



SYLLABUS

Class – B.A. (HONS.) MASS COMMUNICATION

VI Semester

Subject – Development Communication

UNIT – I	Concept of development Development Indicators Approaches to development Problems of development Development Policy and Planning
UNIT – II	Development Journalism: concept & relevance Development communication: Meaning Strategies in development communication
UNIT – III	Social, cultural and economic barriers of development communication Use of media and inter-personal communication
UNIT – IV	Traditional media Awareness in Tribal & weaker sections
UNIT – V	Areas of rural journalism: health, agriculture, Panchayati raj, Population Campaigns and their evaluation



UNIT I

'Development' is perhaps one of the most fiercely debated concepts in the contemporary social sciences. The concept is often equated with 'modernization', 'industrialization', 'social change', 'progress' and 'growth', and like these other terms is invariably seen as something desirable and positive for society in general, and for the community in particular. Development is seen as absolute, inevitable, and universal; it is promoted as a laudable goal no matter what the society, the culture, the people and their resources and traditions are.

Development has been one of the ideals and aspirations of all human societies. It has an inherent functional value in raising the socio-economic standard and the life style of the citizens as it aims to provide basic needs to all, particularly the deprived sections of society. The supreme aim of development should be to improve the quality of life for its citizens and to guarantee social justice.

What is national development?

- * Does it mean the presence of high-rising buildings in some of the cities? Or
- * Does development mean the scores of Mercedes-Benz cars on the roads?
- * Does the mere existence of Western infrastructure constitute development?

Development Defined -

According to **Dr. Adebayo Oyebade, (2001)**, development means simply the ability of a nation to create a viable political and economic system capable of bringing growth and advancement to a nation. This means sustainable democracy, effective bureaucracy, accountability in public service, social justice and human rights, and a sound economy capable of providing better life for the great majority of the masses. In short, national development means the ability of a state to provide for its people the basic necessities of good living like good health care, good roads, good education, and so on.

For the people, the poor economy is manifested in widespread poverty, deteriorating living standard, poor health condition leading to high mortality rate and rapidly declining life expectancy.

The poor economy has also translated into crumbled infrastructure. Power supplies by the epileptic National Electric Power Authority continue to be erratic. The same is true of water supply which is a never-ending problem. Many roads are bad, causing ghastly auto accidents. The list of crumbling infrastructure is long.

Corruption, leadership failure, military rule, ethnic and religious politics, are all symptoms of a fundamental problem— lack of a sense of belonging to a nation among the various ethnic groups all these are under development.

Thinkers based on the paradigms with which they approach this concept have understood the term 'development' differently. Some define it as growth, progress, modernization etc. But, Development is a multifaceted phenomenon and may be understood as political, social, economic, spiritual, emotional, physical and intellectual.

Development is also defined as a passage from a lower to a higher state. Development is essentially maximizing the goods and services available in a country. Its paucity denotes underdevelopment.

The international encyclopedia (1988) defines development as "purposive changes undertaken in a society to achieve what may be regarded generally as a different (improved) state of social and economic affairs."

Dissanayake (1981) defines development as the process of social change which has as its goal the improvement in the quality of life of all or the majority of the people without doing violence to the natural and cultural environment in which they exist and which seeks to involve the generality of the people as closely as possible in this enterprise, making them the masters of their own destiny.

Development communication scholars of the 60s, like **Rogers and Shoemaker** defined development as: "... a type of social change in which new ideas are introduced into a social system in order to



produce higher per capita income and levels of living through more modern production methods and improved social organization. Development is modernization at the social systems level (1971).

Deborah Eade defines it as “Development is about women and men becoming empowered to bring about positive changes in their lives; about personal growth together with public action; about both the process and the outcome of challenging poverty, oppression, and discrimination; and about the realization of human potential through social and economic justice. Above all, it is about the process of transforming lives, and transforming societies.”

The characteristics of an underdeveloped country are massive poverty, social inequality, unemployment, low productivity and increasing foreign debt. All development strategies must aim at reducing these impediments to development.

Development and Growth

The concept of development is rightly distinguished from that of mere growth. The term ‘growth’ connotes only an increment to the gross national product. On the other hand, development connotes a qualitative and structural change. The structure of an underdeveloped country is characterized by a ‘dual economy’ and a ‘dual society’. While there are manifestations of development in a few metropolitan centres in the shape of modern industrial and commercial establishments, the bulk of the country, the vast hinterland of rural areas, is underdeveloped in every sense of the term. Life therefore could be described, if not as nasty, brutish and short—certainly as short, poor and isolated. Thus metropolitan centres are only enclaves in vast areas of darkness and backwardness.

As against this a developed country is characterized by the homogeneous development of social and economic life in all parts of the country. The standard of living and social amenities in the developed countries are the same in the urban areas as in the countryside. In the underdeveloped countries economic and social dualism is also accompanied by institutional dualism. Institutions like banks, technological and training institutions necessary for development and modernity, are confined only to metropolitan centres and do not exist in rural areas.

Dimensions of Development

Development cannot be considered synonymous with economic development as it has other dimensions as well.

Political development : Political development could be assessed in terms of the stabilization and consolidation of participatory political institutions. Where such development takes place, the political authority is responsive to the people; and conversely people have faith in the political authority and indeed have opportunities to participate in the political process. The example of Iran has shown that spectacular economic progress can come to an abrupt halt due to political explosions thus reducing the glittering trappings of apparent success.

Social Development : Social development may be conceived in terms of progressive social integration. Where society is fragmented into different warring groups where there is social discrimination against minority groups, where one section of society dominates another, or where one social group has privileges while another has social disabilities, development cannot take place in a smooth and harmonious manner. Social homogenization is integral to development. Without it there cannot be unity and social solidarity and without them no society can develop.

Economic Development: That is why it has to be affirmed that development is not only economic but also social and political development. Without one of the three, the other two cannot survive. It is an illusion that an authoritarian political or social system can accelerate economic development. Indeed, it



is a contradiction in terms to talk of economic development through authoritarian political and social systems. It is this realization, which has also altered the concept of economic development itself. Even economists have increasingly realized that economic development is not purely an economic phenomenon. There are non-economic factors as well which need to be taken note of in understanding the process of economic development.

Structural Development : Development brings about structural transformation. Colin Clark has divided the structure of the economy into **primary, secondary and tertiary sectors**.

The primary sector is concerned with economic activities directly connected with natural resources such as agriculture, animal husbandry and mining.

The secondary sector is concerned with the transformation of the products of the primary sector into manufactured commodities.

The tertiary sector is concerned with all those activities which are required to make the products of the primary and secondary sectors available to the final consumer. It is connected with the activities of trade, transport marketing and distribution.

In a typical underdeveloped country 90 percent of the population is engaged in the primary sector, especially in agriculture carried on a low level of technology and productivity. On the other hand, a developed country has a large secondary and tertiary sector. The economy benefits a great deal from value added to the produce of the primary sector. In a developed country like the United States of America, only 3 to 4 percent of the population is engaged in agriculture. Yet, due to the improvement in technology and productivity, American agriculture is able to provide food grains in large quantities to other countries of the world. Similarly, in Sweden, barely 5 per cent of the population is engaged in the primary sector. On the other hand nearly 75 per cent of the Indian population is still engaged in agriculture despite more than 35 years of planning. Development, therefore, requires diversification of the economy in the shape of larger secondary and tertiary sectors.

However a reduction in the proportion of people engaged in the primary sector does not by itself bring about development. Nor can this be brought about in an artificial manner. What structural transformation does imply is that an agricultural revolution must be followed by the industrial revolution. However, there could be no industrial revolution without the agricultural revolution, which is its conditional precedent. An increase in the productivity of agriculture provides raw material as well as surplus manpower for economic activity in the secondary and tertiary sectors. Thus the path of development is an agricultural revolution followed by an industrial revolution, and the expanding production and productivity of the industrial and agricultural sectors may then require a large tertiary sector.

Human Development : The nation alone shouldn't develop. The people should develop. This human factor in development is very important.

Economical Development : The living quality or standard of life of the people have to increase. Having a high per capita income or a growth in the Gross Domestic Product need not mean necessarily a growth in the living standard of people.

Spiritual Development : The growth and development should be integral. Spiritual development among people is a must for a peaceful nation. If peace does not prevail in a country, however wealth that nation has no value.



Development Indicators

1. **Hunger and Nutrition:** The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) has estimated that between the years of 2010-2012, 870 million people were undernourished. To many, 870 million is a difficult number to grasp, so in more relatable terms, imagine the population of the United States going hungry about three times over. While starvation is certainly a form of malnutrition, the term also represents any diet severely lacking in essential vitamins. The lack of certain vitamins can lead to a smorgasbord of life long mental and physical health issues. Although the overall number of malnourished people has declined in recent years, there is still much to be done to prevent developmentally stunted children and persistent illnesses plaguing entire populations. While this number is high, to be sure, over the past 20 years, the figure has been effectively halved. Primarily through domestic development, individuals have greater access to higher value foodstuffs.
2. **Poverty Rate:** The Global Poverty Rate has effectively been cut in half in the last 20 years. On the whole, governments and NGOs have set the threshold for [global poverty](#) at \$1.25 a day, which is far less than the American poverty threshold of \$30. While this level of purchasing power is painfully low, from the years of 1990 to 2010, global poverty has declined from 43 percent to 21 percent, respectively. While support from NGOs, non-profits, and to some degree foreign assistance certainly play a role, the decline in global poverty can almost be almost entirely attributed to domestic economic development. The Economist reports that between 1981 and 2001, approximately 680 million Chinese were lifted out of poverty due to domestic economic development.
3. **Population Growth:** Population Growth is highest in Sub-Saharan Africa and Lowest in Developed Europe. According to the World Bank, the world population grew by about 1.2 percent each year between 2000 and 2010. Globally, at about 2.5 percent, a year, the Sub-Saharan countries of Africa represented the highest population growth rate. The lowest, on the other hand, were European and Central Asian countries, which averaged around 0.2 percent growth per year. While it almost seems irrational, where there is economic prosperity, birthrates tend to decline. In poorer countries, parents are inclined to have more children in order to ensure survival of at least one or two. In a self perpetuating manner, with more children and less food, poverty rates and hunger skyrocket.
4. **Health:** HIV/AIDS disproportionately affects poorer regions. According to World Bank statistics, in 2009, 31-33 million people were living with HIV/AIDS globally. This equates to approximately the entire population of California. In Sub-Saharan Africa, 14.8 million children have lost one or both parents to the disease. Despite intensive care campaigns, the World Health Organization estimates that only 5.25 (36 percent) of those suffering from the disease are receiving treatment.
5. **Child Mortality:** Child Mortality Rates are Steadily Declining. On a global scale, a tell-tale sign of a countries development is their infant mortality rate. A welcome statistic the world over is that this rate is falling in all areas of the globe. In developing nations, the World Bank has found, infant mortality rates per 1,000 births has dropped from 98 in 1990 to 63 in 2010. With greater access to care, more abundant resources, and fewer unplanned pregnancies, developing nations are able to keep more and more of their young alive into adolescence. While matters seem to be improving, underdeveloped nations still exhibit shocking infant mortality rates. In Sub-Saharan Africa, a newborn stands only a one in eight chance to see their fifth birthday.



APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENT-

India

- * Organized development communication in India began with rural radio broadcasts in the 1940s. Broadcasts adopted indigenous languages to reach larger audiences.
- * Organized efforts in India started with community development projects in the 1950s. The government, guided by socialist ideals and politicians, started many development programs.
- * Field publicity was employed for person-to-person communication.
- * Radio played an important role in reaching the masses because literacy was low.
- * Educational institutions - especially agricultural universities, through their extension networks - and international organizations under the United Nations umbrella experimented with development communication.
- * Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) relied on close inter-personal relations among communicators.
- * Communication from the government was more generic and unidirectional. So-called Public Information Campaigns were government-sponsored public fairs in remote areas that presented entertainment along with information on social and developmental schemes.
- * Villagers engaged in competitions to attract attendees.
- * Public and private organizations sponsored stalls in the main exhibition area. Development agencies and service/goods providers also attended. Some state governments employed this model.
- * Community radio was used in rural India. NGOs and educational institutions created local stations to broadcast information, advisories and messages on development.
- * Local participation was encouraged.
- * Community radio provided a platform for villagers to publicize local issues, offering the potential to elicit action from local official.
- * The wide spread adoption of mobile telephony in India created new channels for reaching the masses.

Role of Technology in Development

Technology makes capital productive. The developing countries had at their disposal a considerable amount of accumulated technology of the industrial age of the already developed countries. All that they have to do is to absorb that technology into their productive system. Japan, for example, developed through the quick acquisition of Western technology. In the early years of development in Japan, their technicians and managers were sent in large numbers to the United States of America and Germany where they visited enterprises and industrial establishments, took photographs and notes and reproduced the plants and machines in their own country, in the beginning, the products of Japanese industry were looked upon as of low quality. However, the Japanese proved to be outstanding not only in absorbing Western technology but improving upon it and adapting it to their own conditions. The results have been spectacular. The Japanese have been able to beat the Western countries at their own game and excel in them with respect to technology and industry by developing a productive system which can produce superior goods at a lower cost. Cars and electronic goods made in Japan have been able to capture markets in America and Europe.

Measuring Yards of Development

Up to the 70's the determiner of a country's development was **Gross National Product (GNP)**. GNP is the value of all goods and services produced in a country in a given period of time. The problem with this was, a growth in GNP does not mean a growth in the standard of living. Another determiner was the **per capita income**. Per capita income is the amount obtainable by dividing the national income by the number of population. Per capita Income also did not assure a rise in the living standards of the poor.



In these economic strategies, capital, technology, manpower were considered as the input and the output determined the development. Economic growth was calculated the corresponding increase in the output to a increase in the input.

But, all these were proved false. Years after implementing all these the economists saw that the rich became more richer and fewer and the poor became poorer and numerous than ever. They understood that GNP and per capita income were to be seen and be used only as tools to measure development and not as the goal of development.

Development Policy

Development communication is intended to build consensus and facilitate knowledge sharing to achieve positive change in development initiatives. It disseminates information and employs empirical research, two-way communication and dialogue among stakeholders. It is a management tool to help assess socio-political risks and opportunities. By using communication to bridge differences and take action towards change, development communication can lead to successful and sustainable results.

Development communication is a response to historic, social and economic factors that limit access to information and citizen participation. These include poverty and unemployment, limited access to basic services, remote settlement patterns, lack of access to technology, lack of information, inadequate health services, lack of education and skills and lack of infrastructure.

FAO asserted that communication can play a decisive role in promoting human development. Democracy, decentralization and the market economy empower individuals and communities to control their own destinies. Stimulating awareness, participation, and capabilities is vital. Policies must encourage effective planning and implementation of communication programs.

Lee advocated that communication policies and practices require joint action among leaders in social, economic, scientific, educational and foreign affairs and that success requires constant contact and consultation with communicators and citizens.

UNESCO conducted studies on communication policies as part of the resolutions adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO during its 16th session in 1970. Its objective was to promote awareness of communication policies at the governmental, institutional and professional levels of selected member states. The selected countries were Ireland, Sweden, Hungary, Yugoslavia, West Germany, and Brazil. Two years later, a UNESCO meeting of experts on communication policies and planning defined communication policy as "a set of norms established to guide the behavior of communication media".

According to these experts, the scope of communication policies comprises :

- The values that determine the structure of communication systems and guide their operation
- The systems of communication, their structures, and operation
- The output of these systems and their impact and social functions

The Asian Media Information and Communication Centre (AMIC) was commissioned by UNESCO to do a feasibility study on "Training in Communication Planning in Asia" in 1974. It organized the first AMIC Regional Conference on Development Communication Policies and Planning in Manila, Philippines in May 1977. Attended by delegates from ten countries, it drew up basic recommendations including the organization of national development communication councils by each country's governmental, educational and media groups.

According to **Habermann and De Fontgalland**, the difficulties in the adoption of a viable development communication policy have to be simultaneously analyzed horizontally and vertically. Horizontally government agencies, semi-governmental offices (e.g., rural extension service), independent development organizations and private media outlets must coordinate policy. Vertically, information must flow in both directions between the population base and decision-making bodies. This involves local and supra-local administrations that are active in handing out directives and reporting back to the



government. Commonly, default policies do not encourage/require such institutions to feed information from the populace to policymakers, with the exception of government extension bureaus. In 1986 Quebral stressed the importance of equally recognizing systematic practice along with formal research as a legitimate basis for decisions. According to her, research must precede and become the foundation of policy.

Stakeholder analysis

The design and implementation of policies is becoming more complex, and the number and type of actors involved in policy implementation more diverse; hence, the policy process is evolving towards multi-actor and multi-goal situations. "Stakeholder" has been variously defined according to the goal of the analysis, the analytic approach or the policy area. Where several groups of stakeholders are involved in the policy process, a stakeholder analysis can provide a useful resource.

Stakeholder analysis can help analyze the behavior, intentions, interrelations, agendas, interests and the resources of stakeholders in the policy processes. Crosby described stakeholder analysis as offering methods and approaches to analyze the interests and roles of key players. Hannan and Freeman include groups or individual who can affect or be affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives, while others exclude those who cannot influence the outcome. For instance, Brugha and Varvasovszky defined stakeholder as "individuals, groups, and organizations who have an interest (stake) and the potential to influence the actions and aims of an organization, project, or policy direction." According to Flor, a stakeholder analysis of communication policy would reveal the interplay of the following sectors:

- Government - Enacts all communication policies, making it the most powerful stakeholder.
- Education sector - Conducts research that underlies subsequent policies.
- Communication industry - Influences communication policies. May adopt self-regulation to avoid/delay government regulation. For example, the Kapisanan ng mga Brodkaster sa Pilipinas and the Philippine Press Institute institute ethics codes.
- Private sector - Avoid policies that limit content and to protect themselves from opponents.
- Religious sector - Traditionally opposes policies that allow obscenity, violence and profanity to be distributed.
- Foreign interests - e.g., international lending agencies may demand the end of monopolies—including state media entities—as a condition for financial aid.
- Consumers - Traditionally not consulted, but more recently claiming to protect the public interest.

The United Nations has recognised the importance of "the need to support two-way communication systems that enable dialogue and that allow communities to express their aspirations and concerns and participate in decisions...." Such two-way interactions can help expose local reality.^[61] Keune and Sinha claim that community involvement in development communication policy is important, as they are the "ultimate and perhaps the most important beneficiaries of development communication policies and planning".

Historical perspectives

Cuilenburg and McQuail (2003) identify three main phases of communications policy-making:

- Emerging Communications Industry Policy (until the Second World War)—during this era, communications policy mainly supported state and corporate benefits. Policy covered telegraph, telephony and wireless and later, cinema. Policies were ad hoc measures designed to facilitate a series of technical innovations.
- Public Service Media Policy (1945-1980)—After the Second World War, policy was dominated by sociopolitical rather than economic and national strategic concerns. This phase began after the Second World War. Policy expanded from addressing technical matters to the content of communications and to cover the traditional press.
- New Communications Policy Paradigm (1980 to present)—Technological, economic and social trends fundamentally changed media policy from 1980 onward. Technological convergence became



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an agenda item when the US Office of Technology Assessment published its pioneering study, *Critical Connections* (OTA, 1990) followed by the European Union (CEC, 1997). "Convergence" meant that the boundaries between information technologies blurred: computer and telecommunications converged to telematics; personal computers and television become more similar; and formerly separated networks become interconnected. Regulation of mass media became increasingly linked to telecommunications regulation. Globalization and the permeability of national frontiers by multinational media limited the impact of policy in most countries.

