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Semester: Autumn 2026

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ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD

Course: Development Support Communication (965) • Level: M.Sc.

Semester: Autumn 2026

Assignment No. 2 (Units 5–9)

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE

(For Study & Reference)

Note: This guide is prepared for study and reference purposes. Students are advised to read the relevant units of the course book, understand the concepts, and then write the assignment in their own words. Copying this guide word for word is not recommended.

Total Marks: 100 • Pass Marks: 40

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Question 1: Importance of Different Media for the Success of Development Support Communication (20 Marks)

Q.1 Highlight the importance of different media for the success of Development Support Communication (DSC).

Introduction

No development message reaches its audience by itself; it must travel through media. In DSC the word media is used in its widest sense: it includes the mass media of print, radio, television, film and digital platforms, the traditional and folk media of the community, group media used in meetings and training, and interpersonal communication through field workers and trusted local persons. The success of a DSC programme depends heavily on choosing the right combination of these media, because each medium has its own reach, cost, credibility, literacy requirement and capacity to demonstrate, persuade or obtain feedback. A medium that is excellent for creating quick awareness may be useless for teaching a skill, and the cheapest

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medium per contact may be the most expensive per actual change in behaviour. This answer explains the importance of the main media, one by one, and then shows why DSC normally uses a planned media mix rather than a single medium.

Print Media

Newspapers, magazines, posters, pamphlets, leaflets, booklets, flip charts and wall charts form the print family. Print is important for DSC because it is permanent and repeatable: a farmer can read a leaflet again at the moment of applying fertiliser, and a health worker can keep a flip chart for years of group sessions. Print carries detail, figures, doses, dates and addresses that a broadcast cannot hold in memory, and printed material left in a home or pasted in a public place continues to communicate in the communicator's absence. Newspapers and magazines also reach the literate opinion leaders — teachers, officials, traders and local representatives — whose support a programme needs. The limitation is obvious: print excludes the illiterate and the poor who do not buy newspapers, so in low-literacy settings print can only be a supporting medium, designed with large type, few words and carefully pre-tested pictures, and it must be distributed through field staff and institutions rather than left to the market.

Radio

Radio has historically been the most important mass medium for DSC in developing countries, and in rural areas it still is. It crosses the literacy barrier, speaks the local language, reaches scattered and remote populations at a very low cost per listener, and enters the home, the field and the shop through inexpensive battery and mobile-phone sets. Radio is excellent for timely and repeated information — weather, market prices, immunisation days, sowing and spraying

reminders — and for creating the climate of awareness and discussion in which interpersonal communication then works. Farm forums, radio listening groups, phone-in programmes and community radio stations add feedback and participation to what would otherwise be a one-way channel. Its weaknesses are that it cannot demonstrate a visual skill in detail, its messages are fleeting unless repeated, and listening depends on broadcast timing and signal coverage. Even so, for reaching the largest number of poor and low-literate people quickly, no other mass medium has matched radio's record in health, agriculture and literacy campaigns.

Television and Film / Video

Television, cinema, documentary film and, today, short video combine sight, sound, movement and emotion, and this makes them uniquely powerful for demonstration and motivation. A viewer can actually see how a smokeless stove is built, how a child is given oral rehydration solution, or how a successful farmer in the next district manages drip irrigation, and seeing a real person succeed is one of the strongest persuaders known to communication research. Television also reaches urban and semi-urban audiences in large numbers, sets the public agenda, and gives a campaign prestige and national visibility, while mobile video and cinema vans can carry the same demonstrations into villages without television coverage. The weaknesses are cost, dependence on electricity and equipment, and one-way delivery without discussion unless a screening is organised with a facilitator. Used for the right purpose — demonstration, motivation and agenda-setting, in short, well-produced material — audiovisual media repay their cost; used as a substitute for field work, they do not.

Traditional and Folk Media

Folk and traditional media — folk songs, storytelling, puppetry, street theatre, drama, nautanki and tamasha forms, religious gatherings, fairs and melas, town criers and the traditional meeting places of the village — are among the most valuable and most neglected DSC channels. Their importance lies in trust, familiarity and participation: they are the community's own media, in its own language, idiom and humour, enjoyed rather than endured, and they can carry a health or agriculture message inside entertainment that people gather voluntarily to watch. A street play on dowry, sanitation or drug abuse can raise and discuss a sensitive subject that an official lecture cannot touch, and the audience can question the performers afterwards. Folk media are inexpensive, require no electricity or literacy, and are especially effective for changing attitudes and social norms. Their limits are a small geographic reach per performance, dependence on the quality and training of troupes, and the risk of the message being distorted for entertainment unless scripts are carefully prepared with the performers.

