

**COURSE
GUIDE**

**AEM 304
COMMUNICATION AND AUDIO-VISUAL TECHNIQUES**

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INTRODUCTION

This is a very important course in the preparation of modern agriculture graduates. The essence of extension delivery services is to assist farmers to increase productivity. The extension delivery system, particularly in developing countries, has executed many development programmes, over the years, with varying degrees of success. However, much requires to be done.

There have been some problems militating against effectiveness of the extension services including logistics, weak training and education, unstable government policies and poor delivery systems.

The central approach in extension delivery is the aspect of communication–sharing meaning.

Communication (including education and training) has remained misapplied or misunderstood by many extension personnel. The missing link has been poor understanding of the principles of communication, techniques of message delivery, training procedures, and training material preparation.

COURSE AIMS

The aim of AEM 304: Communication and Audio-Visual Techniques is to fully explain the principles and techniques of communication in order to guide extension workers in their efforts towards effective delivery of improved messages to farmers (clientele).

COURSE OBJECTIVES

At the end of the course, you should be able to:

- define communication
- describe the major elements in the communication process
- develop skills in communication and perception
- state training materials, their uses and design techniques
- discuss training media, their choices, problems and audio-visual aids
- develop good illustrations of the topics
- write and edit training manuscripts effectively
- appreciate the need to use the internet for extension work.

WORKING THROUGH THE COURSE

The learner should participate actively in the course and attend tutorial lessons.

COURSE MATERIALS

The learner is to be provided with:

1. Course Guide
2. Study Units.
3. A list of references is given for the learner to consult.

STUDY UNITS

There are eighteen (18) units contained in five modules in this course, namely:

Module 1

- Unit 1 Meaning and Types of Communication
- Unit 2 Principles of Communication

Module 2

- Unit 1 Elements of Communication: Sender
- Unit 2 Elements of Communication: Message
- Unit 3 Elements of Communication: Channels
- Unit 4 Elements of Communication: Receiver

Module 3

- Unit 1 Feedback in Communication
- Unit 2 Two-Step Flow Communication Theory: Assumptions and Implications
- Unit 3 Skills in Communication and Perception

Module 4

- Unit 1 Training Materials: Meaning, Uses and Design
- Unit 2 Media for Training
- Unit 3 Choice of Media: Problems and Techniques
- Unit 4 Communication with Illiterates

Module 5

Unit 1	Visual Aids in Training
Unit 2	Visual Aids and Good Illustrations
Unit 3	Effective Writing and Editing
Unit 4	The Internet in Extension Work
Unit 5	Audio-Visual Aids and Techniques

TEXTBOOKS/REFERENCES

A list of books and references appears in every unit to guide the learner in searching for more information on the concepts presented.

ASSIGNMENT FILE

The assignment file will be given to you in due course. In this file, you will find all the details of the work you must submit to your tutor for marking. The marks you obtain for these assignments will count towards the final mark for the course. Altogether, there are 18 tutor-marked assignments for this course.

PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

The presentation schedule included in this course guide provides you with important dates for completion of each tutor-marked assignment. You should therefore try to meet the deadlines.

ASSESSMENT

Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) refers to the continuous assessment component of the course. The tutor should mark each of them and keep good records of it. TMA accounts for 30% of the total examination score. About 3 to 4 TMAs should be given to each learner before the end-of-session examination.

The End-of-Session Examination (ESE) constitutes 70% of the entire examination.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

There are 18 TMAs in this course. You need to submit all the TMAs. The best 4 will therefore be counted. When you have completed each assignment, send them to your tutor as soon as possible and make sure that it gets to your tutor on or before the stated deadline. If for any reason you cannot complete your assignment on time, contact your tutor before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of extension.

Extension will not be granted after the deadline, unless on exceptional cases.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The end of course examination for this course will be for about 3 hours and it has a value of 70% of the total course work. The examination will consist of questions, which will reflect the type of self-testing, practice exercise and tutor-marked assignment problems you have previously encountered. All areas of the course will be assessed.

The time between the last unit and the final examination can be used for revision. You might find it useful to review your self-test, TMAs and comments on them before the examination. The end of course examination covers information from all parts of the course.