Critiques

Development communication policy as a field experienced persistent conflict. Debates operated within the discourse of each period: autonomous vs. dependent in the 50s; unequal North-South communication flows in the 60s and 70s; transnational corporations and non-governmental actors in the 80s; the converged global information society and the market-based media structure in the 90s; and online media and the digital divide in the 2000s.

Participation

Hamelink and Nordenstreng called for multi stakeholder participation in Information and Communications Technology (ICT) governance and for formal and informal policy development mechanisms to enable state and non-state actors to shape the media and communication industries.

Funding agency bias

Manyozo advocated a rethinking of communication for development policies, perceiving a failure by communication policy makers to identify funding institutions that encourage cultural imperialism and unequal power relations between Western and local organizations. He attributed this to the absence in communication policy debates of a political economy discourse. In reviewing the different approaches to communication for development policies – media, participation and community dialogue – Manyozo criticizes groups that emphasizes one over the others.



Development Strategies

It is imperative that developing nations approach the new communications era in an organized manner, with proper planning and strategies for action:

1. Creating a shared vision of the new communications era: It should be positively accepted and widely promoted, that the new communications era will engender a transformation of human society. Our way of life, culture, and values will be changed. Intellectual prowess will become the most important factor for human development, feeding from information and knowledge to propel human societies to greater heights of achievement. Mental and cognitive skills must be developed and applied effectively in creative knowledge-based work environments. Such radical concepts need to be discussed openly and disseminated widely in order to create a shared vision of the new communications era. Without a vision that is shared by all members of society, it will not be possible to plan and execute a programme of social restructuring requiring their active participation.

2. Intensifying the Process of information acculturation: A shared vision is the foundation for the process of information acculturation. This leads to the assimilation of new values towards bringing about a positive change in attitudes and behavioral patterns. Intensifying this process requires effective use of the formal educational system, as well as other informal mechanisms. The objective is to inculcate new cultural values towards information and knowledge on a wide scale. It is also necessary to measure the effectiveness of the acculturation programme so that corrective action can be taken where necessary. The assimilation of the knowledge culture by society will lead to a more equitable balance between technology push and social pull. Rapid advances in technology have put many people at a grave disadvantage: they have become paralyzed by the onslaught of new products appearing with ever decreasing life cycles. IT development, on the other hand, should be based on human social and economic needs, and this should determine the course of technology exploitation.

3. Generating the necessary human resources: The transformation of work will render many skills and jobs irrelevant. The automation of work, involving simple information processing in particular, will make many office workers redundant. However, there are many job opportunities for those with the capacity to acquire new skills. This scenario is unfolding at an accelerating pace. Short-term and long-term strategies will have to be addressed. In the short term, it is necessary to organize conversion courses to enable working people to acquire new skills- so as to become useful to new information-oriented job environments. For the longer term, proactive education programmes should be formulated and implemented through the formal education system. This requires an efficient planning system matched by the capacity to carry out the necessary task.

4. Strategic planning and management: A strategic approach is essential to guarantee the achievement of national objectives. Since the transformation envisaged will involve every member of society, and every organized group, a programme that mobilizes all the critical resources is necessary. Objectives, priorities, resource allocation strategies, and key national programmes need to be formulated. Realizable targets should be established, and key players to perform specific functions identified. The restructuring of critical organizations in the government and private sectors should also be considered, to make them more amenable to the application of higher levels of information content. One of the most critical aspects of this planning process is technology acquisition and development. Institutions and organizations must be created to perform this task. In some cases, specialized institutes to carry out R&D need to be established. Otherwise the capacity to develop new information systems will remain weak, leading to over dependence on foreign suppliers. One strategy that has often been overlooked is government procurement. Since the government is a significant buyer of systems and equipment, it is worthwhile to have an offset programme in cooperation with suppliers that will also enable the nation to acquire technology and skills.

5. Accelerating the development of the communications infrastructure: Two complementary components make up the communications infrastructure; the 'hard' and the 'soft'. 'Hard' components are computers, telecommunications, and data networks- 'Soft' components are the information contents, such as



databases and information servers. Both are equally important. Developing nations are weak in practically all areas, but telecommunications deserve special emphasis, especially in rural areas. Its critical importance and high capital cost are conflicting demands that must be resolved. One route that has been taken by many countries successfully is deregulation and privatization. However, this may not be relevant to all nations, since they may face different circumstances. Per capita expenditure on computers and services is low in most developing nations and should be increased. There is no real norm. Each country should allocate sufficient funds to ensure that critical mass is achieved in key areas application.

6. Technology assessment and forecasting: The accelerating pace of advancement in technology demands that nations possess some means and capability to assess and forecast economic, social, and other impacts. Forecasts are essential in the planning process, while assessment of impact will enable the maximization of benefit while minimizing risk. Scenario budding is also useful towards understanding the total impact of the transformation on the economy and society. Finally, nations should have the skills to merge technology trends into specific application areas that are important for their development objectives.

7. Initiating and facilitating organizational restructuring: The need to restructure organizations should now be taken for granted. Increasing information intensity will require new forms of organization. Although such restructuring will need to be done in both the government and private industry, in many developing nations the government should take the lead. The government can be the role model by creating proof-of-concept demonstrations in its own operations. Others will then be encouraged to follow suit. The government through its influence may also persuade key sectors of private industry to perform this restructuring process and be an example to others.

The Open Strategy is one approach to development. The Information Age focuses on the mind and intellect. Learning and knowledge acquisition are fundamental processes for progress. The following seven principles of the Open Strategy can be made the foundation for a strategic national development programme in advanced communications.

First, communication systems should be open in the sense of being user-driven. The user should have full control over access to information, its sources, and the nature of his interaction with those sources.

Second, it should be open in the geographical context. Global communication networks should be established to open up the availability and accessibility of information resources and human expertise, no matter where they are.

Third, it should be open with regard to cost. The final cost to the user should be reasonable, so that we can narrow the gap between the haves and the have-nots.

Fourth, it should be open technologically. The technologies used should be available to all at a fair price and should be simple enough to be easily implemented.

Fifth, Standards of implementation should be open, meaning that Open Systems Standards are employed to promote the interconnection and sharing of hardware, software, and systems. The total implementation cost will thus be reduced and future system growth assured.

Sixth, it should be open from the political point of view. Access to information and knowledge should be made available without regard to a nation's political stance, the religion of its people, or its racial make-up.

The seventh and most important principle is that it must be open in the cultural sense. The relationship between the user and the information supplier must not assume that the latter has cultural superiority. Communication is a value-laden activity, and it must be conducted with an open mind. The recent transformation of some countries from poor developing nation status to economic juggernauts has been hailed as the so-called 'East Asian Miracle'. However, economic success is only the superficial manifestation of a culture that promotes positive values, attitudes, and priorities. In many East Asian countries, these seem to be in congruence with the needs of the present era, which emphasizes knowledge and learning. Not all Asian countries are the same. But they all seem to have a similar respect for knowledge and the innate desire to learn. This is,



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perhaps, one positive trait that may well become the success factor for all developing nations. The new communications era should not be perceived as a purely technological phenomenon. Its ultimate impact is social and cultural, although technological advancement is the key enabler. This new era invites a change in social and cultural patterns. At the individual level it raises the importance of mental and intellectual ability. For society at large, it engenders new forms of social organizations, .Economic restructuring will result from information intensification in the production and delivery of goods and services.

While the IT industry is important to some countries, the effective application of IT is necessary for all. The development of IT follows an evolutionary path involving all the three forces: technological, social, and cultural. This process can be accelerated through proper planning involving a strategic approach.



UNIT-II

Definition

Development journalism attempts to document the conditions within a country so that the larger world can understand them. Journalists are encouraged to travel to remote areas, interact with the citizens of the country, and report back. This type of development journalism also looks at proposed government projects to improve conditions in the country, and analyzes whether or not they will be effective. Ultimately, the journalist may come up with proposed solutions and actions in the piece, suggesting ways in which they might be implemented. Often, this type of development journalism encourages a cooperative effort between citizens of the nation and the outside world.

Development journalism can walk a thin line. On the one hand, government participation in mass media can help get important information spread throughout the nation. Governments can help to educate their citizens and enlist cooperation on major development projects. However, a government can also use the idea of "development" to restrict freedom of speech for journalists. Journalists are told not to report on certain issues because it will impact the "development" of the nation in question, and therefore citizens are not actually being given access to the whole picture. hope this will help:-) i also research it !

Introduction: the contradicting views of development journalism

When the term 'development journalism' was born a few decades ago, the world was moving on a different path from today. Then, there were clear and distinct zones into which countries and regions were divided. Economically, countries were classed as 'developed' and 'underdeveloped'. The former existed in the West, the latter in other parts of the globe. Communist and non-Communist nations were clearly presented, giving a clear distinction between the two camps in world politics. Development journalism was first introduced in a global context much less complicated than that of today. The clear political and economic divisions gave people much simpler attitudes and ways of life compared to what we have in the 21st century. The media, like most public institutions, functioned within a much different atmosphere. Nevertheless, development journalism, when first introduced, triggered a heated debate on how journalism should be practised. Development journalism had different definitions in different contexts. In some places it meant the communication process being used as a tool to serve the development goals of the state. Journalism, which was practised by all forms of media, played the same role in promoting the total development plans of a government. A more professional definition of development journalism existed in other places. There, development journalism was treated as being similar to investigative journalism. Journalists who wished to make a legitimate report on development issues needed a critical view to examine them. In this case, journalists had a task to observe critically and report on the whole government development process, which included planning, implementation, impact and shortcomings as they were. The role of journalists was not to support the state development goals without question. Instead, it was to make sure that the development process was accountable and transparent. The two contradictory views of development journalism made discussions of development journalism an emotional issue, especially in some developing countries. Governments in some countries accused those who criticised development journalism as protecting capitalistic interests. On the other hand, critics of government-initiated development journalism claimed that the concept would set a limit to media freedom and obstruct independent media from serving the public interest, which after all was its primary task.

What is Development Journalism?

