

**Factors Affecting Audience Perception of
Communication Campaign Messages
Aimed at Preventing HIV/AIDS
Transmission**

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A thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of Addis Ababa University in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Degree of Masters of Arts in Journalism and Communications.

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This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Firew Bekele Gared entitled "Factors Affecting Audience Perception of Communication Campaign Messages Aimed at Preventing HIV/AIDS Transmission" submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for Masters of Arts Degree in Journalism and Communications complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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Abstract

With the increased role of media in raising public awareness, more and more health communications campaigns particularly focusing on HIV prevention are now being implemented throughout the country. Investing considerable amount of resources, these communications campaigns use broadcast media, print, Internet and interpersonal communications to reach their intended audiences with different objectives and messages. This study aimed to identify the factors affecting audience perception of campaign messages to prevent HIV transmission. In addition, as they also affect perception, the study will attempt to identify preferred HIV prevention information sources of FSW, and their level of HIV prevention methods knowledge gained from the messages.

Informed by social cognitive and protection motivation theories, this descriptive audience research used qualitative and quantitative methods with survey questionnaires and in-depth interviews as tools. Trained and experienced data collectors were used to conduct the interviews and questionnaires. Test runs and quality assurance supervisions were conducted to ensure success.

The study location is Kolfe Keranio sub city, the area behind Alert hospital and a sample size of 145 respondents were taken. For the interviews, non-random quota and snowball sampling techniques were used to reach a total of 30 respondents. For the survey questionnaire, a mix of cluster and simple random sampling were used based on estimated number of FSWs in each cluster.

Findings on the demographic characteristics of the women shows that majority are below the age of 25, with little to no education, speaking varying primary languages, having good knowledge of HIV prevention methods and an average income of over 500 Birr a month. Findings show that the preferred HIV information sources of the women included interpersonal communications in the form of peer educators and women groups with coffee ceremonies, print materials such as brochures and leaflets followed by health professionals.

The level of the respondents' knowledge with regards to HIV prevention methods is very high. In addition, respondents are practicing the behaviors that learned from the messages such as for example the use of condoms with all clients. Though there is some debate among respondents about the use of condoms with their trusted partners, the word "trusted" being the cause of debate among respondents.

Credibility of the source of messages, comprehensibility of campaign messages, working/living context of the respondents, the nature of messages that increase ability and skills as well as raise risk perception are the factors found to be strongly affecting respondents perception. Attractiveness of the source of the messages, relevance of messages, appeal of messages to audiences, message clutter in message recipients' context, intensity of materials (use of different channels), motivation of the message recipient as well as the experience of incidents are the factors that were found to be moderately affecting respondents' perception. Familiarity of the source of the message to audiences, in the form of age, sex, religious beliefs, ethnic background, has no effect on audience perception of messages.

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Thank you very much to all of you who helped in one way or another. .

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

ART	Anti-Retroviral Therapy
BCC	Behavior Change Communications
CC	Community Conversations
CP	Combination Prevention
DIC	Drop-in-Centers
EDHS	Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey
FHAPCO	Federal HIV/AIDS Prevention and Control Office
FSW	Female Sex Workers
GoE	Government of Ethiopia
HCT	HIV Counseling and Testing
HIV/AIDS	Human Immuno-Deficiency Virus - Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IPC	Interpersonal Communications
KP	Key Populations
MARP	Most At Risk Populations
NGO	Non-Governmental Organizations
OVP	Other Vulnerable Populations
PEP	Post Exposure Prophylaxis
PEPFAR	Presidents Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief,
PMTCT	Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission
PSI/E	Population Services International /Ethiopia
SES	Socio-Economic Status
SPM	Strategic Plan II For Intensifying Multi-sectorial HIV and AIDS Response in Ethiopia
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infections
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Program on HIV/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
WHO	World Health Organizations

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Chapter One Introduction

1.1. Background of the study

With the increased role of media in raising public awareness, more and more communications campaigns are now being implemented throughout the country. These communications campaigns use broadcast media, print, Internet and interpersonal communications to reach their intended audiences with different objectives and messages.

Campaigns promoting election and other political agendas, marketing/promoting products, religious beliefs, health and education agendas are among many that are widely visible in cities, towns and rural areas of the country. Considerable size of resources have been invested in these campaigns which may or may not have been efficient in achieving their goals. Health communications campaigns with a particular emphasis on HIV prevention, which is the focus of this study, have also consumed significant amount of resources until now and more is pledged for the next decade by the international community.

In response to the AIDS epidemic, several organizations in many African countries, have invested hundreds of millions of dollars over the past two decades in programs that focus on prevention through behavioral change, many of which focus on sexual practices (Bertrand, O'Reilly, Denison, Anhang & Sweat 2006). Key areas of funding have been focused on increasing awareness and knowledge, reinforcing attitudes and maintaining interests, motivating cues to action and demonstrating simple skills, increasing demand for health services and reinforcing behaviors, as well as building social norms (McKenzie, Neiger & Thackeray, 2013). According to McKenzie et al. health communication is the main and primary health promotion tool which studies and uses communication strategies to inform and influence individual and community decisions that affect their health. McKenzie et al. stated that health communication has been demonstrated to create awareness of an issue, change attitudes toward a health behavior, encourage and motivate individuals to follow recommended health behavior, reinforce attitude and behavior change, increase demand and support for services, and build social norms.

Due to various HIV prevention strategies, programs, and communications campaigns to raise awareness, Ethiopia has scored significant achievements in HIV prevention.

The 2013 UNAIDS Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic noted the progress Ethiopia has made in fighting the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) from 2001-2011, stating that new infections dropped by 90%, the largest drop of any country in Africa (and the second largest in the world). What's more, the 2011 Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey (EDHS) reported national HIV prevalence at a relatively modest 1.5%.

Key Findings of the EDHS indicate that general knowledge of HIV/AIDS is almost universal; 97 percent of women and 99 percent of men in Ethiopia have heard of HIV/AIDS. Being more specific, the EDHS also states that comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS transmission and prevention methods stands at 19 percent for women and 32 percent for men. This high level of knowledge can be partly attributed to numerous communications campaigns implemented all over the country according to the EDHS.

However, despite the numerous campaigns particularly in Addis Ababa, evidence shows that there is still high level of HIV prevalence among specific population groups raising the question if there is gap in effectiveness of the campaigns.

To study how communications campaigns are perceived and adopted to practice, a focus on the audiences is equally required. One way of checking the effectiveness of these campaigns is through audience research, by studying, identifying and recommending solution for factors affecting perception of campaign messages.

Communications campaigns are one options of influencing public knowledge, attitudes and behavior, (Rice and Atkin, 2001). According to Rice and Atkin the success of campaigns depends on target audiences identifying the issue as their own, and giving it the due attention. Rice and Atkin argue that information overload may reduce meaningful reception. They also argue that target audiences demographic factors including age, sex, language, culture and level of education have both negative and positive impact on messages.

Ethiopia has a heterogeneous majority-rural population with extremely varying demographics characteristics. This creates a challenging environment for effectiveness of campaigns and studying how audiences perceive messages, identifying the barriers and enablers helps a great deal in paving the way for the

transfer of knowledge and skills to various segments of populations and contribute towards the betterment of their lives.

By focusing on an HIV/AIDS prevention Communications Campaign conducted by an international NGO working in Addis Ababa, this study will attempt to identify and analyze factors affecting the target audiences' perception of integrated interpersonal and mass communication campaign messages aimed to prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS.

1.2. Statement of the problem

Media campaigns are widely recognized as useful public health tools (Randolph 2004), particularly given that mass media campaigns can, by themselves, change health behavior without the need for multiple channels of communication (Noar, 2006).

In the effort to mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS communication campaigns have been conducted in the country with the objective of making audiences realize the threats of HIV/AIDS, the prevention methods, how to avoid the risky behaviors and strengthen the positive ones. These campaigns are conducted in different languages, to different population groups with heterogeneous demographics characteristics, addressing one or more behaviors, using different channels and media, at different times, and locations.

Various administrative studies show that communication campaigns have demonstrated positive impacts in raising the knowledge, and changing the beliefs and practices of various audiences. However, there is very limited academic literature that particularly analyzes selected population segments such Female Sex Workers as they are key populations groups for HIV prevention.

Federal HIV/AIDS Prevention & Control Office (FHAPCO), the Ethiopian Government body mandated to mitigate HIV and its impact on the country, as part of its minimum package for HIV prevention interventions, recommends behavior change communications (BCC) as one way of increasing knowledge of sex workers on HIV transmission prevention. However, it doesn't give any clarification or guidance on how to make campaigns effective either from the perspective of the campaign implementers or from the perspective of segmented population groups.

Campaigns aim to change knowledge, awareness, and attitudes towards and on a public health issue, contributing to the ultimate aim of positive behavioral changes (Self-Brown, Rheingold, Campbell, & de Arellano, 2008). Social, cultural, political, legal and economic factors often serve as obstacles to behavior change, though context can also facilitate change in certain circumstances. According to Bertrand, et al. the mass media are expected to affect a series of psychosocial factors, including knowledge, attitudes and self- efficacy,

Administrative researches conducted by Addis Ababa HAPCO (2012) and NGOs (2013) indicate that there is a relatively higher number of HIV positives among sex workers in Addis Ababa. According to research by PSI/Ethiopia, HIV positivity (yield) during testing in 2013 in the hotspot areas was 13.3%, the highest among FSWs, followed by other key populations which includes laborers and transport workers 2.1% and other female key population groups (waitresses, unemployed women) 1.8%. This is a strong evidence that indicates there are still gaps in the HIV prevention knowledge of and practices of female sex workers. In particular, the HIV prevalence shows that despite accessing HIV preventive messages through campaigns, FSWs still practice risky behaviors exposing them to HIV infection. The gap could also be attributed on one hand to government guidance, donors' strategies, and campaign implementers, and on the other hand, among other factors, the conditions, situations and characteristics of target audiences which includes their perceptions.

Therefore, this study will attempt to identify and analyze factors affecting audience perception of campaign messages disseminated in selected hotspot locations of Addis Ababa.

1.3. Objective

1.3.1. General Objective

The main objective of this study is to identify and analyze factors affecting audience perception of campaign messages disseminated in selected hotspot locations of Addis Ababa.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

- (i) To identify information sources and media preferences of the target audiences;
- (ii) To measure the basic HIV prevention methods knowledge of audiences that accessed campaign messages;
- (iii) To identify the factors affecting target audiences' perception of campaign messages from radio print and IPC;

1.4. The Research Questions

In order to identify and analyze factors affecting audience perception of communication campaign messages the study will address the following questions:

- (i) What HIV prevention information sources are available to the audience and which of the sources/media do they prefer the most?
- (ii) How knowledgeable are the audiences about HIV prevention methods and messages?
- (iii) What factors affect the perception of campaign messages included in materials such as posters, brochures, and leaflets by audiences?

1.5. Significance of the Study

The researcher believes that the outcome of the research will have paramount significance. While there are adequate researches on HIV/AIDS, communications campaigns and their impacts implemented by practitioners, organizations and government bodies, there is limitation to find academic researches that give in-depth focus on specific population groups and factors affecting their perception of messages. Therefore, this thesis will add to the available knowledge for public health campaigners and the academia about the issue. Literature used, and arguments collected will also contribute and serve as an input for future researches on the subject.

1.6. Scope of the Study

This study is limited to analyzing perception of FSWs towards messages disseminated through communications campaigns by an international health communications NGO, PSI/Ethiopia, at around Alert Hospital area of Kolfe Keranio sub-city in Addis Ababa. This is because the researcher believes studying the perceptions of FSWs will contribute significantly towards making campaigns more effective and contribute towards the bigger national goal of reducing HIV prevalence to zero. Due to existing high HIV prevalence among FSWs, more and more campaigns are being designed

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and about to be implemented without adequate academic study on the effectiveness of the existing campaigns. The location is selected mainly because of the fact that it's one of the hotspot areas in Addis with considerable FSW populations working concentrated in one area and having heterogeneous demographic characteristics.

The communication campaign was conducted by PSI/Ethiopia from September 2013 to August 2014, which is year II of an HIV Prevention Project supported by US government. This study does not measure the before and after intervention knowledge of the respondents, rather it looks at their understanding of messages disseminated in relation to their level of knowledge in HIV prevention. Other sources of HIV prevention knowledge such as formal education, TV, word of mouth, will not be studied rather they will be identified as information sources.

1.7. Limitations of the study

The researcher is cognizant that the study would have been more comprehensive if samples were taken from various additional locations. However, the number of locations and respondents were limited because of time and financial limitations. Since this research is not funded, only 145 properly calculated sample respondents were surveyed, and 30 respondents were interviewed at the selected location in Addis Ababa. Therefore, some of the findings such as demographic characteristics may not be generalizable to all other hotspot locations in Addis Ababa or other regional state towns. But the researcher believes that despite the limitations the necessary effort has been exerted to make the study complete and serve the main purpose.

1.8. Operational Definitions of terms

a. Communications Channels: are simply the physical means by which a communications signal or code is transmitted. The main channels are light waves, sound waves, radio waves, telephone cables, the nervous system, and the like. (Fiskie, 1990).

b. Female Sex Workers (FSWs) – Women who perform sexual acts in exchange for money as their primary source of income and who self-identify as sex workers.

Based on their locations of work, FSWs are categorized as:

- i. **Establishment-based FSWs** — FSWs who use establishments such as hotels, bars, or nightclubs to make contact with and solicit clients.

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Based on their locations of work, FSWs are categorized as:

- i. **Establishment-based FSWs** — FSWs who use establishments such as hotels, bars, or nightclubs to make contact with and solicit clients.

- ii. **Home-based FSWs** — FSWs who primarily make contact with and solicit clients for sex at their places of residence, and also render sexual acts at the same location. The focus of this research is this category for sex workers.
- iii. **Street-based sex workers** — FSWs who solicit clients on the street or in public places such as bus stands, market places or cinema halls; clients of street-based sex workers typically receive services inside vehicles or at short-term hotels or other premises near the point of solicitation.

c. HIV Transmissions Methods:

HIV can be transmitted through: The sharing of blood-contaminated injection equipment; Unprotected sex with sexual partners infected with HIV; Breastfeeding from mothers who have HIV to their children, Birth from mother who has HIV to her baby, (WHO, 2014).

d. HIV Prevention methods:

- The correct and consistent use of condoms with all sexual partners, helps to prevent sexual transmission of HIV and sexually transmitted infections (STIs). Even persons who look healthy in the outside could be infected with HIV so key populations should consistently use condoms.
- Post-exposure prophylaxis (PEP) should be available to all eligible people from key populations on a voluntary basis after possible exposure to HIV. And key populations should be aware of these and where to access them.
- All people from key populations with harmful alcohol or other substance use should have access to evidence-based interventions, including brief psychosocial interventions involving assessment, specific feedback and advice.
- Voluntary HIV Testing and Counseling should be routinely offered to all key populations both in the community and in clinical settings. Community-based HIV testing and counselling for key populations, linked to prevention, care and treatment services, is recommended, in addition to provider- initiated testing and counselling. Key populations should be aware of such services and where to get them.
- Key populations living with HIV should have the same access to antiretroviral therapy (ART) and to ART management as other populations. Key populations who have HIV in their blood should be aware of where and how to get the services.

- All pregnant women from key populations should have the same access to services for prevention of mother-to-child transmission (PMTCT) and follow the same recommendations as women in other populations.
 - Screening, diagnosis and treatment of sexually transmitted infections should be offered routinely as part of comprehensive HIV prevention and care for key populations. (WHO, 2014)
- e. Hotspots** – An area generally characterized by a high density of venues for FSW and where there are also high concentrations of FSWs.
- f. Incidence:** HIV incidence (sometimes referred to as cumulative incidence) is the number of new cases arising in a given period in a specified population. UNAIDS normally refers to the number of adults with age 15-49 years or children (aged 0–14 years) who have become infected during the past year. (UNAIDS p. 17, 2011)
- g. Interpersonal communication** is a mutual, ongoing process of sending, receiving, and adapting verbal and nonverbal messages with another person to create and alter the images in both of our minds, (Griffin, 2012). Baran and Dennis (2010) define interpersonal communications as communication between two or a few people, typically face-to-face..
- h. Key populations:** Key populations are defined groups who, due to specific higher-risk behaviors, are at increased risk of contracting HIV irrespective of the epidemic type or local context. Also, they often have legal and social issues related to their behaviors that increase their vulnerability to HIV. (WHO, 2014)
- i. Mass communications:** Baran (2010) explains that when an organization employs a technology as a medium to communicate with a large audience, mass communication is said to have occurred.
- j. Cross-Media:** The term cross-media refers to integrated experiences across multiple media, including the Internet, video and film, broadcast and cable TV, mobile devices, DVD, print, and radio. (Davidson, 2010)
- **Mixed Media:** is a term that refers to combining several media together into a collage of one experience or using different media to disseminate the same concept or message. (Davidson, 2010)

- k. Most at Risk populations (MARPS):** Due to the level of new HIV infections and the prevalence rates, the 2011 EDHS, identifies female sex workers, uniformed forces, long distance drivers, never-married sexually active females, discordant couples, migrant laborers, migrant groups (especially those in small towns), cross border populations and in-school youth (particularly at tertiary education) as most at-risk populations (MARPs) for HIV infection.
- l. Peer educators:** - FSWs who are chosen among other FSWs for training their peers on HIV prevention.
- m. Prevalence:** Usually given as a percentage, HIV prevalence quantifies the proportion of individuals in a population who are living with HIV at a specific point in time. (UNAIDS, 2011)
- n. Risky Behaviors:** Among key populations, risky behaviors refer to acts, or practices that exposes the persons involved to HIV infections. These include but not limited to, unsafe sex with multiple sexual partners, sharing of blades or body piercing materials with a person who may be infected with HIV
- o. Vulnerable Populations:** Refers to unequal opportunities, social exclusion, unemployment, or precarious employment and other social, cultural, political, and economic factors that make a person more susceptible to HIV infection and to developing AIDS. (UNAIDS, 2011)

1.9. Organization of the paper

This paper has six major sections: introduction, literature review, methods, discussions, conclusions and recommendations. In the introductory part, background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, research questions, significance, scope and limitations, operational definition of terms are discussed. In the second chapter, literature review, Overview of successes in overall HIV/AIDS prevention efforts in Ethiopia, the media campaigns (mass media and IPC) of two selected NGOs, review of available literature for print, IPC and mass media communications and HIV prevention as well as theoretical framework guiding the research are discussed in detail. The third chapter describes the research design and the fourth chapter presents research findings and analysis followed by the fifth chapter that presents, conclusions and recommendations.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1. Overview of HIV Impact mitigation efforts in Ethiopia

As Africa's third most-populous country, Ethiopia has a large, predominantly rural, and impoverished population with poor access to safe water, housing, sanitation, food, and health services (The United States Global Health Initiative Ethiopia Strategy, 2012). According to this strategy paper, these factors result in a high incidence of communicable diseases including TB, malaria, respiratory infections, diarrheal diseases, nutritional deficiencies and HIV infections.

Despite the multi-faceted challenges caused by the human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS), Ethiopia has demonstrated with commitment and effective strategies, there is hope for reversing the trend and minimizing the impacts." (Country Progress Report on HIV/AIDS Response, 2012 – Federal HIV/AIDS Prevention and Control Office.)

The UNAIDS 2013 Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic shows that Ethiopia is one of the sub-Saharan countries demonstrating this high decline in new HIV infections. The 2011 Ethiopian Demographic Health Survey (EDHS) data shows that prevalence of new infections among pregnant women 15-24 years of age has declined from 5.6% in 2005, to 3.5% in 2007, and 2.6% in 2011. Likewise, EDHS data showed that use of preventive methods and the number of people who were tested for HIV and utilizing treatment and care services has increased. For example, the number of people tested for HIV annually has increased from forty-thousand in 2005 to nearly ten million by 2011, according to the EDHS. Similarly, the proportion of women with age from 15–49 who received an HIV test and who know their results has increased from just 1.9% in 2005 to 20.0% by 2011. The proportions for men increased from 2.3% to 20.7%, (EDHS 2011).

The 2011 EDHS also states that there is a significant increase in knowledge of HIV prevention methods since the last EDHS was conducted in 2005. According to the 2011 EDHS, Knowledge of HIV prevention methods such as condoms for women with ages from 15 to 49 increased from 35 in 2005 to 43 percent in 2011 nationally. For men the increase was from 57% in 2005 to 64% in 2011. The 2011 EDHS also found that the knowledge of women on other HIV prevention methods such as limiting sex to one uninfected partner has reached 65%.