Interpersonal and Group Media

Interpersonal communication — the extension worker's visit, the lady health worker at the door, the teacher, the satisfied adopter talking to his neighbour — is repeatedly found in research to be the most decisive medium at the stage of decision and adoption. Only a person can answer this farmer's particular doubt, examine his field, respect his circumstances and return to see whether the practice worked. Group media stand between the mass and interpersonal channels: group discussions, demonstrations, training sessions, farmer field schools, women's groups, school activities, exhibitions and community meetings allow

demonstration, practice, question-and-answer and peer pressure in favour of the change at a modest cost. Opinion leaders reached through these channels multiply the message through their own networks. Interpersonal and group media are slow and costly per contact compared with radio, which is precisely why DSC uses mass media to prepare the ground and interpersonal media to complete the change, rather than expecting either to do the whole job alone.

Digital and Social Media

Mobile phones, SMS and voice messaging, WhatsApp groups, Facebook, YouTube and other digital platforms are the newest and fastest-growing DSC media, especially for younger audiences, urban populations and diaspora communities. Their special importance is interactivity and targeting: a programme can send crop, weather or clinic reminders to a registered group, receive photographs and reports from the field, run a helpline, correct rumours quickly and let citizens report broken services directly. Short videos in local languages can now achieve, through a phone, the demonstration effect that once required a film van. The limitations are the digital divide — the poorest, elderly and many rural women have the least access — the cost of data, and the speed with which misinformation travels on the same platforms. A responsible DSC plan therefore uses digital media as a powerful part of the mix, never as a reason to abandon the radio, folk and interpersonal channels on which the most disadvantaged still depend.

Table 1: Main Media Used in DSC — Strengths and Best Uses

Medium	Special Strength	Best DSC Use
Print	Permanent, detailed, re-	Instructions, doses, dates,

Medium	Special Strength	Best DSC Use
	readable	records; reaching literate opinion leaders
Radio	Widest cheap reach across illiteracy and distance	Awareness, timely reminders, prices, weather, discussion forums
Television / Video	Sight, sound, movement and emotion	Demonstration of skills, motivation, national agenda-setting
Folk / Traditional	Trusted, local, entertaining, participatory	Attitude and norm change on sensitive subjects in the community
Interpersonal	Personal, responsive, most persuasive at adoption stage	Answering doubts, follow-up, converting knowledge into practice
Group Media	Demonstration plus discussion and peer support	Training, field schools, women's and farmers' groups, exhibitions
Digital / Social	Interactive, fast, targeted, two-way	Reminders, helplines, feedback, rumour control, youth audiences

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Why a Media Mix Decides Success

The practical conclusion of all the above is that the importance of media in DSC lies in combination. Human change normally passes through stages — awareness, interest, evaluation, trial and adoption — and different media are strongest at different stages: mass media create awareness and knowledge for millions at low cost, folk and group media build interest, discussion and social approval, and interpersonal media carry the individual through trial to adoption and continued practice. A campaign that spends its whole budget on television will produce awareness without adoption, while one that relies only on field workers will produce excellent results in a few villages and reach nobody else. Media selection must also

follow research on the audience's actual media habits, language, literacy, electricity, ownership of sets and phones, and daily routine, and the effectiveness of the chosen mix must be checked through monitoring and evaluation so that money can be shifted from weak channels to strong ones during the campaign itself.

Conclusion

To conclude, print gives permanence and detail, radio gives reach across illiteracy and distance, television and video give demonstration and emotion, folk media give trust and cultural participation, interpersonal and group media give persuasion, feedback and adoption, and digital media give speed, targeting and two-way interaction. Each medium is important because each does a part of the communication task that the others cannot do as well. DSC succeeds when the planner respects these differences, studies the audience and builds a deliberate media mix in which the channels support one another through every stage of change; it fails when a single fashionable medium is expected to do everything.

Question 2: Campaign — Definition, Advantages and Steps in Planning a DSC Campaign (20 Marks)

Q.2 Define campaign, discuss its advantages, and describe the steps involved in planning a DSC campaign.

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Introduction

Much DSC work is organised in the form of campaigns. A campaign concentrates communication effort on a defined problem, a defined audience and a defined period, instead of spreading thin, routine publicity over the whole year. Immunisation weeks, polio days, literacy drives, tree-plantation drives, anti-smoking efforts and water-conservation appeals are all familiar examples. But a genuine DSC campaign is much more than a burst of advertising: it is a researched, planned and evaluated communication operation, integrated with the services whose use it promotes. This answer defines a campaign, discusses its advantages and then describes, step by step, how a DSC campaign is planned.

Definition of a Campaign

A communication campaign may be defined as a planned, coordinated and time-bound set of communication activities, using a combination of media and interpersonal channels, directed at a defined target audience, with the purpose of achieving specific and measurable changes in knowledge, attitude and practice on a particular issue. Every element of this definition matters. Planned means the campaign rests on research and a written plan, not on improvisation. Coordinated means that all channels and partners deliver the same core message in the same period, so that they reinforce rather than contradict one another. Time-bound means the campaign has a beginning, phases and an end against which results can be judged. Defined audience means the campaign knows exactly whose behaviour it seeks to change — for example, mothers of children under five in a district, or small farmers in a canal command area — rather than addressing the public in general. And specific, measurable objectives mean

success is defined in advance in numbers, such as raising awareness from a measured baseline to a stated target, so that evaluation is possible. A DSC campaign adds one more feature: it is attached to a development programme and its services, and it is responsible for supporting that programme's goals.