Domatob and Hall (1983) state that by its name, development journalism recognises the reality of underdevelopment. The term implies that development is a valid social goal and that the media have a contribution to make towards it, that is, the media are expected to actively pursue this role. The main characteristic of development journalism is the deliberate and active role in pressing for change (Kariithi 1994: 28). It is geared towards mobilising the people for national development.



Bourgault(1995) sums up the goals of development journalism as “promoting grassroots, non-violent, socially responsible, ecologically sensitive, personally empowering, democratic, dialogical and humanistic forms of communication”. In Africa, the mass media fulfill an educational role which they are not necessarily called upon to assume in First World countries (Ansah in Ngugi 1995: 9). News about development is important in stimulating further development. A development journalist must give the facts, interpret them and draw conclusions, which must then be promoted, that is, brought home to the people in a way they will understand.

The Potential of Development Journalism

Despite the negative views about development journalism, there have been relative successes. In Africa, where there is a severe lack of educative facilities, media, especially broadcasting, are seen as a substitute for formal education. Where there is no teacher and a shortage of books, broadcasting is used as a substitute.

Development journalism is imbedded in the context of a general management concept of the planning and implementation of development programmes that is it is ascribed a quite instrumental, socio-technological character. The journalist working within these prescribed norms will become comparable in aspects of his profession with the on-site leader of development projects. Development journalism is then synonymous with a “grass roots approach”, that is, it channels of the mass media alone but also use the traditional communication media. This development journalism is primarily “local journalism” in the sense that the journalist should be rooted in the local culture concerned.

It cannot be stated often enough that the most important component of development journalism is credibility, which is most readily won by the media’s adequately advocating the interests of the affected people, which means inter alia articulating criticism of the government. It must be remembered in this connection that in most developing countries there is a vast gap between what government representatives say about the freedom the media have in their respective countries and the truth. Probably only a free media system is able to contribute to rooting out corruption, this fundamental evil in developing countries, by revealing and pillorying it. However, the demand for press freedom is practically unfulfilled in most developing countries because the governments always regard the mass media as something potentially very dangerous. Adequate for a start would be a phased freedom of the media system, perhaps at local or regional levels, i.e. corresponding to the experience horizons of the recipients. This would on the one hand secure the credibility of the media and on the other hand prevent a short-term “endangering” of the political system, i.e. trigger resistance from those with the political power.

Asserting such a development journalism depends decisively on whether the rulers of a developing country can be convinced that free communication is in the interests of the entire system, whereby interests means that national autonomy is achieved or preserved and the material standard of living is lifted by planned processes of social change. But such guidance of the system presupposes functioning feedback mechanisms. Free communication does not mean abandoning management; on the contrary it increases the potential for steering. Development journalism is not only to advocate externally set aims to the recipients but at the same time through continuous feedback from them fulfill the function of examining whether the development measures are succeeding or not. The form of development journalism sketched here proceeds from the premise that development policy measures run under the perspective of the entire system, wherein those responsible must satisfy local and/or regional needs and developments to avoid failures and friction. By ongoing feedback from the people on the ground with the help of development journalism which should also be the advocate of the recipients a process of learning the rules of play of democracy can at the same time begin at local and/or regional levels, i.e. it can be learned what loyal opposition means.

Fundamentally the most important task of development journalism can be seen in removing the acquiescent basic attitude towards one’s own destiny which is so closely tied up with poverty. Such a passive, authoritarian world view is expressed in the attitude that we cannot control events but are in



the hands of God. In this context one talks of learned helplessness, or the “hopelessness-helplessness” syndrome.

Sagan sees learned helplessness as the main reason for natural disasters’ claiming so many victims in developing countries. In the context of removing the acquiescent outlook special mention has to be made of the role of women who in many societies are still regarded and treated as second class human beings.

In summary, the socio-technological development journalism outlined here is characterised as purpose-rational and ethically responsible. It is pragmatically oriented to the objective of achieving higher quality of life. Apart from being the advocate of the interests of the population, another of its major tasks is to act as a buffer to exaggerated demands and to emphasise goals achievable in a longer perspective. In terms of its value premises this journalism is clearly oriented to democracy and emancipation.

Development journalism and the changing world

Varied and contested interpretations have put development journalism in question, and it seems to have been left behind in the fast changing global scenario. Unlike the much simpler affairs of 1950s and 1960s, globalisation has brought in a number of new and more powerful forces that know no boundaries. Modern technology and global trade, for example, now have a far greater impact on human life in some countries than government policies. International trade is an issue that clearly manifests the power of globalisation. The free trade economy has shifted economic decision making power from governments to other players. Today multinational companies and international trade organisations play an equal role with governments when it comes to shaping the world’s economic pattern and people’s lives.

At present, problems such as unemployment, health or environment degradation have become cross-border by nature. They have grown beyond boundaries, and cannot be dealt with by a single nation state. As a result, development as a means to improve people’s livelihoods becomes an issue that cannot be handled by one country alone. New types of development processes are needed in order to respond to such a fast-changing global scenario. The question is: Who will be responsible in a development process that improves their lives?

A major change also happens on the media front. The arrival of **Internet technology** poses a challenge to traditional journalism. The Internet has dramatically changed the traditional communication landscape in which information providers and recipients are clearly divided. Gone is the time when journalists confidently served as content providers while the public played the role of passive audiences. The Internet has provided an opportunity for people to play both roles at a speed never experienced before.

Through websites and blogs, people can get hold of analysis, raw data, government reports, drafts of legislation, photos and many other types of information for free within minutes. Different types of information that were difficult to obtain in the old days are given for free on cyber space. There are enough choices in cyber space to keep people well informed without relying only on what journalists can provide. Is development journalism still irrelevant given the changing scenario? The answer depends on whether it lives up to the challenge. Because poverty continues to pose a threat to millions of people, journalists have no choice but to continue reporting development issues and its impact on people. Development journalism of today must be able to examine and explain the new face of development that has transformed itself into a trans-border affair, involving various players aside from the state, and relating to several complexities.

Information technology, for all its advantages, cannot by itself guarantee a true understanding of what is a complex world. Instead, it leaves people with varieties of choices to decide which information they believe. The world has become overwhelmed by the tremendous amount of information available on



cyber space. At one point, the line that divided fact from fiction began to blur. Opinion and hearsay are taken as hard facts. People can be led away from a true understanding of the real world. Solid journalism is needed to make sense of what is really going on around us. Good development journalism is included. Development journalism that applies principles of responsibility, fairness and accuracy is strongly needed to explain the complexities of the development process in order to help societies react sensibly to challenging global situations.

Basic Fundamental of Development Journalism

1. Today development journalism looks at conditions in developing states and how to improve them. It exposes poverty worldwide and helps to research the causes, consequences and how to address poverty in developing nations.
2. Development journalists bring attention to issues that are overlooked or under- represented by other media and by the international political community. As investigative reporters, they uncover the stories within the stories, revealing the multi- faceted nature of poverty.
3. A feature on development journalism may cover the following issues: economic development, agriculture and food security, health, sanitation and medicine, employment, education and literacy, informational technologies development, housing conditions, environmental sustainability, urban and rural development, gender equality, etc. Its main actors are ordinary people rather than official figures; its emphasis is on stability, partnership, harmony, and consensus. (www.east4south.eu)
4. The term development journalism is used to refer to two different types of journalism. The first type of development journalism attempts to document the conditions within a country so that the larger world can understand them. Journalists are encouraged to travel to remote areas, interact with the citizens of the country, and report back.
5. This type of development journalism also looks at proposed government projects to improve conditions in the country, and analyzes whether or not they will be effective. Ultimately, the journalist may come up with proposed solutions and actions in the piece, suggesting ways in which they might be implemented. Often, this type of development journalism encourages a cooperative effort between citizens of the nation and the outside world.
6. The second type of development journalism can walk a thin line. On the one hand, government participation in mass media can help get important information spread throughout the nation. Governments can help to educate their citizens and enlist cooperation on major development projects.☐
7. However, a government can also use the idea of “development” to restrict freedom of speech for journalists. Journalists are told not to report on certain issues because it will impact the “development” of the nation in question, and therefore citizens are not actually being given access to the whole picture.
8. As a tool for social justice, development journalism can be very valuable. By speaking for those who cannot, a development journalist can inform the rest of the world about important issues within developing nations.



9. Looking at the strengths and weaknesses of a country may also help identify ways in which the nation can be helped. This style of development journalism is a tool for empowerment.☐

10. When development journalism is used as a propaganda tool, however, it can become very dangerous. Many citizens are taught that the news is a reliable and useful source of information. For example, within a developing nation which has a corrupt government, journalistic expose' of the government are extremely important for reform.

11. This theory can be postulated in three historical moments, each with its own basic assumptions.☐ The concept of development journalism in Africa is caught up in the historical evolution of the theory of development communication.

12. It stressed the transfer of the technology and socio-political culture of modernity from the developed North to the Third World. It found its coherent articulation in Everett M Rogers' 'diffusion of innovations' perspective. The first such moment was the 'modernization' paradigm. It dominated the period from about 1945 to 1965.

13. The 'modernization' approach to development, described as the 'dominant paradigm' by Rogers, is represented by such scholars as Walt W Rostow, Everett M Rogers and Daniel Lerner, who posit development communication as an engine of change from the 'traditional' to the 'modern' society.☐

14. Here, the role of the mass media would be to create awareness of, and interest in, the innovations espoused by change agents. It is clear that this mechanism was influenced to a large extent by the two-step flow model of media influence, with the notion of 'opinion leaders' playing a key role in bringing about modernizing practices among their fellow citizens.

15. Secondly, the diffusion approach looks to the mass media as an 'institutional' nexus of modernizing practices and institutions in society, functioning as 'watchdogs', 'policymakers' and 'teachers for change and modernization'.

16. This approach to development communication (and therefore development journalism) is associated with the elevation of the aspirations of the newly independent nations of the Third World for political, economic and cultural self-determination and an ideological distancing from Western forms of modernization. The second historical moment is the dependency-dissociation paradigm.

