help in discovering any difficulties or problems that might be encountered in the full scale campaign.

Schramm gives an interesting example of the importance of such a trial procedure. He says, "if a doctor in a clinic is misunderstood by a patient, in many cases he can discover that fact and correct

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12 Ibid., p. 189.
the misunderstanding. But if mass media are misunderstood, it may take a very long time to discover the misunderstanding and correct it." Therefore, the mass media planners must make special efforts to avoid possible failures in communication before they can happen. This is where pretesting is of special value. It is relatively simple and easy to try out an intended message or a campaign on a small sample of a community before carrying out the project on a large scale. Thus, one can see where misunderstandings are likely to occur, where interest lags, and whether one form of communication material is likely to be more effective than another.

Principles concerned with Localness

1. To insure credibility, use local media with local content that deals with local problems involving local personnel.

Characteristically, many developing countries have centralized mass media. In a rural-based strategy, decision making and implementation cannot be effectively carried out from the capital city. Local government and local organizations need to participate extensively in planning, decision-making, and execution.

Frey (1952) conducted a study of soil erosion control measures followed by farmers in Western Iowa. The study examined the gap between the erosion control practices recommended and those actually

\[\text{Ibid., p. 186.}\]
followed on 144 sample farms. Four-fifths of the farm operators, Frey concluded, adopted far fewer erosion control measures than those responsible for public programs were recommending. The lessons from Frey's study seem to be that:

1. The way the farmer perceives his situation will govern his response to recommendations received from outside, and both his perception and his situation may differ considerably from that assumed by development planners.

2. Appropriate programs usually cannot be designed without informed local input, and an awareness of local variation.  

2. The objectives of a campaign should be based on adequate knowledge of the local culture, local customs, and local problems.

As it was stated in the previous chapter many campaigns in developing nations failed due to the lack of adequate local knowledge. The example of Indians who refused the introduction of stoves and kept their cooking indoors over open fires because the smoke prevented ants from eating the roof, is an interesting one. A UNESCO survey group criticized American teaching methods in American Samoa because the authorities overlooked the use of chanting, which is an important aspect of Samoan culture. Chanting is the traditional Samoan way of passing down cultural information. The Samoan culture emphasizes heirarchical relationships determined by age and rank. The family

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14Frey, John C. As quoted by Kearl, Bryant, "Communication for Agricultural Development," In Schramm, W. and Lerner, D., op. cit., p. 165.
group or aiga is the important unit, and individuals are expected to contribute to the prestige of the aiga rather than to seek individual praise and recognition.

3. Mass media planners must know their target audience—their problems, their needs, and the level of their competencies and mentalities—before undertaking any campaign.

It is highly important for any campaign using mass media to bring about specified changes in a target community, to know as much as possible about the intended audience.

In Togo as well as in Niger, radio listening groups were organized by animatures (this is a person who organizes the group, chairs the discussion, and reports back to the media), and special efforts were made to get the reports from these animatures on which to base the programs that were to follow. These listeners' clubs were organized to invite the views of listeners on their day-to-day problems in every sphere, such as health, agriculture, education and the like. Indeed, the purpose of the organized listening group in rural communities is give those responsible for broadcast programs a better knowledge of their audience, and to provide listeners, under the direction of qualified leaders opportunity to express themselves and to make known their ideas and suggestions about the programs.

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15 Arnove, Robert, op. cit., p. 187-188.

16 Schramm, W., Big Media—Little Media, op. cit., p. 253.
4. Strategies for media use should be based upon a comprehensive understanding of local mores, customs, habits, and life styles.

It is important for media planners to have a comprehensive knowledge about their target population to enable them (media planners) to tailor-make their programs to the needs of this audience. Many campaigns have failed due to their lack of knowledge of the local situation. As cited earlier, Foster (1962) reported that there was a major effort in Bolivia to introduce a new maize which seemed in every way superior to the old variety. The new maize grew well in the tropics, had more food value, produced a high yield, and was less subject to insect attack. Thus, the prospect for improving the diet and the health of the locals and their animals was very good. As it turned out, the maize was very hard to grind by hand, and the villagers did not want to haul it to the mill in town. But it proved to make excellent commercial alcohol. So the campaign resulted not in improving the local diet and health but in promoting alcoholism. 17

Principles Concerned with Varied Media

1. A well planned campaign should use whatever media can be commanded that will reach the target audience economically.

This emphasizes that the important variable is not so much the characteristics of the various media as such as where they reach

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and who uses them. Thus, every kind of medium from the most complex and expensive, such as television, to the simplest and least expensive, such as traditional puppet shows and dances, have been used effectively to teach about development. 18

Schramm and Lerner (1976) concluded that most media, well used, can contribute to development, not only television from the ATS-6 satellite to Indian viewers or from ground towers in El Salvador and the Ivory Coast to their audiences, but also the humble, less costly, less complex media such as slides and posters at village meetings, and traditional dances and puppet shows in Southeast Asia. Less expensive media may often be more efficient in a development program than the large, more expensive ones. 19

2. Radio, because of its wide coverage, relatively low unit cost and ability to reach beyond the literate and beyond power mains, should be the pre-eminent medium for most development campaigns.

Radio as compared with such a medium as television is less expensive and does not require the installation of electricity, nor much maintenance, nor does it demand special qualifications in order to operate it. This makes radio an attractive medium to many developing nations.

18 Schramm, W., Big Media Little Media. op cit., p. 258.
Schramm reported two studies where radio played a major role—the first study involved a survey of housewives in Kachsiung, Taiwan, in which 35% of the women interviewed said they had learned about family planning from the radio, the next most used medium was newspapers with 17%. The second study reported that after three radio spots per-day were broadcast in the Hydrabad District of Pakistan, more than half of the women who went to clinics credited the broadcasts for the action they had taken. 20

The health care radio program in Zaire was a successful one. The voice of Dr. Massikita carried messages about feeding a new born child or getting vaccination for older children or choosing good kinds of vegetables for the family dinner. For 15 minutes a week he spoke in the five languages to the Zaire people. He addressed basic medical and health needs in the person of a country doctor with a down home approach adapted to each cultural group. The program drew a hundreds of letters a year from its audience asking advice, thanking Dr. Massikita, even inviting him for a visit. Most of his listeners did not know that their favorite doctor was only a creation of a group at a small production center in Kinshasa, called Radio-Star. 21

20 Schramm, W., Big Media Little Media, op. cit., p. 258.

3. A combination of media is likely to accomplish more than one medium by itself.

There is no one medium that is superior in all situations. For example, television by itself might be a good medium for literacy campaigns but it needs the support of printed materials or posters.

In a study in Taiwan by Freedman and Takeshita in 1969, it was found that neighborhoods informed by all available media had significantly higher acceptance rates for family planning advice than neighborhoods where fewer means of communication were used.\(^{22}\) Gillespie (1971) compared a radio-only campaign in Iran with a campaign that combined radio with other means of information. Both were effective, but the radio campaign raised the number of acceptances by about 35 percent; the combined campaign by 55 percent.\(^{23}\)

4. Interpersonal communication is the indispensible element of development communication regardless of the mass media used.

In many of the developing nations the interpersonal channels have been the major source of the flow of information. In a study by Fawcett and others, in 1967, it was found that knowledge of the first public family planning clinic in Bangkok spread by word of mouth all

\[^{22}\text{Freedman, R., and Takeshita, J. V., Family Planning in Taiwan, As quoted by Schramm, W., Big Media Little Media, op. cit., p. 258.}\]

\[^{23}\text{Gillespie, R., Progress Report: Isfahan Project, Iran, Population Councils, 1971, As quoted by Schramm, Ibid., p. 258.}\]
over Thailand before any public information campaign was conducted. \textsuperscript{24}

In Lulliani, Pakistan, 76 percent of all acceptors during the first thirty months of a multi-channel campaign came from outside the campaign area, and more than half of the women from outside Lulliani said they had heard of the campaign from friends, relatives, or neighbors. \textsuperscript{25}

5. A combination of mass media and interpersonal communication is likely to be more effective than either alone.

Schramm refers to the fact that information in any medium is likely to passed along by interpersonal channels. He points out that a typical development campaign counts on interpersonal channels to extend the media, and usually formalizes the interpersonal component in the form of field workers, organized groups, or community meetings. \textsuperscript{26}

Schramm suggests that a program aimed at catalyzing local activities, local planning, and local communication can not be done with conventional mass media thinking that emphasizes one way communication and generalized messages. It must include, according to Schramm, a strong component of social organization and interpersonal

\textsuperscript{24} Fawcett, J. T. et al., As quoted by Schramm, W., Ibid., p. 258.

\textsuperscript{25} Cobb, J. C. and Raulet, P., Pakistan: The Medical Social Research Project at Lulliani, 1965, as quoted by Schramm, W., Ibid., p. 259.

\textsuperscript{26} Schramm, W., Big Media Little Media, op. cit., p. 259.
6. Regardless of other media employed, use should be made of traditional communication systems.

An important phenomenon involving popular culture in developing countries is the profound impact that the newer media of communication often have upon traditional media of communication. For example, according to Schramm, in some countries travelling story tellers and singers are disappearing as a result of the wider diffusion of broadcasting. He cited an historical example from Japan in the early 1930's, when the radio and the phonograph were introduced. Hundreds of street singers and travelling story tellers were replaced by electronic means of transmitting popular culture. Schramm feels that the same trend is now apparent in the developing countries of Asia on a much more drastic scale. The fact is many broadcasters in developing countries prefer not to produce electronic versions of traditional communication. Instead they are content to put imported programs on the air. Dube pointed to the unfortunate tendency in developing nations to be attracted toward new technology and neglect more traditional methods of interpersonal communication. He recognized that the western models of media use often are not relevant

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28 Ibid., p. 256-257.
to the situation of countries like India. He recommended that a constant effort be made, therefore, to find the right "mix" of traditional and modern models to produce the desired effects.\(^{29}\)

7. To insure that intended messages reach their audience, it is important to identify and utilize the influential people in the target community.

In the developing nations the traditional populations have established, over the years, their own means of communication. In each village there are well known persons who have established credibility among the villagers. Those are the ones who should be reached on a personal level so that they may become the local channels for disseminating the information to their communities.

The findings of available studies in Southeast Asia on the diffusion of innovation, have established that personal channels are more effective than mass media in motivation and in educational campaigns relating to aspects of national development.\(^{30}\) This according to Schramm, holds true for most Southeast Asian countries, particularly at the rural levels. This effectiveness of the personal agent, rests on several factors, namely: (1) the highly personalistic character of the developing countries; (2) the generally low level of


education among rural folks; (3) the equally low level of motivation to seek new information from non-personal channels; (4) the generally low level of rural competence to use the more formalized communication media, (5) the relative unavailability of mass media in the villages; and (6) the urban bias of mass media. 31

In Southeast Asia, the primary conveyors of development information--whether it be agriculture, family planning, health, or community development in general--include relatives, neighbors, and friends who usually overlap because of the in-group marriages among villagers. The secondary communicators of development information are development workers; extension personnel in agriculture, family planning, health and nutrition and community development. A third source of development information consists of the influential opinion leaders, a group that includes elective officials, religious leaders, landowners, and the professional communicators. 32

8. To insure intended verbal messages reach their target audience, use local idiom and vernacular.

Since the purpose of development communication is to induce change among members of the target audience, it is important to use their own idiom and vernacular.

31 Ibid., p. 198.

32 Ibid., p. 199.
William Sellers not only recommended the use of local people in film, but he also stressed the importance of using local idiom. He also recommended the use of a technique which follows closely along the line of traditional story-telling.\(^\text{33}\)

9. To insure effective communication, use the common language of the target audience.

This follows the same line of the previous principle. For example, in India there are 14 states with their own languages; indeed, there are 72 different languages, each spoken by at least 100,000 persons. Most countries have to deal with several languages, and Africa is a veritable crazy quilt of languages. Thus, Nigeria broadcasts to its own people in Hausa, Ibo, Yorba, English, and 11 other local languages. Ghana must broadcast to its people in Akan, Hausa, Dagbani, Ga, Ewe, English, and French.\(^\text{34}\)

10. Mass media people must relate to their audience, meet with them, and establish some kind of relationship with them, so that the audience will, in turn, identify with the media people.

The reaction of the audience to communicated messages are very important elements in communication. In addition to the effects of the content of the message, or the quality of its production, the communicator himself influences the audience. How does the audience

\(^{33}\text{Sellers, William, op. cit.}\)

\(^{34}\text{Doob, L., op. cit., p. 101-102.}\)
feel toward the person or persons whom they believe to be responsible for what they perceive is an important aspect in the communication process? The characteristics associated with the communicator which facilitate his influence, at least among Americans, according to Janis and Hovland, include his authority, his affiliation with the audience, and his fairness and impartiality. That influence can pertain to the perception of the communicator or to the acceptance of the communication or to both. A communicator considered untrustworthy, for example, may not attract an audience, or, if he appears after they have assembled, he may not be believed.35

II. To insure effective communication, messages on the varied communication channels should be consistent.

In any development campaign involving mass media, the contents of the various media should be in support of each others. For example if radio, television and newspapers are involved in a campaign of a particular kind, their contents with regard to that campaign should be similar. Additionally, there should not be any contradictions as far as the objectives are concerned.

It was pointed out that in the learning process, facts and new ideas are learned better if the information comes to the learner through

different senses, the ears, the eyes, through the written materials, pictures and sound, each channel doing that which is most appropriate to it. The teacher, the printed word, radio, television and film can thus be used to reinforce each other.

12. Repetition with variation of appeals should characterize the development messages.

As stated by Travers, only a small fraction of information received remains is coded into the memory and effort is required on transfer information to the permanent memory. Repetition is one way of placing such information in the permanent memory. Appeals that relate to a person's needs, says, Travers, must be incorporated in a message and the message should be repeated. 37

According to Fredrick, the intelligence of the mass is small, their forgetfulness is great. Effective propaganda must be confined to a few issues which can be easily assimilated. Since the mass are slow to comprehend, they must be told the same thing a thousand times. 38

13. Mass media should be the means for people to learn about themselves, their environment, and other people.

37 Ibid., p. 131.

38 Fredrick, Yu, as quoted by Elgabri, Ali. Selected Approaches to the Use of Mass Media in Developing Countries, Ph.D. Dissertation, Ohio State University, 1967, p. 43.
In a successful media setting the audience should be involved in the learning process. The chief difference between the process of communication used for teaching and that used for imparting information is that in the former it is necessary to build some learning activities around the receiving end of the communication chain. That is what the Columbia educators were doing when they arranged for group discussion of each television lesson. The results showed that teachers learned a great deal from viewing a television course on the new mathematics. But if they viewed the course in groups, and discussed each lesson, they learned considerably more than if they viewed alone. A characteristic of instructional communication is that it must provide for individual learning activities. The same hurdles must be leaped as in any other kinds of communication: attention, acceptance, interpretation, sorting. 39

The mass media content should be designed in such a way as to teach people about themselves. Such teaching can include biological and human anatomy, which should be presented in an easy to understand method. The media content should also teach the audience about its environment including how to cope with floods, and storms, and other disasters. It should also teach people about other people. This can be done through the presentation of different programs dealing with

different nations, their population, history, customs, and so on.

14. The criterion for the content of the message should be its relevance in achieving campaign objectives.

It was stated earlier that the message on the various media channels should be consistent. But here it means that the contents should be in coordination with the goals of the campaign. If the content of the media used in a specific campaign is to be evaluated, the only way is to see how relevant these contents are to the campaign objectives. If the campaign objective is to promote political participation of villagers in their local government, it is important that the media messages go along the lines of the goal. The messages should point out to the villagers the many advantages of participation in the decision making of their own future. In other words this message of the different media should be consistent with the intended goals of the campaign.

15. Accessibility of the particular medium to the target audience is an essential factor in media selection.

It would be unwise to undertake a campaign using, for example, television, directed to a village where either people cannot afford to buy the sets or there is no electricity. For successful utilization of media and technology in development campaigns, the media must come to the learner, rather than the learner to the media. Put the media where the people are--market places, on the job, in the field, buses,
In many of the developing nations, the majority of the population is still in rural areas. It should be determined what medium is accessible to the target audience, for example, is there electricity that will enable the use of television? Can the people in the target audiences afford to buy television sets? Is there a place where people can gather and watch television? Can the target audience read? Perhaps radio is the right medium. These are some of the questions media planners have to answer in the different situations. Thus, it is important for media planners to determine which media are accessible to the target audience rather than just choosing any medium for the sake of getting on with the operation.

16. Low cost, convenient times, ease of use and simplicity of maintenance are accessibility factors which should govern media selection.