COURSE MARKING SCHEME

Assignment	Marks
Assignments 1-18	18 assignments, 30% from the best 3 Total = 10% x 3 = 30%
End of Course Examination	70% of overall course marks
Total	100% of course materials

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecturer. This is one of the huge advantages of distance learning mode; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace and at a time and place that suit you best. Think of it as reading from the teacher, the study guide tells you what to read, when to read and the relevant texts to consult. You are provided exercises at appropriate points, just as a lecturer might give you an in-class exercise.

Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next to this is a set of learning objectives. These learning objectives are meant to guide your studies. The moment a unit is finished, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If this is made a habit, then you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course. The main body of the units also guides you through the required readings from other sources. This will usually be either from a set of books or from other sources.

Self-assessment exercises are provided throughout the unit, to aid personal studies and answers are provided at the end of the unit. Working through these self-tests will help you to achieve the objectives of the unit and also prepare you for tutor-marked assignments and examinations. You should attempt each self test as you encounter them in the units.

The following are practical strategies for working through this course:

1. Read the course guide thoroughly
2. Organise a study schedule. Refer to the course overview for more details. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignment relates to the units. Important details, e.g. details of your tutorials and the date of the first day of the semester are available. You need to gather together all these information in one place such as a diary, a wall chart calendar or an organiser. Whatever method you choose, you should decide on and write in your own dates for working on each unit
3. Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything you can to stick to it. The major reason that students fail is that they get behind with their course works. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please let your tutor know before it is too late for help
4. Turn to unit 1 and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit
5. Assemble the study materials. Information about what you need for a unit is given in the table of content at the beginning of each unit. You will almost always need both the study unit your are working on and one of the materials recommended for further readings, on your desk at the same time
6. Work through the unit, the content of the unit itself has been arranged to provide a sequence for you to follow. As you work through the unit, you will be encouraged to read from your set books
7. Keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing all your assignments carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and will help you pass the examination
8. Review the objectives of each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you are not certain about any of the objectives, review the study material and consult your tutor
9. When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to pace your study so that you can keep yourself on schedule

10. When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep to your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments, both on the tutor marked assignment form and also written on the assignment. Consult your tutor as soon as possible if you have any questions or problems
11. After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in this course guide).

TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

There are 8 hours of tutorials provided in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, times and location of these tutorials as well as the name and phone number of your facilitator, as soon as you are allocated a tutorial group.

Your facilitator will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and any difficulties you might face and provide assistance to you during the course. You are expected to mail your Tutor-Marked Assignment to your facilitator before the schedule date (at least two working days are required). They will be marked by your tutor and returned to you as soon as possible.

Do not hesitate to contact your facilitator by telephone or e-mail if you need assistance. The following might be circumstances in which you would find assistance necessary, hence you would have to contact your facilitator if you:

- do not understand any part of the study or the assigned readings
- have difficulty with the self-tests
- have a question or problem with an assignment, with your tutor's comments or with the grading of an assignment.

You should endeavour to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face to face contact with your course facilitator and to ask questions which are answered instantly. You can raise any problem encountered in the course of your study.

To gain much benefit from course tutorials, prepare a question list before attending them. You will learn a lot from participating actively in discussions.

SUMMARY

This course is a very essential aspect in the preparation of extension personnel. On completion of the course, the learners would have acquired the basic knowledge of the communication process, techniques and practices. The learners would understand how to use audio, visual aids and audio-visuals effectively.



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COURSE**

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MODULE 1

Unit 1	Meaning and Types of Communication
Unit 2	Principles of Communication

UNIT 1 MEANING AND TYPES OF COMMUNICATION**CONTENTS**

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2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Meaning of Communication
3.2	Types of Communication
3.2.1	Downward Communication
3.2.2	Upward Communication
3.2.3	Horizontal Communication
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Everybody communicates in one way or the other. Communication is the interchange of information or opinions using signs, speeches or by writing. It is important in every society to exchange meanings. If individuals or groups fail to communicate, there is no interaction and this leads to a “gap” in ideas, thoughts and messages. The final result of a communication gap could be crisis, chaos or war. We all should, therefore, try to communicate and do so effectively.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define communication
- describe the types of communication.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Communication

Communication is a continuous, never-ending means of transferring or passing on messages (ideas, innovations, skills, knowledge or practices from a source to the ultimate users in order to modify the behaviour or reaction of receivers in the desired direction. Successful communication requires a skilled communicator sending a useful message through proper channels to an appropriate audience who will make the desired response.