Advantages of a Campaign

- **Concentration of effort and attention.** By focusing money, media and staff on one issue for a defined period, a campaign breaks through the clutter of competing messages and makes the issue publicly visible and discussable
- **Synergy of channels.** When radio, television, posters, field workers, schools and community leaders all carry the same message at the same time, each channel multiplies the effect of the others and repetition is achieved naturally
- **Clear objectives and measurability.** Because the audience, period and targets are defined in advance, results can be measured against a baseline and managers, donors and the public can see what was achieved for the money spent
- **Mobilisation of partners.** A campaign gives government departments, NGOs, media houses, religious and community leaders, schools and the private sector a common banner, a common timetable and defined roles, which routine work rarely achieves
- **Creation of a social climate.** Intensive, visible activity — rallies, special days, endorsements by respected figures — signals that the new behaviour is approved and expected, and this social pressure helps individuals cross from intention to practice

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- **Economy in the long run.** Although a campaign looks expensive, concentrated communication that actually changes behaviour is cheaper per adopter than years of weak, uncoordinated publicity, and it prevents the far larger cost of the problem itself, such as disease or water waste
- **Learning for the future.** The research, pre-testing, monitoring and evaluation built into a campaign generate knowledge about the audience and the channels that improves every later programme, not only the present one

These advantages are real only when the campaign is honest and supported by services. A campaign that persuades people to visit clinics that have no medicine, or to save water in a city whose leaking mains waste more than households do, damages credibility and teaches the public to ignore the next campaign. The advantages listed above therefore assume the DSC principle that communication and service delivery are planned together.

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Figure 1: Steps in Planning a DSC Campaign

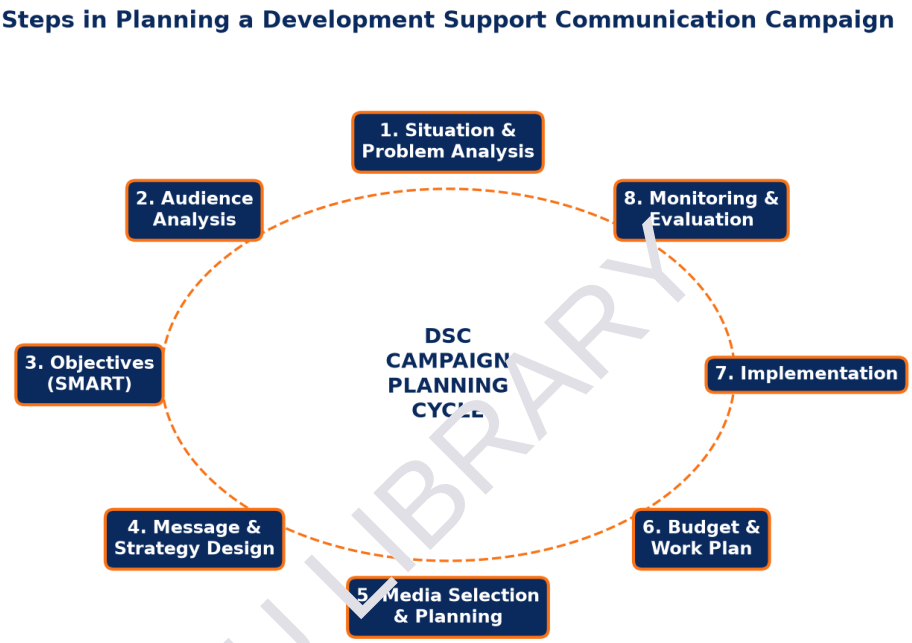

Figure 1: The campaign planning cycle — each step rests on research, and evaluation feeds back into the next phase.

Steps Involved in Planning a DSC Campaign

Step 1: Situation and Problem Analysis

Planning begins with research into the problem itself: its size, causes, consequences and distribution, and the gap between the present situation and the programme goal. The planner studies existing data, previous campaigns and their failures, the services available, and the policies and partners involved. A communication problem is then separated from a non-communication problem, because no campaign can solve a shortage of vaccines, funds or staff, and pretending otherwise wastes the communication budget.

Step 2: Audience Analysis and Segmentation

The second step identifies and studies the audiences. The primary audience is those whose behaviour must change; the secondary audience is those who influence them, such as husbands, mothers-in-law, landlords, teachers and religious leaders; and the tertiary audience includes decision-makers and the media. Each segment is studied for its present knowledge, attitudes and practices, its language, literacy, media habits, daily routine and trusted sources. Segmentation prevents the common error of designing one average message for people who are, in reality, quite different.

Step 3: Setting Objectives

On the basis of the first two steps, the campaign sets SMART objectives — specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-bound — normally at three levels: knowledge objectives (what the audience will know), attitude objectives (what it will feel and approve) and practice objectives (what it will actually do). Objectives are stated against the baseline, for example to raise a measured practice rate by a stated number of percentage points in the campaign area within the campaign period (figures in any real plan come from its own baseline study).

