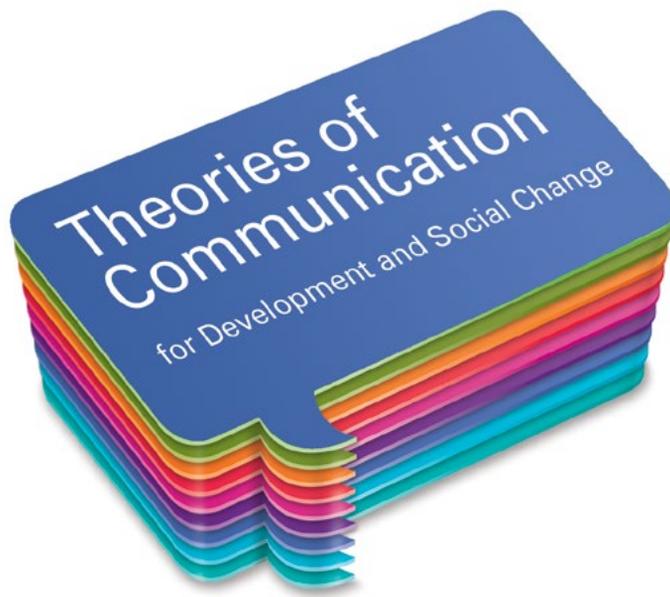


Communication for Social and Behaviour Change Learning Module Series

MODULE 1 **MODULE 2** MODULE 3 MODULE 4 MODULE 5 MODULE 6 MODULE 7 MODULE 8 MODULE 9



MODULE 2



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Developed 2013; Updated 2019.



MODULE 2



MODULE 2

Theories of communication for development and social change



The goal of this module is to familiarise students with key theories and models of communication for development (C4D) and social change. The analysis of C4D theories module is organised around three levels (individual, community/ society, structural) identified by the socio-ecological model (SEM). According to the SEM, any given development/social issue needs to be analysed in a multi-dimensional context. Development challenges are affected by obstacles and opportunities at various levels: individual, community, social and systems/structural. As a reaction against psychological model that assumed that obstacles and actions primarily lie at the level of the individual, the SEM stresses the importance of the social and political environment. SEM is not a theory in the sense that it does not provide explanations or predictions about what causes affect/explain specific problems or how they need to be addressed. Nor does SEM provide a series of action guidelines – what to do and how. Instead, it is an explanatory model that offers insights into levels that need to be considered to produce nuanced assessments of a given situation.

C4D theories are designed to guide the design and implementation of programmes along specific assumptions about the relationship between or among phenomena. Theories offer evidence-based, systematic interpretations and causal explanations of certain phenomena. Theories are sets of concepts formed into propositions that explain causes of particular conditions and events. Theories give us explanations and predict relations among phenomena. Theories help us make sense of observations, findings and analysis. Theories highlight certain aspects of a given situation ('how to analyse it'), ask questions about the relationship between two or more phenomena ('what causes/influences/affects what'), and offer insights to identify solutions for practical, concrete problems.

Key competencies

After this module, students should be able to demonstrate the following competencies:

- Understand the principles of C4D theories
- Identify core concepts and theoretical arguments
- Understand the practical implications of theoretical arguments
- Analyse the strengths and limitations of various theories
- Describe how theoretical concepts and arguments inform strategic choices for C4D interventions

Unit 1 Individual level and C4D theories

Unit 2 Community/society level and C4D theories

Unit 3 Structure/systems level and C4D theories

MODULE 2

UNIT 1

Individual level and C4D theories

General introduction

Psychosocial theories focus on individual and interpersonal dimensions related to behavioural issues. They basically approach development and social change by looking at various dimensions of individual behaviours. This unit does not provide a comprehensive analysis, but rather it is focused on key theories that are widely used and discussed in C4D. It also touches upon the contribution that behaviour science, as an interdisciplinary field, has made to social and behaviour change.

The individual level theories described here are: the Health Belief Model, Diffusion of Innovations, Stages of Change and the Theory of Reasoned Action.

