Topic

Communication practices of NGOs in Poverty alleviation programmes in rural communities of Zimbabwe: The Case of Deutsche Weltihungerhilfe German Agro Action (GAA) in Gokwe South Rural District.

By

MR COLLET TASARANAGO

STUDENT NUMBER: 200706152

A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE
MASTER OF SOCIAL SCIENCES IN COMMUNICATION DEGREE
IN THE
DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES
UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE, ALICE
SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROF ABIODUN SALAWU
**Declaration**

I declare that the following study represents my original work except where otherwise indicated. I guarantee that no similar work has ever been submitted by anyone at any other university or institution of higher learning.

Collet Tasaranago

Signature: ..........................  Date: .....................
Dedication

Rhoda and Jobe Tasaranago you are the best parents,

Melody Mtisi your love, care and support,

I will cherish forever”,

and

Nolleen Tasaranago-Mashiri, my beloved sister, I miss you and I still can’t believe that you departed during my studies.
Acknowledgments

Firstly, I humble myself as I thank God for this could not have been possible without Him. “I can do all things through Jesus Christ who strengthens me.”

I want to thank the Govan Mbeki Research and Development Centre (GMRDC) of the University of Fort Hare for financing this research.

I am humbled by the level of patience, encouragement and critical supervision by Professor Salawu. I know you went beyond your limits to bring me on track. I appreciate your patience with me during a time when I had pressing social issues to deal with. When I was struggling and almost quitting, I remember you said to me ‘I know you can do it...’ that will ever remain vivid in my mind.

To my family thanks for all your encouragement and prayers. Andrew, my nephews and niece, I hope you will emulate from this. A special thanks to Melody for the support, prayers and care. You contributed a lot to the success of this project. Thanks to my young brother Andrew Tasaranago for the support and understanding during the time of my study.

Munyaradzi Kapfudza, Onai Kalasaru and Marvelous Chapwanya, thank you guys for being great friends. To my best friend Jayden, I will always love you. You taught me how to endure all forms of hardship and pain. Be blessed.

I also acknowledge GAA Gokwe for allowing me to conduct this study. GAA staff were very helpful, especially Ms. Vimbayi Dhliwayo and Mr. Silence Mugoni.

A special thanks to my stars in this work, Mr. Arnold Gwaze for assisting with the data analysis and Mr. Ayami Gaka for the editing of this work. I know you all spent some nights awake for this outcome. May God bless you.
Abstract

The aim of this study was to analyse the communication practices of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in their poverty alleviation programmes, using Deutsche Weltihungerhilfe German Agro Action (GAA) in Gokwe South Rural District, Midlands Province, Zimbabwe as a case study. The study was based on the premise that effective communication is essential for successful poverty alleviation programmes. Communication facilitates the diffusion of innovations and encourages active participation by local people in programmes. It is also clear that despite several attempts to end the social malaise, poverty still persists. While several factors such as corruption, misappropriation of funds and misdirection of programs are not innocuous considering the failures of poverty alleviation programmes, communication is an indispensible tool to their success. It therefore becomes imperative that the communication practices be evaluated to identify the missing links. It is evident that by so doing, going forward, NGOs can effectively communicate with the local people and advances towards poverty alleviation can be realised. To this end, third world countries amongst them Zimbabwe and particularly rural communities, Gokwe included continue to suffer from poverty despite a number of programmes to address the pandemic by NGOs. The study was guided by the tenets of the Diffusion of innovations and Participatory development communication theories. These theories were considered the most applicable in terms of the research subject. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative research methods and it was carried out in four of the wards in the district. The research methods were applied to solicit information from the rural people on how communication took place between the organisation and the community. The study found out that GAA used mainly the Indigenous Communication Systems (ICSs) in form of meetings and interpersonal face-to-face communication modes. Names of projects were also fairly used for communication. The Modern Communication Systems (MCSs) used were cell phones and letters. GAA used local
languages mainly Shona and Ndebele and was flexible with the use of the indigenous languages. English language was also used for communication. The communication modes as well as the languages used were effective. The research also analysed and evaluated the communication practices by GAA. The study found out that the organisation effectively used the communication modes which were available for use but there were limitations in terms of access to other communication modes, especially the modern mediums due to poor infrastructure, state monopolisation of the mass media industry using regulations and fear of political persecution. The modern communication modes which GAA did not have access to could facilitate the diffusion of innovations and provide adequate information for active participation by the rural people in poverty alleviation programmes. The study also found out that only one person had heard about GAA through radio and no-one heard about GAA through the television, magazine or newspaper. The organisation did not use these forms of mass media. In addition, the integration of ICSs and MCSs would provide an effective feedback system in Gokwe South Rural District. The researcher suggested the Tilled Communication Field approach whereby every stakeholder is required to make sure that the ICSs and MCSs are available for use by anyone at anytime for development purposes. There is need to give everyone adequate opportunity to use all the communication systems and users are advised to use communication for positive purposes, poverty alleviation included.
**List of acronyms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AIPPA</td>
<td>Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAZ</td>
<td>Broadcasting Authority of Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Chief Executive Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>Central Statistics Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESAP</td>
<td>Economic Structural Adjustment Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAA</td>
<td>German Agro Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSRDC</td>
<td>Gokwe South Rural District Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICSs</td>
<td>Indigenous Communication Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICTs</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCSs</td>
<td>Modern Communication Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non Governmental Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSA</td>
<td>Public Order and Security Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPP</td>
<td>Rural Poverty Portal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHD</td>
<td>Sustainable Human Development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
UN  United Nations

UNESCO  United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
# Table of contents

Declaration........................................................................................................................................ i
Dedication........................................................................................................................................ ii
Acknowledgments .......................................................................................................................... iii
Abstract.......................................................................................................................................... iv
List of acronyms ................................................................................................................................ xi
Table of contents .............................................................................................................................. xi
List of figures .................................................................................................................................... xi
List of tables ..................................................................................................................................... xii

**Chapter 1: Overview and Background to the study** ........................................................................ 1

1.1 Introduction .................................................................................................................................. 1

1.2 Background of the study ............................................................................................................. 2
  1.2.1 Poverty in Zimbabwe ............................................................................................................ 4
  1.2.2 Poverty in Gokwe ................................................................................................................ 6

1.3 Poverty and NGOs ....................................................................................................................... 7

1.4 Rural communication .................................................................................................................. 8

1.5 The Research Problem ............................................................................................................... 9

1.6 Research Questions ................................................................................................................... 11

1.7 Research Objectives .................................................................................................................. 11

1.8 Delimitations ............................................................................................................................. 12

1.9 Limitations .................................................................................................................................. 12
  1.9.1 Accessibility problems .......................................................................................................... 13
  1.9.2 Financial constraints .......................................................................................................... 13
  1.9.3 Data recording .................................................................................................................... 13
  1.9.4 Network and communication problems ............................................................................. 14

1.10 Significance of the study .......................................................................................................... 14

1.11 Ethical considerations .............................................................................................................. 15

1.12 Structure of the thesis .............................................................................................................. 15

1.13 Conclusion ............................................................................................................................... 16
Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Introduction

2.1.2 Conceptual framework

2.1.2.1 Communication: An integrated definition

2.1.2.2 Development communication

2.1.2.3 Communication practices

2.1.2.4 Effective development communication

2.1.2.5 Communication strategy

2.1.2.6 Evaluating the communication strategies

2.1.2.7 Poverty alleviation

2.1.3 Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and development communication

2.1.3.1 Development communication in poverty alleviation programmes

2.1.4 Modes of communication

2.1.4.1 Indigenous Communication Systems (ICSs)

2.1.4.2 Modern Communication Systems (MCSs)

2.1.5 Challenges in communication

2.2 Review: Past related studies

2.2.1 Review of the past related study 1

2.2.2 Review of past related study 2

2.2.3 Review of past related study 3

2.3 Theoretical framework

2.3.1 Diffusion of innovations theory

2.3.2 Participatory development theory

2.3.3 Relevance of the theories to the research

2.4 Conclusion

Chapter 3: Non-Governmental Organisations’ (NGOs) Communication and Poverty alleviation in Zimbabwe

3.1 Introduction

3.2 History of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

3.3 Development and poverty alleviation NGOs in Zimbabwe

3.4 Deutsche Welt hungerhilfe German Agro Action (GAA)

3.5 NGO Legislature in Zimbabwe
Chapter 4: Research Methodology ................................................................. 84
4.1 Introduction ......................................................................................... 84
4.2 Research Design ................................................................................ 84
   4.2.1 Study population ......................................................................... 85
   4.2.2 Sampling Techniques .................................................................. 86
   4.2.3 Research Instruments .................................................................. 89
4.3 Procedure for data collection .............................................................. 90
4.4 Method of data analysis ..................................................................... 92
   4.4.1 Quantitative data analysis ......................................................... 92
   4.4.2 Qualitative data .......................................................................... 92
4.5 Conclusion ......................................................................................... 94
Chapter 5: Data Analysis .......................................................................... 96
5.1 Introduction ......................................................................................... 96
5.1 Presentation of findings ..................................................................... 96
   5.1.1 Quantitative data ....................................................................... 96
   5.2.2 Qualitative data .......................................................................... 108
   5.2.2.2 Results from qualitative data ............................................... 108
5.3 Discussions ......................................................................................... 114
5.4 Conclusion ......................................................................................... 119
Chapter 6: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations ........................ 120
6.1 Introduction ......................................................................................... 120
6.2 Summary of Findings ........................................................................ 120
6.3 Recommendations ............................................................................. 122
6.4 Suggestions for Further Studies ....................................................... 124
List of figures

Figure 2.1 ........................................................................................................ 34
Figure 6.1......................................................................................................... 98
List of tables

Table 5.1 .................................................................................................................. 99
Table 5.2 .................................................................................................................. 101
Table 5.3 .................................................................................................................. 101
Table 5.4 .................................................................................................................. 102
Table 5.5 .................................................................................................................. 104
Table 5.6 .................................................................................................................. 105
Table 5.7 .................................................................................................................. 106
Chapter 1: Overview and Background to the study

1.1 Introduction

Communication methods and practices involve the way people interact to achieve common desired objectives. Communication is a critical factor in the development calculus and efficacy is attained by how well the process of communication is implemented. Researchers have established that mass media promotes development (Olsso, 2007 and Quebral, 2005), but the new concepts of development communication emphasise on the integration of both traditional and modern systems in development and ‘poverty alleviation programmes’ communication (Melkote, 2001). For common objectives to be achieved, messages sent across should be well understood. Local people should participate in the process of communication for the development of their own lives.

The common goal of poverty alleviation can be achieved when the involved parties communicate properly and effectively. In rural Zimbabwe, the rural folks have been exposed to much incessant suffering due to poverty. Central Statistics Office (CSO) (1998) noted that 57% of rural farm workers in Zimbabwe were poor and it is a condition which has worsened since then. Poverty has become a cause of concern amongst ordinary people as well as local/international governmental and non-governmental organisations. Several attempts have been made to mitigate the quandary of poverty in rural communities, yet poverty continues looming in rural Zimbabwe.

Organisations, both governmental and non-governmental have launched a plethora of poverty alleviation programmes, but still the problem persists. The critical factor is how the involved parties, Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and the rural people who are affected communicate. Communication is a crucial tool in development and poverty alleviation.
Therefore, communication should be implemented in a strategic manner for the poverty alleviation programmes to achieve the desired goals.

Literature concerned with the best manner in which communication can be implemented to bring the desired social change have been brought forward by many researchers in the subject of development communication. Participatory communication approaches which are people-centred and context-centred, as alluded to in the alternative paradigm of communication, are encouraged (Melkote, 2001, Salawu, 2004a, Manyozo, 2002 and Quebral, 2005). In this present study, the critical question was to find out how NGOs, Deutsche Weltihungerhilfe German Agro Action (GAA) communicates taking into consideration the concepts so far constructed: the information GAA communicates in poverty alleviation, people’s participation as well as the feedback system. The present study focused on the Deutsche Weltihungerhilfe German Agro Action (GAA) communication methods and practices in Gokwe South Rural District.

1.2 Background of the study

Poverty is a condition in which human beings are subjected to all forms of socio economic deprivation leading to a drastic fall in the quality of life (Jones, 2002). Poverty is in general terms viewed as a state or condition of having little or no money, goods, or means of support (http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/poverty). In other words, it is a condition of being poor and a state of insufficiency (World Bank, 2000). Poverty entails the lack of basic human needs, such as clean and fresh water, nutrition, health care, education, clothing and shelter, because of the inability to afford them. This state is also referred to as absolute poverty or destitution. Relative poverty is the condition of having fewer resources or less income than others within a society or country, or compared to worldwide averages (Townsend, 1979). Poverty is worse in rural areas where the problems of malnutrition, lack of education, low life expectancy and sub-standard housing are more severe. Poverty alleviation has been declared
as one of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the United Nations (Kalim & Salahuddin, 2011). Currently, there are various programmes which are being implemented to alleviate poverty the world over. The communication element has a role to play as the linking factor between the programmes of poverty alleviation and people in rural communities. This encompasses the communication of the programmes on poverty alleviation strategies. The involvement of the communication concept is crucial to ascertain the success of poverty alleviation programmes.

**Poverty in Africa**

Most of the people in the African societies are faced with poverty. Africa has an estimated total population of 888 million and 396 million people from sub-Saharan Africa are poor (UN, 2011). According to the World Bank 2008 report, Africa has the highest percentage of people living on less than $1.25 a day which is 47% (World Bank, 2008). In 2006, 34 out of 50 nations on the United Nations list of the least developing countries were from Africa. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is less than $200 in most African countries and African employees are the least paid in the world. Poverty in Africa is predominantly rural and 75% of the world’s poor people live in rural areas (World Bank, 2008).

The causes of poverty in the African societies date back to the 19th century during the colonial era. Africans lost their economic power as a result of the oppressive imperialistic laws. The imperialist laws disadvantaged the African man in a lot of ways; Africans were stripped off most of their productive land, lost their livestock as well as their access to mineral resources to European settlers. In addition to that, resources in Africa were not used to develop Africa but the colonialists’ nations while Africans supplied cheap labour (Mbeki, 2009). This resulted in poverty and underdevelopment in Africa. Against this background, the Rural Poverty Portal (RPP) (2010) argues that, rural poverty in many areas of Africa has its
roots in the colonial system, the policies and institutional restraints that it imposed on poor people.

Poverty was exacerbated by poor governance, corruption, civil wars and natural disasters such as poor rainfall due to global warming and floods. According to the RPP (2010) most African states have failed to provide people with better economies to free themselves from poverty. Instead, in many transitional economies; the rural situation is marked by continuing stagnation, poor production, low incomes and the rising vulnerability of poor people. Lack of access to markets is a problem for many small-scale enterprises in Africa (RPP, 2010).

Amidst the plethora of problems, most of the educated elite are leaving African nations in search of greener pastures. The able bodied populations also flee to neighbouring countries to seek a better life. This has worsened poverty and led to underdevelopment. Poor medical facilities have also led to high a mortality rate worsening the level of poverty.

HIV/Aids pandemic is also another factor which has aggravated poverty and underdevelopment in the African countries. The numbers of child as well as elderly headed families have increased due to the pandemic. Literacy rates are low in most African nations. The rural communities suffer more.

Africa’s state of development was also weakened by the Bretton Woods Institutions, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) economic restructuring policies. These perpetuated underdevelopment and worsened poverty in Africa. The RPP (2010) says that, structural adjustments also dismantled the existing rural systems. This is the climate of poverty and its causes in Africa.

1.2.1 Poverty in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe as a British colony has also history to blame for its poverty. Colonialism affected the nation’s development. Resources which were meant to develop the country were shipped
to the colonialists’ nations (Mbeki, 2009). Exploitation of Zimbabweans as a source of cheap labour during the colonial era left them in perpetual poverty. More to that, the natives lost their livestock and their fertile land. They were resettled in the reserves and communal lands.

In an attempt to free themselves from colonialism, Zimbabweans resorted to war, the 1\textsuperscript{st} and the 2\textsuperscript{nd} Chimurenga (Uprisings) in 1893 and 1970s respectively (Ranger, 1985). These wars had severe effects on development. They destroyed infrastructure and many lives were lost. The adverse war devastations also heightened the level of the nation’s poverty.

In the 1990s, the government implemented the economic adjustments programme recommended by the Bretton Woods Institutions, the World Bank and IMF as a pre-requisite for financial aid in an attempt to mitigate poverty. These include the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) and the Poverty Alleviation Action Plan (PAAP) (Stromquist, 2002). Instead of serving the intended purpose, the policies rather worsened the plight of man. According to UNESCO, (2001) the government of Zimbabwe stopped subsidising the public services like health, education and agriculture. Remuneration was also reduced and many people lost their jobs. This worsened poverty in Zimbabwe in the 1990s.

The Zimbabwean government also attempted to empower Zimbabweans by revising the Land Acts. This meant the introduction of the Land Reform Programme which involved seizure of white owned farms and allocating the land to the Zimbabweans. The programme was not successful because it was over-politicised and poorly planned. Zimbabwe was toppled as Africa’s bread basket. This greatly affected the nation’s economy and increased the levels of poverty.

Poor rains resulted in reduced crop production. This was another cause of poverty which made life unbearable in Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe’s economy was also hard hit by the exodus of skilled labour as the educated elite fled the country to seek greener pastures in the
neighbouring South Africa as well as overseas. The RPP records an estimated population of 3 million Zimbabweans who left the country (RPP, 2010). Poverty has also been increased due to a decline in social and health service delivery.

HIV/AIDS pandemic is also a social ill which crippled the economic development and worsened poverty. According to the RPP (2010) the prevalence of HIV/AIDS in Zimbabwe has declined, by the rate of 18.1 per cent but remains one of the highest in the world. The pandemic claimed the nation’s skilled labour, resulting in child-headed families. Poverty also increased as a result of this.

1.2.2 Poverty in Gokwe

Poverty is worst in rural areas. In Zimbabwe, about two thirds of the total population is living in rural areas. According to the RPP (2010), Zimbabwe has a total population of about 12,522,784 and a rural population of 7,786,667 which is 62% of the total population.

Gokwe South District has a population of 294,627 people (James, 2006). Gokwe is mostly rural and most people depend on subsistence farming for a living. People grow mainly cotton as a cash crop and maize for both consumption and selling. Other crops grown are rapoko, sorghum, millet, round nuts and ground nuts. People also keep a small herd of cattle of about 5 to 8 due to lack of grazing land. Goats are also kept in these areas. A few farmers also keep sheep and pigs. In case of urgent need of cash, these farmers can sell their livestock. Those who own livestock are regarded as the wealthiest since many of the people do not own livestock. This forms the base of the agronomy of Gokwe.

Before the colonial era, the area was sparsely populated with only the Shangwe (a Shona tribe) people in the Zambezi valley. This was because of the unfavourable temperatures as well as the fact that the area was tsetse infested (James, 2006). Malaria was also an influential
factor in inhibiting the settlement of people in the area. However, due to colonial oppressive rules in other provinces countrywide, people began to migrate into the area.

The natives were expelled from the Highveld after the Second World War and they resettled in Gokwe (Ranger, 1985, Worby, 2000). The elimination of tsetse later on also allowed the settling of people in the area. Part of the district lies on the Mapfungautsi plateau and the other part in the Zambezi valley. Due to severe changes in the climate, the political dynamics, historical injustices and economic strains, Gokwe South District has had difficulties in making sure that there is availability of food. Most of the populace is living in poverty.

This has seen various Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) like Care Africa, Concern, GAA and others trying to bring relief to the strained district of Gokwe. The issues addressed are food and nutrition, health issues, HIV/AIDS, clean water and agricultural productivity. GAA is amongst these NGOs trying to bring relief in Gokwe South Rural District (GSRD).

**1.3 Poverty and NGOs**

While the state governments struggled to deal with poverty, a number of NGOs which sought to address the problem rose. GAA, one of the NGOs operating in Gokwe South Rural District, is also trying to address the problem of poverty. Despite the NGOs poverty alleviation programmes that are being implemented in Zimbabwe and the number of years in operation, the masses are still in poverty.

It is clear that something is amiss in terms of the approach to poverty by the NGOs. The problem could be in the poverty alleviation programmes themselves, the executions or the communication strategies which lack the capacity to empower the locals.

It is noted that NGOs, both local and international, have been constantly praised for their ability to reach grassroots people and they are better equipped financially to compliment
government efforts in de-centralising programmes in the areas of agriculture, education and social services (Chinake, 1997). Besides this, they have failed to deal with poverty once and for all. While it remains uncertain why NGOs have failed, this research sought to investigate the communication component in poverty alleviation programmes. Communication is hailed for information dissemination and empowering. The investigation of the way the process is implemented in rural communities where poverty is taking its toll on the vulnerable population becomes crucial.

1.4 Rural communication

Rural areas mainly use traditional modes of communication. Literacy levels are low and only a few educated people are literate. The literate are the people employed in the middle class jobs like teachers and nurses as well as the retired elite. The use of mediums of mass communication like radio and television can also be put to use since some parts of Gokwe South Rural District are electrified and that has improved access to radio and television signal. It is also important to note that some parts of the district recently accessed cell phone network which has a propensity for influencing the GAA’s communication strategies.

For generations, rural populations living in isolated villages without access to modern means of communication have relied on traditional or indigenous forms of communication (media) such as the spoken word, poetry, prose, theatre, music and dance as a means of sharing knowledge and information and providing entertainment (Melkote, 1991).

According to Melkote (1991), the newer concepts of development communication hold highly the capacity of indigenous media in bringing about development and alleviating poverty. He also emphasises the integration of both modern and traditional modes in development communication.
Rural people use indigenous communication methods for information exchange, knowledge sharing and the dissemination of strategies for mutual assistance and survival. Salawu (2006) is of the view that the modern paradigm of development ascribes more power to the use of traditional media as vehicles for information, persuasion and entertainment for rural people. According to Melkote (1991: 210), “...indigenous communications are rich in cultural symbols, intimate with people at the grass roots and highly participatory” and also carry entertainment. This reflects how crucial indigenous communication media are to development.

Indigenous communication media are also important channels for facilitating learning, behavioural change, people's participation and dialogue for development purposes e.g. the use of folklores and ‘oramedia’ (Salawu 2006:101). Indigenous media have been successfully adopted by change agents to promote rural development issues.

Theatre for development (TfD) has also been used, for instance, to influence attitudes towards family size, female genital mutilation, teenage pregnancies, unsettling lifestyles and HIV/AIDS (Manyozo, 2002). They have also been applied in health care, environmental protection and women's literacy programmes as well as in teaching mothers about child nutrition and in introducing new agricultural practices. Traditional forms of communication can also be integrated with other media such as radio, television, video and audio cassettes.