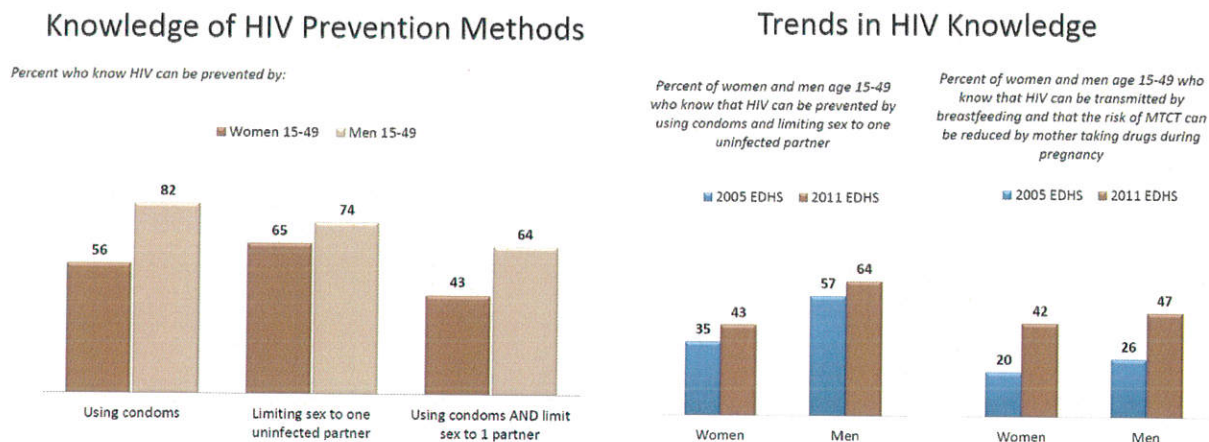


Figure 1

EDHS 2012 identifies female sex workers (FSWs) from among Key Populations (KP) as the most vulnerable and at risk of HIV infection due to their work and multiple sexual partners spanning multiple sexual networks. High rates of other STIs and unsafe sexual practices further increase their probability of HIV infection according to the EDHS. As a result of the risks involved and their vulnerabilities, the EDHS results show that in addition to constituting one of the largest KP groups, HIV prevalence among FSWs is the highest from among the other groups.

2.1.1. HIV Prevention Communications Campaign by PSI/Ethiopia

Population Services International is a US-based non-for-profit global health organization dedicated to improving the health of people in the developing world by focusing on serious challenges like a lack of family planning, HIV and AIDS, barriers to maternal health, and the greatest threats to children under five, including malaria, diarrhea, pneumonia and malnutrition. (PSI/Ethiopia, 2014)

Founded in 2003, PSI/Ethiopia (PSI/E) has been implementing national results-based programs on HIV/ AIDS, child survival and malaria. These programs are creating realistic opportunities for both private and public sector partners to make long-term investments that help the country. One of the HIV prevention programs is the MULU Most at Risk Populations Project (MULU/MARPs). PSI/Ethiopia has been implementing the MULU/MARPs project since 2012 which was designed to contribute to the Government of Ethiopia's (GoE) goal of reducing new HIV infections by 50%. PSI/Ethiopia has a city and town-level approach to coordinate comprehensive HIV

preventions services and products coverage within high-priority “hotspot” areas to prevent the next 1,000 new HIV infections in Ethiopia.

The project is designed to address behavioral, biomedical and structural factors in an integrated, evidence-based and innovative manner, offering a standardized and comprehensive package of combination prevention (CP) services at sufficient scale and intensity to deliver measurable health impact among MARPs and OVPs. The project has three main approaches: Biomedical, structural and behavioral.

Biomedical approach: Through this approach, the project has been working through a standardized MARPs-friendly and integrated reproductive health, HIV and STI services. Working with GoE and through a network of trained service providers from public, private and NGO-based facilities, the biomedical approach, implemented in priority hotspot towns through a mix of service models, includes community-level outreach and home-based services, facility-based services such as drop-in centers (DICs), and through referrals to existing MARPs-friendly and “hotspot” service outlets.

Structural approach: Through this approach, the project has been working to strengthen and build the capacity of government, local organizations and community structures for sustainability of the mitigation effort against HIV and AIDS. The project builds the capacity of the structures at the national, regional, and Woreda/Kebele levels to enable them lead, coordinate and strengthen Ethiopia’s national response using a targeted combination prevention approach.

Behavioral Approach: In this approach, the project has been working to raise awareness of target populations about their risky behaviors by increasing their risk perception, social support and self-efficacy. This approach has also been working on increasing demand for and uptake of comprehensive sexual and reproductive health services among the target populations. With the behavioral interventions, the project aimed to reach one million key populations in five years with media and communications through individual, small group or community-level interventions.

IPC is a central part of this behavioral approach the message of which was guided by a manual called Smart Journey which is produced in Amharic. This manual is distributed to peer educators in various intervention areas. Outstanding and capable

preventions services and products coverage within high-priority “hotspot” areas to prevent the next 1,000 new HIV infections in Ethiopia.

The project is designed to address behavioral, biomedical and structural factors in an integrated, evidence-based and innovative manner, offering a standardized and comprehensive package of combination prevention (CP) services at sufficient scale and intensity to deliver measurable health impact among MARPs and OVPs. The project has three main approaches: Biomedical, structural and behavioral.

Biomedical approach: Through this approach, the project has been working through a standardized MARPs-friendly and integrated reproductive health, HIV and STI services. Working with GoE and through a network of trained service providers from public, private and NGO-based facilities, the biomedical approach, implemented in priority hotspot towns through a mix of service models, includes community-level outreach and home-based services, facility-based services such as drop-in centers (DICs), and through referrals to existing MARPs-friendly and “hotspot” service outlets.

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FSWs will be chosen from among the trainees and they use the manual to train other FSWs in the localities. This way the IPC messages will be disseminated to thousands of sex workers in hotspot areas of various towns including Addis Ababa and the selected sub-cities of Addis Ababa for this study.

The content of this manual has 11 paragraphs: Gathering for similar objectives, coincidences in the work place, sexually transmitted diseases, HIV and AIDS, deciding to undergo counseling and testing, using condoms consistently and appropriately, building positive relations with male friends, staying persistently with contraceptives, alcohol and chat consumption as tools of our trade, negotiating condom use with clients, saving for the future, and success stories.

The IPC sessions take up one topic for an hour per day and three hours per week which means it takes a total of four weeks for the FSWs to complete all the topics. The time of the one-hour IPC sessions is at convenient time for the FSWs so that it doesn't conflict with their business hours. The IPC sessions take place within the work places of the FSWs. The IPC sessions are conducted as a group discussion among 10 FSWs at a time.

In addition, the BCC strategies use mass media materials such as brochures, leaflets, posters, booklets, billboards, radio announcements, community cultural events such as music and drop in centers (DICs) to disseminate materials and messages. DICs are houses where FSWs gather for off-work-hours for relaxation and group discussions and read the materials available.

Located in the heart of "hotspot" locations with high densities of FSWs, the DICs serve as coordination and training hubs for BCC and structural project activities, as well as "home bases" for organizing targeted "hotspot" outreach clinical activities in nearby and surrounding towns. The centers also provide opportunities for FSWs to talk to their peers about shared concerns and to receive information and products for reduced risk behavior, including routine demonstrations on how to consistently and correctly use condoms. The FSWs also access a number of mass media materials that provide information on how to avoid risky behavior that exposes them to HIV infections which includes posters, leaflets, recorded audio CDs, brochures, and others. At the DICs, FSWs obtain referrals for medical and/or psychological services, wash their

clothes, take showers, and have a safe place to network with other women in similar situations.

The messages in the IPC and mass media materials:

- Raise awareness about HIV counseling and testing at the nearest health facility and to start taking the necessary precautions against practices that expose to HIV infection.
- Promote the full understanding of the HIV prevention methods and to practice them which includes not sharing blades that touched the blood of another person,
 - Educate to use male condoms correctly and consistently, with all their partners at all times,
 - Educate to avoid consuming chat and alcohol before going to work, or during work,
- To avoid risky behaviors that include unsafe sex with long time high paying partners, and “*Balukas*” or *boyfriends*:
 - Message example translated to English,
 - Never consume chat and alcohol before going to work. It undermines your ability to decide what’s best for your life during your work.
 - Never consume too much substances with a male client before sex. Chat, alcohol and other substances will negatively affect your judgment and you might practice unsafe sex which may lead to HIV infection.
 - Use condoms correctly and consistently with all your partners at all times.
- In the event, that they get pregnant, the messages advise the audiences to go to the nearest medical facility to get assistance on how to prevent mother-to-child-transmission (PMTCT) of HIV,
- To prevent sexually transmitted infections (STI) by using condoms. And to immediately seek medical treatment in case they see symptoms,
- In the event that they are found to be HIV positive during testing, messages advise to properly and regularly take anti-retroviral treatment (ART).

2.2. Health Communications Campaigns and HIV Prevention

King, Grunseit, O'Hara, & Bauman (2013) describe mass-media communications as a tool that governments have used to increase awareness of risk factors and encourage behavior change. They noted that mass-reaching communications and marketing principles have been used to promote socially beneficial behavior change. King et al stated that mass-media campaigns can positively influence community knowledge, awareness, beliefs, attitudes and some behaviors across large populations and influence behavior in both direct and indirect ways.

According to Bertrand et al mass media interventions are programs or planned efforts that disseminate messages to raise awareness or bring about behavior change among intended populations through communications channels that reach broad audience. These channels include radio, television, video, print, the Internet, and interpersonal communications.

Bertrand et al., argue that mass media campaigns have been reliably linked to an increase in HIV/AIDS knowledge among individuals in low-income countries, including an awareness of HIV/AIDS, the ways in which the virus is transmitted, and preventive behaviors (Hanson, 2008). Jung (2013) further argues that knowledge is an important determinant in the pathways to changing health behaviors. Jung states in the case of HIV/AIDS, a high level of awareness is likely to promote safe sex practices such as the regular use of condoms, which may reduce the prevalence rate of HIV infection. These paths, however, are embedded in an individual's socioeconomic status as well as in their social and political context.

Health media use is patterned by race, ethnicity, language (culture) and social class (Viswanath & Ackerson, 2011). According to Viswanath and Ackerson, providing greater access to and enhancing the quality of health media by taking into account factors associated with social determinants may contribute to addressing social disparities in health.

Bekalu and Eggermont stated that while a considerable number of studies have shown that levels of HIV/AIDS knowledge vary by age, gender, education, residence and other factors, there is a dearth of research about the factors that are most likely to bring about, contribute to and/or change these variations. Jung (2013) While the

contribution of media use to disease prevention and to the promotion of healthy behavior is also widely acknowledged, there is mounting evidence of disparities in health communication, characterized as communication inequalities, among different social groups. Viswanath & Ackerson argue that although mass media channels such as radio, television and newspapers are important sources of information about HIV/AIDS, media-poor groups do not have easy access to these channels.

Viswanath & Ackerson, 2011 assert that in fact, individuals of lower socioeconomic status (SES) tend to gain less benefit from information flows than their counterparts of higher SES. Therefore, Viswanath & Ackerson argue, an understanding of inequalities in health communication may contribute to a mass media campaign for population-based approaches that could address the spread of HIV/AIDS. According to Jung, media use may blunt the impact of social inequalities and agrees with Viswanath & Ackerson in that the effects of mass media campaigns and outreach programs in high prevalence African countries have been effective. Viswanath & Ackerson recommend that public health communication strategies need to take into account SES inequalities in order to overcome barriers across social classes.

2.3. Audience Perceptions in Communications

The media are often blamed for social ills to the detriment of identifying the real causes of the problem, Jane Stokes argues in her book *How to do media & cultural studies*, (2011). Stokes states politicians find it more convenient to blame various sectors of the media for social ills than their own policies and actions. It is easier to pass a law banning the representation of violence than to prevent violent conduct, Stokes argues. Stokes support her argument by saying the real causes of violence in society such as family instability, mental illness or poverty are harder to solve.

Stokes answers the question why study audiences, by saying that we live in an increasingly mediated society and the rate of change in the media environment is unprecedented. Thus, she says, people, increasingly conscious of the rapid changes in media services in the 20th and 21st centuries, ask about the impact of the communication revolution on their lives. She adds, since audience research puts human experience at the center of our enquiry, researching audiences for media and culture allows us to investigate the social uses of the media.

Stokes defines the term "audience", saying that in a broader sense audience refers to people who are exposed to, or who respond to, media culture. Here, Stokes acknowledges that in this broad sense, the term 'audience' becomes almost interchangeable with society, for it is used to refer to the many ways in which the media relate to the broader social world.

The word "audience" has several definitions from different perspectives and it's difficult to find agreed definition. This researcher chose the one that considers the audience as one who voluntarily selects a medium (Windal, & Benosignizer 1997). There are several ways to classify audiences: Audiences as a commune and audiences as products and audiences as agents, (Matani and Hassanpour, 2013).

Sonia Livingstone, in her book *Relationships Between Media and Audience: Prospects for Audience Reception Studies*, states that while the link from gender, class or ethnicity to social structures and hence to power is more directly and clearly established, this need not lead one to conclude that being positioned as an audience is unrelated to power states.

According to Stokes, by looking at how media content is received and understood, we are able to understand the impacts, influences and effects of the media. Stokes also asserts that audience researches examine what people acquire from the media, what people like or don't like and why.

Livingstone on her part states that researchers in a domain traditionally opposed to cultural studies, that of uses and gratifications, saw the new focus on audience interpretation as setting the scene for them 'to build the bridge we have been hoping might arise between gratifications studies and cultural studies. According to Livingstone, the rationale here was to account for the selective responses of audiences in the face of media excess, with the key concept being the active audience. Livingstone says these researchers wanted to open up a broader conception of what audiences might do with texts, in order to allow for the ritual uses of communications as well as the transmission of media contents from producers to audiences.

Livingstone describes, a feminist approach to popular culture allowed for the reconsideration of the often feminized role of the popular culture audience within

cultural theory. Livingstone elaborated that this resulted in reconsideration of the mapping of good and bad, 'masculine' and 'feminine' genres (e.g. news versus soap opera) and cognitive and emotional responses onto high and low culture, and offered instead an alternative set of valuations which mapped primarily onto active and passive audiences, critical and normative readings and open and closed texts.

According to Livingstone, audience research faces significant issues concerning the relations between marginal and dominant groups, between textual structures and audience understandings, between local knowledge and ideological processes, for all of which a diversity of theory is essential.

Yet the active audience, negotiation of meaning, oppositional subcultures, resistance, even the notion of audience itself have all become subject to critique (Livingstone, 1995). Livingstone explains that the nature of the criticisms can, however, be regarded constructively as pointing up the key claims and concerns of audience reception studies so that a response to critics is simultaneously a development of audience theory.

According to Livingstone some of the criticisms include the claim for and limits of audience activity, the power of texts to determine readings, the problem of contextualization (or the tendency towards media-centrism); whether diversity in readings makes a 'real' difference; the validity of the concept of audience itself; the relation between micro and macro levels of media theory; and finally audience research methods and the politics of research.

Livingstone argues that one cannot claim that any kind of interpretative activity involves resistance, opposition or subversion, without having a clear test of whether a divergent reading is subversive or normative, of whether it originates primarily in the text or from the viewer, and without having shown how such supposed resistant decoding actually do make a difference politically.

Livingstone describes that audience interpretation is structured by textual factors. This include textual openness/closure, preferred readings, generic conventions, naturalizing discourses, subject positioning. Livingstone says audience interpretation is structured by psycho-social factors such as socio-demographic position, cultural

capital, interpretive community, contextual discourses, socio cognitive resources, national identity, and psycho-dynamic forces. Livingstone argues that these two facets of the text-reader relation are conceptualized, both textual and social determinations must also be understood in relation to textual and social spaces for openness, contradiction, agency, polysemy, ambiguity, and so forth.

Based on the use and gratification theory, audiences are assumed to have different goals and expectations while using them. As Matani and Hassanpour (2013) explain the communicative behavior consists of the selection and use of media based on purpose and certain motives. This approach follows a framework for determining when and how the audiences are active and what results are gained through their activity. It also tries to identify their motives and goals of accessing communication campaign messages as the signs of their needs and tendencies.

Some experts believe that the media are not omnipotent and the audiences accept the media according to their own social, familial, and situational context and can resist the communicative messages (White, 1976). Nowadays, the audience is the key element which the message is sent to, according to Matani and Hassanpour. It is audiences' interest which determines the intake or rejection of the messages.

Audiences are more in charge of what they want to see and hear from the media, and when they want to hear it, (Patrick, 2014). Patrick elaborates that audiences now have access to the technology to allow them choose the media channel they want to access at their convenient time and in any format. Patrick also argues that since audience is the source of profit to the media houses, content is also determined by the media houses' predication of what the audiences want.

Matani and Hassanpour argue that communication planners, who imagine that if they aim at the audiences, they will gain success, actually make a big mistake. Matani and Hassanpour explain one of the key aspects of this mistake is that they consider the audiences as sufficiently motivated to use the media. They assert that communicative planners, on the other hand, should look for the audiences willing to have a common strong desire to use media.

Metani and Hassanpour stated that other factors to consider which are important in studying the media audiences are determining the tastes and cultural patterns. They describe that we should study the audiences in terms of the media and cultural patterns that have shaped them, what social identity they follow and to what extent these identities are permanent. This is to mean that it is difficult to effectively communicate with audiences without knowing their characteristics.

Roland E. Rice and Charles K. Atkin (2001) state that the fact that source-audience similarity tends to affect perception by increasing persuasive impact but they also admit that reversals may occur in some contexts. Rice and Atkin argue that the source's persuasiveness increases when his or her demographics match the audiences with regard to age sex, religion and ethnicity. "McGuire's (1984) distinctiveness theory of perception predicts when people of different ethnicities are integrated together, the salience of ethnicity in the audiences' sense of self will increase meaning the "us-them" distinctiveness becomes "us-versus-them" divisiveness", (Rice and Atkin cite, PP25.). McGuire states that there is a high correlation between age and influenceability as well as persuadability and age and education. As age and education level increase, increasing comprehension capability increase's audiences persuadability. McGuire also raises the argument that as age increases the tendency to disagree may also increase in some contexts.

Metani and Hassanpour describe that the active audiences, nowadays, uses the media according to their needs, expectations and their own social and psychological backgrounds,. They state that the audiences select the media and so the media influences them and this in turn affects their future use of the media. Matani and Hassanpour asserted that since the audience select the media, they have to compete among themselves to stay ahead, change their content, format and potential expectations so that they can adapt themselves to the needs and expectations of the audience.

According to Livingstone the media offer polysemic texts to heterogeneous, agentic and far from disinterested publics for whom influences, identities and solidarity are as determining of their relation to the media, and hence to the public sphere, as is the quality of the information or the conditions for receiving it. Livingstone states that there is structural limit on audience agency and heterogeneity, and we should

consider public information and the regulation public space and factors that mediate social relations between publics and communicators: identity, influence and solidarity.

Livingstone says in audience studies, we can develop a more specific, more qualified account of the ways in which audiences are motivated, have become diverse and interpretative. Livingstone also states audience researches can connect the often autonomous analysis of audiences in terms of their identities and community to the theories of the public sphere and civil society. These, says Livingstone, offer an answer to the 'so what' question asked particularly of studies relating media and the everyday construction of identity/social relations, by bringing such micro-level studies under the umbrella of citizenship.

Silverstone (1990) argues that audiences are 'a social and cultural object within the complex reality of everyday life which are embedded both in the macro-environment of political economy and in the micro-world of domestic and daily existence. Similarly, Mosco (1996) argues that the substance of cultural studies' work, the analysis of communication, is rooted in the needs, goals, conflicts, failures and accomplishments of ordinary people aiming to make sense of their lives, even as they confront an institutional and symbolic world that is not entirely of their own making.

Livingstone states that the implications of the active audience are further complicated by the apparent confusion between two positions, the in principle argument that audiences' constructive and interpretative practices represent a vital link in the societal circulation and reproduction of meanings and the empirical argument that audiences are in practice unpredictable, diverse or resistant. According to Livingstone the first position argues that micro and macro levels of analysis require an integrated theory of mediated communication. The second position argues that the empirical identification of resistance in decoding significantly challenges that analysis of power which maps power/ideology and powerlessness onto encoding and decoding respectively. Livingstone describes that the empirical case for this may be weaker than the claim merits, yet a reversal of the mapping (i.e. simply attributing more power to the audience) is equally untenable.

The focus on revisionist scholarship of audience reception, takes a shift towards a reconceptualization of audience as an active producer of meanings (Saeed, 2010). Saeed further explains quoting literature that before a message can have an effect, satisfy a “need” or be put to a “use”, it must first be appropriated as meaningful discourse and be meaningfully decoded. According to Saeed this raises two concerns: theoretical concern– the interpretive role of viewer in the communication process – and a methodological concern – to probe different interpretations of one media text and their influence on effects of that text,.

Under the framework of new audience research, viewer has taken a new value in media studies and research, Saeed says explaining, earlier assumptions about viewers are being challenged by findings that stress media contents does not allow us to predict with certainty how these contents will be interpreted. Research on pleasures of viewing, interaction between content and viewer and how viewers from different cultures and social backgrounds interpret the same media texts, support the conceptualization of the “active audience”, whose interpretive activity may mediate intended media effects with possible differential effects. (Shen, 2004)

There are many variables which play an important role in determining the interpretive activity of receivers and correlate with differential effects of media contents, (Chandler, 1995). Chandler has identified these factors including personality structure, cognitive style, gender, occupation, age, values, attitudes, religious beliefs, habits, intentions, current mental set and mood, long-term motivation, socio-economic status, cultural background, education, past experiences and so on.