Theories that analyse individual behaviours and communication include the Health Belief Model which claims that perceptions and beliefs exist among individuals about certain issues. Its basic premise is that attitudes are predictors of behaviours. Although this model has been obviously widely used across a range of programmes in public health communication, it provides valuable insights for addressing other social change/development issues. Changes in beliefs, then, may lead to behaviour change. Attitudes include perceptions about being affected by a problem (perceived susceptibility or risk perception), the vulnerability to the problem (perceived severity), the effectiveness of preventive actions; barriers or costs associated with taking action, and ability to act/practice to mitigate/reduce the likelihood of the problem ('self-efficacy'). The analysis of perceptions offers information about how people understand the problem as well as plausible courses of action. When people hold incorrect perceptions, let us say about the severity of the problem or the ease of access to solutions, possible actions include offering information or promoting discussion to offer contrasting information through relevant platforms.

The theory of Diffusion of Innovations is another early theory that was proposed by Everett Rogers in 1962. It is about how an idea or a practice spreads through a population. A person falls into one of five categories: (i) innovators (ii) early adopters (iii) early majority (iv) late majority and (v) laggards. Each category adopts this innovation at different rates, and through different channels of communication. To successfully implement this sort of change, the needs of each group must be considered.

The Stages of Change theory has also been influential since its emergence in the early 1980s. This theory identifies stages through which people go through when adopting new behaviours. These include pre-contemplation, contemplation, action and maintenance (a fifth stage, preparation for action, was added later). During the pre-contemplation stage, individuals have the problem (regardless of whether they recognise it or not) and have no intention of changing. During the contemplation phase, individuals recognise the problem and seriously think about changes. Preparation for Action refers to the stage in which individuals recognise the problem and intend to change their behaviour in the near future. Some behaviour change efforts may have been tried, but there is no consistent change yet. During the action stage, individuals have enacted consistent behaviour change for a certain period of time. Finally, the maintenance stage refers to the phase when individuals maintain new behaviours for some time.

The Theory of Reasoned Action is based on the premise that humans are rational and have control over behaviours. The theory provides a construct that links individual beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behaviour. Key concepts of the theory include the following:

- I. A specific behaviour defined by a combination of four components: action, target, context and time. For example, implementing a sexual HIV risk reduction strategy (action) by using condoms with commercial sex workers (target) in brothels (context) every time (time).
- II. The intention to perform a behaviour is the best predictor that a desired behaviour will actually occur. In order to measure it accurately and effectively, intent should be defined using the same components used to define behaviour: action, target, context and time. Both attitude and norms influence intention to perform a behaviour.
- III. A person's positive or negative attitudes/feelings toward performing the defined behaviour.
- IV. Behavioural beliefs are a combination of a person's beliefs regarding the outcomes of a defined behaviour and the person's evaluation of potential outcomes.
- V. A person's perception of other people's opinions regarding the defined behaviour.
- VI. Normative beliefs are a combination of a person's beliefs regarding other people's views of a behaviour and the person's willingness to conform to those views. The TRA provides a framework for linking these variables. Basically, behavioural and normative beliefs – referred to as cognitive structures – influence an individual's attitudes and subjective norms, respectively. In turn, attitudes and norms shape a person's intention to perform a behaviour. A person's intention remains the best indicator that the desired behaviour will occur. Some limitations of the TRA include the inability of the theory, due to its individualistic approach, to consider the role of environmental and structural issues and the linearity of the theory components.

A different theoretical approach within individual level theories focuses on interpersonal behaviours. An example is Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory which suggests that people learn from one another, via observation, imitation and modelling. Bandura argues that human behaviour is learned observationally through modelling. Observing others, for instance, offers ideas about how new behaviours are performed. Effective modelling requires attention, retention, reproduction and motivation. Social learning theory explains human behaviour in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural and environmental influences. Most theorists and practitioners working in C4D today recognise that while individual-level change is important (and thus individual-level theories are essential), all individuals exist within a larger 'ecology' that includes the family, the community and society as a whole.