**1.5 The Research Problem**

Poverty is a plague which has troubled the world and more specifically third world countries. Amongst these is Zimbabwe particularly the rural communities of the nation. The researcher’s interest was drawn to his home district Gokwe in the Midlands province of Zimbabwe which equally faces the challenge. It is of major concern that to this end, NGOs have tried to address the problem of poverty but fewer or no advances towards this goal have
been recorded. While in the process of assessing why there are only a few or no steps towards the goal, there is need to turn to how the process of communication is being executed. While communication is hailed as a tool of empowerment which can eventually result in poverty alleviation, there is need to assess how it has been implemented and establish the possible ways of optimising communication usage to bring about an end to the social malaise.

The effective use communication is indispensible to the success of poverty alleviation programmes (Melkote, 2001). The best strategies of communication have to be implemented using the correct forms of media, taking into consideration cultural and environmental variables. In this regard, poverty alleviation can be then realised. Salawu (2006), in his ethical paradigm for development, raises the use of ‘oramedia’ in advocating for civilisation (cultivation of the mind) after which poverty alleviation can be achieved.

Rural people in Zimbabwe are gaining access to modern forms of mass media such as radio, television, cell phones and the internet but previous studies lack in providing answers to how these forms have been used, integrated and employed with the indigenous forms of communication in poverty alleviation communication, especially by NGOs.

Development communication literature is rich in theories on how development communication can be employed and the essence of participation. De Beer and Swannepoel (2001) and Manyozo (2002) emphasise that as long as people are involved and not empowered there will be nothing called participation but rather the less ideal involvement in which people do not own poverty alleviation programmes. De Beer and Swannepoel (2001) and Melkote (2001) argue that the rural people must be empowered. It is therefore necessary to enquire if GAA is empowering the rural poor people by using its methods of communication.
Various United Nations (UN), Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), World Bank, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and UNESCO conferences have recommended the use of communication for development (FAO, 2005). It therefore becomes necessary to do a practical testing of what actually happens as change and development agents (NGOs) communicate with the people in rural communities. Furthermore, it is also crucial to find out how development communication is being implemented in Gokwe South District which is still wallowing in poverty.

The present work is an empirical study which evaluated the communication methods used by GAA in Gokwe South Rural District. In the study, the modes of communication used by GAA as well as the information communicated, the effectiveness of the feedback system and the involvement of the local people in the process of communication were analysed.

**1.6 Research Questions**

This research sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the modes of communication and languages used by GAA for its poverty alleviation programmes in Gokwe South Rural District?
2. What are the issues contained in the messages disseminated by GAA to the people of Gokwe South District on poverty alleviation?
3. To what extent are the people involved in the GAA’s communication process and how effective is the feedback system?
4. How effective is the GAA’s communication on poverty alleviation in Gokwe South Rural District?

**1.7 Research Objectives**

This research had an objective of understanding the manner in which GAA communicated with Gokwe South District people in its poverty alleviation programmes thus deducing the
information content, testing and evaluating the methods of communication through the feedback system. The objectives of the research were as follows:

1. To find out the communication mediums and modes used by German Agro Action, a Non-Governmental Organisation, in conducting its programmes in Gokwe South Rural District.
2. To identify the issues/themes communicated by GAA in its poverty alleviation programmes.
3. To determine the involvement of the rural people in the development communication process.
4. To evaluate the effectiveness of the communication strategies used by GAA as well as the feedback system in poverty alleviation.

1.8 Delimitations
The study covered Gokwe South Rural District area under the Gokwe South Rural District Council (GSRDC). This is one area where GAA conducted its programmes. GAA’s key result areas were conservative farming, nutritional gardening, and agro-forestry as well as grain storage. GAA operated in 8 wards in Gokwe South Rural District during the time of study. Therefore, the study did not go beyond the wards where GAA was not operational. The people in the wards where GAA operated were subjects of the study.

1.9 Limitations
This research experienced challenges just like any other research. The researcher had to develop mechanisms to deal with the limitations and work extra hard to make sure that the research became successful. The following are the extraneous limitations experienced:
1.9.1 Accessibility problems

The area under study is not well linked by a good road network so it was very difficult to move around the wards. The number of trips had to be reduced yet data had to be gathered. The researcher therefore capitalised on the field days, workshops and other functions held in the area to conduct interviews and circulate the questionnaire. Farmers would be gathered in one place on such events and the researcher ensured that the questionnaire was circulated, filled in and collected on the same day. Most interviews were conducted in the same manner and this reduced the need to follow the farmers to collect the questionnaire and conduct interviews separately.

1.9.2 Financial constraints

Gokwe South District is an area in Zimbabwe plagued by the economic down turn. Due to this problem, transport costs are exorbitantly high. The researcher had to incur a lot of expenses travelling to and from Zimbabwe as well as travelling within Gokwe South Rural District. Other costs which could not be avoided were the printing costs. The researcher had to fork out a lot of money to print the questionnaire, interview guides and other necessary documents.

1.9.3 Data recording

The researcher was not able to do the electronic recording of the data. This was due to lack of recording equipment as a result of financial constraints. The contingency was to use a cell phone but the cell phone could not become very useful because of power failure and load shedding in the country. The researcher could not rely on his personal phone because of the weak battery.
1.9.4 Network and communication problems

Poor signal reception and unavailability of signal in most areas under study made it difficult for the researcher to contact key people and research assistants in the field. Other key people did not even have cell phones and some had their cell phones switched off most of the time because they did not have electricity to charge their cell phones.

1.10 Significance of the study

Most of the rural population is living in abject poverty and as such poverty alleviation has become a cause for concern to local, national and international governance. In this light, all resources should be directed towards poverty alleviation programmes, especially in rural communities. Subsequently, this research makes sure that the programmes of poverty alleviation run smoothly to achieve their ultimate goal and imprint sustainable development amongst the rural communities.

This research demonstrates to official donors the strengths and weaknesses of the NGOs’ approach to poverty alleviation in terms of their communication strategies. The research identified the limitations to effective communication and calls for action from all the stakeholders. In the academic field, this research enriches the Development communication subject in terms of evaluating the established theories linked with communication and development.

The research also provides proven results to answer several hypotheses which are not yet fully answered about the influence of the communication methods and practices to end poverty and ensure sustainable development in rural communities. Besides that, the research discovers the effective communication methods and practices which effectively inform the people and get them to support and participate in poverty alleviation programmes.
In addition, the research assists in public policy formulation on how NGOs should employ the communication component in their functions to ensure poverty alleviation. The findings from this research can assist the government in making decisions about resource allocation and funding regarding enhancing the media and communications fraternity. Based on this, it was imperative that this research was carried out since its findings have an influence which cuts across the entire spectrum from NGO operations, the social well being of citizens, the academic field to national governance.

1.11 Ethical considerations

Tayie (2005) says that when conducting a research, ethical considerations should not be overlooked. This is because every research has a potential of affecting the subjects physically and psychologically (Tayie, 2005). The study followed the University of Fort Hare Ethical Guideline Policy for Post Graduate Research. The research was evaluated by the university and the researcher was given a clearance certificate (See Appendix E). This certificate was also used to seek approval from the authorities in GSRD. The relevant authorities were informed especially in Zimbabwe because the laws do not allow people to form groupings without the consent of the police. Relevant councillors and GAA officials were also approached to allow the researcher to conduct the academic research. Participants were informed about the objectives of the research before and after the research. Their willingness or not to participate in the study was respected and a consent form was signed by the subjects (see Appendix D). The researcher was cleared for research by the University Ethical Clearance Committee and given an ethical clearance certificate which ascertains that the researcher subscribes to the guiding policy of the university on research (Appendix E).

1.12 Structure of the thesis

This research comprises six chapters: Chapter 1 provides a general background and overview to the study in terms of rationale of the study, problem statement, research
questions and objectives as well as the structure of the thesis. **Chapter 2** is about the definition and exploration of concepts. The chapter also discusses the weakness of the paradigms of development communication. It also discusses the modes of communication and reviews past related studies. The chapter also presents the theoretical framework. **Chapter 3** is a discussion of NGOs. The chapter is divided into sections which are: the history of NGOs, NGOs and poverty alleviation in Zimbabwe, GAA and poverty alleviation, NGOs related legislation, Communication related legislation and also NGOs and politics in Zimbabwe. **Chapter 4** is an outline of research methodology, scope of the study, consisting of the survey area, target population and sampling technique and data analysis methods. **Chapter 5** outlines the findings from the research. It deals with data presentation, analysis and interpretation as well as the discussion of findings. **Chapter 6** is the final chapter with the summary of findings, conclusion, recommendations and suggestions for future research.

### 1.13 Conclusion

The above chapter provided a background of the research which investigated the communication methods and practices by GAA in its poverty alleviation programmes. Most importantly, the study was informed by the researcher’s deepest interest in seeing an end to the untold suffering of the rural people as a result of poverty. Critical concepts pertaining to the study were explored. These are poverty, rural communication and the background of GAA, the organisation under the study. The research problems and objectives were presented in the chapter. The researcher further explained the significance of the study as well as the delimitations and limitations of the study. The ethical considerations and the structure of the research were also presented. The chapter which follows discusses the concepts, reviews the literature and explores past related studies.
Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Introduction

Literature review is a crucial academic research component which ascertains that there is no duplication of previous researches as this makes the research useless (Mouton, 2006:6). Literature review brings the researcher at par with the accepted empirical findings. It helps in the identification of the available instrumentation and the research design which yields valid and reliable results. Concrete definitions of key concepts are also obtained through the review of literature. Literature review thereof, serves as a springboard for academic development hence it is a crucial part of the research.

The academic literature concerned with the communication practices and strategies by NGOs in poverty alleviation in particular, focusing on rural communication, is limited. This gap in development communication research has to be filled with contextualised studies primarily focusing on the communication strategies by NGOs in rural areas. According to FAO, (2012) a number of poverty alleviation projects, especially by NGOs, have yielded little or no results at all. While there are a number of other causes of this failure (poor governance, misappropriation of funds, corruption, misdirected programmes e.t.c), research must however question the implementation of the communication approach and possibly provide recommendations on the best ways of implementing the communication strategies to ensure that poverty alleviation projects become successful.

This section of the thesis reviews literature related to the communication methods and practices used by Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in their poverty alleviation programmes. This chapter addresses the conceptual framework and generates an integrated and critical purposive discussion around the concepts: communication practices (indigenous, modern and information and communication technologies); development communication;
participation, poverty and poverty alleviation. The chapter is also composed of the review of previous related studies. The last section of the chapter presents the theoretical framework of the study.

2.1.2 Conceptual framework

This section of the chapter defines the concepts in the study. These concepts include communication, communication strategies and practices, development communication, effective development communication, poverty and poverty alleviation.

2.1.2.1 Communication: An integrated definition

Communication is an essential component in human life. The concept is defined in various contexts. Many scholars have developed various approaches to define the concept. At this juncture, it is however, essential to delve into the crucial aspects of the concept.

Various models (Shannon and Weaver, 1949, Berlo, 1960, Schramm, 1954 and Westley and Maclean, 1957) have been developed to define and explain the process of communication. All models of communication clearly illustrate the communication process and concur that the process has crucial elements which are; sender, message, media/channel and receiver.

Models are well known for reducing complex subject matter into simple and understandable structures. They explain concepts in order, offering new insights (Mortensen, 1972). Models of communication cut across all academic fields, from sociology to life sciences. Communication is therefore explained in a way that unifies all academic fields.

Communication scholars agree that communication is a continuous process and cannot be frozen at any point. It is interrupted by noise and there is feedback from receiver back to the sender. More to that, communication is a transactional process and this entails that all parties involved partake in the process of communication. They exchange the roles of being the
sender and receiver of messages (Turner & West, 2002). It is clear that communication is a process in which each person exerts mutual influence acting simultaneously as sender and as receiver.

Components which are in both social and scientific definitions of communication are all crucial. Wood (2002:6) says, “...communication is a systematic process in which people interact through symbols to create and interpret meaning”. In other words, communication is the act of conveying information for the purpose of creating a shared understanding. At any given time one is compelled to share meaning to achieve a common goal. This research is based on this integrated definition which says that, “communication is the process through which a sender sends messages to the receiver through a channel or medium for the purpose of achieving a common goal” (Krizan et al, 2011).

A communicator in any form of relationship or operation, in order to achieve the common understanding, is responsible for the construction of messages, the way messages are sent, the channels or modes used as well as the receivers of their messages. Effective communication involves how the communicator plays the role of being both a sender and a receiver of messages in the communication process.

2.1.2.2 Development communication

The term "Development Communication" was first coined in 1972 by Nora C. Quebral, who defines the field as:

…the art and science of human communication linked to a society’s planned transformation from a state of poverty to one of dynamic socio-economic growth that makes for greater equity and the larger unfolding of individual potential. (Quebral, 1972)
Development communication is therefore the use of communication to promote social development. Thereof, it refers to the practice of systematically applying the process, strategies and principles of communication to bring about a positive social change (Manyozo, 2006). NGOs’ communications is inevitably classified under development communication because they seek to achieve social change.

Development communication is a social process based on dialogue using a broad range of tools and methods (FAO, 2012). The objective of communication is to seek change at different levels including listening, establishing trust, sharing knowledge and skills, building policies, debating and learning for sustained and meaningful change. Development communication is not only focused on information dissemination but facilitates active participation and stakeholder dialogue (FAO, 2012).

Development communication is characterised by conceptual flexibility and diversity of communication techniques used to address any form of problem. Some approaches in the “tool kit” of the field include: information dissemination, education, behaviour change, social marketing, social mobilisation, media advocacy, communication for social change, and participatory development communication (Manyozo, 2006).

### 2.1.2.3 Communication practices

Communication practices entail a coherent set of activities that are commonly engaged in, in meaningful and in particular ways among people familiar with a particular culture. In other words, communication practices include all the ways available to make sure that your voice is heard by different people. Therefore, any means by which messages or information is sent to a specific audience with a specific objective is communication practice. In addition to that, communication involves the use of various means; modern, traditional or technological to send messages to many people.
2.1.2.4 Effective development communication

This study was concerned with the analysis of the communication practices implemented by NGOs in poverty alleviation programmes in Gokwe South. An explanation of effective development communication therefore becomes crucial. Effective communication is the communication inclined to helping participants build trust and respect regarding their intentions in various forms of engagements. Effective communication fosters learning and eventually accomplishes the desired goals. It is communication that persuades, informs and commands attention. Messages should be easily understood so as to ascertain that organisational goals are achieved. Broadly, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) can be achieved through effective communication, poverty alleviation included. According to FAO, (2012) many development projects fail to achieve their goals due to the absence of communication. Poorly implemented communication strategies can result in failure of development programmes or specifically poverty alleviation by NGOs (Anyaegbunam et al, 2004).

Communication which accomplishes the desired effect or result is regarded as effective. In poverty alleviation, effective communication generates the desired effect, maintains that effect and increases the effect. All communication must serve the intended purpose. Effective communication allows all participants to participate in the process of communication and provides room for feedback (Acker, 1992). According to Acker, (1992) effective communication is achieved when messages have been clearly understood by all parties. In effective communication messages are culture sensitive. Hyer and Covello (2005) are of the view that the purpose of all communication (also by NGOs) is to generate action, create understanding and make communities self sustainable.

Effective communication can rally support, provide much needed information and encourage cooperative behaviour. According to Hyer & Covello (2005), effective communication
builds, maintains and restores trust. It also improves knowledge and understanding, guides and encourages appropriate attitudes, decisions, actions and behaviours. Good communication also encourages collaboration and cooperation (participation). The extent to which the NGOs communication strategy helps in conquering poverty, as adjudged by the principles of effective communication, has to be established.

2.1.2.5 Communication strategy

A communication strategy is a plan of communication action to be implemented and designed to achieve a particular goal. According to Mefalopulos and Kamlongera (2004), a well-planned series of actions aimed at achieving certain objectives through the use of communication methods, techniques and approaches is a communication strategy. A communication strategy encompasses the manner of implementation as well as policies guiding communication. Strategic communication is also defined as a:

...systematic series of sustained and coherent activities, conducted across strategic, operational and tactical levels, that enables understanding of target audiences, identifies effective conduits, and develops and promotes ideas and opinions through those conduits to promote and sustain particular types of behaviour. (Tatham, 2008)

Strategic communication is also defined by Hastings (2008) as the orchestration and or synchronisation of images, actions, and words to achieve a desired effect. Therefore, any plan of constructing and disseminating messages to achieve a desired effect is a communication strategy.

NGOs implement various communication strategies in their poverty alleviation programmes. These communication strategies include the use of various modes of communication which
include indigenous, modern and technological systems of communication. In this research the communication strategies implemented by GAA were identified, analysed and evaluated.

2.1.2.6 Evaluating the communication strategies

Evaluation is measuring the effectiveness of a variable during (formative evaluation) or at the end (summative evaluation) of its implementation. Evaluation of communication strategies entails a systematic judging, appraising or determining the worth, value or quality of proposed, on-going or completed communication strategies in poverty alleviation. Evaluation is against predetermined standards (Yarborough et al, 2003). Performance is measured against objectives. Evaluation seeks to establish the extent to which an implemented strategy has been successful. Anyaegbunam et al (2004) came up with Participatory Rural Communication Appraisal (PRCA) for use in evaluating the communication strategies in poverty alleviation programmes. The best practice is adjudged according to the following: (a) communication programmes spring from the people’s perceptions of their needs and problems, (b) programmes utilise culturally appropriate communication approaches and (c) whether people and materials are relevant and useful i.e. community identified opinion leaders, role models and influential sources of information (Anyaegbunam et al, 2004).

2.1.2.7 Poverty alleviation

Poverty alleviation is a combination of two words, poverty and alleviate. To understand the concept, the explanations of the two words shall be merged. Poverty is a state of human development whereby there is lack of basic life skills, good education, production assets and water. There are also low levels of energy, poor health, poor sanitary conditions, lack of economic infrastructure and lack of participation in the decision making process (Sen, 1999). To alleviate is to make suffering, deficiency or a problem less severe (Stevenson and Waite, 2011). In other words, alleviation is the process of mitigating. Therefore, poverty alleviation is the process of mitigating or reducing the severity of the pain brought by poverty. This
study is of the premise that it is essential to reduce poverty until the human population totally becomes free from this social ill.

2.1.3 Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and development communication

Any form of communication which seeks to bring positive social transformation from a state of being poor to an ideal state of well being is called development communication. NGOs are presently implementing many projects to ensure a state of well being in societies (Swanepoel and De Beer, 2000). As they communicate in this regard, they practise development communication.

Development communication is an area which looks at communication methods, strategies and practices especially by agencies of social change, NGOs included. These agencies operate in rural communities in most cases (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2000). Unfortunately, this subject has received little attention from academic research. Agencies of social change seem to do a trial and error when it comes to the communication methods and strategies which they use in their poverty alleviation projects.

While the context and the nature of poverty challenges vary from place to place and from culture to culture, researchers must have explanations to all varying contexts and situations. Research related to communication practices for social change must be localised, especially in rural areas where poverty has been a pandemic. According to FAO (2012), communication has been promoted in development and poverty alleviation initiatives for the past 30 years but the challenge of poverty persists in rural communities. The analysis of the development communication strategies being implemented in poverty alleviation programmes in rural areas becomes necessary.

2.1.3.1 Development communication in poverty alleviation programmes

Communication is hailed as key in development programmes (Melkote, 2001). Researchers have identified communication as a source of empowerment to ascertain the success of
programmes aimed at poverty alleviation and development (Melkote, 1991, Moemeka, 1991, De Beer & Swannepoel, 1998). This research therefore sought to examine the implementation of development communication practices by GAA in its poverty alleviation strategies.

Development and poverty alleviation are closely intertwined since they seek to achieve the same goal which is the improvement of life. Therefore, when discussing the fight against poverty, development is a concept which cannot be left out. Rural areas are in dire need of development. Development and poverty alleviation are interrelated and inseparable. Salawu (2004a) says that poverty is an apt synonym of underdevelopment. The same characteristics of underdevelopment are the same issues through which poverty is reflected.

According to Salawu (2004a), poverty is reflected in such problems as hunger, sickness, ignorance and homelessness. African societies are tired of such problems and as such they are in dire need of development. Local/international governmental and non-governmental organisations have implemented and are still implementing programmes aimed at poverty alleviation. The national community emphasises on poverty alleviation in the MDGs (UN, 2011).

Development communication, according to Mefalopulos (2008) is referred to as “communication for development,” “development support communication,” and more recently, “communication for social change.” Poverty is a social ill which afflicts rural communities; therefore communication for a social change is necessary.

The implementation of communication in the programmes which seek to end poverty is development communication. Development communication has however evolved significantly since the 2nd World War (Manyozo, 2006; Melkote, 2001). The evolution process of development communication is explained through two paradigms, the dominant and the alternative paradigms.
The alternative paradigm of development communication reflects ideal communication as participatory communication, stresses access to media of communication and the relevance of content to socio-cultural conditions (Moemeka, 1991). Mass media and traditional interpersonal means of communication empower the subjects to visualise aspirations and discover solutions to their development problems and issues.

2.1.3.1.1 Paradigms of development communication

The concept of development has evolved since the 2nd World War (Salawu, 2004a; Mefalopulos, 2008). Initially, scholars came up with old/dominant paradigm of development but due to the wide criticisms of the dominant paradigm, which was regarded as simplistic and unworkable, Habte (1983), Mabogunje (1980) and Hamelink (1983) cited in Salawu (2004a; 2006) the new/alternative paradigm was developed. The argument is that when rural societies are compared with urban societies in the African communities, rural communities are the poorest. This means that modernised societies will be a reality when modernisation is integrated with the alternative development paradigm.

Dominant paradigm of development communication

In the dominant paradigm of development, development was seen in economic terms (Rogers, 2003). The indices to measure development were in economic terms like gross domestic product, gross national product and in-come per-capita (Rogers, 2003). The alternative development communication paradigm was developed from the dominant paradigm of development (Melkote, 1991).

The dominant paradigm of development communication had three approaches to communication. These are: communication effects, diffusion of innovations and mass media and modernisation (Melkote, 1991). The limitation of the dominant paradigm of development communication was that it ascribed much power to communication and mass media in
bringing evident social change, disregarding the cultural and socio-economic realities of the recipient audiences (Salawu, 2006). Salawu (2006) argues that the old paradigm was ‘unilinear and transformational’. However, most scholars have debunked this notion (Melkote 2001; Salawu 2004a and Salawu 2004b) and the academic field has seen a transition from the dominant definition of development to the most ideal, the new / alternative paradigm of development. The alternative paradigm of development resulted from realising that the development of each society is determined by its own unique needs. Needs are peculiar circumstances to climatic, historical, cultural and social conditions of each society (Salawu, 2006).

The alternative paradigm of development communication

The alternative paradigm of development does not only explain development in economic terms but also encompasses other factors involved in the development arena like democracy, health, access to services, good nutrition, equality e.t.c. This form of development is not unilinear or transformational. It explains development as participatory thus popular participation whereby there is empowerment and not only involvement.