Communication is a transactional process that involves exchange of ideas between two or more individuals that brings about a convergence in meaning involved. Communication is a process of transmitting thought; sharing and imparting information; conveying and receiving ideas, attitudes and feelings; as well as creating and exchanging messages within a network of interpersonal relationship.

According to Adebayo (1997), communication can be broadly categorised into two, vertical and horizontal communication. Vertical communication is the flow of information between hierarchically perceived source and receiver pair, that is, between a source and a receiver that are conceded to belong to different tiers in a top-bottom or bottom-top communication scenario. Horizontal communication, on the other hand, refers to information flow between a source and receiver pair perceived to belong to the same tier in the same hierarchy.

3.2 Types of Communication

There is a hierarchy in any organisation. Some employees are managers or supervisors while others are subordinates. Communication could be between supervisors and supervisors or supervisors and subordinates. Communication could be between Zonal Extension Officers and other Zonal Extension Officers or between the Zonal Extension Officer and the Extension Agent.

To attain the goals of an extension organisation requires effective communication between sub-units of the organisation and between groups. Communication between two persons in an organisation (dyadic communication) is very frequent in any extension organisation. Three types of dyadic communication can be identified, (Obinne and Okwu, 1999) namely:

- i Downward communication
- ii Upward communication
- iii Horizontal communication.

3.2.1 Downward Communication

This refers to the flow of messages from senior colleagues (e.g. supervisors) to subordinates (e.g. extension agents). The quality and quantity of the downward communication usually influence employees' (extension agents) job satisfaction. The extension supervisors should praise the extension agents when necessary; understand the extension agents' job; and be friendly.

3.2.2 Upward Communication

This refers to message flow from subordinates (extension agents) to supervisors (block extension supervisors); for the purpose of asking questions, providing feedback and making suggestions.

Advantages of Upward Communication

1. It can enhance employees' morale and attitude
2. It is a very useful tool for planning and motivation
3. It is a source of decision-making information.

Disadvantages of Upward Communication

1. Subordinates tend to tell their superiors what they (supervisors) like to know or think they want to hear.
2. Subordinates may give their superiors information that tend to reflect favourably on themselves.
3. Subordinates may distort information in a manner that would please their superiors.
4. The above issues tend to arise where superiors are perceived as being unreceptive to information; are usually not open; subordinates do not trust their superiors and there is, usually, poor communication between superiors and subordinates.
5. Upward communication can be achieved through open-door policies; counseling, meetings, opinion surveys and employee letters.
6. Upward and downward types of communication are, collectively, called vertical communication which is built on the hierarchical authority. It provides the basic chain of command along which orders and other messages flow.

3.2.3 Horizontal Communication

This is the exchange of messages among employees on the same level of authority. This lateral flow of messages may be between extension agents.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Human beings cannot communicate. Communication is a compulsion to share meaning. The process goes on every time we exchange meanings at work, in school, at play and in business.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that communication is the sharing of meanings, understanding and ideas. Three types of communication can readily be identified, these are downward, upward and horizontal types. The downward and upward types are, collectively, referred to as vertical communication.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Choose a communication type and give reasons why you think that type is the best for our society.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Adebayo, K. (1997). *Communication in Agriculture*. Abeokuta: Greenlinks International.

Obinne, C. P. & Okwu, O. J. (1999). Organizational Communication and Job Satisfaction: An Empirical Study of Village Extension Agents of Ogun State Agricultural Development Project, *The Nigerian Rural Sociologist*, 3, 73-83.

