COMMUNICATION FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION: THE CASE STUDY OF PLAN, AN INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN, CHILD FOCUSED DEVELOPMENT ORGANISATION WORKING IN ZAMBIA

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Declaration

I declare that this dissertation has not been submitted for a degree in this or any other University.

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Dedication

To my parents Jonathan and Veronica Mbewe for all their support and unconditional love.

Abstract

Poverty affects nations in many different ways. Many people in Zambia especially in rural areas live in poverty. Plan an international humanitarian, child-focused development organisation without religious or political affiliation is among many non-governmental organisations that are fighting against poverty.

The author was attached to Plan in Zambia from March to May 2004. The attachment provided the author with a rare opportunity to work for an international organisation.

Plan has undertaken a number of programmes to improve the food security of its target beneficiaries. Plan has spent a lot of resources on capacity building so that the communities can sustain the programmes after completion of its programmes.

The groundnuts seed multiplication project in Chadiza and the livestock restocking project in Mazabuka have assisted a lot of people to improve their food security. Communication is vital in the successful implementation of any project. The researcher recommends that Plan in Zambia should publicise its activities so that people can know about its programmes. Communication strategies should put emphasis on dissemination of information about its programmes and how to sustain these programmes.

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Responsibility for errors and omissions if any are entirely my own.

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Acronyms

ADC	Area Development Committee
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CCCD	Child Centred Community Development
CSO	Central Statistical Office
ECZ	Environmental Council of Zambia
FS&IG	Food Security and Income Generation
GNP	Gross National Product
HDI	Human Development Index
HIPC	Highly Indebted Poor Countries
HIV	Human Immono Virus
HPI	Heifer Project International
HRDC	Human Resources Development of Canada
IEC	Information Education Communication
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IGAs	Income Generating Activities
LED	Local Economic Development
LICO	Low Income Cut Off
MACO	Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives
MBM	Market Basket Measure
MMD	Movement for Multi-Party Democracy
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation

PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
UNIP	United National Independency Party
ZCCM	Zambia Consolidated Copper Mines

CHAPTER 1

Background Information

1.0 Introduction

Poverty in Zambia is a serious social and economic condition in which the poor have insufficient and poor feeding, ill health, illiteracy, lack of safe drinking water, inadequate housing as well as lack of equality of opportunity.

According to Chigunta et al (1998: 35-37), the problems of the poor cannot be wished away by those in positions of responsibility. Rather their condition and problems require urgent and practical steps to address not only the immediate causes of poverty but its fundamental causes as well. In effect, eradicating poverty in Zambia would require doing the following: promoting economic growth; national economic policy must make poverty eradication a core priority; giving strong support to small agriculture; creating a favourable socio-economic environment for micro-enterprises and the informal sector; and cultivating the 'political will' to eradicate poverty.

It is with these similar concerns that Plan, an international humanitarian, child-focused development organisation working in Zambia joined other organisations in the fight against poverty. The word Plan is not an acronym but it is a name of an international non-governmental organisation that is working to assist the vulnerable in Zambia. The word Plan has been used frequently in this dissertation and refers to the name of the non-governmental organisation.

The majority of the poorest in Zambia live in the rural areas. Most of the programmes by Plan in Zambia target the rural areas, especially the vulnerable children and women. It's with the above in mind that this study has been done to see and assess the poverty intervention mechanisms that have been put in place and how they are benefiting the poor.

1.1 Profile of Zambia

1.1.1 Location

Zambia occupies a total area of 752,614 square kilometres, which comprises of 11,890 square kilometres water and 740,724 square kilometres land. Zambia is a landlocked country, south of the Equator. Its neighbouring countries are Angola on the west, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), formerly Zaire and Tanzania on the north, Malawi and Mozambique on the east and Namibia, Botswana and Zimbabwe on the south. (Figure 1).

Zambia lies between latitudes 8 degrees and 18 degrees South and Longitudes 22 degrees and 33 degrees East (Basic Education Resource Atlas for Zambia, 1991: 37).

1.1.2 Drainage

Zambia is drained by parts of two of Africa's major river systems, the Zambezi and Congo. The main Zambezi system occupies the west of the country and some discontinuous areas in the south. It rises in north -west Zambia, crosses into Angola and swings back to Zambia. The Kafue River, tributary to the Zambezi, rises north of the Copperbelt where the Kafue-Congo watershed forms the national boundary, and flows in a generally southward direction. Gradients are low and

extensive swamps, notably the Lukanga and Busanga swamps occur along the main river and its tributaries. The river turns shapely eastward to the Kafue Flats, a vast flood zone with adjacent areas of poorly drained soils. Below the Flats the Kafue enters a gorge and drops some 610m in 32 km over aspires of rapids and waterfalls before joining the Zambezi. Davies (1971: 16).

The Luangwa River and its main tributary, the Lunsefwa, drain much of eastern Zambia. The Luangwa River has few swamps along its course. Tributaries fall steeply from the Muchinga Escarpment and from the high plateau of the Malawi Border.

The Congo drainage in Zambia comprises the basins of Chambeshi, the Luapula and Lake Tanganyika. The Luapula River is the continuation of the Chambeshi but the two are separated by Bangweulu Lake and swamps, which for convenience are mapped as part of the Luapula drainage system

The distinctive characteristic of the drainage and hydrology of Zambia depend principally on three factors: the seasonal distribution of rainfall, the aerial distribution of 'surplus water' and the characteristics of the plateau surface. Almost all rainfall throughout the country falls during the rain season from November to April, the dry months contributing no water to streams flow. Davies (1971: 16).

Figure 1: Map of Africa showing the position of Zambia (shaded)

1.1.3 Fisheries

Although Zambia is a landlocked country it is generously endowed with large lakes, swamps and rivers. According to Davies (1971: 78) the lakes, swamps and rivers provide a wide variety of fish environments and over 300 species of fish have been identified. The major commercial fisheries include Mweru -Luapula, Mweru -Wantipa, Bangweulu, Tanganyika, Kafue and Kariba.

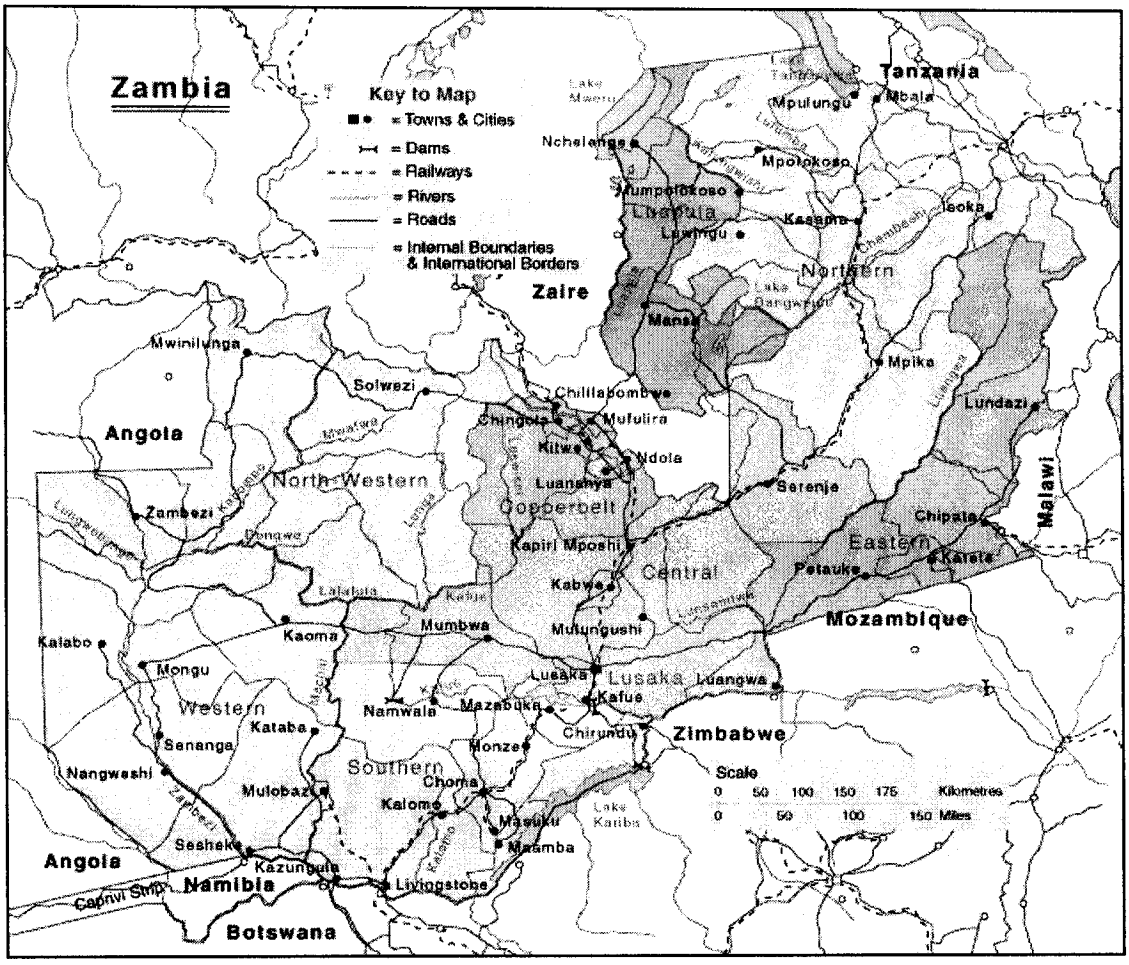
1.1.4 Tourism

According to Davies (1971:80), the majestic Victoria Falls (renamed by David Livingstone but known by its charming Lozi name - Mosi - oa-Tunya -'the smoke that thunders') is one of Zambia's scenic attraction of world renown, one it shares with neighbouring Southern Rhodesia now Zimbabwe. A footbridge built over the Knife Edge in 1969 greatly improves viewing from the Zambian side, but a comprehensive visit requires tourists to cross into Zimbabwe with the inconvenience of customs and immigration checks in each direction Davies (1971: 80).

The Livingstone Museum in the town mounts scholar display of Central African history and pre history, while local dancers perform regularly at the upper air museum. Other major attractions are Zambian game parks, rich in big game. Kafue national park alone covers 8650 square miles which is equivalent to 24 403 square kilometres being the largest in Africa.

Lodges accommodate visitors on game viewing or photographic safaris and the Luangwa park offers the additional unique attraction of game watching on foot accompanied by an armed ranger selected for being a crack shot. The best viewing time is July to September when the grass is usually short, tracks are firm, and animals are usually found at water spots.

Figure 2: Map of Zambia



1.1.5 Population

According to the Central Statistical Office (CSO) census report of 2000 Zambia has a population of 9,885,591. Unexpectedly results from the 2000 census reveal that males surpass females, the total population comprises 4,946,298 males and 4,939,293 females. Estimates for this country have to take into account the effects of mortality due to AIDS as this can result in lower life expectancy, higher infant mortality and death rates. Infant mortality rate is at 89.39 per 1,000 live births (CIA factbook).

According to 2000 Census, Christianity is the major religion which accounts for 87%, with only about 1% of the population being Muslim and Hindu and the rest belonging to other religious affiliations. English is the official language. Major languages include Bemba, Kaonde, Lozi, Lunda, Luvale, Nyanja, Tonga, and 70 or so other indigenous languages.

1.1.6 Natural Resources and Environment

According to the CIA factbook, Zambia is rich in natural resources and these include copper, cobalt, zinc, lead, coal, emeralds, gold, silver, uranium, and hydropower.

In the environment, the current issues of concern are air pollution and resulting acid rain in the mineral extraction and refining region, chemical runoff into the watersheds. There is poaching which seriously threaten rhinoceros, elephant, antelope and large cat populations. Soil erosion, desertification, and lack of adequate water treatment present human health risks. (CIA factbook).

According to the 2000 census only 49% of all households in Zambia have access to safe water with the majority being those living in urban areas. In rural areas, it is reported that only 30% of households have access to safe water.

1.1.7 Economic history

In the pre-colonisation era economic activities took place and the economic decision-making was confined to the local communities, but nevertheless, traditional economic systems flourished.

Between 1500 and 1800 many of the peoples of Zambia were organised into chieftaincies and monarchies that developed a network of trading in copper, ivory, rhino horn and slaves. (http://www.bizednet.bris.ac.uk/virtual/dc/back/econ.htm)

In colonisation, the 'Scramble for Africa' saw the traders in minerals, ivory and slaves and missionaries from Europe opening up the interior of Southern Africa. Later the commercial possibilities of the area known as Northern Rhodesia, particularly of its copper were recognised by the British government. The industrial revolution in Europe meant that the demand for copper was growing rapidly.

Copper mining was largely in the hands of two firms, the South African Anglo Corporation and the Roan Selection Trust. The British South African Company and its founder, Cecil Rhodes, owned the mining rights. The local indigenous population provided labour for the copper mines

When Independence and self-determination did finally arrive in 1964, there was post independence economic boom. Following independence, the government of Kenneth Kaunda adopted a socialist economic model within the African context (Humanism). There was large-scale nationalisation of the mining industry and the creation of large state owned conglomerates or parastatals, such as Zambia Consolidated Copper Mines (ZCCM). This period was relatively prosperous as the earnings from mineral exploitation grew as copper prices increased. In the ten years after independence the level of real GDP grew at 2.3 percent per annum. (http://www.bizednet.bris.ac.uk/virtual/dc/back/econ.htm)

There was economic decline from 1975 to 1990. The relative prosperity of the 1960's did not last. The fall in world price of copper and a decline in the quality of its ore exposed the country's over dependence on copper. In addition the world price of oil and energy fuelled global inflation pushing up the price of capital imports. Its dependence on imported manufactured goods was also exposed. Throughout this period Zambia was providing support to the various African freedom fighting movements in Zimbabwe, South Africa, Mozambique and Angola. As a consequence the racists often sabotaged its main trade routes. As a landlocked country this was a major barrier to development. In this period between 1975 and 1990 the level of real GDP per capita declined by almost 30 percent. (http://www.bizednet.bris.ac.uk/virtual/dc/back/econ.htm)

In 1985 due to the worsening economic climate, the donor organisations put pressure on the Zambian government to attempt to restructure the economy through the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). Attempts to follow these reforms were met with internal opposition such as food riots objecting to the cutting back of food subsidies and the SAP programme was abandoned in 1987.

The elected government of Frederick Chiluba in 1991 introduced considerable economic reforms. The government adopted a SAP programme and agreed with the IMF and World Bank on how to implement it. This involved three main goals:

- To restore macroeconomics stability
- To facilitate private sector growth through reducing the role of the state from controlling prices, foreign trade restrictions and foreign currency transactions.
- To privatise and deregulate agricultural and industrial output.

Although the economic indicators suggested that the sectors of the economy had shown some improvement in the growth of the non-traditional sectors such as gemstones or floriculture these economic reforms failed to prevent incomes failing, increased poverty, unemployment, debt and a growing informal sector.

(http://www.bizednet.bris.ac.uk/virtual/dc/back/econ.htm).

Zambia's remarkable economic reform programme stumbled badly in 1998, caused by the delay in privatising the loss- making parastatal, Zambia Consolidated Copper Mines (ZCCM). Due to ZCCM's large size and dominance of foreign exchange earnings, the delay was said to threaten Zambia's hard-won macroeconomic stability. During the first half of 1998, inflation increased from 18% to 25%, foreign exchange reserves dropped by 50%, to a month's import cover and the local currency (kwacha) lost more than a quarter of its value against the dollar. Critical balance of payments support from the international community was suspended pending ZCCM 's sale, and a massive build up of inter-company debts threatened the domestic financial systems.

(http://strategis.ic.gc.ca/SSG/da92113e.html.)