In the alternative paradigm of development, communication goes beyond information dissemination. Communication is seen as a tool which facilitates active participation and stakeholder dialogue. The alternative paradigm of development highlights the importance of raising awareness, the cultural dimensions of development, local knowledge, experiential learning, information sharing and the active participation of rural people and other stakeholders in decision making (FAO, 2012).

The alternative paradigm also sought to include the recipients of communication messages through feedback system contrary to the dominant paradigm when they were treated as passive recipients of mass communication messages (McQuail, 2010).
The alternative paradigm of development communication questions the use of mass media as regarded in the dominant paradigm of development. According to Salawu (2006) it stresses access to media of communication and participation in communication activities. In addition to that, the alternative paradigm of development communication advocates for the relevance of content to the socio and cultural context and in this regard the indigenous communication system becomes appropriate.

The study maintains that the type of development advocated in the dominant paradigm of development is necessary for improved life. Africa needs infrastructural development and development as measured by the economic indicators. However, for this to be meaningful and be able to be maintained and escalated, the alternative paradigm of development communication comes into place. Achievements of development as advocated by the dominant paradigm of development are necessary but what they lack is complementation which clearly comes with the alternative paradigm of development. This makes the development meaningful and sustainable.

*Participation in the alternative paradigm*

Participation is always connected to the actions of the communities, groups or individuals related to the development, improvement or change of an existing situation (Moser, 1989). It is crucial to establish the initiators and purposes of participation and also whether participation is intended to maintain a system or to transform a system. Participation has often been undertaken in a top-down fashion and there are few situations when participation emanates from self reliant grassroots organisations.

Participation has been variously described as a means and an end, as essential within agencies as it is in the field and as an educational and empowering process necessary to correct power imbalances between the rich and the poor. Jennings (2000) argues that, participation has been
broadly conceived to embrace the idea that all “stakeholders” should take part in decision making and it has been more narrowly described as the extraction of local knowledge to design programs off site.

Participation is involvement by a local population and, at times, additional stakeholders in the creation, content and conduct of a program or policy designed to change their lives. Built on a belief that citizens can be trusted to shape their own future, participatory development uses local decision making and capacities to steer and define the nature of an intervention. (Jennings, 2000)

Wisner (1988: 14) cited in De Beer and Swannepoel (1998) distinguishes between strong and weak interpretations of participation. In the strong interpretation he views participation as a new style of development which is radically participatory and in this land reform, asset redistribution and other necessary pre-conditions set the stage for the poor to take control of their own development, usually through grassroots organisations. Wisner ibid also posit the weak interpretations of participation entails that development is promoted mostly by the bilateral and multi lateral aid agencies. This version saw participation stripped off its political volatility of direct popular involvement (De Beer and Swannepoel, 1998).

This has resulted in the development of two basic themes of participation, thus participation as involvement and participation as empowerment also known as ‘popular participation’ (De Beer and Swannepoel, 1998:20). The weak or conservative interpretation of participation seeks to maintain the system while the strong and radical interpretation of participation seeks to transform the system.

The appropriate application of participation entails allowing the people to take direct control of their development in terms of designing the programs, communicating and implementing them. For the poor people to be able to participate fully they must have full political and
economic power. One can therefore not talk of popular participation when people are not empowered. According to De Beer & Swannepoel (1998: 21), it will be mere ‘involvement’. The idea of involvement must be carefully employed to ascertain that the poor people do not only supply cheap labour to the programmes which they do not own. As a result, they are not interested to evaluate, maintain and even repeat the projects until a positive change has been established.

To be able to have people rendering ideal popular participation, the issue of poverty must be dealt with from the grass roots. To achieve this, poor rural people must have a proper information base. They must have an advanced knowledge of the development and know their needs, otherwise, the NGOs poverty alleviation programmes may be fighting their own battle for the people that are content and always waiting to be spoon fed with ideas, finances and food while they simply provide cheap labour as their only way of involvement instead of participating fully. Munguti (1989: 13) cited in De Beer & Swannepoel (1998: 21) says, “by community members offering themselves for manual work ...many implementators of programmes have reported high levels of participation”.

The poor should be empowered to develop their own development programmes which will eventually see them out of poverty. To achieve this, rural people should be capacitated. Racelis (1986: 178) cited in De Beer & Swannepoel (1998: 21) argues that, “…empowerment also requires assistance from the outside in terms of skills and organisational training, credit, income generating schemes, appropriate technology, education and access to basic services”. In this, the government and NGOs must play a role. Korten (1986) has this to say:

...decision making must truly be returned to the people who have both the capacity and the right to inject into the process, the richness including the subjectivity – of their values and needs.
Empowerment explains the radical form of participation and that is the ideal form which can achieve efficacy. De Beer & Swannepoel (1998: 24) say that empowerment is a collective action. This entails that the people in a community can act together with a responsibility of conceiving developmental programmes rather than acting on preconceived projects. The local people must be empowered since De Beer & Swannepoel (1998: 25), raise the point that “empowerment releases people from the poverty trap”. Empowerment can be achieved through communication. People must have enough access to information and enough opportunity to share and disseminate information as suggested in the alternative paradigm of development communication (Melkote, 1991).

Communication can be integrated by NGOs in ensuring that the people are involved in the poverty alleviation programmes. This also takes another level to ensure that the same people are empowered and do not become labelled recipients of foreign aid through NGOs but also offer the same aid to troubled regions.

The alternative paradigm to development communication stresses the importance of participation by the local people in the communication activities (Salawu, 2006). When locals are involved in designing their own development programmes and communicating the programmes among themselves, that will be the ideal participation, poverty alleviation programmes can be successful. Participation in the execution of programmes by the locals develops a sense of ownership of projects and programmes and therefore achieves better results.

2.1.4 Modes of communication

Modes of communication entail the various ways of sharing messages. Communication is mainly in written or oral forms. Written forms of communication are emails, letters, reports and memos. Oral forms of communication are face-to-face, over the phone or video
conferencing. In addition to that, communication can be non-verbal, also called communication without words. This involving the use of gestures (DeVito, 2006). The effectiveness of communication greatly ascertains the success of poverty alleviation projects.

There are however various channels which are used for communication. These channels can be indigenous forms of communication, modern as well as the use of Information Communication Technologies (ICTs). The applicability and the importance of these modes of communication vary with the context in which the process of communication occurs. Another important determining factor is the audience or the receivers of the information amongst other factors.

2.1.4.1 Indigenous Communication Systems (ICSs)

To be able to understand the Indigenous Communication Systems (ICSs), a succinct definition must be first constructed. Ansu-Kyeremeh (1998) defines ICSs as:

...any form of communication system, which by virtue of its origin, form, and integration into a specific culture, serves as a channel for messages in a way and manner that requires the utilization of the values, symbolism, institution and ethos of the host culture through its unique qualities and attributes.

Hachten (1971) also defines ICSs as informal channels of communication and Akpabio (2003:3) says that indigenous communication is the process and system which utilize symbols, values and institutions which directly appeal and readily connect with the people thereby enhancing the variety and effectiveness of messages that circulate in the community. ICSs imply all forms of communication strategies, verbal or non-verbal that are peculiarly African in the African context (Odunlami, 2006).
ICSs involve the transmission of entertainment, news, persuasion, announcements and social exchange of every type (Mundy and Lloyd-Laney, 1992). The relevance of ICSs challenges its placing and location as outdated and backward but however, its considerable use is still instrumental in poverty alleviation.

*Wilson’s six-point taxonomy*

Wilson (1987) arranged the ICSs in a six point typology to illustrate the ICSs. These include

...*instrumental media* which comprises idiophones, membranophone, aerophones and symbology; *Institutional media* involves social and spiritual media like marriages, chieftaincies, shrines and masquerades; *Demonstrative media* which combines signal and music; *Iconographic*, the equivalence of *objectifies* and floral; *extra-mundane* which comprises incantatory and *graphic and visual media* dealing with colour schemes and appearances (Wilson, 1987).

Akpabio (2003:13) expanded Wilson’s taxonomy to include venue-oriented communication, structure and features as identified by Doob (1961) and Ansu-Kyeremeh (1998). Akpabio (2003) went on to include *myths and legends* as well as *names* as communication and *folktales and proverbs*, making a ten point classification list which appears to have effectively compensated for the seemingly oversight of Wilson’s taxonomy of indigenous media systems (Odunlami, 2006). The taxonomy is an exhaustive, clear and scientific interpretation of the ICSs. These are widely used to communicate messages understandable by a particular culture.
Fig 2.1 Taxonomy of ICSs

Fig 2.1 is a demonstration of the ten point taxonomy of Indigenous Communication Systems (ICSs). The ten point taxonomy includes Wilson’s six points, Akpabio’s (2003) three points and also one point which is venue oriented communication as identified by Doob and Ansu-Nkeremeh (Akpabio, 2003). The ten point Taxonomy interprets the various ways in which the ICSs take place in any traditional society.
**ICSs and development communication**

While Salawu (2006) contends that development can be achieved when communication which speaks to the psych has been executed, he strongly argues that African idioms encapsulated in the folklores should be used. In this view, the African traditional value system ensures a ‘cultivated mind’ which cherishes good conduct, altruism, hard work and productivity, fairness and honesty (Salawu, 2006).

Indigenous Communication Systems (ICSs) are ideally powerful in bringing transformation in rural societies. ICSs manifest themselves in the form of folklores. Folklores are intimate with recipients of messages. Folklores are regarded as oral arts which are opera, music, dance, drama, poetry, proverbs, idioms and folktales. Folklores carry information while at the same time entertaining. ICSs can therefore be used for communication activities in poverty alleviation and achieve the desired goals.

**ICSs in the African context**

Communication is not a new phenomenon which could have come to Africa through modernisation after colonialism. Africans had traditional forms of communicating among themselves. These forms are still used today as part of most African societies' cultures.

Traditional African societies were organised structures often under the ruler-ship of kings. Communication was an integral part of societies playing various roles which are informing, entertaining and educating.

Various modes of communication were implemented. These were mainly folklores and theatre. Drama, poems, music, prose and proverbs were means of sharing information while entertaining.
In various African cultures we have rich theatre. Poems are used to praise kings as well as to appeal to them to take certain actions e.g. in the Zulu, Xhosa and Ndebele cultures of Southern Africa e.g. the grios who were the chief’s trained praise singers in the Ndebele culture. Proverbs are crucial in information sharing, teaching and advising especially in North and Central Africa. These formed the bases of information and sought to educate and change the attitudes of the people e.g. a Nigerian proverb which says, “The hungriest jackal concentrates on the fastest guinea fowl”

Bukurura (1995) highlights the effective indigenous means of communication that has been put to use in Tanzania by the Sungusungu group. He alludes that the use of a hue and cry called mwano summoned villagers to attend to a matter of urgency like to put out fires and the ndulilu was to summon villages to chase live stock thieves as well as the traditional bell to summon the villagers to meetings which also served as traditional trials. Songs have also been used by villages though primarily to entertain but also to tell the political leaders their grievances in Malawi and Nigeria (Bukurura, 1995).

Personal interaction facilitates the distribution of messages and indigenous knowledge is often easily adapted due to many years of experience. Exchange visits in West Africa helped to spread innovative food processing techniques. GAA, as well as other NGOs operating in GSRD, has to work closely with local authorities for meeting arrangements as well other forms of communication. NGOs are compelled to make use of the indigenous means of communication to be able to conduct their programmes.

**ICSs in the Zimbabwean context**

Folk media is used primarily for entertainment but promotes education, social values and cultural practices. Folk media can be in form of song, dance, puppetry, festive, play, storytelling, debates, proverbs and parades. These are done during traditional social
gatherings like traditional weddings known as “mutimba or zvimhandara” in Zimbabwe, burials or funerals (Ogwezzy, 1999). Gatherings called to help each other work the fields, “nhimbe or humwe or jakwara” also provide platforms for folk media. Other traditional gatherings where there is an opportunity to use folk media are meetings held by village heads known as “sabhuku”. Other important gatherings are the ones called by the community chiefs and or headmen known as the “dare rashe”. In Wilson’s taxonomy these can classified under “Institutional media”.

During such gatherings information on how to deal with local problems is discussed and crucial knowledge is disseminated. Gatherings are well attended and much respected by the community. Traditional forms must therefore not be underestimated when it comes to information dissemination and communication for poverty alleviation programmes hence the importance of taking advantage of the indigenous communication systems.

Deliberate instruction whereby parents teach children, craftspeople instruct apprentices, the elders guide the youths and those in positions of power influence their subjects are crucial in poverty alleviation realm (Mundy & Lloyd-Laney, 1992). NGOs and change agents can become much effective if they make use of these groups to advance the agenda of poverty relief.

Informal channels which according to Mundy and Lloyd-Laney (1992), include the use of meeting places like deep tanks, grinding meals, wells, boreholes and market places or growth points is also a crucial part of ICSs. In this way traditional meeting places facilitate the ICSs.

The use of drums which are played in a certain manner which communicates whether there is a funeral ‘mariro or rufu’, beer gathering ‘ndari’ or any form of celebration falls under ‘Instrumental media’ in Wilsons Taxonomy. The drums are played either to invite people or
to communicate to people what is happening. Another form of Instrumental media is the use of a bell. A bell is rung to call people for meetings and gatherings.

Chiefs also make use of messengers ‘nhume yamambo’ to relay certain messages to the people. These messengers are respected as the chief’s spokespeople. Demonstrative media takes the form of poetry, song and dance which voices the people’s concerns while entertaining. These also play the role of mobilising people to support certain ideas, educate and set the agenda for the public spheres.

Naming as communication is also a crucial component of ICSs in the sense that it provides continuous communication and information sharing. Names of projects or people cannot be underestimated in the communication for social change because they carry messages in them. Folklores and proverbs remain vibrant and rich in communication for social change as they educate, convict, rebuke and reinforce behaviours. ICSs remain useful in the communication for social change.

2.1.4.1.1 Advantages of the ICSs

The traditional communication system is a complex one whose functions transcend the ordinary oracular postulations of western theorists (Wilson, 1987). Wilson *ibid* says that the system functions as part of the larger socio-political organisation, reporting on and criticising organs within the system, issuing directives from the legitimate, or in some cases titular, head, and providing education in the areas of norms and mores of the society. ICSs stimulate the emotions and generally provide the light to innovations and helping their diffusion. Wilson *ibid* believes that its functions are more diverse and far-reaching than is often admitted (Wilson, 1987).
ICSs mobilise the people at the grassroots level towards community development and national consciousness. No serious mass-oriented programme succeeds without the active involvement of the practitioners within the traditional system (Wilson 1987).

Indigenous communication methods are a source of cultural, political, health and other educational and enlightenment programmes for the masses, leading them towards self-actualisation and national development.

Indigenous communication methods are a source of entertainment through arts and cultural festivals, musical and dramatic performances by choral and masquerade groups and other music and drama-oriented groups e.g. Albert Nyati, provides entertainment poetically and musically in the area of dance and drama.

ICSs are used for intra-cultural, intercultural and other communication purposes leading to group and national unity. Traditional communication systems also give expression to cultural and other activities of the different parts of a nation. Through festivals, for example, wide aspects of cultural systems are exposed to other cultures and greater understanding and appreciation of differences take place. Through this, cross-cultural fertilisation takes place and the society and mankind in general becomes better off.

Access to information: Indigenous communication systems facilitate easy access to information by the most vulnerable and remote groups in order to have more opportunities for development. Locals are made aware of the policies and programmes that affect them and are informed of their role within their communities in a way which they easily understand. Traditional or indigenous communication methods of communication are most useful in human communication and there is no need for special training or technology.
Traditional methods of communication are cost effective compared to the sophisticated electronic media. The messages are very easy to remember and can quickly attract the masses. Mundy and Lloyd-Laney (1992) say that because ICSs are locally controlled and familiar, they enjoy high levels of credibility. ICS can be easily used by the illiterate masses in remote as well as rural areas where development and poverty alleviation are much needed.

**Participation:** Communication plays a fundamental role in indigenous people’s right to free and informed consent. This is not only in terms of disseminating information, but rather it refers to a participatory process in which indigenous people can express their own views and influence decisions that affect them. Indigenous communication systems are also important in enhancing indigenous peoples’ mobilisation and participation in venues where they can define their own vision of development. Local people are also given an opportunity to communicate among themselves and with development professionals (Mundy and Lloyd-Laney, 1992).

**Knowledge exchange and capacity enhancement:** Indigenous communication systems can play an important role in conserving indigenous peoples’ identity and cultural heritage, as well as in the recovery and documentation of local knowledge and its interaction with technical and scientific knowledge. A study conducted in South-Western Ethiopia indicated that farmers have a wide range of indigenous knowledge relating to maize production, crop protection and utilisation, but much of this was being neglected and eroded mainly as a result of the promotion of modern technology packages such as hybrid seeds and associated inputs and practices (Negussie *et al.*, 2005).

**Proxemics:** Messages are easily accepted and are credible since traditional communication methods are mostly embedded in one's own culture and tradition. Traditional communication methods are local and live, so they are able to establish direct rapport with the audience and
are easily available to their audience. Due to the fact that indigenous media systems are close to the people, it is also crucial to note that traditional communication methods are very much a part of the local people’s lives. Extension personnel and radio, the most widespread forms of exogenous channels, fail to reach many rural people (Mundy and Compton, 1995) as what can be done by the traditional methods. The indigenous communication systems are most intimate with the masses in all the regions of the country and primary appeal is to the emotions rather than the intellect, therefore they have a better chance of gaining support and changing attitudes.

Feedback: A crucial aspect of communication which is feedback is immediate and known in indigenous communication methods. The indigenous communication methods provide an opportunity for immediate feedback. Its nature of flexibility in changing the form and content for the existing context makes traditional communication systems easy for both the sender and the receiver or audience thereby eliminating the chances of misunderstanding as well as psychological noise. For example, songs can be written for a social cause without changing the form and style.

Entertaining: ICSs are flexible to accommodate new themes. They are enjoyed and approved by all the people from different age groups.

Audience Targeting: Traditional media systems can be easily directed to the targeted audience and be customised specifically for a particular target audience. Mobilising becomes easy since directing the messages to a specific audience allows messages to appeal to the emotions thereby influencing the change of attitudes.
2.1.4.1.2 Disadvantages of ICSs

Wilson (1987) outlines the problems which afflict the traditional media system. Wilson alludes to the fact that these challenges retard the growth and development of traditional communication and cripple its subsequent adoption as a universal scheme.

Chief among the problems is the lack of a standard technical vocabulary in the description, analysis and conceptualisation of the media/channels and processes of the traditional communication system (Wilson 1987).

Another problem pointed out by Wilson (1987) which afflicts the traditional system is the diversity in the traditional political system, and the conflict between it and the adopted system which usually requires the use of western media structures, policies and facilities.

Political instability which results from the lack of a long tradition of legitimisation of the new political processes has also been the bane of traditional communication. The central authority usually undermines the traditional system thereby bringing about ‘babel of voices’. In Iran, for example, even though the reign of the former Shah had a legitimate basis, the House of Palavi had certain anti traditional Islamic practices which eventually led to the people’s revolt and the subsequent overthrow of the Shah (Wilson, 1987). With the people in control, and with over 5,000 mosques in Teheran alone, the Ayatollahs (high Islamic clergymen) used these channels for religious, social and political communication (Wilson, 1987).

Scholars blame indigenous channels for limited coverage restricted to the place of performance. They argue that traditional communication systems are more rigid, and can cater only for a limited audience.

There are scientific and technological problems which also affect traditional communication. The present level of development of media and channels of communication in society is
limited because some of the technical hardware is not easily preserved even though they can be replicated. In this area, traditional scientists and technologists have not shown enough creativity and inventiveness to create a dynamic culture.

Replicability of message is slower since the system has not been fully developed. The audience is not as heterogeneous, nebulous and widely dispersed as the audience of western media when viewed from western social perspectives.

Traditional media systems are being overridden by the modern practices and people hold highly the modern communication practices which seem to be a symbol of status and wealth. There is also a general belief that traditional means of communication indicate poverty, backwardness and lack of civilisation. This causes people to shun the traditional communication practices. Such beliefs make the traditional communication mechanism weak and unfavourable.

2.1.4.2 Modern Communication Systems (MCSs)

Modern Communication Systems involve the use of modern mediums of communication. These include print, audio and video as well as the most recent (internet). The advent of technology has caused the communication systems to evolve. The industrial revolution brought a revolution in the print sector thereby enhancing communication and the technological revolution brought a transition in the communication fraternity by facilitating media convergence thus the Information Communication Technologies (ICTs). The industrial revolution modified the transportation systems and combined with colonisation after the 2nd World War, promoted modernisation. The process of modernisation turned to Africa and African nations were also seen adopting the modern means of communication as well as the ICTs. The coming of modern communication systems emerged during a time when Africa used its own indigenous means of communication which were effective in their own nature.
The emergence of modern communication systems was however not meant to supplant but rather supplement the traditional or indigenous communication systems (Wilson 1987). Modern communication systems were also welcomed and appreciated in the rural communities in African nations. Print came in form of newspapers, fliers, magazines, posters and books. Electronic media was appreciated and there was the use of battery powered radios and to a lesser extent television was used. Its effectiveness was reduced because of signal reception problems, unavailability of electricity and the affordability of television sets by the majority in the rural areas in African nations (Myers, 2008).

Radio stations have increased in Sub-Saharan Africa. This is a direct result of cheap transistors, the opening of airwaves in many countries, the challenge to government controlled media and the fresh investments by international donors, civil society and the private sector (Myers, 2008).

Myers (2008) allude that new investments in the radio industry is seemingly attributable to the fact that radio had proved itself as a developmental tool, especially community and local radios. Modern technologies have improved radio, not only to be a two way medium of communication but also to be accessible by the widely dispersed rural audiences (Girard, 2003 cited in Myers, 2008). According to Myers (2008), radio stations in the sub-Saharan Africa grew at a striking rate between 2000 and 2006. In 2006, there were 36 independent stations in Tanzania, 250 community radio stations in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), 300 radio stations in Mali, 74 in Benin and 125 in South Africa (Myers, 2008).

This is however not the case in heavily legally regulated counties like, Rwanda, Zimbabwe and the majority of African nations except for Mali, Ghana, Namibia and South Africa (Myers, 2008).
**MCSs in Zimbabwe**

The MCSs in Zimbabwe has since improved with modernisation. The government of Zimbabwe had a department called Post and Tele-Communications (PTC) now Zim Posts which administered and ran the communication business. The Post Office became effective in distributing mail as well as circulating some important information in rural areas. Schools and local business people played a big role because they had postal bags and boxes and they allowed the locals to use their addresses to receive their mail. The postal department became carriers of mail, money orders and parcels to all parts of Zimbabwe and the rest of the world and deliver to these the people. Letters remain the cheapest means of communication in Zimbabwe.