UNIT 2 PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATION

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- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Principles of Effective Communication
 - 3.2 Barriers to Effective Communication
 - 3.3 Indigenous Communication Channels
 - 3.4 Differences between Interpersonal and Mass Communication Processes
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

How we communicate, what and why we communicate are guided by certain principles. Communication is an art and show, obviously, proceed in an acceptable standard. The message, for instance, should be interpreted correctly by the receiver.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- state the principles that guide effective communication
- identify the barriers to effective communication
- name the indigenous channels of communication
- differentiate between the nature of interpersonal and mass communication processes.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Principles of Effective Communication

1. **Presence of essential elements of communication:** there should be a sender, a message, a channel or medium, a receiver and an effect.
2. **Existence of the need to inform farmers and other stakeholders:** There is need for dissemination of research findings, innovations to farmers and stakeholders.

3. **The content of message should address the needs of the target audience**
4. **Clarity of message content:** The content of the message should be clear, simple and unambiguous.
5. **Communication should be timely:** Farmers should be reminded of innovations already introduced and adopted when they are most relevant.
6. **Use of appropriate media:** The media should be suitable in terms of language, culture, technical level and content for it to be appropriate.

3.2 Barriers to Effective Communication

The factors that act as barriers to effective communication constitute noise. Noise may come from the following sources:

- i **Sender:** If unclear messages coded in ambiguous language are sent, the audience may find it difficult to interpret or decode. In such a situation, the sender is creating a barrier to effective communication.
- ii **Message Content:** Unless message content is presented in a clear, unambiguous, and simple manner to convey the intended meaning, it would become noise, because the receiver would not understand the intended meaning.
- iii **Channel (Medium):** A faulty channel would not transmit clear/correct messages.
- iv **The Receiver:** An incompatible background of the receiver (socio-cultural, educational level, interest, attitudes, needs, problems etc.) is a factor which may act as barriers to effective communication.

3.3 Indigenous Communication Channels

Indigenous communication is an important aspect of culture, and it is the means by which a culture is preserved, handed down and adapted.

Indigenous channels are needed to convey messages to people out of reach of exogenous channels including even the most widespread radio and extension personnel. Indigenous channels have credibility because they are familiar and are controlled locally.

Indigenous channels allow local people to communicate among themselves and with extension personnel as well as decision makers.

Types of Folk indigenous channels include:

- 1 **Folk Media:** Festivals, plays and puppet shows, dance, song, poetry, debates, parades and carnivals
- 2 **Indigenous Organisations and Social Gatherings:** Village meetings, women associations, credit/cooperative associations, market associations and religious groups
- 3 **Deliberate Instruction:** Many societies have traditional schools. Parents teach children, crafts people instruct apprentices, and adolescents undergo initiation rites
- 4 **Records:** Many societies keep formal records which do not necessarily have to be written. Such formal records may be carved, painted, memorised or even written. Farming practices are readily explained to farmers' children either at home, along the farm path or on the farm site
- 5 **Direct Observation:** A farmer can conclude that a thunderstorm is coming by observing a dark cloud during the rainy season.

3.4 Differences between Interpersonal and Mass Communication Processes

1. **Information Flow:** In mass communication, the nature of message flow is, generally, in one direction (one-way) only, from source to receiver. The flow is impersonal in nature.
2. **Channels of Communication:** Face-to-face communication occurs on many channels, with many opportunities to send and receive messages. Books, newspapers, and magazines are often called the "print media", while radio and television are often called the "electronic" or "broadcast" media. "Electronic recorded" media include CDs, cassette tapes, video tapes, and the like. They are electronic in nature but are sold and delivered much in the same way as books. "Film" or "movies" are similar to television but are delivered in special buildings called "theatres". Telephones and computer networks are electronic but are mostly used as person-to-person, rather than mass, media channels of communication.
3. **Noise Control:** In mass communication, the tendency to control the noise which occurs through transmission or personal perception is very minimal. This is because the relationship between the source and the audience is anonymous and, so, it is not easy for the reader, viewer or listener to ask questions or to get clarification if the need arises. Most face-to-face channels involve the physical presence of the sender as well as the receiver and this encourages the achievement of mutual understanding.