The Zambian Government pledged to work towards reaching the Completion Point of the International Monetary Fund's (IMF) Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative. In his 2004 New Year speech to the nation, President Levy Mwanawasa SC said that the nation had to resume working with the IMF in order to access debt relief. The Country had failed to reach the Completion Point in 2003, largely attributed to Government budget overrun of US120 million dollars. (http://www.reliefweb.int/w/rwb.nsf/o/eca140ffbbe1c871c1256e160035d241?OpenDocument)

1.1.8 Political situation

Zambia is a former British colony that got her independence on 24th October 1964. Lusaka is the capital city. It has nine (9) administrative provinces: Central, Copperbelt, Eastern, Luapula, Lusaka, Northern, North-Western, Southern and Western. It also has 72 administrative districts. The country was transformed from a one party state to a multi-party democracy in 1991. The President is elected for a maximum period of two five-year terms of office. Zambia has Executive, Legislature and Judiciary branches of government.

The constitution of 1964 was replaced in 1973. The new constitution and the following national elections in December 1973 established what was called a 'One-Party Participatory Democracy.' The constitution provided for a strong President and a national assembly. The Central Committee of United National Independence Party (UNIP), the sole legal party at the time, formulated national policy. (http://www.isaiah.sim.org/country.asp?cid=51&fun=1.)

In 1990, at the end of a tumultuous year that included riots in the capital city and a coup attempt, President Kaunda signed legislation ending UNIP's power monopoly. In response to the growing popular demand for multi-party democracy, and after negotiations between the Kaunda government and opposition groups, Zambia enacted a new constitution in 1991. Dr Kenneth Kaunda was the first Republican President and he ruled the country from 1964 to 1991. He led the fight for independence and bridged the rivalries among various regions and ethnic groups. Frederick Chiluba came to power in 1991 when multi-party elections were again allowed. President Chiluba's ruling party the Movement for Multi-party Democracy (MMD) amended the

constitution in 1996. President Chiluba won re-election in November in 1996. Mr Levy Mwanawasa stood on the MMD ticket and was elected in 2001.

(http://www.isaiah.sim.org/country.asp?cid=51&fun=1.)

1.1.9 Communication network

The information age, particularly the last three years, has brought more change on the African continent than in any other region. For instance, in Zambia, telecommunication facilities are among the best in sub-Sahara Africa, with high capacity microwave links connecting the majority of the larger towns and cities. Zambia is a member of the intelsat and has an Earth Station in Lusaka, which gives the country direct telephone, telefax, e-mail and television links with the rest of the world.

According to Zambia News Agency, the postal services are fairly well organised in Zambia and one does not have a problem sending or receiving letters.

Zambia can be reached by several means of transport. Top priority is given to rehabilitation of the existing transport infrastructure, particularly, rural roads. The present gazetted road network in Zambia consists of 37,000 kilometres of road, with main tarred roads constituting about 6,300 kilometres. Gravel and earth roads, account for about 85,000 and 21,680 kilometres respectively with about 30,000 kilometres of ungazetted community road network comprising tracks, trails, and footpaths. (ZANA: 2003)

Zambia has four international airports, namely, Lusaka, Livingstone, Mfuwe and Ndola with secondary airfields and airstrips.

1.1.10 Climate

According to the report by the Environmental Council of Zambia (2000:2) the climate in Zambia is sub-tropical, characterised by three district seasons; the cool dry season, which stretches from May to August, the hot dry season from August to November and the rain season from November to April. The Annual rainfall decreases from an average of 1,000mm in the Northern parts of the Country to an average 600mm in the Southern part.

The mean annual temperature ranges between 18 and 20° Celsius. The highest annual average temperature is 32° Celsius and the lowest temperature averages 4° Celsius.

1.2 **Profile of Plan in Zambia**

Plan is an international humanitarian, child-focused development organisation without religious or political affiliation. Child sponsorship is the basic foundation of the organisation. Plan works towards making lasting improvements in the lives of children, their families and communities in 45 developing countries through the support for development projects. The work is made possible by the generous contributions from over a million individual sponsors who are attached to 15 donor countries, grants from governments, corporations, foundations and private organisations. According to the brochures, Plan's vision is of "a world in which all children realise their full potential in societies which respect people's rights and dignities."

Plan's mission is to strive to achieve lasting improvements in the quality of life of deprived children in developing counties through a process that unities people across cultures and adds meaning and value to their lives by;

- enabling deprived children, their families and their communities meet their basic needs and increase their ability to participate and benefit from their societies;
- fostering relationships to increase understanding and unity among people of different cultures and countries and
- promoting the rights and interests of the world's children

1.2.1 History of Plan

Plan International was founded in 1937 as "Foster Parents Plan" for children whose lives were disrupted by the Spanish Civil war. During the Spanish Civil war, a note was found on a boy Jose, written and quoted "this is Jose, I am his father, when Satander falls, I will be shot. I beg who ever find my son to take care of him for my sake". A British Journalist John Langdon Davies who was covering the war found Jose. This was how Plan began as Foster Parents PLAN for war children.

With the outbreak of the Second World War in the 1940s, Plan extended its work to include displaced children within war torn Europe. Children hostels and shelters were established to take care of the war children. After World War 11, Plan expanded its programme to France, Italy, Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, China, Greece, Netherlands and West Germany.

With the reduced need in Europe in the 1950s –1960s, Plan looked further elsewhere for children who would benefit from its work. The organisation was renamed "PLAN International" to reflect its aim to bring constructive lasting changes to the lives of children in need whatever their circumstances.

1970s and beyond: 1974 Plan started its work in Africa (Ethiopia) and has since expanded to 19 countries in Sub-Sahara Africa (SSA). Out of the 19 countries, 11 are based in West and Central Africa whilst 8 are in Eastern and Southern Africa. Today Plan is one of the world's largest development organisations helping children, their families and communities worldwide.

Plan has five programme domains and these are Building Relationships, Growing up Healthy, Learning, Habitat and Livelihood. The ultimate goal is to ensure that meaningful livelihoods are achieved for the children and communities where Plan works through interventions that address poverty issues in a holistic manner.

i) Building Relationships

Through this domain, Plan creates a worldwide community of sponsors and children sharing a common agenda for child-centred development. This is achieved through sustained and long-term commitment by sponsors to support child-centred development and through fulfilling relationships between children and sponsors. Through child sponsorship, Plan has established a relationship between needy children in Zambia and sponsors in 15 donor countries who support them, their families and communities in establishing development projects to build a sustainable future.

ii) Growing up Healthy

The Growing up Healthy (GUH) domain seeks to ensure the survival, protection and healthy development of children and adults, especially women of childbearing age. It does so by promoting and strengthening responsive, sustainable community-managed primary health care systems, which encourage changes in health-related behaviour and attitudes.

iii) Learning

Through this domain, Plan seeks to ensure that children, youths and adults acquire basic learning and life skills in order to help them realize their full potential and contribute to the development of their communities.

iv) Habitat

Plan seeks to ensure that children live in secure, safe and healthy habitats. It does so by promoting and strengthening the organisational, technical and resource capacity of children, families and communities to focus and act upon children's habitat needs.

v) Livelihood.

Plan seeks to increase food security and family disposal income, which enable families to improve their children's welfare. Plan does so through enlarging productive opportunities and increasing access to resources for Plan communities and strengthening their technical and managerial capacities.

Plan in Zambia under its country strategic plan 2003-2008, adopted a holistic approach in reaching out to the communities. The organisation works with communities in Mazabuka, Chadiza and Chibombo through programmes in health, water and sanitation, food security and income generation, education and early childcare and civil society development. It is envisaged that Plan would strive to improve the quality of health among children and mothers by working with the communities to improve access to health centres based on a cost sharing principle. (Plan Zambia Bulletin June 2003)

The Global Strategic Directions express what Plan will be doing to achieve its Vision and Mission over the next ten years. Strategies are actions that Plan will take to accomplish its directions and are incorporated into three yearly strategic plans.

There are six mission related strategic directions and four related enablers that assist in providing an enabling environment.

The six strategic directions are:

- Being a child centred community development organisation
- Making long term commitments to children living in poverty
- Assisting as many children as possible
- Building relationships
- Working in partnership and alliances
- Being a recognised voice

i) Being a Child Centred Community Development (CCCD) Organisation

Plan would practice a child centred approach to development that enables children, families and communities to address children's needs and rights and realise their potential. CCCD respects the rights and dignities of children, their families and communities. It is based on Plan's Programme Directions, child's rights, children's participation and building relationships.

ii) Making long term commitments to children living in poverty

Plan would continue to make long term commitments to children and to focus its programme work in poorer developing countries, in poorer areas within those countries and with poorer population groups. As identified by strategic planning processes, Plan would work with children from rural and urban areas and those in especially difficult circumstances.

iii) Assisting as many children as possible

Plan would mobilise as many resources as possible to assist both girls and boys consistent with organisational independence and programme quality and would enhance the capacity of children, families, communities and partners to access and manage resources locally. A global resource mobilisation strategy and growth would enable Plan to make effective long-term investments and recognise risk. Individual child sponsorship will remain the core means of raising funds, while new methods will be developed.

iv) Building Relationships

Plan would strive to enable children and adults across the world to communicate, to develop mutual understanding and to work together to address the needs and rights of children living in developing countries.

v) Working in Partnership and Alliances

Plan would actively participate in and promote partnerships and alliances at local, national and international levels with organisations which it has shared aims and values. Partnerships and alliances would be formed with governments and other stakeholders in programme and donor countries to optimise the capacity of participants to work on issues that prevent children from realising their full potential.

vi) Being a recognised Voice

Plan would ensure that the voices of children are heard in policy discussions, and would itself influence policy in the interest of children at local, national and international levels on issues in which Plan and its partners have grassroots knowledge and experience.

There are four strategic enablers:

- Enhancing the global organisation and identity
- Developing our people
- Valuing and learning from experience
- Harnessing the potential of information communication technology

There are seven Programme Principles, which define how Plan's work should be carried out. A fundamental principle of child centeredness, supported by principles of institutional learning, integration, gender equity, environmental sustainability, empowerment and cooperation.

Child Centeredness

Plan strives to

- Improve the quality of life and advance the rights of children.
- Strengthen the capacity of families and communities to provide their children with stability, protection and security.
- Reinforce the informed participation of children in decisions that affect their lives in culturally appropriate ways and according to their capabilities.
- Assess the impact of its programme on children in affiliated communities with a particular focus on sponsored children and their siblings.
- Address the needs of all children in a particular area by affiliating all eligible families.

Institutional Learning

Drawing upon internal and external sources, Plan promotes learning for itself, its partners and the development community in order to achieve its mission.

Integration

In Plan's programme interventions, the domains are inter-related, resulting in coherent programme strategies that would improve the quality of life of children.

Gender Equity

Across its programme interventions, Plan actively works towards the eradication of gender-based inequalities in opportunities, and the access to and control over resources.

Environmental Sustainability

Across its programme interventions Plan promotes equitable and sustainable access to and use of natural resources by the people it works with, based on an understanding of their relationship with the environment.

Empowerment and Sustainability

Through its programme interventions, Plan seeks to strengthen the long-term capacity of all community members to manage matters that affect the well being of their children. This includes organisational, technical, financial and managerial capacities, and the ability to influence the priorities and quality of services of local institutions and organisations.

Co-operation

To achieve its mission, Plan works through communities, and with community organisations, government bodies, NGOs and others. Work with these partners is based on mutual respect, with specific rights and obligations for all partners.

The strategic Framework for Africa has four themes, which are:

i) **Surviving and Developing** through programmes to enable children and their communities to reduce their poverty and have access to and utilize, basic social services.

ii) **Protecting and Preventing** children from harm, disasters, abuse and conflict by giving them the protection they need to grow into healthy adults.

iii) **Communicating and Participating** by linking children and their communities with each other and their world, at the same time helping to foster civil society and good governance.

iv) **Learning and Advocating** by being informed, learning from each other and articulating clear positions on issues that affect Africa's children.

1.2.2 Plan at work in Zambia

Plan was established in Zambia in 1995 to build a sustainable future for children in Zambia. The Programme Units were established as follows:

Mazabuka in Southern Province -1996

Chadiza in Eastern Province – 1999 and

Chibombo in Central Province - 2001

According to the brochures, approximately 14 million dollars has been spent in Zambia over the last 7 years and these are some of the highlights of achievements:

Building Relationships and Community Empowerment

Through Child Sponsorship, Plan established relationships between needy children in Zambia and sponsors in 15 donor countries who support them, their families and communities in establishing development projects to build a sustainable future.

There are currently 15,000 children in Mazabuka, Chadiza and Chibombo who are on the Plan Sponsorship Programme. In working towards community empowerment, Resident Development Communities/Area Development Committees have been trained in leadership skills, project management, community mobilization and financial management. Children have been incorporated in leadership structures at community level to ensure that their voices are heard. Children rights promotions have been undertaken in Plan communities.

Health

Plan works for Child Survival, through increasing access of children and mothers to Primary Health Care, water and sanitation. To achieve this, Plan helps to build clinics, provide medical equipment, train professional health workers and establish community health management systems. They also conduct awareness in reproductive health and safe motherhood. Through construction of boreholes and water wells, Plan contributes to the reduction of water-borne diseases.

Livelihoods

Plan provides training to improve agricultural production in communities that they work in. 632 farmers were trained in seed multiplication, conservation farming, soil improvement and crop diversification and 586 farmers were supported with micro-credit facility. Farmers have also been provided with livestock on the livestock-restocking programme. 7188 vulnerable families were provided with relief food in Mazabuka.

Early Childhood care and Development and Basic Education

Education is key to a future free from poverty. Plan helps build schools, supports training to teachers and early childhood care mentors and provides text books to make sure both boys and girls learn practical skills which benefits the target beneficiaries.

1.2.3 Structure and Organisation of Plan in Zambia

The Country Director who is assisted by the Operations Support Manager, Sponsorship and Grants Support Manager, Programme Support Manager at head office, heads Plan in Zambia. At the Programme Unit level in the three districts where Plan operates, he is assisted by the Programme Area Managers as shown in Figure 3 below. The Country Director, Operations Support manager, Sponsorship and Grants Support Manager, Programme Support Manager, Human Resource Manager and the Programme Area Managers constitute the Country Management Team (CMT) which is responsible for policy guidelines. The CMT meets once in a quarter or when need arises. The researcher was attached to the Programmes Support Department. The Programme Support Manager who is assisted by the Corporate Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation (CPME) manager, four country Advisors in Health, Food Security & Income Generation (FG&IG), Learning and HIV/AIDS is the overall supervisor for the Department. At the time of the attachment the post of Water and Sanitation Advisor was still vacant.