Saeed explains that most of the researchers in cultural studies and reception analysts stressed contextual factors and reader psychologies rather than textual material as most important in illuminating the reading process or interpretation, . Similarly, Saeed agrees with Chandler in that perception studies explored many factors affecting the perceptions of the receivers. According to Saeed many researchers still give importance to the media texts and construction of meaning by the receivers.

The concept of audience reception must be elaborated further in relation to processes of both interpretation and comprehension, separating out

miscommunication and mistakes from divergence and creative meanings, argues Livingstone. The link between pleasure and reception requires further work, going beyond present uses and gratifications theory, to examine how pleasures may be gained from both familiarity and novelty, from closure and openness, from normativity and subversion, according to Livingstone.

Saeed asserts many qualitative researchers within cultural studies and critical audience tradition have acknowledged that audiences do not interact with media with a blank mind,. Audiences carry reference with them which can be memories, ideas, and pieces of information, feelings, sensations and images of course forming schematic structures in human mind, (Orozco, 1997). Orozco says this leads analysis in cognitive psychology focusing on the processes of perception, interpretation, information processing and working of schema. According to Orozco, information processing is constructive who and that people do not plainly encode and retrieve information that they read or hear in the media rather, as they comprehend, they interpret in accordance with their prior knowledge and beliefs and the context in which the message is received.

Part of what guides the comprehension is schema, (Harris, 1999). Harris further explains that schemas are knowledge structures and frameworks based on the past experiences that organize an individual's memory for people, events and issues. Harris says individuals are likely to go beyond the actual information actually presented, to draw inferences that are consistent with already held or formed schemas. According to Harris, individual schema on any issue is formed by attitudes, beliefs, biases, frame of reference, likes and dislikes individual differences, prior knowledge and experiences.

Saeed explains text contains an assortment of possible meanings, defined by both text and its audiences. A text functions only if it is read, only in and through the practice of reading, does the text have meaning (or several possible meanings) for the reader (Ang, 1996). Saeed argues that meaning is not in the media text but in the reading (Cited in Hanes, 2000). Saeed says that audiences are constructing and conveying information for the media and if it were not for the audiences, the media would not exist. Saeed cites literature review to assert that media messages both text

and pictures are polysemic and open to various interpretation and audience play an active role in their understanding and explanation.

Saeed stated when the preferred or intended meaning of the text (picture) is consistent with the schematic structure of the respondent, its effect is powerful, in the sense that individuals make dominant reading of the text. Saeed further asserts that this reinforces audiences' opinion as they express their reactions which are consistent with the thought depicted in the picture.

Studying the audience perception of a western owned TV station broadcasting in the Middle East, Aziz Douai, (2011) says that objectivity, diversity, professionalism, elitism and credibility affect audience interest in selecting specific media. Douai says that objectivity and professionalism were inseparable in the sense that professionalism presupposed certain levels of objectivity, impartiality, and neutrality. Douai argues that without these steps, "objectivity" would be merely empty talk. Douai also raises "Elitism" as another frequent factors that come out in his study of audience perception of a media. Douai also raises the theme of "legitimate news source" versus a "propaganda tool" another factor audiences judge media and decide whether or not to attend the programming.

People tend to trust news media that they use more often or prefer to use more often (Bralley, 2010). Bralley adds as an example that online news users have been found to trust online news more than television news viewers trust television news and more than newspaper readers trust newspapers. However, Bralley says that the frequency of media use might not indicate that the news consumer finds a particular medium to be more credible. Kiouisis (2001) found a marginal connection between media use and the perceptions of credibility. Kiouisis' says that there is stronger positive correlations between frequency of use and media credibility perception with Internet use and newspaper use, but did not reveal this correlation with television use. Kiouisis says this indicates that more news consumers who primarily and frequently turn to the Internet or the print product for their news perceive those outlets to be more credible than those who primarily and frequently turn to the television for news.

Roland E. Rice and Charles K. Atkin (2001) in their book Public Communication Campaigns explain that credibility, attractiveness and power of message sources (campaign implementers) positively affect perception of campaign messages by

enhancing persuasive impact (Rice & Atkin, 2001). They affect perception by three processes that are internalization, identification and compliance, respectively, according to Rice & Atkin. Credibility, explains Rice & Atkin, derives from the source's perceived expertise and trustworthiness, i.e. the source appearing to know the facts on the issue. Rice & Atkin describes perceived source expertise in turn derives from characteristics such as the source's general education level, and familiarity with the subject matter and speaking in an authoritative tone. According to Rice & Atkin perceived trustworthiness, on the other hand, derives from the source's general reputation for honesty, being in a trustworthy profession, not standing to profit personally from convincing the audience, and so forth. Rice & Atkin also described perceived attractiveness (likeableness) derives from qualities such as the source's pleasantness, familiarity, and similarity. They also noted that perceived power is a positive function of the source's control over the listener's rewards and punishments, desire for the audience's compliance and ability to monitor the extent of this compliance.

Another scholar, McStay, (2010) raises contextual relevance is another factor explaining anything that impairs efficient interactions between advertisers and consumers such as timing, placement or size of advertisement, can affect perception and be viewed as clutter.

In educated societies, the human brain has been trained to analyze text in a way that a reader is able to interpret writing as whatever he or she sees in the meaning of the words by analyzing the context in which the text was written, (Sullivan, 2008). Sullivan further explains that through teaching people to read and analyze literature, the educated society has become more accustomed to picking apart the words they are reading. Sullivan says that same process, however, does not hold true for the human perception of images. Sullivan noted through societal norms, we have grown accustomed to accept images as truth without using the same analytical process to pick apart images in the way we do text,.

Nowadays, audiences are exposed to various media outlets including print, broadcast and Internet but they have their own reasons for choosing a given media and not others, (Nigatu, 2014). Nigatu indicates various motives for choosing media including for amusement, information, social contact, excitement, involvement, etc. In general

Nigatu argues, similar to uses-and-gratification approaches, that audience are active and goal oriented. Nigatu says that audience members are largely responsible for choosing media to meet their own needs audience know their needs and how to gratify those needs.

Individuals who have perceptions of media bias will take into account the source of the news when formulating opinions of any ideological slant in the news content, argues (Devaney, 2013). Devaney posited that when the issue is controversial, individuals perceive bias in the news are more likely to believe that bias is against their own ideology. Devaney as many other researchers coined this notion as the hostile-media phenomenon. Devaney says thus, in addition to elite attacks, individual partisanship and ideologies are other factors impacting our perceptions of media bias.

Devaney argues media bias is driven by consumer preferences for politically slanted news, and that evidence reveals how market competition and profit-maximizing incentives are some of the factors at play when privately owned news outlets tailor their news content to the ideological preferences of its audience. Devaney adds that there is a relationship between consumer demand for slant (based on their own ideology) and the newspaper's response by supplying that slant. Thus according to Devaney the result of this being that newsroom convergence reduces the amount of journalists covering any particular story in other words a less diverse news media over more homogenous channels.

Audiences' own perceptions of bias can certainly be a factor when perceiving media bias, Devaney describes how the hostile media effect happens when social identity and perceptions function as a filter through which people perceive the outside world. Yet the nature of that apparent bias in the news varies (Eveland and Shah, 2003). Eveland and Shah (2003) found in their research that a range of individual-level factors have led to perceptions of media bias in the absence of objective media bias, such as the strength of partisanship.

Devaney also asserts that the modern communication realities and technologies have changed the way news media reaches its audiences and delivers its messages. According to Devaney the effects of managed messages, targeted audiences, and

proliferated news channels have left the modern media environment more polarized than ever before.

Audience reception and reader-response theories have made clear, text and reader are interdependent, mutually conceived, and joint constructors of meaning (Livingstone, 1993). Livingstone states rather than conceiving of powerful texts and passive viewers or of indeterminate texts and powerful viewers, a negotiated position is required which recognizes the complexity of interaction between text and viewer, where encoding may differ radically from decoding.

The appropriation of communication technologies into domestic spaces raises issues of gender, culture and power which frame the ways in which they are experienced and used (Silverstone and Hirsch, 1992). Silverstone & Hirsch asserts that the phenomenon of para-social interaction, for example, means that we must now ask about rather than presume that we understand the overlapping processes which underlie both mass and interpersonal communications.

Livingstone describes there are diverse viewers and viewing styles, undermining the generic category of 'viewer'. Livingstone asserts that mass audiences in studies have been shown to be significantly heterogeneous, particularly in relation to gender, class, culture and age, but also in relation to cognitions, involvement and styles of viewing, as both reception and ethnographic research have demonstrated.

Livingstone states the notion of the active viewer can be taken too far, neglecting the constraining action of the text or treating trivial variations among readings as theoretically important. Livingstone argues that there needs to be adequate analysis of power relations among social groups, any divergence in interpretation may be seen as a sign of political opposition or subversion of the status quo, given a hegemonic analysis of the preferred reading of the text.

According to Livingstone the boundaries of the text sometimes threaten to dissolve altogether, once we recognize problems of intertextuality, textual coverings, and zipping and zapping across program flow,. Livingstone says that the same goes for the notion of "audience" when the surprising diversity of viewing practices are revealed.

According to Livingstone, separation between cause and effect cannot be sustained once we allow text and audience or media and everyday life to become intertwined. Livingstone argues if meanings are negotiated between text and reader rather than imposed by the text and submitted to or deflected by the reader, if everyday life is constituted within a media-dominated environment rather than affected by it, then we need new ways of asking about the social operation of power. Livingstone argues we better start asking how particular audience groups engage in different ways with particular forms and genres of the mass media in different contexts.

According to Harlow et al audiences are open to engaging the media texts in new and different ways. Harlow et al noted many organizations were successful when they provided new avenues for audiences to find a “way in” to their art. adding as an example that creating unique social gatherings that encourage discussions among audiences, facilitating critical thinking and dialogue about the media text, and providing interactive and educational programs to introduce new audiences to the media texts.

Bob Harlow, (2014), listed ways in which the number and interest of audiences can be raised. Harlow says one way is recognizing when change is needed, as audiences need change, new things, new ideas, and we should be able to provide that. Harlow mentioned another method which is fitting the target audience with the messages, or compatibility. Here the term compatibility has two meanings: first, organizations need to believe, based on research or prior experience, that they could make a meaningful connection with the target audience. Then secondly, organizations’ leaders need to agree that serving the audience reinforced the mission and did not compromise.

According to Harlow another method for attracting audiences is determining what kinds of barriers need to be removed. Harlow asserts that we need to identify the types of barriers impeding the target audience’s participation and shape our strategies accordingly. Harlow says taking out the guesswork and knowing and understanding our audience is another method. According to Harlow research will help to clarify and know the audience, rather than guess, using audience research, organizations gained a clearer understanding of their target group’s interests, lifestyles, gender, attitudes toward the media, cultural involvement and opinions of the organization.

Harlow notes that thinking through the relationship and communicating with the audience helps. Organizations would benefit from clearly communicating their vision and mission of the relationship they wanted to cultivate with the audience, including specific roles for the audience and themselves. By doing so, says Harlow, they gave their audience-building initiatives structure and a sense of purpose.

According to Harlow providing multiple ways/mediums of accessing the messages would help both organizations and the audiences. Harlow explained many organizations generated interest by making connections to things that their target audience already knew or by showing them different sides of their institutions,.

Harlow states results from media programs that were studied found that addressing perceptions was the key to attracting disinclined audiences, removing practical barriers boosted attention among inclined audiences. Harlow asserts that time and again, research reveals that the biggest barriers for a disinclined audience are indifference and low familiarity adding that practical barriers, such as a lack of money, or time, could also be likely affecting audiences.

Harlow argues by focusing on a specific audience, organizations were able to tailor their strategies to that group's interests and lifestyles, adding these strategies first broke down the barriers that repelled the audiences away then built a meaningful connection with them. According to Harlow, some organizations went as far as articulating a vision of the relationship they wanted to have with the audience. Harlow emphasized it often takes time for organizations to learn what really clicks with a certain audience, then it takes additional time to gain traction with that audience and develop a strong following, even with a well-designed and executed strategy.

According to Echterhoff, Higgins & Groll (2005), successful communication requires that communicators take into account each other's characteristics, such as the other's presumed knowledge, intentions, and attitudes. Echterhoff et al. explains one of the ways in which communicators express such mutual appreciation is to adapt their messages to the audience, a phenomenon referred to as audience design or audience tuning.

Zimmerman & Bauer (1956) seemed to suggest that merely knowing the attitude of an anticipated audience affects what participants remember from an ambiguous stimulus text. However, Higgins and Rholes (1978) found that the saying-is-believing effect disappeared when participants did not actually produce the message they anticipated transmitting to their audience.

According to Echterhoff, et al., even though a communicator produces a biased account, he or she may not regard it as a reliable or valid representation of the target person. After sending the audience-congruent message, the audience signals disagreement or does not seem to accept the message. In this case, says Echterhoff et al, the audiences' behavior is apparently inconsistent with his/her attitude. Echterhoff et al. explains after the audience has displayed such inconsistency concerning the evaluation of the target person, the communicator is left wondering whether the evaluative tone of the message reflects the actual characteristics of the target person. According to Echterhoff et al. the audience-tailored view expressed in the message would cease to appear as reliable communicators may tune their messages to comply with rules of politeness, etiquette, or political correctness.

Echterhoff et al argues a communicator's voices about the target person may not appear to her/him as "real," either because of the audience's feedback, rendering the audience-tailored view unreliable, or because of the audience's perceived inaptness as a source of valid information about the target person. Echterhoff et al. say drawing attention to this interpersonal dimension of reality construction communicators often produce audience-congruent messages to form a representation that is shared with the audience.

Echterhoff et al. noted that from this perspective, the intended and successful creation of a shared reality between the communicator and the audience is a central mechanism driving the audience-tuning effect on subsequent representations of the communication topic

For instance, Echterhoff et al. mention that individual beliefs and opinions are experienced as valid when they are shared by others who are sufficiently similar to it. According to Echterhoff et al. it appears that shared meaning construction is initiated

when external reality is ambiguous and difficult to grasp, such as when no physical reality is available to determine the validity of one's beliefs.

Echterhoff et al. explain that when people establish a shared reality with another person, they can trust the other's view of things, allowing them to predicate their own judgment and action, at least in part, on the other's assessment of the world, trusting or relying on the other can initiate the formation of a new relationship or maintain already existing relationships. According to Echterhoff et al. the benefit of a socially shared reality extends beyond the purely epistemic dimension (i.e., replacing uncertain representations with reliable and valid representations) to the extent that it also fosters interpersonal trust and reliance on each other's view of the world.

Sonia Livingstone, in her book *Television and the Active Audience* (2007) argue that audiences must interpret what they see even to construct the message as meaningful and orderly, however routine this interpretation may be. She goes on to say that audiences diverge in their interpretations, generating different understandings from the same text. According to Livingstone, the experience of viewing stands at the interface between the media (and their interpretations) and the rest of viewers' lives, with all the concerns, experiences and knowledge which this involves.

D. Morley, in his research "The Nationwide audience: Structure and decoding", (1980) says that audience readings or decoding of the media text, showed how audiences diverged as a function of their socio-economic or labor position. In Morley's research, bank managers and schoolboys were found to make the most normative readings, consistent with the ideologically dominant assumptions which structured the program. Morley adds trainee teachers and trade union officials made politically inconsistent, ambivalent or negotiated readings. According to Morley other groups, for example shoppers, took a clearly oppositional position, using the resources of the text to construct a critical reading quite unintended by the text. Morley explained that a few viewers were wholly alienated from the text as it did not afford them a reading congruent with their own cultural position. This division of audience reception into dominant, negotiated and oppositional positions (Hall, 1980), has influenced much subsequent research.

Livingstone says for example, research on social cognition reveals people's biases towards seeking confirmatory rather than falsifying evidence to fit their preconceptions as well as their 'scripted' knowledge of standard event sequences. It also shows how they draw on cognitive story grammars to interpret narrative (van Dijk, 1987), on attributional schemas to understand causality (Kelley, 1972), and how they use a variety of interpretative heuristics to determine the relevance and typicality of the events portrayed (Kahneman, 1982).

Livingstone argues as social knowledge is shared within, indeed is constituted by the activities of, groups or cultures, theorizing the role of the viewer in this way avoids the psychological reductionism which implies that audience readings are entirely unpredictable or idiosyncratic. Livingstone states consequently, we can use social cognition to explain how and why viewers who differ in gender, class or culture actually achieve their divergent readings, for these differences in social context are manifested in the interpretative resources of the viewers,.

Livingstone asserts that using similar assumptions, researchers who check the psychological reality of content analyses ask whether particular contents are accurately received by viewers, says. Livingstone emphasizes that these questions are rather different from those focused on 'interpretation' which typify audience reception studies. For such studies, interpretation rather concerns evaluation, contextualization, connotation and the many divergences in opinion or perspective that also contribute to the process of 'making sense of media text'.

But if we want to know what meanings are actually generated through media exposure and what resources direct the construction of those meanings, rather than whether a priori meanings are successfully transmitted or not, we should analyze the viewers in context and focus on the connotation level of the text for which it is more likely that "situational ideologies alter and transform signification (Hall, 1980). Livingstone states whether one studies comprehension (of denotation) or interpretation (of connotation) should depend less on whether one adheres in principle to a transmission or a ritual model of communication than on which aspects of-the text or audience are relevant to one's research questions,.

Livingstone described that the link between comprehension and interpretation is twofold and comprehension of the basic narrative is a prerequisite for the more differentiated or motivated modes of interpretation which emerges when audiences begin to make more subtle judgements about genre, about the realism of what is portrayed and about the relation between the drama and their own lives. Providing more explanation Livingstone says through the interpretation of these more subtle, connotative aspects of programs, older children can incorporate media content into their relations with friends and family.

Wolf Brown (2011) in his "Audience Impact study: Literature review", argues that audiences' experiences and immediate emotional response to an event can be described in a number of ways, including positive, negative, neutral and feeling happy, engagement, flow, savoring the moment, and satisfaction. Feeling happy is strongly associated with higher positive response to an event, and less so with lower negative affect or neutral state, (Brown, 2011).

According to Brown, we can define audience engagement as a three-dimensional construct consisting of: vigor, dedication and absorption. He characterized vigor by high levels of energy, effort, resilience, persistence, and motivation to invest in the work. Brown characterized dedication by involvement in the work, enthusiasm, and a sense of pride and inspiration. Brown assert that absorption is characterized by immersion in one's work and the sense of time passing quickly.

Brown says similar to audience engagement flow is based on mastering one's emotions. Brown defines flow as the mental state in which an audience is fully immersed in a feeling of energized focus, full involvement, and success.

Brown describes during savoring the moment, audiences focus on positive events as they occur so as to increase, intensify, or prolong positive emotions. Brown explains that savoring the moment is closely related to mindful perception of audiences' experiences, but restricted to positive response whereas mindfulness focuses on any and every emotion and experience by audience.

Brown says that satisfaction and happiness together describe audiences experience of an event. Happiness relates to affect, whereas satisfaction relates to cognition.

Brown says the difference between want and need is fulfillment. Happiness declines with age while life satisfaction goes up.

According to Brown, we can also draw a distinction between happiness and experienced utility. Happiness differs from utility in at least three ways says Brown listing them as happiness is more comprehensive; happiness is about experienced well-being, and utility is about expected well-being.

Rewards and efforts: Audiences often need to trade-off between the magnitude and the probability of a reward for their investment (Kivetz 2003). Brown says that consider frequency programs that require effort (completing surveys, shopping) and offer rewards, audiences are more likely to prefer rewards even to routine activities they perform daily.

Reviewing a message "Smoking can cause cancer" with an image that has two elements in it, one is lung picture and other is litter box, Sharma, Bhosle, & Chaudhary, (2012) say that there is no obvious relation between the images and the viewer. Rather the viewer's mind experience those two elements together and make appropriate and meaningful connection on its own.

According to Sharma, et al. almost 75% of whole information processed in brain is basically visual, state Sharma, et al. There are researches in visual processing and the implication of how the visual system functions for people in modern times trying to navigate the visual environment,

Barry (2005) also asserts that heavy volume of exposure towards visual adverts may be productive when we know about how the information is processed by the visual system. Barry explains how market is full of visual imagery trying to persuade; brands are portrayed extensively with the use of images and a number of products are made in such a way to correspond visually. Visual consumption, says Barry, often involves mere looking without comprehension, gazing without knowledge, and watching without engagement, (Schroeder, 2002).

Sharma, et al. study showed when the advertisements were shown in a pure visual form without any cognitive load, advertisements were rated most effective (with more

information) than in other situation. According to Sharma, et al. contrarily, when these advertisements were shown in a verbal format, participants rated them poorly, Sharma et al asserts that in addition, in comparison of how visual and verbal advertisements are processed, visual advertisements have advantages because of their ability to communicate a big amount of information almost immediately. They assert that imagery used in advertisements could be more persuasive than similar information communicated by verbal form.

Edegoh, & Ezeh (2013) argue that one of the great benefits of outdoor advertising is that it does not interrupt consumers in any way, because there is no obnoxious sound, smell or any type of negative attention grabber. Edegoh, & Ezeh says billboards get noticed because of their messages, bright bold color and creative graphics. According to Edegoh, & Ezeh, the benefits of billboard include, high visual impact, low cost, high product visibility, high frequency, and immediate message delivery. If placed in the right location, billboard advertising can increase traffic to your business, familiarize customers with your brand/product/service, and attract new customers who make impulsive buying, says Edegoh, & Ezeh.