Radio and television usage also increased. Radio, television and the newspaper are mass-communicating media. There are a number of radio stations in the country, Power FM (previously known as Radio 3), National FM (Radio 4), Sports FM (Radio 1) and also Radio Zimbabwe (Radio 2). These stations broadcast radio programmes like news, music, plays, stories, agriculture information, speeches, advertisement and other important announcements.

The country has a single television station known as Zimbabwe Television (ZTV) run by the State. Television also provides news, information, education, music and entertainment to the people. The difference in radio and television is that television uses audio and moving pictures to convey the message while radio used only audio. They provide useful information about the latest events in the country and the world.

Recently, another system of communication which has become popular is Cable TV. In this, videos and films are shown mainly for entertainment. Global news as well as sports news and matches or games are also broadcast on the channels. Users can access stations like (South
African Broadcasting Corporation) SABC, British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), AL Jazeera, Super Sport e.t.c on Digital Satellite Television (DSTV).

Newspapers, magazines and books are a good means of mass-communication. These are a print medium which travels far and wide. Newspapers have a very wide circulation and every literate person tries to go through them. Newspapers bring the latest news, rates of commodities, advertisements, employment news, matrimonial information and much other information. The newspapers which circulate in Zimbabwe are mainly, The Herald, Sunday News, Sunday Mail, Chronicle, the Manica Post, Kwayedza and the Financial Gazette.

**Information Communication Technologies (ICTs)**

ICTs refer to unified communications and the integration of telecommunications (telephone and wireless signals) computers, middleware as well as the necessary software, storage and audio-visual systems which enable users to create, access, transmit and manipulate information (Chisenga, 2006). ICTs involve the integration of information technologies, telecommunication, broadcast media, and all types of audio and video processing and transmission and network based control and monitoring functions. ICTs also refer to a set of technological tools and resources used to communicate and to create, disseminate, store and manage information (Blurton 1999).

The use of ICTs in the fields of socio-economic development often in developing nations by change agents as well as governments is referred to as Information Communication Technologies for Development (ICT4D). With the information and Technology revolution of the 21st century, ICTs are in the process of being employed in the area of socio-economic development and Zimbabwe is no exception. The increased usage of cell phone, internet, and computer has seen a tremendous growth over the past few years ago.
2.1.4.3 Advantages of MCSs

The usage of MCSs has advantages which can enhance communication in poverty alleviation programmes. MCSs are able to reach a large, heterogeneous and widely dispersed audience at the same time. Radio is uniquely suited to the rural context, being an aural and portable medium in the rural communities which are predominantly non-literate and has communal living patterns (Spitulnik, 2000). MCSs such as newspapers, radio as well as the internet are also able to reach a widely dispersed audience in a short space of time.

Modern technologies have improved radio, not only to be a two way medium of communication but also to be accessible by the widely dispersed rural audiences (Girard, 2003 cited in Myers, 2008). McQuail (2010) says that new types of media extend and change the entire spectrum of socio technological possibilities for public communication. MCSs are therefore important in development communication.

Mass media like newspapers or electronic copy formats have a potential of being stored in hard copy format for future use e.g. audio, text as well as video. Communication material or messages can be referred to in future or be shared with people who were not present during the time of communication. Modern media systems have an advantage in the sense that most people want to be associated with them as they consider them evidence of civilisation. While proponents of traditional media are greatly in favour of the ICSs, it is crucial to also note the advantages of MCSs as a means of communication which can be useful in poverty alleviation.

2.1.4.4 Disadvantages of MCSs

Modern communication or media systems are less intimate with the people especially in the rural areas. The communicator is not close to the audience and this hampers or inhibits
feedback. Feedback mechanisms are slow if the opportunity is allowed but often, the opportunity is not given to everyone.

Modern media systems are expensive both to the communicator and the recipients. It is not easy to have an article published in a newspaper or a programme broadcast on television or radio as one must pay for that. If the communicator is using a website they must pay for hosting the website which also requires technically capable personnel. MCSs continue to be expensive on the part of the recipients since they need to buy the radio receivers, televisions sets or newspapers for them to be able to get the information. Furthermore, people can only able to access the communicator’s website on the internet after they buy the data bundles which are expensive.

The production of the programmes as well as their broadcasting needs special training. This comes with costs thereby making modern media a complex system as well as expensive in message dissemination.

Modern communication systems have limited access in rural areas. Most of the rural areas are so remote that they do not receive radio, television or internet network signals. Some of the rural areas are not electrified. This makes it complex for users to use their gadgets to access information. Using the modern communication systems requires technical skills on the part of the users. Most of the people in the rural areas are illiterate therefore find difficulties in using the modern communication systems.

2.1.5 Challenges in communication

Communication is the key factor in the success of poverty alleviation programmes implemented by each and every NGO to be able to bring about social change. The process of communication must be as effective as possible in the fight against poverty. Effective communication is faced with challenges and communication is not as easy and simple as it
sounds. Communication is made complex, difficult and frustrating by the barriers that come its way. Barriers to successful communication include, muddled messages, stereotyping, wrong channel, language, *message overload* (when a person receives too many messages at the same time), and *message complexity* (difficulties in understanding the content) (Debasish and Das, 2009).

According to Debasish and Das (2009), the following are barriers of communication:

**Physical or external barriers:** Physical barriers are often due to the nature of the environment for example, the natural barrier which exists if the audiences are located in different buildings or on different sites. Physical barriers are often outside the speaker or the audience but prevent the message from being clearly received. These could be outdated equipment particularly lack of new technology as well as the ability to use the new technology may also cause problems. Distractions like background noise, distance, poor lighting or an environment which is too hot or cold can all affect people's interest and concentration, which in turn interfere with effective communication.

**Attitudinal barriers:** These could be socio-psychological barriers and they come about as a result of problems with the audience in the communication process. These may be caused by such factors as poor management, lack of consultation with the people and personality conflicts. These influence people to delay or refuse to communicate when their feedback is required. Personal attitudes of individuals which may be due to lack of motivation or dissatisfaction, brought about by insufficient training to enable them to carry out particular tasks, or just resistance to change due to entrenched attitudes and ideas, especially by people in the rural areas negatively affect communication (Debasish and Das, 2009).
Semantic and Language Barriers: These are usually occurs when there are problems in the encoding and decoding of messages (Tyagi and Misra, 2011). These involve words sounding the same but having different meaning can convey a different meaning altogether. Hence the communicator must ensure that the receiver receives the same meaning. It would be better if such words can be avoided by using alternatives.

Individual linguistic ability is also important. The use of difficult or inappropriate words in communication can prevent people from understanding the message. Poorly explained or misunderstood messages can also result in confusion (Tyagi and Misra, 2011, Debasish and Das, 2009).

Physiological barriers may result from individual or personal discomfort, caused, for example, by ill health, poor eye sight or hearing difficulties while in the process of exchanging meaning (Tyagi and Misra, 2011, Debasish and Das, 2009).

Presentation of information is also important to aid understanding. Simply put, the communicator must consider the audience before making the presentation itself and in cases where it is not possible, the presenter can at least try to simplify his/her vocabulary so that the majority can understand (Tyagi and Misra, 2011, Debasish and Das, 2009).

Communication noise

In any communication model, noise interferes with the decoding of messages sent over a channel by an encoder. According to Narayanrao (2011) there are many examples of noise and these are:

Environmental Noise: This is noise that physically disrupts communication such as standing next to loud speakers at a party, or the noise from a construction site near a meeting making it difficult to hear the speaker.
Physiological-Impairment Noise: Physical maladies that prevent hearing messages, such as actual deafness or blindness prevent messages from being received as they were intended.

Semantic Noise: This refers to different interpretations of the meanings of certain words. For example, the word "weed" can be interpreted as an undesirable plant in your yard, or as a euphemism for marijuana.

Syntactical Noise: This is when mistakes in grammar such as abrupt changes in verb tense during a sentence can disrupt communication.

Organisational Noise: Poorly structured communication can prevent the receiver from accurate interpretation. For example, unclear and badly stated directions can make the receiver get even more lost.

Cultural Noise: Stereotypical assumptions can cause misunderstandings, such as unintentionally offending a non-Christian person by wishing them a "Merry Christmas".

Psychological Noise: Certain attitudes can also make communication difficult. For instance, great anger, hatred or sadness may cause someone to lose focus. Disorders such as autism may also severely hamper effective communication.

2.2 Review: Past related studies

This section of the thesis is a discussion of the previous studies related to the use of communication strategies in bringing about social change. The section provides an analysis of the implementation of various communication strategies and assesses their successes in bringing an end to poverty.

2.2.1 Review of the past related study 1

Ali (2011) carried out a comprehensive study to examine the communication approaches used by Amhara National Regional State Women Affairs Bureau (ANRS WAB) to bring about
social change. Ali (2011) in his study identifies the plight of the minority (women) in Ethiopia. He expounds the women’s situation and it is clear that women are suffering. The challenge, however, triggered the formation of the bureau which seeks to eradicate the suffering among the women. Programmes implemented to change the terrible situation faced by women have not yielded the desired results. The researcher identified the need to study, assess and evaluate the communication process and its application to bring a relief to the case of the women.

According to Ali (2011), the principal objective of this study was to investigate the communication approaches used by ANRS WAB. The study also sought to identify and examine the strategies used by the bureau. Ali (2011) also aimed at investigating the barriers to the effective communication in the Bureau’s operations and also to suggest the appropriate methods of communication to be used. These objectives make the research vital since they are almost identical to the present study.

In the background of the study, it is alarming to note the situation still faced by the minority groups. It might seem cultural but the bad situation is exacerbated by lack of knowledge which is empowerment. Women problems are made worse due to poverty, illiteracy, lack of good governance, infant mortality and poor information and communication infrastructure. According to Ali (2011), “…women are chained by poverty and domination much more than males”.

The research also depicts harmful traditional practices that are practised like female genital mutilation, early marriage and childbearing, gender based violence, forced marriage, wife inheritance and high value for large families. From the background of the study, it is clear that there is however legal emancipation without the actual freedom which is necessary for women. Ali (2011), just like the present study, sought to investigate and analyse the role of
communication in information sharing to emancipate women. This makes the two studies identical since in the present study, the researcher seeks to analyse the communication strategies by GAA in its poverty alleviation programmes. The present research focuses on an NGO, GAA, and Ali’s (2011) research also focused on an NGO, ANRS WAB.

Ali (2011) argues that the role of communication to alleviate such deep rooted social problems is decisive. It is therefore imperative to use the appropriate and integrated approaches of communication. A social change can be a reality when communication is rightfully employed.

Communication is linked to culture and development and is also a vital tool for empowerment. Communication is a mechanism which helps development or social change projects to accomplish specific goals. It also triggers the participation of the people to whom development is meant for hence it influences the locals to own and safeguard the social change and the development meant for them.

Ali (2011) identifies the extent to which the status quo is bad with regard to women and the necessity for a change and sought to analyse the communication approaches implemented as well as their appropriateness.

**Discussion of the study**

The findings of the research using the qualitative methodology show that the bureau uses mainly top-down communication approaches to target the masses and also horizontal communication approaches with stakeholders. The study also posits that the top down approaches could not address women issues at the grass root levels. The author also further argues that different factors such as lack of human and economic resources, heterogeneous
target groups, illiteracy and stereotyping impede the communication works of the bureau in the change process.

The study identifies that there are various methods and channels which the bureau used to communicate with the masses. It also noted that the bureau made use of magazine, leaflets, networking and interpersonal communication as the communication mechanisms which sought to bring social change. The challenge on the use of magazines is literacy but the bureau believes that with the use of opinion leaders the information gets to the masses despite low illiteracy levels.

Ali’s (2011) research was based on a qualitative approach. He strongly argued for the use of a qualitative approach, citing reasons that it is possible to map and evaluate processes. Qualitative approach helps in discovery of information which cannot be found when research is done otherwise. He further added that the method generates holistic and deep understanding of the process focused by his study. His arguments are vital and as such a qualitative method was also employed in the present study. The present study sought to also discover information, identify, analyse and evaluate the communication process used by GAA, an NGO, in poverty alleviation communication strategies in Gokwe, Zimbabwe.

This researcher however contends that qualitative research method alone is not enough in addressing the key issues of the research as well as the key stakeholders of the communication process. This left a gap in Ali’s (2011) research while the present research made use of both qualitative and quantitative methods which involved all key stakeholders and made them participants and subjects in the research. This was necessary to reach a balanced conclusion since data was sought from all participants in the process of communication.
The medium, the content of messages as well as the feedback are also vital elements of the process. Ali’s research was focused on the sender, messages and the channel. Ali (2011) did not address key aspects which are feedback, recipients as well as the possible channels which could be used for feedback. Feelings and attitudes towards the communication processes and messages are vital when analysing the communication process. This was not addressed by Ali (2011) hence the present research employed quantitative and qualitative methods, ensuring that all elements in the communication process were involved in the study.

Ali (2011), in analysing qualitative data, managed to identify the key themes to get a deeper understanding of the communication process. It was however a good method of analysing qualitative data. Since one of his objectives was to suggest the appropriate methods of communication, the method of analysis at that level cannot yield justifications to suggest appropriate methods to be adopted. In the present study a deeper and detailed method was employed to analyse qualitative data which is the grounded theory. The grounded theory was used to craft theories which could holistically justify the suggested methods, approaches and models for future use in communication for social change, especially poverty alleviation by NGOs.

In his research, Ali (2011) used qualitative research to identify the barriers of communication. While he focused mainly on the sender and the channels and not on the messages and recipients, the barriers identified may not be justifiable on the part of the recipients hence it was crucial for a research which also sought to gather the perceptions, values and attitudes of the audience or recipients. The present research also evaluated the success, strengths and failures of the communication process based on the physical evidence gathered from all players in the communication process.
2.2.2 Review of past related study 2

Another study carried out by Kenny (2002) proved crucial in contributing knowledge vital to the present study. The objective of the study by Kenny (2002) was to review the potential efficacy of radio, telephone and the internet as tools of direct poverty alleviation in rural areas. Kenny (2002) argues that, based on the successes of their utilisation, radio and telephone are the most suitable technologies for the poor. He also believes that they can facilitate gaining access to the internet and calls for the government to open opportunities for private and community broadcasting as well as telephone services. This research is crucial to the present study because it provides critical information on the channels of communication which can be effectively used by NGOs.

Kenny (2002) raises fascinating arguments and opinions on the media of communication used in rural areas. His point of departure is that communication is essential to rural development with importance now attached to grassroots participation and sustainable development. Radio, especially community radio which is less expensive, can be used in rural areas. ICTs, it is argued, “…can contribute to income generation and poverty reduction and can facilitate transformation in Africa” (Kenny, 2002). Kenny (2002) discussed the use of the modern communication technologies based on access considering the cost factor. It is useful for this research since the factor can also explain why some communication strategies by NGOs make or do not make use of particular modes or methods of communication. This answers the aim of the present study which is to identify the modes of communication used at an analytical level.

The use of ICTs to enhance economic development and transformation in Africa entails addressing the impact of ICTs on changing the structure of the African economic and social development opportunities, facilitating diversity, efficient function and responsiveness to the
institutions (including markets) with a view to creating vibrant markets and institutions (May, et al 2007).

ICTs improve the ways and the speed of acquiring information and knowledge (positive impact on education and learning) across societies and sectors. ICTs also optimise production and the way the production process is organised. More to that, ICTs improve productivity through the creation of new production regimes and also facilitate networking, linking people, places and events all over the globe. This increases the reach out of business, research and operations by organisations.

Discussion of the findings

Kenny (2002) carried out a research to review the potential efficacy of radio, telephone and the internet as tools of direct poverty alleviation. His discoveries were that telephone and radio are far more suitable technologies for the poor and also act as an intermediary to gain indirect access to the power of new ICTs, especially the internet. In addition, he places the responsibility on the government to open private and community provisions for broadcasting and widening access to telephone services.

Kenny (2002) noted improvements in the ICTs usage in developing countries and the most cited country is India. He believes that there has been a great movement in the development community pushing for the widespread roll-out of community access to the internet as a tool of poverty relief. However, he also points out that access programmes focusing on the telephone and radio might have a higher benefit cost ratio as intermediaries for the internet in poverty alleviation. He further argues against the use of the internet for poverty relief citing the reason that a few rural people can afford the cost of the internet hence the necessity of radio and telephone.
Kenny (2002) illustrates the characteristics of the poor just like in my research. Important or crucial to this study is the mobile phone usage which accounts for 1000 per capita which is 7.9 in poverty weighted global average and 40 in population weighted global average and 380 in population weighted global average in developed nations.

Kenny (2002) also gives the details for education and language. Female adults illiteracy (%) is 48 and 33% in poverty weighted global average and population weighted global averages respectively. The male adult illiteracy (%) is 27 and 18 in poverty weighted averages and population weighted averages respectively.

The population not speaking the official language is 53 and 36 in global weighted averages and the population weighted global averages respectively. The picture of such averages helps understand the position of rural Zimbabwe though not a very accurate reflection.

**Access of ICTS by the rural poor**

Kenny (2002) agrees that the poor have a low potential of expenditure on ICTs. Most of the people in rural Zimbabwe live on less than US$1 per day which entails that with the earnings they get after selling their agricultural produce they can only afford to buy battery powered radios. According to Kenny (2002), 40% of rural households in the low income countries of Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia own a radio.

He gives an example of Oxfam an NGO which supported the country with radio stations broadcasting information to 92000 people a year at a cost of US$0.40 cents per person. This means that community radio stations, although none in Zimbabwe, are affordable and can be useful in development or poverty alleviation information dissemination.

The improvements in the cell phone usage and the internet can be enhanced by the provision of education in the rural areas. It is clear from the discussion that Kenny (2002) ascribes
much power to the government in facilitating ICTs which will also act as intermediaries in the adoption of the new ICTs while promoting information dissemination and sharing which can help in poverty eradication.

The research by (Kenny 2002) describes the characteristics of the poor and their positioning in terms of accessing the internet. The fact that most of the rural people are unemployed and are also illiterate reduces the potential of them easily accessing and using the internet. This argument supports the notion that other methods of communication can be used for poverty alleviation in rural areas.

In his conclusions and recommendations, Kenny (2002) says that radio is a powerful sustainable technology for meeting many of the information needs of the poor. He further posits, “…government should therefore legalise the private provision of national and local radio and issue spectrum licenses for broadcasters. For example, Mali has got 300 radio stations and South Africa, a neighbor of the country of study has 80 community radio stations (Myers, 2008).

Kenny (2002) is however focused on radio, telephone and the internet as the only forms of communication. Seemingly, he discredits the traditional methods. The present research encapsulates both traditional and modern systems of communication for poverty alleviation. Kenny (2002) provided good statistical representation of the present usage of the modern communication systems which is crucial for this research but incomplete. In the present study, the researcher gathered the feelings of the rural people in terms of how they feel, accept and appreciate the various communication systems hence it becomes a crucial part of the present research.
2.2.3 Review of past related study 3

Mudege & Bourdillon (2003) carried out another research which cannot be excluded in this discussion considering that the research was carried out in the same country as that of the present study. Most importantly, the study is also based on a rural district although from a different province. It is however important to note that the base of the study was to assess the use of communication to bring about a change of attitudes.

Mudege & Bourdillon’s (2003) research was carried out through participant observation on two rural villages of Mwenezi District in Masvingo Province, Zimbabwe. The research discovers that there is limited media access. Findings were that there were local channels of communication. The research also found out that people are selective in their acceptance of the information they receive and to this information (fitting the people’s interests) people respond. They do this according to how the information fits their perceived interests. Mudege and Bourdillon (2003) also concluded that political issues, both at the local and national levels, affect the credibility of messages and that successful transfer of technical knowledge on forestry for the local communities requires dialogue within the communities concerned.

Just like in this research, Mudege and Bourdillon (2003) focused on the local rural district though from a different province. What is interesting is that the researches are within the same country. Their study also looked at how mass media as well as rural based communication systems were used. The difference with this research is that it went on to include the new ICTs as also a means of communication in the rural areas.

Mudege & Bourdillon (2003) believe that the proper implementation of communication strategies can be vital in the success of development projects. Their study was carried out based on the communication of forestry information while in this study focused on poverty
alleviation information dissemination by an NGO as a primary concern. The basic motive of the projects is to bring a social change starting from the attitudes to the final intent which is poverty alleviation and sustainable development.

While Mudege & Bourdillon (2003) only employed participant observation, this research made use of triangulation (the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods) to ensure the accuracy of the findings and to provide a balanced study with opinions from all the parties involved in the communication process.

In Mudege & Bourdillon (2003), radio, television and newspaper messages are compared with the perceived needs of the people in the community. The researchers also analysed the importance of the traditional communication systems. It is important to note that in their research they took into consideration the perceptions of the recipients of the communication content but did not involve the communicator. There is however a general demise on whom the communicator is and the confusion falls between the channel which is mass media and the source of the information using a particular channel to communicate. In the present research all elements involved in the communication process were involved and contributed to the findings of the research.

The literature reviewed in this chapter points to the development communication and communication for social change strategies. It reflects a disregard for the evaluation of the communication practices and the successes in poverty alleviation and its effectiveness in bringing about social change. From the research conducted on poverty alleviation, it is evident that despite the various strategies to end poverty, they have not yielded the desired results and as such the poor rural people are still suffering. This study is however set to analyse the communication practices which GAA uses in Gokwe South Rural District
(GSRD) in its poverty alleviation programmes. To date no major studies have been carried out in GSRD.

2.3 Theoretical framework

Theories are constructed in order to explain, predict and master phenomena (e.g. relationships, events, or behaviour). They are models constructed to represent reality. Samuel (2002) says that, a theoretical outlook refers normal professionalism. Normal professionalism is “the thinking, values, methods and behaviour dominant in a profession or discipline” (Chambers, 1983:3). In the present study, the theoretical framework explains the paradigm around the application of Diffusion of innovations and participatory development theories in poverty alleviation. Due to its nature, this research will inevitably refer to the Diffusion of innovations theory (Rogers, 2005) and participatory development theory as the bases of the research.

The study will focus on the two theories, the Diffusion of innovations (Rogers, 2005) and the Participatory Development Theory. These theories provide a specific and appropriate theoretical framework and will guide this study which is based on the communication methods and practices by Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in poverty alleviation programmes in rural communities of Zimbabwe.

This section of the study will focus on the two theories: the Diffusion of innovations (Rogers, 2005) and the Participatory development theory. According to McQuail (2010), a theory is a general proposition which is based on observation and logical arguments. He further posits that theories state the relationship between observed phenomena and seek to explain or predict the relation. Theories also guide the collection and evaluation of evidence (McQuail, 2010). Theories help make sense of phenomenon, guides action and predict the consequence (McQuail, 2010). In this light, the Diffusion of innovations and the Participatory
development theories provide a specific and appropriate theoretical framework and will guide this study which is based on the communication methods and practices by Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in poverty alleviation programmes in the rural communities of Zimbabwe.