In many developing nations financial resources are limited, which in turn, makes it difficult to secure allocations of the substantial financial resources needed for using media effectively. Thus it is necessary to determine the objectives of a campaign, assess the available financial support and select the media accordingly. For example, Tanzania considered and resolutely refused to introduce television, for what seemed to President Nyerere and his advisors good and sufficient reasons. They felt that television costs too much for their capabilities, that they would be better off depending on teacher-training and radio to
accomplish their objectives.  

The cost, according to McAnany (1976) is considered to be the second advantage of radio over television. He reported that there has been a number of estimates of cost of radio and television and the ratio of production and transmission cost ranges from 1 to 4 and up. In a rural setting, especially in developing nations, McAnany considers radio to have a time advantage over television. This advantage is clear cut. At the present radio reaches practically all people in all countries, in a great variety of languages. Such advantage makes radio a more convenient medium. It does not require electricity especially after the development of transistors which make radio available all the time everywhere. Radio is also easy to use. It does not require certain skills to operate. In addition to that radio is not as complicated as television with regard to maintenance. These advantages make radio superior to television especially in poor developing nations.

17. Learning from mass media should be arranged when possible in group situations which permit interaction among learners and between learners and group leaders.

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40 Schramm, W. Big Media Little Media, op. cit., p. 21.

In Columbia, it was found that teachers learned a great deal from a television course on the new mathematics. But if they viewed the course in groups, and discussed each lesson, they learned considerably more than if they viewed it alone. They learned more if their groups had supervisors who directed the discussion. The discussion that followed the programs, was of decisive importance. It was during these discussions that the activating and stimulating functions of educational television, which take viewers beyond the actual subject taught, become apparent, and brought underlying social problems to the surface.

18. The content of the media messages should address the needs and concerns of the target audience.

This basic requirement should be the first goal for media planners who use media in development campaign. If the media do not address themselves to the needs of their audience, they (audience) will not pay attention to the media. If, for example, a campaign is designed to introduce new grains to farmers in a community where there is a disease killing their animals, the farmers will not pay much attention to the campaign unless the campaign first deals with the animal disease problem.

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43 Fougeyrollas, P., As quoted by Schramm, W., Big Media, p. 253.
According to Schramm the problem is really how to devise messages that will arouse or make salient "a felt need," a sense of "strong practical benefit," and stimulate "willing cooperation." Unless that problem is solved no amount of moving of messages from point to point is likely to accomplish a great amount of desired change. 43

19. Media messages should be directed, when possible, to homogeneous audiences with common interests, needs, and concerns.

As a result of a survey conducted by the University of Dakar in Sengal, concerning direct television broadcasts to women about hygiene, illness and nutrition it was concluded that:

1. Education through mass media is more effective if it is addressed to a homogeneous audience and meets specific needs.

2. Adults will learn if the subject really interests or concerns them. 44

Media content, especially in developing nations, should be directed wherever possible to homogeneous audience with common interests, needs, and concerns. Farmers, for example, have their own needs and problem which are different from those of other professions. The same situation is true with other segment of the society. Survey research can help in providing the needed information to design


44 Schramm, W. Big Media Little Media, op. cit., p. 254-255.
the different programs which can meet the different needs of the
different segment of the society.

20. Because of their familiarity and long-time effectiveness, the
traditional "little media" should be employed whenever possible.

The populations in the developing world have, over the years,
developed their own channels of communication. These channels, due
to their long time association, became the main credible local sources.
For example, popular poetry in Libya is a very credible source and is
used often among different tribes. Stories of the concentration
camps during the Italian rule still exist today in the form of poems.
If for example, poetry, popular dances, and puppet shows are famous
traditional means of communication, they should be used in develop­
ment campaign whenever possible.

Lent (1975) recommended that we should not make the mis­
take so much of the modern world makes, in thinking traditional and
transitional people do not have communication networks just because
they do not conform to modernistic information systems. In colonial
times and now, peasants have had very effective means of communi­
cation in their talking drums, music, folktales, symbols, gossip
and rumour.45

45Lent, John, "Mass Media in the Developing World: Four
21. The nature of the campaign goals is a prime factor in selecting the media channels to be used.

This means that if, for example, the objective of the campaign is to inform farmers, then it is important to use radio and interpersonal communication involving influential trusted rural personnel. But if, for example, the objective of using media is to teach courses in a school setting, and there is enough financial support, then television may be the right medium.

Another example is Thailand where it was decided to use low cost radio to equalize some of the opportunities between metropolitan and small town and village schools. Upper Volta and Niger decided to combine radio and slides in teaching agriculture and health. Columbia decided to teach functional literacy to its compensation by means of radio combined with a special newspaper delivered to study groups in the villages. El Salvador and the Ivory Coast decided to use instructional television.46

Generally speaking each situation is different so that the choice of medium or media is made on an individual basis.

22. Good technical quality should characterize the media used in national development.

A nation's achievement in the development of mass media is measured not only in the quantity of media growth, but in the quality

46Schramm, W. Big Media Little Media, op. cit., p. 18.
of their service to the nation. Schramm pointed out that either increased quantity or improved quality is likely to cost more. The country that wants to realize the full potential of the mass media will therefore almost certainly be required to invest heavily in them. He sees the investment in information development in an emerging country as an investment in the most essential social and economic factor which relates to national development. He says:

A high proportion of developing countries have now found out, from their experience, how crucial information is to their development programs. Yet, even in many of these countries information is still a poor cousin. It is starved for operating funds, equipment, training. It has had only a tiny fraction of the support available from international organizations and bilateral loans and grants. We should like to urge that these priorities be reconsidered, both by the developing countries and by their friends and aiders.  

Now what will be needed is the good technical quality of the message. This means that the message must be clear. If, for example, the message is print it must be readable, clear and the lettering should be large especially for beginning readers. If it is a visual message it also should be clear, vivid and not over or under exposed. Camera should be steady and not jerky, sound should be clear and color should be balanced.

As it was mentioned before this will require sufficient equipment and well trained personnel who are capable of doing the needed job.

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47 Schramm, W. op. cit., p. 27.
Principles Concerned with Human Resources

1. There must be enough available local personnel to plan, install, maintain, and direct the local media so as to minimize any imposition of foreign culture.

The importance of being local and aware of the local situation has been established earlier. But here it means people who may not be local but are available in the different locations where media are being used rather than to wait for technicians located in a major city. This is mainly a technical requirement that has no relation to the media content.

Chu (1976) listed lessons most developing countries could learn from the Chinese experience among which as, the importance of involving the local people in planning and managing their own development; the usefulness of devoting a special part of the development effort to peasants and workers; the importance of relating one part of the development to other parts; and the necessity of providing educational opportunities fitted for the needs of the community rather than to a scholastic tradition.48

Again, local programs that deal with local problems can be more effective if they are directed by local people who are aware of the local situation and who are known to the local audience and with whom the

audiences identify. These factors will contribute to the credibility of the source and the message which as a result can produce the desired changes.

2. Media planners should provide for a substantial investment in personnel, facilities, and materials.

The process of development involves a broad transition of society. It is not sufficient to build factories and turn out machine tools, for industry can not get far ahead of its support. Of the forces supporting development—the radical change in agriculture, the creation of social overhead, the mobilizing and upgrading of human resources, and the like—all are slow in development. They can not be accomplished quickly. This is not because they are expensive and difficult but because they require a large degree of human change.⁴⁹

One of the things that complicates change is that in many instances it requires people to learn new skills. Where development, that would ordinarily take centuries, is compressed into a few decades, and particularly when a society is moving into technology, as developing countries are today, it is often difficult to teach skills soon enough. Schramm points out, if a small factory, were built in a village in Africa or Asia tomorrow, the skilled workers would not be on hand to operate it. The same is true with the mass media system. While radios can be

distributed to the people in villages, there are no technicians locally available to repair them; and if a tube or condenser goes bad, the set may rest in peace and silence forever. ^50

Skills, especially in the mass media field, are usually in short supply when development begins, and one of the greatest tasks of smoothing social change is to make technical skills and technical development march at the same pace, so that technology does not wait for the workers nor skilled workers for machines and jobs. Therefore, modern communication becomes extremely important to economic development. The task of the mass media of information and the "new media" of education is to speed and ease the long, slow social transformation required for economic development, and, in particular, to speed and smooth the task of mobilizing human resources behind the national effort. ^51 To carry on this great task, mass media require a large body of skilled, well educated, human resources.

3. Encourage flexibility in both personnel and structure so as to be able to respond constructively to research and evaluation findings.

This means what is implies. The field of mass communication is a rapidly changing one. Every day there seems to be an innovation.

^50Ibid., p. 122.

^51Schramm, W., op. cit., p. 27.
in the application of media in varied fields. In 1962, space communication became a fact. Through small communication satellites, orbiting the earth, it became possible to relay telephone, telegraph, radio, facsimile pictures, computer information and television between points many thousands of miles apart. The coverage of the first man on the moon was witnessed by millions around the world. Also many international events were covered on the spot and transmitted to all parts of the world, all due to a new technology. Developing countries must become aware of new technological and educational developments. The Satellite Instructional Television Experiment in India in 1975 and 1976, using a NASA satellite, found the new technological development to be the most cost-effective television system for India. Research and evaluation were very important aspects of that experience. Six out of ten lessons learned from the Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE) were in the field of research and evaluation. 52

It seems clear, then, that mass media planners should encourage research and evaluation and also should be ready to respond to the findings of the studies.

CHAPTER VI

DETERMINING THE VALIDITY AND THE IMPORTANCE
OF THE IDENTIFIED PRINCIPLES

The purpose of this study is to identify basic principles for media use in national development, validate these principles by a jury of experts in the field of mass communication and development, design a model based on these validated principles for developing nations and apply this model to Libya.

In Chapter V, the process of identifying and listing proposed principles for media use has been described. These principles are taken from research studies and project reports dealing with national development. But they are gathered from a variety of sources and may represent particular situations rather than having universal application or they may be a crystallization of the individual judgements of the media experts based upon their own experiences rather than representing a consensus of viewpoints.

Determining the Validity of the Principles

The next step, then, was to determine the validity of each of the proposed principles. The chosen technique for this process was
to use a panel of experts to assess the relative validity of each principle. In addition, the panel members were asked to express their judgements as to the relative importance of each principle.

With such a technique everything depends upon the quality of the panel of specialists. How could they be chosen to ensure that they were properly qualified to make such assessments so that reliance could be placed upon the principles which were judged to be valid and important?

The bibliographies of social sciences included unlimited numbers of people who have contributed to the field of mass communication and development. It was hard to decide who is more qualified than the others. However, a random sample was drawn from the original population of 75 persons and the selected panel met the following criteria: (1) They were represented in the literature either by research reports or by authoritative accounts of development projects, (2) They have had experience, either personally or in association with others, with mass media in developing countries, and (3) They have themselves been engaged in development projects in emerging countries.

The original list included 16 experts to each of whom a letter was mailed requesting their participation in validating the proposed principles. In addition, the letter included an abstract of the study, an explanation of what would be expected of each and a specified date on which a call would be placed to assure each expert's
consent. (see Appendix) The following is the original list of the selected experts:

1. Dr. John Lent--Department of Communication, Temple University
2. Francis Byrnes--Director of Training, Research and Communication for International Agriculture Development Service
3. Royal Colie--Department of Communication, Cornell University
4. Curtis Farrar--Agency for International Development
5. Wilfred Veenedaal--Department of Secondary Education, Michigan State University
6. Dean T. Jamison--World Bank
7. Emile McAnany--Department of Communication, Stanford University
8. Steven Klees--Department of Education, Cornell University
9. Jack Gunter--Academy for Educational Development
10. Edgar Nesman--Department of Sociology, University of South Florida
11. James L. Page--Department of Teacher Education, Michigan State University
12. Syed Rahim--East-West Communication Institute
13. Manfred Thullen--Department of Resource Development, Michigan State University
14. Everett Rogers--Department of Communication, Stanford University
15. Stuart Wells--Department of Management, San Jose University
16. Daniel Lerner--Department of Political Science, Massachusetts Institute of Technology
One week after the first mailing a phone call was placed to each expert. As a result, it was found that five of the original list were unavailable. One had retired and moved out of town, namely Emile McAnany; one had left their original institution, Daniel Lerner; and three were out of the country either on sabbatical leave or conducting research; i.e., Everett Rogers, Dean Jamison and Steven Klees. As a result, five other experts were chosen from the original list. However, these five experts were reached by telephone not preceded by the letter and due to time pressure, did not receive the abstract of the research until later, but it was read to each on the phone. It should be mentioned here that all the five experts who were not on the original list reacted to the proposed principles. (for details of the different correspondence with experts, see Appendix)

The validating instruments listing the 46 tentative principles were mailed to each of the sixteen panel members on March 24, 1979 and a deadline of April 24, 1979 was set for receiving the replies. Two week later only nine experts had responded. On April 11, 1979 a phone call was placed to those who did not answer. Finally, by April 24, 1979 only 14 replies had been received. One more was received on April 28, 1979 and was not included.

The replies of two panel members were not usable. One wished to examine the complete research proposal for the study before
completing the instrument, apparently finding the abstract not sufficiently informative. Time did not permit this additional step. The other panelist was unwilling to respond to each principle in general but wanted the principles placed in appropriate categories and applied to specific situations as a basis for his assessment. Thus, the responses of these two members could not be included, reducing the number to 12.

Brief descriptions of the qualifications of each of the remaining twelve panel members follow and will indicate the extent to which each met the selection criteria.

1. Wilfred Veenedaal is a Professor of Education and Director of Marketing for the Instructional Media Center of Michigan State University. He has served as a consultant for the production of graphics and other educational materials for the Ministry of Education in Brazil, for the Academies for Rural Development in Pakistan and Bangladesh, for the International School of Belgium and for a film series produced by the government of Iran.

2. Francis Byrnes is the Director of Training, Research and Communication for the International Agriculture Development Service. He has spend 13 years at the International Rice Research Institute in the Philippines and the Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical in Colombia, primarily in training and communication activities in these two highly significant agricultural research and training centers.
3. Royal Colle has served as chairman of the Department of Radio and Television at Ithaca College and now is a professor at Cornell University. His main research interests are directed toward problems of communicating with low income and geographically isolated persons in such fields as rural development, health, nutrition, agriculture and family planning. He has served as a consultant to AID, the World Bank and the Ford Foundation.

4. Jack Gunter is the Director of Information on Technology of the Academy for Educational Development. He has been actively engaged in the design and production of educational equipment and materials for non-formal education programs in Ecuador, Colombia and the Dominican Republic.

5. Edgar Nesman is the Co-Director for Research of the Basic Village Education Program in Guatemala and is also professor of sociology at the University of South Florida, which is responsible for evaluating the Guatemalan project. He has also served on family planning and educational projects in Honduras, Costa Rica and Cuba.

6. Syed Rahim is a research associate at the East-West Communication Institute. He was formerly Chief of the Rural Sector of the Bangladesh Planning Commission which was preceded by 14 years as Director of Research of the Academy for Rural Development at Comilla.
7. Manfred Thullen is an associate professor of resource development at Michigan State University and extension specialist in community development. He previously was employed as an agriculture extension agent and as an extension specialist in community and area development by the North Carolina State University. He was born in Ecuador and lived in various South and Central American and European countries. He is actively involved with the non-formal education (NFE) program at the Institute for International Studies in Education of the College of Education at Michigan State University.

8. Leighton Watson was graduated from Emery and Henry College in Journalism and received his M.S.J. from West Virginia University. In 1954-1955 he served as an advisor to the Turkish Ministry of Agriculture. He spent some time in Nicaragua where he developed programs for extension agents in the use of radio to reach rural people. He also had served as a consultant in Afghanistan and El Salvador on agricultural communication. He was a member of a team which developed a project in agricultural radio in Bangladesh.

9. Robert Worral received his B.Sc. in agricultural Education from The Ohio State University, his M.S. from the University of Wisconsin in agricultural journalism and his Ph.D. from Michigan State University in adult higher education and communication art. He was involved in several international projects in agricultural communication including India and Nepal. He served as a consultant
to different international agencies including UNESCO and the World Bank. Now he is the Vice President for the Population Reference Bureau in Washington, D.C.

10. William Harley is a communication consultant who received his B.A. in 1935 and M.A. in 1940 from the University of Wisconsin. He spent several years as instructor of radio and television and as an active member of the staff of WHA at the University of Wisconsin. He was a long-time President of the National Association of Educational Broadcasters. He participated in several international conferences on school broadcasting; namely, in Rome in 1969, in Tokyo in 1964 and in Paris in 1967. He represented the United States in the UNESCO Conference on the Use of Space Broadcasting in Paris in 1971. He has served as a communication consultant to AID and to the Rothschild Foundation. He is presently a consultant to the U.S. Department of State.