Edegoh, & Ezeh say that billboard media has the potential to capture the attention of the audience on the go, adding that billboard messages are always there increasing their chances of being recalled as audiences can see them over and over again. Edegoh, & Ezeh in their study found that women compare the models used in billboard advertisement to themselves in terms of physical attractiveness, beauty etc ... rather than focusing on the messages.

Both male and female audiences evaluate the depiction of different elements in an image more favorably (Reichert, 2002). According to Reichert, when analyzing the sexual content in social advertisement, it appears that female audiences evaluate nudity more favorably than male who also added apart from nudity females are more sensitive towards the content of image whether it is a gore, shocking elements or emotional elements. Males are more sensitive towards the cause behind the social advertising image.

Reichert's study revealed that the overall perception of audiences towards image in social advertising campaigns is positive and that shocking elements attract attention

and interest of audiences. Reichert's finding also shows that respondents were more engaging, interesting and involving once they started to get the logic behind the social advertising images.

Another finding of Edegoh, & Ezeh's study is audiences can only recall what they have paid attention to, and they can only pay attention to what they have perceived. Edegoh, & Ezeh explain that perception itself is a product of exposure, for somebody to recall media message, he/she has to be exposed to it, perceive it, and attend to it before recall takes place.

Sharma et al stated in general there could be three different concepts for the development of social campaigns: cognitive, affective, and behavioral approach. Sharma et al also said that after the presentation of a message the information first need to be processed by the audience (Information Processing) and after that communication professionals tend to make use of basic linear models of persuasion.

Campaigns can seek to modify either the social, cognitive, or motivational precursors to unsafe behaviors, and/or the perceived consequences of unsafe behavior, (Harrison & Senserrick, 2000). Harrison & Senserrick notes that in general, attitudes may be viewed as a positive or negative evaluation of an attitude object (message, media material or a person). Harrison & Senserrick states a general definition such as this leads to an assessment method based on scales that measure responses such as good/bad, positive/negative, and like/dislike.

According to Harrison & Senserrick, general evaluative attitudes are more-accurately viewed as the summation of a large number of different responses to an attitude object that may be categorized as: cognitive responses, emotional responses and behavioral responses. Harrison & Senserrick explain that cognitive responses are finer levels of judgement about the attitude object, such as evaluations of it in terms of its logic, reasonableness, importance, or effectiveness. The emotional responses include fear, anxiety, happiness, or sadness while the behavioral responses are the actual behaviors resulting from exposure to the attitude object, explain Harrison & Senserrick.

An attitude object that evoked, for example, positive cognitive, behavioral, and emotional responses would be evaluated positively in general terms says Harrison & Senserrick adding that stronger and weaker, positive and negative general evaluations or attitudes would be the result of different combinations of positive and negative responses in the three areas.

Other factors, according to Rice & Atkin include sources attractiveness in facial expressions, physique, costume, and females to male communications and the vice versa. Sex effects in persuasion have been studied focusing on the persuadability of male versus female than on the persuasiveness of male versus female sources (Eagly, 1983; Eagly & Carli 1981). Male sources may have more persuasive impact than female sources even on female audiences (Dion & Stein, 1978; Lincoln, 1977). McGuire says women are slightly more influenceable than men, but the difference is so slight as to be unimportant. It seems that audience ethnicity has even less intrinsic impact on influenceability than does sex.

Rice and Atkin raise message style factors that affect reception of audiences such as the message's clarity, literalness, figurativeness, vividness, and humorousness. They also add that figurative language adds to persuasive impact but debated whether the mechanism was source credibility, positive mood, enhanced attention, or some other mechanism.

Going beyond the repetition of identical material to increasing the amount of material has added cost but diminishing return and set-in quite early by three to five repetitions perhaps because beyond the first reception repetitive presentations of the message tends to evoke increasing number of negative thoughts about the product or focus of the message, (Calder & Sternthal, 1980). Information overload research raises "more is less" possibility that the vast number of messages impinging on the public may reduce meaningful reception (Malhotra, 1984). Rice and Atkin added that other context effects arise when health messages are presented within the context of entertainment and information programs. They explain that actors, messages before and after the intended message, mood of the audience evoked by the program may cause undesired effects on reception. Rick and Atkin added another contextual factor saying that situational clutter of life, environment, background music, temperature/weather in which the health messages are presented might enhance or reduce persuasive impact.

Johnson and Kaye (1998) examined age in relation to credibility and found that age was significantly related to credibility judgments. Johnson and Kay assert that as age increased, respondents perceived online newspapers, news magazines, and candidate literature to be less credible.

2.4. Theoretical Framework

University of Minnesota communication professor Ernest Bormann (Griffin, 2012) defines communications theory as “an umbrella term for all careful, systematic, and self-conscious discussion and analysis of communication phenomena. According to Griffin theory is a set of systematic, informed hunches about the way things,. Baran and Davis (2010) define theory as any organized set of concepts, explanations, and principles of some aspect of human experience. A theory according to Asemah (2009) is a set of interrelated constructs, definitions and prepositions that present a systematic view of a phenomenon or explanation and prediction of a phenomenon. Therefore, the agenda and development media theories have been chosen to provide the theoretical framework for this paper.

In this study, of factors affecting audience perception of communication campaign messages aimed to prevent HIV/AIDS transmission, two theories will provide the framework: Social cognitive theory (explaining how audiences learn from messages), protection motivation theory (explaining why audiences learn and adopt to practice messages).

2.4.1. Social Cognitive Theory:

History and Orientation: In 1941, Neal E. Miller and John Dollard proposed the theory of social learning based on the conceptual roots for social cognitive theory that came from Edwin B. Holt and Harold Chapman Brown in 1931. In 1963 Albert Bandura and Richard Walters broadened the social learning theory with the principles of observational learning and vicarious reinforcement. Bandura provided his concept of self-efficacy in 1977, while he refuted the traditional learning theory for understanding learning. The theory explains that portions of an individual's knowledge acquisition can be directly related to observing others within the context of social interactions, experiences, and outside media influences.

Core Assumptions and Statements: The social cognitive theory explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioral patterns, while also providing the basis for intervention strategies (Bandura, 1997). In social learning theory Bandura asserts behavior is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning. Bandura explains three factors, environment, people and behavior are constantly influencing each other to change behavior.

Scope and Application: According to Bandura, (1977), the Social Cognitive Theory is relevant for designing health education and health behavior programs. This theory explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioral patterns. The theory can also be used for providing the basis for intervention strategies.

Social Cognitive Theory and mass communications effects: In their study, “Media Effects: Advances in Theory and Research”, Bryant, & Zillman, (2004) stated that in Social Cognitive Theory, “symbolic modeling is central to full understanding of the effects of mass communication.” Bryant, & Zillman described four major sub-functions that govern observational learning: attentional processes, retention processes, production processes, and motivational processes.

In this research as the social learning theory explained, female sex workers coming from rural areas with little knowledge about HIV, its risk, and how to prevent it learn from their environment, their peers and their activities to sustain their lives. Some of their have already accessed information about HIV so as soon as new comes join the professions, they talk about the dangers of HIV over coffee ceremonies and other occasions. Some of the new comers also learn where to buy condoms, what clinic to go to in case of need, where to test HIV status from the campaign messages and the peer educators. In addition accidents happen during work such as condoms breaks. When this happens, the new women ask the peer educators or their neighbors about what to do and act as advised. The campaign also uses this theory as a framework to educate the FSWs. The theory explains how the cognitive aspects are affected by the messages and the emotional aspects of performing the behavior.

2.4.2. Protection Motivation Theory

History and Orientation: According to Rogers (1975) Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) was originally proposed to provide conceptual clarity to the understanding of fear appeals. Later Rogers revised the theory to extend it to a more general theory of persuasive communication, with an emphasis on the cognitive processes mediating behavioral change.

Core Assumptions and Statements: Protection Motivation Theory according to Rogers is a partially based on the work of Lazarus (1966) and Leventhal (1970) and describes adaptive and maladaptive coping with a health threat as a result of two appraisal processes. Rogers says that these are process of threat appraisal and a process of coping appraisal, in which the behavioral options to diminish the threat are evaluated. Rogers described the appraisal of the health threat and the appraisal of the coping responses result in the intention to perform adaptive responses (protection motivation) or may lead to maladaptive responses. According to Rogers Maladaptive responses are those that place an individual at health risk and they include behaviors that lead to negative consequences (e.g. smoking) and the absence of behaviors, which eventually may lead to negative consequences (e.g. not participating in HIV status testing).

In his Protection Motivation Theory, Rogers proposes that the intention to protect oneself depends upon four factors: The perceived severity of a threatened event (e.g., HIV infection); The perceived probability of the occurrence, or vulnerability (in this example, the perceived vulnerability of the individual to HIV infection); The efficacy of the recommended preventive behavior (the perceived response efficacy); The perceived self-efficacy (i.e., the level of confidence in one's ability to undertake the recommended preventive behavior).

Scope and Application: Roger states that the PMT can be used for influencing and predicting various behaviors. He added that the PMT can be used in health-related behaviors and the main features of application to date are reducing alcohol use, enhancing healthy lifestyles, enhancing diagnostic health behaviors and preventing disease.

Protection Motivation Theory and mass communications: Rogers explain the theory in the context of mass media raises the issues of content elements of a hazard's

severity, likelihood of occurring, and the effectiveness of preventive actions. In addition, he showed in the theory that information about levels of risk, severity, and efficacy combined jointly to produce greater rates of willingness to take actions designed to avoid the hazard.

Protection motivation theory considers that behavior and attitudes can be changed through a cognitive mediating process following fear-arousing stimuli which could be an information or message from media. As Rogers stated, threat and coping appraisals are made as the magnitude of the harmful event, the probability of the event occurring and the belief in the efficacy of a protective response are considered. Protection motivation has been described by Rogers as “an intervening variable that ... arouses, sustains, and directs activity.”

In this research Protection Motivation Theory, provided the framework for understanding how the campaign messages helped the women to understand the perceived severity of HIV infection as well as increasing their perception of their vulnerability to HIV infection due to their work. In addition the theory also helps to understand how the campaign messages increased the knowledge of the women about how to prevent the infection as well as increasing their self-efficacy by teaching them each steps they have to perform, and where to get services or assistance to perform the recommended actions.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

3.1. Research Methods

If audience research is to have broader impact, it becomes imperative to recognize where other domains of theory and research depend, implicitly or explicitly, on arguments about audiences and thus to frame audience research so that it addresses them productively, (Livingstone, 1998). In studying the effectiveness of campaigns, the perspective from the campaign strategy is as important as from the perspective of the audiences who are actually the intended targets of the messages.

According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), combining quantitative and qualitative research techniques, in a single study is inclusive, pluralistic, and complementary and it suggests that researchers take an eclectic approach to method selection and the thinking about and conduct of research. Catharine Dawson (2002) states combining both qualitative and quantitative research, which is called triangulation, is a good way of approaching research as it enables us to counteract the weaknesses in both qualitative and quantitative research.

Using qualitative and quantitative approaches helps to yield efficient data collection procedures, to create the possibility of replication and generalization to a population, to facilitate the comparison of groups, and to provide insight into a breadth of experiences, (Creswell, Klassen, Clark, Smith, 2010).

In this chapter, the researcher attempts to demonstrate the approaches and methods used in this descriptive cross-sectional study, aiming to identify sources of information and media preferences of the target audiences and to identify the factors facilitating or hindering target audiences' perception of campaign messages from print and IPC materials. For these purposes, a mixed approach of quantitative and qualitative approaches was employed with methods including structured questionnaire, and in-depth interviews.

3.1.1. Qualitative Methods

Catherine Dawson in her book *Practical Research Methods: A user friendly guide to mastering Research* (2002) explains that qualitative research explores attitudes, behavior and experiences through such methods as interviews. Dawson says It

attempts to get an in-depth opinion of fewer number of participants, but the contact with study populations tends to last a lot longer.

Qualitative research is concerned with the social aspects of our world and seeks to answer questions such as why people behave the way they do, how opinions and attitudes are formed, how people are affected by the events that go on around them, how and why cultures and practices have developed in the way they have, (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2007). Hancock et al. states that qualitative research can take different perspectives on board, studies behavior in natural settings or uses people's accounts as data and focuses on reports of experience or on data which cannot be adequately expressed numerically,

Hancock et al. described that arising criticisms of qualitative approach, say that qualitative results may not be generalizable to a larger population because the sample group was small and the participants were not chosen randomly. However, Hancock et al also stated that if the original research question sought insight into a specific subgroup of the population, not the general population, because of the subgroup's specific feature, then the small sample may have been appropriate.

Fraser (2004) explains where research questions are not based on assumptions about the existence of a single reality but aim to uncover a 'plurality of truths' then qualitative methods may be more appropriate in offering an explanation of causal relationships. By tracing the processes that have contributed to differing participants' experiences and by collecting participants' own explanations of what has happened to them, it is possible to understand why people behave as they do in particular situations or in response to certain stimuli or interventions, (Moriarty, 2011).

The small but important details and complexities about the research subjects and/or topic are discovered that are often missed by more positivistic enquiries, (Anderson, 2010). Anderson lists qualitative research limitations as: heavily dependent on the individual skills of the researcher and more easily influenced by the researcher's personal biases and idiosyncrasies, rigor is more difficult to maintain, assess, and demonstrate, the volume of data makes analysis and interpretation time consuming.

A salient strength of qualitative research is its focus on the contexts and meaning of human lives and experiences for the purpose of inductive or theory-development driven research, (Creswell, Klassen, Clark, Smith, 2010).

In this study, the qualitative approach with in-depth-interview method was employed to understand why FSW prefer certain sources of information over others for learning about HIV/AIDS, to explore if FSWs are or not practicing what they have learned from the messages and to explore behavioral and attitudinal reasons for the factors that affect the FSWs perception of messages. The number of qualitative study participants were smaller than the quantitative part but more was spent with the FSWs to go over questions thoroughly. Studying the way audiences perceive messages incorporates understanding and analyzing the individual perspectives, explanations and expectations making qualitative approach more appropriate.

3.1.2. Quantitative Methods

Quantitative research generates statistics through the use of survey research, using methods such as questionnaires or structured interviews, (Dawson, 2002). Dawson states this type of research reaches more people than qualitative, but the contact with those people is much quicker than qualitative research,.

Quantitative research: takes account of complexity by precise definition of the focus of interest and techniques; uses statistical techniques that allow us to talk about how likely it is that something is “true” for a given population in an objective or measurable sense focuses on cause and effect; and requires the research process to be defined in advance, (Hancock, Ockleford, & Windridge, 2007).

The nature of quantitative research and its evidence is a mode of inquiry used often for deductive research, gather descriptive information, or examine relationships among variables, (Creswell, Klassen, Clark, Smith, 2010). Creswell et al. adds that these variables are measured and yield numeric data that can be analyzed statistically. Creswell et al. states quantitative data have the potential to provide measurable evidence, to help to establish (probable) cause and effect.

In this study, the quantitative method with survey questionnaire was used to identify the factors that facilitate or hinder the audience perception of communications campaign messages from posters, brochures, leaflets and IPC, to identify the sources

of HIV information for the FSWs, and to identify how many of the HIV prevention methods the FSWs could mention from the campaign.

3.2. Data Collection Tools

Since the object of research, particularly the applied research, it to arrive at a solution for a given problem, the available data and the unknown aspects of the problem have to be related to each other to make a solution possible, says Kothari.

3.2.1. In-Depth Interviews

In-depth interviews are optimal for collecting data on individuals' personal histories, perspectives, and experiences, particularly when sensitive topics are being explored, (Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest, & Namey, 2005). Mack et al. add the researcher's interviewing techniques are motivated by the desire to learn everything the participant can share about the qualitative research topic.

Mack et al. described that strength of in-depth interviews include being able to elicit in-depth responses, with nuances and contradictions, gets at interpretive perspective, i.e., the connections and relationships a person sees between particular events, phenomena, and beliefs, appropriate for eliciting individual experiences, opinions, feelings Addressing sensitive topics. According to Kemper et al., other strengths include good for measuring attitudes, allows probing by the interviewer, can provide in-depth information, allows good interpretive validity, low rate of unusable data for closed-ended interviews, moderately high measurement validity for well-constructed and well-tested interview protocols, can be used with probability sampling, relatively high response rates often attainable and useful for exploration and confirmation.

Kemper et al listed the weaknesses as in-person interviews expensive and time-consuming, possible reactive and investigator effects, possibly low perceived anonymity by respondents, data analysis sometimes time-consuming for open-ended items and measures in need of validation.

In the qualitative part of this study, to guide the in-depth interview, open ended questions were developed and used considering the closed-ended questions raised in the quantitative part. The in-depth interview questions were designed to probe and elicit the reasons, attitudes and opinions of respondents regarding the factors affecting audience perception of campaign messages.

Trained and experienced research assistants were to conduct the interviews. They were engaged with participants by posing questions in a neutral manner, listening attentively to participants' responses, and asking follow-up questions and probing based on those responses. The researchers were trained not to lead participants in answering the questions, and not to encourage participants to provide particular answers by expressing approval or disapproval of what they say. The research assistants/interviewers (males-2 and female-3) are familiar of the respondents, the work and the area. The in-depth- interviews were timed to take 55 minutes.

3.2.2. Survey-Questionnaires

The questionnaire is a well-established tool within social science research for acquiring information on participant social characteristics, present and past behavior, standards of behavior or attitudes and their beliefs and reasons for action with respect to the topic under investigation (Bulmer, 2004). Bulmer adds that the questionnaire is a popular and fundamental tool for acquiring information on knowledge and perception. Kemper et al said that a questionnaire is a list of written questions that can be completed in the absence of the researcher (for anonymity), or respondents could be asked to complete the questionnaire by verbally responding to questions in the presence of the researcher. Dawson describes this variation as structured interview.

According to Kemper et al., the strengths of using questionnaires is that they are good for measuring attitudes and eliciting other content from research participants, its inexpensive, can be administered to probability samples, it has quick turnaround, can be administered to groups, perceived anonymity by respondents, moderately high measurement validity for well-constructed and well-tested questionnaires, low drop rate for closed-ended questionnaires and ease of data analysis for closed-ended items.

Kemper et al. describes that some of the weaknesses also include needs validation, must be kept short, might have missing data, possible reactive effects (e.g., response sets, social desirability), non-response to selective items, response rate possibly low for anonymously sent questionnaires, open-ended items possibly resulting in vague answers, open-ended items possibly reflecting differences in verbal ability, obscuring the issues of interest and data analysis sometimes time-consuming for open-ended items.

In the quantitative survey, closed-ended questionnaire was used with Likert scale to measure the attitudes of the respondents towards the factors that affect audience perceptions, demographic characteristics of the FSWs, their primary sources of HIV information, their preferred media, and how many of the HIV prevention methods the FSWs can mention (from the six communicated through the campaign). The same five trained and experienced data collectors will be used to fill in the questionnaire.

3.3. Study Area

The study categorizes the FSWs based on their area of operation into home, establishment and street based. The study describes that the establishment based is further categorized into hotels, bars, Tella Bet, Areque Bet, Shisha and Zig Betoche, as well as Massage Parlors and others. Of the total number of self-identified FSWs in Addis Ababa, according to the study, home-based FSWs are about 35%. The study estimates that in Kolfe Keranio and Addis Ketema sub cities, there are about 3,440 FSWs, with the largest concentration of home-based FSWs with the most heterogeneous demographic characteristics found in Kolfe Keranio sub-city. The other main reason for selecting this location is the high prevalence of HIV positives from among FSWs in different locations of Addis Ababa which stands at around 34% of tested. And the communications campaign has been implemented in this specific area for more than two years.

Therefore, this study was conducted at this hotspot location in Kolfe Keranio sub-city, at an area commonly known as behind Alert Hospital. Different mass communications materials that includes radio programs/adverts, billboards, posters, leaflets, brochures, and interpersonal communications have been disseminated targeting the FSWs in this area.

3.4. Study Population

The Ethiopian government's Strategic Plan for Intensifying Multi-Sectoral HIV and AIDS response in Ethiopia II (SPM II), based on the 2011 EDHs, identifies female sex workers, uniformed forces, long distance drivers, never-married sexually active females, discordant couples, migrant laborers, migrant groups (especially those in small towns), cross border populations and in-school youth (particularly at tertiary education) as key populations (KPs) for HIV infection due to the higher rate of new infections and prevalence rates recorded among them. Therefore, HIV prevention interventions in Ethiopia in the last five years have been focused on these populations

groups, according to the SPM II. The communications campaign messages included in this study are also targeted towards these KP groups in particular FSWs all over the country.

The 2011 EDHS identifies female sex workers (FSWs) from among KPs as the most vulnerable and at risk of HIV infection due to their work and multiple sexual partners spanning multiple sexual networks. High rates of other STIs and unsafe sexual practices further increase the probability of HIV transmission in FSWs (EDHS 2011). As a result of the risks involved and their vulnerabilities, EDHS results show that HIV prevalence among FSWs as the highest from all other population groups. And in addition, they constitute one of the largest KP groups, EDHS 2011.