Step 4: Message and Strategy Design

Next, the planner decides the communication strategy: the core idea, the appeal (rational, emotional, moral or a combination), the tone, the slogan and the key messages for each audience segment, and the behaviour requested, which must always be clear, doable and beneficial from the audience's point of view. Creative materials — scripts, posters, leaflets, videos, folk performances — are then produced and, without exception, pre-tested with

members of the real audience for comprehension, attraction, acceptance and persuasion, and revised before any large printing or broadcast order is placed.

Steps 5 to 8: Media Plan, Budget, Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation

The fifth step is the media plan: selecting the media mix, the schedule, frequency and geographic coverage for each channel, in the light of audience media habits, the nature of the message and the budget, and arranging the supporting interpersonal activities of field staff and community structures. The sixth step is the work plan and budget, which sets out activities, responsibilities, deadlines, quantities and costs, together with arrangements for training the field workers and partner organisations who will carry the campaign at the local level. The seventh step is implementation: launching, distribution of materials, broadcasts, community events and field activity, supervised closely so that materials actually reach the intended places at the intended time — a point at which many otherwise good campaigns quietly fail. The eighth step, monitoring and evaluation, runs throughout and after the campaign: monitoring tracks whether activities and outputs are happening as planned and allows mid-course correction, while evaluation measures the change achieved in knowledge, attitude and practice against the baseline, explains why it did or did not occur, and records lessons for the next campaign.

Conclusion

In conclusion, a campaign is a planned, coordinated, time-bound communication effort aimed at defined audiences and measurable change, and a DSC campaign is one that supports a development programme and its services. Its advantages are concentration, synergy of

channels, measurability, mobilisation of partners, creation of a supportive social climate, long-run economy and institutional learning. Its planning follows a logical cycle: analyse the situation and the problem, analyse and segment the audience, set SMART objectives, design and pre-test the message and strategy, prepare the media plan, budget and work plan, implement under supervision, and monitor and evaluate continuously. Skipping the research and evaluation steps is what turns a campaign into mere publicity; following them is what makes a campaign an instrument of development.

Question 3: Evaluation — Definition, Elements, Reasons and Kinds (20 Marks)

Q.3 Define evaluation, discuss its elements, describe reasons for evaluation and enlist kinds of evaluation.

Introduction

Every DSC programme spends public or donor money and claims to change people's knowledge, attitudes and behaviour. Evaluation is the discipline that tests that claim. Without evaluation, a programme knows only what it did — how many posters it printed and how many spots it broadcast — and not what it achieved. With evaluation, it can prove its results, correct its mistakes, justify its budget and design its successor intelligently. This answer defines evaluation, discusses its main elements, explains why evaluation is necessary and enlists its principal kinds.

Definition of Evaluation

Evaluation is the systematic and objective assessment of a programme, project or communication activity — its design, implementation and results — in order to judge its relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, impact and sustainability, and to draw lessons for decision-making. In the DSC context more specifically, evaluation is the planned process of collecting and analysing information to determine whether the communication objectives were achieved: whether the intended audience was reached, whether the messages were understood and remembered, whether knowledge, attitudes and practices changed as intended, and what part communication played in that change. Two words in the definition deserve stress. Systematic means evaluation follows a design decided in advance, with defined indicators, sources of data and methods, not impressions collected afterwards. Objective means the evaluator follows the evidence even when it is unwelcome, which is why evaluation is often assigned to persons or units other than those who implemented the activity. Evaluation is related to, but different from, monitoring: monitoring is the continuous tracking of activities and outputs against the plan during implementation, whereas evaluation makes periodic judgements about worth, results and causes.

Elements of Evaluation

- **Objectives and criteria.** Evaluation begins from the objectives of the programme and converts them into criteria — relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, impact and sustainability — against which evidence will be judged

- **Indicators.** Each objective needs observable, measurable indicators, for example the percentage of the target audience that can recall the message unaided, the percentage holding a favourable attitude, and the percentage practising the recommended behaviour, measured before and after
- **Baseline data.** Change cannot be proved without a starting point, so a baseline study of knowledge, attitude and practice before the intervention is an essential element; where no baseline exists, evaluation is weakened from the start
- **Research design and methods.** Surveys, interviews, focus group discussions, observation, media and distribution records, service statistics and, where possible, comparison or control areas are combined so that findings do not rest on a single source
- **Data collection and analysis.** Trained investigators collect reliable data from representative samples of the audience and other stakeholders, and the data are analysed fairly, including findings that contradict expectations
- **Judgement and comparison.** Results are compared with the objectives, the baseline, the cost and, where available, the results of similar programmes, so that a reasoned judgement of success or failure can be made
- **Findings, recommendations and utilisation.** An evaluation is completed only when its findings and practical recommendations are reported to decision-makers in time and actually used in modifying the running programme or designing the next one — evaluation that is filed and forgotten is a wasted element of the whole system