2.3.1 Diffusion of innovations theory

Although Diffusion of innovations was initially centred on mass communication (Fourier, 2007), it also best describes all forms of communications which NGOs apply in their poverty alleviation programmes. The present research shall be guided by the Diffusion of innovations theory’s views (Rogers, 1995).

Diffusion of innovations theory reflects the role of media and communication in disseminating new ideas to the masses and the adoption of these ideas. Fourier (2007:239) says that in each and every society, there is a constant flow of new ideas, products, and solutions to problems as well as innovations. Solutions to address poverty by NGOs can be new to the rural people hence they are innovations.

Innovations are adopted in the process clearly explained by the Diffusion of innovations theory (Rogers, 2005). This also applies in the process of implementing any programme to bring about any form of social change. GAA, as a change agent, disseminates new ideas through communication and hopes for the adoption of these ideas so that organisational goals can be achieved according to its mandate in rural communities.

The ideas to end poverty are new and as such communication strategies have the duty to spread such innovations. New ideas have to be adopted to bring the much desired relief. Diffusion is the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system (Rogers, 2005). For the innovation to spread and be adopted, it should be relatively advantageous, compatible and complex. More
importantly, people should be able to try and observe innovations in the social system. Innovations diffuse through the process of communication.

While in the present study, the discussion is focused on the adoption and use of new approaches to poverty alleviation in rural communities, the study also focuses on the communication of these. Fourie (2007:289) argues that media itself is an innovation. There is need to be swift in its use to make sure that new ideas are accepted. The study also acknowledges that strategies of poverty alleviation are innovations also.

The ideas associated with poverty alleviation are foreign and they can spread and be adopted by members of a social system through communication. Communication is the process by which participants create and share information. Innovations are passed from one person to another through a channel. Lasswell describes communication as “...who says what, through what channels (media) of communication and with what results” (Lasswell cited in Rogers, 1995:13).

De Fleur and Dennis (1994:93) explain the tenets of the Diffusion of innovations theory and outline how the process of adopting innovations takes place. Mass media channels are more effectively used in creating knowledge of new ideas and interpersonal channels are more effective in forming and changing attitudes towards the new idea. Most individuals evaluate an innovation not on the basis of scientific research by experts but through the subjective evaluations of near peers who have adopted the innovation (Rogers, 2005).

The process of Diffusion of innovations occurs through time phases. This begins with the innovator’s decision making process which involves mental processes through which an individual (or other decision making unit) passes through stages. These are: first knowledge of innovation, forming an attitude towards the innovation, decision to adopt or reject, implementing the new idea and confirming the decision (Rogers, 2005). An individual seeks
information at various stages in the innovation decision making process in order to decrease uncertainty about the innovation’s expected consequence. Communication provides the much needed information concerning poverty alleviation.

Time is also involved is the process of adoption of new ideas by an individual or other unit. Innovativeness is the degree to which a new idea is relatively easy to adopt by some members of a social system as compared to other members. There are five adopter categories or classifications of the members of a social system on the basis of their innovativeness and according to Rogers (2005); these are innovators 2.5%, early adopters 13.5%, early majority 34%, late majority 34% and laggards 16%. Diffusion of innovations theory spells out that GAA communication strategies should consider that innovations are adopted at different rates by different people in a social system.

The third way in which time is involved in diffusion is the rate of adoption. The rate of adoption is the relative speed with which an innovation is adopted by members of a social system. The rate of adoption is usually measured as a number of members of a social system in a given time period. The social system is the fourth main element in the diffusion of new ideas in the social system. According to Rogers (2005), a social system is defined as a set of interrelated units that are engaged in a joint problem to accomplish a common goal. GAA operates in Gokwe South Rural District which is a social system and the common goal is poverty alleviation.

Members of a social system could be individuals, informal groups, organisations and subsystems. According to Rogers (2005), the social system constitutes a boundary within which an innovation is expected to diffuse. The innovations or new ideas are the actual aspects of the projects and programmes which seek to address the problem of poverty. The study is based on this theory because the nature of programmes which address poverty
involves the need by the members of a social structure to adopt the new ideas diffused to end the problems of poverty.

A social system is made up of interrelated units which seek to accomplish common goals. Members of a social system include individuals, community groups and organisations. The society’s leadership is part of a social system. Within a social system, there are also change agents. Roger (1995) posits that the structure of a social system can facilitate or impede the diffusion of innovations. In this regard the poor or failure of proper engagement of the opinion leaders can impede the process of the diffusion of innovations. The role which opinion leaders play is of essence. Rogers (1995) also highlights other crucial aspects which can impede or facilitate the diffusion of innovation in a social system. These are the social norms, the types of innovations themselves as well as the consequences of the innovations. Such factors highlighted in the Diffusion of innovations theory, are of major importance to the study of this nature. The theory inevitably becomes a guiding framework.

2.3.2 Participatory development theory

Another theory which guided this research was the Participatory development theory. Most if not all programmes in which masses do not participate have often failed (FAO, 2004). Due to the absence of communication, rural people do not fully participate in development programmes. Rural people do not fully participate in the development programmes from their designing through the implementation to the evaluation stages. The ideas and programmes which seek to end poverty are often new to the locals because they are designed elsewhere and brought to the rural people for implementation. In other terms, they are new to the local people who ought to be crafting the strategies. The success of programmes depends largely on the involvement of the locals in the programmes meant for their development (Manyozo, 2006).
Makuwira (2004) argues that the efforts by NGOs in advocating for the local people’s participation in development programmes are tokenistic. Poor participation by the rural people is reflected through the communication methods and practices which turn to be largely from the NGOs down to the locals and less from the local people to the NGOs. As a result, the programmes fail to accomplish the objectives. This research which sought to identify the communication methods and practices used by GAA in the poverty alleviation programmes was be guided by the Participatory development theory.

Participatory development theory assumes that the solution to poverty in less economically developed countries lies in the community itself. Korten (1986) argues that the community knows its needs and capabilities and ultimately owns the resources and the destiny. The people from the community must participate in the development initiatives, hence participatory development.

Theories are built upon one another. It is therefore crucial to consider previous theories when discussing the new and most applicable theories. Participatory development is a contextualisation of the development theory to the current needs of rural communities in less economically developed countries. Previously, development’s primary focus was on economic growth and a deaf ear was given to the most crucial non material aspects of human needs (Melkote & Steeves 2001). Development was largely equated to modernity (Schuurman, 1993). While development theory (Fourie, 2007) served as the bases, the participatory development theory sought the use of communication channels and strategies to promote development which is defined according to the alternative paradigm of development. This new form of development is sustainable and people centred “…for the people by the people” (Makuwira, 2004).
Agencies of social change are encouraged to use participatory development strategies in their programmes. Communication is at the centre of participatory development. Development agencies, governmental and non-governmental must serve as facilitators (Makuwira, 2004) while the people in the community participate in the development activities.

Participatory development takes into consideration that each and every individual can bring unique skills and knowledge which can be used in poverty alleviation. This can happen in poverty alleviation programmes. While development practitioners bring experience and formal education, the local people can bring local knowledge, advice on the cultural context, their needs as well as positive attitudes. In this regard poverty alleviation programmes can achieve their overall objectives.

Participatory development theory challenges the treatment of local people as mere recipients of development programmes. Participatory development theory assumes that the value of what the development practitioners bring is limited compared to what the locals can bring. GAA operates in a community where people are familiar with their problems and their participation can help by providing information necessary to bring solutions to their plight (Keough, 1998; Chambers, 1994).

Participatory development also allows for diversity (Keough, 1998). Keough (1998) further argues that diversity gives birth to possibilities. Participatory development does not negate other methods of knowing in favour of epistemological system. This is indigenous knowledge which in most cases is crucial for development and poverty alleviation.

Participatory development makes sure that the local people are empowered. Information is power and the locals can obtain this through communication. There cannot be development or social change without empowerment. Melkote and Steeves (2001) posit that the ideal levels of empowerment which are required are personal empowerment, relative empowerment and
collective empowerment which can be achieved through communication. For development communication to achieve empowerment there must not be a linear process of communication. It must be historically grounded, culturally sensitive and multi faceted with attention given to all the political, economic and ideological structures that comprise the society. Participation is crucial in bringing solutions. Freire and Horton (1990:6) argue that, “...we make the road by walking”. This can yield success in poverty alleviation and sustainable development.

Communication must have the capacity to empower the local rural people. Lack of political, economic and cultural power is the problem to be addressed in development. “Empowerment is central to the process of development” (Wilkins, 2000). His bone of contention is that NGOs and governmental organisations are not using radio and other forms of media effectively to educate the rural and urban poor or to provide support for development projects (Wilkins, 2000: I). He links development to the power of communication to promote participation. Participatory development theory will be referred to in this research as a guiding theory.

2.3.3 Relevance of the theories to the research

The two theories deployed for this study are interrelated and as such they were both used. The projects and programmes by NGOs are often new to the rural people. There is a need for the people to understand, appreciate, assimilate and adopt these novel ideas. This makes the Diffusion of innovations applicable to the research. These ideas cannot be easily assimilated when people do not participate in their development, communication and implementation of poverty alleviation programmes.

Local people must be involved in addressing their problems for the sustainability of the solutions Manyozo (2006). According to De Beer and Swannepoel (1998), people should not
only be involved by offering labour or effecting the programmes designed elsewhere but they should also be empowered to develop new poverty alleviation programmes befitting the nature of their problems and communicate them within their communities. Communication should empower people, advocate for their participation as alluded to in the premises of the Participatory development theory. This makes the diffusion of new ideas easy and therefore the two theories are inseparable in a study of this nature.

**2.4 Conclusion**

The above chapter discussed the crucial concepts in the study thereby creating a broader understanding of issues related to communication and development communication for poverty alleviation which is presently crucial in rural areas. The concept of participation raised in the discussion is also an essential aspect but to this point in time communication has not yet achieved in terms of empowering the locals to participate in the communication process by NGOs in their poverty alleviation programmes. This has resulted in the failure by the local to own the projects aimed at improving their situation.

This section of the chapter explored the guiding theories for the present study. The Diffusion of innovations and the participatory development theories forming the theoretical framework guiding this research were discussed. The explanation elaborated the relevance of the theories and the academic position in relation to development communication. Communication for social change, most specifically poverty alleviation, is better explained by the combination of the two theories. Therefore, the Diffusion of innovations and the participatory development theories are necessary in this research which analyses the communication strategies by GAA in poverty alleviation programmes in Gokwe South Rural District in Zimbabwe.

This study however seeks to analyse the communication practices which the GAA uses in Gokwe South Rural District in its poverty alleviation programmes. The Diffusion of
innovations and participatory development are the most relevant theories making up the study's theoretical framework. In the following chapter, the researcher presents a discussion on the NGOs, NGOs and Poverty alleviation in Zimbabwe, GAA operations in Gokwe as well as the communication regulations.
Chapter 3: Non-Governmental Organisations’ (NGOs) Communication and Poverty alleviation in Zimbabwe

3.1 Introduction

There is scanty literature on NGOs communication in the state of Zimbabwe. While questioning the developments and successes of poverty alleviation strategies by both NGOs and Governmental Organisations, less focus has been placed on the communication strategies implemented. This is a gap which remains unfilled in poverty alleviation and development calculus in Zimbabwe. Communication has been a contested terrain during both the colonial and the post colonial governments of Zimbabwe. This is chronicled by the stringent communications regulatory acts by both the former and present governments of the state.

This chapter will therefore give a detailed history of NGOs and communication. In order to have a clear picture of the political climate in which NGOs operate the state, the Private Voluntary Organisation (PVO) Act as well as the proposed NGO Bill shall be discussed. The chapter will also provide an overview of the communication regulations in Zimbabwe focusing mainly on the Access to Information and Privacy Protection Act (AIPPA), Public Order and Security Act (POSA), Broadcasting Services Act and also the Interception of Communications Act (ICA). The same chapter will also give a detailed background of politics and NGOs in Zimbabwe and later on explain their relationship. This will provide a clear communication atmosphere in Zimbabwe.

3.2 History of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

NGOs started operating during 19th century but their number rose in the 20th century (Takure, 2009). The functions of NGOs were to spread the beliefs, culture and values of the colonial powers in the colonies (Takure, 2009). NGOs’ functions had political motives in the 1970s. Petras (1997) argues that NGOs had a parallel strategy to deal with the discontented
citizenry and build allegiance to local leaders from the grassroots. According to Shivji (2005), these NGOs survived on funding from the governments and they served on government’s instructions.

NGOs began operating in Africa in from the 1910s to 1920s (Petras, 1997). These NGOs dealt with charity and welfare. In Zimbabwe, the NGO law, the Welfare Organisations Act was enacted in 1968 (NANGO, 2006; NGO Consultancy, 2005). According to NANGO (2006), these organisations taught religious beliefs and assisted the needy by giving handouts and taking care of orphans, abandoned babies, disabled people, the homeless and the disabled.

Later on, NGOs’ work saw a shift of focus and became development oriented, especially after Zimbabwe’s independence in 1980. NANGO (2006) and Otto (nd) say that NGOs complemented the government efforts in rehabilitation and reconstruction of the country. NGOs supported the resettling of people, improvement of agricultural skills in rural areas, advancement of women, local income generating projects, the protection of natural resources and the integration of the disabled into communities (NANGO, 2006).

After the 1990s, NGOs saw another shift in their operations in Zimbabwe. According to NANGO (2006), some NGOs began to deal with advocacy. Matenga (2001) also posits that since 1980, NGOs had began to be ranked high as development role players, offering an alternative development approach to poverty alleviation and long term sustainable development to poor communities in developing countries.

However, according to Otto (nd), the NGOs’ operations aligned to the government changed after the land seizure in 2000. Frictions grew between the state and the NGOs and their existence and operations in Zimbabwe began to experience difficulties yet the need for aid also grew due to the mounting crisis in Zimbabwe.
While the crisis in Zimbabwe grew due to various factors like natural disasters (floods and drought), the collapse in the health and school systems, political crisis, hyperinflation, collapsing banking system and decline in the health status, NGOs had to provide aid. Health challenges such as cholera epidemic, high maternal mortality, malnutrition, tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS and anthrax also increased (Otto, nd). NGOs scaled up their operations to deal with the mounting crisis.

According to NANGO (2006), presently, there are 2000 registered organisations operating in Zimbabwe. Their scope of operations include disability, elderly, children, youth, environment, women and gender, human rights, health and poverty alleviation (NANGO, 2006).

3.3 Development and poverty alleviation NGOs in Zimbabwe

Poverty alleviation and development NGOs deal with the improvement of the standards of living. Swanepoel and De Beer (2000) agree with the fact that NGOs and civil society are the main initiators of development and development projects within the countries that they are involved in. NGOs seek to attain the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the UN (UN, 2007). Examples of such NGOs in Zimbabwe include Deutsche Weltihtungerhilfe German Agro Action (GAA), Concern, CARE Africa, Christian Care, Catholic Development Commission (CADEC), and Save the Children (UK) (Sibanda, 1994) to cite but just a few. These NGOs deal with development and poverty alleviation programmes and are presently operating in Gokwe, Zimbabwe. Since the study is a case of GAA, the following discussion will be focused mainly on GAA.

3.4 Deutsche Weltihtungerhilfe German Agro Action (GAA)

Deutsche Weltihtungerhilfe German Agro Action (GAA) is a private aid-organisation from Germany. GAA is engaged in the field of development, co-operation and emergency aid
worldwide (Weltihungerhilfe, n.d). The organisation was formed in 1962 and it is non-profit making, non-denominational and politically independent. The operations of GAA are financed by private donations and public grants. Up to this point, GAA has operated in about 70 countries since its inception in 1962. (www.idealist.org )

GAA seeks to assist the people from developing countries to improve their living conditions. It does this through empowering them to secure their livelihood by their own strengths (Weltihungerhilfe, nd). The organisation is therefore guided by the principles which are the needs, interests and rights of the poor rural population. According to Weltihungerhilfe ibid, its vision is a world in which all exercise their right to lead a self-determined life in dignity and justice. A free from hunger and poverty populace is also GAA’s objective. In the fight against hunger and poverty, GAA promotes agriculture suited to local conditions, access to clean water, provision of environmentally friendly energy and the improvement of health (Weltihungerhilfe, nd).

The organisation provides assistance by means of quick humanitarian aid and close co-operation with local partner organisations in long term programmes. In addition to that, GAA works in co-operation with national and international partners which include the political players, schools, the media and other areas towards ensuring that solidarity does not remain a meaningless phrase. Overall, GAA is driven by the notion that development is about chances and choices. GAA also believes that it is about supporting people to become sustainable actors in shaping their own society (www.idealist.org ).

GAA’s areas of expertise include advocacy, lobbying, campaigning, agriculture, children, conflict resolution monitoring, construction/engineering, emergencies, food and hunger/nutrition, fundraising, HIV/AIDS, logistics/transport, monitoring and evaluation, programme management, refugees and displacement, shelter, water and sanitation.
GAA believes that a well motivated community and high public relations are important to its operations. It is an organisation which is politically and religiously independent and works with actors who share its organisational goals (Weltihungerhilfe, nd). The organisation treats the people it helps as partners in order to come up with a sustainable improvement of opportunities. GAA seeks to reach that day when development cooperation will not be needed because all people will be able to help themselves sufficiently (Weltihungerhilfe, nd).

3.5 NGO Legislature in Zimbabwe

NGOs operating in Zimbabwe are governed by legislation. The governing of NGOs is not a new phenomenon in Zimbabwe. It started during the colonial era (ICNL, 2012) when the settler government tried to deter resistance perpetuated by civil organisations to its policies. In Zimbabwe, the Private Voluntary Organisation (PVO) Act of 1967 and the proposed NGO Bill 2004 are the laws which are directly concerned with the running and governance of NGOs. These shall be discussed in this section.

Bills are intended to facilitate the smooth running and governance of affairs but the first NGO bill in Zimbabwe, the Private Voluntary Organisation (PVO) Act of 1967 also clamped down organisations which had anything to do with the liberation movement or the spread of information about human rights (ICNL, 2012).

The Private Voluntary Organisation Act of 1967 has been operational since the Smith regime (International Bar Association, 2004). The PVO Act was in place until the Zimbabwean Constitution after independence. The monitoring of NGO operations was later made tighter because of this act, especially when the relations between the NGOs and the government turned sour.
The proposed NGO Bill is discussed in this study because it influences the way NGOs operate and as such it is crucial that it is considered in this research. The NGO Bill was however meant to do away with the tight control mechanisms in the PVO act but ironically it proposed new prohibitions against the registration of foreign NGOs and access to foreign funding by local NGOs (ICNL, 2012).

Political involvement of NGOs became a danger to their existence due to the NGO Bill. Many criticisms of the NGO Bill (Human Rights, 2004) emanate from the arguments that the bill is too tight and as such it limits the freedom of NGOs. This therefore limits the way NGOs function indirectly and as such impacts on the communication activities which they choose to implement.

3.6 Communication related legislation in Zimbabwe

In order to understand the communication climate of Zimbabwe, it is necessary to discuss the legislature surrounding the communication activities. According to Mukumbu (nd), there are currently a number of laws that restrict the operation of the media and freedom of expression in Zimbabwe. These are Access to Information Privacy Protection Act (AIPPA), Public Order and Security Act (POSA), Broadcasting Services Act, and the Interception of Communications Act (ICA) (All Africa, 2012). These directly affect the communication strategies by NGOs in Zimbabwe. This section of the literature discusses the legislation around communication in Zimbabwe.

The Zimbabwean Constitution gives everyone the right of freedom of expression in Section 20 in the Bill of Rights (The Zimbabwean Constitution), which states that:

"Except with his own consent or by way of parental discipline, no person shall be hindered in the enjoyment of his freedom of expression, that is to say, freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart ideas and information"
without interference and freedom from interference with his correspondence.

(GOZ, 2002: 14).

In terms of this section, NGOs, just like any other person or office, have the freedom to communicate messages, development and poverty alleviation messages included.

Despite that, the government has launched and has indicated intentions to launch a number of regulatory initiatives. These distract and threaten the operation of Civil Service Organisations (CSOs), NGOs included (ICNL 2012).

3.6.1 Public Order and Security Act (POSA)

Public Order and Security Act (POSA) Chapter 11: 17 of 2002 and amended by Act 18 of 2007 criminalise anyone or office uttering or disseminating information which insults the president. In this act, the uttering of words which are likely to undermine policing authority is also regarded as a crime. In addition to that, POSA criminalises the distribution of political posters, pamphlets, or other materials in public places and private homes without permission from the police (Manganga, 2012).

POSA requires any one or any organisation that intends to hold meetings in public spaces to submit letters which ICNL (2012) regards as application letters. The imprisonment term for breaching the law was increased to 5 years when the law was amended in 2007 (Mukumbu, nd).

Such a law, according to the ICNL (2012), causes individuals or organisations to censor themselves or engage in selective and thorough reviews before placing any information in the public domain. POSA, like AIPPA, is blamed for tightening restrictions on the independent media and giving the police more powers (Solidarity Peace Trust, 2004).
POSA controls freedom of expression. According to Mashiri (2011), POSA has resulted in several arrests of people engaged in various activities therefore any NGO operating in Zimbabwe, is likely to communicate in fear of defying the regulation system.


AIPPA was enacted in 2002. AIPPA sets out conditions under which public information can be accessed. According to MISA (2007), it directly led to the closure of private owned newspapers, the Daily News, The Daily News on Sunday in September 2003, the African Tribune Newspaper (ATN) publishers of the Tribune in June 2004 and the Weekly Times in February 2005 (MISA, 2007). The law also allows the forfeiture of products, equipment and apparatus used for or in connection with the offence as stipulated in the act (Mukumbu, nd).

AIPPA is highly criticized as a blockade in the airwaves (Mashiri, 2011) and it is also regarded as an attempt to muzzle the independent media (MISA, 2007). The law is also criticized for the abuse of foreign journalists and correspondents of foreign media through exorbitant prices (Mashiri, 2011). This law, therefore, negatively influences the communication decisions by NGOs in Zimbabwe.

3.6.3 Broadcasting Services Act (2001)

The law mandated the formation of the Broadcasting Authority of Zimbabwe (BAZ). BAZ is a regulatory body appointed by the Minister of Information and Publicity in consultation with the President. The Broadcasting Services Act gives much power to BAZ in terms of monitoring and licensing the broadcasting players. The act also controls foreign investment in the broadcasting industry. Ownership of shares in the broadcasting organisations by individuals is limited to a maximum of 10%. BAZ has been extremely restrictive and limited growth in the broadcasting industry by making it hard for new players to operate. As a result of this, there is a limited number of broadcasting stations in Zimbabwe.