Behaviour science approach

A behaviour science approach to communication is also one that takes into consideration the individual along with his/her environment. It encompasses elements of social marketing and advertising, behavioural economics and social and cognitive psychology. At the individual level, this view considers human behaviour and all its limitations, for example, by acknowledging the gap between intent and action present in all human beings. At the structural level, it considers the environmental constraints and influences on human belief formation and behaviour such as norms and choices available. While behaviour science is a relatively new field, it finds its roots in post-Second World War's social and cognitive psychology research which, at the time, was mainly conducted in the United States of America and other 'Western' countries.¹

Later in the 1980s, researchers Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky, developed the Prospect Theory: the analysis of decisions under risk, and an understanding of consumer behaviour. The next advancement was by Richard Thaler on understanding nudges. As defined by Thaler and Cass Sunstein, in their book 'Nudge: Improving Decisions about Health, Wealth and Happiness (2008)' a nudge is any aspect of a choice architecture that alters people's behaviour in a predictable way without forbidding any options or significantly changing their economic incentives. It is important to note here that nudges are not mandates or laws that can be imposed on people. For example, a grocery store in the United States placing green arrows on the floor leading to the fruit and vegetable aisles to increase sales of fresh produce counts as a nudge. Banning junk food, however, is not a nudge.²

¹<https://items.ssrc.org/studies-in-social-psychology-in-world-war-ii-the-work-of-the-war-departments-research-branch-information-and-education-division/>

²<https://clickworks.ie/10-examples-nudge-theory/>

Behaviour science theories and concepts (like nudges) assume that preferences are not entirely consistent or innate. Rather, they are constructed. Therefore, an individual is highly influenced by the context in which choices occur in decision-making rather than the attributes of the choice themselves. Thaler (2008) articulates this in his book and said that 'Humans' differ from 'Econs' because the former are susceptible to biases, temptations, and conformity – all of which must be taken into careful consideration when designing policies and interventions. Such an orientation aims to understand the motivations and goals of the population it is addressing, while also emphasising the bounds of rationality, self-control and self-interest. Through this, behaviour science adds to other theories by examining, as well as addressing the gap that exists between intention and action (behaviour). Subsequently, opportunities can be created to deliver interventions that generate, promote and sustain a certain behaviour, where concepts like intertemporal choice and nudges find their application.

An important theory in behaviour science that examines how humans make decisions is the Systems Theory proposed by Kahneman in 2011 in his book "Thinking Fast and Slow". Systems Theory states that two systems, System 1 and System 2, influence decision-making. System 1 is automatic, fast and often unconscious. It requires minimal energy or attention and is prone to biases and other errors. System 2 on the other hand, is effortful, slow and controlled. It cannot work without attention and can curb system 1 instincts when properly engaged.³ Different types of communication interventions activate different systems and, as a result, influence decisions and behaviour. For example, communication that appeals to people's emotions activate system 1 thinking.

Another dual-systems model that is relevant to persuasive communication is the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM). The framework organises, categorises and understands the guiding principles of communication-induced attitude change. It culminates in two distinct routes to persuasion: the central and peripheral. The central route is attributed to thoughtful and careful consideration of the validity of the information presented. The peripheral route, by contrast, is likely to have occurred as a result of being swayed by simple cues that are present in the context of the persuasion without critical observation of the information. An example of these two routes of processing information could be addressing the features of a car. Central persuasion would involve being convinced of the value of a car by evaluating its mileage, comfort of driving and the extent to which it pollutes; peripheral persuasion would attribute its desirability to the fact that a known celebrity was part of the advertisement campaign, or that the salesperson was attractive. Research has revealed that the

³<http://upfrontanalytics.com/market-research-system-1-vs-system-2-decision-making/>

former kind of persuasion is more lasting. While applications of ELM have been found in psychotherapy, counselling, advertising and healthcare, its findings in persuasive communication are essential to attitude and behaviour change cases. The next set of units examine theories that analyse community/society and structural dimensions in the socio-ecological model.

Questions for discussion

- What defines individual/psycho-social theories?
- What are the key arguments of various theories?
- What are the strengths and limitations of the theories? What do they explain and what do they not explain?
- What are the similarities and differences among theories?
- What are the difference and similarities of the theories and models presented?
- How can these models improve local governance?
- How do behaviour science theories and concepts fit in with broader C4D theories at the individual level?
- How can the theories mentioned be applied in a C4D context?

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Learning activities

The learning activities should be aimed at developing the following competencies:

- Ability to comprehend basic arguments of theories.
- Ability to use theoretical arguments in the analysis of practical challenges.
- Know basic concepts and argument of each theory.
- Understand how theoretical arguments are used in programme design.