17. In the tradition of dependency-dissociation, Nkrumah of Ghana, Nyerere of Tanzania and Kaunda of Zambia espoused the 'revolutionary theory' of the press. This 'theory' entailed greater state control of the media, a departure from the private ownership of media evident in the colonial period.

18. Thus the idea of development journalism was in the early 1960s associated with independent journalism that provided constructive criticism of government and its agencies, informed readers how the development process was affecting them, and highlighted local self-help projects.

19. This third moment is variously referred to as the 'multiplicity' or 'another development' paradigm. Subsequently, the third historical moment of development communication emerged, described as 'emancipatory journalism.'



20. It points to a development strategy which is not merely inclusive of, but largely emanating from, the receivers or audience themselves. This development journalism model sets forth the importance of the cultural identity of local communities and stresses the value of democratization and participation at all levels.

21. The main strength of this kind of developmental journalism is that it may be seen as an extension of Paulo Freire's dialogical pedagogy, which emphasizes participatory communication and 'Conscientisation' of the people.

What is relevant development journalism?

Does development journalism matter? Do journalists require good journalistic skills to cover development projects? In reality, the two cannot be separated. Good journalism based on ethics, well balanced information, fairness and accuracy lays the foundation for every type of journalism. In certain situations where development is the core issue, there is a need for journalists to apply such principles to highlight it and make sure that the public is served with accurate information to assist with decision-making. Bad journalism fails to provide accurate and balanced facts, and often leads to public misunderstanding. It often highlights the roles and needs of only certain players while leaving out the rest. Bad journalism can do a lot of harm by providing the public with superficial information. It can distort knowledge and stop society from learning. Development journalism is called '**bad journalism**' when it fails to articulate people's needs and how a development process is carried out and affects society. When the media merely promotes government projects, or praises the political elite for their role in the so-called national development without trying to look deeper into its process and impacts, it is called 'propaganda'. Development journalism is still relevant and useful if it is able to avoid such a trap. Good development journalism does not serve a government. It serves the society as a whole by doing its best in giving information on positive as well as negative aspects of development projects. By doing so, it will help in opening up a democratic space for meaningful public participation in the process of development.

Journalists covering development issues need to take into account several factors. These are:

- **People:** In covering development, journalists are often confused and overwhelmed with details about projects, process, budget and implementation. Many journalists tend to forget the most important element of development—people. A good journalist must be quick to identify the people involved in his or her development story, and try to get their voices into the story as much as possible.
- **People's needs:** what are the needs of the people identified in the story? Does the development project respond to such needs? Needs in some cases may not be limited only to basic material well being such as food, shelter, healthcare or education. It may include a need for their identity to be accepted or for freedom to live the way they choose. A good development story cannot ignore the real needs of the people.
- **Types of development:** Is the project really a 'development' project, or is it only a charity in disguise? When an uncountable number of groups went to the six Andaman provinces of Thailand to work on relief projects, several reports indicated problems from some fly-by-night groups whose methods in relief operations were short-term and contrary to sustainable goals. In some cases money or materials were repeatedly given to people in some villages without a long-term plan while villagers in other places still faced severe hardship. Such methods did not properly respond to the overall development goal, while stirring up conflicts among aid recipients.
- **Identify people's agendas:** In some situations economic well-being is not the only answer to people's needs regarding the high level of poverty they encounter. Good development journalism must be able to extract people's inner agenda and put it in context. In many conflict areas in Southeast Asia, including southern Thailand where armed struggles between groups and



government, or among groups have become prolonged, the majority of people suffer poverty. Development projects that cost huge sums of money failed to end the violence. In this case, journalists must find answers to what is lacking in the projects and identify the real needs and problems.

- **Find out the truth behind economic growth data:** Find out if statistics tell the truth about the majority, or if it lies. While economic growth data says the country has reached a certain level of wellbeing, what do the people in the village really think?
- **Raise questions beyond national boundaries:** To understand sources of underdevelopment in a country, journalists must be able to look beyond a national context and back. For example, while rich countries pressure for free trade, they keep on protecting their own industries. Journalists must find out if there are impacts on the lives of local farmers or industrial workers and what governments of developing countries are doing to solve the problems.
- **Does 'development' create a problem itself?** Journalists must find out the shortcomings of development as well. For example, a government policy on 'village funds' in Thailand in 2001 allowed a small loan for villagers throughout the country. Several media reports indicated a higher level of bad debts years later. According to the reports, while the government said the loan was to help villagers in their farming process, proper control of how villagers should spend the loan was lacking. The policy, which was branded 'populist', was in effect a tool to build a political base for the leader.
- **Identify people's potential in development:** Instead of painting ordinary people merely as 'victims' or 'passive actors' in development processes, journalists should find out more about their aspirations, inspirations and involvement. Instead of seeking opinions only from government officials and experts, space should be given to ordinary people to express their views.
- **Use several sources and verify what they say:** Journalists must involve sources from as many groups as possible. Villagers, experts, civil servants, politicians, etc., must be given ample coverage. A media organisation should be open to public input, whether in the form of letters, articles or other forms. Information, however, must be verified using journalistic methods in order to prevent mistakes.
- **Follow the money:** Development projects usually involve huge amounts of money and complicated procedures. Cases in the past have shown that many development schemes ended up mired in corruption scandals. Journalists covering development projects cannot avoid asking questions such as, 'how the money was spent and by whom, whether the project really benefited people in need, and if not, why'?
- **Have a clear ethical position:** In many issues, journalists must ask themselves if they are getting drawn into organisational agendas or conflicts while covering development projects. When a project involves many stakeholders and millions of dollars, conflicts often arise. Journalists should be on the guard against such situations and make sure that they report without becoming unduly influenced.



UNIT- III

Barriers to development communication

Why is Great Britain more developed than Angola, or the United States than Colombia? The very simple answer, since it is basically a truism, is that the level and pace of economic development are lower the greater are the barriers to economic progress and transformation in a country, and more rapid the fewer and less intractable are those obstacles. The challenge for the development analyst is thus to attempt to identify the most significant barriers to development in each country and to formulate effective measures, including public policy, that can begin to undo, remove or at least minimize the effects of these obstacles to progress that slow or thwart the development process. Barriers to change and development can be either **internal or external** to a country.

1) **Potential internal barriers to development** Some examples of possible internal barriers that tend to block change and thus thwart economic growth and development are (a) inequalities in the existing distribution of land ownership; for most countries, wealth distribution is intimately related to the nature and power of class relations in society and control over economic resources and the political sphere, as well; (b) the level and efficiency of infrastructural development (roads, electricity, water, communication services, port facilities and so on); (c) the role and level of development of organized banking and lending activities and of equity (stock) and other financial markets and financial intermediaries; (d) an ineffective or underdeveloped educational system, including both relatively low levels of general literacy and an imbalance between allocations of financing to lower and higher education; (e) prevailing ideological concepts and their impact on thinking and behaviour, including the influence of religious thinking, the accepted role of women and ethnic or religious minorities, the prevailing economic orthodoxy, and so on; (f) the initial endowment of natural resources of a nation; (g) the role of the state, that is, the power and nature of the influence of government, including the degree of political freedom and the strength of democratic processes; (h) the extent and importance of political corruption and patronage and the impact of these on public policies and on economic behaviour of those governed; (i) the existence of substantial 'market failures', in which market signals are not fully, completely, or accurately transmitted to economic agents, thus distorting resource allocation, production decisions, spending patterns, and so on.

2) **Potential external barriers to development** Examples of possible external barriers to development include (a) multinational or transformational corporation; (b) the international division of labour and the prevailing patterns of international trade (e.g., primary commodity exporting countries versus manufactured-good exporting countries), including the operation of the organized institutional structure of the international trade system, the effects of the World Trade Organization's negotiations and of regional trading arrangements, such as the European Union (EU) or the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA); (c) the functioning of international financial institutions, including not only the international private commercial banks, but also the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF); (d) the influence of the geopolitical and strategic interests of larger economic powers vis-à-vis smaller and weaker economic entities; and (e) the economic policies (on interest rates, for example, or on tariffs or non-tariff barriers) of more developed nations on the global economic system, and so on.

This very general division into internal and external barriers is meant only to be suggestive in a general way of the types of barriers to progress that can confront individual countries. For any specific nation, be it India or Thailand, Cote d'Ivoire or Somalia, Bolivia or Guyana, the list of possible internal and external obstacles can only be a guide toward the identification and detailed specification of the unique particulars of the barriers actually operating to thwart progress in that country. For every nation, the identification of the barriers to change, and then the specifics of how each obstacle acts as a restraint on progress, need to be clearly and analytically defined so that the nature of the remedy is also made more apparent.



However, that all countries, including developed nations, always face both internal and external barriers that act as obstacles to continued progress. What is central, then, as to whether further development in any particular nation will occur or not, and at what pace, is not whether there are obstacles to further progress – for there always are – but rather how, and whether, these existing, and then future, barriers are to be overcome by that society. New obstacles to continued progress inevitably will arise as development takes place, often as a consequence of overcoming an earlier barrier. All countries thus confront forces, some active, others simply a consequence of lethargy, that tend to slow the pace of change and block the path of development.

The issue, then, is not why some countries face obstacles and others do not, since all nations encounter barriers to further progress. The challenge is to try to discover how those nations which have been successful at fostering and sustaining economic growth and development by overcoming successive barriers have been able to do so, and what might be learned from their histories.

The Seven Barriers Of Communication

Most people would agree that communication between two individuals should be simple. It's important to remember that there are differences between talking and communicating. When you communicate, you are successful in getting your point across to the person you're talking to. When we talk, we tend to erect barriers that hinder our ability to communicate. There are seven of these types of barriers to effective communication.

1. Physical barriers are easy to spot – doors that are closed, walls that are erected, and distance between people all work against the goal of effective communication. While most agree that people need their own personal areas in the workplace, setting up an office to remove physical barriers is the first step towards opening communication. Many professionals who work in industries that thrive on collaborative communication, such as architecture, purposefully design their workspaces around an “open office” plan. This layout eschews cubicles in favor of desks grouped around a central meeting space. While each individual has their own dedicated work space, there are no visible barriers to prevent collaboration with their co-workers. This encourages greater openness and frequently creates closer working bonds.