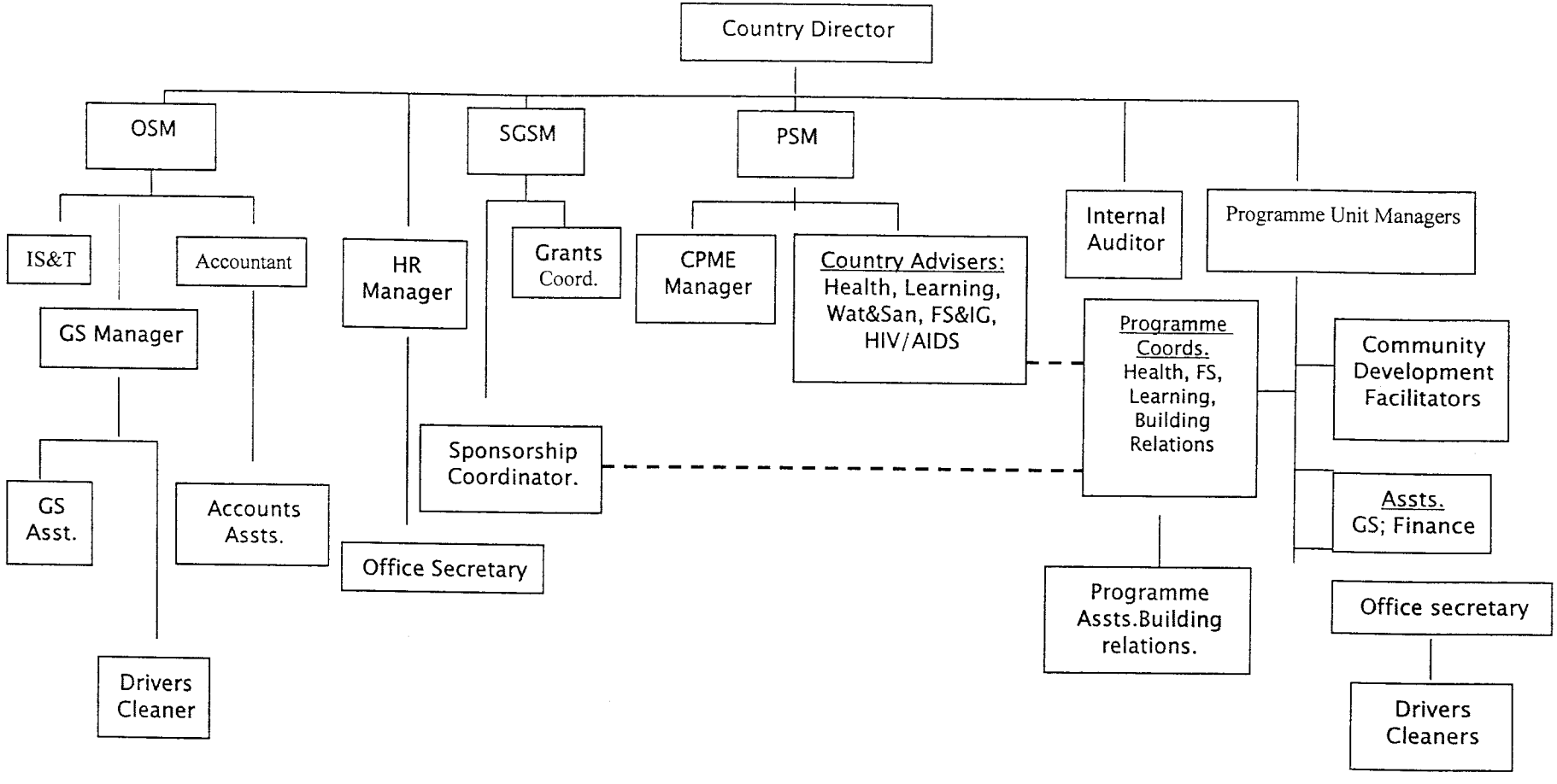
The researcher worked closely with the Food Security & Income Generation Advisor as the area of interest is Poverty alleviation through food security interventions. The Food Security & Income Generation Advisor works very closely with the Programme Coordinator- Food Security

& Income Generation and the Community Development Facilitator to ensure that the programmes are implemented. The FS&IG advisor provides technical assistance and advice on livelihood programmes and activities. Programmes in Health, Food Security & Income Generation Learning, Water & Sanitation and HIV/AIDS are integrated to ensure that interventions are done using a holistic approach.

In order to make lasting improvements to the people Plan works with the community at grassroots level. The Area Development Committees (ADCs) identifies the people that are vulnerable in the community. The Community Development Facilitator acts as an observer in the selection process. The ADCs selects the beneficiaries because they live in the community and know the people better than Plan Staff. This also ensures that the people own the projects after completion.

Plan focuses on interventions that contribute to the reduction of poverty in Zambia. The interventions are addressed through the Food Security and Income Generation Programme whose goal is to increase household food security and family disposal income to enable families improve their children's welfare through improved nutrition and health, as well as build the capacities of communities to manage in a sustainable manner. Plan has also been making concerted efforts to mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS by promoting more resilient cropping and livestock systems that require less labour and expensive inputs (Plan Zambia Bulletin: 2003)

Figure 3: Organizational Chart



KEY

OSM = Operations Support Manager
SGSM = Sponsorship and Grants Support Manager
PSM = Programme Support Manager
IS&T = Information Systems and Technology Officer
HR = Human Resources
CPME = Corporate Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation
Wat&San = Water and Sanitation
FS&IG = Food Security and Income Generation
GS = General Services

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Poverty affects the great majority of the people in Zambia, especially the children. There are a lot of factors that contribute to poverty. These include the poor economic situation, high unemployment levels, debt burden and many others. There have been a number of projects undertaken by various organisations to try and improve the situation. However, more still needs to be done.

It is expected that this study will offer new ways of involving the affected people and get their views on what they feel should be done to benefit them better.

1.4 Rationale

The study is important because it will enable the researcher understand the various types and levels of communication used in the organisation and the benefits it has to the community it serves.

Hopefully, the study will also

- Help in alleviating poverty by offering advice on communication strategies to utilise against poverty.
- To the knowledge of the researcher, there has not been any study focusing in this important area of applied communication in Plan. The study should therefore, also add to our knowledge and understanding.

CHAPTER 2

Methodology

2.0 Introduction

The methodology used is both quantitative and qualitative. 100 questionnaires will be distributed to respondents. The qualitative method will include in depth interviews, observation during attachment and focus group discussion.

2.1 Research questions

The study is based on practical attachment where it is expected that the researcher will write a report of the experience BUT not to test hypothesis as the case would be in other research.

1. What are the communication channels used in Plan in fighting poverty?
2. How do the members of staff relate to each other and their levels of communication?
3. How do the organisation's communication strategies relate to the theories on communication
4. How can the organisation improve its communication methods so that the communities can also participate in poverty alleviation programmes?

2.2 Sampling procedure (and why)

2.2.1 In-depth Interview

In-depth interviews were carried out using key personnel at Plan in Zambia. Appendix 1 gives the list of names for the interviewees. The purpose of the in-depth interviews was to get information from the implementers of the programmes and find out if the objectives of helping the poor are

being met. The members of staff at Plan will provide vital information on the effectiveness of the programmes that are being undertaken by Plan in Zambia

2.2.2 Participant Observation

During attachment, the researcher learned a lot through sharing information with members of staff at Plan. The researcher was privileged to take part in workshops on capacity building that were organised for programme unit staff.

2.2.3 Simple random sampling

The study was conducted in Chadiza and Mazabuka. The research sites were selected because of the food security and income generation programmes that Plan is undertaking in these areas. The same programmes have not yet been undertaken in Chibombo Programme Unit.

The sample population for this study was drawn from heads of households who had been living within the communities. However, the researcher was unable to get a sampling frame for the two districts. 100 questionnaires were administered. The questionnaires were distributed after every 11^{th} household. One person was interviewed in each household.

2.2.4 Focus Group Discussion

A focus group discussion was held with one of the women's clubs in Kanakantapa, Chongwe whose members were beneficiaries of the Heifer Project International (HPI) project. HPI and Plan are partners in the livestock programmes.

2.3 Data gathering

Data collection using Secondary data was done before the researcher went on attachment. The source of this Secondary data includes books, reports by Central Statistical Office, academic journals and publications, brochures by Plan and the internet. The information from these sources has been used to write the background information on Zambia and profile on Plan. Literature review and conceptual framework have also been written using the same secondary data.

Primary data was collected during attachment. This includes questionnaires that were administered, in-depth interviews, focus group discussion and a visit to the women's club in Kanakantapa, Chongwe. This primary data was very useful in the findings and interpretation of results.

2.4 Data analysis & interpretation

Tables and bar charts have been used to present and summarise the data. A statistical analysis was performed in order to infer some properties of the population from the study results. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used for data analysis.

CHAPTER 3

Conceptual Framework

3.0 Introduction

The importance of this conceptual framework is to define the main concepts and how they relate to the study on poverty. The concepts that have been examined include communication, communication planning, participation, development, poverty, social marketing and communication and persuasion theories.

3.1 Communication

Communication is complex; indeed communication experts find it difficult to agree on one definition to cover every situation. Fielding (1993: 4) states that communication is a transaction where by participants together create meaning through the exchange of symbols.

According to Mody

> ''Communication is achieved, when the sender and the receiver hold meaning in common, that is, when the meaning the sender wanted to share is identical to the meaning the audience receives. Every moment of the day human senders and receivers of messages make decisions pertaining to what they will pay attention to. This may sometimes be subconscious. At other times the decision may be a conscious one. Humans set up barriers and filters to protect themselves from being overwhelmed by too much information and to exclude information that would be dissonant with their world views and thus disturb their cognitive equilibrium''. (1991: 41).

Infante et al (1997: 8) also states that communication occurs when humans manipulate symbols to stimulate meaning in other humans.

Communication has characteristics that it exhibits which are as follows:

- **Communication is a symbolic process;** it focuses on human symbolic activity.

- **Communication is a social process**, it includes perception and impression formation of the intentional exchange of symbols between human beings. Interpersonal communication is something that people do together not something that an individual can do.

- **Communication involves co -orientation**, it focuses on intent and mutual understanding. What is required for communication is verbal or non-verbal co-orientation, two individuals being mutually aware of each other.

- **Communication involves individual interpretation.** Individuals interpret symbols differently. Meaning must be constricted inwardly by each individual; it cannot be transferred as a mind reader might claim to transfer thoughts. Instead a communicator is like a builder who constructs a house from the architecture's blue prints while both the architect and the builder are trained and are familiar with symbols used in blue prints, their ideas are never identical. Our unique interpretation of symbols and gestures create both our individuality and our isolation from each other.

- **Communication involves shared meaning** .On the other hand, humans do manage to communicate. We share some of the meanings of gestures or words because we speak the

same language and belong to the same culture. Even if you met someone from another culture who spoke the language you did not understand you might be able to make yourself understood through common human gestures such as pointing. Some overlap of meaning or sharing ideas is necessary for communication to occur. This is a logical extension of the idea that communication is social rather than individual.

- **Communication occurs in context**. Another fundamental concept is that communications is contextual. A communication context is a type of situation in which communication occurs. Communication in one context will have different characteristics from communication in another context. For instance there is much more feedback in family communication than in mass media communication. There are basic components of communication, which are present regardless of the context, message creator, message, message receiver; communication is distinctive to a degree because of where it occurs. A story told in an interpersonal context such as a party may be viewed as humorous, in another context, such as a group meeting to discuss declining productivity at work, the very story told by the same person to the same people might be seen in poor taste and reflecting hostile, anti social attitudes.

Communication is contextual depending on the type of situation that it occurs. Generally the contexts considered are:

1. Interpersonal communication - this is the communication that occurs between two or more people;
2. Small group communication - communication involving several people;

3. Organisational communication - communication within organisations as well as between organisations and the public;
4. Public communication - a speaker addressing a large audience;
5. Mass communication - communication which is mediated by electronic or print media;
6. Intercultural communication - communication between people of different culture;
7. Health communication - communication involving health care providers and healthy care receivers;
8. Family communication - communication between family members and
9. Political communication - communication involving the governing part of our society, Infante et al (1997: 9-12)

In this research study, communication means a transaction whereby participants together create meaning through the exchange of symbols, ideas and information to improve the poverty situation in their communities. Communication is a social process and will involve co-orientation as it focuses on intent and mutual understanding between Plan staff and beneficiaries of its programmes. It will also mean that communication will occur in context. Plan works in rural communities where some people are illiterate. In order to build consensus and develop the area, the context of messages must be understood and appreciated by the target beneficiaries.

3.1.1 Communication in Organisations

Effective communication is central to all organisations. Communication makes organisations possible, and well motivated people who can work together are vital for any organisation. The best electronic communication system may fail if people do not work well together.

Fielding (1993: 27 -28) defines an organisation as a collection of people working together to reach specific goals. Individuals could not reach these goals if they worked on their own. The structure of an organisation will affect the flow of information and how people work together. Messages are important for getting jobs done. Management and staff need to understand each other's motivation. It is also important for organisations to be aware of the different approaches by people of different cultures.

Communication at Plan will affect the delivery of its services to the vulnerable people who are its target beneficiaries. People at Plan work together in order to achieve certain goals and this can only be achieved if they communicate effectively among themselves and other organisations or institutions.

3.1.2 Communication Planning

Planning is a conscious effort to adopt a system to its environment in order to achieve a system's goals. According to Hancock (1992), communication planning seeks to create, allocate and use communication resources to achieve socially valued communication goals in a particular social image or images. The process of communication planning is carried out within the society involving individuals, institutions and groups and it is therefore a human activity system.

Planning has to take into account the economic and social conditions of a particular place. As Plan is planning on how to create, allocate and use communication resources, it has to be mindful of the changes that may take place in the values, beliefs and priorities of the needs of the people

that it wants to assist. No society is stagnant for a long time. Members of staff at Plan must include the views of people, institutions that they work with as they are planning their communication strategies. Communication among stakeholders is vital if poverty has to be eradicated.

3.2 **Participation**

Participation implies taking part in an activity.

Mody (1991: 30) defines participation as

> ''the social process in which groups with common interests jointly construct a message oriented to the improvement of their existential situation and to the change of the unjust social structure ''

It is relatively simple to say that participation is an important component of development and involving the unempowered poor is fundamental to development, which leads to the eradication of poverty and injustice. But mobilising people at the grassroots to participate is neither a small nor simple task.

People's participation in development in which the control of the project and decision making power rests with the planners, administrators and the community's elite is pseudo-participation. Here the level of participation of the people is that of being present to listen to what is being planned for them and what would be done unto them - this is definitely non participatory! When the development bureaucracy, the local elite and the people are working together co-operatively throughout the decision- making process and when the people are empowered to control the action to be taken, only then can there be genuine participation. White (1994: 16)

White (1994: 25) states that self-reliance is an integral aspect of participation both as an outcome and as a part of the process. To become self-reliant means that the focus is on strengthening local economic resources and making the community more self- sufficient, at least to the point of providing indigenous employment opportunities. A community of self reliant people will be capable of diagnosing its own problems of developing innovative solutions and fostering economic diversity which is relevant culturally, sensitive and ecologically sound and sustainable.

White (1994: 215) gave ten arguments for community participation in local development projects in various fields:

1. More will be accomplished
2. Services can be provided at a lower cost.
3. Participation has intrinsic value for participants, alleviating feelings of alienation and powerlessness
4. Participation is a catalyst for further development efforts
5. Participation leads to a sense of responsibility for the project
6. Participation guarantees that a felt need is involved
7. Participation ensures that things are done the right way
8. Participation ensures the use of indigenous knowledge and expertise
9. Participation brings freedom from dependence on professionals and
10. Participation brings about 'conscientisation' such as helping people understand the nature of the constraints which are hindering their escape from poverty

Participation in this research study means involving people at the grassroots in the decision making process. As Plan is designing and implementing its programmes the target beneficiaries must be involved at all levels of the decision making process. To become self-reliant people at the community or grass root level have to contribute their resources such as knowledge to the development process. As White et al (1994:25) states, participation has an intrinsic value for participants because it alleviates the feelings of alleviation and powerlessness. Participation by target beneficiaries will lead to a sense of responsibility for the programmes undertaken by Plan, and people will ensure that things are done in the right way. Most importantly participation will ensure the use of indigenous knowledge and local expertise.

3.3 **Development**

According to Melkote (1991: 177), fewer and fewer individuals, families, and groups in a nation consume more and better goods and services. The consumption basket of the richest 10 per cent of the people in the country be it developed or developing, is very different from the basket of the poor majority. It takes more and more scarce resources to fill the rich person's basket while their baskets themselves seem to be growing bigger.

Melkote (1991: 184) states that the dominant paradigm of development seemed to provide a blueprint for speedy 'development' for all those Third World nations stagnating in the backwaters of underdevelopment. As a paradigm however, it was apparently top - down. It reflected powerful political and corporate interests. This approach did not consider the question of inequality in the distribution of the benefits of development. Melkote (1991: 185) quotes Ryan

(1976: 122-123) and says that poverty is an economic status related to the absence of both monetary input and access to income generating resources.