4. **Audience Size and Spread:** The audience of mass communication is large and widely spread while that of interpersonal communication is much smaller.
5. **Categorisation/Choice of Audience:** Messages in mass communication are public and unrestricted. In interpersonal communication, the senders have better control of choice of audience.
6. **Feedback:** Feedback is immediate with interpersonal communication. In mass communication, it is delayed.
7. **Simultaneity of Content:** The mass media can establish simultaneity of contact with large numbers of people at a distance from each other. This applies mainly to radio and television because of their natural endowment which puts them at vantage position to get their signal transmitted and received by the audience almost as soon as they are transmitted. This is not true of interpersonal communication; it tends to be slow or takes time for messages to get to many people.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Effective communication can only take place if certain principles are adhered to by all the message encoders, senders and decoders.

5.0 SUMMARY

The key principles of communication include existence of information need, clarity of message content, timely communication and the use of appropriate media. Some barriers to effective communication are found in the message content and the receiver; they constitute “noise”. Indigenous channels can be effectively combined with mass media channels to achieve effective communication. The obvious differences between interpersonal and mass communication channels were all discussed in this unit.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What are the needed guidelines for communication to be effective?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Agbamu, J. U. (2006). *Essentials of Agricultural Communication in Nigeria*. Mal. House Press Limited.

MODULE 2

Unit 1	Elements of Communication: Sender
Unit 2	Elements of Communication: Message
Unit 3	Elements of Communication: Channels
Unit 4	Elements of Communication: Receiver

UNIT 1 ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION: SENDER**CONTENTS**

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2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Elements of Communication
3.2	The Process Begins with the Sender
3.3	Attributes of Good Communicator
3.4	Functions of the Communicator
3.5	Constraints Faced by the Sender
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

One very important component in the process of exchange of meaning (communication) is the sending function. There is the initial originator of a message, also, called the SOURCE, for example, a research scientist. The message needs to be forwarded by an individual, the SENDER, who may be the scientist or a communicator or development agent like an extension worker.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- outline the attributes of a good communicator/sender
- list the functions of a sender/communicator
- identify the constraints facing the sender.

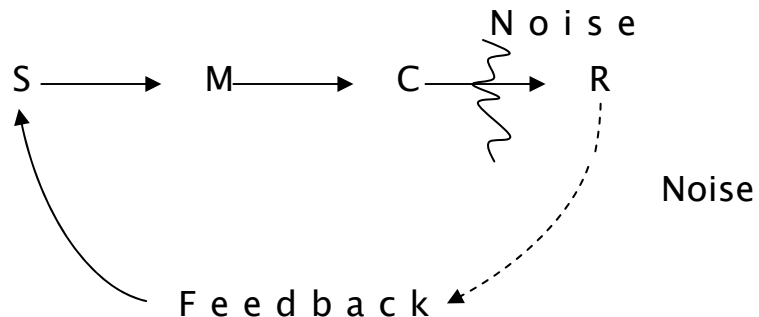
3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Elements of Communication

Communication involves four basic elements:

- 1 Source/sender/initiator, or communicator, e.g. an individual using symbolic code such as writing, speech, or an institutionalised person such as a researcher working in a research organisation. The sender is referred to as the encoder who translates an idea into a form that has meaning for both the sender and receiver.
- 2 Message/Idea (symbolic code in writing or speech) which has eventual meaning for both the sender and the receiver.
- 3 Channel or medium of communication e.g. sound waves.
- 4 Receiver who is called the decoder.

To be effective, the communication process provides for feedback or response. An “effect” is expected when the message is accepted and utilised by the farmer. Noise affects communication. It is any distraction or interference between the source and the audience. Noise is anything that makes the intended signal difficult to decode accurately. An interruption, obstruction or a distraction constitutes a competing stimulus, called noise.



3.2 The Process Begins with the Sender

Communication requires that all parties understand a common language that is exchanged. Communication starts from the sender to the receiver and back to the sender. The process begins with:

- **Thought:** Information exists in the mind of the sender. This can be a concept, idea, information or feelings.
- **Encoding:** A message is sent to a receiver in words or other symbols.
- **Decoding:** Lastly, the receiver transmits the words or symbols into a concept or information that he or she can understand.

During the transmitting of the message, two processes (content and context) will be received by the receiver.