Lectures, small group discussions, debates and presentations

1. Prepare a five-page situation assessment of a given development/social change challenge based on a specific theoretical perspective. What problems, causes, solutions and proposed interventions would be identified by that theory?
2. Students discuss one theory and produce a short 'reflection' piece, documenting their own learning process and 'take home' lessons about the usefulness of the theory.
3. Choose an ad campaign of your choice and analyse how they: a) Use behaviour science concepts like nudges and b) Activate either System 1, System 2, or both.
4. There are some other individual level theories not detailed above. Some of these can be part of debates or small group discussions. Such as, examine three other theories–Self Determination, Planned Behaviour and Dialogue and discuss how they relate to behaviour change.

Unit assessment/evaluation methods

- In-class exercises
- Case study/scenario analysis and challenge
- Assignments: Oral and written presentations

MODULE 2

UNIT 2

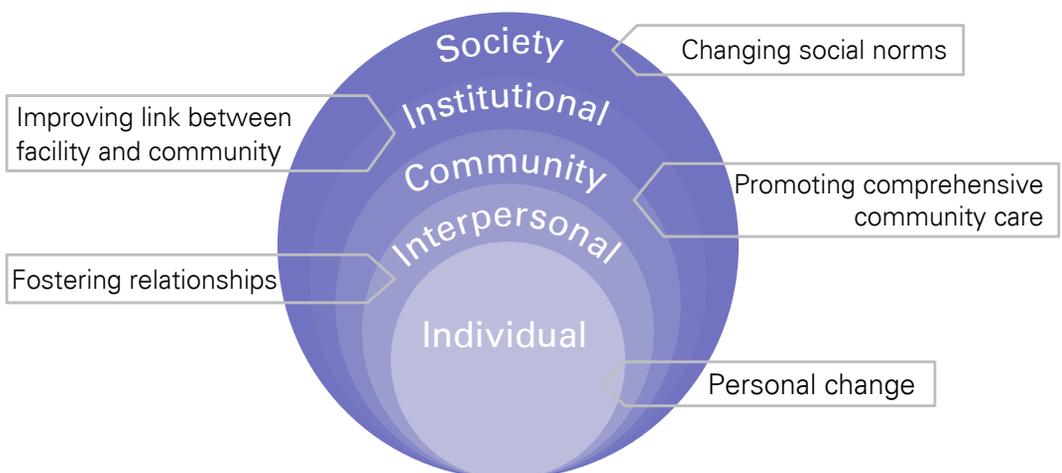
Community/society levels and C4D theories

General introduction

Various theories address factors and interventions related to community and society issues underlying social change and development.

This unit will cover the following theories—socio-ecological model, participatory communication, collective efficacy, social norms, social capital and actor network.

Socio-ecological model: Unlike traditional behaviour change theories, the socio-ecological model of understanding behaviours and designing interventions (McLeroy et al., 1988) includes both individual and environmental factors that affect the practice or non-practice of behaviours. The socio-ecological model acknowledges that behaviour is mediated by individual, interpersonal, community, organisational, social and supranational or global forces (see figure below).



Adapted from McLeroy et al., 1988 and Heise et al., 1999

The socio-ecological approach emphasises that individuals are nested within families, communities, organisations, societies and the global context, and that these varied loci of existence shape practices. This approach allows us to recognise factors at each of the levels within an individual's environment and encourages us to integrate system-wide interventions with person-focused efforts to modify behaviour and/or environments. This socio-ecological framework helps to identify the barriers and facilitators for the identified behaviours and classify them at their level of existence within the clients (audience) environment. This is further detailed in module 5.

Participatory communication: Like the participation paradigm in general, participatory communication theories start from questioning the dominant modernisation/expert-centre paradigm of development, claiming it promotes a top-down, ethnocentric and paternalistic view. It argues that the failure to address poverty and other structural problems in the third world countries need to be explained based on the faulty theoretical premises of dominant programmes. Any intervention focused on improving messages to better reach individuals to change behaviour or designed by elites is bound to fail. Instead, C4D needs a sensitivity to local participation, cultural diversity and specific contexts. The lack of local participation is viewed as responsible for the failure of programmes. Participatory theories consider it necessary to redefine C4D by abandoning the persuasion bias inherited from propaganda theories, and the adoption of a different understanding of communication.