2. Perceptual barriers, in contrast, are internal. If you go into a situation thinking that the person you are talking to isn't going to understand or be interested in what you have to say, you may end up subconsciously sabotaging your effort to make your point. You will employ language that is sarcastic, dismissive, or even obtuse, thereby alienating your conversational partner. Think of movie scenarios in which someone yells clipped phrases at a person they believe is deaf. The person yelling ends up looking ridiculous while failing to communicate anything of substance.

3. Emotional barriers can be tough to overcome, but are important to put aside to engage in conversations. We are often taught to fear the words coming out of our own mouths, as in the phrase “anything you say can and will be used against you.” Overcoming this fear is difficult, but necessary. The trick is to have full confidence in what you are saying and your qualifications in saying it. People often pick up on insecurity. By believing in yourself and what you have to say, you will be able to communicate clearly without becoming overly involved in your emotions.

4. Cultural barriers are a result of living in an ever shrinking world. Different cultures, whether they be a societal culture of a race or simply the work culture of a company, can hinder developed communication if two different cultures clash. In these cases, it is important to find a common ground to work from. In work situations, identifying a problem and coming up with a highly efficient way to solve it can quickly topple any cultural or institutional barriers. Quite simply, people like results.

5. Language barriers seem pretty self-inherent, but there are often hidden language barriers that we aren't always aware of. If you work in an industry that is heavy in jargon or technical language, care should be taken to avoid these words when speaking with someone from outside the industry. Without being patronizing, imagine explaining a situation in your industry to a child. How would you convey



these concepts without relying on jargon? A clear, direct narrative is preferable to an incomprehensible slew of specialty terms.

6. Gender barriers have become less of an issue in recent years, but there is still the possibility for a man to misconstrue the words of a woman, or vice versa. Men and women tend to form their thoughts differently, and this must be taken into account when communicating. This difference has to do with how the brain of each sex is formed during gestation. In general, men are better at spatial visualization and abstract concepts such as math, while women excel at language-based thinking and emotional identification. However, successful professionals in highly competitive fields tend to have similar thought processes regardless of their gender.

7. Interpersonal barriers are what ultimately keep us from reaching out to each other and opening ourselves up, not just to be heard, but to hear others. Oddly enough, this can be the most difficult area to change. Some people spend their entire lives attempting to overcome a poor self-image or a series of deeply rooted prejudices about their place in the world. They are unable to form genuine connections with people because they have too many false perceptions blocking the way. Luckily, the cure for this is more communication. By engaging with others, we learn what our actual strengths and weaknesses are. This allows us to put forth our ideas in a clear, straightforward manner.

Communication is not a one-way street. To have others open up to you, you must be open yourself. By overcoming these barriers to communication, you can ensure that the statement you are making is not just heard, but also understood, by the person you are speaking with. In this way, you can be confident that your point has been expressed.

Cultural Barriers to Development

“Culture can contaminate you...If you’re not careful, it will contaminate you, and you will just talk, talk, talk without doing anything.” –Galai Diop

Before I go into the details we have to realize how powerful culture is and how diverse cultures across the world can be. Any social norm is up for grabs. Everything is subject to change. I glance at the *Newsweek* on my floor and see two male hands interlocked with a title concerning gay rights underneath. If I were to show this to a Senegalese friend, they would not get it; in Senegal, guys hold each others’ hands all the time and it has nothing to do with sexual attraction.

Culture is powerful. So many of our actions are heavily influenced (if not dictated) by our culture. In Senegal, I won’t ask a stranger for directions or other information without greeting him first. I don’t want to offend him. In America, I won’t ask a stranger for directions or other information unless I have to. I will excuse myself rather than making conversation about the heat. I don’t want to waste his time. I am the same person, but I act differently depending on where I am and who I’m interacting with. Culture dictates my behavior.

In this example, I have grazed the most important aspects of Senegalese culture: human interaction and community. The Senegalese are an extraverted people and depend on each other for everything from positive social interaction (what I like to call social grooming), to information, to resources. They depend on each other for food, they depend on each other for money, they depend on each other for survival. Whereas America’s survival strategy is rugged individuality, Senegal’s survival strategy is cohesive community. And they do incredibly well at surviving with what they have. Scientific studies have shown (read: in my arbitrary estimation) 20% of the population wouldn’t make it longer than 3 months if a town of Americans was transplanted here. Yet, the Senegalese in my town are doing alright. Despite being one of the poorer countries in the world, just about everyone (outside of the capital at least) has some rice to eat and a place to sleep. So the survival by community strategy works incredibly well at what it is designed to do.

Let’s look at how the community achieves its goal of survival for all despite limited resources. My favorite example is in *The Ponds of Kalambayi* when the author describes the agony of watching his work partner, after months of arduous labor, divvy up the hard-earned catch from his fish pond with everyone in his village until only a couple measly fish remain for him. We suddenly see how rational it



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was of all the other people the narrator had approached about fish ponds to blow him off without a second thought. In a community-based survival setting, there's no incentive to work any more than you have to. You don't reap any of the benefits! And so this strategy goes from boon to barrier when the conversation changes from survival to development.

There are other aspects of the culture trap (don't forget- this culture trap is self-evidently culture specific) that I see. When I see someone who works hard, I look at them with pride; when the Senegalese look at this person, they look at them with pity. Compare the American's sometimes sadistic desire for challenge and the (not always, but often) Senegalese aversion to hard work, and guess which culture is better geared to advance materially. I don't claim to understand the sociological reasons for these differences or that they will not change. But almost everyday, I'm reminded that: "When an American needs money, he works for it. When an African needs money, he talks for it."

How can communication barriers be overcome?

Some barriers will prove difficult and rather insurmountable. However, there are many ways in which communication hurdles can be overcome. One such way is by an appreciation of other cultures and language elements. Learning other languages can help to facilitate greater communication. This can take the form of intensive language courses, or simply by demonstrating a willingness to absorb the dialects and languages featured in another culture. Finding this common ground is more of an issue of will and want. If individuals are willing to do so, it can be done. Seeing that this is being addressed from a business point of view, it might be even more pressing to do so. Allowing communication barriers to exist can result in the lack of development in new markets for products and services and can also result in a decrease in productivity. Business managers must pay attention to how one makes inroads in new markets and communication can play a vital role in this. Advertising in other languages and engaging in

broader outreach to these markets can help in a globalized and interdependent system as the current market place. Finally, the use of information technology can allow information to be disseminated and absorbed in quick time, almost "real time." This helps to initiate and continue communication, as opposed to a time lag which, coupled with apathy, can help to increase communication barriers.



UNIT -IV

INTRODUCTION TO TRADITIONAL MEDIA

In your earlier lessons, you have learnt a lot about communication, various media forms used for communication as well as the use of communication in our day to day life. But it is also important to understand that communication is not only confined to print, television, radio, photography, internet etc. There are other ways of communication which exist in different forms in and around you.

Can you recall having seen a dance performance, a magic show or a festival mela? Do you realize that all these forms communicate some messages of entertainment, education or information through them?

Have you ever thought of how people used to share or exchange their joy, sorrow or information with each other before the existence of electronic media. What were the mediums that helped them to communicate with each other? In this lesson, you will learn about some of these mediums of communication.

OBJECTIVES

- define traditional media;
- identify different forms of traditional media;
- differentiate between traditional media and electronic media;
- discuss the use of traditional media in communication.

DEFINITION OF TRADITIONAL MEDIA

Even today you will find villages where there is no proper electricity. People in such places might not be able to view television or access the internet. Similarly illiterate people will not be able to read newspapers or magazines. However, this does not mean they do not communicate. They have also developed different ways of communication depending upon the local language and culture. You may have heard many stories from your parents or grandparents about the Ramayana, Mahabharata, about kings and queens who ruled the country several years ago. Similarly there are stories about festivals and rituals and how to become good human beings. Information in this way has been handed over from one generation to another and constitute different forms of traditional media.

The non electronic mediums which works as part of our culture and as vehicles of transmitting tradition from one generation to another generation is called traditional media.
few forms of traditional media around you

Traditional media comes in different forms and is known by different names in different regions of the country. For instance, in Andhra Pradesh, 'Janapadam' indicates a village and 'Janapadulu' means villagers. The folk art forms of villages, on the whole are known as 'Janapada Kalalu'. Similarly Lok Natya or Lok Geet means 'people's dance' or 'people's song'. There are many other forms of folk arts in other states of India. These are used as 'Jan Madhyamas' i.e 'people's media'. These forms represent the conformed people by giving a glimpse of their style, speech, music, dance, dress, behaviour, etc.

Traditional tools of communication are developed from the beliefs, customs, and rituals practised by the people. These are very old and deep-rooted. Traditional media thus represents a form of communication employing vocal, verbal, musical and visual folk art forms, transmitted to a society or group of societies from one generation to another. They are indigenous modes and have served the society as tools/medium of communication for ages. Do these traditional forms of communication exist today? Yes, they do. The context culture and form may be different but the purpose is served. Some common examples are **Rangoli** (the art of making designs using coloured powder), **storytelling, drama and puppetry.**



Different forms of traditional media

A traditional media form can be anything which does the purpose of communication in your family, friends and as a whole in society. All the forms may not be popular but they help to communicate. You have already seen that these forms are different in different regions and communities. But for your understanding, these can be divided into the following:

- traditional dance
- drama
- painting
- sculpture
- song
- music
- motifs and symbols

It will be interesting to note that in some forms of traditional media, all the above can be used. For example 'Ramleela' which is a folk play telling the story of Lord Rama in a traditional style is popular in north India and uses all the above traditional mediums.