FSWs can be found in different towns at different regional states in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa, according to PSI/Ethiopia's FSWs Mapping and Size Estimation Study, has the highest concentration of self-identified sex workers in the country. The PSI study puts the total number of self-identified female sex workers in Addis Ababa around 12,000.

Therefore, this study focused on FSWs targeted by HIV prevention mass media communications campaign. Since this researcher intends to analyze factors affecting perceptions, only those FSWs that have accessed campaign messages will be surveyed and interviewed. Two ways will be used to identify FSWs that accessed: one is in the questionnaire they will be asked if they received the campaign materials and if they haven't filling the questionnaire will be discontinued. The second is that the campaign implementer has a list of all FSWs that participated in IPC sessions for whom print materials are distributed.

3.5. Sampling

The selection of a sample in quantitative and qualitative research is guided by two opposing philosophies, (Kumar, 2011). Kumar asserts in quantitative research, sampling should be unbiased and represents the population from where it is selected. In qualitative research, number considerations may influence the selection of a sample, judgement that the person has extensive knowledge about the topic, and how typical the case is of a category of individuals.

Kothari (2004) in the book *Research Methodology: Methods & Techniques* states the purpose of sampling in quantitative research is to draw inferences about the group from which you have selected the sample, whereas in qualitative, it is designed either

to gain in-depth knowledge about a situation /event/episode or to know as much as possible about different aspects of an individual.

According to Kothari some of the advantages of sampling are that it saves time as well as financial and human resources. According to Kumar, the disadvantage is that we cannot find the characteristics of the population rather we estimate or predict them.

The Kolfe Keranio Alert area where the FSW live is a shanty housing area with poor infrastructure. Similar to a “red light district”, all the houses are occupied by FSWs. In some houses a group of up to 14 FSWs operate in one room measuring four meters by four meters. In some houses two to five FSWs share one smaller room. The houses can be grouped into clusters (group of houses divided by road, bridge, or trees/bushes, etc...) and there are five separate clusters. Each cluster has from 34 houses to 113.

The sampling frame for the qualitative in-depth interview was identified based on the FSWs’ similarity in age, education and mother tongue. This information was gathered from the findings of the quantitative part. For the qualitative in-depth interview, non-random sampling was used to help identify participants who can provide more and elaborate information to questions. Specifically, quota and snowball sampling techniques were used. The quota sampling is to determine how many houses to approach per cluster of houses based on convenience of access because of the areas geographic setting. The snowball sampling was used, in each cluster of houses, to identify FSWs who are more articulate than others, are not shy, and who have participated in the IPC sessions.

For the qualitative interview, a total of 30 FSWs were interviewed. The different age groups will be represented, relatively higher educational level to no education will be represented and also different ethnic groups. FSWs who have stayed longer in the area and those that came recently will be interviewed.

In the quantitative survey, to give equal and independent chance of selection for FSWs in the area, a mix of cluster and simple random sampling was used. Based on estimated number of FSWs in each cluster a proportion was assigned per cluster. Based on this, the number of participants to be approached in each cluster was identified. Then to identify the specific FSWs in each cluster, the number of houses in the cluster were divided by the proportion of participants assigned. If there are 30

houses in the cluster, and 4 participants are assigned for that cluster by proportion, then FSWs in every seventh house were approached for the questionnaire. A total of 145 FSWs were approached to fill the quantitative survey questionnaire.

3.5.1. Sample Size

According to the PSI/Ethiopia's FSW Size Estimation and Mapping Study, there are about 487 FSWs located in the specific study area selected. To identify the sample size required for this study, the formula,

$$N = \frac{Zc^2 (pq)}{E^2}$$

Is used where N= sample size; Zc = confidence coefficient, p= the assumed existing proportion of population showing the required character; q= 1-p; and E = 1 – confidence level.

Based on this formula, at the area where there are 487 self-identified FSWs, with a confidence level of 95%, and confidence interval of 7, the recommended sample size is 145.

3.6. Methods of Data Organization and Analysis

McCracken (1988) recommends the use of a five-step analysis method for interviews. The first step according to McCracken is to read the notes and transcribed recordings carefully. Secondly, McCracken recommends to make preliminary descriptive and interpretive categories based on the transcripts, the literature review and the theory or conceptual framework used to guide the study. Third step is the analysis of the preliminary codes in order to identify connections and develop pattern codes.

McCracken states that the fourth stage of analysis involves categorization of the basic themes by examining clusters of comments made by respondents. By themes McCracken meant a statement of meaning that runs through all or most of the pertinent data or one in the minority that carries heavy emotional or factual impact. The final stage examines the themes from all interviews across the groupings, to delineate predominant themes contained in the data. These predominant themes then serve as answers to the research questions, and form the basis for writing up the data.

In this study, five data collectors (three women and two men) were used to collect both the qualitative and quantitative data. They are BA degree graduates in psychology,

business administration, journalism and communications and social works. All have over one year experience in research and all have done thesis at the BA level. They have collected various quantitative and qualitative data for PSI/Ethiopia at various times. In addition, for this study, the researcher has given them one day training and two days pretest.

In this study, the qualitative questions were designed based on the quantitative survey questions. The above steps are applied in the order recommended and the coding follows the structure of the quantitative questions as the purpose is to probe reasons behavioral and attitudinal elements behind audiences' response to the closed ended questions in the survey.

The In-depth of interviews were recorded and data collectors took notes. At the end of each interview, data collectors reviewed their notes and checked the recorded voices to make sure that they make sense in relation to the study questions and nothing was missing. This gave them the opportunity to include or clarify any comments or observations made during the interview.

At the end of each day, this researcher together with the data quality supervisor discussed with the data collectors regarding their feedback on the daily experiences. This de-briefing covered problems encountered as well as any new and unique findings from the interviews. As much as necessary, changes were made to incorporate new ideas and make revisions based on feedbacks. Then when interviews were completed, the recordings were transcribed and categorized into various sub-topics based on the guide. Then each topic was labelled using appropriate headings, then the major findings were interpreted to draw conclusions about commonly held beliefs, attitudes, or opinions. Proportions of responses in each topics were given due consideration. The interviews were conducted in Amharic. The recording and transcribing was done in Amharic and was translated to English by this researcher who is a qualified and trained translator as well as journalist with over 18 years of experience.

With regards to the quantitative survey questionnaire various kinds of rating scales have been developed to measure attitudes while the persons being studied are fully informed that their attitude is being studied, (Burns & Grove, 1997, & Bowling 1997). According to McLeod (2008), the most widely used scale for attitude measurement is the Likert Scale. McLeod states that Likert scale measures attitudes by asking people

to respond to a series of statements about a topic, in terms of the extent to which they agree with them, and so tapping into the cognitive and affective components of attitudes. Likert-type or frequency scales use fixed choice response formats and are designed to measure attitudes or opinions (Bowling, 1997; Burns, & Grove, 1997). Bowling asserts that these ordinal scales measure levels of agreement/disagreement.

According to McLeod, Likert Scales have the advantage that they do not expect a simple yes / no answer from the respondent, but rather allow for degrees of opinion, and even no opinion at all. McLeod argues that therefore quantitative data is obtained, which means that the data can be analyzed with relative ease.

Burns and Grove stated that like all surveys, the validity of Likert Scale attitude measurement can be compromised due social desirability. The social desirability is to mean that individuals may lie to put themselves in a positive light. In this study, the FSWs are offered anonymity on the questionnaires so as to reduce social pressure and social desirability bias.

According to Bowling, some of the Likert Scale strengths include simple to construct, likely to produce a highly reliable scale, and easy to read and complete for participants. On the other hand, Bowling states that Likert Scale has weaknesses in that central tendency bias, "participants may avoid extreme response categories". Bowling state another factor acquiescence bias (participants may agree with statements as presented in order to please the experimenter. Another challenge of Likert scale is social desirability bias where respondents give answers to portray themselves in a more socially favorable light rather than being honest. Literature shows that lack of reproducibility and validity may be difficult to demonstrate in Likert scale.

In this study, the quantitative survey questionnaires, since the aim is to measure attitude of audiences towards the factors that affect their perception of messages, Likert scale was used with five possible responses including unimportant, very little importance; moderately important, important and very important.

3.7. Reliability and Validity

Joppe (2000) defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. A measuring instrument is reliable if it provides consistent results. Kothari argues that reliable measuring instrument does contribute to validity, but a reliable instrument need not be a valid instrument.

In this research, there were five data collectors (female-3 and male-2). They were trained in how to conduct in-depth interview and fill out the questionnaire. These data collectors have been doing this type of work for over four years and they are familiar with the procedures. Instructions and directions were also included in the instruments and data collectors were asked if they understood all of them.

Pretest was organized for two days where data collectors pretested the questionnaire. With the same sampling methods, the collectors completed two questionnaires and one interview each. They documented all the challenges and the strong points of the instruments and the collection method. A discussion was held among the data collectors and this researcher to address the challenges and make modifications where needed. Cautionary measures were put in place to avoid repeat of the challenges.

Test-retest reliability: is a measure of reliability obtained by administering the same test twice over a period of time to the same study participants. The results from Time 1 and Time 2 can then be correlated in order to evaluate the test for stability over time, (Walliman, 2011).

In this study, data collectors were instructed to fill in sampled number of questionnaires each day. Three days later, data collectors switched locations and filled in the same the number of questionnaires with the same study participants. The results were checked for consistence and accuracy.

One data quality supervisor was hired to support this researcher in monitoring the data collectors during questionnaire filling and interviews ensuring they were following procedures as instructed and reaching the FSWs as per the sampling decisions made. The questionnaires for the quantitative part took on average 35 minutes to complete. The in-depth interview was measured to take about 55 minutes minimum. This

researcher and the data quality supervisor were both monitoring the timing of data collectors as well as the quality of their entry.

In addition, during data collection particularly for the quantitative, data collectors exchanged up to five respondents and refilled the questionnaires again. The responses on the 10 questionnaires were compared by both this researcher and the data quality supervisor. Again the data quality supervisor and this researcher conducted a random refilling of questionnaires data collectors completed and verify accuracy of results. If any errors are found during this process, the questionnaires by that specific collector were dropped, a new questionnaire was filled in by another collector.

By ensuring that the data collectors have adhered to the sampling decisions that are made to ensure accurate representation of study population, external validity of the instruments is ensured.

All questionnaires and in-depth interviews were given unique individual ID #, name of location, name of the collector, date of questionnaire/interview, time started, time completed and number of the session were recorded to maintain an audit trail, and document clearly the flow and processing of the data.

To ensure validity of the study by ensuring that results obtained meet all of the requirements of the scientific research method, the study participants have been adequately randomized and appropriate care and diligence was put in place in the allocation of controls. This researcher compared the results of the quantitative part to other studies who had other purposes but were looking at similar variables. The results show consistency and similarity particularly the quantitative survey questions.

Regarding external validity, all the rigorous design and sampling methods were used to ensure that the conclusions in this study could be generalized to similar sub-groups of the population. The rigorous randomization used in this study also helps in ensuring the validity of research. Through monitoring and supervision of the actual data collection process, an attempt was made to avoid bias.

The sample size is determined based on calculation before the study began so that the analyzed data and the conclusions are drawn and extrapolated to the population under study. The sample size is statistically significant and reliable.

To avoid selection bias study populations are chosen randomly and with a calculation. To avoid measurement bias all the necessary precautions are taken to avoid errors in collecting data, from constructing proper questions to ensuring the respondents provide honest answers.

According to Nunnally Cronbach's alpha is the most common measure of internal consistency or reliability of Likert scale measurement, (Nunnally, 1978). It is most commonly used when you have multiple Likert questions in a survey/questionnaire that form a scale and you wish to determine if the scale is reliable.

Describing how Likert's reliability is calculated with Cronbach, Santos, Lippke, & Pope, (1998) assert that the value of alpha (α) may lie between negative infinity and 1. However only positive values of α make sense and generally, alpha coefficient ranges in value from 0 to 1, asserts Santos, et al. According Santos et al. Cronbach may be used to describe the reliability of factors extracted from questions with multi-point formatted questionnaires or scales such as Likert. Some professionals insist on a reliability score of 0.70 or higher in order to use a psychometric instrument. This rule should be applied with caution when α has been computed from items that are not correlated.

Nunnally states that although Cronbach's Alpha is widely used nowadays, there are certain problems related to it. The first problem is that alpha is dependent not only on the magnitude of the correlations among items, but also on the number of items in the scale. According to Nunnally a scale can be made to look more 'homogenous' simply by doubling the number of items, even though the average correlation remains the same. This leads directly to the second problem which is that if we have two scales which each measure a distinct aspect, and combine them to form one long scale, alpha would probably be high, although the merged scale is obviously tapping two different attributes. The third weakness of Cronbach is if alpha is too high, then it may suggest a high level of item redundancy; that is, a number of items asking the same question in slightly different ways.

In this study, to check the reliability of the Likert scale, we used Cronbach's Alpha, basing on the formula $\text{Alpha} = \frac{rk}{[1 + (k - 1) r]}$. (k is the number of items considered and r is the mean of the inter-item correlations, the size of alpha is determined by both the number of items in the scale and the mean inter-item correlations (George and

Mallery, 2003). The result for this study is 0.8 Alpha which according to George and Mallery is very good reliability. George and Mallery provide the following rules of thumb on the result "> 0.9 is excellent, > 0.8 is very Good, and > 0.7 is acceptable, and > 0.6 is questionable, > 0.5 – Poor, and $_ < 0.5$ – unacceptable.

3.8. Ethical Considerations

The researcher has obtained relevant clearances for conducting this research both from the AAU School of Journalism and Communications, Kolfe Keranio Sub-City Labor and Social Affairs Office, Wereda Police Station and PSI/Ethiopia.

Each study participant has been given explanation of the purpose of the study and the clearances obtained from the relevant bodies. After explanations, each participant is asked for her consent to be interviewed. Only those that have agreed to be included in the study are interviewed and included. No names of participants will be mentioned in the study and no specific location will be mentioned that may identify participants. Incentive is provided for each FSWs in the qualitative part. However, this incentive will not in any way influence or make participants skew or falsify information. The information sought in this study is not sensitive, risky nor does not put the respondents in any risk or harm's way.

Chapter: Data Analysis and Findings

4.1. Introduction

With the increased role of media in raising public awareness, more and more health communications campaigns particularly focusing on HIV prevention are now being implemented throughout the country. Investing considerable amount of resources, these communications campaigns use broadcast media, print, Internet and interpersonal communications to reach their intended audiences with different objectives and messages. This study aimed to identify the preferred HIV prevention information sources of FSW, the level of their HIV prevention knowledge and the factors affecting their perception of campaign messages.

Informed by social cognitive and protection motivation theories, this descriptive audience research used qualitative and quantitative methods with survey questionnaires and in-depth interviews as tools. Trained and experienced data collectors were used to conduct the interviews and questionnaires. Test runs and quality assurance supervisions were conducted to ensure success.

The study location is Kolfe Keranio sub city, the area behind Alert hospital and a sample size of 145 respondents were taken. For the interviews, non-random quota and snowball sampling techniques were used to reach a total of 30 respondents. For the survey questionnaire, a mix of cluster and simple random sampling were used based on estimated number of FSWs in each cluster.

Piloting, test-retest reliability, scientific research methods such as properly calculated sample size, randomization, appropriate controls, comparison with other results using different methods, Cronbach's alpha and appropriate measurement scales were used to ensure reliability and validity.

4.2. Findings and Discussions

4.2.1. Age Distribution

Table 1

	Age Groups	Surveyed Number	Findings	Percentage
1	Below 18	145	11	8%
2	19-25	145	103	71%
3	26-35	145	22	15%
4	36-45	145	4	3%
5	Above 45	145	0	0%
6	Unknown	145	5	3%
			145	100%

About 11 respondents (8%) reported that they were below the legal age limit of 18. Seventy one percent (103) respondents are in the age group 19 to 25 and 22 respondents (15%) are in the age group 26 to 35. There were only 4 respondents (3%) in the age group 36 to 45 and there were no FSWs above 45 years of age. There were 5 (3%) respondents who couldn't state their age.

This finding is consistent with DKT Ethiopia's (2009) and PSI/Ethiopia's (2012) study that shows majority of the FSWs are young and as they go beyond the age of 36 their numbers decrease for various reasons including change of "means" of income.

4.2.2. Languages Spoken

Table 2

	Languages	Surveyed Number	Findings	Percentage
1	Amharic - Only	145	58	40%
2	Hadiya - Only		3	2%
3	Oromic - Only		4	3%
4	Tigrigna - Only		1	1%
5	Welayta - Only		2	1%
6	Yem - Only		1	1%
7	Dual Amharic & Hadiya		6	4%
8	Dual Amharic & Oromic		46	32%
9	Dual Amharic & Tigrigna		3	2%
10	Dual Amharic & Welayta		19	13%
11	Dual Amharic & Yem		2	1%
			145	100%

Majority of the respondents (40%) were only Amharic speakers as first language. There are 39 (27%) respondents who speak both Amharic and Oromic while 19 (13%) respondents speak Welayita and Amharic.

Ethnic configuration of the respondents varies from location to location and time to time. DKT and PSI studies have different findings in the number of non-Amharic speakers and the number of other language speakers. The research design used by DKT PSI/Ethiopia and this research varies in that this study has a communications perspective and theirs is more evaluation. Their specific questions on languages were not as detailed.

4.2.3. Education Level

Table 3

Education Level	Surveyed	# of Respondents	Percentage
Grade 9 and above	145	5	3%
Unto Grade 8		3	2%
Unto Grade 6		2	1%
Up to Grade 4		62	43%
Up to Grade 2		32	22%
Other		3	2%
No Education		38	26%
		145	100%

The highest level of education attained by respondent is Grade 10 and there are 5 respondents (3%) in grade nine and above category. The lowest education level is no education having 38 respondents (26%). There are three respondents (2%) who have completed up to grade eight, two respondents (1%) who have completed up to grade six, 62 respondents (43%) who have completed up to grade four and 32 respondents who have completed school up to grade two. Three respondents (2%) mentioned religious education other than the formal sector which is difficult to find the formal school equivalent.

Some of the findings in this research have differences with research done by Population Council (2011) in that their finding has less number of respondents who have gone beyond grade 4. This could be attributed to increased access to schools and education at the origins of the respondents.

4.2.4. Income

Table 4

Income Group	Surveyed	Finding	Percentage
<500	145	38	26%
501 - 1000		76	52%
Above 1000		21	14%
Undisclosed		10	7%
		145	100%

Regarding income, except 10 respondents (7%) who were not willing to disclose their income, majority of the respondents (52%) earn between 501 and 1000 Birr per month. The highest earners were 21 respondents (14%) getting above 1000 birr per month on average while the lowest earners are 38 respondents (26%) getting below 500 Birr per month.

Different studies put income of respondents in the same kind of setting at different amounts. For instance the DKT study indicates that home-based FSWs around Merkato Bus Station area get over 1,000 Birr a month while Sebategna area respondents get 700 and above. Population Councils study found that Cherkos area respondents got an income over 1,500 Birr.

4.2.5. Preferred Media as Source of HIV Information

Table 5

#	Sources of HIV Information	Preferred HIV media	
		# of Respondents	% of Respondents
1	Peer educators selected from FSWs	57	39%
2	Women Groups/coffee ceremony	28	19%
3	Leaflets, brochures, posters	19	13%
4	Doctors, nurses, health officers,	14	10%
5	I don't mind any	11	8%
6	Friends	6	4%
7	Radio	4	3%
8	Edir	3	2%
9	TV	0	0%
10	Billboard	0	0%
11	Newspaper / magazine	0	0%
12	Sexual partner	0	0%
13	Infected persons	0	0%
14	School	0	0%
15	Church / mosque	0	0%
16	NGOs	0	0%
17	Government persons	0	0%
		142	98%

Fifty seven respondents (39%) chose peer educators as their most preferred sources of information to learn about HIV and other factors that affect their lives. Women groups meetings with coffee ceremonies was ranked second with 28 respondents (19%) while the use of print materials such as leaflets, brochures and posters as used in this campaign came up third with 19 respondents (13%). Medical professionals were fourth preferred sources of information with 14 respondents (10%) while 11 respondents (8%) said they wouldn't mind if it comes from any source. Six respondents (4%) preferred their friends and four respondents (3%) chose radio as sources of HIV information. Three respondents (2%) selected *Women Edir* as their preferred sources of information.

Matani and Hassanpour (2013) stated that that communication planners, who imagine that if they aim at the audiences, they will gain success, actually make a big mistake. One of the key aspects of this mistake is that they consider the audiences as sufficiently motivated to use the media. Actually this is not the case according to the findings in this study in that the audiences chose a newly introduced information medium by the campaign planners. Not only did they chose by their own free will but also were motivated to use the media, and gained considerable knowledge from that source. At first, the communication campaign planners did not make any selection rather they announced the campaign and the populations responded. Later hearing the information from their friends the benefit of the messages attracted the women's attention.

4.2.6. Knowledge of HIV

The communications campaign disseminated the following six messages through IPC and mass media materials: (all messages are translated from Amharic to English).