Most of the earlier models defined development in rather narrow terms. They viewed development as economic growth obtained through greater industrialisation and accompanying urbanisation. Development must include the physical, mental, social, cultural, and spiritual development of an individual in an atmosphere free from coercion or dependency. Also greater importance would need to be given to preserving and sustaining local traditional cultures and other artifacts as these are usually the medium through which the people at the grassroots structure their reality of the world around them. Missing in this approach was participation by people at the grassroots. People who are the objects of policy need to be involved in the definition, design and execution of the development process. (Melkote 1991:191)

Melkote (1991: 194) further states that there should be equity in distribution of information and other benefits of development. The emphasis should be placed on the poorest of the poor, those living in urban slums and backward rural areas.

The other element is active participation of people at the grassroots. The objective was to involve the input of people in the activities that were ostensibly set up for their benefit. This not only liberated the people from the spiral of silence but also ensured that development plans and decisions were relevant and meaningful to the recipients.

For meaningful development to occur there should be independence of the local communities or nations to tailor development projects to suit their own objectives: the reliance here would be on local human skills and material resources, thus fostering greater self-reliance in development and importantly, leading to freedom from external dependency.

The Basic Needs approach, a concept of eliminating some of the worst aspects of poverty, has drawn support from a variety of institutions such as the World Bank, the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the United Nations and many national governments. Melkote (1991:198) quotes Paul Streeten (1979: 48) who summarised the main objectives of this approach was to:

1. Provide adequate food and clean drinking water;
2. Provide decent shelter;
3. Provide education;
4. Provide security of livelihood;
5. Provide adequate transport;
6. Help people participate in decision making; and
7. Uphold a person's dignity and self - respect

Thus, this approach emphasised both basic, fundamental needs of people and a respect of human rights. Streeten added one more right: the socio -economic right to international resources. This included the right to universal primary education, the right to adequate food and health standards, the right to equitable employment, and the right to minimum wages and collective bargaining.

In this research study, development means eradicating poverty of the target beneficiaries by improving the social status of people through the programmes that are being conducted by Plan in Zambia. This means that there should be equity in distribution of information and other benefits of development. Development means providing adequate food and drinking water, decent shelter, health services, education, help people participate in decision making, upholding a person's dignity and self respect.

3.3.1 Role of the Folk media in Development

The newer concepts of development emphasised among other things the re-emergence of culture as a facilitator of development, the integration of traditional and modern systems, and an active participation of people at grassroots in development programmes. This change of focus put the spotlight on indigenous channels of communication on the folk media, which were relegated to relative oblivion in the dominant paradigm of development. The folk media seemed to incorporate all of the newer concepts of development. They were products of the local culture, rich in cultural symbols, were intimate with the people at the grassroots and highly participatory, and they had great potentiality for integration with the modern mass media.

The folk media consists of a variety of forms: the theatre, puppetry story telling forms, folk dances, ballads and mime. They have served as vehicles of communication and entertainment in Asia, Africa and Latin America for centuries. (Melkote 1991:211)

Melkote (1991: 211) quotes Wang and Dissanayaka (1984: 22) who define folk media as:

> "a communication system embedded in the culture which existed before the arrival of mass media, and still exists as a vital mode of

communication in many parts of the world, presenting certain degree of continuity, despite changes''

he newer concepts of development such as self help, grassroots participation and two way ommunications, led to a re-examination of the advantages of the traditional media as vehicles or information persuasion and entertainment of the rural masses. They command the audience as ve media and are ideal examples of two -way communications. They have proved useful in enerating grassroots participation and a dialogue between the performers and the audience. Most f the folk media formats are flexible, thus facilitating the incorporation of development-oriented nemes. They are also relatively inexpensive and in almost all cultures, command rich and nexhaustible variety both in form and theme.

n this research study, folk media include drama, traditional songs and dance especially those pholding good traditional and cultural practices.

.4 Poverty

he definition of poverty is often as elusive as the phenomenon itself for it is seen differently om different disciplines. Poverty has a lot of definitions. According to Masroor (2002), the Vorld Bank and other donor agencies measure poverty in terms of earning "less than US$1 per ay per person". Chinese define it as "less than US$ 0.7 per day per person". Some nutritionists, efinite it in terms of caloric inputs. Population unable to get 2200 calories per person per day emains below the poverty line.

aasa (2002: 16) defines poverty by quoting the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* as 'the state of one vho lacks usual or socially acceptable amount of money or material possessions'. He goes on to ay that welfare economists have defined poverty as consumption per household member or per dult equivalent below a certain acceptable level, often referred to as the poverty line. In defining overty the household's level of income, for it to be above the poverty line, should meet the equirements of food and other basic items of housing, water, sanitation, health and education.

is important to note that poverty is country-specific. In this regard, and considering the poor uality of life and the visible misery among the people in Zambia, poverty in light of this country an be perceived as insufficient access to food, education, health care, adequate shelter, adequate ncome, clean surrounding, sanitation and safe drinking water and lack of power. This kind of overty is what is known as 'absolute poverty'. Chigunta et al (1998: 3).

Chigunta et al quotes Robert McNamara, President of the World Bank in 1978 (Oxfam, 1995) vho defines "Absolute poverty" as "a condition of life so limited by malnutrition, illiteracy, isease, squalid surroundings, high infant mortality, and low life expectancy as to be beneath any easonable definition of decent decency".

n this research study, poverty means the state of one who lacks usual or socially acceptable mount of money or material possessions and these are the people that Plan in Zambia targets to elp in order to change their situation for the better.

3.5 Social Marketing

Social Marketing is defined as the design, implementation, and control of programmes developed to influence the social acceptability of a social idea or cause by a group. It has its roots in both commercial marketing and social reform campaigns.
(http://www.health.org/govpubs/PHD627/smarket.htm)

Social marketing is a strategy for social change or for changing behaviour. It combines the best elements of the traditional approaches to social change in an integrated planning and action framework and utilises advances in communication and marketing skills. The concept of "social Marketing" was introduced in 1971 to describe the use of marketing principles and techniques to advance a social cause, idea or behaviour. It uses market segmentation, consumer research, product concept development and testing, directed communication, facilitation, incentives, and exchange theory to maximise the target adopters' responses.

While social marketing campaigns often rely on the use of mass media channels, it is more than mass media advertising. It involves identifying the needs of a specific group of people, supplying information so people can make informed decisions, offering programmes or services that meet real needs, and assessing how well those needs were met.

Social marketing can be used in a range of situations to give information to the public or to encourage specific target groups to take specific actions. Using commercial marketing practices, social marketing makes the consumer, or in this case the target audience, the focus of the

programme. Social marketing is more complex in that the product being promoted is more abstract, such as a change in behaviour or belief to effect social change.

(http://www.health.org/govpubs/PHD627/smarket.htm)

When Plan in Zambia is constructing or coming up with a concept or a particular programme, it needs to influence the target beneficiaries on the advantages of a programme. Social marketing in this research study will involve identifying the needs of the target beneficiaries that Plan wants to assist by supplying information so that the beneficiaries can make informed decisions. This will also involve offering programmes that meet the needs of the people.

3.6 Communication Theories

One of the oldest theories in mass communication is the Magic Bullet Theory, which is sometimes called '*Hypodermic Needle Theory.*' This theory implies that the media have direct, immediate and powerful effects of a uniform nature on those who pay attention on their contents. De Fleur and Dennis (1991: 430)

Infante et al (1997: 360) further states that the Magic Bullet theory suggested that the mass media could influence a very large group of people directly and 'uniformly' by shooting or 'injecting' them with appropriate messages designed to trigger a desired response. This evidence of power of the media existed in its ability to mobilise support for the war.

Governments had discovered the power of advertising to communicate a message and produced propaganda to try and sway populaces to their way of thinking. This was particularly important in Europe during the First World War.

After years of additional research, mass communication theorists concluded that the early stimuli responses theories lacked explanatory and predictive power. They developed alternative theories, which addressed both the power of the media to influence attitudes and behaviour and also influence different message sources and different audience reaction.

American scholars started questioning the validity of the overly simplified assumptions of the hypodermic needle approach to media influence. In the people's choice, a study on media effects and voting behaviour during the United States Presidential election campaign of Franklin O. Roosevelt versus Wendell Wilkie, De fleur and Dennis (1998: 240) state that Lazarsfeld and other scientists found that those people who contemplated changing their voting intentions were more likely to be influenced by events and influencing agents not related to the media. Thus, the studies collectively known as the paradigm of limited and selective effects were born. The shift from magic bullet theory to the perspectives of the selective theories was one from a relatively simple to very complex conceptualisation. Suddenly, all factors (both psychological and sociological) that distinguished people from one another were potential intervening variables. Selective perception and attribution of meaning are also influenced by social relationship.

As a result of the evidence on the previously held assumptions of direct influence (the magic bullet theory) of media content being incorrect, the two-step flow hypothesis was formulated, and

it has limited effects on the audience. The theory states that information from the media moves in two distinct stages. First, individuals who pay close attention (are frequent attendees) to the mass media and its messages receive the information. According to Infante et al (1997: 361) these people who are called opinion leaders, are generally well-informed people who pass information along to others through informal, interpersonal communication. Opinion leaders also pass on their own interpretations in addition to the actual media content. Opinion leaders also exert personal influence. The theory of two-step flow of communication is important in understanding the word of mouth transmission of news to a larger audience than just those who are initially exposed.

Group norms played an important part, since the persuasive media messages were mediated by group interaction. This led to the identification of a number of important social intermediaries in the process of persuasion. Intermediaries identified included opinion leaders, decision makers and those traffic officers called public relation people. Oosthuizen (1996: 40)

In any society there is a consistent flow of new products, ideas and other kinds of innovations. Diffusion of innovation theory is important for studying because it helps us understand how people react to any potential change. This change can be social, economic political and so on.

The innovation theory is also important because the media in modern society are often largely responsible for bringing new items such as products, ideas, interpretations and beliefs to the attention of people who eventually adopt them.

According to Rogers (1983: 5) an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system. People create and share information with one another to reach a mature understanding.

Mass media is used to reach large audience rapidly, create knowledge and spread information, which may lead to changes in meekly held attitudes. (Ibid: 198)

According to Infante et al (1997: 363) opinion leaders still influence audience behaviour via their personal contact, but additional intermediaries called change agents and gatekeepers are also included in the process of diffusion. Change agents are those professionals who encourage opinion leaders to adopt or reject an innovation. Gatekeepers are individuals who control the flow of information in a given group of people.

Before an innovation is adopted, people need to be aware about the new innovation. In the interest stage people may seek additional information so that they can assess the relevance of the new innovation to their needs. In a trial stage people apply the innovation on a small scale before finally adopting it.

In this research study communication theories will help to understand the role of the media in influencing social change. Plan in Zambia works in rural areas and in its efforts to alleviate poverty in rural areas, it works very closely with traditional leaders who are among the opinion leaders. Information flows through informal interpersonal communication. Information is also passed through word of mouth transmission as people interact in various places.

New ideas or concepts that are introduced by Plan in Zambia are adopted through the diffusion of innovations process. New ideas are not easily accepted by people so opinion leaders play an important role in influencing social change.

3.7 **Persuasion Theories**

Persuasion is an important concept in communication. According to Infante et al (1997: 143) persuasion may be thought of as attitude change toward a source's proposal that has resulted from a message designed to alter beliefs about the proposal. **Attitude** is defined as how favourably we evaluate something. This is represented by feelings such as good versus bad, right versus wrong, nice versus awful, valuable versus worthless. A belief is a perception of how two or more things are related. In terms of persuasion, beliefs are perceptions of the consequences of a proposal.

If a persuader wants to influence a specific behaviour, he or she must use messages to create a favourable attitude. If we want to influence someone to sign a petition, we need to address the individual's attitude toward the object of the petition. Infante et al (1997: 143.

By persuading a person to favour a proposal, a persuader provides justification for the receiver to choose to behave in a particular manner. In order to have persuasion, and not some other type of influence, the receiver must feel free, not constrained, to choose. Thus, **perceived choice** is a distinguishing characteristic of persuasion. Persuasion uses symbols to modify an attitude to achieve a particular behaviour.

In other types of *social influence*, the source is willing to allow behaviour to be controlled by attitudes. Instead, the source applies force or pressure as a substitute for the motivation provided by attitudes. Coercion involves the use of physical aggression and verbal aggression (for example, threats, insults, ridicule, and profanity) as substitutes for attitudinal influence. If coercion is used, no choice is perceived. (Ibid: 144)

There are six dimensions of persuasion situations. The first dimension is *intimacy*. Situations vary in terms of how personal, meaningful, and perhaps intimate the source's relationship with the receiver. The second is *dominance*. This involves how dominant or submissive each person is in the situation. The third is *resistance*. Situations vary in terms of how agreeable the receiver is to the object of persuasion. The fourth, *rights*, involves the justification that the source has for asking the receiver to do something, whether or not the source has reasonable grounds for the requests. The fifth is *personal benefits*. This dimension includes what the source would gain by succeeding in the persuasion attempt and may also reflect advantages for the receiver in fulfilling the source's wishes. The sixth is *long- term consequences* for the relationship between the source and the receiver. The relationship is an intimate one; the persuasion attempt could have very long -term consequences. However, persuasion between strangers usually will have only short- term relationship consequences.

In persuasion theories self -awareness is important because the persuader is constantly thinking by analysing the receiver, situation and topic at the same time composing the message a split second before delivering it. The idea of the source being so aware of everything and so active in

encoding and delivering a message suggests a persuader not only as completely alert but also as actively controlling the shape, content, and the sound of the message. (Ibid: 145)

In order to eradicate poverty the target beneficiaries have to be persuaded to change so that they can be self reliant. When Plan completes a Programme the community members have to ensure that the projects are properly sustained.

3.8 Conclusion

The theories that have been examined are communication, communication planning, participation, development, poverty, social marketing and communication and persuasion theories. The theories will also relate to the research findings, discussion and recommendations of the attachment programme.

CHAPTER 4

Literature Review

4.0 Introduction

Poverty is a phenomenon that affects nations in various ways, hence the difficulty in coming up with one distinct definition. It has so many different faces and affects many people worldly regardless of their race, cultural and ethnic backgrounds. According to Saasa (2002: 18) in the human resource development field, the recognition of the weaknesses of economic variables in explaining poverty led to the development of broader conceptualisation of poverty. Poverty is defined by the Human Development Index (HDI) and is based on such aspects as life expectancy, infant mortality, nutrition, literacy, school enrolment, and access to clean drinking water. The HDI is a composite of three basic components of human development namely, longevity, knowledge and standard of living.

Poverty is a denial of opportunities and choices most basic to human development. It is a condition that reflects physical, social and political deprivation, as well as lack of assets and income (Zambia Human Development Report 2003:13).

Hunger and poverty are multi-faceted in their causal factors, but can both be measured using malnutrition indicators. There is a strong link between poverty, nutritional status and food insecurity. Most of the poor are either under-nourished or vulnerable to hunger. This is so because availability of and access to food are functions of structural conditions and changes in

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income, agriculture and trade, and interact with health and sanitation, affecting the nutritional status of households. Improved nutrition leads to higher physical and labour productivity in the market (Ibid: 15).

Reduced food intake increases susceptibility to infection, while illness can lead to lowered food intake, hunger and malnutrition affects progress in human development in all its essential components.

Hunger and malnutrition affect the ability of humans to enjoy a decent standard of living. People's freedom to acquire food as a necessity of life to support an acceptable life style is affected at the same time. Longevity is affected as lives are shortened. Life expectancy is lowest in areas, with the high prevalence of under-nourishment and hunger. Mortality rates for newborn infants provide a good indicator of nutritional status of the mothers, while those for children under five are suggestive of nutritional status of the children themselves. Therefore hunger and malnutrition affect the human ability to enjoy a long and healthy life.

According to the Zambia Human Development Report (2003:16) hunger and malnutrition affect the ability of human beings to acquire knowledge by lowering brain development, school attendance and the capacity to access and process information for making other individual choices.