- One of the popular traditional forms of communication is the announcement made by beating a '**Nagada**' or drum with a stick and used for communicating messages from one village to another through its beats
- **Puppetry** is a popular form of traditional media which exists in rural areas of India. Shadow puppetry and string puppetry are popular forms.
- **Patachitra katha** refers to stories that have been told through the medium of palm leaf paintings.
- **Story telling** is another interesting format of traditional media which existed at a time when advanced forms of communication such as the written word did not exist. For example historical stories of various local heroes who fought battles and participated in the freedom struggle were performed through song and drama. These were not written or documented. Instead they were orally communicated from one house to another or one village to another. They kept the stories alive. Can you recall any such stories from your region? Story-telling forms such as 'Harikatha' and 'Kabigan' played a vital role in communicating historical and epic stories. Story telling is also practised in traditional youth clubs like the Ghotul of the tribal murias of Bastar or the Dhumkuria of the Oraons of Bihar.
- **Nautanki** is a famous form of folk arts involving a mix of music and dance and popular in northern India. It was the most popular form of entertainment before the advent of cinema.
- **Fairs and festivals** including social, ritual and ceremonial gatherings created a platform to meet and exchange views among people.
- **Folk dances** vary from one place to another. For example, you will find a variety of tribal dances in the north eastern region, Orissa and Gujarat. Every tribe has a different dance form and dress, accessories, symbols and motifs.
- **Traditional paintings, wall paintings, inscriptions, statues and stupas** played a vital role in communicating ideas and culture from one generation to another.
- Forms of traditional media also include the house barn and **fence** types. When the **traditional conventional sounds** used to summon animals or give the commands are considered as different modes of communication.

You must understand that these are only broad categorizations. There are many regional variations.

- myths
- legends
- folktales
- jokes
- proverbs
- riddles
- chants
- blessing
- curses
- oaths



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- insults
- retorts
- taints
- games
- gestures
- symbols
- prayers
- practical

- jokes
- folk etymologies
- food-recipes
- embroidery designs
- costumes
- medicine
- instrumental music

From the above table, identify and make a list of traditional media forms in your every day life.

- crafts
- ballads
- charms
- customs
- tales
- places
- names,
- superstition
- witchcraft
- folk medicine

- gestures
- festivals
- rhymes
- literary artistic expressions
- tales fables
- beliefs
- dance
- metaphors
- names

TRADITIONAL MEDIA VS TELEVISION

Have you found any difference between watching a television programme and watching Ramleela or listening to stories from your grandmother? Let us list out some of the differences between traditional media and electronic media.

Differences between Traditional Media and Television

Traditional media

- non-technological in nature
- flexible in nature but culturally rigid
- less expensive medium
- messages are presented
- before a live audience reach is limited

Electronic media

- Technological in nature
- flexible but enjoys cultural freedom
- expensive medium which needs high monetary investment
- messages are transmitted or broadcast
- reaches out to a large number of people

In traditional media forms like storytelling, theatre, dance, singing etc, your body is your media. You can create messages and communicate without using any form of mass media. You can create your own media. For example in street theatre, social or political messages are presented before the public with a performance by a group of performers. You do not need any special piece of equipment unlike in television or radio. Likewise, ballad singing is a popular form where a single person sings on issues related to the public. It will be very simple to understand. But at the same time, it contains several critical comments about society. Here also, there is no need for instruments, chorus or a stage. A singer with a



creative thought and awareness of issues and loud vocal strength can turn himself into a powerful people's (traditional) medium.

On the other hand, for the electronic media, you need a certain style, dress code, b diction, literacy etc. They generally do not involve active audience participation. But traditional media is inclusive in nature. They are highly intimate and local specific and deeply connected to one's own lives.

USE OF TRADITIONAL MEDIA IN COMMUNICATION

Traditional media have been in existence in India for long and have been used as a medium of communication in rural areas. Over the years, rural masses have been using the folk media for expressing their social, ritual, moral and emotional needs.

Traditional media has a crucial role to perform in the process of socio-economic development in India. It helps in convincing and influencing people in a very effective way.

For example during the freedom struggle, folk media played a great role in spreading the message of patriotism. Utpal Dutt who was a popular actor is said to have used **Jatra**, a traditional theatre form in Bengal during the freedom struggle. **Paala**, a traditional form of ballad singing is used for spreading awareness on various social issues by the government of Orissa.

The Song and Drama Division of the government of India uses various forms of traditional media to spread awareness on a number of social issues like AIDS, polio immunization etc.

You all know that during festivals, we exchange sweets, greet each other and decorate our houses. This communicates our friendship and love for others. This is also an example of the traditional form of communication. Today we use modern ways of communication such as the mobile phone and internet to send messages of friendship and greetings. Communication through traditional media thus helps in building good relations.



UNIT-V

Panchayat Raj

For sustainable economic and social development to take place in any country, it is necessary that people participate in the political process. Panchayats have been a vibrant and dynamic identity of the Indian villages since the beginning of recorded history. The word “panchayat” is a traditional one, referring to the five elders in a village who mediated conflict and spoke on behalf of all the residents of a village in pre-modern times. But, in these traditional bodies, the lower castes—and women—had no representation, and that was ignored. Gandhiji, the Father of the Nation, in 1946 had aptly remarked that the Indian Independence must begin at the bottom and every village ought to be a Republic with Panchayat, having powers. Gandhiji’s dream has been translated into reality with the introduction of the three-tier Panchayati Raj System to ensure people’s participation in rural reconstruction.

The Constitution provided, [in Part 4, The Directive Principles of State Policy, Article 40] for the setting up of village panchayats. But this is non-justiciable, and there was no pressure on any state to set up such a system. Many saw this article as a concession to Gandhi, rather than as a serious matter to be immediately implemented. The reason for this was the powerful voice of Dr Ambedkar. Drawing on his own experience of rural India as it then was, he argued that local elite and upper castes were so well entrenched that any local self government only meant the continuing exploitation of the Down trodden masses of Indian society. **Nehru shared this view.**

Thus, in addition to affirmative action enshrined in the Constitution, the distribution of powers was deliberately made to favour the Union as against the local, even state governments.

The Union, being far away from the squalid battles of rural India, and being looked after by an educated and urban strata of society, would, it was felt, be more just - or at least more impartial - in its dealings with the downtrodden. The Union in those early days took up what was called the **Community Development Programme**. This was meant for all round social and economic development, and it was an important ministry headed for long by S.K. Dey. It was this programme that brought in such functionaries as the Village Level Worker and the Block Development Officer. After the 1960s this programme declined, as centrifugal forces led to the gradual dominance of the Union. Finally, the Ministry of Community Development ceased to exist. That philosophy became a thing of the past.

Balwant Rai Mehta Committee in the late 1960s came up with the idea of local governments, which was given the traditional name of Panchayat. Later, in another context, the **Ashok Mehta Committee** in the late 1970s too made recommendations for the setting up of local governments. These had an important impact many years down the line. It is from the Union’s experience of development programmes that the idea/need for local governments came to be pushed. It has been a top-level initiative for local development and decentralized administration. Given the overall centralizing trends in the Indian polity, the States too developed an authoritarian system of governance. States almost became subservient to the Union. Art 356 was used to keep a firm check on the behaviour of state governments.

This ensured that strong hierarchical systems developed. All this was further strengthened during the Emergency. The states behaved in the same dominating way with lower tiers of administration. Strong line departments of the state governments took over development programmes. Indian democracy lost the grass roots link: it became a top down system. At the same time the bureaucracy grew in influence.

However, several state governments conducted their own experiments with local self-government. This is the result of the shift in power from the traditional upper castes to the OBCs or intermediate castes—certainly in states like Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. The changes that occurred over the last 50 years of planned development also resulted in pressures from below, to which political forces have had to respond. Policy makers found after four decades of independence and five year plans that the implementation of development programmes, like the IRDP, for example, would be most effective if local people were involved. The strident debate on Centre-State relations, the poor targeting of poverty alleviation programmes and the like led to the realization that local involvement—participation—is essential if such programme are to succeed. This is specially so for beneficiary identification, and to a smaller extent, for decisions on how to spend the limited amount available locally on different local



projects. And given the lack of interest in devolving such power in most of the states, coercion through a Constitutional amendment was the chosen route for introducing such decentralization.

April 24, 1993 is a landmark day in the history of Panchayati Raj in India as on this day the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 came into force to provide constitutional status to the Panchayati Raj institutions. The amendment prescribed a three tier system of local governance for the entire country. This has been effective since 1993.

The passage of the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 marks a new era in the federal democratic set up of the country and provides constitutional status to the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs). Consequent upon the enactment of the Act, almost all the States/Union Territories, except J&K, National Capital Territory (NCT) Delhi and Arunachal Pradesh have enacted their legislation. Except Assam, Arunachal Pradesh, Bihar, NCT Delhi and Pondicherry, all other States/UTs have held elections. As a result, 2,27,698 Panchayats at village level; 5,906 Panchayats at intermediate level and 474 Panchayats at district level have been constituted in the country. These Panchayats are being manned by about 34 lakh elected representatives of Panchayats at all levels. This is the broadest representative base that exists in any country of the world - developed or underdeveloped.

The main features of the Act are:

1. A 3-tier System of Panchayati Raj for all States having population of over 20 lakhs;
2. Panchayat elections to be held regularly every 5 years;
3. Reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and women (not less than one-third of seats);
4. Constitution of State Finance Commission to make recommendations as regards the financial powers of the Panchayats and
5. Constitution of District Planning Committees to prepare development plans for the district as a whole.

The Three Tiers of PRIs

Panchayat now means the three tiers of local administration brought in by the 73rd amendment—the highest, being the district or zilla panchayat. The powers that these panchayats enjoy are enshrined in the laws enacted by each state, and, in India, there is considerable variation across states.

These bodies, which are legally local government, have a pyramidal structure. At the base is the **gram sabha**—the entire body of citizens in a village or “grama”. This is the general body that elects the local government and charges it with specific responsibilities. This body is expected to meet at specific times and approve major decisions taken by the elected body. Gram ensures downward accountability, transparency and voice to the people. In reality, this is far from being the case.