1. Promoting awareness about HIV counseling and testing.

“Test your HIV status and feel relieved. You can get HIV testing and counseling services at the _____ location (the name of the nearest health facility).

Promoting the full understanding of the HIV prevention methods and to practice them which includes not sharing blades that touched the blood of another person,

2. Use male condoms correctly and consistently with your clients and partners at all times.

3. Never share body piercing or sharp equipment that have touched or ave blood on them. These blades transmit HIV from one persons to another.
4. Never consume chat and alcohol before going to work. It undermines your ability to decide what’s best for your life during your work.

In the event, that these women get pregnant, the messages advise them:

5. In case you are pregnant, go to the nearest health facility at (.....location) to get tested for HIV status and to get assistance on how to prevent mother-to-child-transmission (PMTCT).
6. In case you observe (.....symptoms), you may have sexually transmitted infections. Immediately go to the (.....location) to seek medical treatment. Use condoms at all times to avoid STIs.

Note: In the event that the women are found to be HIV during testing:

The message is: “Go to the (..... location) health facility to get counseling and start your medication. Be strong and positive living is an easier task.

Table 6

No of Prevention Methods mentioned	No of Respondents	% of Respondents
0 out of 6	0	0
1 out of 6	3	2%
2 out of 6	7	5%
3 out of 6	2	1%
4 out of 6	16	12%
5 out of 6	87	63%
6 out of 6	24	17%
	139	100%

This study is focused on the FSWs that participated in the campaign. This seems to have an effect on the knowledge of FSWs as more women were able to mention most pf the prevention methods. Eighty seven respondents (63%), mentioned 5 out of 6 methods described in the campaign materials. Surprisingly there was no respondent who wasn’t able to mention at least one of the methods in the campaign. Nineteen respondents (14%) were able to mention all prevention methods, while 16 respondents (12%) were able to mention four methods of out of six. Three respondents (2%) only mentioned 1 method, seven respondents mentioned two methods and two respondents were able to mention 3 methods.

One hundred twenty seven respondents (91) were able to clearly mention four and above methods which shows that FSWs have good knowledge of HIV prevention methods.

This finding shows an increase from the EDHS (2011) that reported 43 percent of respondents nationally. Segregated by sex, the EDHS finding stated that the knowledge of women on other HIV prevention methods such as limiting sex to one uninfected partner has reached 65%.

This finding agrees with Bertrand et al. (2006) and Hanson's, (2008) findings that demonstrated mass media campaigns have been reliably linked to an increase in HIV/AIDS knowledge among individuals in low-income countries, including an awareness of HIV/AIDS, the ways in which the virus is transmitted, and preventive behaviors.

Jung (2013) also agrees with the findings in this study asserting that knowledge is an important determinant in the pathways to changing health behaviors. In the case of HIV/AIDS, a high level of awareness is likely to promote safe sex practices such as the regular use of condoms, which may reduce the prevalence rate of HIV infection.

However, Jung related the pathways to changing health behaviors through knowledge and said that these are embedded in an individual's socioeconomic status as well as in their social and political context. This is in contrary to findings in this study in that despite the heterogeneous characteristics and context of the respondents, they all demonstrated good knowledge of the HIV transmission prevention methods. There are no indications found in this study that their socio-economic status affected their level of knowledge.

The findings in this study contradicts again with Viswanath & Ackerson (2011) who found that individuals of lower socioeconomic status (SES) tend to gain less benefit from information flows than their counterparts of higher SES. Findings here also contradict with their argument that health media use is patterned by race, ethnicity, language (culture) and social class. However, this study finding agrees in a broader scope with Viswanath and Ackerson argument that providing greater access to and enhancing the quality of health media by taking into account factors associated with social determinants may contribute to addressing social disparities in health.

4.2.7. Factors Affecting Respondent’s Perception

Based on literature review, there are three basic categories that are considered in this study that may have effect on perception of audiences towards campaign messages. These are source of message related factors, message related factors, contextual factors and audience related actors.

Under each factor selected elements are measured to identify their effect on audience perception. Under the factors related to the source of message, credibility, attractiveness and familiarity are considered and measured in this study. In relation to message, comprehensibility appeal and relevance were studied. Under contextual factors that affect perception, message overload, use of images, and intensity of materials were measured. Ability, motivation and risk perception were the factors measured under those related to audience themselves.

Table 7

Audience Perception of HIV Prevention Communications Campaign Messages									
Survey Scale: 1=Unimportant 2=Very Little Importance 3=Moderately Important 4=Important 5=Very Important									
Survey Questionnaire	Unimportant	Very Little Importance	Moderately Important	Important	Very Important	n	MEAN	MODE	SEM
1. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the credibility of the peer educators and the message disseminators is:	18	20	35	22	44	139	3.37	5	0.2
2. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the attractiveness and presentability of the campaign material disseminators and the peer educators is:	52	18	32	25	12	139	2.43	1	0.2
3. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the familiarity in terms of sex, age, ethnic group and religion of the campaign material disseminators and the peer educators is:	48	14	29	29	19	139	2.65	1	0.2
4. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the comprehensibility, clarity and understandability of the messages is:	12	17	20	40	50	139	3.65	5	0.2
5. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the relevance of the messages to our lives and work is:	40	25	12	46	16	139	2.77	1	0.2
6. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the attractiveness and appeal of the messages in terms of use of	9	19	26	49	36	139	3.65	4	<u>0.1</u>

Audience Perception of HIV Prevention Communications Campaign Messages									
Survey Scale: 1=Unimportant 2=Very Little Importance 3=Moderately Important 4=Important 5=Very Important									
Survey Questionnaire	Unimportant	Very Little Importance	Moderately Important	Important	Very Important	n	MEAN	MODE	SEM
illustrations, colors, images and some practical examples, is:									
7. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the use of various materials to disseminate various messages is:	43	19	18	33	26	139	2.83	1	0.2
8. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the use of images to support the messages is :	12	17	19	32	59	139	3.83	5	0.2
9. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the use of various channels to communicate the same message is:	28	19	23	35	34	139	3.35	5	0.2

Table 8

Audience Perception of HIV Prevention Communications Campaign Messages									
Survey Scale: 1=Unimportant 2=Little Importance 3=Moderately important 4=Important 5=Very Important									
	Unimportant	Little Importance	Moderately Important	Important	Very Important	n	MEAN	MODE	SEM
Course Evaluation Survey									
1. To accept read and understand campaign materials and messages, the aim of the materials to increase my ability and self-efficacy is:	1		9	69	60	139	4.31	4	0.1
2. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, motivation to learn about something useful about life and work is:	29	9	20	66	15	139	3.21	4	0.2
3. To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the experience of incidents in work environment that put our lives in danger of HIV infection is:	26	31	37	28	17	139	2.71	3	0.1
4. In our work we need more money to change our lives, so using condoms with clients that come with more money and look healthy is:	4	5	8	48	74	139	4.19	5	0.1
5. I trust my partner. So using condom with my regular partner or boyfriend is:	18	12	28	31	50	139	3.63	5	0.2

4.2.7.1. Source Related Factors

In the literature review section, we have seen that researchers such as Rice and Atkin consider credibility, attractiveness and familiarity among others under source of message.

Credibility

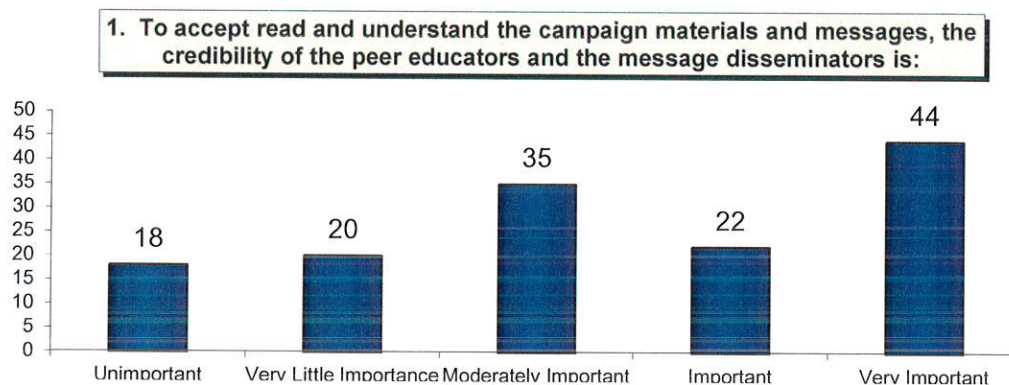


Figure 2

Forty four respondents think that credibility is very important to their perception while 22 respondents found it important. Credibility is moderately important for 35 respondents, very little importance for 20 respondents and unimportant for 18 respondents. Of the total 145 respondents, 101 respondents said that the credibility of the source of information is important for them to accept the messages. Asked why, respondents gave answers including since the information helps to protect lives, because it's difficult to accept information from unknown persons and that you don't know if it's going to hurt you or not.

One respondent said:

“From experience we have learned that there are people out there who like to do bad things to other people. So we have learnt that we only take information and learn from people we find as credible/trustworthy.”

The peer educators seems to have won the trust of many of the respondents who said that they have good knowledge, they understand or situation and some of them have been working as FSWs themselves.

This finding agrees with Douai (2011) in that audience perception is affected by credibility of the source or medium. Douai argues that credibility affects audience interest in selecting specific media.

On another perspective, Bralley (2010) argues that the frequency of media use might not indicate that the news consumer finds a particular medium to be more credible. However in this study the finding is on contrary to Bralley in that respondents in this study will not tune in or give any attention to a media that they don't see as credible.

The findings in this study agrees with Kiouisis (2001) who found a marginal connection between media use and the perceptions of credibility. Kiouisis says more audiences who primarily and frequently turn to a specific media for their information perceive those outlets to be more credible than those they don't access.

Johnson and Kaye (1998) found that age was significantly related to credibility judgments in that as age increased, respondents perceived media information to be less credible. This trend seems to be similar to the finding in this research in the sense that majority of the respondents are young and they see the source of the campaign messages as credible.

Attractiveness

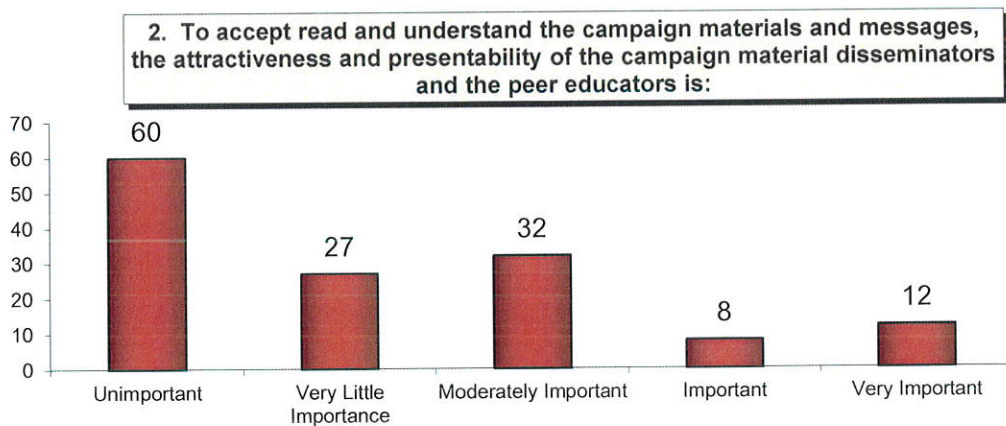


Figure 3

Most respondents (60) said that attractiveness of the source of campaign messages such as the peer educators is unimportant. Twenty seven respondents see attractiveness as having very little importance for their perception while thirty two respondents said it's moderately important. Eight respondents think attractiveness is

important for perception while twelve respondents think it's very important. As can be observed from the graph, there are 87 respondents that said attractiveness has little or no importance for their perception. Fifty two respondents in total said attractiveness is from moderately to very important for perception.

In the in-depth interviews, respondents identified smile, way of dressing, greeting to people, their communications style, her knowledge and ability to explain to others as some of the elements that are considered as attractive. Asking the reasons why respondents who said attractiveness is not important, they said:

"...as long as peer educators are capable, what they look like shouldn't matter...",
"... there are men peer educators and we don't see them that way, ..."
"... sometimes if the peer educators are dressed well, we could be distracted and not listen to the education ..."

Other respondents who thought attractiveness was important for perception, said:

"... when somebody is teaching us standing in front of us, that person should be well dressed and attractive ... it could be boring..."
"... its pleasing to us and we would be more attentive and engaged ..."

This particular finding contradicts with Rice and Atkin (2001) who argued attractiveness of message sources positively affect perception of campaign messages by enhancing persuasive impact. Respondents in this study did not show any attitude towards attractiveness saying that it did not matter to them as long as the message is useful and understandable to them. Rice & Atkin, describe that perceived attractiveness (likeableness), derives from qualities such as the source's pleasantness, familiarity, and similarity, for the FSWs in this study, attractiveness means how the peer educators are dressed, the make up they have put on and the way they look and speak. .

Again this findings contradicts with Edegoh, & Ezeh (2013) who found that women audiences compare physical attractiveness and beauty of what they see with messages rather than focusing on the messages. In this study, none of the respondents compared themselves or made any comments about the peer educators.

With regards to sex effects in persuasion, Eagly (1983) found that persuadability of females is higher when the communicator is male which again doesn't seem to be the case for this study respondents.

Familiarity

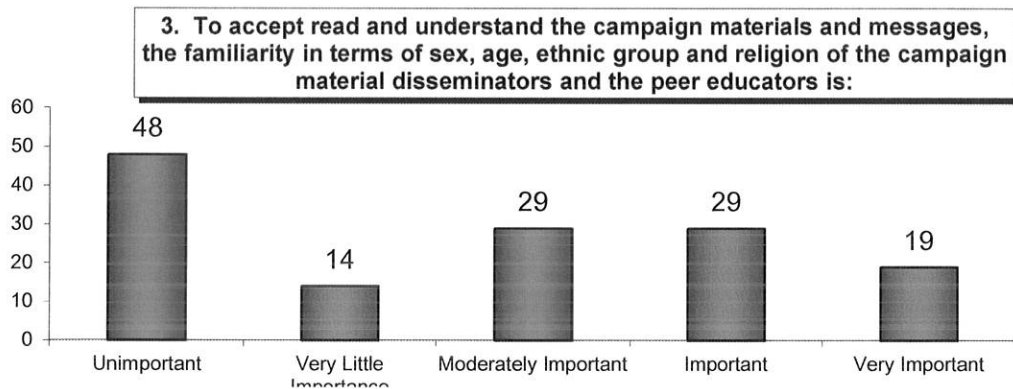


Figure 4

To accept and understand campaign materials, the familiarity of the sources of the messages in terms of sex, age, ethnic group and religion seems to be unimportant for 48 respondents, and given very little importance by 14 respondents. Twenty nine respondents said its moderately important and. Again twenty nine respondents find familiarity important while 19 respondents find it very important.

In the in-depth interviews respondents who think familiarity is unimportant said that:

“... it doesn't matter who teaches us about HIV as long as they are good in teaching...”

“... the peer educators are here to teach us about HIV, I don't care where they are from or how old they are ... ”

“... the peer educators speak Amharic and that's enough to understand what they teach us, the rest is not important, ”

Respondents who think familiarity is important were also asked why they thought so:

“... I prefer a woman of my age to be a peer educator because she understands my needs and my problems.... ”

“... there are some people who try to preach you about their religion and I don't like that. I prefer if the peer educators are from my religion ...”

“... sometimes asking some questions related to our work to an older lady or a male peer educator is difficult because they would never understand ”

“...its better if it's a male peer educator because there are many women who would like to fight with other women and that disrupts the education ... ”

Eagly (1983) argues audience ethnicity has even less intrinsic impact on influenceability than does sex. However in this study, both ethnic differences of source of message and sex did not affect the perception of the respondents.

Viswanath & Ackerson (2011) asserted that health media use is patterned by race, ethnicity, language (culture) and social class. Part of this is in agreement with this finding in that media use is patterned by language. But the argument about the effect of ethnicity on media use contradicts with finding in this study in that despite their ethnic differences respondents reported they have the same preferred source of HIV prevention and the ethnicity of the peer educators did not matter to the respondents' perception messages.

Again this findings does not seem to agree with McGuire (1984) who stated when people of different ethnicities are integrated together, the salience of ethnicity in the audiences' sense of self will increase meaning the “us-them” distinctiveness becomes “us-versus-them” divisiveness”. There was no indication among the respondents in this study that there is any form of division or “us-them” mentality when it comes to learning about or sharing information about HIV prevention methods. The livelihood factor seems to outweigh the ethnic differences.

Rice and Atkin argued that persuasiveness increases when the source of messages' demographics match the target audiences with regard to age sex, religion and ethnicity. This study contradicts with this in that the majority of the respondents have demonstrated high knowledge of HIV prevention methods and the demographic characteristics of the message source did not matter to them nor affected their perceptions.

4.2.7.2. Message Related Factors

Comprehensibility

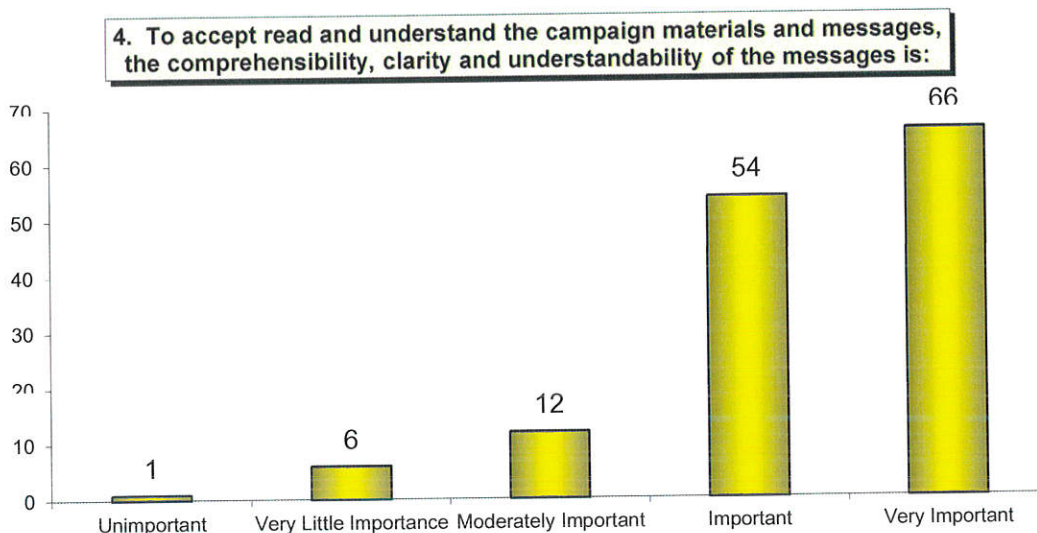


Figure 5

This factor seems to be where number of respondents seems to agree more on its effect on their perceptions. Sixty six and fifty four respondents think that comprehensibility of message is very important and important respectively. While one respondent thinks its unimportant six and twelve respondents think it has very little importance and moderately important respectively.

Comprehensibility was straight forward for many respondents in the in depth interview also. They said:

“...we are not educated and there are some ladies who cant even read. So the messages should be easily understandable to us”

“.. when its easy to understand some ladies who can read can also explain it to her friends who cant read ...”

Livingstone (1995) in her study asserted that the concept of audience reception must be elaborated further in relation to processes of both interpretation and comprehension. Orozco (1997) also agrees with Livingstone in that information processing is constructive and people do not plainly encode and retrieve information that they read or hear in the media rather, as they comprehend, they interpret in accordance with their prior knowledge and beliefs and the context in which the message is received. Both the above arguments agree with findings in this research

in that the factors related to messages and factors related context have both influences over perceptions process of the audiences.

On the other hand, Harris, (1999) argues that part of what guides the comprehension of audiences is schema (knowledge structures and frameworks based on the past experiences that organize an individual’s memory). Harris asserts individuals are likely to go beyond the actual information presented, to draw inferences that are consistent with already held or formed schemas. According to Harris, individual schema on any issue is formed by attitudes, beliefs, biases, frame of reference, likes and dislikes individual differences, prior knowledge and experiences. This agrees with finding in this study that were explained under source related factors and audience related factors.

Schroeder (2002), explains that campaigns present images, brands, messages extensively along with the presentation of many other products and messages and audiences often merely look without comprehension, gazing without knowledge, and watching without engagement. This indirectly implies that comprehension is a factor that affects perception in that unless audiences look and comprehend the messages the objective of the campaign planners is not met.