Poverty reduction has emerged as one of the main objectives of bilateral and multilateral aid agencies. The World Bank is presently leading the global poverty reduction initiatives. In 1997

alone as much as US$ 4.1 billion of the organisation's resources, equivalent to 29 per cent of its investment lending were directed at projects that specifically targeted the poor. This approach comes as an integral part of a combination of new strategies that attempts to improve the effectiveness of its global poverty reduction programmes in the light of past oversights and evident failures. By mid -2001, a number of Sub -Saharan countries had already developed the Poverty Reduction Strategic Papers (PRSPs) that, with the support of the World Bank and the IMF, aim to better plan poverty interventions.

4.1 Poverty situation in the world

According to the Curse of Micro-credit Report, (2000) micro lending has contributed to the poverty situation in the world. Micro -credit, the related usury and its consequences such as debt, joblessness and crime have entrenched a new and insidious kind of servitude. The objective was to bond the entire nations to the capitalist usury warlords and global bankers. They were promoting initiatives like the Khushali Bank and Pakistan Poverty Alleviation Fund without considering the fact that the mass enslavement of the future generations would have no parallel in the history of humankind. Politicians and so-called development specialists seldom looked at interest based on money lending as the cause of widespread poverty in the midst of plenty.

According to the report, the excitement of micro-credit as a "new tool" to combat poverty had not been tempered by the realisation that what was needed were totally different approaches than relying just on micro-credit to undo some of our societies' maladies and the developmental lacks, gaps, and mismatches that were being faced. The interest-ridden micro-credit was not an enabling or empowering tool to poverty alleviation. It had provided no economic or non-economic

externalities to low income households. Poverty alleviation requires a holistic and in-depth understanding of the interplay between economic, social cultural extracts of the developmental process.

In **Canada,** the Human Resources Development of Canada (HRDC) was promoting a new measure that asked Canadian low-income children to lower their expectations. The widely used Low-Income cut Off (LICO) was set by statistics in Canada by comparing the spending on necessities of families of low income families to typical families. Shillington (1999).

Shillington (1999) further states that the government's new measure of HRDC's Market Basket Measure (MBM) limited the obligation to low-income children to a particular basket of goods- not a share of Canada's wealth. It acknowledged that children living below their budget would feel excluded from Canadian society because there would not be funds for things that many Canadian kids took for granted, like vacations and school trips. Children living at government's line would, over time, fall progressively further behind the Canadian norm, but would not be officially poor.

The label poverty was irrelevant to the lives of children- its deprivation, and their real and perceived life chances that matter. Low-income children have always been at greater risk of a range of outcomes, which they claimed to be concerned about. They include low birth- weight, school problems, low self-esteem, and hindered psychological and social development. These outcomes would clearly remain if the government ceased to label them poor, but the impetus to address the problem would be reduced. The poverty line should reflect social goals for Canada.

Those who see the obligation to children as a basket - like a Christmas hamper would prefer the MBM. Those who seek equality of opportunity would want a relative measure, which compares low-income children to the norm. The new government measure implied a new, more limited social contract. A country as wealthy as Canada was lowering its expectations not because they couldn't afford social supports but to make inequality acceptable. This would end Canada's traditional ideal of equality of opportunity. Shililington (1999) finally asked if this was what the House of Commons had in mind in 1989, when it passed the unanimous resolution seeking to end child poverty by the year 2000.

A case study on the Dominant Way of Life in **Britain** was done on Britain's unusually low rate of economic growth as compared to other major industrial countries. Miles and Irvine (1982: 138 -139) states that the way to people's hearts is often said to be through their stomach: perhaps this could be usefully illustrated by the different facets to the debate about the Dominant Way of Life in gastronomic terms! A common representation of the world's wealth is in the form of a cake which is divided up among the peoples of the world, although by no means equitably. The richer countries receive vastly disproportionate quantities of cake, consuming staggering amounts of raw materials, energy and food while most people in the poorer countries have to struggle simply to stay alive. On the one hand, 'indigestion', perhaps even 'constipation' related to consuming too much cake. On the other hand Third World nations have been pressing, rather very unsuccessfully, for larger portions of the cake. The process of redividing the world cake would be made a much smoother and peaceful business were the people of the industrialised nations to undertake voluntarily to change their Dominant way of life, adopting a more frugal 'diet', which could alleviate their problems too. The cake theory has been used to advocate giving larger

portions of the world's wealth to the poorer countries by reducing consumption in order to free resources.

Unemployment is an indicator of economic insecurity. Unemployment in Britain by mid - 1980 reached levels higher than at any time since the Second World War (Ibid. 143). The chance of obtaining work was very unequally distributed: the North and West of Britain (with regional unemployment rates often well over 10 per cent) together contributed about half of the nation's unemployed. Certain groups of people were also particularly insecure: the young, the aged, women, minority group members, and manual and less skilled workers. (Ibid. 145).

According to Miles and Irvine (1982: 147) poverty is a form of economic insecurity whether or not one is employed. Even in families with income from employment, poverty is still widespread. About 29 per cent of all British families (and this means more than one -third of all children) were living in or perilously near poverty. Many of these families reported that they could not manage on their income. They were accumulating debts and risking ill health. More than half of these households could not cope in these conditions. In terms of security, as well, these families were vulnerable to all sorts of threats: illness, crime and so on. Perhaps a quarter of all British families, then, were economically insecure in this sense, even before unemployment rose to its recent high levels (Ibid: 147).

Miles and Irvine (1982: 279 - 280) further state that sometimes there is poverty in the midst of plenty. Whether overdevelopment is the condition of the top affluent elite or it also affects the large majority in the industrialised countries is debatable. What was not in dispute was the

continued existence of a significant margin of people in Europe who were in real poverty - on average somewhat over 10 per cent of the total population in the early 1970s. Unemployment, inflation and poverty were merely the obvious and recognised tip of the iceberg of contemporary problems.

The poverty situation in Canada and Britain show that poverty is not only unique to Zambia alone, but is also affecting other developed countries. Poverty can affect any society regardless of one's race or country. What is important is that measures have to be taken in order to change the situation. The problem must not be taken lightly. Those who are rich are encouraged to share their wealth with the poor in their societies.

In **Bangladesh** between 1963 and 1974 there was a fivefold increase in the proportion of the population considered 'extremely poor'; that is, those with a maximum calorie intake only of 80 per cent of the calculated minimum. In Sri Lanka, while rice continued to account for 70 per cent of the poorest group's expenditure its actual head consumption fell drastically during the 1960s. In the poverty - stricken region of Yogyakarta in Java daily consumption of calories per head fell between 1960 and 1969 by 16 per cent from a level that was already only two-thirds of the recommended intake for the region. Rural poverty was highly differentiated. An apparently simple agrarian economy was, in fact, a complex structure of rich landowners, peasants, tenants and labourers. In addition, there were artisans, traders and plantation workers. Poverty was uneven among these groups and the process of economic growth accentuated the difference in living standards between them. Inevitably it was the weakest sectors of rural society that suffered most severely from declining standards of living and worsening poverty. Everywhere it was the

agricultural labourers, the landless and the near landless who formed the core of rural poverty in Asia. In Uttar Pradesh, 48 million people were living below the poverty line by the end of the 1960s (Ibid: 9).

According to the ILO report (1979: 13) their case studies demonstrated how the growth in rural economy failed to make a significant impact on poverty. The most dramatic example of this problem was the Green Revolution. The most popularly advocated solution to rural poverty was to raise food production as quickly and as dramatically as possible. Starvation, hunger and malnutrition would, it was argued, disappear with the introduction of new high - yielding varieties of wheat, rice and other cereals. The Green Revolution was a mix of these 'wonder seeds ', coupled with increased and improved irrigation, fertilisers and improved production techniques such as mechanisation. In a technological sense most of the Green Revolution package was neutral. It was as efficient on small farms as on large ones. In some cases tractors were used. But in a situation of structural inequality, the impact of the Green Revolution was far from neutral. Output increased in the areas where the programme was applied, average incomes even rose, but the Green Revolution failed to promote development. In the rich farmland of India's Punjab the new techniques of the Green Revolution brought an increase in the production of wheat. Everywhere the gains from the Green Revolution depended on the command of resources - land capital and influence. The structure of inequality determined the pattern that this took. Large landowners, with the necessary capital, were the ones who could easily apply these new techniques; rich farmers were the ones with the influence to secure cheap credit, or the usually scarce quantities of fertiliser. The inequality in the distribution of agricultural services

between the farmers applied to geographical regions as well. It was the richer more accessible regions that acquired the bulk of benefits flowing from the Green Revolution.

The eradication of poverty from where it was most extensive - the rural areas – could not be brought about by a single solution. It required a complex series of interlocking policies. Economic growth must continue and if possible at a faster pace; but most of it must take place in the countryside. The reorientation of public investment towards the rural areas and to agriculture is vital if this new pattern of growth is to occur. With it must come a greater precision in creating new resources geared to the small farmer, the agricultural labourer and to other vulnerable groups in rural population. The objectives of such policies must be with due awareness of their possible 'spin -off' effects, to raise substantially the income-earning power of the mass of the rural poor. (ILO report 1979: 23)

Pinstrup-Andersen and Pandya-Lorch (1994: 1) state that as we look toward 2020 and beyond, the world must confront three - intertwined challenges: alleviating widespread poverty, meeting current and future food needs and managing the natural resource base to assure sustainability. Agriculture is the most viable lead sector for generating incomes and employment both farm and non-farm economies in most developing countries. Poverty, combined with population pressures, land constraints and lack of appropriate production technology to intensify agriculture is a major source of environment degradation in low-income developing countries as people are forced to use available natural resource in unsustainable ways to survive. Thus agriculture intensification holds great promise as an instrument to simultaneously alleviate poverty, meet food needs, and avoid exploitation of natural resources. Inappropriate or mismanaged agricultural intensification

such as excessive use of water, overgrazing or insufficient or untimely application of fertiliser can lead to environment degradation. How, the most serious environment problem in developing countries is not inappropriate technology change in agriculture, but the many millions of people who live in absolute poverty.

Timely, reasonably priced access by farmers to modern inputs such as improved plant varieties, fertilisers, pest control resources, tools and adequate water must be facilitated through improved rural infrastructure and institution and through access to credit and technical assistance. Pinstrup-Andersen and Pandya-Lorch (1994: 17).

Access by the poor to productive resources such as land and capital needs to be enhanced. Improved human resource would also contribute to reducing poverty and improve food security and enhance economic development. Polices that expand investment in rural infrastructure; primary health care and education are needed to enhance income earning and food security among the rural poor (Ibid: 17).

According to Pinstrup-Andersen and Pandya-Lorch (1994), renewed emphasis must be placed on efforts to reduce population growth in developing countries, universal access to family planning information and technology must receive due attention. Although the rate of population is falling in developing countries as a whole the reductions are insufficient to counter absolute increases. Failure to significantly reduce the current high population growth rate in sub Saharan Africa within the next two decades would endanger development efforts.

The ILO held a tripartite seminar on Women, Work, and Poverty in Africa: The Impact of Economic Restructuring on Employment, Training and Working conditions of women held from 24 to 28 October, 1994 in Harare, Zimbabwe, notes that while some positive development in women's work has occurred during the past decade, the condition of women workers has stagnated or even deteriorated in a number of areas as a result of economic restructuring, civil wars, high population growth, migration, drought and other changes and other threats to civil society in the region .(ILO 1995 : 3).

According to the ILO report (1995: 6) it is recognised that symptoms of poverty are not gender neutral. Poverty alleviation programmes should address the social factors as well as the economic and financial sectors. During the seminar, participants identified priority areas and made resolutions which are as follows:

4.2.1 Food security

The immediate effect of poverty is inadequate food supply. This is evident among the ranks of the unemployed. However children in the households headed by single women suffer disproportionately more from food insecurity. It is therefore necessary to:

- Establish and prioritise target population by identifying the characteristic of the households within each country, which are most prone to food insecurity (such as location, nutritional status of the children), set quantifiable goals that could be met yearly,
- Provide immediate food subsidies for children within the most vulnerable households.

4.2.2 Primary health care

Poor women most rely exclusively on public health facilities to care for their health and children. Structural Adjustment Programme reduced government spending on health care and child welfare programmes. It was resolved that;

- Governments should focus on primary health care units in areas where high numbers of female headed households exists and should target exemptions from cost recovery measures towards female - headed households and other vulnerable groups of women workers.
- Governments should work towards a goal of at least 20 per cent of the budget of primary health care.
- Governments should establish child health care and nutrition centres for female heads of households and these centres should also be made available for employed women or women involved in training programmes. The centres are to provide care and nutrition for children who are not in school.

4.2.3 Education and Training

Education and Training should lay emphasis on economic survival skills. Compulsory, free primary education should be provided for both boys and girls. As a short to medium term measure, primary and secondary education should offer practical, technical and vocational training to girls to equip school leavers with self employment survival skills in the current labour market in which formal employment opportunities are limited. This should enhance school leavers' prospects for earning a living wage to live above poverty. In the long term, however, emphasis should be placed on girls acquiring conventional academic education that are relevant for formal and productive self-employment. This should include books and materials required for

education. Primary education should include rudimentary skills needed for production and marketing.

4.2.4 Disabled Women

- Disabled people require attention to enhance their capacity to be self-reliant. Owing to greater inequalities suffered by disabled women, such women should be given special emphasis and improved access to vocational training. Legislation should be in place to promote their incorporation in the labour force by providing incentives for businesses that do so.

4.2.5 Migrant Workers

While international as well as rural urban migration, through the remittances sent by its participants, is cushioning a number of people in the sending countries against poverty, migrant women often lack protection. Legislation should provide them the same protection in the workplace as other workers. Women migrant workers face greater discrimination, sexual and other forms of exploitation as they are often incorporated in the labour force as domestics in homes, in public establishments where they are under paid. They should be allowed to join unions.

- Government should legislate for minimum age of domestic workers so as to avoid hiring children as domestic help, which often prevents them from pursuing formal education. This should be rigorously enforced. All "adopted" children of school age, living in households, should be sent to school by guardians

- Domestic workers should be protected against being arbitrarily dismissed, they should be covered by labour legislation and permitted to be unionised. Minimum wage laws should be applicable to them and enforced

4.2.6 Women in Societies emerging from civil wars

- The returning women, previously displaced by civil wars should be given priority access to measures destined to reintegrate them into the economic and social mainstream, because their marginal status after the war can easily become permanent
- They should be given priority access to training, information and start - up capital for income generating activities to promote self - reliance
- Peace education is urgently required in the various African States and should be emphasised not only by government Institution and the social partners, but also the churches, NGO's and other civil institutions
- Government should formulate clear policies on HIV / AIDS in employment in order to develop a multi- faceted programme not only to prevent and control the spread of AIDS, but also to protect the sufferers from being discriminated against.

(ILO report, 1995: 7 -8).

Many countries in Africa are still developing. Poverty is widespread among the nations. Zambia like most developing countries is facing a challenge of eradicating poverty among its nationals. Women and children are more vulnerable to poverty and programmes have to be designed to meet these specific needs.

4.3 Poverty situation in Zambia

Poverty is the negative analogue of human development. According to the Zambia Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) for 2002-2004, if human development signifies the process of enlarging people's choices and opportunities that are most basic to human development, poverty signifies their denial.

In Zambia's quantification of poverty, the Central Statistics Office (CSO) determines the poverty line as the amount of monthly income required to purchase basic food to meet the minimum caloric requirement for a family of six. In 1991 while using this measure the percentage of population below the established poverty line stood at 69.7 percent, which later soared to 73 percent by 1997. Care is called for on how much value is placed on this form of quantification for, quite often, the full picture is not captured. In the Zambian case, the situation is, in reality worse since the 'food basket' used to arrive at the poverty line is very vegetarian and excludes meat, chicken, and fish. The Zambian measurement has also not fully factored in such basic needs of the people as shelter, education, health care, lighting, clothing, footwear, and transport. Human freedoms are also remotely linked to the current definition of poverty. (PRSP, 2002: 23).