11. William Herzog received his Ph.D. in communication from Michigan State University in 1967. He spent two years in Brazil where he was the director of a research project dealing with illiteracy (ABC Crossade). He was a member of a team which was responsible for several projects in India, Nigeria and Brazil dealing with the diffusion of agricultural innovation. He conducted a number of research studies in Costa Rica and Guatemala dealing with communication variables in agricultural development and management. He was a lecturer on
communication and development in the Institute of Advanced Studies in Communication in Latin America (CIESPAL). Recently he was involved in a program on development of agricultural education in Nepal.

12. Delbert Myren received his Ph.D. from the University of Wisconsin in 1955. He was Chief of the Division of Planning, Evaluation and Utilization for AID and the U.S. Department of State. From 1955 until 1970 he served as information specialist for the Rockefeller Foundation. Between 1970 and 1973 he was the Assistant Director of Research and Installation Grants for AID and the U.S. Department of State. He also served as a consultant to the World Bank. Among his publications are Communication in Agricultural Development and Training for Extension Work in Latin America. His research interest is in the area of diffusion of information and introduction of technological change. He spent some time in Latin America during his work with the Rockefeller Foundation. He is now in charge of research in AID.

The Development of the Validation Instrument

The list of the proposed principles to be rated by and the questions to be asked of the panel were prepared in a three-page, 8 1/2 x 11 inch questionnaire. Each page included questions on both sides. A space for comments after each principle was provided. A
fourth page was added, blank except for the heading, "These pages can be used for additional comments or suggestions."

The instrument included 46 principles. Each of these principles was to be rated for both validity and importance on a five-point Likert-type scale to provide the panel with enough choices of answers:

Column A--THE RELATIVE VALIDITY OF THE PROPOSED PRINCIPLE (No principle is absolute under all circumstances in all situations. How would you rate the relative validity of this principle?)

0--Uncertain
1--Decidedly Disagree
2--Tend to Disagree
3--Tend to Agree
4--Decidedly Agree

Column B--THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE PROPOSED PRINCIPLE (Principles vary in importance when applied in varied circumstances. In general, how would you rate the relative importance of this principle?)

0--Uncertain
1--No Importance
2--Little Importance
3--Moderate Importance
4--Great Importance

It should be mentioned here that the instruments did not request any demographic information and did not ask for the name of the experts. The researcher was able to identify the different experts either by their signature on the blank page or by the post office stamp
of the specific city.

Treatment of Data I

The instrument, cover letter and stamped envelopes were mailed from The Ohio State University on March 24, 1979 to the 16-member panel of experts. (See Appendix) The first reply was received on March 30, 1979 and the twelfth on April 19, 1979. Follow-up phone calls were placed to those who did not send the answers on April 11, 1979. Date responses received were:

- March 30--1
- March 31--3
- April 2--2
- April 9--1
- April 11--1
- April 12--1
- April 13--1
- April 16--1
- April 19--1

The actual ratings assigned to each principle by the 12 judges are given in Table 1.

While Table 1 indicates that there was not unanimity among the experts about the various principles, it does not immediately lend itself to summarizing the relative validity and importance of the principles as adjudged by the total group of experts. To facilitate this process, weightings were assigned to the various ratings. Thus, a midpoint of "0" was given to uncertain, "Tend to agree" was given a positive weighting of "1" and "Decidely agree" was assumed to be twice as positive and assigned a weighting of "2". Similarly on the
Table 1

Response of Panelists to Validity and Importance of Each Principle

Key:

Validity: 0 = Uncertain; 1 = Decidedly Disagree; 2 = Tend to Disagree; 3 = Tend to Agree; 4 = Decidedly Agree

Importance: 0 = Uncertain; 1 = No Importance; 2 = Little Importance; 3 = Moderate Importance; 4 = Great Importance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Validity</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Before initiating any campaign using mass media there must be sufficient financial allocation to cover the entire campaign</td>
<td>2 8 1 1</td>
<td>2 8 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A campaign should embrace enough time to enable its success or failure to be determined</td>
<td>8 4 7 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Important decisions in the planning and implementation of a media campaign should involve the participation of those who will be most affected by it</td>
<td>9 2 1 9 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. In organizing a program for media use in national development, provision must be made for coordination between the agencies involved in planning, production, distribution, utilization, evaluation and research</td>
<td>10 2 10 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principle</td>
<td>Validity</td>
<td>Importance</td>
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<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. In mounting a campaign involving social changes focus only on those for which the social situation is favorable</td>
<td>1 3 3 3 2</td>
<td>3 5 2 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Changes should not be imposed from an outside culture, but must evolve organically within the cultural context of the particular group</td>
<td>6 3 1 2</td>
<td>6 5 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Mass media strategies must go hand in hand with economic, social, and political strategies for natural development</td>
<td>8 3 1</td>
<td>9 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Prior to any campaign, there should be an audience survey in the target area to discover the sort of opposition and/or other difficulties likely to be encountered</td>
<td>9 3</td>
<td>8 3 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Regardless of the medium or media used, a mechanism for collecting continuous feedback must be developed</td>
<td>9 2 1</td>
<td>9 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. A pilot project should precede any large scale campaign in order to discover problems and difficulties and to save time, effort and money</td>
<td>6 2 2 1 1</td>
<td>6 2 2 2 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Validity</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11. To ensure credibility, use local media with local content that deals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with local problems involving local personnel</td>
<td>5 3 1</td>
<td>4 5 1 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. The objective of a campaign should be based on adequate knowledge of</td>
<td>11 1</td>
<td>11 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the local culture, local customs and local problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Mass media planners must know their target audience— their problems,</td>
<td>10 2</td>
<td>10 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>their needs and the level of their competencies and mentalities— before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>undertaking any campaign</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. A well planned campaign should use whatever media can be commanded</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that will reach the target audience economically</td>
<td>5 2 1 4</td>
<td>5 3 1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Radio, because of its wide coverage, relatively low unit cost and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>ability to reach beyond the literate and beyond power mains, should be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>the pre-eminent medium for most development campaigns</td>
<td>4 4 1 3</td>
<td>4 4 2 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Validity</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16. A combination of media is likely to accomplish more than any one medium by itself</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Interpersonal communication is the indispensable element of development communication regardless of the media used</td>
<td>5 3 3 1</td>
<td>6 4 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. A combination of mass media and interpersonal communication is likely to be more effective than either one alone</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Regardless of the other media employed, use should be made of the traditional communication systems</td>
<td>7 4 1</td>
<td>7 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. To ensure intended messages reach their target audience, it is important to identify and utilize the influential people in the target community</td>
<td>6 2 4</td>
<td>6 2 1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. To ensure that intended verbal messages reach their target audience, use the local idiom and vernacular</td>
<td>6 6</td>
<td>7 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principle</td>
<td>Validity</td>
<td>Importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. To ensure effective communication, use the common language of the target audience</td>
<td>7 5</td>
<td>7 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Mass media people must relate to their audience, meet with them and establish some kind of relationship with them, so that the audience will, in turn, identify with the media people</td>
<td>4 4 3 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. To ensure effective communication messages on the varied communication channels should be consistent</td>
<td>9 2 1</td>
<td>9 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Repetition with variation of appeals should characterize the developmental messages</td>
<td>7 5</td>
<td>7 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Mass media people should project the media in relation to their envisioned development function</td>
<td>3 7 1 1</td>
<td>3 7 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Mass media should be the means for people to learn about themselves, their environment and other people</td>
<td>3 4 1 2 2</td>
<td>2 4 1 3 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principle</td>
<td>Validity</td>
<td>Importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. There must be enough available local personnel to plan, install, maintain and direct the local media so as to minimize any imposition of foreign nations and their culture</td>
<td>3 7 2</td>
<td>4 5 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Mass media planners should provide for a substantial investment in personnel, facilities, and materials</td>
<td>3 7 1 1</td>
<td>4 7 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Good technical quality should characterize the media used in national development</td>
<td>3 6 1 2</td>
<td>4 6 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Criterion for the content of media messages should be its relevance in achieving campaign objectives</td>
<td>7 2 2 1</td>
<td>6 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Strategies for media use should be based upon a comprehensive understanding of local mores, customs, habits and life styles</td>
<td>11 1</td>
<td>11 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Every development campaign should have clear, attainable, agreed-upon goals</td>
<td>10 1 1 1</td>
<td>10 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principle</td>
<td>Validity</td>
<td>Importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. The nature of the campaign goals is a prime factor in selecting the media and media channels to be used</td>
<td>6 4 2</td>
<td>6 4 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Because of their familiarity and long-time effectiveness, the traditional &quot;little media&quot; should be employed whenever possible</td>
<td>2 3 3 4</td>
<td>2 5 3 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. To ensure success, undertake campaign only with full support at the highest level of government</td>
<td>5 2 2 1 2</td>
<td>5 3 2 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. The head of the communication media campaign should have direct access to the top planners of national development in cases of jurisdictional disputes among ministries, offices, bureaus and the like</td>
<td>6 4 2 3</td>
<td>7 3 2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Media campaigns should focus upon the basic motivations—economic, social, political or religious of the target population</td>
<td>8 3 1 8 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Accessibility of the particular medium to the target audience is an essential factor in media selection</td>
<td>10 2 10 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Validity</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40. Low cost, convenient times, ease of use and simplicity of maintenance are accessibility factors which should govern media selection</td>
<td>6 2 1 3</td>
<td>6 4 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Learning from mass media should be arranged when possible in group situations which permit interaction among learners and between learners and group leaders</td>
<td>8 1 1 2</td>
<td>7 4 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. The content of the media messages should address the needs and concerns of the target audience</td>
<td>11 1</td>
<td>11 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. The target audience should have representation in the planning, implementation and evaluation of media campaigns</td>
<td>6 5 1</td>
<td>6 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Consider and take into account side effects of development campaigns; no change is accomplished without ramifications throughout the society, often unintended and sometimes threatening to the total program</td>
<td>6 5 1</td>
<td>6 5 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
45. Encourage flexibility in both personnel and structure so as to be able to respond constructively to research and evaluation findings

46. Media messages should be directed, when possible, to homogenous audiences with common interest, needs and concerns
negative side of disagreeing with a principle, "Tend to disagree" was
given a weighting of "-1" and "Decidedly disagree" a weighting of
"-2". The frequency in each position was then multiplied by the
weighting and the total divided by the number of ratings, to produce
a mean positive or negative score as displayed in Table 2 and Table
3.

**Treatment of the Data**

In the evaluation process each rating scale was assigned a
specific weighting as mentioned earlier. Thus, "0" as a midpoint was
given a zero weighting for "Uncertain." "Tend to agree" was given
the weighting of "1" and "Decidedly agree" was given the weighting of
"2" since it was assumed to be twice as positive. On the negative side
of disagreement with the principles, a "Tend to disagree" was given a
weighting of "-1" and "Decidedly disagree" was given the weighting of
"-2". The results are displayed in Table 2 and Table 3.

Since the rating was originally requested for two variables,
the importance and validity, each variable was treated separately.
And since number 3 on both validity and importance was given the
weight of "+1", it was arbitrarily decided that "+1.00" will be the cut
off point. Any principle whose average weight fell under that number
would be considered neither sufficiently valid nor important to be
utilized.
Table 2
Rated Validity of Each Principle Arranged in Descending Order of Validity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Average Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12. The objective of a campaign should be based on adequate knowledge of</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the local culture, local customs and local problems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Strategies for media use should be based upon a comprehensive</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understanding of local mores, customs, habits and life styles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Accessibility of the particular medium to the target audience is an</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>essential factor in media selection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. The content of the media messages should address the needs and</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concerns of the target audience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Mass media planners must know their target audience—their problems,</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>their needs and the level of their competencies and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mentalities—before undertaking any campaign</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. A combination of mass media and interpersonal communication is likely</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to be more effective than either one alone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. In organizing a program for media use in national development,</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provision must be made for coordination between the agencies involved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in planning, production, distribution, utilization, evaluation and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. To ensure effective communication messages on the varied</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communication channels should be consistent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. A combination of media is likely to accomplish more than any one</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medium by itself</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principle</td>
<td>Average Rating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Encourage flexibility in both personnel and structure so as to be able to respond constructively to research and evaluation findings</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Mass Media strategies must go hand in hand with economic, social and political strategies for national development</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A campaign should embrace enough time to enable its success or failure to be determined</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Prior to any campaign, there should be an audience survey in the target area to discover the sort of opposition and/or other difficulties likely to be encountered</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Every development campaign should have clear, attainable, agreed-upon goals</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Important decisions in the planning and implementation of a media campaign should involve the participation of those who will be most affected by it</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. To ensure effective communication, use the common language of the target audience</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Repetition with variation of appeals should characterize the development messages</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Consider and take into account side effects of development campaigns; no change is accomplished ramifications throughout the society, often unintended and sometimes threatening to the total program</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. To ensure that intended verbal messages reach their target audience, use the local idiom and vernacular</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principle</td>
<td>Average Rating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Regardless of the medium or media used, a mechanism for collecting</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continuous feedback must be developed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Criterion for the content of media messages should be its relevance</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in achieving campaign objectives.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Media campaign should focus upon the basic motivation economic,</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social, political or religious of the target audience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Regardless of the other media employed, use should be made of the</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>traditional communication systems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. The target audience should have representation in the planning,</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>implementation and evaluation of the media campaigns.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Mass media people must relate to their audience, meet with them,</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and establish some kind of relationship with them, so the audience will,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in turn, identify with the media people.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Interpersonal communication is the indispensable element of</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development communication regardless of the media used.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Low cost, convenient times, ease of use and simplicity of</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maintenance are accessibility factors which should govern media</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selection.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. The nature of the campaign goals is a prime factor in selecting the</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>media channels to be used.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. The head of the communication media campaign should have direct</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>access to the top planners of national development in cases of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jurisdictional disputes among ministries, offices, bureaus and the like.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Average Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10. A pilot project should precede any large scale campaign in order to discover problems and difficulties, and to save time, effort and money.</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. There must be enough available local personnel to plan, install, maintain and direct the local media so as to minimize any imposition of foreign nationals and their culture</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Media planners should provide for a substantial investment in personnel, facilities and materials</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Learning from the mass media should be arranged, when possible, in group situations which permits interaction among learners and between learners and group leaders.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Changes should not be imposed from an outside culture, but must evolve organically within the cultural context of the particular group.</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. To ensure credibility, use local media with local content that deals with local problems involving local personnel.</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Before initiating any campaign using mass media there must be sufficient financial allocation to cover the entire campaign.</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. To insure that intended messages reach the target audience, it is important to identify and utilize the influential people in the target community.</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Radio, because of its wide coverage, relative low unit cost and ability to reach beyond the literate and beyond power mains, should be the pre-eminent medium for most developing campaigns</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principle</td>
<td>Average Rating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. To ensure success, undertake campaigns only with full support at the highest level of government</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Good technical quality should characterize the media used in national development</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. A well planned campaign should use whatever media can be commanded that will reach the target audience economically</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Mass media messages should be directed, when possible, to homogeneous audiences with common interests, needs and concerns</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Mass media should be the means for people to learn about themselves, their environment and other people</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Because of their familiarity and long-time effectiveness, the traditional, &quot;little media&quot; should be employed whenever possible</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. In mounting a campaign involving social changes focus only on those for which the social situation is favorable</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3
Rated Importance of Each Principle Arranged in Descending Order of Importance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Average Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12. The objective of a campaign should be based on adequate knowledge of the local culture, local customs and local problems</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Strategies for media use should be based upon comprehensive understanding of local mores, customs, habits and life styles</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Accessability of the particular medium to the target audience is an essential factor in media selection</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. The content of the media messages should address the needs and concerns of the target audience</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Encourage flexibility in both personnel and structure so as to be able to respond constructively to research and evaluation findings</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. A combination of media is likely to accomplish more than any one medium by itself</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Every development campaign should have clear, attainable, agreed-upon goals</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Mass media planners must know their target audience--their problems, their needs and the level of their competencies and mentalities--before undertaking any campaign</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. A combination of mass media and interpersonal communication is likely to be more effective than either one alone</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. In organizing a program for media use in national development, provision must be made for coordination between the agencies involved in planning, production, distribution, utilization, evaluation and research</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Average Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24. To ensure effective communication messages on the varied communication</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>channels should be consistent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Mass media strategies must go hand in hand with economic, social, and</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>political strategies of development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Prior to any campaign, there should be an audience survey in the target</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>area to discover the sort of opposition and/or other difficulties likely</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to be encountered</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Important decisions in the planning and implementation of media</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>campaign should involve the participation of those who will be most</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affected by it</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Media campaign should focus upon the basic motivations—economic,</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social, political or religious—of the target audience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Interpersonal communication is the indispensable element of development</td>
<td>1.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communication regardless of the media used</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A campaign should embrace enough time to enable its success or failure</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to be determined</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Regardless of the medium or media used, a mechanism for collecting</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continuous feedback must be developed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. To ensure that intended verbal messages reach their target audience,</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use the local idioms and vernacular</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. To ensure effective communication, use the common language of the</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>target audience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Repetition with variation of appeals should characterize the</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>developmental messages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 3. (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Average Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19. Regardless of the other media employed, use should be made of the traditional communication systems</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Low cost, convenient times, ease of use and simplicity of maintenance are accessibility factors which should govern media selection</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Consider and take into account side effects of development campaigns; no change is accomplished without ramifications throughout the society, often unintended and sometimes threatening to the total program</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. The target audience should have representation in the planning, implementation and evaluation of media campaigns</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Criterion for the content of media messages should be its relevance in achieving campaign objectives</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Learning from the mass media should be arranged when possible in group situations which permit interaction among learners and between learners and group leaders</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Media planners should provide for a substantial investment in personnel, facilities and materials</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. The nature of the campaign goals is a prime factor in selecting the media channels to be used</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Changes should not be imposed from an outside culture, but must evolve organically within the cultural context of the particular group</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. The head of the communication media campaign should have direct access to the top planners of national development in cases of jurisdictional disputes among ministries, offices, bureaus and the like</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principle</td>
<td>Average Rating</td>
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<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. A pilot project should precede any large scale campaign in order to discover problems and difficulties and to save time, effort and money</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Good technical quality should characterize the media use in national development</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. To ensure credibility, use local media with local content that deals with local problems involving local personnel</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Radio, because of its wide coverage, relatively low unit cost and ability to reach beyond the literate and beyond power mains, should be the pre-eminent medium for most development campaigns</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. To ensure that intended messages reach their target audience, it is important to identify and utilize the influential people in the target community</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Mass media people must relate to their audience, meet with them, and establish some kind of relationship with them, so that the audience will, in turn, identify with the media people</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. To ensure success, undertake campaigns only with full support at the highest level of government</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. A well planned campaign will use whatever media can be commanded that will reach the target audience economically</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. In mounting a campaign involving social changes, focus only on those for which the social situation is favorable</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Before initiating any campaign using media there must be a sufficient financial allocation to cover the entire campaign</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28. There must be enough available local personnel to plan, install, maintain and direct the local media so as to minimize any imposition of foreign nationals and their culture</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Mass media messages should be directed, when possible, to homogeneous audiences with common interests, needs and concerns</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Because of their familiarity and long-time effectiveness, the traditional &quot;little media&quot; should be employed whenever possible</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Mass media should be the means for people to learn about themselves, their environment and other people</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As a result 12 principles were eliminated on the basis of validity and seven principles on the basis of importance. Six of those eliminated principles were considered neither valid nor important. (See Table 2 and Table 3) There were also six principles which were considered important but not sufficiently valid, and there was only one principle which was considered valid but not important. Each of these thirteen principles, those which were considered important but not valid, the one which was considered valid but not important, and those considered neither valid nor important will be discussed separately.