Relevance

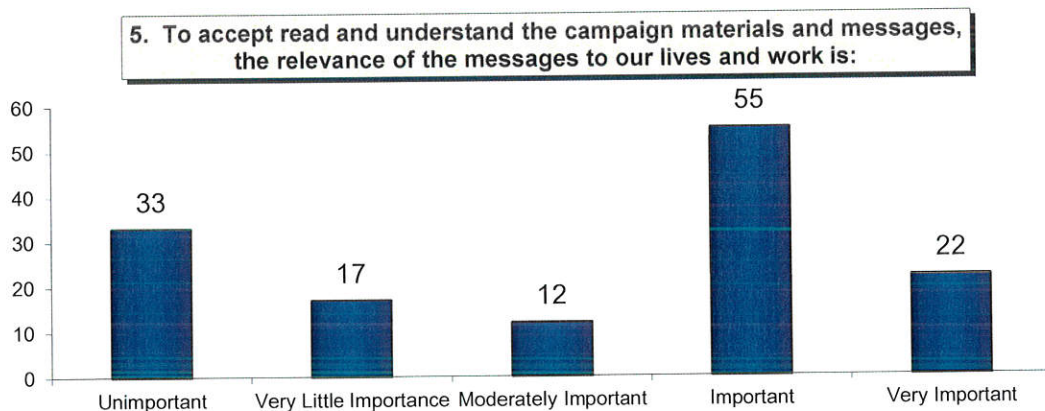


Figure 6

Relevance of the message to their lives and work seems to be unimportant for 33 respondents while Seventeen respondents think that it has very little importance to their perception. The respondents that stood in the middle seem to be less in question

number 4 and 5 where 12 respondents said relevance of message to perception is moderately important. Those who said that relevance is important (55) and those who said its very important (22) together make up 77 almost half of the study sample size.

In the in-depth interview respondents who said relevance is unimportant were asked why:

“... we are illiterate or with very little education, we should know more about other things because tomorrow we will get out of this work”

“... HIV affects everyone, so everyone should learn about HIV and should know how to prevent it,....”

“... there are some of us who like drama, music and entertainment, so the educations should not always be about HIV, our lives and our work it should be changed sometimes, ...”

“... I came from the rural area, I don't know much about the city, so I would like to know more about the other things rather than always our work and HIV ...”

Respondents who said relevance is important were also asked why and they responded:

“... we are in a risky work where we could one day get HIV. So learning about our work is very important ...”

“...I came here five months ago from a rural area. A woman brought me here from the bus station and I don't know anything. So learning from messages that are relevant to my life and work help me a lot”

Matani and Hassanpour (2013) assert that based on the use and gratification theory, audiences are assumed to have different goals and expectations while taking information from the media. As explained, the communicative behavior consists of the selection and use of media based on purpose and certain motives which is meant in other words relevance. In this study with regards to relevance, some respondents seems to say that it affects their perception while few respondents didn't actually think it was an influential factor.

The finding in this study agrees with McStay, (2010) who also raised the importance of relevance as another factor explaining anything that impairs efficient interactions

between campaign planners and audiences in the form of timing, placement or size of message, that also affects perception.

Appeal

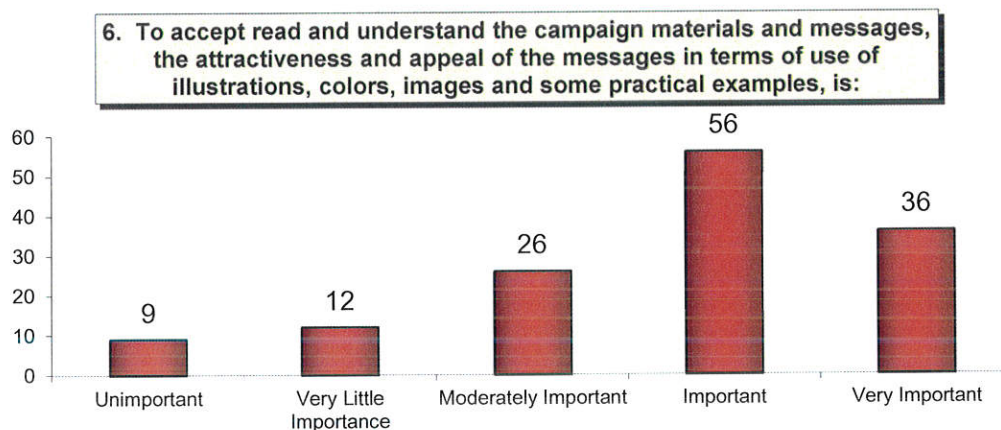


Figure 7

The appeal of the campaign materials in terms of the use of illustrations/images, colors, and some practical examples is important to 56 respondents, very important to 36 respondents. The appeal is moderately important for 26 respondents while 12 and 9 respondents said it has very little importance and no importance at all respectively.

Asked about why the attractive elements of the materials are important for perceptions, respondents in the in-depth interview, said:

“... if there are good photos, and colors which are attractive, its pleasing to read the materials ... ”

“.. some women like the posters and the leaflets, they put them on their wall or somewhere visible as decorations to their rooms ...”

“... for some of us who cant read, the pictures and the illustrations tell us somethings ...”

Reichert’s (2002) revealed that the overall perception of audiences towards messages in social advertising campaigns is positive but various elements attract their attention and interests. Reichert’s finding shows what appealed to the respondents was when they started to get the logic behind the social advertising messages their interest in the message was raised and they started following up the campaign.

The findings here also agree with Matani and Hassanpour when they asserted that audiences' find messages appealing when they focus on their interest areas which determines their intake or rejection of the messages.

Douai, (2011) says that objectivity, diversity, professionalism, elitism and credibility affected audience interest and perception in selecting specific media in that if these factors do not appeal to their needs, audiences would not tune in to that media.

Harlow (2014), also agrees with findings in this study in that the interest of audiences can be raised by making the media more appealing to them. Harlow recommends one way to make it appealing is frequent change of content inclusion of new things, new ideas, and creativity.

4.2.7.3. Context Related Factors

Livingstone (1995), in her journal stated that audience reception research must exploring the connections between text and context, where context is ever more broadly conceived. In this finding there is strong influence demonstrated by context related factors such as living and working environment, and use of different media and channels within the same context.

Message Clutter/Overload

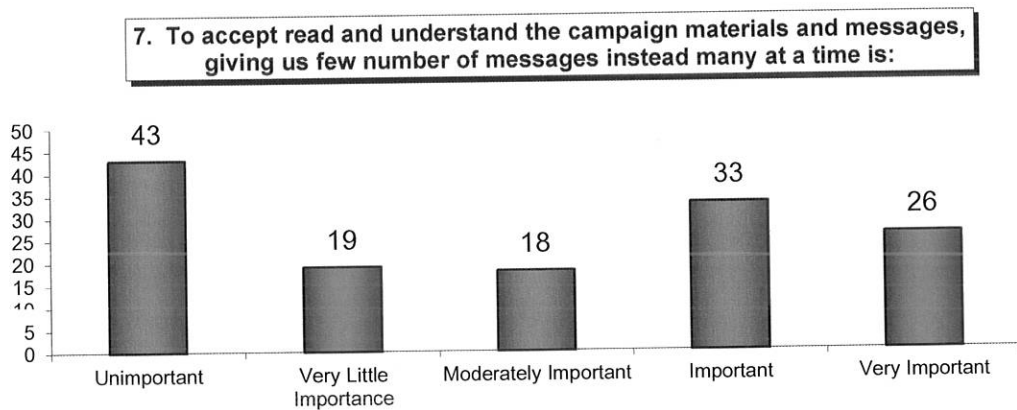


Figure 8

This question had very peculiar responses. Forty three respondents said limiting the number of messages does not affect their perception contrary to various literature that argue message clutter/overload has negative impact on perception of audiences. Again 19 respondents think that keeping the number of messages to few has little

importance to their perception. Eighteen respondents think that it's moderately important while thirty three and twenty six respondents said that keeping the number of messages to few is important and very important respectively to their perception of messages.

Overall, 56 respondents seem to think message overload affects their perception while 52 respondents think that message overload or many messages at a time doesn't affect their perceptions.

Asked about why getting few messages at a time is not important, respondents in the in-depth interview, said:

"... as long as the messages are important, bringing more messages to us is good..."

"... we want to learn more ..."

"... what else do we do around here beside sitting all day. If we get something to learn about, its good for us ..."

Respondents who said getting only few messages at a time is important were asked why: and they said:

"... we need time to discuss the messages among our friends and try to understand better, ..."

"... if the messages are many we get confused and may lose interest"

"... its difficult sometimes to remember all the messages when they are many...."

Livingstone stated in her research that audiences have selective responses in the face of media excess, with the key concept being the active audience. Considering the choices of media the respondents have in this study, the findings here are in agreement with Livingstone's argument.

This finding disagrees with Calder & Sternthal, (1980) who found that information overload not only negatively impact the way we interact with other people but also the way others perceive us. Calder & Sternthal say that we give the impression that we are not listening to the message or that our attention is not with the speaker.

Malhotra's (1984) describing his findings says that effects of "information overload" on the individual include decrease in output by a state of confusion; time and channel overlap affecting information processing, and boredom among audiences. This contradicts with findings here in that most respondents do not seem to be affected by message clutter which could be attributed to their hunger for more knowledge on HIV to keep their lives safe. Malhotra also asserts that unnecessary, unwanted, and complex information can overload the receiver which again contradicts with findings in this study.

Working/Living Environment

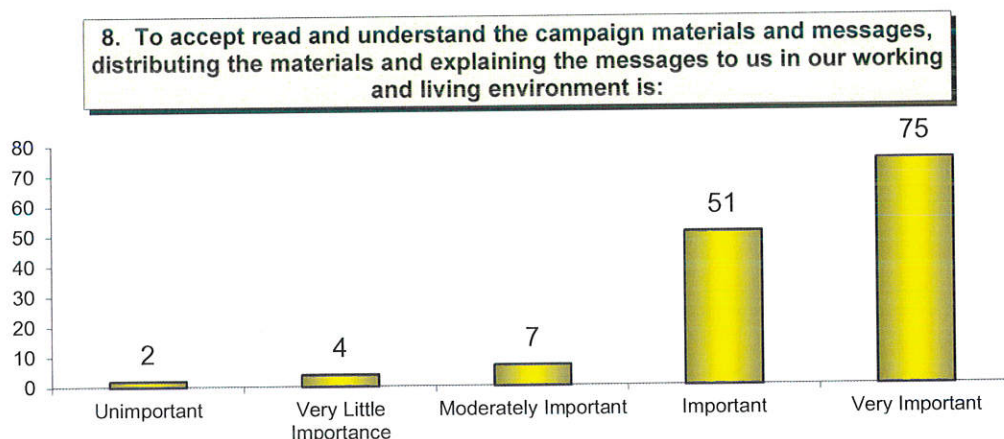


Figure 9

Most respondents seem to agree that working and living environment has an effect on their perception of campaign materials and messages. More than half of the respondents 75, said the distribution of materials in their working and living environment is very important for their perception. Fifty one respondents said it's important. That's a total of 126 from 145 respondents saying that distribution of the materials in their own working and living environment is important. Two respondents said its unimportant, 4 respondents as having very little importance and 7 respondents said its moderately important.

Asked why distribution of the material at their working and living area, in-depth interview respondents said:

"... we don't waste time by traveling to another place, ..."

"... we are more comfortable when its an area we recognize, ..."

“...I don't know the city or the other areas in Addis, I prefer to learn here, ...”

This finding agrees with Livingstone's assertion that psychological and contextual realities affect content analyses of audiences. Livingstone emphasizes 'interpretation' concerns evaluation, contextualization and many divergences in opinion or perspective that also contribute to the process of 'making sense of media text'. Here she means that audiences make sense of media texts based on among other factors their contexts or their livelihood.

Also agreeing with the finding here, Rice and Atkin (2001) stated that context affects audiences particularly when health messages are presented. They also stated other messages before and after the intended message, mood of the audience may cause undesired effects on audience reception. Rice and Atkin also asserted that situational clutter of life, environment, background music, temperature/weather in which the health messages are presented might enhance or reduce persuasive impact.

4.2.7.4. Audience Related Factors

Ability

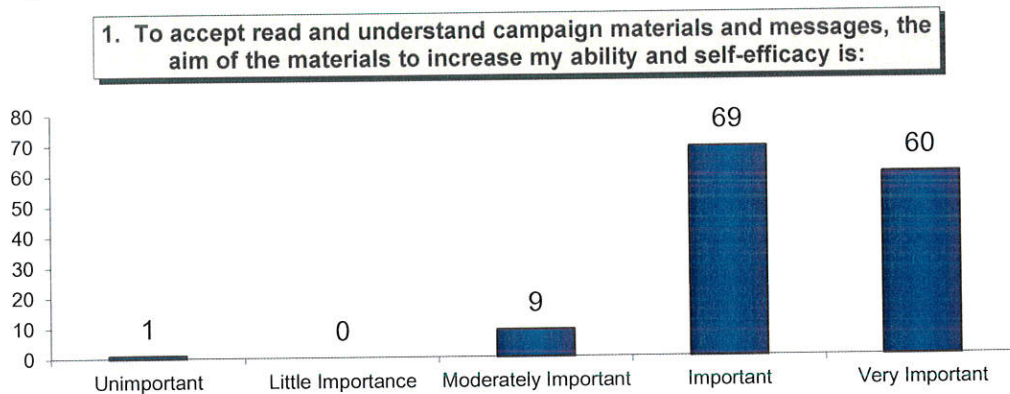


Figure 10

To read and understand campaign materials and messages, 129 of 145 respondents find it important factor that the materials should aim to increase their ability and self-efficacy. This factor is moderately important for 9 respondents, little important for no respondent and unimportant for one respondent.

In the in-depth interview, respondents were asked why they said it was important for their perception that the materials should aim to increase their capacity. They said:

“... one day, we hope to come out of this work. So when we have some ability, it will help us ...”

“... we are uneducated, hopeless and at a bad job. We need more things that increase our ability, ...”

“...if it wasn't going to change our lives, why should we waste out time, ...”

Motivation

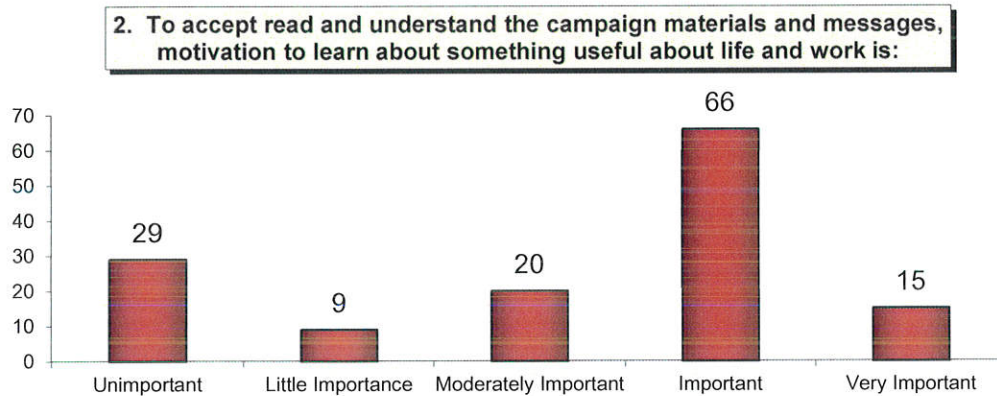


Figure 11

The motivation to learn about something useful about work and life is very important for 15 respondents, important for 66 respondents, moderately important for 20 respondents, very little importance for 9 respondents and unimportant for 29 respondents.

In the in-depth interview, respondents, who said motivation to learn about something new is important for audience perception, explained their views saying:

“... those who are motivated have some purpose for their lives, So they are willing to learn more ...”

“... when we sit and wait, nothing comes to us, we have to have the morale to work hard to change this bad life of ours”

“... no one should give up hope. There are some lazy ladies who do not aspire to have some better life one day. That's not good for them, they need motivation”

Harrison & Senserrick, (2000) argued campaigns can seek to modify either the social, cognitive, or motivational precursors to unsafe behaviors, and/or the perceived consequences of unsafe behavior. In general, attitudes such as motivations may be

viewed as a positive or negative evaluation of the message, media material or a person. This argument agrees with the findings here in that the respondents their attitude towards learning from the messages affects their perception.

This finding agrees with the assertions of the protection motivation theory that explains how people consider behavioral options to tackle perceived threats through the appraisal of the coping responses which results in the intention to perform adaptive responses (protection motivation). By learning from the campaign the respondents are motivated to protect themselves from the threat of HIV/AIDS and this highly affects their perceptions.

Bruner & Goodman (1947) suggested in their early study that the extent of our motivation will affect the speed and way in which we perceive. Bruner & Goodman explained that our needs can influence our perception. This again also seems to be in agreement with the finding here.

Chandler, (1995) also asserts in his research that audiences are motivated to see communicators they see as likable because they believe that the expected interactions with them would be positive. This again agrees with the findings here in that the respondents see the peer educator as their teachers about HIV prevention and based on their interest to learn more from them, they are motivated to attend sessions continuously without interruptions or loss of interest.

Lifestyle/Risk Perception

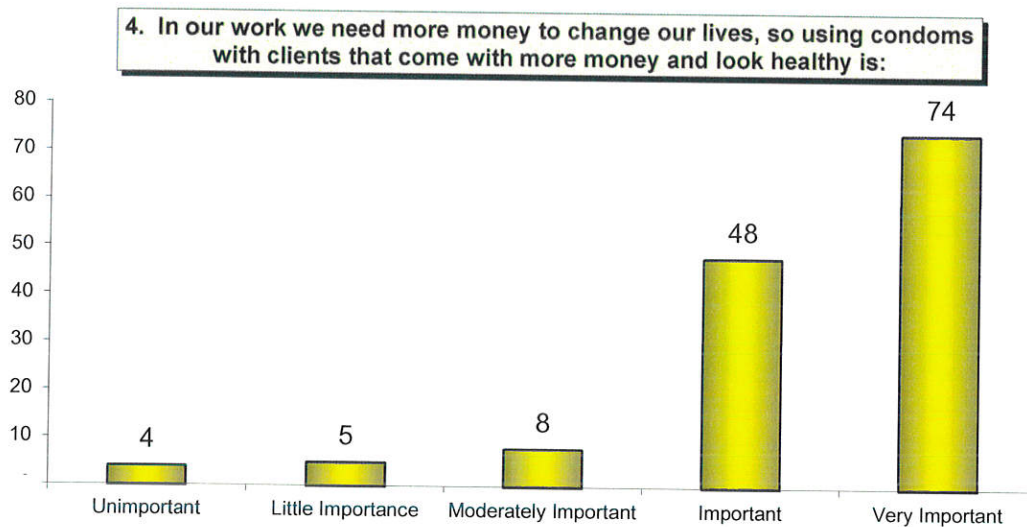


Figure 12

Seventy four audiences said that using condoms is very important, 48 respondents said it's important, 8 said it's moderately important, 5 said its little important and 4 respondents said it is unimportant.

In the interview, respondents were asked why condom is important than money: They responded:

"...condom protects us from HIV"

"... we can always get the money tomorrow, but if we lose our lives once, we wont get it back...."

"... I have seen a friend of mine die from HIV, I wont make the same mistake...."

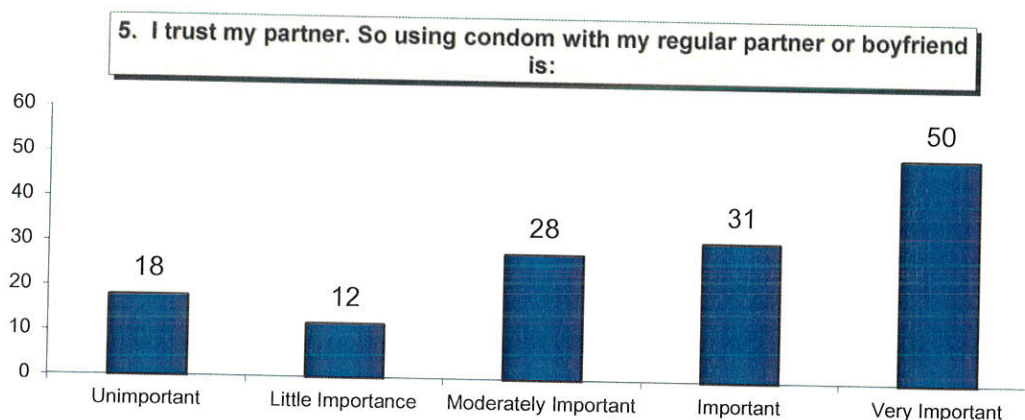


Figure 13

Despite the audience's higher level of knowledge about HIV transmission and prevention methods, 18 respondents said that using a condom with a trusted partner is unimportant. Twelve respondents said that using a condom is little important with a trusted partner, 28 respondents said it's moderately important, 31 respondents said it's important and 50 respondents said it's very important.

In the interview, this question has raised a lot of debate: Asked why they don't use condoms with a trusted partner, respondents said:

"... he is my boyfriend and if I trust him I want to please him"

"... If I ask him to use a condom, he won't be happy with me and he will leave me..."

"... you said trusted and that means I may have some chance with him,"

"... it's difficult to trust men, but if there is a trusted partner then, it's difficult..."

"... if I love him, then maybe I may not use a condom with him, to make him happy ..."

This finding agrees with Prata, Morris, Mazive, Vahidnia, & Stehr, (2006) who found in a research that women who considered themselves to have no risk or a small risk of contracting HIV were less inclined to access information about preventive measures. The prevalence of condom use at last sex was more than twice as high among those who assessed their risk correctly than those who did not. Prata et al. argue that messages should aim at enabling individuals to correctly assess their own HIV risk and encouraging behavior change based on self-assessment of risk. This seems to be in agreement with the finding above that most respondents use condoms with their clients and most of them also relate safety with their trusted partner.