In the same report (2002: 24-26) between 1991 and 1998, there has been an increase in overall poverty and a very marginal decline in extreme poverty. In the rural areas, there has been a notable decline in both overall and extreme poverty, but in urban areas, there has been a notable increase. Although poverty is pervasive in Zambia, certain categories of the population bear its brunt. Statistics show that female-headed households are in fact poorer than male-headed households. In general, women are more vulnerable to poverty than men because women have

lower education levels than men. While 29 percent of the female population had no education at all in 1998, the corresponding figure for males was 24 percent. Child poverty is a conspicuous and growing phenomenon in Zambia. It takes a variety of forms: orphans, street children, working children and children who head households. 16 percent of the children in Zambia are orphans. There is greater concentration of poverty in various forms in rural areas than in urban areas, and in the provinces outside the country's main line of rail than in the provinces along the line of rail.

The foremost barrier to moving out of poverty in Zambia is the lack of sustained levels of positive growth. The main reason why inequality tends to beget more inequality is the unequal access to credit. The poor cannot easily access credit, owing to little or no wealth to provide as collateral and hence continue to languish in near or below subsistence state.

According to the PRSP (2002) a number of studies have been undertaken in Zambia that include participatory poverty assessment, whereby the poor have been able to express their own conception of poverty and how it could be addressed. The first comprehensive analysis was the 1994 World Bank report, Zambia Poverty Assessment.

A recent study that included a focus on Luapula province (representing the typical rural poor regions) and two slums in Lusaka (for urban areas) sheds light on the poor's concepts and perceptions of poverty. For Luapula, the results of the study reveal that the concept of a "good life" among the households revolve primarily around farming. Farming, thus, constitute the perceived source of livelihood that would meet the household's basic needs and requirements.

Ability to access sufficient food and better health, safe drinking water, and educational facilities is a measure of "good life" and ranked highest next to farming in rural household's responses. Saasa (2002: 65).

For urban areas, Chipata and George compounds in Lusaka were covered in the same study. In the urban areas, having food, money and employment are the top three perceived attributes of a "good life" that define the poverty condition (Saasa: 103). Food ranking highest in this study suggests that the CSO food-basket approach is, to some extent, quite relevant to measuring poverty in Zambia (Saasa: 103)

CHAPTER 5

Findings and Interpretations

5.0 Introduction

Quantitative and qualitative methods were used in order to come up with the following findings and interpretations. Few people manage to have food through out the year. This is due to their inability to plant and harvest enough food. Poverty often results in poor access to food, income, education and health services, the quality which is extremely low even when accessed. Agriculture provides the main opportunity for income and employment but constraints such as those imposed by HIV/AIDS, place families in a highly vulnerable position.

5.1 Quantitative method

Questionnaires were distributed to 100 respondents in Chadiza and Mazabuka. A sample of the questionnaire is attached (Appendix 1). Food security and income generation programmes are already being implemented by Plan in the two districts. In Chibombo district, the programmes are in the initial stages.

Table 1: Main crops grown by the farmers

Main crops grown	Frequency	Percent
Maize	57	57
Maize, sorghum, groundnuts	18	18
Maize, beans, cowpeas	16	16
Soybeans, cotton	4	4
Cotton, maize, paprika	5	5
Total	100	100

In the questionnaire, the farmers were asked what the main crops that they grow are. The researcher was looking for what type of crops are grown and if they are drought resistant or not. This is because Zambia sometimes experiences droughts. If there is a drought, then the crop yields would be affected. If the farmer gets a poor harvest, they would continue to live in poverty.

According to the findings Table 1, 57% of the respondents grow maize. Another 18% grow maize, sorghum and groundnuts, while 16% grow maize, beans and cowpeas. Maize is the main crop grown. This implies that if there is drought in the country, farmers are at risk of getting a poor harvest because maize is not drought resistant.

Table 2: Technology used to till the land

Technology used	Frequency	Percent
Draught power using cattle	35	35
Tractor	8	8
Hoe	57	57
Total	100	100

Farmers use various tools to till the land. The type of technology used to till the land would determine the yield. The researcher was interested to know what the farmers use to till the land. The respondents were asked what they use to till the land.

In Table 2, 57% of the respondents said that they till their land using a hoe, 35% use draught power and only 8% have access to a tractor. This makes it difficult to reduce poverty because

farmers do not cultivate a large area, resulting in a poor harvest. Most of the farmers who use a hoe to cultivate their land, their food stock did not last more than nine months.

Table 3: Period of food security

How long the food lasts	Frequency	Percent
Less than 3 months	9	9
3-6 months	34	34
7-9 months	42	42
10-12 months	12	12
More than 12 months	3	3
Total	100	100

The researcher was interested to find out how long the food lasts from one harvest to the next. The respondents were asked how long they managed to have food from their seasonal harvest. The period or months that they manage to have food would determine the number of months they do not have food and they have to look for food from other sources than their own harvest.

Table 3 shows that 9% of respondents do not have food stock that lasts more than three months, 34% said that their stock lasted between three and six months, 42% between seven and nine months, 12% between ten months and twelve months while only 3% managed to have food stocks for more than twelve months. 85% of the respondents do not manage to have a harvest that can last for more than nine months. Table 3 above shows that the food stocks for most of the people does not last from one harvest to the next.

Table 4: Number of meals per day during the worst period of the year

Number of meals per day	Frequency	Percent
1	53	53
2	32	32
3	13	13
More than 4	2	2
Total	100	100

The researcher was looking for the number of meals that the respondents have per day during the worst part of the year. When the annual harvest has finished, people do not have certain meals in a day. This helps to determine if there is poverty or not.

In the worst part of the year, most of the respondents do not manage to have more than one meal per day. People miss some meals due to lack of food and other resources to buy food. This is not a matter of choice but of necessity. According to Table 4 above, 53% of the respondents only manage to have one meal per day, 32% have two meals per day, 13% have three meals per day and 2% manage to have more than four meals per day. This adversely affects the growth of children, as most of them tend to suffer from malnutrition. There is lack of adequate and nutritional food to feed the children.

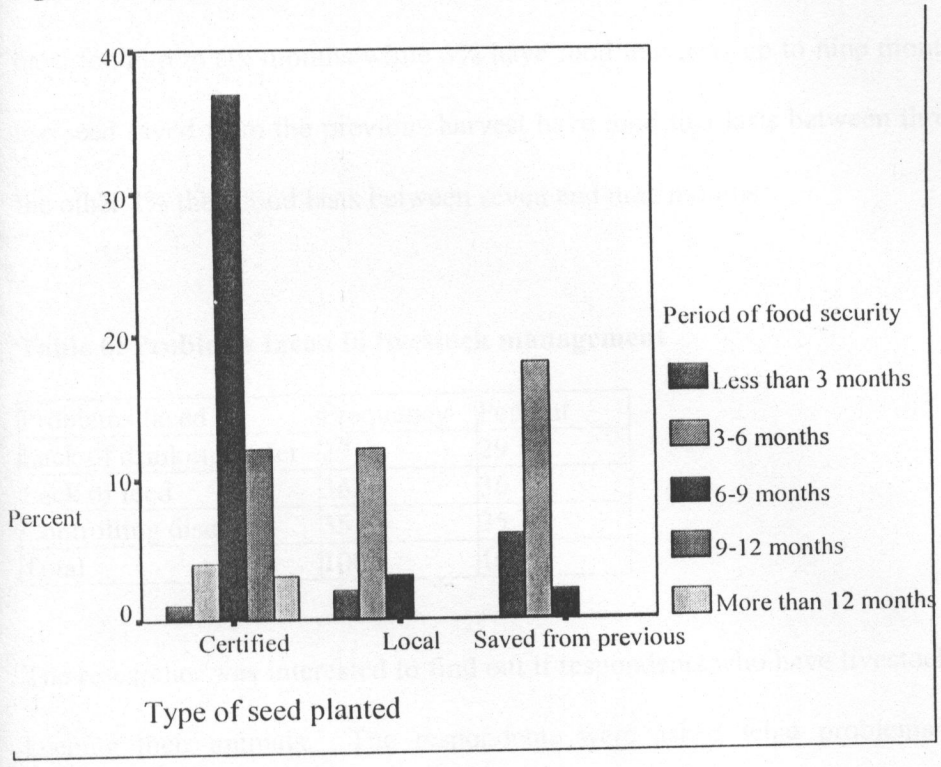
Table 5: Techniques for soil improvement and period of food security

Soil improvement Technique	Period of food security					
	Less than 3 months	3-6 months	7-9 months	10-12 months	More than 12 months	Total
Chemical Fertilizer	4	4	34	12	3	57
Kraal manure	1	25	7			33
None	4	6				10
Total	9	35	41	12	3	100

The researcher was interested in finding out if the type of soil improvement techniques such as using chemical fertilizer, kraal manure would influence the duration that farmers have food in a year. Chemical fertilizer increases the yield that one would harvest. Chemical fertilizer is expensive, so not everyone would be able to afford using chemical fertilizer. The researcher cross-tabulated the response of the type of soil improvement techniques with how long food stuffs last from one harvest to the next to see if there is relationship.

Table 5 shows that the food from the annual harvest of 34% of the farmers who use chemical fertilizer lasts from seven to nine months while 12% at least manage to have food from about ten to twelve months. 25% of those who use kraal manure manage to have food from three to six months. From this category none of the farmers manage to have food beyond nine months. For those who cannot afford to use chemical fertilizer and kraal manure (which make up 10%), their food only lasts up to six months. With the dependency of most Zambian farmers on chemical fertilizer and kraal manure for a good harvest, this implies that the majority to the people do not have adequate food beyond nine months (about 85%). People depend on relief food from other sources like government, donors and NGOs.

Figure 4: Type of seed planted and period of food security



The researcher was interested to find out if the farmers who plant certified seed have a better harvest. If the harvest is good, the food would be more and it may last longer. If farmers plant seed from previous harvest, sometimes the seed may not germinate. However, certified seed is expensive, so not all the farmers would manage to buy certified seed which is recommended if one wants to have a good harvest.

The researcher cross-tabulated the response of those who grow certified seed with the duration that farmers have food from one harvest to the next.

The type of seed determines the yield of the harvest. Figure 4 shows that 37% of the people who grow certified seed have food that lasts between seven and nine months, 12% between ten and

twelve months, while 3% lasts for more than twelve months. 12% of those who grow local seed have food up to six months while 3% have food that lasts up to nine months. 18% of those who use seed saved from the previous harvest have food that lasts between three and six months and the other 2% their food lasts between seven and nine months.

Table 6: Problems faced in livestock management

Problems faced	Frequency	Percent
Lack of drinking water	29	29
Lack of feed	36	36
Controlling disease	35	35
Total	100	100

The researcher was interested to find out if respondents who have livestock have any problems in keeping their animals. The respondents were asked what problems they face in keeping livestock.

Table 6 shows that the problems that people who keep livestock face include lack of drinking water and feed, and controlling disease among others. The water sources are far from the villages and water is very scarce in the dry season. Farmers experience problems in providing feed to their animals through out the year. During the dry season when there is no grass for grazing, they cannot afford to buy feed for their animals. Animal disease is another challenge that they face. Chemicals for dipping animals are not cheap and few of the farmers can afford to buy them.

Table 7: Distribution of cattle in relation to sex of respondents

Sex	Number of cattle		Total
	0	1-5	
Female	40	8	48
Male	29	23	52
Total	69	31	100

The researcher was looking for levels of empowerment for women. Very few women are economically independent due to cultural norms and education background. The sex of the respondents was cross-tabulated with the number of cattle that respondents have. This was to find out the percentage of women and men who have cattle.

Fewer women have cattle compared to men. Although the majority of the people do not have cattle the percentage of women is higher than that of men. According to Table 7, 40% of women have no cattle compared to 29% of the men. Only 8% of the women and 23% of the men have cattle between one and five. Women are among the vulnerable in society. People eat beef and milk and this helps to reduce hunger among the people. Cattle can also be used for draught power when cultivating the land, which may result in a bigger yield.

Table 8: Distribution of goats in relation to sex of respondents

	Number of goats		Total
Sex	0	-5	
Female	22	26	48
Male	27	25	52
Total	49	51	100

Similarly the researcher cross-tabulated the sex of the respondents with the number of goats that they have to find the percentage of women and men who have goats.

Table 8 shows that 26% of women and 25% of men have between one and five goats, while 22% women and 27% men do not have goats. Women have more goats than men by 1%. Goats have nutritional value such as milk and goat meat for relish.

Table 9: Distribution of pigs in relation to sex of respondents

	Number of pigs			Total
Sex	0	1-5	6-10	
Female	20	26	2	48
Male	17	31	4	52
Total	37	57	6	100

The researcher was interested to find out if the percentage of women and men who have pigs is the same.

Table 9 shows that 26% women and 31% men have pigs between one and five, while 2% women and 4% men have pigs between six and ten. 20% women and 17% men do not have pigs. Although some people do not eat pigs due religious beliefs, pigs are also a source of nutrition that helps to reduce poverty.

Table 10: Distribution of chickens in relation to sex of respondents

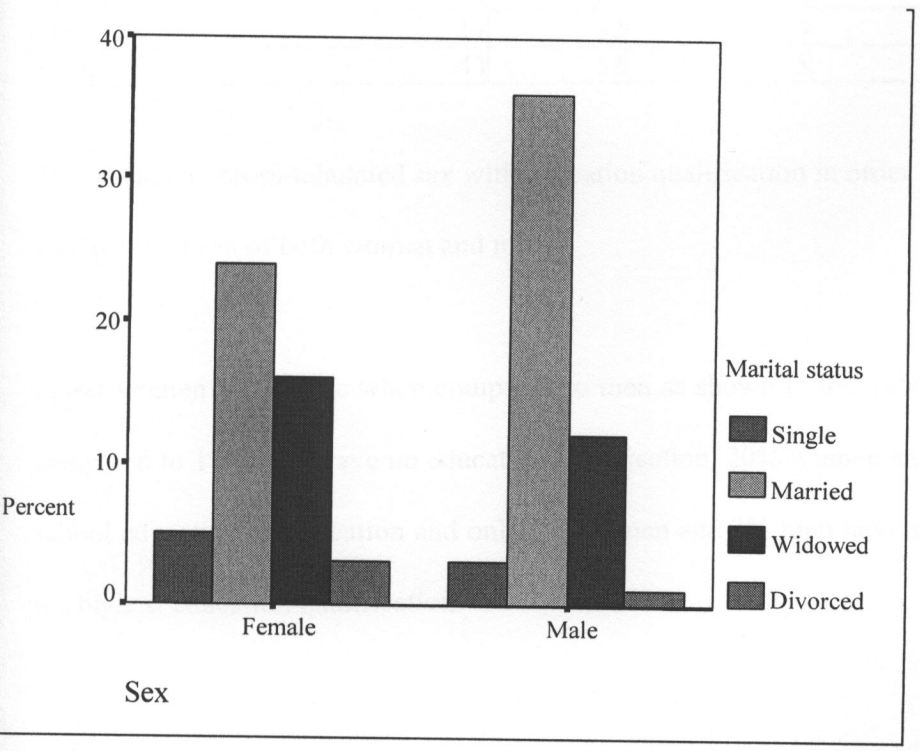
	Number of Chickens			Total
Sex	1-5	6-10	More than11	
Female	22	22	4	48
Male	18	31	3	52
Total	40	53	7	100

The researcher wanted to find out if the percentage of women and men who own chickens is the same. The sex of respondents was cross-tabulated with the number of chickens that they have.

According to Table 10, 22% women and 18% men own from one to five chickens, while 22% women and 31% men have from six to ten chickens. Those who have more than eleven are 4% for women and 3% for men.

Livestock is an integral part of mixed farming system that provides the major source of revenue and livelihood. Through animal draught power, use of organic manure, milk and meat, livestock contribute directly to food security and income generation. Livestock helps in the reduction of malnutrition particularly children through the consumption of milk, meat and eggs.