The following are those eliminated principles that were rated neither valid nor important.

5--In mounting a campaign involving social changes focus only on those for which the social situation is favourable.

This principle rated the lowest on the validity scale with -0.33, and rated 0.88 on the importance scale. It seems that the experts were confused with the word "focus only." One expert commented by saying "Actually, it may be most productive to focus on the different situations. Years of agricultural campaigns on farmers failed to reach small farmers most needing help."

35--Because of their familiarity and long time effectiveness, the traditional "Little Media" should be employed whenever possible.

This principle rated at 0.30 on the validity scale and 0.70 on the importance scale. It seems that most of the experts were confused by the term "Little Media." Some comments stated that it is not
necessary and it depends upon the situation and the goals of the campaign.

46--Media messages should be directed, when possible, to homogeneous audiences with common interests, needs, and concerns.

This principle was rated at 0.50 on the validity scale and at 0.83 on the importance scale. It seems that the experts feel that audiences will never be that homogeneous. It also seems that it is not feasible in a campaign designed, according to one expert, to reach a multitude of audiences.

27--Mass media should be the means for people to learn about themselves, their environment, and other people.

This principle was rated at 0.36 on the validity scale and 0.00 on the importance scale. It seems that it is not feasible to accomplish this goal. Some of the experts recommended that it could be done through tours, visits and personal contact.

1--Before initiating any campaign using media there must be a sufficient financial allocation to cover the entire campaign.

This principle rated at 0.90 on the validity scale and 0.83 on the importance scale. It would seem that the experts do not agree with the idea of covering the entire campaign. One expert commented by saying, "How long of a time needed?" Another said financial allocation was needed at least at the beginning to ensure early small success, so as to encourage increased and continued support. Others pointed out that it is important not to run out of funds especially during the
early stages, but what is really needed is creative planning.

14--A well planned campaign should use whatever media can be commanded that will reach the target audience economically.

This principle was rated at 0.50 on the validity scale and 0.90 on the importance scale. It was anticipated that reaction to this principle would be positive, but apparently the majority of experts do not agree. On the importance scale it was rated higher than on the validity scale. To one of the experts the word "reach" did not mean "effective." Others felt that reaching should not be the goal, but changing behavior must be the main objective; any medium which fails to do this, one expert said, is expensive at whatever price.

The only principle that was rated highly on validity but considered not important is:

28--There must be enough available local personnel to plan, install, maintain, and direct the local media so as to minimize any imposition of foreign nationals and their culture.

This principle was rated at 1.09 on the validity scale and only 0.83 on the importance scale. It seems that, especially in the case of developing nations, it is hard to find enough local personnel to do what the principle suggests, especially during the early stage of a development campaign. This will require time, skills and money. But it could be done through training and through local institutions as they grow and develop. One expert pointed out that outside assistance may be essential at the initial stage. Others said it depends on the specific country and its ideology.
As mentioned earlier there are certain principles that were rated highly on the importance scale but were not considered valid. They are as follows:

6--Changes should not be imposed by an outside culture, but should evolve organically within the cultural context of the particular group.

This principle was rated at 1.33 on the importance scale and at 0.91 on the validity scale. It appears that the majority of experts feel that outside assistance is necessary. It seems that the word "impose" has contributed to the low rating of the principle's validity. One expert commented by saying what is needed is the introduction of new ideas, materials or people which should work to change the status quo.

20--To ensure intended messages reach their target audience, it is important to identify and utilize the influential people in the target community.

This principle was rated at 1.00 on the importance scale and 0.83 on the validity scale. It appears from the rating of the validity of this principle and from the comment made by experts, that this principle would limit communication, yet messages will often go to those who really need to know. It depends, according to one expert, on the willingness of influential people to respond to the issues of the intended messages. Others commented by saying "Only if you are combining media with interpersonal communication."

15--Radio because of its wide coverage, relative low unit cost and ability to reach beyond the literate and beyond power mains,
should be the pre-eminent medium for most of development campaigns.

This principle was rated at 1.00 on the importance scale and at 0.81 on the validity scale. Again it was expected that this principle would be rated highly on both scales, but the majority of experts do not consider radio to be superior to other media. One expert commented that radio's limitations must be recognized; that it should be used for what it can do--no more, no less. Others commented that it depends on how radio is organized in a country.

36--To ensure success, undertake campaigns only with the full support at the highest level of government.

This principle was rated at 1.00 on the importance scale and 0.80 on the validity scale. While this principle was expected to be rated highly on both scales, it actually was not. Some experts point out that intermediate, working levels may be more important. Other comments included that this may not be possible when the campaign has political implications, and full support at the highest level will not ensure success of a badly conceived and conducted media campaign.

30--Good technical quality should characterize the media use in national development.

This principle was rated at 1.18 on the importance scale and only 0.72 on the validity scale. It appears that while some rated it high in importance, others doubted its validity. One expert said, "it is not as important as media people insist, but it is the content that is more critical."
II--To insure credibility, use local media with local content that deals with local problems involving local personnel.

This principle was rated at 1.00 on the relative importance scale and at 0.90 on the relative validity scale. It seems that the jury of experts felt it is important to have local media with local content, but they do not consider it valid especially with regard to involving local personnel. Some experts saw using local people as an important element but the shortage of qualified people who can handle the task will hinder the total operation especially during the first few years. Some felt that credibility is not confined to local media and sometimes it comes from outside. Others felt it depends on the legitimacy of the message and the personality of the personnel in the eyes of the audience.

Due to the arbitrary cut-off points these principles did not score sufficiently to be considered completely valid and important. This does not mean they are not important or valid but rather that the majority of experts did not agree on their relative standing. Because of the differences of opinion, it is recommended that these principles should be considered in the light of particular situations and followed where applicable.

Those principles which are considered to be both valid and important, according to the cut-off points, will be discussed in the next chapter as they are applied to serve as a base for a proposed model for developing nations.
It must be stated at the outset that each nation is unique and different from other nations. Even though it is assumed that most of the developing nations have similarities because they are changing from their traditional societies still, each one has its own culture and within each culture there are subcultures. Therefore, it is difficult to present a single communications model that can meet the different needs of the different developing nations except in a very general fashion.

What will be presented then, is an overall model based on the validated principles which can then be applied to a particular nation.

I. Prerequisites to Media Use in Development

1. Mass Media Institution Must Exist or Be Established. It is obvious that before the mass media can be employed in development, they must already exist in the country as established institutions. Thus
the nation's planners must consider the media already in place, and the audiences. Not all developing nations have newspapers with significant numbers of readers. Not all have television; or, if television exists, its audiences are not representative of those need to be reached in the various developmental campaigns. How wide spread is radio? Do films reach significant numbers of the population or are motion picture theaters lacking altogether as in Saudi Arabia?

If some types of media are lacking, should they be deliberately introduced into the culture? What will this cost and what effects will this have on the traditional society?

2. Mass Media Institutions Must Be Cooperative. In many newly developing countries, the mass media are directly controlled and operated by the government and presumably can be directly employed in the nation's development. But in other such countries, the mass media are in the private sector; i.e., newspapers, broadcast stations, and the film industry are privately owned. The problem then becomes that of ensuring cooperation in the various development drives and campaigns.  

1Principle 14: In organizing a program for media use in national development, provisions must be made for coordination between the different agencies involved in planning, production, distribution, utilization, evaluation and research.
3. Communication Media Must Be Directly Involved in Development Planning. A skilled communication media director/minister must be represented at the highest level (national or provincial) in development planning so that the various media can be employed skillfully throughout the drives and campaigns.  

II. Procedures for Effective Media Use

1. Goals Must be Identified. The first requirement in any drive or campaign using mass media is to identify the objectives or goals to be attained in relation to the people to be reached. These goals must be clearly stated in terms of the specific changes to be brought about in the target group, the extent of the changes and in what period of time. These goals should represent the consensus among the various specialists and those close to the actual situation.

2. Goals Should Relate To Target Audience. Goals are not to be stated in the abstract; they should be based upon knowledge of the people to be reached. Planners should know the culture of the target audience, their values, their occupations, their interest, their

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2Principle 37: The head of the communication media should have direct access to the top planners of national development in case of jurisdictional disputes among ministries, offices, bureaus and the like.

3Principle 33: Every development campaign should have clear, attainable, agreed-upon goals.
needs, their biases and their prejudices, their life styles, their problems and their concerns. 

This is an important principle, which is rarely applied in most of the developing nations, because seldom are local people who are aware of their own situation, utilized in the planning stages. In addition, it is almost impossible to find qualified locals who can participate effectively in such a process. In the developing world, involving locals requires money and time to train them to participate in the planning stages. If the country has the financial capabilities and the time to train its people to participate actively in development, it should begin this training early on. But if the country has neither the time nor the money, mass media planners should make use of the international expertise of the developed world. But they should make sure that these experts have a clear idea of the local situation. In the meantime locals should be involved in the campaign whenever possible. Mass media planners should make sure that foreign experts meet with the locals of the target community and be aware of the real situation rather than getting information only from government officials.

3. The Use of Media Should Be An Integral Part of the Planning Process. The media director should participate in all stages of the

Principle 12: The objective of a campaign should be based on adequate knowledge of the local culture, local customs, and local problems.
planning process so that media are used, whenever they can be help-
ful, throughout the campaign. This will avoid the cumbersome
process of trying to fit the media into an already-adopted plan which
might ignore their potential contributions to the total effort. 5

4. Media Should Fit the Levels of Information and Skills of the
Audience. In designing media use, plans should be tailored to the
specific levels of information and skills of the audience in relation to
the campaign goals. For example, if the objective of a campaign is
to introduce and promote new types of grain into a specific community,
it is important to know the problems of those farmers, the level of
their competency and the level of their mentalities to help media
planners design the development messages in ways easiest for them to
comprehend.

Such information can help in designing a tailor-made program
to help solve the farmers' problems by meeting their needs and thus to
accomplish campaign goals. Such audience information can be
gathered through interviews and meetings with farmers and local
leaders.

5Principle 3: Important decisions in planning and implementa-
tion of a media campaign should involve the participation of those who
will be most affected by it.
Such information must be accurate and up-to-date and not solely dependent upon bureaucratic government officials who might want to look good.6

5. **Media Strategies Should Conform to Local Mores and Habits of the Audience.** The design of media strategies should accepted rules, values, customs and habits of the target audience. Each society have its own values, habits, taboos and life styles which should be taken into consideration and should be respected. It is important for the planners to know and understand these values.7

6. **Media Use Should Stress Audience Motivation.** In any campaign or drive to be successful, the people involved must be motivated. Media can play a large part in stimulating target audiences by stressing the values to be gained by the innovation.

There should be a strong emphasis on incentives in order to get the people involved and to accept the intended changes. These incentives may include extrinsic rewards, in addition, the natural benefits, and can take many forms such as gifts of small transistor

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6Principle 13: Mass media planners must know their target audience—their problems, their needs and the level of their competencies and mentalities—before undertaking any campaign.

7Principle 32: Strategies for media use should be based upon a comprehensive understanding of the local mores, customs, habits and life style.
radios, especially, when radio is an important medium in the campaign. Other forms can include certificates, trophies and the like.  

7. The Campaign/Drive Period Should Be Ample. Almost all campaigns or drives aimed at important changes in the people's practices, whether in agriculture, health, literacy or whatever, require modifications in human attitudes to accept the new innovations and to give up old practices. No changes, especially in human attitudes can be accomplished overnight. Therefore, adequate time, extending over several years, is required to determine if a campaign is a success or failure. In some societies where religion plays a major role, an even longer time is required, especially when the campaign is dealing with issues which are perceived as related to religious teachings such as state-supported schools, abortion or birth control.  

8. Campaign's Side Effects Must Be Anticipated and Guarded Against. It is understood that development campaigns/drives are designed to bring about specified changes in the target community. As a result, many traditional patterns may need to be modified or

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8 Principle 38: Media campaigns should focus upon the basic motivation—economic, social, political or religious—of the target audience.

9 Principle 2: A campaign should have enough time to enable its success or failure to be determined.
replaced by new ones. No change can be accomplished without consequences, often unintended, resulting from the campaigns. Some foreign advisors may use modern standards in predicting reactions to changes, which may not fit the local situation. The result may be unanticipated negative reactions which can threaten the entire campaign/drive. Careful guidance, continuous study and appraisal and quick reaction should characterize development campaigns. 10


It has been already stressed in this model that localness should characterize the content of media messages. One means of attaining this is to include local representation in the planning, implementation and evaluation stages of the campaign/drive. Having locals in these different stages will help in providing a more accurate picture of the local situation. In addition local representatives can be of great help in collecting information throughout the campaign as to its on-going effectiveness; its problems and its achievements. They can help the non-local experts gain a more accurate picture of the target and audience, so they (experts) can design the program to fit the needs of

10 Principle 44: Consider and take into account side effects of development campaigns. No change is accomplished without ramifications throughout the society, often unintended and sometimes threatening to the total program.
their audience. In addition, having locals involved will increase the credibility of the campaign. 11

10. Coordination Must Exist Between the Various National Development Programs. Due to the geographical isolation characteristic of many of the developing nations, mass media becomes the logical agent for dissemination of development information of all sorts. Media planners/ministers must coordinate all the media resources to go along with the various programs of national development. They should be responsible for providing the top planners of national development with basic information about media use and recommendations concerning what media would be most effective in what situation. They should also conduct basic research on who listens, reads or watches what media so that they can tailor the media to reach the target audience in any of the campaigns/drives. 12

11. Media Plans Should Include Investment in Human, Facilities and Materials. Any campaign/drive using mass media will require human resources in the planning, implementation and evaluation. It will also require adequate facilities and materials.