The Interception of Communications Act (ICA) was passed in 2007 (kubatana.net). The act legalises the interception and monitoring of communications in the course of transmission in Zimbabwe. In the act, the government is given the power to intercept messages on emails, posts, text messages and telephone calls which the state deems subversive (kubatana.net). ICA also provides for the establishment of a monitoring centre and grants the warrant to intercept to the Chief of Defence, the Director General in the President’s department of national security, the Commissioner of the Zimbabwe Republic Police (ZRP) and the Commissioner-General of the Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA) (kubatana.net).

The act discussed directly concern the communication activities of NGOs. The law together with the others discussed above, directly target political opposition supporters, independent media and human rights activists through restricting their communication activities in terms of freedom of assembly, criticising the government, engagement in advocacy and the organisation of peaceful civil disobedience (Mashiri, 2011). This has an impact on innocuous communications also by NGOs operating in Zimbabwe.

3.7 Legislature implications of NGOs communication in poverty alleviation

As discussed above, the communication and NGOs related legislature had various direct and negative implications on NGOs communication activities and operations in Zimbabwe. Communication activities are directly influenced by the strict laws. NGOs cannot communicate freely. In addition, the laws have limited the number of communication media which could be used by NGOs. NGOs operate in fear. The funding and registration of NGOs is over monitored by the government. This makes the atmosphere unhealthy for effective operations.
3.8 NGOs and Politics in Zimbabwe

The present government in Zimbabwe is blamed for the abuse of human rights in the process of deterring all opposition and ensuring its sustenance in power. Amidst all this turmoil, the ordinary man who is suffering the untold poverty is caught up in the fierce battle between the government which intends to hold on to power and human rights organisations. The fierce battle involves the stringent use of the legal arm of the government, an ideology adopted from the Smith regime (Dorman, 2001). Humanitarian NGOs are also caught up in this battle.

The ruling party, Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF), had been enjoying uncontested power since independence in 1980 until the late 1990s when there was the formation of the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) which voted ‘NO’ to the proposed constitutional referendum in 2000.

NGOs seemed to have played a significant role in the success of opposition as a number of them begun to operate in the area of advocacy. They opposed the abuse of human rights. The relationship which the NGOs and the government had previously enjoyed while working together during the nation building turned sour. This began to be noticeable when NGOs formed a coalition, the National Constitutional Assembly (NCA) of 1997 (Makumbe, 2009). This was done mainly to challenge the ruling party’s abuse of human rights (Dorman, 2001).

The formation of the opposition, MDC in 1999 and winning the “NO” vote during the 2000 referendum elections and winning 57 out of 120 seats in the following parliamentary elections in 2002, posed a serious threat to the ruling party ZANU-PF. The only way to stay in power was to clamp down opposition at all costs. The involvement of a group of NGOs in the constitutional debates as a united structure, the NCA, substantially destroyed the positive relationship between the NGOs and the government.
The opposition MDC seems to have more support from the western countries. The west criticised the Fast Track Land Reform Programme and the abuse of human rights. In this turmoil, most NGOs are international. International and local NGOs get financial support from the west this makes NGOs state enemies. This made the ruling party ZANU-PF to suspect NGOs as a cause of its declining national support. Together with MDC, NGOs began to be treated as agents of imperialism, despite the fact that some NGOs were fighting against poverty and other social ills. There was an umbrella treatment of NGOs as the ruling party ZANU-PF treated them as suspects interested in the overthrow of the government.

In a statement in 2008 by President Robert Mugabe:

> We have now a phenomenon of NGOs, or shall I call them phenomena, for they really are a type of government in the background of a formal government. I don't know whether this creature is for the better or for the worse, but in our country we have seen a situation where they have exceeded their terms of reference, and perhaps we might have to reconsider the advisability of having NGOs. (Robert Mugabe: 2008 cited in Chakawarika, 2011)

It is clear that the government and NGOs had a negative relationship. It must also be noted that all NGOs were in the process painted with the same brush. Aid and development NGOs were often blamed for taking political sides by government officials. To this end, NGOs have suffered various attacks from the government and the NGOs Secretary General Godwin Phiri in a report in 2011 said that ministers should desist from such since NGOs are making a contribution to national development.

### 3.9 Conclusion

NGOs began operating around the world since the early 20th century and they were mainly dealing with charity. During the early 20th century, NGOs proved successful in
complimenting the government efforts to deal with social evils by their ability to reach grassroots societies. In Zimbabwe, NGOs were useful during nation-building and worked close to the government soon after independence until the late 1990s. The relationship between NGOs and the government turned sour when some NGOs began to deal with issues of advocacy and human rights policies. This made the government to suspect NGOs as agents of regime change. The government began to extend the legal arm to tighten the control of NGOs. Presently, NGOs and the state are at loggerheads. Amidst this turmoil, they have to step up in terms of operations as the masses find themselves in dire need of sustainable aid in rural communities. The NGOs have to advance their mandate in Zimbabwe faced with deep mistrust from the government. As a result, the manner in which NGOs communicate their poverty alleviation programmes is impacted on by the political atmosphere. The following chapter shall provide an explanation of the research methodology.
Chapter 4: Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The study aimed to find out the communication mediums and languages used by GAA in conducting its programmes in Gokwe South Rural District. The study also intended to identify the issues/themes communicated by GAA in its poverty alleviation programmes and to determine the involvement of the rural people in the development communication process. Most crucial, the research also sought to evaluate the effectiveness of the communication strategies used by GAA as well as the feedback system in poverty alleviation. Against this background, the study employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches. This chapter discusses the research design, research instruments, data collection procedures, sampling techniques and data analysis techniques for this study.

4.2 Research Design

The research employed both qualitative and quantitative survey designs. Wimmer and Dominick (2005:139) argue that quantification, “...allows researchers to summarise results and report them with greater parsimony”. Most importantly, quantification facilitates the use of statistical tools to interpret and analyse the content. The study sought descriptive data and also data that are more scientific and objective (Hughes, 1997) hence the use of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

Quantitative research is the systematic investigation of quantitative properties and phenomena and their relationships. The research made use interviews, a qualitative method of gathering data. This data collection method focuses on gathering extensive amounts of data and the researcher qualitatively interprets the data. A qualitative research is concerned with collecting data and analysing information in non-numeric forms. It focuses on exploring detail and Blaster, Hughes and Tight (1996) argue that qualitative data analysis aims to
achieve depth rather than breadth. Qualitative analysis seeks to gain an understanding from evaluating people’s attitudes, behaviours, value systems, concerns, motivation, aspirations, culture and life styles. In the present study, interviews were conducted.

Bryman (1988) suggested that qualitative and quantitative approaches should be combined. The combination of both approaches can offset the weaknesses of either approach when used alone (Creswell, 2003). According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), both methods provide a comprehensive evidence for studying a research problem than when used separately. Mixing the research methods further encourages researchers to collaborate across the sometimes adversarial relationship between quantitative and quantitative researches (Creswell, 1999, 2003). Combining the research methods is practical because researchers use both numbers and words to solve problems. In addition, mixed methods combine both inductive and deductive thinking (Creswell, 2003). Hughes (1997) is of the opinion that quantitative approaches are associated with objectivity and qualitative approaches are associated with subjectivity. When both methods are used, subjective limitations of the accuracy of research can be overcome to yield objective findings. Qualitative and quantitative methods were used to supplement each other in an attempt to compliment their strengths in terms of breadth and depth. In this study which was about communication practices, qualitative research had to be employed.

4.2.1 Study population

Gokwe South Rural District has a population of about 294 627 (www.statoids.com). The district is divided into wards which are groupings of villages. Gokwe South Rural District has about 33 wards. In each ward there are about 25 villages. Each village comprises about 17 households (Parliament of Zimbabwe, 2011). The sample was, however, drawn from the 8 wards of the district in which GAA was operational. Therefore, the number of participating households in the four wards was approximately 1700. From this population, the sample was
drawn. Most of the people in Gokwe Rural District live in communal lands and rely on subsistence farming for survival.

The study was carried out in Zimbabwe which struggling economically. Most of the population is unemployed and the unemployment statistics are at 95% (CIA, 2012). People in the district rely on donor funding since subsistence farming cannot sustain them due mainly to poor rainfall and also the unavailability of inputs and their inability to afford them.

4.2.2 Sampling Techniques

A sample is a representation of the total population. It is some part of a larger body, especially selected to represent the whole. The findings about the sample can be generalised to the entire study population. For this to be done, a sample must be a true representation of the entire population (Hopkins, 2000). This was done due to time constraints and limited resources since the whole population cannot be investigated. A process called sampling was therefore implemented.

Sampling is a scientific process of taking a proportion to be investigated from the universe or entire population under study. The study adopted a multistage cluster sampling. Multistage sampling was chosen to ensure that the sample was a true representation of the wards in which GAA operates. It was also selected to avoid bias. The method was convenient in terms of the time limitations. When elements are grouped in clusters the researcher is at liberty to randomly select elements (Best and Radcliff, 2005). The researcher followed the same procedure to select the elements of the study.
4.2.2.1 Stage 1

The first stage of sampling was carried out in the 8 wards in which GAA is operational in Gokwe South Rural District. This was done to select 4 wards and the councillors from these wards became interviewees. Each ward is led by one councillor; each councillor from the selected ward was interviewed. This was done to get the leadership opinion and to verify and supplement the information supplied by the subjects. Councillors were informants to the research and provided qualitative data. Since the researcher wanted to gather as much data as possible to verify and supplement the data collected though the questionnaire, interviews were conducted with the councillors. Each interview with councillors took between 15-20 minutes.

4.2.2.2 Stage 2

The second stage was at ward level (4 selected wards) to select 5 villages from each of the selected 4 wards to make 20 villages. Village heads from the 20 villages were the interview respondents. Interviews were also conducted with the village heads to also get the leadership perspective and to supplement and verify data gathered through the questionnaire. The numbers of councillors and village heads used as subjects allowed for interviews due to the fact that interviews are time consuming and therefore can be efficiently used on a smaller number of subjects. Interviews with the village heads took 10-15 minutes each.

4.2.2.3 Stage 3

The third stage was at village level to select the households whose heads became the respondents to the questionnaire. Using simple random sampling, the researcher selected 5 households from each village, making 120 households. The household heads responded the questionnaire. The researcher approached sampling in a way which was meant to avoid the
exclusion or inclusion of a subset due to any particular attributes which fell outside the sampling method. A simple random sampling method was employed to identify the subjects from the cluster so as to yield undistorted results.

GAA has only one project manager operating in the district and the project manager Ms Vimbai Dhliwayo was the interviewed.

The sample had a total of 145 respondents to both the questionnaire and interviews. 120 household heads responded to the questionnaire and 20 village heads, 4 councillors and 1 GAA project manager were interviewees. For the findings from a sample to be generalised, the sample must be representative of the entire population and therefore the sample size is crucial. It is also vital to evaluate the composition of the sample to ensure that it takes represents all the characteristics of the study population.

To determine the sample the researcher took cognisance of the fact that inferences about a population could be made from the sample. To determine the sample size, the researcher took into consideration the population size based on the number of wards, villages and households in which GAA was operational. The study area has 8 wards and each ward has ±33 villages and each village has ±17 households. The first stage of sampling involved the selection of 4 wards. In these wards, there were approximately ±1700 households. The total sample size was calculated from this total population using the following formula:

\[
n = \left[ \frac{p (1-p) / (A^2/Z^2 + P (1 - p / n))}{R} \right] / n \]

Where \( n \) = sample size required, \( N \) = number of people in the population, \( P \) = estimated variance in population, as a decimal: (0.5 for 50-50, 0.3 for 70-30), \( A \) = Precision desired,
expressed as a decimal (i.e. 0.05; \( Z \) = Based on confidence level: 1.96 for 95% confidence and \( R \) = Estimated Response rate, as a decimal

The above formula was used to determine the sample size for the study. The total number of the sample was 145. 120 household heads responded to the questionnaire and 25 people comprising village heads, ward councillors and the GAA Project Manager were interviewed.

Based on the data which the researcher intended to solicit, the researcher decided on the participants depending on the type and amount of information required (DePaulo, 2000). Respondents were adults heading the selected households. These were identified from the clusters in which GAA conducts programmes. Therefore, the respondents had participated in GAA programmes. Interviews were conducted face-to-face with the GAA official, councillors and village heads. These were key informants to the research. The interview with the GAA official sought to gather GAA’s perspective of what they actually do regarding their methods communication and the extent to which the organisation considered its communication practices effective. Councillors as well as the village heads provided a leadership perspective of the communication activities.

Before gathering data from the respondents, the list of wards in which GAA operates was obtained from GAA and also confirmed from the district Chief Executive Officer. To have the questionnaire filled in, the researcher attended field days conducted by GAA in the four wards and the researcher conducted interviews with the respective councillors and the village heads. This helped in reducing the costs involved in visiting respondents separately.

4.2.3 Research Instruments

Qualitative data were collected through semi-structured face-to-face in-depth interviews. In-depth interviews yield unstructured data hence a systematic and objective approach is required to analyse the information obtained. In this research, semi-structured in-depth
interviews conducted were face-to-face and the interviewees were the GAA Project Manager, councillors and village heads.

The research also made use of a self administered questionnaire to collect quantitative data. The subjects were a sample made up of family heads drawn from the 120 households. The self administered questionnaire comprised structured questions. The questions were close ended consisting of multiple choice, dichotomous, bipolar, likert and rating scale question types. The questionnaire collected qualitative data.

4.3 Procedure for data collection

Prior to data collection the researcher sought authorisation from the District Chief Executive Officer as well as GAA. The officials approved, stamped and signed the letters of request. Data was collected over a month’s period during the month of April 2012. Qualitative data were collected through in-depth semi-structured interviews. The interview schedules were written in simple English. The researcher clarified the questions to the interviewees in cases where they did not understand. In this research, the interviewees were the GAA Project Manager, councillors and village heads.

The in-depth semi-structured interview schedule was guided by prepared questions and the researcher asked further questions from the interviewees. The semi-structured interviews were informal and this allowed the interviewer to explore several aspects of the issues in depth by asking open questions which are designed to invite explanatory or detailed answers (Currie, 2005). Such a benefit of semi-structured interviews led the researcher to make use of the technique. Healey and Rawlinson (1994) cited in Curie (2005) say that semi-structured interviews are non-standardised. A researcher has some listed questions serving as guidelines. Semi-structured interviews are more flexible and allow the pursuit of unexpected lines of enquiry during the interview (Grix, 2001). In the present research a semi-structured method
was employed to try and answer the research questions in order to find out the communication methods and practices used by the GAA as well as their effectiveness.

The researcher also used a self administered questionnaire to collect quantitative data. In a survey, questionnaires are the most effective method when used in conjunction with other methods (Grix. 2001). He also says that a questionnaire is a list of questions sent to specific individuals who when if one is lucky, respond. According to Kumar (1999) cited in Grix (2001) questions must be clear, unambiguous, and easy to understand. This assists the respondents to respond appropriately and uniformly to yield reliable results. A questionnaire method gives the respondents an opportunity to respond freely without the interference of the researcher unlike in interviews. According to Grix (2001), a careful consideration has to be made to ascertain that the questions in the questionnaire are clear and precise in relation to the idea being studied.

In the present study, respondents were the sample drawn from the population which was 120 family heads. The researcher also made use of research assistants to distribute the questionnaire copies. Respondents completed the questionnaire with the assistance of the researcher or research assistants.

Before the actual data collection, the researcher collected a clearance certificate from the University of Fort Hare Research Ethical Clearance Committee and took it to the Chief Executive Officer, GAA and councillors. This was done to familiarise himself with the officials as well as seek their consent for the study. In-depth semi-structured interviews and the questionnaire the two methods used to collect qualitative and quantitative data in this research.
4.4 Method of data analysis

4.4.1 Quantitative data analysis
Data analysis is the process of gathering, modelling and transforming data with the goal of highlighting useful information, suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision making (Wellman et al., 2005). The responses to the structured close-ended questions were rated in percentages. The percentage of respondents for each alternative was given and analysed. The data collected was analysed using the descriptive and inferential statistics in computer software known as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were used because they summarise data. Measures included averages, mean and mode. Inferential statistics were used because they help to reach conclusions by inferring from the data. They had an advantage in the study because they allowed judgements of probability from the observed differences between groups. The t-test was used to compare averages of performance between groups. To test the relationship among variables, the chi-square tests were employed. The researcher did this with the assistance of a statistician.

4.4.2 Qualitative data
Qualitative data was analysed using the grounded theory. The researcher read the data transcribed during the interviews to develop themes and patterns, classifying information according to the questions.

The Grounded theory provides insights into the communication strategies, their effectiveness, the conditions of their effectiveness and the effectiveness of the feedback system in GSRD by GAA. The method also involves the development of theories from the collected data (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, 1998). From this data, abstract concepts are developed. A concept is a core term in a theory. It summarises an important aspect of a problem under study and it is useful in collecting and interpreting evidence (McQuail, 2010). According to Strauss and Corbin
(1998), the researcher must be close to the respondents in data collection. In this research, the researcher collected data through semi-structured interviews with the village heads, the councillors, and the GAA Project Manager. Semi-structured interviews are informal and as such the researcher is closer to the respondents.

During the interviews, the participants discussed the issues concerning the communication practices employed and the possible reasons as well as their effectiveness. In this research, an interpretative explanation is avoided (Suddaby, 2006) as this results in lengthy presentations of data. The study therefore presents an aftermath findings discovered after the complex analysis of data using the grounded theory method. It should be noted that this was an ongoing process which began during data collection.

The participants also discussed the feedback system in place as well as the challenges affecting the whole communication process. In this context, themes were developed. Such themes include the media of communication by GAA, reasons of these mediums, their effectiveness, their best media, message content, the feedback system and the potential for development in the communication methods in poverty alleviation by NGOs.

**Open Coding**

The process followed open coding which involved finding key phrases or words from the interview field notes. This was done line by line as suggested by La Rossa in (La Rossa, 2005). The process also involves the naming and categorising of data (Locke, 2001 and Strauss and Corbin, 1998). During this process, data was broken down into units according to themes. These themes were then compared with other themes as they occurred. Data was categorised according to Strauss and Corbin’s (1990) outlined guidelines. They state that themes are categorised according to events or occurrences and also according to the strategies employed to manage the event.
Axial coding

After that, the second step was axial coding. In this, concepts were identified from the data. The researcher went on to create sub-categories. Sub-categories are specified according to the conditions leading to the events, the context as well as the responses to such events or occurrences (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). In this manner sub-categories which attempted to explain phenomena in simple and reliable terms were made. The process led to selective coding.

Selective coding

Finally, the researcher did selective coding. Selective coding led to the integration of refined, clear and understandable categories. According to Straus and Corbin (1998), selective coding involves the integration and the refining of the theory. The researcher developed the main category. The main category is identified in relation to other themes or concepts so as to explain phenomena (Goulding, 2005, Suddaby, 2006). In this process, the strategies of communication in poverty alleviation were assessed using the five main circumstances of promoting poverty in the rural areas through communication

4.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, the chapter discussed the methods which were used to collect data. The research employed qualitative and quantitative research methods. The instruments used were semi-structured interviews to gather qualitative data and a self administered questionnaire to gather quantitative data. While the research is a case study of GAA in Gokwe South Rural District, the population was the 8 wards of the district in which GAA is operational. The multistage cluster sampling was employed to draw the sample of 120 households to respond to the questionnaire. The method also drew 4 councillors as well as 20 village heads who were interviewed. The chapter discussed the research design, research
instruments, data collection procedures, sampling techniques and data analysis techniques.

The next chapter deals with data presentation and data analysis.
Chapter 5: Data Analysis

5.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the presentation and analysis of data gathered from the field. Data were collected from four wards out of the eight wards in which GAA operated in Gokwe South Rural District, GAA Project Manager, 4 councillors and 20 village heads. Data analysis is a means of determining and testing for the extent of convergence, commonality or divergence among data collected during the study and the relationship among variables which these data represent (Nenty, 2009). Data was collected over a month’s period during the month of April 2012. Quantitative data collected was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) which is a statistical analysis package for windows. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and distribution tables and also the inferential statistics in the form of the Pearson chi-square and t-test were used. Data were presented mainly in frequency distribution and cross tabulation tables. Qualitative data were analysed using the Grounded Theory. Data were presented in themes. Data gathered from the respondents include demographic characteristics, knowledge and information about GAA and communication methods and issues addressed through the communication methods. This chapter presents the findings and data analysis.

5.1 Presentation of findings

5.1.1 Quantitative data

This section of the chapter presents analysis and findings from quantitative data. Data were collected using a questionnaire comprising close-ended questions. The questionnaire (see Appendix A) was designed to solicit information on the communication methods and practices used by the NGO: Deutsche Weltihungerhilfe German Agro Action (GAA) in their poverty alleviation strategies. The questionnaire also sought to deduce the compatibility of
the communication methods with the social realities of the people of Gokwe South Rural District, Midlands Province, Zimbabwe.

The questionnaire consisted of eight demographic questions, four questions on GAA information while fifty three questions addressed strategies used by GAA in addressing issues in Gokwe South Rural District. The last seven questions were to solicit information on issues addressed by GAA through its communication practices. The questionnaire was responded to by 111 respondents. They were almost equally divided in terms of gender.

5.1.1.1 Demographic/Biographical Information

The questionnaire was distributed to 120 family heads which was a sample selected through a multistage cluster method. 120 copies were distributed and 111 people responded. Of the 111 respondents, 57% were males (see Figure 6.1), 89% were married while the rest were separated and none of the respondents was single. Gender was considered to determine the relative participation of subjects depending on gender in the communication activities and marital status was also considered to consider how it determined the exposure to and the use of the modes of communication. The majority (87%) of the respondents were self-employed while a paltry 6% composed of retirees. Employment status was considered to deduce the ability to the subjects to acquire and access the modes of communication.