In the participatory model, communication means a process of creating and stimulating understanding as the basis for development, rather than information transmission. Communication is the articulation of social relations among people. People should not be forced to adopt new practices, no matter how beneficial they seem in the eyes of agencies and governments. Instead, people need to be encouraged to participate rather than adopt new practices based on information. Participatory communication prioritises encouraging participation, stimulating critical thinking and stressing processes, rather than specific outcomes associated with modernisation and progress. Participation needs to be present in all stages of development projects.

Collective efficacy: Another important theory is what is called collective efficacy. It argues that communities with higher/better working trust and shared willingness of community members to act collectively are more likely to address a host of social problems. Collective efficacy underscores the importance of shared expectations and mutual engagement by community members. It highlights shared beliefs in the capacity of people's joint actions to achieve results.

Social Norms Theory suggests that norms develop in order to provide members of a community with some influence over the actions of others. Social norms are customary rules that govern behaviour in groups and societies. They define what is acceptable and what is not in a society or group. Unlike laws or moral codes, norms are sanctioned in

different ways – mainly, personal networks and communication that tell/remind people about accepted/non-accepted behaviours. Norms have different functions in that, they provide a sense of order, ground social and cultural identities, promote a sense of belonging and so on. This does not mean that all norms necessarily have active functions, but rather, that is worth interrogating what purpose they serve.

Social norms have become a central concern for a range of development programmes, given that they are both obstacles to, and facilitators of behaviour and social change. From immunization to gender-based violence, social norms underlie critical development priorities that need to be properly understood. It is impossible to think about the amelioration of the conditions, let alone their resolution, without confronting head-on the role of social norms. A key issue for C4D programmes is how norms are monitored and enforced.

A critical issue for C4D is the distinction between objective and perceived norms. What people do may not be what people believe others are doing. This opens the dimension of why people follow norms as it directs our attention to whether people believe that certain behaviours are accepted and others practice them, as well. Why do people follow norms? Various arguments have been made that help to explain why, for example, families immunise their children, prefer institutional birth, or prefer certain foods. These could be the result of socialisation (what people learned in the past), identity (what people want to do to fit with specific clusters of people), and strategic choices to achieve expected benefits (prestige, acceptability, economic gain). In all cases, the main dynamics relate to how norms help people conform with their own expectations as well as perceived/tangible norms.

Social capital refers to the social resources of a community—networks, institutions, and attitudes that can be mobilised to promote positive change. The first step is the identification of existing social networks that are well-respected and trusted and reach significant segments of the population. Many communities have women's groups that meet on a regular basis and are highly involved in community organising and mobilising issues of priority even outside of their community. Social networks require reciprocal, 'give and take,' relationships. These social resources allow for reaching people through credible and effective networks. Communities particularly with dense associational life (organisations/networks) and high levels of trust and social connection offer plenty of opportunities. The development and cultivation of partnerships coupled with tapping into local social networks need to be constant processes throughout the life of a programme.

Actor Network Theory (ANT) is a theoretical and methodological framework which states that everything in the social and natural world exists in networks of relationships that are constantly shifting. It considers objects, ideas, processes and any other relevant factors to be as important as humans in creating social situations. ANT holds that social forces do not exist in themselves, and therefore cannot be used to explain social phenomena. This theory primarily maps relations that are simultaneously material (between things) and semiotic (between concepts such as beliefs). It also assumes that many relations are both material and semiotic.

Questions for discussion

- What is participatory communication?
- What is collective efficacy?
- What are social norms?
- What are the strengths and limitations of each theory?
- What examples of C4D programmes illustrate the main assumptions of each theory?
- How does each theory influence situation analysis and programme design?