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- **Timing, responsibility and budget.** Who will evaluate, when, and with what resources must be decided at the planning stage, and a modest share of the programme budget must be reserved for it, because an unfunded evaluation is an evaluation that will not happen

Reasons for Evaluation

Evaluation is undertaken for several connected reasons. The first is accountability: governments, donors and the public are entitled to know whether funds produced results, and DSC programmes, whose outputs are less visible than roads and buildings, need evaluation most of all to demonstrate their value. The second is improvement: evaluation shows which messages, channels, materials and field arrangements worked and which failed, so that a running programme can be corrected and a future one designed better. The third is decision-making about continuation, expansion or termination: scarce resources should flow to approaches that evaluation has proved effective and away from those it has not. The fourth is learning and knowledge-building: carefully documented evaluations add to the professional knowledge of the whole development communication field, sparing other programmes the cost of repeating the same mistakes. The fifth is motivation and credibility: staff and partners work with greater commitment when results are measured and recognised, and a programme with proved results finds it easier to win policy support, media cooperation and further funding. Finally, evaluation protects the audience itself, by revealing unintended and harmful effects — a misunderstood message, a stigmatised group, a practice adopted wrongly — which the programme has a duty to discover and repair.

Kinds of Evaluation

- **Formative evaluation.** Carried out before and during the design stage — audience research, concept testing and pre-testing of materials — to form and improve the communication before large resources are committed
- **Process evaluation.** Carried out during implementation to judge whether activities are being delivered as planned: whether materials reached the field, broadcasts occurred, field workers were trained and the intended audience was actually exposed to the messages
- **Summative evaluation.** Carried out at the end of a programme or phase to make a final judgement of its overall worth and results, usually for accountability and for decisions about continuation or replication
- **Impact evaluation.** A deeper and usually longer-term study of the ultimate changes produced in behaviour, health, production or social conditions, and of how far those changes can be attributed to the programme rather than to other causes
- **Ex-ante evaluation (appraisal).** Conducted before a programme begins, to judge whether the proposed design, objectives, audience analysis and budget are sound and likely to succeed
- **Mid-term evaluation.** Conducted in the middle of a longer programme so that its findings can still change the programme's direction, staffing or strategy
- **Internal and external evaluation.** Internal evaluation is done by the programme's own staff, which is quick and builds ownership but risks bias; external evaluation is done by independent evaluators, which costs more but carries greater objectivity and credibility — many programmes wisely use both

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- **Participatory evaluation.** The community and beneficiaries themselves take part in deciding the criteria, collecting information and judging results, which fits the philosophy of DSC, builds local capacity and often explains findings that outsiders would misread

These kinds are not rivals; a complete DSC programme uses them as a sequence — ex-ante appraisal before it begins, formative research while it is designed, process evaluation and monitoring while it runs, a mid-term review to correct it, and summative and impact evaluation to judge and learn from it. The commonest defect in practice is to fund only a final report, by which time nothing can be corrected and, if no baseline was taken, nothing can be proved either.

Conclusion

To conclude, evaluation is the systematic and objective assessment of a programme's design, implementation and results against its objectives. Its elements are clear criteria, measurable indicators, baseline data, a sound research design, honest collection and analysis, reasoned judgement, and recommendations that are reported and used, with timing, responsibility and budget fixed in advance. It is needed for accountability, improvement, decisions about resources, professional learning, credibility and the protection of the audience. Its kinds — ex-ante, formative, process, mid-term, summative, impact, internal, external and participatory — together cover the whole life of a programme. A DSC programme without evaluation is an act of faith; a DSC programme with evaluation is a managed instrument of development.

Question 4: A DSC Campaign Plan to Address Water Shortage in the Country (20 Marks)

Q.4 Plan a DSC Campaign to address Water Shortage in the country.

Introduction

Pakistan is widely described by water experts as a water-stressed country approaching absolute scarcity: per capita water availability has fallen drastically since independence as population has grown and the storage and distribution system has not kept pace, while groundwater is being pumped faster than it is recharged in many cities and farming areas. Yet a large share of the crisis is a crisis of use and management — leaking pipelines and household taps, flood irrigation, water-intensive cropping patterns, unmetered and unpriced municipal supply, pollution of sources and a public attitude that treats water as free and unlimited. Those parts of the problem are communication problems, and they are the parts a DSC campaign can change. This answer presents a complete model campaign plan. Its targets, timetable and budget figures are proposed planning figures for this model plan, to be fixed finally on the basis of a baseline study; they are illustrative, not a report of results already achieved.

Campaign Title, Duration and Overall Goal

Campaign title: “Har Qatra Qeemti Hai — Every Drop Counts” (Save Water, Save Pakistan). Proposed duration: twelve months, in three phases, renewable for a second year. Sponsors and partners (proposed): the federal and provincial water and irrigation departments, WASA and municipal bodies, the Pakistan Council of Research in Water Resources, provincial education

and health departments, NGOs, media houses, religious and community leadership, schools and universities, and the private sector. Overall goal: to contribute to national water security by changing the knowledge, attitudes and practices of households, farmers and institutions regarding the conservation, efficient use and protection of water, and by building public support for the management reforms without which conservation appeals cannot succeed.