All the respondents had attended school to at least primary level with the majority (64%) having attended up to Ordinary level (Form 4 or Secondary level). Most (73%) of the respondents were predominantly Shona with less than a quarter being Shangwe speakers and the rest being either Tonga or Ndebele. Education clarified the level to which the subjects would understand the modes of communication used which in turn influenced their participation. Mother language was meant to determine the extent to which the subjects would understand the languages used.
All the 63 male and 48 female respondents had attended school up to at least Grade 7 (see Table 5.1).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Sub-Total</th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self employed</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formally employed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please indicate if spouse is self employed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self employed</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formally employed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you attend school?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If yes please indicate the highest education level attained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before Grade 7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary Level</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Categorized Educational Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 2 and below</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beyond Form 2</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of dependants</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When the educational levels of the respondents were collapsed into only two categories, “Form 2 (at this level of education most people in Zimbabwe can read and write at least one first language and English) and below” and “beyond Form 2”, a highly significant association between gender and educational level was observed (see Table 5.2). Females in the population where the data were collected had attended school up to Form 2 only while males were likely to have gone beyond Form 2. Risk analysis results showed that females were ten times more likely to have gone up to Form 2 while males up to tertiary level [OR=.100, 95% CI=(.040, .250)] (see Table 6.3). The results also showed a significant association (Chi-square=5.05, p-value=.025) between gender and number of dependants when the number of dependants was categorised into two groups: “at most 4 dependants” and “more than 4 dependants”. Males in the community where the data were collected were likely to have more than four dependants as compared to their female counterparts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorized number of dependants</th>
<th>at most 4 dependants</th>
<th>more than 4 dependants</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is your first language?</th>
<th>Tonga</th>
<th>Shona</th>
<th>Shangwe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>111</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.2: Pearson Chi-square tests of association between Gender and Education:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Collapsed variables into two categories)</th>
<th>Chi-square Value</th>
<th>Degrees of freedom</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highest level of education attained (“Form 2 and below” and “beyond Form 2”)</td>
<td>27.788</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of dependants (“at most 4 dependants” and “more than 4 dependants”)</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3: Risk estimation of the categorised biographical variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Odds Ratio for Gender (male/female) versus:</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest education level attained (“Form 2 and below” and “beyond Form 2”)</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of dependants (“at most 4 dependants” and “more than 4 dependants”)</td>
<td>.402</td>
<td>.180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1.1.2 GAA projects focus

One hundred percent of the respondents reported that GAA projects focused on crop production as well as health. Programmes concerned with clean water and environmental protection were reported second with 99.1% each while programmes concerned with livestock production were reported by 88.3% of the respondents. Education and training and family planning programmes were recorded least with 47.7% and 20.7% respectively.
Involvement in designing of programmes

Majority (91.9%) of the respondents reported that the projects had greatly improved their lives while the rest said that the projects had not improved their lives much. Two thirds of the 111 respondents reported that they were involved in the designing of programmes with GAA. Out of all the respondents, 104 reported that they did projects on their own. Just more than three quarters of the respondents reported that they could do projects without GAA personnel and just more than half (55.9%) reported that they evaluated projects on their own.

Inferential analysis yielded significant associations as indicated in Table 5.7 below. There was a significant association (Chi-square=5.946, p-value=.015) between involvement in designing of programmes with GAA and gender with females likely to report that they were more involved than males in designing of programmes with GAA.

Highly significant associations were also observed between own evaluation of projects and how long respondents had known GAA (Chi-square=38.656, p-value=.000), number of dependants (Chi-square=25.484, p-value=.000) and gender (Chi-square=7.694, p-value=.000). People who have known GAA for only up to 4 years are likely to agree that they were evaluating projects on their own while people with more than four dependants were unlikely to be agreeable to do their own project evaluation and females were likely to report own evaluation of projects.

Table 5.4: Chi-square tests of associations for Project Involvement by Biographical Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am involved in designing the programmes GAA * Gender</td>
<td>5.946</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We evaluate the projects on our own * For how long have you known German Agro Action (GAA)?</td>
<td>38.656</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of dependants</td>
<td>We evaluate the projects on our own</td>
<td>* 25.484</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>We evaluate the projects on our own</td>
<td>* 7.694</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1.2 *German Agro Action Weltihungerhilfe Information*

All respondents interviewed knew GAA and had interacted with the NGO for at least one year with one third having known the organisation for at most 4 years. The mean number of projects that the respondents had carried out in conjunction with GAA was approximately five for the 111 respondents. Close to half of the respondents (47.7%) reported that they had carried out up to five projects in conjunction with GAA.

*Medium through which respondents first heard about GAA*

About 90% of the respondents had first heard about GAA from a meeting while the rest heard about the NGO through either someone or by a letter and only one respondent had heard about the organisation via the radio. No one heard about GAA through television, magazine or newspaper.

*Medium of announcing meetings*

Ninety-five out of the 111 respondents (85.6%) reported that GAA personnel use face-to-face communication as a means of announcing meetings, while 6.3% reported the use of telephone, and 3.6% reported the use of posters and leaflets. Seemingly GAA does not use the television, newspaper or magazines to call for meetings.

*Languages used*

GAA personnel were reported to use only two languages; predominantly Shona (85%) and Ndebele (15%).
5.2.1.3 Media usage

Table 5.5: Descriptive Statistics of GAA media usage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To what extent does GAA make use of face-to-face communication?</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td>2.815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent does GAA make use of meetings?</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>2.472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent does GAA make use of: leaflets?</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>2.454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much does GAA make use of the following mode: posters?</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>1.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent does GAA make use of telephone?</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>1.320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent does GAA make use of radio?</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent does GAA make use of magazines?</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent does GAA make use of newspaper?</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much does GAA make use of the following mode: television?</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Basically, GAA mainly used face-to-face and meetings as shown in the Table 6.4 above. The respondents reported that GAA did not use any of the three modes of communication: magazines, newspapers and television. Taking table 6.6 as the bench-mark, both face-to-face and meetings (t-value=7.217, p-value=.000) and meetings (t-value=3.724, p-value=.000) had significantly higher values than the bench-mark (see Table 6.6). A means comparison between the two variables showed that the respondents reported a significantly higher [t-value=7.015, p-value=.000, 95% CI= (.756, 1.352)] usage of the face-to-face medium as compared to the use of meetings.
Table 5.6: t-tests of GAA media usage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Test Value = 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent does GAA</td>
<td>7.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make use of face-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to-face?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent does GAA</td>
<td>3.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make use of meetings?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GAA programs on television

Only three respondents out of the 111, one male and two females, reported having watched GAA programs on television. Two out of the three were Shona while the other was Ndebele. One had 2 dependants and the other two had 7 dependants. All the three reported that they could understand the language used on these programs, and also that they had never seen a GAA advertisement on television. The three reported that they had known GAA for only up to 4 years and they reported that GAA addressed people using Shona language.

Use of telephone to communicate with GAA

Nine out of the 111 respondents reported having used a telephone to communicate with GAA officials. All the 9 were married, self-employed and had attended school with 7 of them up to Form 2 while the rest had gone beyond and 7 were males. One of the respondents had at most four dependants while the rest had more than four dependants each. Of the 9 respondents who reported that GAA uses Shona to communicate with people of GSRD, 2 reported Ndebele as their first language and the rest Shona. 9 respondents reported having communicated with GAA officials using a phone, 6 of the them reported that the phone was working properly, all
of them had had a two-way communication with GAA officials using phones and all agreed that GAA officials use calls more than ‘sms’ messaging.

**GAA Programmes on Radio**

Of the 111 respondents, only 16 reported that they had listened to GAA programmes on radio. All the 16 reported that they had listened to GAA programmes on Radio Zimbabwe, only three had listened to such programmes on Sports FM and none had listened to any such GAA programme on Power FM or on National FM. Half of the 16 said that the programmes concerned their area. There was no significant association between having listened to GAA programmes on Radio and the gender (Table 6.7 below), number of dependants, level of education and marital status.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I have listened to GAA programmes on Radio</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>53</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>63</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>111</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Leaflets*

Twenty-nine out of the 111 respondents had seen GAA leaflets clearly marked with GAA logos and in a language that each one of them could comprehend (Shona and Ndebele). There was a significant association (Chi-square=5.669, p-value=.017) between having seen GAA leaflets and gender with females more likely to have seen the leaflets than male respondents.
Invitation to join GAA

To the question “Have you ever invited anyone to join GAA?”, 29 out of the 111 (26%) said “Yes”, with 25 of the 29 reporting that they used leaflets to do so. There was a significant association between gender and having ever invited anyone to join GAA (Chi-square=5.669, p-value=.017) with males being less likely to invite people to join GAA.

GAA Magazines

None of the 111 respondents had seen any magazine with any GAA information.

Communication with the GAA

To the question “What do you frequently do to ask questions from GAA people?” 43 out of the 111 (38.7%) reported that they would personally ask questions and get answers from the GAA officials, 30.6% would send someone to ask on their behalf, about a fifth (21.6%) would ask in a meeting, and close to a tenth would either call using a phone or write a letter.

Slightly over a quarter of the respondents (26.1%) reported that they stayed less than ten kilometres from the nearest GAA offices while the rest reported that they travel ten or more kilometres to the centre. Out of the 111, 78 respondents reported that they had enough opportunity to communicate with GAA officials and 106 of them reported that they did this in the language that they could understand.

Significant associations between comprehension of the language of communication between the community and GAA officials and how long the community had known GAA (Chi-square=5.131, p-value=.024) and gender (Chi-square=6.872, p-value=.009) were observed. People who had either known GAA for at least 4 years or with more than four dependants or males were likely to report that they could understand the language used by the GAA officials to communicate.
The following section involves the analysis of qualitative data.

5.2.2 Qualitative data

This part of the study comprises the presentation and analysis of qualitative data. This was the data collected through interviews conducted with the GAA Project Manager, 4 ward councillors and 20 village heads. The practice of analysing the data began during the information gathering. It was an uninterrupted process through the whole study. The grounded theory was employed to analyse the qualitative data.

5.2.2.2 Results from qualitative data

The researcher collected the themes from all interviews and interpreted the findings through integration with other relevant theoretical sources. This was done so as to avoid discrediting previous researches. Proper Grounded Theory approach does not entail disregarding the literature review (Suddaby, 2006). The alternative development approaches of effective communication for social change and development in rural areas which are people-centred and participatory (Melkote, 2001, Moemeka, 1991, Manyozo, 2008 and Salawu, 2004a, 2004b) were considered in this study. These communication methods include the traditional communication practices and participatory communication. There are also modern communication methods that are encouraged, especially mass communication mediums McQuail (2010). The use of new communication technologies for development (ICT4D) (Manyozo, 2008) in communication for social change is also crucial. The researcher identified the methods of communication in GAA communication methods and practices in GSRD. In addition, the researcher analysed the communication practices.

The research found out that most of the themes were similar to the communication strategies promoted in the literature but the theme names differed. During the refining stage, the researcher used the methods which were found in the literature. The following section contains the discussion of the themes that were developed from the data obtained through the
interviews.

**Theme 1: Need for NGOs in poverty alleviation programmes**

The first theme that was common from the interviews reflected the need for NGOs to operate so as to bring about poverty alleviation. The essence of NGOs in conducting programmes of poverty alleviation theme was made up of categories, as suggested by the following comments: “... people do not have any money; they can’t afford raw materials and do not have time to sit down and craft their own methods to address poverty”. The lack of money and other resources means that NGOs which can mobilise resources to be directed for poverty alleviation is necessary. Rural people do not have the necessary information on how they can access the resources to help start up projects. Many participants alluded to the fact that people have not been given that opportunity to learn about where they can get the resources. The government has not been helpful in this regard. People are living in isolation. There is no connection between them and the knowledge of helping themselves. They have, however, learnt to rely on NGOs for finances and projects. People are also not given an opportunity to sit down and craft their own projects. As a result, what they really want from NGOs is food and not the process to make their own and be sustainable. Another interviewee emphasised that people decide to be involved in a NGO project depending on the amount of ready food and other benefits provided by that NGO. Because of this, there is complacency mainly on the part of the Lead Farmers (LFs) working with GAA. This counters the productiveness of the efforts by NGOs in poverty alleviation. People are also used to ready aid due to the previous challenges when most NGOs provided ready food for relief. As a result, people are now not interested to participate in programmes where they need to participate by working hard. People are not well informed as well as mobilised to develop and craft their own means of poverty alleviation. There are also not well informed about the purposes of NGOs.
Through examining the interviews, it became quite clear that people lack sufficient information regarding poverty alleviation efforts. De Beers and Swannepoel (2000) emphasise on participation of all the beneficiaries of poverty alleviation programmes from the designing, the implementation to the evaluation of poverty alleviation programmes.

Because of this, it was clear that NGOs must continue to operate since they possess the raw materials and the knowledge of poverty alleviation but must make it clear to the beneficiaries what they intend to do, make them design programmes on their own while they serve as facilitators and mobilise people through effective marketing techniques.

**Theme 2: Appropriateness of communication**

The appropriateness of communication theme was deduced from the study. Under this theme, the respondents mainly acknowledged interpersonal face-to-face communication as the most effective method to get the messages across. This theme had the following sub-categories: common, understandable and cheap. The common category was explained by the fact that interviewees said that everyone practiced interpersonal communication and could easily communicate interpersonally. Interviewees also said that it was effective and easy to understand. “One can simply send a child to deliver the message”, “one can go by oneself” or “the GAA officials can talk to us themselves”. Participants also said that “…we trust them our councillors and other leaders. They can talk to us and we listen to them”. “The GAA people must come themselves and we can ask them”. The study also found out that people understood messages when they were disseminated through interpersonal face-to-face methods. This method was said to be cheap for the local people “hazvidi mari izvi pane zvemaphone” meaning no money is needed as compared to the use of cell phones. It was clear that the method was appropriate.
Also, under appropriateness of communication channels, village heads and councillors said that they could have meetings and that their subjects would attend meetings as they respected them. Through these it was clear that GAA could work with local leaders in terms of mobilising people to attend meetings. GAA and the participants acknowledged that this was in place and had worked very well. This has been supported by Wilson (1987) who posits that Institutional Media is useful in rural communication. Such methods of communication which are indigenous were considered appropriate in rural communities.

**Theme 3: Capacity of messages to be understood**

Another theme abstracted from the interviews was the capacity of messages to be understood. The sub-categories here were fear (psychological noise), message content and message context as well as message delivery mechanisms. The participants expressed fear of reading leaflets and posters because political organisations use these in political campaigns so reading such materials is considered a risk as it could lead to harassment by members of ZANU-PF. Such fear poses a challenge to the understanding of messages and limits the use of the medium. Message content suited the programmes but participants said that many were not willing to participate in the programmes due to lack of ready benefits. Message context was considered appropriate because the messages which were delivered in meetings, letters and through interpersonal mechanisms directly concerned the experienced situation and their communities. Delivery mechanisms were another sub-category. In this category events and names were mainly addressed. It was found out that during events like field days entertainment programmes in form of songs and drama by local groups taught the people about the essence of GAA’s programmes. These appealed to the emotions thereby luring people to participate in the programmes. During such events everyone was invited, participants and non-participants. This is what Wilson (1987) calls demonstrative media. Names of programmes were also recorded as a manner in which GAA appealed to the people
to participate. These included names such as ‘Diga udye’, meaning dig and have enough food. “Gaaah” which is GAA converted to digging because of the conservative farming method of digging furrows for plants. Other noted names were “Go green” and ‘Mugomba munechikafu’. This demonstrated ‘naming’ as a useful means of indigenous communication in use (Akpabio, 2003)

**Theme 4: Usefulness of modern forms of communication**

The theme usefulness of modern forms of communication had four sub-categories namely: radio and parallel radio, TV and cell phones. Radio was considered, “…interesting in terms of local music” village heads and councillors said that they really liked to listen to local station because the radio station played good local music. “…not covering related information” programmes did not concern Gokwe. Village heads and councillors also said that people felt that radio was “for people in urban areas and for politically active people”. While most of the participants acknowledged that they listened to the radio, it was clear that they were mainly interested in music. Participants also felt that it was for the educated elite or people from urban areas. Some participants considered radio as a source of information for politically active people termed “vanhu veZanu” ZANU PF supporters. Some participants distanced themselves from listening to the radio. Some people who listened to parallel radio like Voice of America or Studio 7 feared political victimisation and therefore they distanced themselves from admitting that they listened to it. It was clear that the radio was mainly used for political mobilisation and less for poverty alleviation initiatives which were also crucial to the people in rural areas.

In terms of television, participants said that they could not afford the television sets and they considered them to be for the rich people. Local television was considered a propaganda tool for ZANU-PF while satellite television was regarded as meant for the elite who were mainly anti ZANU-PF. They said it was a source of western news. Participants did not know much
about television unlike radio. The cell phone, viewed as a new communication tool in the
district, was becoming popular with the local. Many were adopting the use of cell phones but
participants noted challenges in terms of signal which was down due to frequent power cuts,
no power to charge the batteries and weak or no signal in some places. “Phone dzacho
dzinogara dzisina moto dzimwe nguva hadzibati”, meaning that the cell phone batteries are
always flat and there is usually no signal.

**Theme 5: Limitations**

The fifth theme was the limitations to the use of various media of communication. The sub-
categories were costs, relevance, political persecution and poverty itself. The participants
acknowledged that all forms of communication used by GAA could educate, inform and
explain the NGOs operations in the district but the locals were not able to access the mediums
of communication as the costs were prohibitive. Television and cell phones were said to be
expensive. Listening to parallel international radio stations like Voice of America or Studio 7
was considered politically dangerous. The content in television and radio programmes was
not very relevant to the GSRD. Broadcast programmes were distant from the locals. The
costs, relevance of broadcast content and political persecution were the limitations of using
mass media for communication by GAA. This made these mediums useless in Gokwe and as
such GAA could not use it for its communication activities.

These are the themes abstracted from the qualitative data gathered through the interviews.
5.3 Discussions

What are the modes of communication and languages used by GAA for its poverty alleviation programmes in Gokwe South Rural District (GRSD)?

The research sought to identify the modes of communication and the languages used by GAA for its poverty alleviation programmes in the district. It was clear that GAA used mainly the Indigenous Communication Systems (ICSs), especially in communicating with the locals. 90% reported to have first heard about GAA through meetings. 85.6% of respondents reported that GAA used face-to-face communication to announce meetings which were attended by more than 90% of the respondents. Interviewees also agreed that people respected and attended the meetings. The research also found out that the organisation used the MCSs to a lesser extent. These were in the form of cell phones and letters to communicate with the locals and other stakeholders. Using top down communication and bottom up communication the organisation communicated with the local people who were the partners in the programmes and other stakeholders. Many researchers agree that interpersonal face-to-face communication is effective. Face-to-face communication eliminates noise and chances of message distortion and it is understandable. It is also capable of changing attitudes since the speaker will be closer to the recipients of the messages. The method has great potential of informing and allows an opportunity for immediate feedback.

GAA uses mainly Shona and Ndebele languages. These are the local languages which are understood by the most of the locals. More to that, it was also discovered that the organisation was flexible in the use of all the languages which the locals understood. While Nenty (1999) is of the view that other researchers’ opinions are crucial in the discussion of the findings, arguments which support the use of local languages, their richness in getting the people to support certain ideas and opinions and to participate in the process of communication were also considered.
According to UNESCO (2012), language is the key to inclusion. When communication is done in the local language, people feel included and are inclined to identify with the ideas proposed. It is argued that language is at the centre of human activity, self-expression and identity (UNESCO 2012). Communicating with the people in their own language means recognising the primary importance that people place on their own language and that fosters the kind of true participation in development that achieves lasting results (UNESCO, 2012, Salawu 2004c).

Genuine participation, it is argued (UNESCO, 2012), relies on a two-way communication which means engaging with the languages people actually speak. Findings show that GAA was communicating using the local languages and the locals confirmed that they understood the messages well. According to Mozammel and Odugbemi (2005), language has a very influential role in fostering the process of an informed public dialogue and debate. Anyaemgbunam et al. (2004) are of the view that the use of a variety of communication media ensures that information; skills and knowledge are available to the rural people. In this light, interpersonal face-to-face or written communication must be done in the local language in poverty alleviation communication in rural areas.

What are the issues contained in the messages disseminated by GAA to the people of GSRD on poverty alleviation?

The research found out that GAA communicated messages concerned with the projects which they are engaged in with the locals. These programmes mainly focused on poverty alleviation and were primarily concerned with crop production and health. The programmes also focused on clean water, environmental protection, education and training as well as family planning. The messages contained information on how to properly conduct these programmes. As a result, messages were considered informative. The programmes, just like any development
initiative, are often new to the locals (FAO, 2000). This means that such innovations must be adopted by the locals so as to be able to realise poverty alleviation (Rogers, 2005). ICSs have been effectively used but the integration of these with the MCSs can facilitate the fast dissemination of messages.

It is unfortunate that it is complicated for GAA to effectively use the modern communication system for poverty alleviation initiatives in GSRD. The limitations are the inaccessibility of the available MCSs which are close to GAA and the GSRD which GAA can use for communication. The restrictive laws like AIPPA and POSA gag the freedom of communication thereby making the use of media a no-go-area for NGOs which may be having positive intentions. This has, however, rendered the MCSs in the state virtually poor and weak to be used for poverty alleviation communication. It is difficult for diffusion of innovations to happen using the MCSs.

To what extent are the people involved in the GAA’s communication process and how effective is the feedback system?

Despite the limited and restricted platforms of communication, the people in the district are involved in the communication process. This is reflected through the use of interpersonal methods of communication which are mainly meetings and face-to-face. The Relay communication technique by GAA is also considered crucial. Field Technicians (FTs) and the lead Farmers (LFs) are from the communities. In this manner the locals are involved in the communication process and there is opportunity for immediate feedback to take place. This form of involvement is participatory and makes it easier even for the locals to also communicate with the organisation. Anyaemgbunam etal (2004) are of the opinion that lack of participation is one of the factors which slows down human development, the involvement of the people in GSRD was therefore flagged.
Locals were comfortable interacting and raising their concerns with the people who they are used to. FTs and LFs also were also empowered by the roles which were given to them. This form of involvement is applauded and encouraged in development and poverty alleviation programmes (De Beer & Swannepoel, 1998, Anyaemgbunam et al, 2004).

The locals also participated during events and gatherings by performing in music, dance and drama. This manner of communication in oral arts and theatre is effective in development communication (Manyozo 2008, Salawu, 2004a, 2004b and Melkote, 2001). This form of involvement is healthy in poverty alleviation. It informed non-participants about the benefits of doing poverty alleviation programmes with GAA and it also encouraged participants to continue working hard. These forms of indigenous communication appealed to the emotions and changed the negative attitudes of the people towards GAA and its programmes while at the same time entertaining.

Furthermore, through the use of the indigenous forms of communication, participation has been registered through the communication activities by GAA in GSRD. There was an effective use of the involvement technique and it ensured that the locals owned the projects. According to FAO (2000), any development programme that regards people as mere recipients, rather than as the actual creators of change and progress, usually fails. Anyaemgbunam et al (2004) also says that when the locals are actively involved in communication during all stages of projects, the projects will address their real needs and arising problems will be identified. As a result, programme adjustments or re-packaging can be done so that they will be successful. Importantly, there is a general consensus between the people and the change agents. The findings of this study noted an active involvement of people during the programmes (programme implementation stage) which were designed by the organisation. However, ideal participation is the active involvement of the people in making the decisions about programmes and the designing of the programmes. De Beer &
Swannepoel (1998) advocate for the kind of participation whereby people participate during all stages of its programmes from designing, implementation to evaluation as this virtually ensures the programme's success.

**How effective is the GAA’s communication on poverty alleviation in Gokwe South Rural District?**

GAA has tried to make use of what is at its disposal in terms of the mediums of communication which it could use. The communication has been effective considering the growth in the number of partners. The indigenous communication systems have worked well unlike the modern communication systems. The organisation only makes a little use of print media in form of posters, leaflets and letters. It also made use of the cell phone and has an unofficial website at district level.