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Learning activities

The learning activities should be aimed at developing the following competencies:

- Ability to comprehend basic arguments of theories.
- Ability to use theoretical arguments in the analysis of practical challenges.
- Know the basic concepts and argument of each theory.
- Understand how theoretical arguments are used in programme design

Lectures, small group discussions, debates and presentations

1. Prepare a five-page situation assessment of a given development/social change challenge based on a specific theoretical perspective. What problems, causes, solutions and proposed interventions would be identified by that theory?
2. Students discuss one theory and produce a short 'reflection' piece documenting their own learning process and 'take home' lessons about the usefulness of the theory.
3. There are some other theories not covered above. Some of these can be part of debates or small group discussions. Such as, choose any one of the following theories and analyse how they can be used in C4D?
 - Community Organisation Theory
 - Gender and power culture-centred theories
 - Positive Deviance Theory

Unit assessment/evaluation methods

- In-class exercises
- Case study/scenario analysis and challenge
- Assignments: Oral and written presentations

MODULE 2

UNIT 3

Structural/systems level and C4D theories

General introduction

Theories at the structural/systems level offer explanations that explain factors that influence policies which affect development and social change.

This unit covers the following theories—policy advocacy, agenda setting, social movements and behavioural science.

Policy advocacy aims to affect policy-making decisions. It analyses the factors that affect policy decisions taken by elites. It is conducted through several tactics such as meetings, lobbying, media campaigns, and street displays and mobilisation (e.g. protest, rallies) to get attention from political elites, raise awareness about specific issues, and discuss demands and solutions. Advocacy is understood as taking a position on an issue, and mobilising actors to influence private and public policies. Advocacy actions typically require the formation of communities of interests and the identification of stakeholders around common goals to promote policy transformations with the expectation that they would result in social changes. The assumption is that if policies were different, society would be more successful at addressing problems. Effective advocacy usually requires the formation of coalitions that bring together actors unified around a similar goal and who can contribute in different capacities. Such coalitions are heterogeneous as they may involve groups and individuals. For example, advocacy coalitions to change policies affecting infant nutrition may involve mothers' groups, public health staff and experts, women's associations, food companies and distributors, and so on.

Advocacy actors may decide to act upon single or multiple policy levels such as municipal, state, national and global. The level of intervention is contingent upon who is considered to have power over those decisions. Because advocacy entails persuading powerful actors (from governments to private corporations) to affect policies and change decisions, they demand strategic communication. Therefore, they require understanding why those actors would support certain policies and mobilising convincing arguments informed by a nuanced analysis of opportunities and obstacles.

Some actors may need to be informed about certain issues that they either ignore or do not consider important. Others may hold negative positions about proposed policies. Some may be persuaded by fact-based arguments while others may be more likely to be swayed by emotional appeals.

Agenda setting theory examines the processes that affect the media agenda (what is covered), the public agenda (what people think about), and the policy agenda (regulatory or legislative actions on issues). The significance of agenda setting lies in the fact that the media agenda has an influence over public opinion (what people think) and policy agenda (regulatory or legislative actions on issues).

Media/news advocacy is aimed at influencing the media agenda – what is covered and how it is covered, and conducted through meetings with media decision-makers, the provision of information to newsrooms (e.g. via press releases, news services, production of specific news stories), and training of reporters and editors. Media advocacy is intended to increase and/or improve media coverage of specific issues in news and fictional programming. It requires an understanding of how the media functions, in order to present persuasive arguments on why news organisations should devote more time and space to a given issue or cover it in a different way. The ultimate purpose is to raise awareness among specific audiences (e.g. policy makers) or the population at large with the expectation that an informed public opinion would demand leaders to change policies. Effective media advocacy requires the use of various techniques considered appropriate to persuade media staff (e.g. journalists, producers, scriptwriters, owners) to stage news events, hold one-on-one meetings, develop story ideas and, write op-ed pieces. The ultimate goals of media advocacy are to stimulate debate and promote responsible coverage of development issues.

Social movement theories analyse how collective public groups raise demands and promote change. Social movements are major vehicles for ordinary people's participation in public politics. They include a series of activities by which ordinary people make collective claims on others. They organise campaigns—planned and sustained public effort to make collective claims that target authorities. The campaigns include a vast repertoire of actions such as coalitions, public meetings, solemn processions, vigils, rallies, demonstrations, petition drives, statements to and in public media, and pamphleteering; and hold displays that show their value, unity, numbers, and commitments to themselves and others. Social movements can be distinguished in terms of reform or radical goals, type of change, targets, tactics and geographical range.

A final approach which is suggested at the policy level for all C4D practitioners is that of behavioural science. The success of nearly all policies hinges on the behaviour of individuals, groups and organisations. Such behaviours are better understood than ever before, in part due to a growing body of applied behavioural science research.