Above this basic unit of democracy, is the **gram panchayat** or GP, which is the first level elected body, covering a population of around five thousand people. This may include more than one village. It is not uncommon to find several villages coming under one GP. This has implications for women’s participation, as women have limited mobility. At the district level is a **zilla panchayat**, which is the link with the state government. In between the two is an intermediate body called, in Karnataka, the **taluk panchayat**, which is expected to play a co-ordinating role among the GPs in its jurisdiction and the ZP in planning and administration. While the levels are common across the country, states have passed laws that are not necessarily similar with respect to roles functions and responsibilities.

Financial Powers of Panchayati Raj Institutions Article 243-G of the Constitution of India provides that the States/UTs may, by law, endow the Panchayats with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as institutions of self-government and to prepare plans for economic development and social justice, and their implementation including those in relation to the matters listed in the Eleventh Schedule.

As per Article 243-H of the Constitution, State Legislatures have been empowered to enact laws:

- to authorise a Panchayat to levy, collect and appropriate some taxes, duties, tolls and fees;
- to assign the Panchayat, some taxes, duties and tolls levied, and collected by the State Government;



- to provide for making grants-in-aid to the Panchayats from the Consolidated Fund of the State; and
- to provide for constitution of such funds for Panchayats for crediting all money received by or on behalf of Panchayats and also the withdrawal of such money there from.

Further Initiatives

A Conference of the Chief Ministers on Panchayati Raj was held on 2nd August, 1997, at Vigyan Bhavan, New Delhi, under the chairmanship of the Hon'ble Prime Minister recommended:

- Leave selection of beneficiaries to Gram Sabha.
- Waive requirement of Technical sanction for works upto Rs.10,000.
- Innovate to provide adequate manpower support to the Gram Panchayats.
- Delegate total control over such manpower to Gram Panchayats.
- Zilla Parishad Chairpersons be made the Chairpersons of DRDAs.
- Provide reasonable opportunity of hearing to the PRIs before suspension/dismissal.
- Gram Panchayat President to be accountable solely to Gram Sabha.
- Expeditious constitution of District Planning Committees.

Empowerment Through Panchayat Raj

In order to ensure that Panchayati Raj Institutions function as instruments of local self-government, it is important that their functional and financial autonomy is guaranteed and transparency in their functioning is ensured. This has to be accomplished in most of the States. The role of the Gram Sabha is, perhaps, the most important in ensuring the success of Panchayati Raj Institutions at the village level. The role of local people in conducting social audit and fixing responsibility on Panchayat functionaries will be effectively ensured with the Gram Sabha becoming active. It is essential that the village community perceives meetings of the Gram Sabha as useful.

- The most important factor for that is the empowerment of the Gram Sabha.
- Another important factor for the success of the Panchayati Raj System is the need for transparency in the functioning of these bodies. Panchayats being closer to the people, their right to information and accessibility to the Panchayats must be ensured. This issue was discussed in the Chief Ministers Conference held on 2nd August, 1997, and the Committee of Chief Ministers as well. It was decided that, Relevant records should be made available for inspection by members of the public. Photocopies of documents such as muster rolls, vouchers, estimates, etc. can be made available to the public on payment of a nominal fee. Technical manuals may be prepared for execution of various works at the Panchayat Level so that transparency can be ensured.
- The Ministry convened a Conference of State Ministers of Rural Development and Panchayati Raj on May 13, 1998.
- A Task Force was constituted under the Chairmanship of the then Minister of State (Independent Charge), Ministry of Rural Areas & Employment to study the structure and functioning of PRIs. The State Governments have been requested to ensure that the Gram Sabha Meetings are convened once in each quarter, preferably on - 26th January -Republic Day; 1st May – Labour Day; 15th August- Independence Day and 2nd October – Gandhi Jayanti. The Government of India decided to observe the year 1999- 2000 as the “Year of Gram Sabha”. This is in recognition that the Gram Sabha is potentially the most significant institution for participatory and decentralised democracy.
- On 17th March, 1999, all Chief Ministers/ Administrators have been requested to initiate measures to energise Gram Sabha in tune with the following Seven Point minimal package during the ‘Year of Gram Sabha’:
 1. The relationship between the Gram Sabha and the Gram Panchayat may be the same as between the Legislature and the Government. The Panchayat should be accountable to the Gram Sabha in unequivocal terms. The members of the Panchayats should hold office only so long as they enjoy the confidence of Gram Sabha.



2. The Gram Sabha should have full powers for determining the priorities for various programmes in the village and approval of budget. Prior approval of Gram Sabha should be made mandatory for taking up any programme in the village. Certification of expenditure and also about proprietary in financial dealings should be made mandatory and Gram Sabha is responsible for that.
3. The management of natural resources including land, water and forest by any authority whatsoever should be made subject to the concurrence of the Gram Sabha. Consultation with the Gram Sabha should be made mandatory before acquisition of land for public purpose and other forms of land transfer.
4. The Gram Sabha should be vested with full authority to manage all affairs concerning intoxicants including their manufacture, sale, transport and consumption and also enforcement of total prohibition, if the Gram Sabha so desires.
5. Participation of women, SC and ST members in the Gram Sabha should be made mandatory with suitable provision for their presence in the quorum of Gram Sabha meetings.
6. The Gram Sabha should have the power to evolve its own procedure for conducting its business including decisionmaking following the principles of natural justice.
7. The rules and regulations which may be issued by the Government in this regard from time to time should be deemed to be as guidelines.

Empowerment to Tribal People

The provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996, came into force on 24th December, 1996. This Act extends Panchayats to the tribal areas of States such as Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Orissa and Rajasthan, which intends to enable tribal society to assume control over their own destiny to preserve and conserve their traditional rights over natural resources. The State Governments were required to enact their legislation in accordance with the Provisions of the Act before the expiry of one year i.e. 23rd December, 1997. States barring Bihar have enacted State Legislation to give effect to the provisions contained in Act 40,1996.

Training of PRI members

As a result of the elections of Panchayats in all the States, there are about 3.4 million elected representatives at all levels of Panchayats. Out of this, an overwhelming majority is new entrants, particularly from the weaker sections of the society, i.e., Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and women (33%). The Constitution having placed vast responsibility on the Gram Panchayats to formulate and execute various programmes of economic development and social justice, elected representatives who will have to acquire the required skill and given appropriate orientation. The success of the Panchayati Raj system hinges largely on the extent to which their capabilities are built to perform these functions and responsibilities. Thus, a time-bound and systematic training programme to provide orientation of the elected representatives on a very large scale is considered to be the most important pre-requisite for the success of the PRIs. The States/UT governments are required to work out systematic and comprehensive training programmes to train the representatives of PRIs and to generate awareness among the masses at the grass-roots level and to strengthen the Gram Sabha.

The Ministry of Rural Development extends limited financial assistance to the States in their effort to train and create awareness among the PRI elected members and functionaries. The Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) has been entrusted with the task of preparation of the syllabus for the certificate course. The State Governments are being requested to conduct these courses. IGNOU is also involved in the Distance Education Programme.

The Ministry of Rural Development has also been providing financial assistance through the Council for Advancement of People's Action & Rural Technology (CAPART) to the Non-Governmental Organisations with proven track record for conducting training and awareness generation programmes on Panchayati Raj. The Research Advisory Committee headed by the Secretary (Rural Development) approves proposals



on Action Research studies related to Panchayati Raj which are received from voluntary organisations/institutions. The Central outlay for training during the Eighth Plan was Rs.8.80crores, during 2000-2001, an amount of Rs.3crores was allocated, and Rs.3crores for 2001-2002.

Reservations for Women

73rd Amendment of the Constitution reserved 33% seats for women in Panchayats. This provision is a major move towards strengthening the position of rural women. The introduction of women in sizable numbers into the new Panchayat could bring significant changes in the functioning of these grass-root level institutions. Involvement of women in the Panchayati Raj Institutions is expected to bring qualitative change in the matters relating to health nutrition, children welfare, family care, drinking water etc. The reservation was given not because women who were conscientised demanded their due share in power, or contested in large numbers to capture seats in these bodies. Women [as a group] were caught quite unprepared by this development. In the rural India, where women literacy is very low, especially where presidentship is reserved for SC\ST women, emerged many problems like women were made “Dummy”, where actual decisions were taken by men and politicians, and people of the upper caste. Deciding the venue, time, and day has lot to do with women participation.

Reservations for SC/ST

There is a mandatory provision for reservation of seats for SC/ST in every tier of Panchayati Raj System. The reservation for SC/ST is another significant aspect for development of disadvantaged groups in the rural areas.

Role of Panchayats in Human Resource Development

1. Panchayati Raj Institution should ensure development of human resources by providing weak and under privileged opportunities like education, training, basic health services necessary for their growth and development.
2. Panchayati Raj Institutes should ensure that all the sections of the society particularly weaker section including women and girl child get adequate opportunity for developing human resource potential.
3. Panchayat can play a major role in development of human resource for weaker section by disseminating information on special development programmes for them.
4. Voluntary groups and local agencies should be encouraged by PRIs in effective implementation of human resource development programmes.

Role of Panchayats in Social Mobilization and Participation for Development:

Panchayati Raj system has provided avenues for facilitating people's participation at the grass-root level in the following ways:

1. Gram Sabha will provide an open forum for discussion on various village level development activities thereby ensuring peoples participation.
2. Representation of weaker sections in the decision making process.
3. Empowering rural women through an induction of 1/3 reservation in the Panchayati Raj bodies.

Panchayati Raj System and Micro Level Planning

Planned development being an essential feature of Indian economy, Panchayati Raj Institutions play an effective role in the preparation of planning for socio economic development of the rural areas. Each tier has got responsibilities to plan for the socio economic development of the rural people as per their felt need.

Conclusion:

Panchayati Raj Institutions – the grass-roots units of self government– have been proclaimed as the vehicles of socio-economic transformation in rural India. Effective and meaningful functioning of these bodies would depend on active involvement, contribution and participation of its citizens both male and female. Gandhiji's dream of every village being a republic and Panchayats having powers has been translated into reality with the introduction of the three-tier Panchayati Raj system to enlist people's participation in rural reconstruction.