Situation Analysis and Communication Problem

The situation analysis for this model plan identifies the following communication-relevant facts, which a real baseline study would verify district by district: most citizens do not connect their daily habits with the national shortage; domestic wastage through leaking taps, overflowing tanks, hosepipe washing of cars and pavements and careless use in ablution and bathing is common and socially unremarked; farmers, who use the overwhelming share of the country's water, largely follow inherited irrigation practices and cropping choices and have limited exposure to water-saving techniques such as laser levelling, scheduling, mulching and drip or sprinkler irrigation; industries and institutions waste and pollute with little public scrutiny; and responsibility is diffused, because citizens blame the government, the government blames citizens, and no shared norm of conservation exists. The communication problem is therefore threefold: low awareness of the seriousness and personal relevance of scarcity, absence of practical knowledge of what each group can do, and absence of a social norm that praises saving and disapproves of waste.

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Target Audiences

- **Primary audience 1 — Urban and peri-urban households.** Especially home-makers and domestic decision-makers, for kitchen, bathroom, ablution, cleaning, tank and garden use, leak repair and storage hygiene
- **Primary audience 2 — Farmers.** Especially small and medium farmers in irrigated areas, for irrigation scheduling, land levelling, crop selection, canal and watercourse maintenance and adoption of efficient technologies
- **Primary audience 3 — Students and youth.** In schools, colleges and universities, both as present users and as influencers of their families and the future decision-makers of the country
- **Secondary audiences.** Husbands and elders who approve household expenditure on plumbing and repairs; mosque committees and imams; village elders and union council members; mosque, school and hospital administrators; hotel, industry and commercial users; plumbers, who are key practical change agents for leak repair and water-saving fittings
- **Tertiary audiences.** Policy-makers, municipal and WASA management, media editors and journalists, and donor and development partners, whose decisions on metering, pricing, leakage control and enforcement create the environment in which citizen conservation makes sense

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Campaign Objectives (Proposed, to Be Confirmed by Baseline)

- **Knowledge.** By the end of month 12, at least 80 per cent of adults in the campaign areas will be able to state that Pakistan faces serious water scarcity and name at least three household or farm practices that save water (illustrative target)
- **Attitude.** At least 70 per cent of the target audience will agree that wasting water is a social and religious wrong and that saving water is every citizen's duty (illustrative target)
- **Practice — households.** At least 50 per cent of households in intensive-coverage areas will have repaired leaking taps and tanks and stopped hosepipe washing of vehicles and pavements (illustrative target)
- **Practice — farmers.** At least 30 per cent of farmers reached through field activities will have adopted at least one water-saving practice such as levelling, scheduling or efficient irrigation on part of their land (illustrative target)
- **Institutional.** All partner schools in the campaign areas will have formed water-saving committees and fixed leaks on their premises, and partner municipalities will publish monthly leakage-repair performance (illustrative target)

Key Messages and Appeals

The core message for all audiences is: water is a blessing and a trust (amanat); Pakistan's water is running short; every drop wasted today is taken from our children; and every person can save water by simple, specific acts, starting now. Audience-specific messages translate this into doable behaviour. For households: fix every leak within a week; turn off the tap while brushing and shaving; use a mug for ablution and a bucket instead of a hosepipe; install a ball-cock and

check the overhead tank; reuse rinse water for plants; report burst mains to the helpline. For farmers: level the field, irrigate at night or in the cooler hours, follow the warabandi and the advisory service's schedule, maintain watercourses, consider crops and varieties that give more income per drop, and learn about drip and sprinkler support schemes. For institutions: audit, repair, meter and publish. The appeals combine the rational (money saved, crops protected), the emotional (our children's future), the moral and religious (the Quranic and Prophetic teaching against wasting water even at a flowing river, to be used respectfully and with the endorsement of respected scholars) and social approval (public recognition of water-saving homes, schools, mosques and farmers). The slogan "Har Qatra Qeemti Hai" and a single blue-drop logo will appear on every material so that all channels build one identity.