Evidence shows that the scope of applying behaviour science is broad, with topics spanning health care, financial decision-making, energy and the environment, education and culture, justice and ethics, and workplace practices. Thus, policymakers are moving towards using behaviour science to inform policies. For example, in 2010, the Government of the United Kingdom set up a Behavioural Insights Team or “nudge unit” which was tasked with applying lessons from psychology and behavioural economics to public policy.⁴

Case study of a social movement: Nirbhaya

In Delhi, on 16 December 2012, a 23-year-old woman was gang raped by six men in a moving bus. The violent crime led to a modern social movement in India unparalleled by those that preceded it. This section examines some of the characteristics, as detailed in units 2 and 3, specific to this incident that triggered mass mobilisation of a society against the crime.

The first feature of this movement is that, while the focus was against an act of sexual violence, the larger fight was a push against the perpetual abuse of power. Marked by dissent against structural subordination like caste, poverty and patriarchy, protests were channeled to address the failure of the legal and social systems that continually silenced these voices.

The media played a key role in shaping the narrative of the Delhi 2012 gang rape and the movement that followed. News channels and articles portrayed Nirbhaya as an ordinary woman with potential and aspirations. She left behind a diary called ‘The Story of My Life’ which journaled the ambitions of a modern Indian woman. This allowed people to project their shared experiences of violence, oppression, frustration and resentment. Through this, the shared willingness of citizens to come together increased exponentially, thereby increasing the sense of collective efficacy.

Another facet of this case is that the reaction was not purely born out of a fear of violence. It was an assertion of freedom and independence from repression. The activism that ensued was process-oriented, rather than only aimed at achieving the goal of bringing justice to the victims of this crime. Through demonstrations, public rallies, protests and debates, the general public engaged with complex issues of gender discrimination. News and social media platforms were influential in publishing detailed updates of the case and movement, spotlighting the cause of the activists.

From an advocacy perspective, in response to the protests, the Central government appointed a committee to suggest changes to the existing laws on sexual assault. A few months after the attack and protests, the Criminal Law (Amendment) Ordinance, 2013, was passed, which provided for amendments to the Indian Penal Code, Indian Evidence Act, and Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973, on laws related to sexual offences.

⁴<https://bspc.ssri.duke.edu/>

One of the rapists in this case was a minor and one of the demands made by the public was that he be tried and sentenced as an adult. As a result, the Juvenile Justice Bill was passed in 2015 which states that minors who have committed heinous crimes should be tried as adults.

Questions for discussion

- What is advocacy? What are its goals?
- How is advocacy related to C4D?
- What is agenda setting?
- What is news advocacy?
- What are media/news advocacy strategies?
- What are social movements?
- What is the purpose of social movements?

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Learning activities

The learning activities should be aimed at developing the following competencies:

- Ability to comprehend basic arguments of theories.
- Ability to use theoretical arguments in the analysis of practical challenges.
- Know basic concepts and argument of each theory.
- Understand how theoretical arguments are used in programme design.

Lectures, small group discussions, debates and presentations

1. Prepare a five-page situation assessment of a given development/social change challenge based on a specific theoretical perspective. What problems, causes, solutions, and proposed interventions would be identified by that theory?
2. Students discuss one theory and produce a short 'reflection' piece documenting their own learning process and 'take home' lessons about the usefulness of the theory.
3. Groups choose a social/development problem and discuss how it could be examined from theoretical perspectives at different levels (individual, community/ social, structural/system) and indicate the strengths and limitations of each theory.
4. Divide yourselves into 5 groups and choose one of the following social movements.
 - I. Jharkhand Watershed Movement
 - II. Anna Hazare's Anti-corruption Movement
 - III. Narmada Bachao Andolan
 - IV. Me Too Movement
 - V. RTI Movement – Aruna Roy

5. Analyse these movements keeping the following questions in mind:
 - I. What triggered the movement?
 - II. What was the role of the media in the movement? How did media reporting influence the spread of the movement?
 - III. What were the channels used for mobilisation?
 - IV. What legal implications did the movement have?

Unit assessment/evaluation methods

- In-class exercises
- Case study/scenario analysis and challenge
- Assignments: Oral and written presentation

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