11 Principle 43: The target audience should have representation in planning, implementation, and evaluation of the media campaign.

12 Principle 7: Mass media strategies must go hand in hand with economic, social, and political strategies for national development.
This fact is almost totally neglected in most newly emerging nations. There has always been a tendency to depend on foreign experts. Each country must raise the standard of its own human resources and try as much as possible to reduce dependency on foreign personnel. In addition to their knowledge of the domestic situation, local people will not cost the country as much as it costs to employ foreign laborers. Furthermore, locals will have pride in serving their people especially if they are given confidence and encouragement. In a similar fashion investment should be made in equipment and facilities to enable domestic labor to accomplish tasks that otherwise would have to be done abroad.  

12. Media-Audience Relationship Must Be Established. To be a credible source in a developing world one must be known and trusted. No one will give up old practices that he and his grandfather have used and trusted, just because someone from a major city, or the country's capital, says he should. The source of information must be known to its audience. Therefore, it is most important that media planners create some kind of relationship between those who appear on the media as authority figures and the target audience. This can be arranged by visits to the local areas by the writers and broadcasters

13 Principle 29: Media planners should provide a substantial investment in personnel, facilities and materials.
and by encouraging visits by local leaders to broadcast stations and newspapers. Such relationships will contribute to the credibility of the source and eventually to the success of the campaign/drive.  

13. **Whenever Possible Provide for Group Learning.** One of the principal purposes for using mass media in development campaigns is to teach the target audience new methods to improve the quality of their lives. Research indicates that learning from mass media is more effective when the learners are in groups rather than being exposed to the media alone as individuals. The groups make possible interaction between the learners and between the learners and the group leaders or field workers. These interactions enhance the learning process and can also provide immediate feedback concerning the effectiveness of the media messages.  

III. Procedures for Media Selections  

1. **The Media Used Must Be Accessible to Target Audience.** It is unwise to carry on a campaign using mass media without knowing

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14Principle 23: Mas media people must relate to their audience, meet with them, and establish some kind of relationship with them, so that the audience will, in turn, identify with the media people.

15Principle 41: Learning from the mass media should be arranged, when possible, in group situations which permit interaction among learners and between learners and group leaders.
whether the chosen media are readily accessible to the target audience. This should be determined before undertaking the campaign. For example, even though television is considered an effective medium, it would be stupid to carry on a campaign directed to a large segment of the population, using television as the major medium when a small percentage of homes have sets. It is important to find out which media are available, accessible and popular before going ahead with media selection.  

2. **Mass Media Should Be Combined.** It must be clear that there is no one medium that is consistently effective for all situations. Research findings indicate that a combination of media, other things being equal, will accomplish more than any one medium used alone. For example, if the major goal of a campaign is to reduce illiteracy substantially in a specific community, television, film, radio, and print assisting literacy workers can be very effective. But if a country cannot afford the more expensive media, radio, plus a limited quantity of simple, printed materials and qualified teachers, can do the job.  

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16 **Principle 39:** Accessibility of the particular medium to the target audience is an essential factor in media selection.  

17 **Principle 16:** A combination of media is likely to accomplish more than any one medium used by itself.
3. **Mass Media and Interpersonal Communication Should Be Combined.** Communication research has established that both in the developing nations and in developed countries information appearing in mass media is passed along through interpersonal channels. For example, to change the attitudes of people requires more than transmitting information over airwaves or publishing in newspapers. It requires personal contact and continuous assurance from well-trusted sources such as local authority figures or civic and religious leaders. Mass media alone cannot do the whole job; there must be some kind of personal support. The media are only vehicles for the transmission of messages. To be effective they must be supplemented by a strong component of social organization and interpersonal communication. 18

4. **Interpersonal Communication Should Be Used Whenever Possible.** Down through the ages, interpersonal communication has been the principal channel of information in the newly emerging nations. Sometimes it is combined with other channels such as drum and smoke signals, puppetry and music. It is important that development campaigns should make use of these traditional and accepted channels of information. This can be done through establishing an infrastructure

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18 Principle 18: A combination of mass media and interpersonal communication is likely to be more effective than either alone.
of influential leaders in the target communities, tied into the media organization.

These channels will enhance the role of media used in development campaigns by providing face-to-face communication, by reaching greater numbers of persons by increasing credibility and by providing needed feedback. 19

5. Traditional Media System Should Be Employed Whenever Possible. As mentioned earlier many developing societies continue to rely on interpersonal communication in spite of the availability of mass media. In some cases, this can be attributed to the lack of credibility of the media (and those who operate it) but more often, to the lack of accessibility of these media to a large proportion of the citizenry.

In most of these countries, before the establishment of modern mass media, there were traditional media systems such as dances, puppet shows, travelling story tellers, and the like. They have, over the years established great credibility among the masses of peasants and workers, and continue to serve vital communication functions. It is highly important, then, to employ these avenues of communication, side by side with the modern mass media. Such traditional systems

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19 Principle 17: Interpersonal communication is the indispensable element of development communication regardless of the media used.
should not be ignored or disregarded. Rather they can be an important source of developmental information.  

6. Media Selection Should Be Based On Relative Cost, Ease of Use, and Simplicity. Leaders of many developing nations may become impressed by the glamour and status represented by the more sophisticated and expensive media such as television and film. This can lead to a major mistake. These complicated media require power sources and expensive facilities often lacking in remote areas. They are also hard to maintain and skilled technicians are usually scarce and not readily available when needed.

Furthermore they are not convenient to use, especially for working people, because they require a special place for viewing and full attention. Radio, on the other hand, can be listened to even during working hours. These factors should be considered carefully in selecting appropriate media in development campaigns.

7. Media Selection Should Be Based on Campaign Goals. Since any campaign/drive should have clearly stated goals, these

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20 Principle 9: Regardless of other media employed, use should be made of traditional communication systems.

21 Principle 40: Low cost, convenient times, ease of use and simplicity of maintenance are accessibility factors which should govern media selection.
objectives become one of the important bases for choosing the media to be employed in the campaign. Goals, of course, directly relate to the audiences to be reached. Hence, planners must consider the best media to achieve specified objectives with particular audiences. Thus teaching farmers to use new strains of rice might indicate use of radio plus picture posters.  

IV. Nature of Media Contents

1. Media Content Must Address Needs and Concerns of Audience. If the media component in development campaigns/drives is to be successful, it must attract and hold the attention of the target audience. To do so, the essential messages must address the existing concerns and in some measure meet the major needs of the intended audience. This assumes, of course, that media planners are aware of the problems, needs, and concerns of the audience and thus can design media content to focus upon them. If the content of the messages addressed to farmers does not relate to their needs and concerns for example, why should they leave their fields in order to listen to someone giving a talk in the village center or to go there to watch a film? Identifying the needs and concerns of the target audience can be done through pre-campaign surveys and through gathering feedback during

22 Principle 34: The nature of the campaign goals is a prime factor in selecting the media channels to be used.
2. Development Messages Should Be Consistent. One of the most important requirements for effective use of media in development campaigns is that the various media messages must be consistent. Regardless of the nature of the campaign, and regardless of the types of media used, the essential information, the major message, the principal goals, must not be in conflict. Rather they should focus upon the same or similar messages over the different media throughout the entire campaign. Constant repetition in altered form increases the effectiveness. 24

3. The Essential Content of Development Messages Should Be Repeated. This idea is closely related to the preceding section dealing with consistency. Here, however, is stressed the importance of repetition with variation of appeals. The essential message remains the same, but it is repeated in varied forms so as to avoid boring the audience. The written messages, for example, can be modified by using different examples of the same fundamental teaching. They can be expressed both visually and orally in different forms. Repetition in

23 Principle 42: The content of the media messages should address the needs and concerns of the target audience.

24 Principle 24: To ensure effective communication, messages on the varied communication channels should be consistent.
varied ways and manners is the key note to effectiveness. This requires innovativeness and creativity in presenting the development message.

4. Media Content Should Be Expressed in Local Idiom and Vernacular. Many of the developing nations such as India, the Philippines and Nigeria, have multi-language populations. This makes the task of communication much more difficult. Mass media planners in these nations must use the local vernacular and idiom in order to attract and affect the target audience, since most of these persons can only be reached in the language they understand and comprehend best. If the transmitted information does not reach them in their own language it is likely to have little effect. To know the locals, to communicate with them and thus to find out their problems, concerns and needs one must know the local vernacular.

5. The Content of the Media Messages Should Be Relevant to Campaign Objectives. Since the first requirement of any campaign/drive is that the goals or objectives be clearly defined, it seems obvious that these objectives should determine the nature of media

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25 Principle 25: Repetition with variation of appeals should characterize the development messages.

26 Principle 21: To ensure that intended verbal messages reach their target audience, use local idiom and vernacular. Principle 22: To ensure effective communication, use the common language of the target audience.
messages. This does not mean these messages cannot be varied in nature. Indeed they should embody many illustrations and examples as well as expressing the principal themes in different forms. What is to be avoided, however, is cluttering up the messages with unrelated materials which may simply obscure the points which are being stressed. This suggests a particular media message should deal only with one of them. If the message is to encourage family planning it should not deal also with the need to become literate. 27

V. Procedures For Research and Evaluation

1. Pre-campaign Research Should Be Conducted. Prior to the start of any campaign, there should be a careful survey of the relevant situation. This research will focus upon needs, concerns and problems of the target audience. It will also reveal the kinds of opposition and other difficulties likely to be encountered during the actual campaign. This research will uncover what is acceptable and what is likely to be rejected in the target group. It will also identify existing and available media already in use which can be employed during campaign. Such preliminary research is almost a basic requirement if a campaign is to be successful. 28

27 Principle 31: Criterion for the content of the media message should be its relevance in achieving campaign objectives.
28 Principle 8: Prior to any campaign, there should be an audience survey in the target area to discover the sort of opposition and/or other difficulties likely to be encountered.
2. A Pilot Project Should Precede Any Large Scale Campaign. Valuable time can often be saved, costly mistakes can be avoided, and effectiveness can be increased if a small-scale pilot project can be conducted in advance of a full-blown campaign. The object, of course, is to try out, on a small sample representative of the target group, the actual procedures and media practices to be followed in the campaign. Thus problems that occur can be identified and the audience reactions to the various measures and media messages can be noted. This can be the basis for modifying the campaign strategies and the medium practices where necessary so as to eliminate or reduce the problems and increase the effectiveness of the total operation. 29

3. Provide for Continuous Feedback. In addition to conducting the pilot project, the campaign itself should be continuously monitored for effectiveness. This can be accomplished by a variety of methods. Local persons, representative of the target group, can be recruited to report regularly their reactions to the various measures including the media messages. Interviews with a sampling of the target group can be conducted at regular intervals. Researchers can meet periodically with local groups to solicit reactions. The feedback collected by these varied methods will enable planners to determine whether messages

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29 Principle 10: A pilot project should proceed any large scale campaign in order to discover difficulties, and to save time, efforts and money.
are reaching the desired audience and the effectiveness of these messages and of other campaign measures. 30

4. Trained Researchers and Flexible Personnel and Structure Required. In order to carry out the essential research studies, it is necessary that trained research personnel be available, capable of conducting, analyzing and interpreting such studies. Relevant equipment, such as calculators and/or computers, and clerical support staff are essential to enable these specialists to be effective in carrying out their significant functions in campaigns/drives. But research is of no value unless it is acted upon. Findings from the various studies will need to be expressed in terms of their implications for campaign strategies and media practices. It is then the task of the campaign administrators to modify their plans in accordance with the research findings. This requires great flexibility both on the part of the personnel and in the organizational structure so that tasks can be altered, responsibilities shifted about, and personnel assigned where needed. 31

30 Principle 9: Regardless of the medium or media used, a mechanism for collecting continuous feedback must be developed.

31 Principle 45: Encourage flexibility in both personnel and structure so as to be able to respond constructively to research and evaluation findings.
5. **Adequate Financial Support Essential.** No campaign/drive can be successful without adequate financial support to enable it to be carried on long enough so that positive results can be anticipated. While the judges differed on this principle, because some would begin a campaign with limited funds hoping, presumably, that additional support would follow, there was no apparent disagreement on the general necessity of adequate financing. Money is obviously required for personnel, media services, supplies, and equipment, travel and communication.

VI. Summary

This generalized model for the use of mass media in development campaigns/drives can be adapted to nationwide efforts or to regional or local programs. It can be utilized in any development goal, i.e., literacy, agricultural improvement, health, family planning, child care, national consciousness. It stresses the essentials for media use in such development efforts: the prerequisites of media institutions and their relationships, the necessary conditions for effectiveness, the bases for media selection, the factors affecting content and the place of research in the total program.

All development campaigns are designed to alter human behavior in what are considered to be socially desirable ways. Thus their success is dependent upon changes and modifications in human behavior. Hence there is required great patience, a considerable
knowledge of local cultures, customs, habits and life styles and 
a very real appreciation of what these mean to the people involved. 
Knowing the audience--their needs, concerns and problems--is a 
prime requirement in designing media messages to meet these 
needs, address these concerns and solve these problems. In addition, 
success in campaigns is dependent in no small measure upon the 
receptivity of the target population, their willingness to accept 
innovation, as they become aware of the long term benefits. Finally 
continuous research and evaluation are indispensible elements in 
any campaign using mass media to influence human behavior.
CHAPTER VIII

LIBYA: THE COUNTRY AND THE PEOPLE

Right after its independence in 1951, Libya was described as one of the poorest and most backward nations of the world. The population at that time was numbered about 1.5 million, over 90% illiterate, and without political experience or knowhow. There were no universities, and only a limited number of high schools none of which had been established more than seven years before independence.¹

This situation was the result of centuries of Turkish domination and Western imperialism. Every effort was made to keep the Arab inhabitants in a servile position rendering them unable to make any progress for themselves or their nation. The worst part of this oppression came during the Italian administration, (1911-1943), when Libyans were not only oppressed by the authorities, but also subjected to the loss of their most fertile land which went to colonists brought in from Italy.

The British and the French who replaced the Italians in 1943 attempted to entrench themselves in the country in diverse ways,

only to fail ultimately through a combination of political events and circumstances beyond the control of any one nation. 2

But if Britain and France were the powers on the ground in Libya, determined to remain there in one way or another, the balance of power in the Mediterranean, as in the Middle East, Pacific, and the Far East, was coming essentially to be controlled by the United States. 3 American troops were stationed on every continent and in scores of countries; among them, Libya. By the end of World War II the United States had spent 100 million dollars on developing Wheelus Airfield, on the outskirts of Tripoli. It was the strongest American base in Africa. 4

The Soviet Union expressed its desire to share in the control of Libya. It argued that as Britain was already in military occupation of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica, and France was in control of Fezzan, the country should be divided into four instead of three parts; with each to be administered by one of the Big Four, and with herself in possession of Tripolitania. 5

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2Ibid., p. 13.


4First, Ruth, op. cit., p. 62.

5Ibid., p. 63.
Even after independence, Libya remained divided into three states: Cyrenaica, Tripolitania, and Fezzan. Only in 1963 was the country unified as one state called the Kingdom of Libya.

Two major events took place in Libya that changed the course of its history. The first event was the discovery of oil in the 1950s. The country moved from being one of the most impoverished, capital-scarce nations of the world with a $40 per capita income in 1950 to a capital surplus nation by early 1970 with $5000 per capita income.  

The second major event which changed the course of history in Libya was the first of September Revolution, which took place September, 1969. This change was brought about by the First of September Revolution. On that day, a group of young army officers seized control of the government and ended the monarchy.

**Social Environment**

It is important here to point out that the family, the clan, the tribe and the village are the basic units of the Libyan society.

The family as the basic unit consists of the father, who is the chief authority, the mother, unmarried sons and daughters, grandparents, grandchildren, uncles and cousins.

As in the rest of the Arab world, the individual in Libya is identified with his family. His good or bad deeds bring collective fame

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or shame to the family and to the tribe. It is the family unit that integrates virtually every aspect of the individual’s life: social, economic and political. It is the family "which socializes the individual into his culture and which bears primary responsibility for his adherence to social norms."  

The family then constitutes the basic unit of the tribe or clan. The family, as well as the clan and tribe, functions as the educational, economic and security-providing organization for its members. This high degree of collectiveness and solidarity cannot be matched in any modern organization. In return, the individual has to obey, respect and preserve the rules and traditions of these social units.  

The leadership of the tribe belongs to the head member of the most powerful family within the most powerful clan. In some cases however, the leader of the tribe may be a member of a less powerful family who is supported by prominent families.  

In a traditional society like Libya, the decision-making is highly authoritative. Leaders of the tribe consult with some of the elders in the tribe and reach a final decision. After a decision is reached, the full support of the members of the tribe is expected.