Media Strategy and Activities

- **Mass media.** Television and radio spots and short documentaries in Urdu and regional languages at peak listening and viewing times; newspaper articles, editorials and a weekly water column; development journalism encouraged through briefings, data packs and field visits so that coverage continues beyond paid spots
- **Digital and mobile media.** Short demonstration videos for YouTube, Facebook, TikTok and WhatsApp sharing; a campaign helpline and WhatsApp number for reporting leaks and asking advice; SMS and voice reminders during peak summer and before sowing seasons; a simple web page with calculators, guides and district information
- **Interpersonal and group activities.** Training and toolkits for lady health workers, agricultural extension staff, teachers and mosque committees; community meetings and

corner meetings; farmer field days and demonstration plots comparing water use and yield; school water clubs, debates, poster and essay competitions

- **Folk and community media.** Street theatre and puppet shows on water themes in fairs and melas; mosque announcements and, with scholarly guidance, Friday sermon themes on avoiding waste; community radio and local cable announcements in the local language
- **Print and outdoor.** Posters for schools, clinics, mosques, union councils and WASA offices; leaflets with a household water-saving checklist distributed through bills and field staff; banners at water offices and public places; stickers for taps and tanks as point-of-use reminders
- **Events and special days.** A national launch, observance of World Water Day (22 March), a pre-summer conservation fortnight, an inter-school and inter-university competition, and public award ceremonies for water champions — homes, schools, mosques, farmers and municipalities that verifiably save water

Table 1: Proposed Phases and Timetable (Illustrative Model Plan)

Phase	Months	Main Activities
Phase 1: Foundation	1–3	Baseline KAP study in campaign areas; partner agreements; message development and pre-testing; training of field staff; helpline and digital platforms set up; launch event
Phase 2: Intensive Campaign	4–9	Mass and digital media at full intensity; school and farmer programmes; folk performances; community meetings; leak-report and repair drives with municipalities; pre-summer fortnight

Phase	Months	Main Activities
Phase 3: Consolidation	10–12	Reminder media at lower intensity; recognition and awards; institutionalisation in schools and departments; endline survey and impact evaluation; report and plan for Year 2

Table 2: Indicative Budget Heads (Illustrative — Shares of Campaign Budget)

Budget Head	Indicative Share
Baseline and endline research, monitoring and evaluation	10%
Message and material development, pre-testing and production	15%
Mass media placement (TV, radio, print)	30%
Digital and social media	10%
Field, school, farmer and community activities	20%
Training of field staff and partners	5%
Events, awards and launch	5%
Administration and contingency	5%

Monitoring, Evaluation and a Necessary Caution

Monitoring will track, monthly, the outputs promised in the work plan: spots actually broadcast, materials actually distributed, sessions actually held, helpline calls received and leaks reported and repaired, checked by field visits rather than by reports alone. Evaluation will compare the baseline and endline knowledge, attitude and practice surveys in the campaign areas, examine municipal and agricultural indicators where available, and judge the campaign against the objectives stated above, distinguishing what communication achieved from what

depended on other factors. The necessary caution is the central DSC principle with which this plan must end: communication can make citizens willing to save water, but the authorities must simultaneously repair their leaking distribution systems, enforce against theft and pollution, and treat citizens fairly in supply and pricing. If the campaign asks households to save every drop while public mains waste visibly and without response, the campaign will lose credibility and fail. The plan therefore includes the tertiary audience and institutional components deliberately, and publishes municipal performance so that conservation is visibly a shared duty, not a burden placed only on the public.

Conclusion

This model DSC campaign addresses water shortage by treating it as, in part, a problem of knowledge, habit and social norms that planned communication can change. It rests on a situation and audience analysis, sets measurable objectives for households, farmers, youth and institutions, offers specific and doable behaviours under one memorable identity, uses a full media mix from television and radio to folk theatre, school clubs and the plumber's toolkit, proceeds in three phases over twelve months, and builds in monitoring, evaluation and the institutional reforms that make public conservation meaningful. Adapted to a real district or province with a genuine baseline study, it provides a workable pattern for DSC planning on any national problem.

Question 5: Notes — Difference Between Monitoring and Evaluation; Problems of DSC in the Developing Countries (20 Marks)

Q.5 Write comprehensive notes on the following: I. Difference between Monitoring and Evaluation; II. Problems of DSC in the Developing Countries.

Introduction

This question has two distinct parts. The first concerns the management of DSC programmes: monitoring and evaluation are constantly mentioned together, and just as constantly confused, although they perform different functions at different times and answer different questions. The second concerns the environment in which DSC must work in the developing countries, where poverty, illiteracy, weak infrastructure and institutional habits create problems that the DSC practitioner must understand honestly if his communication is to have any chance of success.

I. Difference Between Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring is the continuous and routine process of collecting information on the implementation of a programme — its inputs, activities and outputs — and comparing them with the plan, so that managers can detect delays, shortages and deviations in time and correct them while the programme is still running. It asks the operational question: are we doing what we said we would do, on time, within budget and to the intended standard? Evaluation, by contrast, is the periodic and systematic assessment of a programme's design, results and worth. It asks the judgement question: did the programme achieve its objectives, what change

occurred in the audience and in conditions, why did it occur or fail to occur, and was the whole effort worth its cost? In DSC terms, monitoring tells us that ten thousand leaflets were distributed and fifty radio spots were broadcast as planned; evaluation tells us whether the audience saw, understood and acted upon them, and whether the resulting change justifies repeating the campaign.