- **Content:** Is the actual words or symbols of the message, which is known as language (the spoken and written words) combined into phrases that make grammatical and semantic sense.
- **Context:** Is the way the message is delivered and is known as Para-language. It includes the tone of voice, the look in the sender's eyes, body language, hand gestures, and state of emotions (anger, fear, uncertainty, confidence etc.) that can be detected.

3.3 Attributes of a Good Communicator

- Communication is a two-way process with the sender and receiver exchanging roles. For communication to be complete there must be a feedback.
- The sender is the person who starts the process of communication. He is the individual who has an idea, information or message to convey. The sender could be an extension agent, development worker, researcher and journalist, member of a block, information officer, specialist or the head of an organisation. Any inadequacy in the communicator will retard the communication effectiveness.

The attributes of a good communicator are:

- The sender must have adequate technical knowledge and skills. He should have interest in his audience
- Credibility refers to the perception of the communicator by the receiver with regards to the former's technical competence and trust-worthiness. The receiver is convinced by the sender's level of expertise
- The sender must possess necessary communication skill to handle the entire operations. He should be patient with the receivers and encourage them to ask questions, have skills in initiating a discussion, repeat the message and be able to influence individual or public opinion
- A message will not get through to intended audience without proper use of a channel. Selection or use of a channel varies with the type of audience, the type of message and recipient stage in the adoption process. There are differential source/channel preferences by an audience depending upon the socio-economic status, educational level, and communication behaviour
- Extension workers possess favourable or unfavourable attitudes towards innovations that they are giving out. Village-level workers and extension officers may not like farm planning

concept in a programme. Some communicators may possess negative attitudes towards the recipients. Recipients of a message are more likely to accept a message when they realise that the communicator really likes them and has shown genuine interest in the message

- A sender of information should understand the social, economic and educational levels, cultural norms and beliefs, needs as well as aspirations of his audience. This would help him interact effectively with the people
- The sender should be aware of the limits of time available
- A communicator should be able to diagnose clients' needs. Development projects should be based on clients' felt needs. A communicator's success is positively related to the degree to which his programme is compatible with clients' needs.

3.4 Functions of the Communicator

The sender/source performs the following functions:

- a. **Information Dissemination:** The sender disseminates information on development innovations in agriculture, health, education, human nutrition and poverty alleviation among others
- b. **Training:** Sender (including extension worker) educates and trains farmers on new technology
- c. **Behaviour Change:** Senders (e.g. sociologists) conduct researches into the process of social change
- d. **Meaning:** Senders interpret messages especially on policies.

3.5 Constraints Faced by the Sender

The sender is faced with constraints such as logistics, political, poor funding etc.

- i **Logistics:** Sometimes, logistics such as vehicle, machines etc. to enable him reach his clientele are not available.
- ii **Funds:** Many of the sender's activities are tied to funds e.g. cost of radio programmes, transport, printing of materials. Inadequate or absence of funds would militate against effectiveness.
- iii **Politics:** Political situations and politicking could negatively affect the sender.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Every communication starts with the sender. The communication process begins with thought and involves great effort to execute successfully.

5.0 SUMMARY

The critical elements in the communication process are the source/sender, message, channel receiver, “noise”, feedback and effect. The sender or communicator possesses certain attributes that are essential for successful communication. They are credibility, adequate technical knowledge, necessary communication skill and attitude. The communicator performs several functions including diagnosis, dissemination, and interpretation of message content. He faces some constraints.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

As a communicator of technical information, list your perceived roles.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Agbamu, J. U. (2006). Essentials of Agricultural Communication in Nigeria. Mal. House Limited.