Figure 5: sex distribution in relation to marital status



The researcher was looking for the percentage of women and men who were single, married, widowed or divorced. The researcher cross-tabulated sex with marital status of the respondents.

Figure 5 shows that 5% women and 3% men are single, 24% women and 36 men are married, 16% women and 12% men are widowed, and 3% women and 1% men are divorced. For the women who are either single, widowed or divorced, they have more problems than those who are married in terms of labour during the farming season. The female-headed households do not have easy access to farming inputs because traditionally, women are dependent on their husbands for livelihood.

Table 11: Sex distribution in relation to education qualification of respondents

	Education qualification			Total
Sex	No education qualification	Primary	Secondary	
Female	26	20	2	48
Male	17	32	3	52
Total	43	52	5	100

The researcher cross-tabulated sex with education qualification in order to find out the percentage and qualification of both women and men.

Fewer women are literate when compared to men as shown in the Table 11 above. 26% women compared to 17% men have no education qualification, 20% women and 32% men have primary school education qualification and only 2% women and 3% men have secondary qualification as the highest education qualification.

5.2 Qualitative method

In-depth interviews were conducted with key members of staff at Plan. An in-depth interview guideline (Appendix 2) and list of names of interviewees (Appendix 3) have been attached. The in-depth interviews with key members of staff provided information on the programmes that Plan in Zambia is undertaking and how they are benefiting the target people. The interviews focused on activities in farming and livestock. A Focus Group Discussion was held with a women's club in Kanakantapa –Chongwe on the HPI project. A list of names for the Focus Group Discussion (Appendix 4) has also been attached. The Focus Group Discussion provided information from the people who have benefited from the livestock programme undertaken by Heifer Project International.

5.2.1 Farming

The factors that make families food and income insecure include, among others, poor infrastructure, limited labour due to HIV/AIDS and other related illnesses, gender inequalities, lack of capital and credit. Others are land degradation as a result of improper use of fertilizers, soil erosion and deforestation, bad roads, lack of transport and market outlets, late delivery of farming inputs and poor storage facilities.

The majority of the citizens depend on small-scale agriculture and a variety of informal income generating activities that tend to be short term, seasonal and poorly rewarding, the trend that has resulted in severe food insecurity and higher prevalence of malnutrition among the people.

The prevalence of HIV/AIDS and other diseases has worsened the poverty situation beyond the individual level to adversely impact on the family, the community, the health system and the working environment.

In its intervention mechanisms, Plan does not promote use of fertilizer as it is harmful to the environment and it is also expensive. Instead it encourages sustainable, cost effective farming practices such as crop rotation, minimum tillage and agro forestry practices. Plan facilitates training to the vulnerable so that they can improve their food security. The training involves crop diversification, post harvest handling, off-season farming, and better farming practices such as conservation farming and agro forestry.

The Area Development Committee (ADC) selects the beneficiaries in the community because they know the people who are vulnerable and who can sustain the programme. The Community Development Facilitator (CDF) who is a member of staff at Plan acts as the observer in the selection process. At the end of the training the farmers are given seeds. Plan does not believe in handouts and recovers the inputs that are given after farmers harvest their products. In the groundnuts project in Chadiza that has been successful so far, 10kg of groundnuts were given to the beneficiaries and after harvest they also "passed on" 10kg to two other families.

The groundnuts seed multiplication project embarked by Plan in Chadiza introduced new groundnut varieties, which are superior to local indigenous varieties such as Chalimbana. The first stage of the programme had focused on groundnut seed multiplication loans while the second season enabled the beneficiaries to pay back the loans by "passing on" seed to other

deserving community members. The new groundnut varieties, which include MGV4, are high yielding compared to Chalimbana. According to the Plan Bulletin (2003:4), the superior varieties enabled the families to pay back the loans, meet their household food requirements, sell the surplus for cash and keep some as seed. Most families also expanded the areas under cultivation as the new varieties were fetching high prices on the market. The implementing process in these activities is participatory.

Other interventions include establishing Income Generating Activities (IGAs) like bee keeping, food processing to help people become self-sustaining. Plan introduced the Seed Garden Concept in Mazabuka where communities are encouraged to grow their own seed using open pollinated varieties during the winter periods. This enables farmers to access good seed within their communities. The extra seed grown by the farmers enhances food security among participating farmers in the form of green maize. Seed is one of the major problems that the farmers face; the availability of the seed among the farmers enables them to plan well in advance for the season. People are taught how to grow vegetables and sell the surplus. Plan encourages production of high value local foods such as groundnuts, sweet potatoes and vegetables such as rape, cabbage and cowpeas. Other food crops being encouraged include fruits like oranges, paw paws and guavas.

Plan also encourages school gardens through the provision of equipment and inputs. Plan also believes that investing in rural areas and providing incentives to the agricultural sector will prepare the youths of today to be farmers of the future.

5.2.2 Livestock

In areas where Plan does not have the capacity to conduct a particular programme, it goes into partnership with organisations that have the necessary expertise to conduct the project. In this regard Plan went into Partnership with HPI in the livestock project. HPI is the main partner and executing agency of the project. A formal agreement was signed between Plan and HPI Zambia in May 2002. The project is still being implemented in Mazabuka district and it has been extended to Chadiza district.

In its efforts to help alleviate poverty in Zambia, Plan in Partnership with Heifer Project International (HPI) introduced the Livestock Restocking Project in Mazabuka district. Livestock plays an important economic and social role in the lives of the people. Livestock provides animal draught power, food such as meat and milk and is also used as settlement of bride price.

There has been drastic reduction in the stocks of Livestock in Mazabuka due to deaths caused mainly by diseases. Although many families still own ox-drawn ploughs, these are not being used due to lack of draught animals. The reduction in the size of livestock population has contributed to the high levels of poverty in the district. People are not able to raise additional income, increase crop production and improve nutrition.

Thus the project was designed as an integrated livestock-restocking project with the goal of promoting livestock production through training in sustainable animal husbandry and provision of cattle and goats in four Plan communities of Mabwetuma, Nega-nega, Naluama and Kaleya in Mazabuka District. Expected project outputs include increased family incomes, improved

household food security, nutrition and health, and increased community organisation through capacity building.

The project has adopted the Heifer Project International (HPI) restocking model, which has been tried and tested in other parts of the country and other countries. This model emphasises self-reliance and uses the communities to select families to receive training and "gifts" of livestock. In return the benefiting families agree to "pass on" the gift to the next beneficiary in an agreed manner from their animals' off springs.

The role of HPI in the project is to provide training in livestock production, health and management to beneficiaries and community members, and provision of livestock and extension services. HPI has attached on contract, one extension officer to the project to compliment the support provided by the government extension system through the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO). The extension service of MACO is very extensive, has a well-trained extension cadre and has personnel placed almost everywhere including areas where the project is implemented.

The objectives of the project in participating communities are:

a) Increasing livestock production through restocking of cattle and goats.

b) Improving food security, nutritional status and health.

c) Improving incomes.

d) Increasing community organisation through mobilisation and capacity building.

The first beneficiaries of the project were mobilised into 4 groups, of which 2 groups received cattle and the other 2 groups received goats. The total number of beneficiaries was 88 of which 40 or 45.5% were women and 48 or 54% were men. There were 40 cattle beneficiaries (20 in Nega-nega community under the Abana Cattle Project and 20 in Mabwetuma community under the Lusumpuko Cattle Project) and 48 goat beneficiaries (20 in Kaleya community under the Twalumba Goat Project and 28 in Naluama community under the Kalama Goat Project). Of the 40 cattle beneficiaries 17 or 42.5 are female and 23 or 57.5 are male and of the 48 goat beneficiaries 23 or 47.9% are female and 25 or 52.1% are male.

80 heifers and 6 bulls were distributed at a rate of 2 heifers per beneficiary, while the bulls were used communally. 296 goats were distributed at the rate of 6 female and 1 male goat per beneficiary, though some beneficiaries were sharing the male goats. The heifers were delivered to the beneficiaries already serviced so that they could have offsprings within the shortest possible time. Over 40 calves and 100 kids were produced. The beneficiaries were expected to pass on an equal number of the animals to the next pre-determined beneficiaries from the offspring produced by their animals. At the time of the attachment the pass on had not yet been done. The purpose of selecting the next beneficiaries before hand is to allow for adequate training and capacity building before they receive the animals.

The beneficiaries have expressed happiness with the assistance that they received from the project. However, the livestock most would prefer to receive is cattle because these, they said have many uses especially draught power for ploughing and transportation. Most of the women preferred goats because of their high multiplication rate and had fewer health problems. The

benefits of milk and meat are realized much earlier in goats than cattle. The preference for goats is as a result of seeing the benefits that are accruing to those who received goats in terms of improved nutrition from consumption of milk, extra incomes from the sale of milk and better crop yields from the use of goat manure. The restocking level of 7 goats (6 female and 1 male) is thought to be manageable, not too few and not too many.

The achievements realized by the project have been analysed in terms of benefits accruing to children and their families, and the community at large. Although the project is still in its infancy a number of achievements have been made. The following are some of the benefits that have been noted:

a) Improved nutrition and health due to increased consumption of milk

b) Improved food security due to increased crop production as a result of the ability to increase crop acreage because of the availability of draught animals and animal manure. Having their own draught animals has enabled them to prepare and plant their fields early and manage the weeds better. Food production has also increased due to improved soil fertility that is attributed to kraal manure.

c) Capacity building; families have acquired new knowledge and skills in livestock and crop production and have adopted integrated farming methods.

d) Family empowerment; improved self-esteem, self-reliance and social status. Project beneficiaries have become role models in their communities.

e) Access to improved breeds. It is expected to improve the local stock through cross breeding.

f) The draught animals are helping to overcome labour constraints experienced during the farming season, and are also freeing family labour (women and children) from prolonged preoccupation in the field.

g) Community members are learning from project beneficiaries' practical skills in livestock production and management, community mobilization and cooperation.

h) The project has also enhanced community cohesion, unity and cooperation.

A number of constraints were identified during the implementation process, which are listed below:

a) Inadequate water supply for animals especially during the dry season.

b) Lack of animal dipping facilities (dip-tanks) to prevent disease outbreaks.

c) Increased incidence of disease such as pneumonia, worms, corridor, black leg, mange and many others.

d) Abortions and complications at calving

e) Lack of feed supplements during the dry season. Animals lose condition during this period due to lack of proper feed. As there is no adequate natural grazing due to deforestation and depletion of natural resources.

f) Difficulty in finding building materials for construction of living quarters for animals and fences to keep animals from straying into other people's fields.

g) Inadequate follow-ups on the training provided. As a result some farmers suffered animal loses due to diseases and at calving. The following were identified as requiring follow up: milking, disease identification, entrepreneurship skills development and group organisation.

h) Poor extension service. The Government Veterinary Assistants attached to the project were unreliable and not providing the necessary support to farmers.

According to Plan overcoming rural poverty is not a matter of more aid, more funding or more handouts to communities but creating a suitable environment for communities to plan design and implement as well as control their destiny. Capacity building is the greatest empowerment that communities can ever be given as they would be able to control their destiny. The Lusumpuko Draught Cattle Group of Mabwetuba in Mazabuka supported by Plan is one example of a farmer group that has recognised the fact that, they themselves can solve the current problems they are facing. The group through capacity building programmes that Plan carried out in the area managed to grow from being mere donor recipients to managers of their own.

The group members have gained better skills and knowledge in livestock management, which is filtering to other community members. Other community members begun to regularly dip their animals together with group members. This has helped to contain tick borne diseases in the area but also improved the group's income base through fees paid by non-members for use of dipping facilities. The group has become a leader in provision of services such as draught power and is also leading in kraal manure sales for soil improvement as well as milk sales in the area.

Food security plays an important role in the fight against HIV/AIDS. Plan believes that providing sufficient food and improving nutritional standards to meet the basic needs for health, income generation and economic growth remains the top priority in the fight against the disease. Among its priorities in the fight against the disease, Plan encourages communities to fight poverty as the

root cause of the scourge by promoting rural enterprise and ensuring that communities are food secure. Food is the best form of fighting against the disease because without adequate food the drugs cannot perform well. Adequate food for people is a pre-requisite in the fight against HIV/AIDS and its ugly result of orphans and vulnerable children.

5.2.3 Heifer Project International

The livestock project is being extended to Chadiza district. A feasibility study was done to assess the levels of need among the people. Since the livestock project was to be introduced in Chadiza the FS&IG advisor, FS&IG coordinator (Chadiza), and the researcher went on a field visit to the Heifer camp to see how HPI was conducting a similar programme in Kanakantapa –Chongwe. A member of staff from HPI accompanied the team.

Heifer International is one of the many non-governmental organisations involved in rural development around the world. It works at the grass-root by providing food producing animals and training to the organised local groups that requests assistance. HPI specialises in animal agriculture as a vehicle for the development of the people. Its mission is to work with communities to end hunger and poverty and care for the earth. In its development work approaches Heifer International Zambia prefers to work with community groups such as registered self-help women groups. The assistance includes livestock, mainly draught and dairy cattle, goats and other related livestock species, whereby the recipient families agree to "pass on" female offspring to others at an agreed age. In addition to livestock, Heifer International Zambia provides material and training to equip the assisted farmers to manage the donated livestock

sustainable to accrue the intended benefits of raising food and income. (Heifer International Zambia brochures)

Phase one of the HPI goat project in Kanakantapa started in 1999 and assisted 21 women to start with. Six goats were given per family. The first phase was conducted from February 1991 to June 2001. The recipients were trained in animal management, participation and gender awareness. Forty-two families benefited.

As a result of the commitment and progress made by recipient families phase 2 started in 2001.In phase 2 new and improved breeds of the goats were introduced. Heifer International imported the goats from Tanzania. Each family was given 6 female goats and the male goats are communally owned. The women were taught how to build the kraal at least a metre above the ground. The kraal is built above the ground to reduce diseases. The manure is not disturbed, as the goats do not step on it. The manure is used for soil improvement in the maize fields. The goats give birth twice in a year so it is easy to "pass on" to the other members. There is zero grazing. This means that the goats are kept in the kraal and fed from there. Open grazing is not encouraged, as goats can be a menace when let loose. Goats destroy crops if left unattended to for even a short period of time. This can bring problems among community members. The members are also encouraged to have wire fences around the kraal.

The women have benefited from the goat project through the goat milk and meat that they get. They have been able to sell some milk and goats to buy inputs such as seed, pay for children's

school fees and buy other food. Some families have reduced the use of fertilizers while others have completely done away with it and replaced it with manure.

The goat project has helped the families solve some of their problems. The levels of poverty, malnutrition have been reduced in the community. The members are committed to the clubs and this makes their programmes sustainable. The club has its own regulations and there are penalties for missing a meeting without a reason. If the mother is committed somewhere else, her husband or child can represent her. Membership includes the entire household because the benefits of the club accrue to all.

If a member fails to manage the goats or there are indications that she may fail to "pass on" to the next person, the group members have the right to grab the goats from her. Even if she has looked after the goats for a few months, she is not compensated. This ensures that only serious members are given the goats so that the project is sustainable.

A few representatives from the women's club were sent to Tanzania to see how their friends managed their goats. This was a good learning experience for them. It is hoped that a similar field visit would be arranged for the clubs in Chadiza.

5.3 Conclusion

A lot of people in rural areas are affected by poverty due to lack of resources. Plan is contributing to poverty alleviation by empowering people to be self-sustainable in agriculture among other

areas. The poverty situation has been compounded by HIV/AIDS epidemic, which has resulted in increased numbers of orphans and vulnerable children.

The groundnut and livestock projects that Plan is conducting are contributing greatly to the achievement of food security in rural areas. People are encouraged to be self sustainable through capacity building facilitated by Plan. Since agriculture provides the main opportunity for income and employment in rural areas, the community appreciates the interventions by Plan.