Table 1: Difference Between Monitoring and Evaluation

Aspect	Monitoring	Evaluation
Main purpose	To track implementation and keep the programme on course	To judge results, effectiveness, impact and worth
Central question	Are activities and outputs happening as planned?	Were the objectives achieved, and why or why not?
Timing	Continuous and routine, throughout implementation	Periodic — mid-term, at completion, or after completion (impact)
Focus	Inputs, activities, outputs, expenditure, coverage	Outcomes, changes in knowledge, attitude and practice, impact, sustainability
Data used	Programme records, field reports, distribution and broadcast logs, expenditure statements	Surveys, baseline and endline comparison, interviews, focus groups, observation, service statistics
Who does it	Mainly the programme's own managers and field supervisors	Often independent or external evaluators, sometimes with internal and participatory elements
Use of findings	Immediate management corrections during the programme	Decisions on continuation, expansion, redesign, funding and policy; lessons for future programmes
DSC example	Checking that posters reached all clinics and spots were actually aired	Measuring the rise in immunisation practice and explaining the communication contribution to it

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The difference can be summarised in a single sentence: monitoring looks at the programme's performance, evaluation looks at the programme's results and value. The two are complementary, not interchangeable. Monitoring without evaluation produces a programme that is efficiently busy and possibly useless, because all its reports show activity and none shows change. Evaluation without monitoring produces a final verdict with no explanation, because when the endline survey shows failure, nobody can say at which stage delivery broke down. A well-managed DSC programme therefore builds both into its plan and budget from the start: monitoring data feed the evaluator, and evaluation findings redesign the monitoring and the programme alike. It should also be noted that both are distinct from research in general and from mere reporting or publicity: a success story written for a donor is neither monitoring nor evaluation unless it rests on systematically collected evidence and honest comparison with what was planned and achieved.

II. Problems of DSC in the Developing Countries

DSC was largely created for the developing countries, yet it is precisely there that it faces its most serious problems. The first group of problems is socio-economic. Mass poverty means that audiences cannot act on good advice that requires money, and that governments have very small communication budgets competing with every other need. High illiteracy, especially among rural women, restricts print media and written instructions and forces reliance on oral, visual and interpersonal channels that are slower and costlier per contact. Linguistic and cultural diversity means that a single national campaign must be produced in many languages and cultural forms. Poor infrastructure — weak roads, irregular electricity, limited media reach

in remote areas, and until recently limited telephone and internet access — raises the cost of reaching exactly those populations that development most needs to reach.

The second group is institutional and professional. In many developing countries DSC is still not recognised as a professional function: communication units in ministries are small, under-funded and treated as publicity or protocol offices, asked to publicise decisions rather than to plan communication from the problem-analysis stage. Trained development communication specialists are few, training institutions are weak, and frequent transfers and political appointments break continuity. Programmes are commonly designed in capital cities or by foreign consultants with little audience research, so messages arrive in the wrong language, with unfamiliar pictures and impractical recommendations. Coordination among departments, NGOs and donors is poor, so communities receive duplicated, contradictory or competing messages, while each agency reports success on its own paper indicators.

The third group concerns media and the political environment. Media systems in developing countries are often urban-centred and commercially driven, giving little time and space to rural development content that does not attract advertisers, while state media may be distrusted because they are seen as government mouthpieces. Feedback channels from the people to the planners are weak, so errors are discovered late or never. Political instability, changing governments and changing priorities interrupt long-term behaviour-change efforts, which need years of consistency. Dependence on foreign aid and imported models creates a further problem: campaigns follow donor fashions and foreign templates, collapse when the project funding ends, and leave little local capacity behind. Finally, there are problems within the audience's social structure itself — rigid hierarchies, gender restrictions on women's mobility

and media access, the power of vested interests threatened by change, and the rapid spread of rumours through informal networks and now social media — all of which can neutralise well-produced communication.

These problems are serious but not hopeless, and naming them points to the remedies that experience supports: recognising DSC as a planned professional component of every development programme with its own budget, training and retaining specialists; insisting on audience research, local-language production and pre-testing; using the media mix that fits poor and low-literate audiences, especially radio, folk media and interpersonal channels; building feedback and evaluation into programmes; coordinating agencies behind one strategy per issue; and designing for sustainability and local ownership so that communication capacity survives the end of any single project. Where these remedies have been applied — in successful immunisation, sanitation and agricultural programmes in several developing countries — DSC has shown that its problems are problems of resources, institutions and method, not of the idea itself.

Conclusion

To conclude the first note, monitoring is the continuous tracking of implementation against the plan, answering whether activities and outputs are occurring as intended, while evaluation is the periodic, systematic judgement of results, effectiveness and worth, answering whether objectives were achieved and why; a sound DSC programme needs both, planned and budgeted together. To conclude the second, DSC in the developing countries works against poverty, illiteracy, linguistic diversity and weak infrastructure; against the low professional status of

communication, shortage of trained staff, top-down design and poor coordination; and against urban-biased and distrusted media, weak feedback, political discontinuity, aid dependence and resistant social structures. Understanding these problems clearly is the first professional duty of the DSC practitioner, because every one of them must be allowed for in the design of a campaign that is expected to work in the real world rather than on paper.

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