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7 Palmer, Monte, As quoted by El Fathaly, Omar and others, Political Development and Bureaucracy in Libya, Lexington, Massachusetts, 1977, p. 9.

8 Ibid., p. 9.
Failure to carry out the decisions would threaten the solidarity and communal brotherhood, and eventuality which would challenge the very existence of the traditional individual.

Kinship and collective solidarity are also important factors in the selection of leaders in the traditional Libyan society. According to Al Fathaly, within the immediate unit, the family, all authority and leadership belong to the father, grandfather or elder son. These authorities demand absolute loyalty from family members. To act contrary to the familial leadership is to commit treason and is treated as such. The decision of the leaders must be respected and carried out by all the members.⁹

The selection of leadership of a tribe or clan is based on the prestige, reputation and economic and social status of the family. In this stage the selected leader has to build a good reputation for his clan and family. This is also true when the tribe leader becomes the village leader. This all means that the collective identity of the family extends to the tribal level.

When one family assumes the responsibility of leading a tribe or clan, this leadership usually lasts for a long period because it will be inherited from one generation to the next. According to Hassan (1970), the fact that several families controlled the country and

⁹Ibid., p. 10.
determined the destiny of its people throughout the period of 1952 to 1969, was a logical result of the structure of the Libyan society.  

This family leadership tradition played, and in spite of recent efforts, is still playing, a major role in selecting leadership on the local government level. As reported by El Fathaly, whenever there is competition for leadership or political position among tribes, the support of the candidates will split along tribal lines. The saying, "Weld Kapeletna," (son of our tribe) will be the slogan of the supporters. "Weld Baldna" (son of our village) will be the slogan when the range of competition is wider. "Weld Ayla" or "Weld Bate" (the son of a family) implies certain qualifications such as respectability, trustworthiness, righteousness, courage, religiousness, wealth and belonging to a highly reputable family and tribe. Education, ability and effectiveness are virtually invisible to the electorate.

Religion

Just as the traditional units of family, clan, and tribe are important, so also religion is a significant factor affecting the structure of Libyan society. The overwhelming majority of Libyans are Sunni Muslim Arabs of the Malikite Sect. The Arabs came to Libya in several waves of

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10 Hassan S. Salaheddin, As quoted by El Fathaly, op. cit., p. 11.
11 El Fathaly Omar, op. cit., p. 11.
migration in the seventh, ninth and eleventh centuries A.D. bringing with them Islam and the Arabic language. Islamization preceded Arabization as was the case in most of the other areas of the Middle East and North Africa.

The Mufti holds the highest honorary religious position in the country. The Kady (judge) also holds an important position on the local level and he enjoys an exceptional respect in the local community. The Fakih and Shaik (religious teacher) is the title which is given to certain individuals who possess wisdom and knowledge of general religious affairs. These two titles have great influence in their communities due to their control of the devil spirits, as generally believed by the public. The Ulama (Scientist) is the title given to the most knowledgeable person mainly in Islamic teaching.

The religious institutions and their leaders, according to El Fathaly, have played an important role in the social, educational, and political life of the country and its people. This role has a deep-rooted background, starting from the Ottoman occupation and continuing up to very recent days. The most notable and prolonged effects of religion have been on the leadership and institutions that regulate the society. 12

Together, family ties and religious affiliation have had a great effect on Libyan society. This fact reflects the concentration of

12 Ibid., p. 11.
religious leadership within small groups of families throughout the country. The strong role of religion in a traditional Islamic society like that of Libya, according to El Fathaly, has produced a society with special features. Conservative attitudes have been predominant in every respect. People's values and behavior have been a function of their religious background and attachment: hence, evaluation and acceptance of innovation and change has been subject to religious beliefs and notion. Libyans have looked at the Koran as the source of and guide to action.  

Education

Before 1951, education was largely confined to the framework of traditional Islamic institutions. Schools operated in conjunction with mosques, teaching recitation of the Koran and Islamic rituals. Under the Turkish occupation, education was available only to a few individuals whose families recognized the value of education, or whose family's economic conditions allowed the children to be spared from work. The quality of education and the time devoted to it were very limited.

During the Italian occupation, the major type of education remained religious. Religious (Muslim) schools were established in different areas. But due to the lack of national stability this type of

13Ibid., p. 12.
education was never widespread. In addition to this, it was the policy of the colonial administration to restrict the number of Libyans educated beyond the primary stage, and all teaching was conducted in Italian.\textsuperscript{14} The only way for the few Libyans who desired to continue their education and had the necessary funds, to do so, was to go to Egypt.

Generally speaking, the Libyan society was extremely deprived in education. This fact can be best illustrated by the high illiteracy rate that reached more than 90\%.\textsuperscript{15} Even during the first decade of independence, severe economic problems, regional conflicts of interest, and poor management of the available resources severely handicapped the development of the total enrollment of 32,741, only 537 students were attending secondary and technical schools. There were no girls enrolled in secondary schools, and there were no female primary school teachers. The number of secondary school teachers totaled 25, and only 14 Libyans held university degrees from European and Egyptian universities.\textsuperscript{16} It was not until 1959 that the first university degrees were awarded to a

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\textsuperscript{16}Nyrop, R. op. cit., p. 116.
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The unexpected wealth that came about by the discovery of oil in the 1960s changed the economic situation of the country. As a result, most of the economic obstacles to education were eliminated. Since then, schools were built in many different areas, educational facilities were expanded, more colleges were established in the university of Libya and more vocational schools have been opened.

The revolutionary regime realized the importance of education and continued the qualitative expansion of the educational system. It brought about tremendous changes in the quality and level of education. For example, in 1971 the Libyan government spent 13.5% of all public expenditure on education. The government built new schools in rural and remote areas and more teachers colleges were established in many regions. The University of El Fatih was also established with more colleges in different fields. Overseas scholarships were provided for a huge number of Libyan students, both graduates and undergraduates, in the many fields that were not offered in Libyan universities. The government also tried to relate the educational system to current and future needs of the nation. One major area on which the government is currently trying to focus attention, is

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17 Ministry of Planning Publication as quoted by El Flathaly, Omar, op. cit., p. 13.

vocational and technical training to provide the country with the most needed skilled personnel in all fields. The compulsory education period has been increased to nine years of successful schooling. There is also a new trend to develop graduate level education in higher institutions.

There are also great increases in school attendance and in school funding. For example, at the university level the attendance in 1958-1959 was 342 students and in 1975-1976 reached the high of 11,117. The government funding also increased from $51,000,000 in 1969-1970 to $204,000,000 in 1974. Schools have also increased in number from 1,265 in 1968-1969 to 2,214 in 1973-1974. However, higher levels of education have not experienced the same rapid growth. The high percentage of dropouts after the first grades of primary school affected the enrollment in higher levels. For example less than eleven percent of the total number of students enrolled in primary schools go to preparatory schools, 2.4 percent go to secondary schools, 0.09 percent go to vocational schools, 1.1 percent go to teacher training institutions, and only 1.5 percent reached the university.\(^\text{19}\)

It is believed that mass education plays an important role in economic modernization and in the process of political change. To carry on any strategy plan without education is totally impractical.

\(^{19}\)El Fathly, Omar, op. cit., p. 14.
In Libya the major problem has been the severe shortage of skilled, well-trained personnel in all fields. There is a great number of projects that are undertaken by the new plan which require a huge number of skilled laborors. In 1964 there were 17,000 non-Libyans working in the economy. By 1973 the figure had jumped to 80,000. In the last quarter of 1973 foreigners were coming into the economy at the rate of 5,000 a month. Each year about 22,000 newcomers join the labor force. A ministerial committee on employment found that fewer than one Libyan in three had been educated above the elementary level or had vocational skills. The annual shortage of skilled labor was estimated at 6,000 persons even without any replacement of non-Libyan workers. The more large projects are added to the development plan, the more this pattern is confirmed.

Urbanization

As a result of the discovery of oil many people from the rural areas moved into the cities. Tripoli and Benghazi have been the two major urban centers which attracted most of the rural population. The factors responsible seem to be: the anticipation of higher wages, immediate cash, and better living conditions plus the lack of modern facilities such as education, communication and so on in the rural areas. According to El Fathaly:

20 First, Ruth, op. cit., p. 184.
This one way movement has led to deterioration of the already deficient agricultural sector and has aggravated the condition of housing, transportation, and other services which were already behind in meeting the needs of the original city dwellers in both cities. New ideas were passed along to the immigrants less easily than expected because of shortcomings in services and communication systems. 21

At the present time efforts are being made to create favorable environments in the rural areas and reverse the immigration movement. Agricultural projects have been undertaken in many areas in which a farmer who participates gains his own farm equipped with the latest features, such as a tractor and other farm machinery, health care, a new home, running water and electricity. He in turn pays a yearly specified amount of money without any interest. Such a settlement enables farmers to develop their own communities and makes the task of the media a bit easier.

However, it seems quite feasible that a well organized media system can play a major role in decreasing tribalism and in arousing and strengthening feelings of unity and nationness among the Libyan people. At the same time, in looking at the development of mass media in Libya, we can see why the present media system has been unable until now, to achieve such a goal.

21 op. cit.
CHAPTER IX

MASS MEDIA IN LIBYA: A BRIEF BACKGROUND

As stated earlier, Libya has been subject to many different powers for a long time. For example, the Ottomans ruled Libya for about 360 years. Such long time rules resulted in the current delay in Libyan development in many fields. Right after the Ottomans, the Italians ruled the country for 41 years after which the British and the French had their shares. In 1951 Libya had its first Libyan government even though the foreign military presence was apparent and many people resented such government.

In tracing the history of the Libyan mass media it is very difficult to locate any relevant materials. The only written material in English is a 1973 thesis on the development of newspapers in Libya between 1866 and 1972, based on an Arabic book by Mustafa Ali Al-Musrati, historian, journalist and poet. Gashut, who graduated from the University of Kansas with a Masters in Journalism and was later the Libyan Ambassador to the U.S., listed different factors as reasons for the difficulty of collecting information with regard to the press development in Libya:

1. There is no national library in the Libyan Arab Republic that keeps copies of all publications.
2. Libyan public libraries do not keep complete collections of newspapers. In fact, they give only secondary attention to preserving newspapers.

3. The country was divided into three parts for a long time and many newspapers that appeared in one part did not reach the other parts.

4. The country witnessed a long period of foreign domination that resulted in confiscation and persecution of national newspapers and their editors and destruction of newspaper collections.

5. The short duration of most newspapers, the small number of copies they printed and the low circulation resulting from the unstable political, economic and educational condition made a complete collection of any available paper impossible. In fact, some papers' copies were lost completely.1

If the above reasons are characteristic of the print medium, what about the broadcast media? The only sources of information about the development of broadcasting are those people who, at one time or another, had some association with these media. These people were requested by this investigator, to contribute information based on their experience, but unfortunately only one person responded. It should be noted that these persons are presently in different countries either as ambassadors or in other diplomatic jobs in various embassies.

Nevertheless, some scarce information has been gathered from students who worked for Libyan broadcasting and are now studying in the United States and from Farage Sherief, a pioneer in the radio station.

Even though it is not the purpose of this study to trace the history of Libyan mass media, such information will give the reader a view of the different stages the mass media went through to reach its present condition. It will contribute to an appreciation of the development of Libyan mass media from its beginning.

This is only a brief background. Only significant publications will be mentioned. All the information with regard to the development of newspapers in Libya is based upon the thesis by Gashut, Shaban previously mentioned.

The first newspaper to appear in Libya was in 1866 after some 315 years of Turkish rule. This newspaper was published in the Turkish language and was a government publication. Even though it was published in Libya, it was not until after one year of publication that the newspaper started to appear in both Arabic and Turkish. The newspaper carried government announcement, decrees, orders and news of official travels. It was called Tarabulus Gharab.

The second newspaper appeared in 1869. This was Salnamah (a Turkish word for calendar). This paper also was a government newspaper.²

Additional newspapers appeared from time to time during the Ottoman rule. The first privately owned Libyan newspaper was

²Ibid., p. 24.
Attaraqi (Progress). Its first issue appeared in Tripoli on June 26, 1897. This newspaper ceased publication for political reasons. At that time all the other publications were government ones.

During the rest of the Ottoman rule 18 newspapers began publication. Some of these newspapers were published outside Libya in places such as Egypt and Turkey. These papers were printed in such languages as Turkish, French and Italian.

It should be noted that the general lack of education of the people, the Turkish tyranny and the low standard of living contributed to the unhealthy history of the press in Libya.

According to Gashute, the brightest and the richest journalistic era during the Turkish rule was that of 1908-1911. At that time the Ottoman constitution was proclaimed and some freedom was granted to the people of the Turkish-ruled states, including Libya. Permits for at least seven newspapers were issued to Tripoli and the press began to flourish and prosper. Unfortunately, the Italians attacked the country and occupied Tripoli in October, 1911. The Turks were too weak to defend Tripoli and the journalists joined the battle against the aggressor not through the print medium but by bearing arms. Newspapers therefore, were closed down for many years, leaving a gap that contributed to the delay in the growth of the Libyan Press.

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3Ibid., p. 27.
The press situation under the Italians was not much different from that under the Turks. As early as 1912 there were a few Italian-supported newspapers such as *Barid Tarablus* (Tripoli Post). This newspaper was published in Arabic and Italian. It received financial support from the Italian government. In return the newspaper published governmental decrees and propaganda.\(^4\)

The first truly Libyan newspaper under the Italian rule was *Alliwa Attarabulsi* (Tripolitanian Flag). This newspaper was considered the first political paper in the country. It was the official mouthpiece of Hazib Alislah Alwatani (National Reform Party), which was organized in Tripoli in 1918. This paper ceased publication as a result of the Italian attack on Tripoli.\(^5\)

At any rate the state of the press in Libya between 1918 and 1922 was similar to that during the period between 1908 and 1911. Old newspapers reappeared and new ones found the climate conducive for publication.

Except for the *Tripoli Post* which was government supported, the country remained without Arabic newspapers for about nine years, until 1918, when newspapers began to appear again as a result of what was called *The Principal Law for Tripolitania* as granted by Italy.\(^6\)

\(^4\)Ibid., p. 46.  \(^5\)Ibid., p. 48.  \(^6\)Ibid., p. 51.
As a result of that law Alliwa reappeared again and for the first time in Benghazi Al Balag and Al Watan appeared in 1920. These two papers did not last long due to government pressure and financial problems. Nothing can cause the decline of the press faster than censorship, especially when combined with mechanical and financial difficulties.

After the defeat of the Italians in World War II, Libya became a subject of England and France. Two Libyan newspapers, Benghazi and Tarabulus Al Gharab, began publication at that period. The Benghazi newspaper was renamed Barqa Al Jadida, (New Cyrenaica) and both newspapers continued publications until 1951 when they were turned over to the Libyan government.7

Under the Libyan government the situation was not much different as far as the press was concerned. There was no press law except those regulations issued during the British administration before independence. In fact the first press law was issued in 1959, eight years after Libya became independent.

In addition to the political pressure on the press, there were several other factors that affected the growth of healthy newspapers. These were the high illiteracy rate, the low per capita income, the small number of subscribers and the lack of capital, equipment and journalistic and technical experience.

7Ibid., p. 57.
The new Libyan government established four newspapers; two in Tripoli, one in Benghazi, and a fourth in Sebha. These newspapers were the mouthpieces for the government.

The 1950s were not as productive as the 1960s in number of newspapers, their circulation and even in their form and content. The growth in the national economy and in per capita income in the 1960s had a great effect on the newspaper movement. The importation of modern printing presses for government uses, as well as for newspapers and commercial businesses and the increasing number of technicians, journalists and readers, resulting from the increases in literacy and the growth in the number of educational institutions, helped in the establishment of new modern newspapers and in the improvement of old ones, both in form and content.  

News Sources

Before the establishment of the Libyan News Agency in 1964, radio was the main source of national and international news. Libyan Radio had its main studios in Tripoli and Benghazi. It also had a studio in El Beida which was the center of government activities. All news bulletins prepared in Tripoli were sent by teleprinters to Benghazi, a distance of more than 600 miles.

8Ibid., p. 65.
Copies of all news bulletins, both national and international, broadcast by radio, were made available to the newspapers in Tripoli and Benghazi. Broadcasting was the only medium employing a relatively large journalistic staff dealing with both foreign and home news.  

At that time there were fifteen newspapers, six in Benghazi, eight in Tripoli, and one in Sebha. Later, the number was reduced to only two dailies, both of which were published in Tripoli. One reason for that, undoubtedly, was the lack of an organized, regular supply of foreign and domestic news. The majority of newspapers depended entirely upon news summaries prepared by the broadcast service. These new summaries were prepared for radio rather than newspapers.