The groundnut project has provided a source of income and food to the community. Groundnuts are very rich on proteins. This has also helped in the reduction of malnutrition especially among children. The livestock project has provided draught power during the farming season. The acreage that is being cultivated has increased. This has not only improved the food security of the people but has also empowered them to develop themselves. Milk and meat are a good source of nutrition. The sales from the farm produce are helping parents send children to school.

Chapter 6

Discussion and Recommendations

6.0 Introduction

This chapter will look at how some of the concepts discussed in chapter 3 relate to the communication strategies that are used at Plan in Zambia. Each organisation is unique in the way it relates to staff, other organisations and the general public. Communication is important for getting work done.

6.1 Communication and Plan

Infante et al (1997: 134) defines communication as the exchange of ideas, opinions and information through speech. At Plan communication within and outside the organisation is done in various ways and this includes meetings, e-mail, telephone, letters and seminars.

At the programme department, members of staff who comprise of the Programme Support Manager, Corporate Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation (CPME) manager, four country Advisors in Health, Food Security & Income Generation (FG&IG), Learning and HIV/AIDS meet every Monday to map up activities for the week. The meeting is also used to review the success of the assignments that had been given the previous week. The members in the department interrelate freely with one another. This interpersonal communication makes it easy to carry out assignments efficiently. Since the planning is done collectively most of the activities are integrated.

Plan does not work in isolation but works closely with partners and stakeholders. Communication is also done through meetings, e-mail and telephone. The interpersonal and inter organisational communication has made it possible for Plan to be effective in its operations in serving the communities.

Members of the communities where Plan works are free to see the Area Programme Managers or other members of staff at the Programme Unit in the districts. Communities submit requests on development issues through the ADCs. Communication reaches the grass root.

However Plan is media shy. Most of its programmes and activities are not publicised. This is sad because a lot of achievements have been made and other people and organisations have a lot to learn from Plan. Plan in Zambia has helped people to be self-sustaining through capacity building. Some schools and health centres have been built and rehabilitated for the beneficiaries at high cost.

The groundnut and livestock projects have made a great impact on the beneficiaries. The levels of hunger and malnutrition have been reduced. Although some of these achievements have been documented in Plan brochures, the circulation of these brochures to the general public is limited. A lot of the people do not have access to read these brochures.

There are some people in urban areas who are living in poverty as a result of retrenchments. If they come from the areas where Plan is operating, they can feel challenged to go back and get

involved in the development activities that are taking place. Information is power. The media can be an important tool in the dissemination of information on the development activities that are taking place.

As alluded to earlier on in chapter 3, communication planning seeks to create, allocate and use communication resources to achieve socially valued communication goals in a particular social image or images Hancock (1992:21). Plan has to come up with a communication policy on the communication channels that can be used to disseminate information about its existence and programmes. It's also important to plan how the resources will be allocated and used so that people are made aware of the programmes that are being conducted.

Community radio stations are interested in the development programmes that are taking place in rural areas. The programmes are conducted in most of the local languages so that people understand what is going on. A lot of people have been empowered through these programmes.

The sixth Global Strategic Direction talks about Plan being a recognised voice that would ensure that the voices of children are heard in policy discussions. Plan has not played a very active role in this regard. There have been a lot of defilement cases that have been recorded in the media, but Plan's voice bas been silent on the rights of the children.

It is therefore **recommended** that documentation on the work of Plan in Zambia be made available to the public in general. This can be in a form of television documentary or radio magazine. More Information Education Communication materials (IEC) should be published and

these should also be translated into the local languages. The media is a tool that Plan must think of utilising more often so that people outside the operation of Plan can know what is happening. As White (1994:26) eloquently puts it, it is through indigenous media that the masses can be made aware of available resources and be encouraged to take advantage of useful information, which the media presents in a language that they understand. This can also be in the form of song and dance.

Another **recommendation** is that Plan should take an active role in the fight for the rights of children. Children's voices and issues need to be represented by people and organisations that have experience and resources. Family and community members abuse a lot of children so there is need for sensitisation among the community on how to protect and safeguard the rights of children.

6.2 Participation and Development

White (1994: 26) states that participation in itself is an act of self-reliance, which must be accompanied by self-confidence. She further states the when individuals become self reliant, their behaviour will change from apathy to action, from dependence to independence, from alienation to involvement, from ignorance to knowledge. A community of self-reliant people will be capable of developing innovative solutions and fostering development diversity.

According to Anyaegbunam et al (1998: 11) people's participation in decision-making leads to consensus between them and the development agency on actions aimed at more sustainable community development. The outcome of this type of participation is often successful and

sustainable because people see the decisions and plans as their own and strive to ensure effective implementation. Empowerment increases people's readiness to mobilise themselves for collective action in order to achieve the objectives of the development effort. Dialogue between the people and development agency ensures that the people's culture, attitudes, capabilities and skills, as well as their views and opinions form the basis for the planning and formulation of effective and relevant development projects and programmes.

When identifying needs, Plan encourages the involvement of the community. Community planning gives a voice to local opinion and provides a systematic way for the community itself to identify and prioritise needs. This is because Plan does not want to impose itself on the community when identifying its needs. The community planning process helps to build consensus and commitment at the local level and leads to better projects. The planning process empowers the community, giving it another tool for improving its standards of living. Plan's responsibility is to facilitate community planning and in the longer term, to train communities to conduct their own planning activities.

Plan receives requests on the needs from the community annually. Plan encourages community budgets. The participation and development is bottom up. The communities identify their needs in terms of priorities and Plan provides the necessary financial and technical support. The community works very closely with Plan. People's participation in development brings freedom from dependence on professionals because it ensures the use of indigenous knowledge and expertise.

Development according to Melkote (1991:191, 194) must include the physical, mental, social, cultural, and spiritual development of an individual in an atmosphere free from coercion or dependency. Also greater importance would need to be given to preserving and sustaining local traditional cultures and other artifacts as these are usually the medium through which the people at the grassroots structure their reality of the world around them. For meaningful development to occur there should be independence of the local communities or nations to tailor development projects to suit their own objectives: the reliance here would be on local human skills and material resources, thus fostering greater self - reliance in development and importantly, leading to freedom from external dependency

The communities where Plan operates tailor development projects to suit their needs. In building programmes, the local community provides labour, sand, crushed stones while Plan provides building materials such as cement, roofing sheets and other materials. Plan works with communities as Partners and not just as mere recipients. The beneficiaries are looked at as the actual creators of change and progress.

Fewer women than men have taken part in the livestock project. 45.5% women compared to 54.5% men have benefited in the project. Most of the women are vulnerable and have little access to financial and other resources.

It is **recommended** that Plan should deliberately target women in the next group of the direct beneficiaries. Women must be encouraged to take part in the project. Plan should target and ensure that at least 50% of the beneficiaries are women. Affirmative action is needed to ensure

that there is equal participation of both men and women. Another **recommendation** is that Plan should consider introducing donkeys in the livestock projects because they are more resistant to drought and diseases. This would help in farming and development of more sustainable livelihoods.

6.3 Social Marketing

Social Marketing is defined as the design, implementation, and control of programmes developed to influence the social acceptability of a social idea or cause by a group. It involves identifying the needs of a specific group of people, supplying information so people can make informed decisions, offering programmes or services that meet real needs, and assessing how well those needs were met. (http://www.health.org/govpubs/PHD627/smarket.htm)

The groundnuts and livestock projects need social marketing. These projects have a lot of potential. People need to change from the culture of handouts and begging. Attitudes about rural areas that are associated with illiteracy and hunger have to be changed. This can only happen if campaigns are carried out to sensitise people about the other benefits of living in the rural areas and farming. People need to make informed decisions.

Plan sponsors children in schools in its communities. It also provides textbooks and other learning materials. Plan helps in the education of children especially the vulnerable children. Children in these rural areas are also assured of quality education just like their counterparts in the urban areas.

It is therefore **recommended** that Plan should use social marketing as one of its strategies in influencing social change. Campaigns can be used to highlight the poverty situation and what can be done to help people. Plan can advocate for the rights of children in terms of the right to education, food, shelter, health and many others. Social marketing challenges the powerful interest groups to fight for the rights of the poor and marginalized people in society.

One can use any kind of communication approach to carry out social marketing depending on the situation, the target audience, subject, product, the topic or service using any type of communication media available.

6.4 Communication Theories

The Magic Bullet Theory or the *Hypodermic Needle Theory*, in mass communication, which implies that the media have direct, immediate and powerful effects of a uniform nature to those who pay attention on their contents, does not apply to Plan in Zambia because people respond to messages differently.

The two-step flow theory where opinion leaders play an important role in the dissemination of information is appropriate. The ADC members act as opinion leaders and pass on information to other members of the community through informal interpersonal communication. According to Oosthuizen (1996: 40) group norms play an important part, since the persuasive media messages are mediated by group interaction. A lot of information is exchanged through informal interpersonal communication. Traditional leaders also play an important role because of the authority and respect that the communities give them. If the ADC does not like an idea, chances

are that the information will not be passed on to other members of the community because they act as opinion leaders. In other instances, the information may be filtered before it is passed on to others.

Diffusion of innovation theory helps us understand how people react to any potential change. The innovation theory is also important because the media in modern society are often largely responsible for bringing new items such as products, ideas and beliefs to the attention of people who eventually adopt them. According to Rogers (1983: 5) an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system. It is a special type of communication, in that messages are concerned with new ideas. This newness in the message content gives diffusion its special character. People create and share information with one another to reach a mutual understanding.

An innovation is an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption. If the idea seems new to the individual, it is an innovation. The innovation has characteristics, which include Relative advantage, Compatibility, Complexity, Trialability and Observability. The characteristics of innovations as perceived by individuals help to explain their different rate of adoption.

Relative advantage is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as better than the idea it supersedes. The degree of relative advantage may be measured in economic terms, but social prestige, convenience and satisfaction are also important factors.

Compatibility is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being consistent with the existing values, past experiences and needs of potential adopters.

Complexity is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as difficult to understand and use. Most members of a social system readily understand some innovations, while others are more complicated and will be adopted more slowly.

Trialability is the degree to which an innovation may be experimented with on a limited basis. New ideas that can be tried on the instalment plan will be adopted quickly.

Observability is the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to the others. The easier it is for individuals to see the results of an innovation, the more likely they are to adopt it. Such visibility stimulates peer discussion of a new idea, as friends and neighbours of an adopter often request innovation evaluation- information about it Rogers (1995: 16).

Diffusion of innovations theory is applicable when new ideas and projects are being introduced in a society. The results of the groundnut and livestock projects are visible to the community and so it is easier to convince people about the benefits of participating in the projects. Diffusion encompasses the values, norms and beliefs of the people, which may be diverse. Diffusion looks at the entire process of having an innovation adopted by society after they see the benefits from others on a trial basis. Although this process takes time, the messages are understood before being implemented. It is important to note that not all the five characteristics can be met before an innovation is adopted. Some stages may not be necessary because each innovation is unique.

6.5 Persuasion Theories

According to Infante et al (1997: 143), if a persuader wants to influence a specific behaviour, he or she must use messages to create a favourable attitude. In order to have persuasion, and not some other type of influence, the receiver must feel free, not constrained, to choose. Thus, perceived choice is a distinguishing characteristic of persuasion. Persuasion uses symbols to *modify an attitude to achieve a particular behaviour. In persuasion, there are personal benefits.* This dimension includes what the source would gain by succeeding in the persuasion attempt and may also reflect advantages for the receiver in fulfilling the source's wishes.

Plan persuades the communities to be self reliant through capacity building and providing financial resources. The community provides labour, time and other resources that they can afford. This is done by choice. The community members are not forced to take part in the projects. They are willing participants. The benefit for Plan and its members of staff is the satisfaction of knowing that they have contributed to making the lives of the vulnerable or needy people better. The benefits for the community beneficiaries are obvious, in that they are tangible through their improved livelihood. They are able to feed their families and send children to school as a result of the projects that are carried out by Plan in Zambia.

6.6 Conclusion

The concepts and theories that have been discussed in this chapter relate in different ways to the operations of Plan. Communication between stakeholders is vital for any meaningful development to take place. Participation in Plan communities is bottom up. This is very good for

a developmental agency because it ensures that the communities are co-owners of the development programmes and process.

However, Plan has to take a more active role in the campaign and advocacy of children's rights. Its voice has to be heard beyond the communities where it operates. Social marketing would enable it reach a lot more people, who would then try to access resources.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Please tick (√) the correct response

For official use

1) SEX
   1. Female 2. Male ☐

2) AGE
   1. 18 years and below 2. 19-30 3. 31-50 4. 51-70 5. Above 71 ☐

3) MARITAL STATUS
   1. Single 2. Married 3. Widowed 4. Divorced ☐

4) EDUCATION QUALIFICATION
   1.No education qualification 2. Primary 3. Secondary 4. College ☐

5) What is the number of members in your family/ household
   1. 2 and below 2. 3-5 3. 6-8 4. 9-11 5. More than 12 ☐

What type and number of livestock do you keep?

		1. 1-5	2. 6-10	3. 11-15	4. More than 16	5. 0	
6	Cattle						☐
7	Goats						☐
8	Pigs						☐
9	Chickens						☐

10) What problems do you have when keeping livestock? ☐
    1. Lack of drinking water 2. Lack of feed 3. Controlling diseases

11) What are the main crops that you grow? ☐
    1.Maize 2. Sorghum 3. Groundnuts 4. Beans 6. Cotton
    7. Paprika 8 Cowpeas

12) What problems do you encounter when growing this crop? ☐
    1. Lack of fertilizer 2. Delays in bringing inputs 3. Lack of access to loans and other resources

13) Is water for domestic and farm use readily available throughout the year? ☐
    1. Yes 2. No

14) Do you grow off-season crops? ☐
    1. Yes 2. No

15) What is the source of the water?
1. River/stream 2. Well 3 . Dam 4.Borehole

16) How do you irrigate off-season crops?
1. Diesel/ electric pump 2. Treadle pump 3. Bucket
4. Not applicable

17) What do you use to till the land?
1. Draught power using cattle 2. Tractor 3. Hoe

18) What type of seed do you use?
1. Certified 2. Local 3. Saved from previous harvest

19) What type of soil improvement techniques do you use?
1.Chemical fertilizer 2. Kraal manure 3. None

20) How long do your food stock lasts (annual harvest)?
1. Less than 3 moths 2. 3-6 months 3. 6-9 months
4. 9-12 months 5. More than 12 months

21) In the worst part of the year, how many meals does your family have per day?
1. 1 2. 2 3. 3 4. More than 3

22) Who gives you information about how to grow crops, store your harvest and keep your livestock well?
1. Agriculture extension officers 2. Friends 3. No one
4. Others (state)

What channels do they use?

		1. Always	2. Often	Rarely	Never
23	Interpersonal communication				
24	Focus group discussion				
25	Radio/television				
26	Posters, brochures, pamphlets				
27	Books, magazines, newspapers				

28) Has the information made a difference?
1. Yes 2. No

29) Are you involved in the efforts by Plan?
1. Yes 2. No

30) How many times do they consult you per year?
1. 1 2. 2 3. 3 4. 4

Appendix 2: In-depth interview guideline

1. What is your organisation doing in the fight against poverty?
2. How participatory are your programmes at community level?
3. What method do you use to come up with programmes that could help in alleviating poverty?
4. What criteria do you use to select 'the would' be beneficiaries of your programmes. (are communities involved when selecting beneficiaries?
5. What type of media do you use in the campaign or advocacy against poverty or in the campaign to empower people?
6. What are the communication strategies used?

Appendix 3: List of names of interviewees

1. Austin Bhebe
2. Joseph Mushalika
3. Patricia Sitimela
4. Dorothy Namuchimba
5. Patrick Chabwe
6. Stephen Mukumbuta
7. Stephen Ngwira

Appendix 4: List of names for the Focus Group Discussion