UNIT 2 ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION: MESSAGE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Message Treatment
 - 3.2 Designing Effective Extension Messages
 - 3.3 Attributes of Innovations
- 4.0 Conclusion
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Message refers to the ideas and feelings converted into symbolic codes such as writing a speech. It is the content or subject matter of communication. Messages should be repeated in order to produce a potent forcefulness which the clientele would not ignore. When a symbolism is seen during a talk, and a poster or an exhibit is shown on the same subject that symbolism takes on a fuller meaning in the audience. The extension agents must be trained to use the camera, slide projector, motion picture projector (sound), tape recorder, public address system, portable flannel board, magnet board or chalk board etc. These issues will be discussed in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

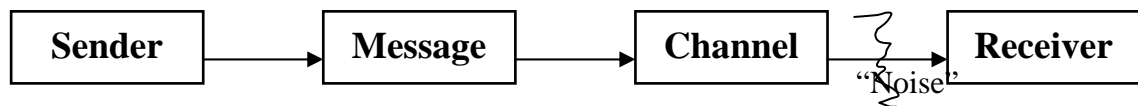
At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- explain what is meant by message treatment
- design effective extension messages
- describe the attributes of innovations.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Message Treatment

The position of **message** in the elements of communication is diagrammatically illustrated below:



When there is a feedback i.e. when the receiver responds to the message, the process is reversed such that the receiver assumes the position of the sender.

Message treatment refers to the way by which a message is transmitted so that the receiver can understand it properly and accept it. The communicator encodes his message, i.e. presents it in a manner he considers suitable. The receiver decodes it, that is, he interprets what has been said and tries to make meaning out of it. There is usually interference during the process of communication. The offending element is called Noise. Noise may distort a message so that the audience may not understand it. This is a physical interpretation. Noise may, also, be psychological, for example, an audience that is deeply verse in tradition might be contented with accepting the status quo. Such an audience may either reject an innovation outright or go through the initial period of adoption and later move into the stage of discontinuance. Noise is, therefore, a term used to represent any factor which prevents a message from getting through successfully to an intended audience.

A good communicator relies on a Message design logic embodying an individual's knowledge about how to relate message forms and functions. There are three different message design logics:

- 1 **Expressive**, in which self-expression is the chief function, and affective and idiosyncratic principles connect message to the context.
- 2 **Conventional**, in which the purpose of messages is to secure specific responses and in which messages are connected to their context by institutionalised appropriateness norms; and
- 3 **Rhetorical**, in which messages are meant to create consensus between sender and receiver, and in which messages are connected to context by character, motivation, and social co-ordination models.

3.2 Designing Effective Extension Messages

a **Gaining and Maintaining Attention**

An extension message is useless to farmers if they do not receive it. They must pay attention to a message if they are to learn from it. They may receive an extension bulletin but not read it, or turn

on the radio to listen to an extension broadcast but tune into music instead. The skilled communicator, therefore, has to design the message to capture and maintain attention for the duration of the message.

Certain efforts to gain attention are fairly obvious. A loud **noise** where there has been silence, a bright light in darkness, a coloured object amidst black and white will attract attention. The principle in these situations is that of **contrast** or **novelty**. An extension agent who is planning to use a set of slides should consider including an occasional black and white slides among a collection of coloured slides.

- b **Novelty** is an important factor with extension messages in less industrialised countries. Many farmers have had little or no experience of films, video, slides and other modern extension aids. Their initial attention will be very great, but it would be incorrect to believe that attention will be maintained at such a high level. Audience become accustomed to the experience and the novelty wears off.

3.3 Attributes of Innovations

Farmers tend to utilise technologies based on their perception of innovations. Attributes of innovations include:

- i. Compatibility, which is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as consistent with the existing needs of the receiver, his past experience and values;
- ii. Relative advantage, that is, the degree to which an innovation is perceived as better (economically, socially, technologically) than the earlier one or idea it supersedes;
- iii. Complexity, that is, the degree to which an innovation is perceived by farmers as relatively difficult to understand and use;
- iv. Triability, or the degree to which an innovation could be tried on a limited (small) scale, that is used in bits;
- v. Observability, or the degree to which innovation are visible or could be seen by potential users (farmers).

4.0 CONCLUSION

Message with its content is the “meat” or “bone” of communication. Without the encoding of suitable messages to clientele (recipients), any communication effort would fail.

5.0 SUMMARY

Message treatment is explained to mean the manner in which a message is made available (transmitted) to a receiving unit for it to understand properly and accept it. There are different ways of achieving effective message design. Some attributes of innovations have been explained.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

How do farmers perceive innovations?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Obinne, C. (1994). Fundamentals of Agricultural Extension. Enugu: ABIC Publishers Ltd.