It was not until late 1964, that the first Libyan News Agency was established with the assistance of UNESCO. The objectives of the news agency were to cover local news, including summaries and statistics of domestic, economic, industrial and social development; to provide news about Libya to foreign countries, to report news of particular interest to Libya about foreign countries; to cover news of interest to the Arab region about other countries, including important world news; and to make available political, economic, financial, social and cultural summaries from other news agencies.

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10 Ibid., p.
The news agency started with the main office in Tripoli. Later a branch in Benghazi became a major office. It established an office in El Beida, and in Sebha. Other offices were opened in other cities in the country. The agency realized the importance of world events and was aware of the distortion and the monopoly characteristics of international news agencies. It established offices overseas in the main cities of Europe, the Middle East and some African countries. At the present time the news agency is a member both of the African News Agencies and the Arab News Agencies. The Libyan News Agency also has affiliation with all major international news agencies.

The growth of radio in Libya is not as deep rooted as is the print medium. Radio broadcasts which were inaugurated by the Italian and the British were designed to serve the natives of both colonial powers.

During the Italian occupation (1911) until 1949 there was one shortwave radio service in Libya.\(^\text{11}\) It was called Rome Radio Station. As with everything else, the radio service was operated by the Italian government.

After the Italian occupation came the British occupation in 1949 which established a British radio station, located in Benghazi.

The Forces Broadcasting Service broadcast in English and provided 15 minutes daily in Arabic during which time the Koran and brief news were broadcast. 12

During the early days of independence the country remained without its own radio service. Libyans in the vicinity of Tripoli could receive programs from the American Air Force Radio and Television Services at Wheelus Air Force Base. 13 In the summer time many people who owned television sets could also pick up Italian television programs.

In the far Eastern part of the country the British had a similar radio station in Tobruk intended solely to serve the British troops in the city.

However, during the early years of Libyan independence, the British lengthened their Arabic programming to a full hour a day. It included the Koran, women's programming, student affairs and music. The radio station broadcast from a trailer located in a British Army Base in Benghazi. The British Embassy in Benghazi was responsible for the total operation. 14

Later the American Embassy took a part in the management of the radio station. It prepared a number of programs and provided

13 El Gabri, op. cit., p. 23.
14 El Sharif, Faraj, op. cit.
two anchormen. The British broadcast for five days a week while the Americans broadcast two days a week.

During the early days of the Government of Cyrenica Province, the Print and Publication Management began to censor certain political programs. This station was called Benglazi Wireless Broadcast Station, but it was just a repetition of the news broadcast by London and Washington.  

In 1955, UNESCO conducted a preliminary survey of Libya following the meeting on Development of Information in Africa. UNESCO gave substantial assistance through Mr. Lloyd Summerlad in starting a Libyan broadcasting service which got on the air in 1957.

In 1956 when Egypt was invaded by Israel and England, the national radio station was almost closed. The reason was that the Libyan broadcaster read some news obtained from Radio Cairo which was not allowed. Right after that incident both the British and the American Embassies passed on the management of the service to the Ministry of Communication which made the Minister the manager of the station.

15 Ibid.

16 Shwaeb, Suliman, op. cit., p. 8.

17 Head, S., op. cit., p. 29.

18 El Sharif, Faraj, op. cit.
The present radio stations in Tripoli and Benghazi were constructed by an American Company with German engineers in 1959. The development of Libyan broadcasting went through three stages.

First Stage: 1957-1961

In 1957 the first Libyan radio station was established in Tripoli. It started with three hours daily including the Koran, news and music. In the same year a similar station was established in Benghazi to cover the eastern part of the country. The Tripoli transmission was 5 KW and the Benghazi transmission was 10 KW.

Second Stage: 1962-1968

In 1962 the radio station came under the Ministry of Information and Guidance which was established in August 1962. In 1963 a decree was adopted to limit the role of the radio stations to presenting the policy of the country based on the plans developed by the Minister of Information and Guidance.

In the same year the transmission power was increased to 100 KW for each station. New studios were established in Benghazi, Tripoli and Berda. In 1964, new departments were established by decree. These departments were: news, programming, acting, music, coordination and the archives. During that year a selected group of the station’s employees were sent abroad for training in the
different aspects of broadcasting.\(^{19}\)

As a result of the increased power, the radio stations were capable of reaching more people than before. In addition, the first Libyan television station was opened in 1968. The British Broadcasting Corporation gave substantial help, sending 26 staff members to assist the launching of television.\(^{20}\)

**Third Stage: 1969-1973**

In September 1969 a young military officer took over the leadership of the country. The first thing the new government did was to improve the mass media situation. A new broadcast house was established, new equipment was imported and many young Libyans were sent abroad to study the different aspects of mass communication. The first school of communication was established in 1975-1976 at Garyounis University in Benghazi.

In addition to the technological improvement, the transmission time was increased. The regular broadcasting time now extends from 7:00 a.m. until midnight. Other programs in English

\(^{19}\) The Libyan Arab Republic, A Brief Background on the Broadcasting System in L. A. R., A Pamphlet in Arabic published by the Public Relations Department of the Popular Revolution Broadcasting Corporation, Circa, 1975.

\(^{20}\) Head, S. op. cit., p. 29.
and French are broadcast from 4:30 p.m. until 9:30 p.m. Other special programs are carried during the Tripoli International Fair in Arabic, English and French.

Television transmission began with three hours a day, then increased to four, and now is five hours daily from 7:00 p.m. until midnight. The programs include a variety of religious, educational, news and entertainment material on three different channels: Channel 6 in Tripoli, Channel 5 in Benghazi, Channel 9 in Sebha.

In addition new relay stations have been established at Mesrata, Khumes, Derna, Berda, Muraj and Tobruk which enable the television transmissions to cover the entire country.

In 1973, as a result of the Popular Revolution, the broadcast media were given their own popular committee with the highest authority.

In December 1973 a new shortwave radio was established under the name of the Arab Voice. It transmits three hours in Arabic directed to the Arab World. The domestic Arabic radio service is now more than 18 hours per day. Programs are originated in two locations: Benghazi and Tripoli. Such programs are transmitted with the support of several transmitters located in different parts of the country. Now there are two super-power medium wave transmitters rated at 1,000 KW each.
The Libyan Broadcast Service is a member of the Arab Broadcast Union and the European Broadcasting Union.\textsuperscript{21}

The other important medium in Libya is film but unfortunately little information is available. All films are imported. The majority came from Egypt and Lebanon, but some American and Japanese movies are available. In 1969 there were 43 film theaters with an average weekly audience of 500,000.

Domestic film production is under government auspices. It includes short films on the country's archaeological and scenic attractions and, more recently, on the achievement of many agricultural projects. One film, produced in Libya, has had worldwide recognition. Entitled, "The Messenger," it included top actors from the United States and from the Arab World and was produced in both English and Arabic. One other similar film is under way in Libya.

Since March 1978 the system of government in Libya has been changed. The former government system was abolished. Now the People's Congress is composed of all chairmen of the different popular committees who are elected on the level of the city and the level of the village. This Congress in its initial meeting elected the Secretary of the People's Congress.

At the present time there are six different newspapers. One of them is published daily which is Al Fajar Al Jadeed (The News Dawn); the others are weekly and bi-monthly. At the present time, the print medium in Libya is turning toward specialized publications. For example there will be a newspaper devoted solely to agriculture and edited by specialists in the field. Similarly each profession is expected to have its own publication.

Finally, in spite of the huge amount of financial investment in all of the mass media in Libya, they (mass media) are unable to achieve much success. One of the reasons appears to be the absence of research and the lack of information feedback. The information flow at the present time is almost entirely one way. The other reason is the lack of specialized personnel in the field. Most of those who are in charge of the mass media are without the necessary specialized educational background. Some have worked in a newspaper for a long time or have had practical experience but lack theoretical education and are not concerned with the way their work is perceived by their audience.

What is needed at this stage is a strategy by which the communication cycle in Libya can be developed to enable both the media planner and the audience to communicate with one another rather than being limited to a one-way flow of communication.
A previous chapter developed a generalized model for media use in national development which, it is believed, could be applied, with appropriate modifications, in any emerging country. In this chapter it is proposed to apply the model to a specific nation—the Socialist Peoples Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. This north African country was chosen because it is the native land of the investigator and he is most familiar with its background and current situation. It is believed that this application to a particular situation will constitute one test of its usefulness in the utilization of mass media in developmental programs.

Certain arbitrary decision had to be made in order to develop this specific model. The first decision was that the model would represent a long-time structure for media use in development, rather than be fashioned to serve only for one particular campaign over a relatively limited time.

The second decision was to build a model that could be utilized in relation to any or all development campaigns which
might be initiated by the Socialist Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. Thus the model could serve a campaign for the improvement of agriculture, for the reduction of illiteracy, for the recruitment of industrial workers, or whatever development program might be planned.

The Libyan Situation

There are four factors which are distinctive to the Libyan situation and affect the mass media model. The first is the presence of abundant financial resources to underwrite any reasonable mass media plan. Libya is a relatively small country in population (two and a half million) with enormous oil resources. A large share of this income is devoted to national development.

A second factor is the dearth of trained personnel in practically all fields, but particularly in mass communication. While many potential leaders have been selected for advanced training, many of them going abroad, essential posts are present filled by specialists from more advanced countries. Thus, the mass media are centralized in Tripoli and Benghazi because there are simply not enough competent professionals to localize the media.

A third factor is the tribal character of Libyan society. This tribalism plays a major role in many political and social events. Tribal rivalries have significant implications for the use of mass
media. One of the Jamahiriya's long time goals is to achieve loyalty to the broad concept termed "Arab Unity." However, if such a goal, which goes beyond tribe and nation, is to be achieved, the Jamahiriya must succeed in overcoming these internal tribal divisions. One means toward this end would be to use mass media effectively and wisely for this purpose.

A fourth factor affecting the model is the nature of the governing process recently adopted in the country. The intent is to enable the Libyan people to become active participants in all important decisions, including national and international affairs. Each community-village, city, rural neighborhood, profession, or syndicate--has its local congress. These congresses propose items for the agenda of the General People's Congress. The secretariat of the People's Congress formulate the major agenda through the common items from the many local congresses.

Also the secretaries of the different popular committees and the delegates from the local congresses and associations meet (annually to act on the various national needs. These delegates or rapporteurs bring to these meetings the recommendations of the people. All action decisions then come from this overall People's Congress. Thus, the national development projects originate there and are delegated to the proposed National Planning Committee for National Development. This group consists of the Ministers of
relevant areas: Agriculture, Health, Education, Information, etc.

**Libyan Mass Media Institutions**

As noted in a previous chapter (Chapter IX), the principal mass media are already institutionalized in Libya. Both television and radio cover most of the nation. While transmitters are located wherever needed to provide signals for the entire country, operations are centralized in the national capital, Tripoli. This procedure requires less staff than would be the case if broadcasting were localized. Since there is at present a shortage of trained personnel, this seems to be a practical solution.

The press, too, is well established and highly centralized. Daily, weekly, and bi-monthly newspapers are published in Tripoli. Some of these papers are published by different unions, including those of the students and teachers and the like. There is no local press, again because of the shortage of trained journalists.

Film theatres are also in regular operation in Libya. They run imported films since there is little or no film production in the country. At present the remote areas have no theatres; they exist only in the larger communities.

There is no problem in Libya in ensuring cooperation between the mass media organizations and the government. The government
owns and operates radio, television, newspapers and film. Administration of these facilities is the responsibility of the Minister/Secretary of Information. The staffs of these organizations report to this Minister/Secretary.

The Proposed Organization for Media Use

As noted above, national development projects which originate in the General People's Congress are delegated to the National Planning Committee for National Development. This group, in turn, assigns a National Task Force to carry out the project. Such a task force consists of specialists from the appropriate secretariat; i.e., a health project is assigned to a task force appointed by the Minister/Secretary of Health, and so on.

Attached to, and reporting to, the National Planning Committee for National Development, it is proposed that there be a National Planning Committee for Media Utilization, chaired by the Minister/Secretary of Information. The directors of all of the media organizations (radio, television, film, press, traditional media) and the Director of the Centralized Research Center would make up the committee membership. This committee, in cooperation with the task force, would plan the media support activities which would be carried out throughout the campaign/drive including the choice of appropriate media based upon the research outlined below. These activities also
include the necessary research to be conducted before, during and after the campaign.

Much of this research would be carried out by local research units, which, it is proposed, would be set up, one in each of the 45 municipalities. Each unit would consist of one or more researchers (depending on the size of the municipalities), one or more female assistants,\(^1\) one or more local coordinators\(^2\) and secretaries.

A local research unit would collect general background information regarding the municipality, including not only the usual demographics, but also with regard to media accessibility, media saturation, and media habits. Additionally it would keep current on local customs, including taboos, and the status of traditional media. When a particular campaign/drive is scheduled it would gather data regarding the needs, interests, concerns and problems of the local target group relevant to the specific subject of the campaign/drive.

During the course of the campaign, the local research unit would periodically conduct appropriate studies to collect feedback indicating to the planners the relative effectiveness both of the campaign itself and the media messages.

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\(^1\)In the Libyan society females are traditionally isolated from males, so that data from females has to be secured by female assistants.

\(^2\)To provide local background.
Results and data from all of these studies would be reported to the Centralized Research Center, the national coordinating group which would be responsible for planning the research to be carried out in connection with the various development efforts on the one hand, and for coordinating the data from the local research studies and reporting the results, the implications and the recommendations to the National Planning Committee for Media Utilization and the specific task force, through the Director of the Centralized Research Center, on the other.

Communication between the Centralized Research Center and the local research units would be facilitated by holding regular meetings (perhaps every three months) of the heads of the 45 units with the Director and staff of the national center. Here difficulties and problems would be discussed, new methodologies introduced, and future plans considered.

Media Operations

Since, in Libya, the necessary media institutions are in place --broadcasting is in continuous operation, newspapers are published regularly, films are continuously being shown, and the traditional media are in constant use--the model proposes only the augmentation and supplementation of staff and facilities in order to harness the media effectively to each campaign as it gets under way. It is proposed that in each media institution there be established a campaign branch to be
staffed by the necessary specialized personnel and supporting clerical personnel to carry on the needed extra programming that each development effort requires. In radio, for example, they would implement the plans of the National Planning Committee for Media Utilization by writing, producing, and coordinating the appropriate campaign messages. Similarly the campaign branch in the newspaper field would write, edit, and arrange appropriate placement for, campaign messages whether in news columns, editorial comment or display advertisements. In most cases additional equipment would also be required -- audio tape recorders video-tape recorders, supplementary studio space, typewriters--as well as necessary offices.

Coordination of the various media efforts would be the responsibility of the particular task force working closely with the National Planning Committee for Media Utilization which includes, it will be remembered, the directors of all the media organizations. Backing up these operations will be the reports from the on-going research as these are analyzed and then passed over to the task force and the Media Use Committee.

Limitations of the Model

The most obvious limitation of this proposed model is its failure to involve local people from the 45 municipalities in the media planning and operations. While the local research units will
gather needed data regarding the target audiences, participation by representative local inhabitants is not provided for in planning or in operations. This is not included because of the shortage of the personnel needed to recruit and train such persons. It will be noted here as a high priority since it violates several of the validated principles for effective media use.

Summary

An in-place model for Libya is proposed which would be able to handle media use for each and every development campaign as they are authorized.

It is believed that this proposed model for media use in national development is in compliance with most of the validated principles identified in this study and that it follows the generalized model previously described although presented in less detail. It does fail to provide for local representation in media planning and in media operations, but this is placed in a position of high priority as more specialized media personnel become available in Libya.

The model provides for a National Planning Committee for Media Utilization which reports directly to a proposed National Planning Committee for National Development. The media committee is serviced by the media institutions (radio, television, press, film, traditional media) and by a Centralized Research Center. Research
planned by the center is carried on by local research units in 45
municipalities, results being analyzed and reported by the centralized
center.

Campaigns/drives originate in the General Peoples Congress
which delegates responsibility to the Planning Center for National
Development. Here a task force is assigned, which works with the
Committee for Media Utilization where research is authorized and
media operations are planned and set into motion. Continuous
monitoring of a campaign is provided for by periodic feedback studies
by the local research units, which feed the data through the Centralized
Center for processing and analysis, from which results go to the task
force and the National Media Committee.
Proposed Organization For Media Use
In National Development

The General People's Congress

National Planning Committee for National Development Consists Of
Ministers/Secretaries of All Relevant Areas
(Education, Information, Agriculture, Health, etc.)