Although vilified in the alternative paradigm of development communication (Melkote, 2001), MCSs facilitate the fast flow of information (Fourie, 2001). GAA has however failed to use radio, TV, newspapers or magazines for communication. Instead, it mainly used meetings and face-to-face which are indigenous forms of communication. This is not to suggest that indigenous forms of communication should not be used but that they should be integrated with the modern communication systems. This is rather impossible in Zimbabwe because of the restrictive media laws. The broadcasting and publishing fraternity is restricted by the Broadcasting Services Act of 2001 which resulted in the formation of the Broadcasting Authority of Zimbabwe (BAZ). This body regulates the registration in the broadcasting industry. It has however been blamed for being used as a state tool to advance the idea of monopolising the media (MISA). As a result of this, there is only one national television station and four national radio stations. These are not close to the locals and the NGOs cannot use them for purposes of development communication. There are no community radio
stations in Zimbabwe. These have a great potential being used for communication so as to bring about poverty alleviation.

The limitations in the use of print media such as newspapers and magazines are also a result of restrictive laws. The Access to Information and Privacy Protection Act (AIPPA) has resulted in the closure of newspaper agents and the arrest of many journalists in Zimbabwe. The implication of this act on the communication activities by any NGO has been twofold; it limits the number of newspaper agents which the organisation can use to communicate with the locals and also makes the organisation fear communicating with the people using print media. The organisations and anyone who intends to communicate via print media would do a thorough self censorship before doing that so as to avoid breaching the AIPPA.

The people in the district are educated to an extent that they can interact with the organisation through print. The organisation could either use leaflets, posters and magazines to inform people mainly about the proposed projects as well as how the people can do the projects on their own. Information providing answers to questions could also be shared in this manner.

5.4 Conclusion

The chapter presented the analysis of quantitative data collected through a questionnaire and qualitative data collected though interviews. Quantitative data were using analysed descriptive and inferential statistics in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and qualitative data was analysed using the Grounded Theory. The last section of the chapter discussed the finings as per the research questions. The following chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations for future studies.
Chapter 6: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to analyse the communication practices of NGOs in poverty alleviation programmes in rural communities of Zimbabwe. The study was a case of Deutsche Weltihungerhilfe German Agro Action (GAA) in Gokwe South Rural District. Data were collected from 4 wards in which GAA was operational. The study combined quantitative survey and qualitative research designs. A questionnaire collected quantitative data and interviews gathered qualitative data. The GAA Project Manager, 4 ward councillors and 20 village heads were interviewed. The research findings were presented in form of frequency distribution and cross-tabulation tables in the preceding chapter. Based on the research findings, the researcher came up with some recommendations which might be of great importance when communicating for social change, especially poverty alleviation by NGOs, government departments and other change agents operating in Zimbabwe. Since it was the main concern of the study to identify, analyse, examine and evaluate the communication strategies used by GAA, this chapter presents a summary of findings, conclusion and provides recommendations. The chapter also offers suggestions for further researches.

6.2 Summary of Findings

1. The organisation used mainly ICSs. Meetings and interpersonal communication were the main features in the GAA communication practices. The use of names as form communication was also noted but to a lesser extent. MCSs were used but to a lesser extent. This was in form of the unofficial website, cell phones and letters. The organisation used mainly indigenous languages for communication. These are Shona
and Ndebele. English was also used. The organisation was flexible with the use of the languages and the people in Gokwe understood the messages.

2. The issues in GAA’s messages were on poverty alleviation. By meetings, GAA informed, educated and encouraged the people of Gokwe on its programmes of poverty alleviation. These were on crop production using Conservative Farming (CF), livestock production projects, health and nutrition through the Nutritional Gardening (NG) projects and food and sustainability through the granaries project. GAA also dealt with water and sanitation in its communication activities. Family planning issues were also addressed as reported by 20.7% of the questionnaire respondents. All these issues were in GAA’s messages. Communication was mainly centred on the organisation’s key result areas.

3. The study found out that the locals were involved in the communication activities of the organisation. There were Field Technicians (FTs) and Lead Farmers (LFs). They were actively involved in the communication activities, face-to-face or meetings. During events, locals also participated through drama, music and dance. With these, they encouraged other people to participate in GAA projects and to work hard to conquer poverty. This facilitated the diffusion on innovations and encouraged their adoption in Gokwe.

The feedback system was effective when considering the ICSs but there were no much mass media platforms. People could communicate with organisations through the FTs and LFs who lived among them. People could also communicate with the organisation during meetings and a few would make use of the cell phone. The unavailability of a variety of channels rendered the feedback system less effective.

4. GAA’s communication on poverty alleviation in Gokwe has been partially effective.

The organisation made use of the available communication systems which were
mainly indigenous. Due to various limitations beyond the organisation’s control, which are poor infrastructure, political factors and the limited and state monopolised print and broadcast media, the organisation failed to make use of the MCSs for poverty alleviation programmes. Most of the people had known GAA for more than 4 years. This means that there were no knew adopters. The organisation was not growing and continued to work with the same people without new adopters. Communication was not effectively used to influence new people to join the organisation. There was no organisation directorate directly responsible for the communication activities in terms of research, implementation and evaluation at district level. As a result, the organisation did not have a clear communication strategy.

6.3 Recommendations

1. Tilled Communication Approach

After having analysed the data, it was clear that much is needed to be done to make the ground of communication ready for use by everyone in the district, NGOs included. As a result, the researcher suggested a Tilled Communication Field proposal. By this, the government, locals, NGOs and the international community are invited to till the ground of communication so that all modes of communication can be easily used in the rural community for poverty alleviation and to empower the rural folk. This entails ensuring that traditional communication can be integrated with modern communication approaches for poverty alleviation.

The Tilled Communication Approach will help offer channels to be used either by change agents or the locals to share information or for mobilisation. This also involves an investment into the infrastructure in terms of electricity supply, network boosters and an improved road network. There is also need by the government to open
up the airwaves for community broadcasting which will be relevant to the rural communities. The government must also relax its rules regarding community media like radio, magazines and newspapers. The availability of these will facilitate the integration of traditional forms of communication with the modern forms of media for poverty alleviation in rural areas. This has the potential of facilitating the diffusion of innovations and encouraging participation which is necessary for poverty alleviation. Unless this is done, realising the communications’ capabilities in social change and development will remain a dream never to come true in Zimbabwe and most specifically, Gokwe South Rural District.

2. The results of this study revealed that the communication practices of GAA were only limited to meetings, interpersonal face-to-face and ‘naming’. However, there is need for a broader approach by GAA to exhaust a variety of communication modes and integrate them with modern communication systems to reach to a widely dispersed audience and open channels for their effective participation. This will empower the locals to voice out their concerns by furnishing them with all the necessary information concerning poverty alleviation. By so doing, the challenge of complacency will be defeated (Serveas, 2008, De Beers and Swannepoel, 1998). It is however recommended that GAA opens more platforms for participatory development communication and well as uses the platforms to empower the locals with the necessary information.

3. The research found that the use of the local language has been effective in GAA’s communication with the locals. It is therefore recommended that GAA continues to use all local languages in both verbal and written communications so that information continues to get to the locals. The use of all languages Shona, Ndebele and Tonga in all printed documents be it leaflets or posters will give everyone an opportunity to
read and participate in the conversations which in turn encourage participation in the poverty alleviation programmes. Print media in form of leaflets is permanent. It can be shared and used by others at different times.

4. As an organisation operating at district level, the researcher recommends that GAA should have dedicated personnel to address communication issues. These should work together with the FOs, FTs and LFs and ascertain that there is an effective flow of information in both ICSs and MCSs. There will also be clear communication strategies involving communication.

5. People who decide to use communication mediums for any form of communication need to consider whether what they are using the media for is for the benefit of the society at large or not. By this, the research does not suggest to do away with communications regulations but regulations which promote rather than hinder.

6. Finally, the research recommends that the rural folks be enabled to participate in the communication activities from the designing, implementation to the evaluation of poverty alleviation programmes (Serveas, 2008).

6.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

1. The study recommends that research be carried out on the potential influence of community radio stations for poverty alleviation in GSRD. Most countries such as South Africa, Ghana and Mali have seen a growth in the number of community radio stations and they have been useful in development communication. It is therefore necessary for research to be carried out in this context.

2. Another area which needs attention is the use of ICTs in development communication in GSRD. With the growth of the internet, there should be research on the growth prospects of the internet in the district as well as how it can be used for development and poverty alleviation communication.
3. There is also need for research on how the media can be free from political abuse so that it can be used for developmental purposes which benefit the masses at large.

6.5 Conclusion

In this research, both quantitative and qualitative approaches of research were used. A questionnaire and interviews were the tools of data gathering. The analysis part which was twofold was presented in two sections quantitative and qualitative data analysis. These sections discussed the communication practices by GAA, councillors and village heads as well as the locals.

Based on the findings, the organisation used ICSs mainly in form of meetings and face-to-face interpersonal communication. The MCSs were not exhaustively used and usage was reflected in the use of cell phones, letters, leaflets and posters. Horizontal communication was mainly reflected through the use of MCSs and top down communication as well as bottom up communication manifested through the use of ICSs.

Interpersonal face-to-face communication and meetings were used for information sharing, public discussions and awareness of GAA as well as the programmes conducted. The issues that the organisation dealt with were mainly concerned with poverty alleviation. However, the communication strategies including both indigenous and modern modes of communication must be exhaustively used and integrated to address the issues of poverty alleviation. GAA has failed to approach its communication in a multidimensional manner.

The discovery is that there were infrastructural, economic, legal or constitutional and political challenges which inhibited a multidimensional approach to communication. The research therefore suggested the Tilled Communication Field approach for Zimbabwe so as to open channels for development and social change agents which will assist in ending poverty in the district and the nation at large.
The use of multiple communication systems that are both indigenous and modern facilitate the diffusion of innovations by allowing the locals to fully participate in the development projects meant for their own development. Participatory development communication which is a form of communication that invites dialogue of the masses at the grassroots can be enhanced by the use of MCSs and ICSs and most importantly, their integration.

Also of much importance was the GAA’s communication with its stakeholders. It facilitated the organisational operations and allowed for the sharing of ideas. The horizontal communication approach involving using telephone and letters by GAA with its stakeholders is appreciated. The organisation does not operate in isolation and in this regard communication was effectively used.
References


Deutsche Weltihungerhilfe (German Agro Action) (nd) retrieved from www.idealist.org on 07/07/2011


Makuwira, J (2004). Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Participatory Development in Basic Education in Malawi. *Current Issues in Comparative Education, Vol.6(2)*


Communication Research (IAMCR) 50th Anniversary Conference; Media, Communication and Information Celebrating 50 years of Theory and Practice: UNESCO. Paris

Mashiri, C (2011). *When will AIPPA and POSA be abolished* retrieved from www.thezimbabwean.co.uk retrieved on 11/10/2011


Reports prepared for UNESCO on occasion of the International Association of Media and Communication Research (IAMCR) 50th Anniversary Conference (2007) *Media Communication, Information: Celebrating 50 years of Theories and Practice*


The Role of the Press; A WAN/World Bank Conference held on 13 June 1999 in Zürich, Switzerland retrieved from www.wan-press.org on 13/09/2010


Appendix A

Questionnaire

University of Fort Hare

Department of Communication

This present study seeks to identify the communication methods and practices used by NGOs: German Agro Action Weltihungerhilfe (GAA) in their poverty alleviation strategies. The study also seeks to deduce the information content and aims to test and evaluate the methods of communication and their compatibility with the social realities of the people Gokwe South Rural District.

Please take note that the research will ask follow up questions depending on your responses but these are the main questions for the research. Your honesty is of utmost importance so as to assist the research to reach to valid and reliable conclusions.

Questionnaire

Section A: Biographical information

(Please mark with an X or the most appropriate option)

1. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐
2. Are you currently (please tick only one): ☐ married ☐ separated ☐ single divorced ☐
3. Are you currently (please tick only one): self employed ☐ formally employed ☐ retired ☐ Employed ☐
4. Please indicate is spouse is self employed ☐ formally employed ☐ retired ☐ Employed ☐
   Select the most appropriate option
5. Did you attend school (please tick only one) Yes ☐ No ☐ (If you answered No skip question 6)
6. If yes please indicate the highest education Level attained: Before grade 7 ☐ Grade 7 ☐ Form 2 ☐ Ordinary level ☐ Advanced Level ☐ National Certificate ☐ Diploma ☐ Degree ☐ Post-graduate ☐
7. Number of dependants 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ More ☐ None
8. What is your first language Tonga ☐ Ndebele ☐
Shona □
Shangwe □
Others (specify) ..............................

Section B: German Agro Action Weltihungerhilfe Information

9. Do you know German Agro Action Weltihungerhilfe GAA (tick only one: Yes □ No □ (If you answered yes go to Section D)

10. For how long have you known German Agro Action (GAA)? (Mark with an X or tick the best option)
   - Less 1 year □
   - 1-2 years □
   - 3-4 years □
   - 5-6 years □
   - More than 7 years □
   - Not sure □

11. How did you first hear about GAA? 1) TV □ 2) Radio □ 3) Newspaper □ 4) Telephone □

12. How many projects have you done with GAA within the past 5 years (Please mark with an x or ✓ the appropriate option)
   1 □
   2 □
   3 □
   4 □
   5 □
   6 □
   More than 6 □
   None □

(If you answered none skip section C)

Section C: GAA Communication Strategies

(Please mark with an x or ✓ the appropriate option)

13. Which of the following do GAA personnel use to call meetings?
   - Telephone □
   - Radio □
   - Face-to-face □
   - Television □
   - Newspaper □
   - Posters □
   - Leaflets □
   - Magazines □

14. Which language/s do GAA personnel use during meetings?
   - Shona □
   - Ndebele □
   - English □
   - Tonga □
15. I do understand the language used by GAA to communicate with me?
   - Strongly agree □
   - Agree □
   - Neutral □
   - Agree □
   - Strongly disagree □

16. Which Language would you prefer?
   - Shona □
   - Ndebele □
   - English □
   - Tonga □

17. How much does GAA make use of the following modes? *(please rate on the scale below)*
   from 0-9:
   - Telephone □
   - Radio □
   - Meetings □
   - Face-to-face □
   - Television □
   - Newspaper □
   - Posters □
   - Leaflets □
   - Magazines □

18. Rate the modes on the scale below from 0-9: Which mode do you prefer GAA personnel
    should use?
   - Telephone □
   - Radio □
   - Meetings □
   - Face-to-face □
   - Television □
   - Newspaper □
   - Posters □
   - Leaflets □
   - Magazines □

*(Please mark with an x or ✓ the appropriate option)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19. I have seen programmes by GAA on television</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(If no skip to question 24)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. The television programme was in a language which I understand?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. I have seen an advert about GAA on television?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
22. The advert was in a language which I do understand
23. Does what you watch concern Gokwe South Rural District?

(Please mark with an x or ✓ the appropriate option)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24. I have communicated with by GAA using telephone (if No skip to question 31)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. GAA uses landline telephone?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Is the number properly functional?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. GAA uses Cell Phones to contact me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I use my cell phone to contact GAA officials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. GAA officials calls more than sending messages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. GAA officials send messages to my cell phone</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Please mark with an x or ✓ the appropriate option)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31. I have listened to GAA programmes on the Radio (if No skip to question 41)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. I heard about GAA on Power FM?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. I heard about GAA on Radio Zimbabwe?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. I heard about GAA on National FM?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. I heard about GAA on Sports FM?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. I listened to a programme about GAA on Radio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. The programmes on radio concern my area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. I have listened to adverts by GAA on radio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Was the advert interesting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Was the advert understandable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Does GAA call meetings on radio?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Please mark with an x or ✓ the appropriate option)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>42. I have seen leaflets about GAA (if No skip to question 47 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. I have seen GAA leaflets clearly marked with GAA logos</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. The leaflets were written in the language that I understand.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Information on the leaflets was enough for me to understand the requirements of the programme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Have you ever inviting anyone to join GAA?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Do you give others the leaflets so that they read on their own</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(Please mark with an x or ✓ the appropriate option)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>48. I have seen a Magazine by GAA (if No skip to question 52)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. GAA magazine was written in a language that I understand?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. Pictures were well labelled on the magazines</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. The magazine has information concerning my area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. I have learnt a lot from the magazines</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Mark the best option with a circle)

53. Who chairs the GAA meetings Circle the correct option (GAA Official/ Village Head/Councillor/GAA Programme Chairperson)
54. Who calls for GAA meetings (GAA Official/ Village Head/Councillor/GAA Programme Chairperson)
55. GAA meetings are called through( television/ telephone/radio/word of mouth/ letters/posters/ newspaper)
56. Meetings are done in (Shona/ English/ Tonga/ Shangwe/ Ndebele/ more than one)
57. If you choose more than one please specify........................................

(Please mark with an x or ✓ the appropriate option)

58. I do understand the language in which the meeting are conducted
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly Disagree

59. Meetings are informative
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly disagree

60. Meetings assist in making the projects successful
   - Strongly Agree
Section C: Communication with the GAA

62. What do you frequently do to ask questions from GAA people? 1) Write a letter  □  2) Telephone  □  3) send someone  □  4) Do it in a meeting  □  5) Ask yourself  □

63. How far are you from the GAA offices? (please tick the correct option)

(Circle the appropriate option)

- Less than 5km
- 5-10km
- 11-14km
- 15-20km
- 21-24km
- 25-30km
- More than 30km
- I don’t know

Section D: Issues addressed by GAA through communication

66. What are the GAA projects focusing (Rate on the Scale below from 1-7)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food security (crop production)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food security (livestock production)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean water</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family planning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental protection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
67. How has the projects improved your life?

- Much greatly [ ]
- Greatly [ ]
- Not much [ ]
- Not sure [ ]

*(Please mark with an x or ✓ the appropriate option)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>68. I am involved in developing the projects with GAA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69. We do projects on our own</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70. GAA funds the projects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71. We evaluate the projects on our own</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72. We can do the projects without GAA personnel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you
Appendix B

Interview Questions for GAA

This present study seeks to identify the communication methods and practices used by NGOs: The case of German Agro Action Weltihungerhilfe (GAA) in their poverty alleviation strategies. The study also seeks to deduce the information content and aims to test and evaluate the methods of communication and their compatibility with the social realities of the people Gokwe South Rural District for the purposes of improving communication in poverty alleviation programmes.

Please take note that the research will ask follow up questions depending on your responses but these are the main questions for the research. Your honesty is of utmost importance so as to assist the research to reach to valid and reliable conclusions.

1. What is the vision and mission of GAA?
2. Do have any structure responsible for communication in your organisation?
3. What channels (mediums or modes) do you use to communicate with the people in Gokwe South Rural District?
4. How do the people in Gokwe South Rural Districts respond to your messages?
5. Which channels do the local people use to communicate with GAA?
6. What do you consider as limitations and challenges to the manner in which you disseminate information or communicate with the people in Gokwe South Rural District?
7. How much monthly budget do you reserve for information dissemination or communication?
8. How are your relations with the responsible authorities?
9. Do you have any plans which you think you should implement to improve your communication?

Research Conducted by

MR. COLLET TASARANAGO: STUDENT NUMBER 200706152 in fulfilment of the Master of Social Sciences in Communication Degree.
This present study seeks to identify the communication methods and practices used by NGOs: The case of German Agro Action Weltihungerhilfe (GAA) in their poverty alleviation strategies. The study also seeks to deduce the information content and aims to test and evaluate the methods of communication and their compatibility with the social realities of the people Gokwe South Rural District for the purposes of improving communication in poverty alleviation programmes.

Please take note that the research will ask follow up questions depending on your responses but these are the main questions for the research. Your honesty is of utmost importance so as to assist the research to reach to valid and reliable conclusions.

1. How does GAA communicate with the people in your ward or village?
2. Would you consider the means effective?
3. Do the people access information from GAA?
4. Do the people have the means to communicate with GAA?
5. Do you think GAA should continue communicating in the same manner?
6. What do you think should be done to improve the communication between GAA and the people?

Research Conducted by

MR. COLLET TASARANAGO: STUDENT NUMBER 200706152 in fulfilment of the Master of Social Sciences in Communication Degree.
Appendix D

Ethics Research Confidentiality and Consent Form

Our University of Fort Hare, Department of Communication is asking people from Gokwe South Rural District to answer some questions, which we hope will benefit the community and possibly other communities in the future.

The University of Fort Hare, Department of Communication is conducting a research regarding NGOs communication practices in poverty alleviation programmes. The main aim is to find out more about the modes of communication used as well as analyse their effectiveness.

Please understand that you are not being forced to take part in this study and the choice whether to participate or not is yours alone. However, we would really appreciate it if you do share your thoughts with us. If you choose not to take part in answering these questions, you will not be affected in any way. If you agree to participate, you may stop me at any time and tell me that you don’t want to go on with the interview. If you do this there will also be no penalties and you will NOT be prejudiced in ANY way. Confidentiality will be observed professionally.

I will not be recording your name anywhere on the questionnaire and no one will be able to link you to the answers you give. Only the researchers will have access to the unlinked information. The information will remain confidential and there will be no “come-backs” from the answers you give.

The interview will last around 10 to 25 minutes. I will be asking you a questions and I ask that you will be as open and honest as possible in answering these questions. Some questions may be of a personal and/or sensitive nature. I will be asking some questions that you may not have thought about before, and which also involve thinking about the past or the future. We know that you cannot be absolutely certain about the answers to these questions but we ask that you try to think about these questions. When it comes to answering questions there are no right and wrong answers. When we ask questions about the future we are not interested in what you think the best thing would be to do, but what you think would actually happen concerning NGOs communication practices.
If possible, we would like to come back to this area once we have completed our study to inform you and your community of what the results are and discuss our findings and proposals around the research and what this means for people in this area.

**CONSENT**

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding **GAA communication practices in poverty alleviation programmes in Gokwe South Rural District.** I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the questionnaire, and that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.

........................................

**Signature of participant**

Date:..............................

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study

........................................

**Signature of participant**

Date:..............................
Appendix E

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR:
ACADEMIC AFFAIRS AND RESEARCH
Private Bag X1314, Alice 5700
Tel: 04080 22403
Fax: 0666822244
fserviers@ufh.ac.za

UFH/UREC, 10 - REC-270710-028

Application for clearance from the University of Fort Hare's Ethics Committee

Project title: Communication practices of NGOs in Poverty alleviation programmes in rural communities of Zimbabwe: The Case of German Agro Action Weltlinderhilfe (GAA) in Gokwe South Rural District

Chief Researcher: Mr Collet Tasaranago
Supervisor/Co-supervisor: Professor A Salawu
Date of application: 19 January 2012

Having consulted the Dean of Research, I hereby grant permission to conduct the research.

[Signature]

Professor G de Wet
Deputy Vice-Chancellor
Chairperson of the Interim Ethics Committee

14 March 2012