Morrow (2009) explained in a research that assessing the risk perceptions of the audiences and how it affects their perceptions as well as knowledge about risk is important. Morrow says people also tend to get information from multiple sources to evaluate their risk and make protective decisions. Morrow asserts it is not sufficient to simply provide the same message to all individuals at risk because they will perceive this information differently and will subsequently respond in different ways. This argument agrees with the findings above in that when it comes to use of condoms with “trusted partner” there were some differences in reactions and application of learned knowledge.

In general, this findings agree with King, Grunseit, O’Hara, & Bauman (2013) in that they also described mass-media communications as a tool that governments have used to increase awareness of risk factors and encourage behavior change. King et al also stated mass-media campaigns can positively influence community knowledge, awareness, beliefs, attitudes risk perceptions and some preventive behaviors across large populations and influence behavior in both direct and indirect ways.

Contrary to findings in this study, Roth, Fratkin, Ngugi, & Glickman (2001) argued due to various social and cultural taboos about discussing sex, women often do not feel comfortable seeking information about HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted infections and condoms, even among health-care professionals. Roth et al. said that this lack of knowledge, and an inability to comfortably access knowledge about sexual and reproductive health, puts women at greater risk for HIV infection. This quite to the contrary to the findings in this research. Not only did we see in above pages that the women have high knowledge of HIV prevention methods, they are also practicing the preventive behaviors based on messages they learned from the campaign. What puts the women at a greater risk of infection is the nature of their work and not their lack of risk awareness or knowledge of prevention.

Agha (2003) argued that those exposed to messages were significantly more likely to consider themselves at higher risk of acquiring HIV and to believe in the severity of HIV/AIDS. Agha also stated exposure to messages was also associated with a higher level of personal self-efficacy, a greater belief in the efficacy of condoms, a lower level of perceived difficulty in obtaining condoms and reduced embarrassment in purchasing

condoms. This again agrees with findings in this study where the respondents reported the same.

Agha added that branded mass media campaigns that promote condom use as an attractive lifestyle choice are likely to contribute to the development of perceptions that are conducive to the adoption of condom use. This also seems to agree with the respondents interview where they explained that certain customers tend to prefer "Sensation condoms" due to the various appealing advertisements and for them its good because it protects them from HIV infections.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1. Conclusions

The main objective of this study is to identify and analyze factors affecting audience perception of campaign messages disseminated in selected hotspot locations of Addis Ababa. In addition the study aims to identify information sources and media preferences of the target audiences, as well as to measure the basic HIV prevention methods knowledge of audiences that accessed campaign messages.

Majority (79%) of the female sex workers in in Kolfe Keranio area are below the age of 25 (Table 1) and are Amharic speakers (Table 2) with grade four education and below. Almost a quarter of the respondents are illiterate (Table 3).

Their most preferred source of information is IPC (Table 5) and overwhelming majority have very good knowledge of HIV prevention methods (Table 6) which they learned from the campaign messages.

Credibility of the source of message (Figure 2), comprehensibility of messages (Figure 5) and appeal of messages (Figure 7) are the very important factors affecting the FSWs perception of campaign messages. Credibility of the source of message has implications in that any campaigner should be in a trustable or credible position among the FSWs for them to accept the messages disseminated by source.

The working/living environment of audiences (Figure 9), messages that increase ability of audiences (Figure 10) and previous risk perception/life style (Figure 12) of audiences are also important factors that affect perceptions. FSWs are divided on the three factors related to context of campaign messages. When it comes to message clutter and the intensity of materials (use of various materials for the same messages), FSWs are divided in deciding its importance. Almost half of the respondents said message clutter (Figure 8) doesn't affect their perceptions and almost half said it does. Almost all the FSWs have agreed that message dissemination in their working and living environment is a critical factor highly affecting their perception positively (Figure 9). Campaign message disseminations should take place in FSWs work and living environment within a balanced number of messages and channel to avoid discomfort.

Attractiveness/presentability of source of campaign messages (Figure 3), the motivation of audiences towards attending campaigns (Figure 11) as well as the relevance of messages

to audiences' lives have little to medium effect on audience perception. Familiarity of source of information (Figure 4) and message clutter (Figure 8) have very minimal to no effect on audience perception. Familiarity of in terms or age, sex, religion and ethnic group doesn't seem to strongly affect the audiences' perceptions in this study. This was a surprising finding in that there are considerable arguments in literature demonstrating the impact of these factors on audience perceptions. FSWs in both the survey and interview reiterated that they don't mind the differences in familiarity as long they found the messages important.

Regarding the factors related to messages that affect audience perception, comprehensibility (Figure 5) seems to have the highest impact on perception than relevance and appeal (relevance refers to importance to their lives and work and appeal refers to use of illustrations, colors, and images). The FSWs prefer the messages to be clear and understandable. On the effect of relevance and appeal FSWs seem to be not as strongly opinionated as understandability but still expressed they have strong effect on perception. Generally, all the three factors related to messages, including comprehensibility, relevance and appeal (Figure 5, 6, 7) have stronger effect on the FSWs than factors related to the sources of messages such as attractiveness and familiarity.

On factors related to audiences themselves affecting their perceptions, the aim of the materials being targeted towards increasing the ability (Figure 10) of the FSWs is very important for positive perception. Very high majority of the FSWs said that focusing on their ability is important for their perception. On motivation, more number FSWs have said that it affects their perception than those who said it doesn't affect their perceptions.

Risk perception is another factor where almost all FSWs agreed on the effect it has on their perceptions (Figure 12). The respondents reported that risky experiences are important for perception. On the use of condoms, the success of the campaign can easily be observed in that majority of the respondents said that it's very important (Figure 12, 13). Using condoms as one method of HIV transmission prevention is widely encourage and the FSWs strong attitude towards this will help to minimize the incidence rate.

However, one noticeable factor here the women's hesitation when it comes to the use of condoms with their trusted partners/boyfriends or "Balukas". There are emotional elements here that are compromising the decisions of the women on using condoms. The Balukas are young men who are drivers, laborers and unemployed youth. They could be having more

than one sexual partner and this could be one of the risks where FSWs are exposed to HIV infection. This is a good area for researchers to explore the challenges further and make recommendations.

These young FSWs, mostly uneducated, come from a diversified ethnic background speaking different languages. This is an extremely difficult and challenging situation for communications campaigns designers and implementers. The FSWs express various reasons for migrating from their origins to such hotspot locations, including economic and social. They all agree that coming into Addis Ababa and joining such an activity supports their livelihood but through the communications campaign messages they have learnt the threats, coping mechanisms and build their self-efficacy to perform the recommended behaviors.

Most of these young women are vulnerable but have high potential for change and growth. Their means of livelihood doesn't allow them to follow up formal education due to sometimes timing and they need the kind of support these communications campaigns are giving them, their high knowledge of HIV prevention being one indicator of success.

Communications campaigns have primary objectives of changing the behaviors, attitudes and practices of these FSWs through information education and persuasion. The campaign under this study used different audio print and visual materials to inform FSWs about the risks of HIV infection and the methods of transmission and ways of prevention. As can be seen in the finding, the campaign was successful in that the FSWs have demonstrated high knowledge of HIV prevention methods.

The communications campaign used materials written and printed in Amharic mainly because it was implemented in Addis Ababa. However, recognizing the perception need of the audiences, peer educators were trained and assigned to distribute the materials as well as conduct interpersonal sessions to verbally explain the messages to audiences who couldn't read. This effectively enabled the campaign to reach all audiences irrespective of age, educational ethnic and religious background. Audiences who were not Amharic speakers got verbal explanations from dual language speakers.

Audiences primarily preferred peer educators as their source of HIV information. This could be potentially attributed to the fact that the peer educators worked with the FSWs for the last year did a good job of communicating with FSWs and transferring good HIV prevention

knowledge successfully. Similarly the FSWs suggested women groups and coffee ceremonies as their secondary source of HIV (Table 5) these again could be attributed to the fact that peer educators used these strategies to have information exchange sessions with the FSWs and FSWs saw this as a good way of communications which is engaging, interactive, educational and interesting. The audiences' third choice of preferred HIV information source is print materials despite their diversified educational background. The fact that they received, discussed about and understood the messages on the print materials either directly reading them or through the verbal explanation of the peer educators influenced their choices.

5.2. Recommendations

- Government should be able to provide up-to-dated, and regular demographic characteristics of key populations to all stakeholders to enable be more effective and efficient,
- Campaigners should give due attention to demographic factors of audiences when crafting messages for better reception and increased knowledge. Campaigns should be multilingual in nature in accordance with the characteristics of audiences despite the fact that its implemented specific language speaking region, town, or city like Addis Ababa. The origin of the audiences could be from different areas.
- Campaigners should give priority to IPC methodologies when disseminating messages aiming to increase knowledge as well as change behaviors rapidly. The use of peer educators and verbal explanation of messages in print materials is a critical success factor in this campaign that enabled the campaign achieve its objectives and which should be replicated and scaled-up in all other similar campaigns.
- Campaigners should ensure that they are seen as credible sources of information among the targeted audiences for better effectiveness. The messages they craft should be appealing to audiences. When designing communications campaigns, it should be taken into consideration that credibility affects audience perceptions and that mechanisms or strategies should be in place to build trust between disseminators and the receivers of messages.
- Campaigns and information disseminations should always take pace in the working/living environment of audiences.
- Communications campaigns should be using mix of mass communications, group communications as well as interpersonal communications as a strategy for messages disseminations supplemented by the use of peer educators, women groups and coffee

ceremonies. Despite having different educational backgrounds, the use of easy-to-read, illustrative and colorful print materials seems to be appreciated by FSWs therefore, its recommended to use them.

- Campaigns and message disseminations particularly targeting FSWs, should take place within their working and living environments. It is a critical high valued factor by audiences.
- Campaigners should be monitoring activities in progress to identify points of message fatigue among target audiences. They should also decide what kind of strategies to use when aiming to widen exposure and ensure recall. For instance, choosing to use different channels as a strategy to ensure exposure and recall may backfire in a negative direction. This is unless through monitoring the attitudes of audiences is gauged and based on findings regular revisions are made.
- Designing a campaign should primarily focus on building audience profiles to have in-depth understanding of the kind of skills and abilities targets are looking for. Because self-efficacy seems to be a critical factor among FSWs driving their motivation, interest and perception of messages targeted at them.
- Motivation to access, read and try to understand messages may not always necessarily come from the target audiences themselves. Campaigners could also do it for them using different strategies such as interpersonal communications with the opinion leaders of the targets.

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Annex I:

Individual Survey Questionnaire

Random Individual ID: _____

Factors Affecting Audience Perception of Communication Campaign Messages Aimed to Prevent HIV/AIDS Transmission

Table of Contents

Section A: Demographic Characteristics of Audiences

Section B: Sources of Information and Preferred Media

Section B: Knowledge of HIV Prevention

Section D: Factors Affecting Perception of Campaign Messages

- D1:** Campaign Implementers (Source of Messages) Related Factors
- D2:** Message Related Factors
- D3:** Context Related Factors
- D4:** Audience Related Factors

Introduction

Dear Respondent,

We are research assistants supporting a prospective graduate student of Addis Ababa University School of Communications and Journalism. The student is working on his final thesis titled "Factors Affecting Audience Perception of Communication Campaign Messages Aimed to Prevent HIV/AIDS Transmission". He is studying key population groups members in Addis Ababa to learn about their demographics characteristics, information sources and preferred/favorite media as well as factors affecting their perceptions. We hope to use your responses to make recommendations to help improve future communications campaigns more effective in preventing HIV infections. Your names are not needed, your identity will not be revealed or recorded. The information in this questionnaire does not put you in any danger or risk. If you agree to participate, please read this and put your signature or finger print.

Agreed to Participate: _____

To be filled by the Data Collector after the respondent as agreed to participate in the study.

		Response	Remark
	Name of Sub City:		
	Name of Location where Questionnaire Is filled:		
	Questionnaire Number:		
	Date Of Questionnaire filling:	_ _ / _ _ / _ _ DD MM YY	
	Data Collector's Name:		
	Time Questionnaire Started:		
	Time Questionnaire Ended:		
	Number of Questionnaire Session:		

Section A: Demographic Characteristics

Instruction for Data Collector: Unless you are instructed to do so, do not read aloud the options. Allow the respondent to answer and find the response that closely matches the options. Probe, when told to do so, to get a response that matches the options.

Data Collector: Circle the value corresponding to the option mentioned by the respondent.

#	Questions	Response	Information:
1	Enter Respondent's gender	Female	
2	How old are you?	Below 18	
		19-25	
		26-35	
		36-45	
		Above 45	
		Don't know	
3	What is your first language (mother tongue)?	Amharic	
		Afan Orommo	
		Tiariana	
		Wolytigna	
		other specify)	
4	List any other languages you speak?	Other - List the Languages:	
13	How long have you been working sex work in this area?	No of months or years	
14	How many nights do you work in a week?	Number Of Nights	
		Don't Remember	
		No Response	
15	Approximately how much income in cash do you get per month on average?	None	
		Less than 500 Birr	
		501 Br - 1000 Birr	
		1001 - 1300	
		Over 1300	
		Other (Specify)	
		Don't Know	
18	Do you have a regular partner currently – in the last 3 months?	Yes	
		No	
19	If Yes, how long have you been with your partner?	Over 2 yr	
		1 to 2 yrs	
		Less than 1 yr	
		Other (specify)	

20	Have you ever been to school?	Yes	
		No	
21	If yes, until what grade have you attended?	Grade 9 and above	
		Unto Grade 8	
		Unto Grade 6	
		Up to Grade 4	
		Up to Grade 2	
		Other Specify: ____	
22	Can you read and write Amharic?	Yes	
		No	
		Very little	

Section B: Sources of Information and Preferred Media

#	Questions	Response	
B2	What is your source of general information?	Radio	
		TV	
		Word of mouth	
		Community meeting	
		Newspapers	
		Church	
B1	Have you ever heard about HIV/AIDS before?	Yes	
		No	
		don't remember	
B3	<p>What are your preferred information sources for HIV/AIDS?</p> <p>NOTE: Do not Prompt. Allow Respondent to exhaust the sources. Then ask :</p> <p>Put a tick in the yes column when an option is mentioned by a respondent.</p>	a. radio	
		b. tv	
		c. billboard	
		d. newspaper / magazine	
		e. leaflets, brochures	
		f. sexual partner	
		g. doctors, nurses, health officers,	
		h. peer educators	
		i. infected persons	
		j. community leaders/meetings	
		k. school	
		l. church / mosque	
		m. friends	
B5	If you are asked to rank your three most favorite media in order?	1	
		2	
		3	
		None	

B28	Have you participated in the PSI/Ethiopia's HIV Prevention Communications Campaign?	Yes	
		No	
		I don't remember	
B29	If yes, have you read either of these materials? Show brochure, leaflet, poster by PSI Ethiopia?	Yes	
		No	
		Don't remember	
Data Collector: If the answer for both the above two questions is No, then stop questionnaire filling, acknowledge the respondent and leave.			

Section C: Knowledge of HIV Prevention

	STATEMENTS	Yes	No	
C1	Get HIV counseling and testing at the nearest health facility and start taking necessary precautions to avoid infection			
C2	Use male condoms correctly and consistently, with all partners and at all times,			
C3	Avoid consuming too much chat, alcohol or any substance before going to work or during work as it affects judgment,			
C4	Don't have unsafe sex with regular partners or high paying partners and "Balukas" or boyfriends – always with condom			
C5	In pregnancy, go to the nearest medical facility to get tested, and to get assistance on how to prevent mother-to-child-transmission (PMTCT) of HIV,			
C6	To immediately seek medical treatment in case sexually transmitted infections symptoms are observed. Always use condom to avoid repeated infection.			

**Section D: Factors Affecting Perception of Campaign Messages –
D1: Source of Message Related Factors (Campaign Implementers)**

Questions			
I am now going to read out statements. Please have a look at this card. I need you to tell me if you agree with them or not and the degree to which you agree or disagree with them			
1= Unimportant; 2= very little Importance; 3= Moderately Important; 4=Important; 5= Very Important			
D1	Source of Message Related Factors		
D1.1	Credibility		
1.	To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the credibility of the peer educators and the message disseminators is:		
D1.2	Attractiveness		
2.	To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the attractiveness and preventability of the campaign material disseminators and the peer educators is:		
D1.3	Familiarity		
3.	To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the familiarity in terms of sex, age, ethnic group and religion of the campaign material disseminators and the peer educators is:		
D1.4	Ranking		
4.	To read the materials and understand them, Which factor do you think is the first most important and second from the three above for you?		
5.	Which factor do you think is the least important from the three above?		
6.	All are very important		
7.	All are not important		

*(Peer Educators=PE)

D2: Messages Related Factors

Questions			
I am now going to read out statements. Please have a look at this card. I need you to tell me if you agree with them or not and the degree to which you agree or disagree with them			
1= Unimportant; 2= very little Importance; 3= Moderately Important; 4=Important; 5= Very Important			
	D2: Message Related Factors		
D2.1	Comprehensibility		
8.	To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the comprehensibility, clarity and understandability of the messages is:		
D2.2	Relevance		
9.	To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the relevance of the messages to my life and work is:		

Questions			
D2.4	Attractiveness/Appeal		
10.	To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, the attractiveness and appeal of the messages in terms of use of illustrations, colors, images and some practical examples, is:		
D2.4	Ranking		
11.	To read the materials and understand them, Which factor do you think is the first most important and second from the three above for you?		
12.	Which factor do you think is the least important from the three above?		
13.	All are very important		
14.	All are not important		

(Peer Educators=PE)

D3: Context Related Factors

Questions			
I am now going to read out statements. Please have a look at this card. I need you to tell me if you agree with them or not and the degree to which you agree or disagree with them			
1= Unimportant; 2= very little Importance; 3= Moderately Important; 4=Important; 5= Very Important			
	D3: Context Related Factors / (Peer Educators = PE)		
D3.1	Message clutter/Overload		
15.	To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, giving us few number of messages instead many at a time is:		
D3.2	Working/Living Environment		
16.	To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, distributing them and explaining the messages to us in our working and living environment is:		
D1.4	Ranking		
17.	To read the materials and understand them, Which factor do you think is the first most important and second from the three above for you?		
18.	Which factor do you think is the least important from the three above?		
19.	All are very important		
20.	All are not important		

(Peer Educators=PE)

D4: Audience Related Factors

Questions			
I am now going to read out statements. Please have a look at this card. I need you to tell me if you agree with them or not and the degree to which you agree or disagree with them			
1= Unimportant; 2= very little Importance; 3= Moderately Important; 4=Important; 5= Very Important			
	D4: Audience Related Factors (Peer Educators = PE)		
D4.1	Ability		

Questions			
21.	To accept read and understand campaign materials and messages, the aim of the materials to increase my ability and self-efficacy is:		
D4.2 Motivation			
22.	To accept read and understand the campaign materials and messages, motivation to learn about something useful about life and work is:		
D4.3 Lifestyle (Risk perception)			
23.	In our work we need more money to change our lives, so using condoms with clients that come with more money and look healthy is:		
24.	I trust my partner. So using condom with my regular partner or boyfriend is:		
D1.4 Ranking			
25.	To read the materials and understand them, Which factor do you think is the first most important and second from the three above for you?		
26.	Which factor do you think is the least important from the three above?		
27.	All are very important		
28.	All are not important		

Time at the end of Questionnaire ___: ___ (In 24 hours)

Thank you very much for taking your time to fill this long questionnaire.

End of Questionnaire -//-

Annex II

Individual In-Depth Interview Questions with Guide

Individual ID: _____

Factors Affecting Audience Perception of Communication Campaign Messages Aimed to Prevent HIV/AIDS Transmission

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Section D: Factors Affecting Perception of Campaign Messages

- D1:** Campaign Implementers (Source of Messages) Related Factors
- D2:** Message Related Factors
- D3:** Context Related Factors
- C3:** Audience Related Factors

Section B: Sources of Information and Preferred Media

Questions

Section D: Factors Affecting Perception of Campaign Messages

D1: Factors from Source of Message

Credibility

1. How do you see the credibility of peer educators, the campaign materials? Do you trust them? why?

Attractiveness

2. What do you think are the attractive and unattractive elements about the PEs that affects your perceptions of the messages? Why?

Familiarity

3. Do you think the peer educators should be the same sex, age, religion, ethnic group and ladies who were FSWs themselves? Why? Why not?

D2: Message Related Factors

Comprehensibility

4. Do you think comprehensibility of the messages encourage you or distract you from trying to understand the materials? Why?

Relevance

5. If the materials and messages are not relevant to your life and work, would you try to understand them? Why? why not?

Attractiveness/Appeal

6. What's are the attractive and repelling things about the materials? why?

D3: Context Related Factors

7. What do you think are the elements in your living and working area that affects your participation in the campaign and getting the messages? (time, place, too many messages, too many materials) why?

D4 Audience Related Factors

Ability

8. Do you think you try to understand the materials if they increase your ability in HIV prevention? Or not? Why?

Lifestyle

9. What incidents were there that forced you to look for messages and materials that teach you about HIV prevention? Why?

End of Questionnaire-//-