Development Task Forces

National Planning Committee for Media Utilization Minister/
Secretary of Information, Chairman
Directors of Media Institutions
Director of Centralized Research Center

Operations
Radio Television Print Film
Traditional Media

Centralized Research Center
Director
Research Workers
Clerical Personnel

The Citizenry
(specific Target Audiences)

Local Research Units
(in 45 Municipalities)
Each Consists of:
1 or more research workers
1 or more female assistants
1 or more local coordinator
clerical personnel
CHAPTER XI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The use of mass media in national development has become an important practice among emerging nations. An increasing number of these countries has realized the important role mass media can play in motivating, informing and instructing their peoples. To use mass media effectively, however, certain principles that are becoming apparent from years of experience, need to be followed.

Fortunately, these principles can be derived from the written literature of mass communications and development, and from the reports on media use in developing nations. In this study, a thorough review was undertaken of relevant literature including reports of experiments using mass media in developing nations. During this research, a considerable number of these basic principles for media use in developing nations was identified and formally expressed. To ensure the accuracy of these principles, and to validate their usefulness, a jury of selected experts in the field of mass communication and development reacted to them in terms of validity and importance. Then a generalized model, based on these principles, for media use in
developing nations, was designed. The final step was to apply the model to Libya, the author's country, as an example of its usefulness.

The selection of the members of the validating jury was based on their contribution and experience in the field of mass communications and development. Specifically the selection was based on these criteria: (1) they were represented in the literature either by research reports or by authoritative accounts of development projects, (2) they had experience, either alone or in association with others, with mass media in developing countries, and (3) they had themselves been engaged in development projects in emerging nations.

A random sample was drawn from the original population of 75 persons who met the above mentioned criteria. This sample comprised sixteen experts to each of whom a letter was mailed requesting their participation in validating the proposed principles. In addition, the letters included an abstract of the study, an explanation of what would be expected of them and a specified date on which a telephone call would be placed to assure each expert's consent.

One week later, after the telephone calls, it was determined that five of the selected experts were unavailable. Therefore, five others were chosen from the list and they agreed to serve.

The list of the 46 principles was mailed to each expert along with a self-addressed, stamped envelope. Two experts were ultimately dropped because they wanted more specific details about the study and
felt they could react only as the principles were expressed in terms of specific situations. In addition, two members' replies came after the set deadline. Therefore, only twelve experts' responses were analyzed (75%) of the original sixteen.

Using a Lickert scale technique, these experts rated each principle on its relative validity and on its relative importance. Many of them also wrote in comments about the listed principles. The responses were then analyzed by assigning weightings, and one principle #26 was eliminated due to its ambiguity as revealed by the comments. An arbitrary cut-off point was chosen and as a result 13 principles did not qualify either in validity or in importance, or both. The validated principles were then listed in rank order and individually discussed. A generalized model for media use in developing nations was then designed based on the validated principles.

The purpose here was to present an overall model that could be adapted to fit the differing situation among the developing nations. The proposed model is a representation of the components deemed most necessary in utilizing mass media in development efforts. It is not any exact program that can be followed in specific detail; rather it is a highly flexible guide that can be useful in planning the use of media in a variety of development programs in countries with varying characteristics and at different stages of development.
The final step was to show the usefulness of the model when applied to a single nation, Libya. A long time plan for media use in Libya was developed in terms of the special characteristics of that country. In addition the model had to fit realistically the present dynamic situation of that nation. The investigator chose Libya as an example not only because he is a citizen of that country, but also because he will be one of those who will participate in using media for national development in Libya.

Conclusion

1. The literature of national development—both research and descriptive accounts—provides a valuable, experiential base for identifying guiding principles for future development efforts.

2. The 32 identified and validated basic principles for media use in national development can serve as a reliable guide in any developing country. They can guide initial planning or serve as a check list on the adequacy of media arrangements in an on-going development program.

These principles are a distillation of the reported experience of media use in a variety of nations in Asia, Latin America, Africa and the Middle East. They are not merely theoretical but have come out of the successes and failures of efforts to use media in many types of campaigns/drives including agricultural practices,
family planning, child care, literacy, health and sanitation. Additionally outstanding specialists in development have attested to the validity of these principles—further evidence of their dependability and usefulness.

3. The generalized mode, based on the validated principles, can provide guidance to national planners in employing the various media effectively in development campaigns of short or long duration. The model is simply a means of expressing in logical fashion, the prerequisites and the procedures for using media in accordance with the principles. It is purposely general because it must fit countries large or small, of differing cultural histories and traditions, in varied stages of development.

4. The use of mass media for motivation and persuasion is governed by the same basic principles whether in a developing country or in a developed country. Many of these validated principles are identical or similar to those found in the literature of communication in industrialized nations such as the United States, Japan or Britain. Presumably this is because human nature is much the same everywhere, regardless of surface differences.

5. Traditional media involving interpersonal communication when combined with mass media are more effective than mass media alone, in national development. Early administrators of development programs tended to follow western models and neglected the modes
of communication which had long served the people. They overemphasized the "big" and expensive media and paid little or no attention to simpler and more primitive forms of communication. More recent experience indicates clearly that a combination of the old and new media is more effective.

6. A thorough working knowledge of the target audience, their participation in planning, and their continuous feedback throughout a campaign using media, is more important in a traditional society than in a developed country. This is true because there is a greater cultural disparity between the educated "elites" who plan and operate development efforts and the peasants and workers who are the targets of such drives.

Recommendations

1. The generalized model for media use in national development should be tried out on a limited basis in a developing country. This might involve a simple campaign in a limited geographical area. Careful documentation should be made of the whole project accompanied by detailed evaluation. This would be a practical test of the model's usefulness.

2. Mass media use should be an integral part of any national development effort in developing nations. In many developing countries the population is geographically isolated. Such isolation makes
impossible total dependence upon face-to-face communication. Here is where the mass media can play the role of agent for disseminating developmental information. Such information can be in the field of health care, education, family planning and so on. Clearly, each developing nation should make use of its mass media systems for its own national development.

3. Media selection should be based on their availability, accessibility, ease and convenience of use, and simplicity of maintenance rather than on the purported effectiveness of particular media. As it became evident from the study (supported by the experts), these are the basic requirements for selection of media to be used in national development. These are the factors that determine the size of the audience—the number likely to be reached. Any medium cannot be useful unless it is actually used—unless there are actual persons in the audience.

4. Campaign using mass media should be evaluated on a regular basis to determine their effectiveness. Such research is the only way of determining the success or failure of media campaigns. These studies should be conducted on a continuous bases. To ensure accurate feedback, local personnel should be involved in collecting such information.

5. Development of local human resources, particular technicians, specialists and professional, should be one of the prime
goals of national development. Lack of trained personnel is one of the major obstacles preventing positive growth. Dependence on foreign workers and imported specialists may be an immediate solution but permanent development requires the education and training of the country's own people.

6. Because there are common problems facing developing nations in using their mass media in national development, greater use should be made of other nations' experience and expertise.

The financial, human and material resources for using mass media development are and will remain limited while the need for media use is increasing. Mass media planners in developing nations should cooperate in solving similar problems their nations face. Such sharing and working together can include the exchange of experts, methodology, strategies, programs and the like. While significant differences do exist among the developing nations, and each has different needs, these differences are far outweighed by the commonalities of national development's problems.

7. The support for media use in national development is a responsibility that should be shared jointly by the international agencies, the government of the specific nation and by the society of that nation.

The people of developing nations are the direct beneficiaries of any media campaign. Clearly a better living standard is in the
interest of the society, its government and ultimately the international development agencies. These activities which bring about improvement in the life standards of the developing people should receive support. Any improvement in the mass media system is to the people's benefit. Therefore, adequate support should be granted to any media use in national development. International agencies, of course, should monitor and evaluate the campaigns using mass media which receives their support.

8. Additional research is needed as to the specific role that mass media plays in bringing about changes in attitudes and behaviors in development efforts. Are they a motivating influence? Do they simply supply needed information? Do they present role models to be emulated? Do they teach specific skills?
APPENDIX I

Description of Study Sent to Validating Experts
GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR MEDIA USE
IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

A Ph.D. Dissertation Study by Suliman Shwaeb

The purpose of this study is to identify and validate basic principles for the use of mass media in national development. These principles will be derived from research reports in the field of mass communication and development and also from other writings reporting the experience of developing countries with the use of mass media.

These principles will be validated by a panel of carefully selected experts in the field of mass communication and development. The principles, functionally categorized, will be mailed to the panel members, arranged in a scaled form calling for two judgments with regard to each principle: (1) the relative validity, and (2) the relative importance in the development process. Comments and additions will be invited.

From these principles a generalized model will be constructed as a general guide for the use of mass media in national development in emerging nations.

Finally, the model will be applied to Libya as a test for fit. The investigator chose his own country for the application because of his intimate knowledge of that nation, and because, on his return, he expects to participate in the development process.

The study should prove of major importance in guiding developing nations as they struggle toward modernization. It should be especially helpful in Libya where there is an urgent need to use the mass media effectively in the process already under way.
APPENDIX II

Letters Sent to Experts Requesting Cooperation
Feb. 8, 1979

Steven J. Klees
Department of Education
Cornell University
Ithaca, N.Y. 14850

Dear Mr. Klees:

As a faculty member of the School of Communications at Garyounis University in Benghazi, Libya, I am engaged in a Ph.D. research study at The Ohio State University relating to the identification and validation of basic principles for the use of mass media in national development in emerging nations. Professor I. Keith Tyler (Educational Communications) serves as my major advisor in this study.

Because of your record of outstanding competency in the employment of such media by developing nations as a part of their programs of national development, I would like you to serve as a member of a small panel of experts to react to a list of principles which have been identified in research reports and other writings dealing with this field. On a scaled form, you would be asked to rate (1) the validity of each suggested principle, and (2) its relative importance in the development process. Additionally your comments on any or all of the principles are invited.

This will not require much of your time, an hour or so would suffice, but it should represent a significant contribution to the practical use of the various media in field situations. My own country, like many others, is now engaged in modernization and these principles, derived from practical experience, should be invaluable in national planning.

I shall telephone you during the second week of Feb. to answer any questions you may have and, I hope, to receive your kind consent to aid in this project. A brief description of the study is enclosed.

Thany you in advance for your helpful cooperation.

Sincerely,

Suliman Y. Shwaeb
APPENDIX III

Letters Accompanying Validation Instrument
March 24, 1979

To Members of the Panel of Experts:

Enclosed is the instrument to be used in assessing the validity and importance of the identified principles.

I hope you will be able to respond, as suggested, within the next few days. Note that there is ample space for any comments or suggestions you may care to make. Please return the instrument in the enclosed stamped, self-addressed envelope.

Let me say again how much I appreciate your helpful cooperation in this important research undertaking.

Sincerely,
APPENDIX IV

Validation Instrument
**BASIC PRINCIPLES FOR MEDIA USE IN DEVELOPING NATIONS**

**DIRECTIONS:** Below is a list of principles for media use in developing nations as identified in pertinent literature. Please read each principle carefully and record your judgement with regard to the validity and importance of each by ENCIRCLING the appropriate number in each column according to the code which follows:

Column A—THE RELATIVE VALIDITY OF THE PROPOSED PRINCIPLE. (No principle is absolute under all circumstances in all situations. How would you rate the relative validity of this principle?)

Column B—THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE PROPOSED PRINCIPLE. (Principles vary in importance when applied in varied situations. In general, how would you rate the relative importance of this principle?)

**EXPLANATION OF THE NUMBER CODE IN COLUMN A & B:**

**Column A—(VALIDITY)**
0. Uncertain
1. Decidedly disagree
2. Tend to disagree
3. Tend to agree
4. Decidedly agree

**Column B—(IMPORTANCE)**
0. Uncertain
1. No importance
2. Little importance
3. Moderate importance
4. Great importance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Validity</th>
<th>B. Importance</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Before initiating any campaign using media there must be a sufficient financial allocation to cover the entire campaign.</td>
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<td>Comments</td>
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<td>2. A campaign should embrace enough time to enable its success or failure to be determined.</td>
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<td>Comments</td>
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<td>3. Important decisions in the planning and implementation of a media campaign should involve the participation of those who will be most affected by it.</td>
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<td>4. In organizing a program for media use in national development, provision must be made for coordination between the agencies involved in planning, production, distribution, utilization, evaluation and research.</td>
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<td>Comments</td>
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A. Validity  

5. In mounting a campaign involving social changes focus only on those for which the social situation is favorable.

0  1  2  3  4  

 Comments__________________________________________

6. Changes should not be imposed from an outside culture, but must evolve organically within the cultural context of the particular group.

0  1  2  3  4  

 Comments__________________________________________

7. Mass media strategies must go hand in hand with economic, social, and political strategies for national development.

0  1  2  3  4  

 Comments__________________________________________

8. Prior to any campaign, there should be an audience survey in the target area to discover the sort of opposition and/or other difficulties likely to be encountered.

0  1  2  3  4  

 Comments__________________________________________

9. Regardless of the medium or media used, a mechanism for collecting continuous feedback must be developed.

0  1  2  3  4  

 Comments__________________________________________

10. A pilot project should precede any large scale campaign in order to discover problems and difficulties, and to save time, effort, and money.

0  1  2  3  4  

 Comments__________________________________________
11. To insure credibility, use local media with local content that deals with local problems involving local personnel.

12. The objectives of a campaign should be based on adequate knowledge of the local culture, local customs, and local problems.

13. Mass media planners must know their target audience—their problems, their needs, and the level of their competencies and mentalities—before undertaking any campaign.

14. A well planned campaign should use whatever media can be commanded that will reach the target audience economically.

15. Radio, because of its wide coverage, relatively low unit cost and ability to reach beyond the literate and beyond power mains, should be the pre-eminent medium for most development campaigns.

16. A combination of media is likely to accomplish more than any one medium by itself.

17. Interpersonal communication is the indispensable element of development communication regardless of the media used.
18. A combination of mass media and interpersonal communication is likely to be more effective than either one alone.

19. Regardless of the other media employed, use should be made of the traditional communication systems.

20. To ensure that intended messages reach their target audience, it is important to identify and utilize the influential people in the target community.

21. To ensure that intended verbal messages reach their target audience, use the local idiom and vernacular.

22. To ensure effective communication, use the common language of the target audience.

23. Mass media people must relate to their audience, meet with them, and establish some kind of relationship with them, so that the audience will, in turn, identify with the media people.

24. To ensure effective communication messages on the varied communication channels should be consistent.
25. Repetition with variation of appeals should characterize the developmental messages.

Comments

26. Mass media people should project the media in relation to their envisioned development function.

Comments

27. Mass media should be the means for people to learn about themselves, their environment, and other people.

Comments

28. There must be enough available local personnel to plan, install, maintain, and direct the local media so as to minimize any imposition of foreign nationals and their culture.

Comments

29. Media planners should provide for a substantial investment in personnel, facilities, and materials.

Comments

A. Validity

B. Importance

30. Good technical quality should characterize the media used in national development.

Comments

31. Criterion for the content of media messages should be its relevance in achieving campaign objectives.

Comments
32. Strategies for media use should be based upon a comprehensive understanding of local mores, customs, habits, and life styles.

Comments

33. Every development campaign should have clear, attainable, agree-upon goals.

Comments

34. The nature of the campaign goals is a prime factor in selecting the media and media channels to be used.

Comments

35. Because of their familiarity and long-time effectiveness, the traditional "little media" should be employed whenever possible.

Comments

36. To insure success, undertake campaigns only with full support at the highest level of government.

Comments

37. The head of the communication media campaign should have direct access to the top planners of national development in cases of jurisdictional disputes among ministries, offices, bureaus and the like.

Comments

38. Media campaign should focus upon the basic motivations—economic, social, political or religious—of the target audience.

Comments
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<th>A. Validity</th>
<th>B. Importance</th>
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<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Accessibility of the particular medium to the target audience is an essential factor in media selection.</td>
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<td>40.</td>
<td>Low cost, convenient times, ease of use and simplicity of maintenance are accessibility factors which should govern media selection.</td>
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<td>41.</td>
<td>Learning from mass media should be arranged when possible in group situation which permit interaction among learners and between learners and group leaders.</td>
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<td>42.</td>
<td>The content of the media messages should address the needs and concerns of the target audience.</td>
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<td>43.</td>
<td>The target audience should have representation in the planning, implementation and evaluation of media campaigns.</td>
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<td>44.</td>
<td>Consider and take into account side effects of development campaigns; no change is accomplished without ramifications throughout the society, often unintended and sometimes threatening to the total program.</td>
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</table>
45. Encourage flexibility in both personnel and structure so as to be able to respond constructively to research and evaluation findings.

Comments

46. Media messages should be directed, when possible, to homogeneous audiences with common interest, needs, and concerns.

Comments
BIBLIOGRAPHY


"Project Profiles," Clearinghouse on Development Communication, Washington, D.C.