UNIT 3 ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION: CHANNELS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Specific Communication Channels
 - 3.1.1 Mass Media
 - 3.1.2 Group Channels
 - 3.1.3 One-on-One Discussion/Individual Channel
 - 3.2 Conditions for Channel Usage
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The channel is the means by which a communicator transmits his messages (Obinne, 1992). It is the medium used to convey information from a sender, (source or transmitter) to a receiver (Adebayo, 1997). Communication channels are the modes or pathways through which two parties communicate. Many have observed that “the world is getting smaller”, referring not only to the ease of travel but, also, to the ease of communication around the globe.

The sender and receiver of a message need to be connected or linked to each other. Channels of communication serve as physical bridges between them.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- list the advantages and disadvantages of different communication channels
- state the guidelines for using different channels.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

A channel can take many forms. Examples of communication channels are:

- a connection between initiating and terminating nodes of a circuit
- a buffer from which message can be put and received
- a single path provided by a transmission medium via either physical separation such as multipair cable or electrical separation such as frequency
- a path for conveying electrical or electromagnetic signals usually distinguished from other parallel paths
- a specific radio frequency, pair or band of frequencies, usually named with a letter, number, or codeword.

The channels are relay mechanisms which transmit the message to the audience. No single channel is best for all the intended audience. The channel selected by a communicator is very important because it can largely determine the acceptance or rejection of an innovation. Channels of communication are numerous and include pictures, method and result demonstrations, charts, diagrams, posters and exhibits (visual methods); individual contacts such as farm and home visits, telephone calls, office calls, group meetings, radio and television (spoken methods); letters, circulars, bulletins and newspapers (written methods). Audio-visual channels require the senses of sight and hearing, for example, projectors, television and video. Audio-visuals stimulate learners' interest and provide a concrete basis for conceptual thinking.

3.1 Specific Communication Channels

3.1.1 Mass Media

Mass media methods reach a wider mass of extension audience within a short period of time. Examples are:

- **Radio:** The radio communicates useful information faster to a large number of people. The use of radio in information communication is cost-effective and presents information timely, especially under emergency situations. However, radio programmes do not present detailed information about major extension activities.
- **Television:** The television employs the senses of sight and hearing to enhance learning. By employing the television, the audience comes near face-to-face with the presenter, especially when pictures are presented in a slow motion. One major

constraint of using the television to relay information is that the audience cannot ask questions to clarify issues.

- **Others:** Newspapers; booklets; posters; flyers/leaflets; loud speaker announcements; videos/films; and town announcers (“town criers”).

The channels itemised above are generally good for:

- i. Creating general awareness – most effective when farmers are in the awareness stage of the adoption process.
- ii. Giving the basic facts.
- iii. Giving information a sense of importance and legitimacy.
- iv. Popularising and reinforcing messages.
- v. Creating a bandwagon effect that can encourage people to join in a programme/project.
- vi. Providing time-sensitive information.
- vii. Reinforcing information.
- viii. Giving short, key messages on schedules, dates, location.
- ix. Reaching many people simultaneously.
- x. Reaching rural communities.
- xi. Reaching village extension workers and urban and semi-urban audiences (radio and TV).

These channels have the following disadvantages:

1. interaction with audiences is not readily facilitated
2. detailed explanations cannot be provided to the audience
3. responding to individual questions or concerns is not easily possible
4. it is not easy to provide appropriate messages for people in a variety of circumstances and with different levels of intention to act
5. messages may not easily be understood by all members of the audience
6. mass media channels are expensive to produce, and broadcast time may be a huge expense
7. posters are logically difficult to distribute timely and are not always seen by many of the intended audience.

3.1.2 Group Channels

Group methods offer an opportunity for the audience (farmer) to listen to views of others before taking any decision. They help to influence farmers’ thinking and feelings about an innovation. Examples are:

- i **Group discussions:** This is a follow-up to farm and home visits. The extension worker discovers people with similar interests and gathers them for a group discussion for the purpose of exchanging views and experiences. One major advantage of this method is the forum created for local leaders and capable individuals who can lead others and carry on extension work in the communities thereafter.
- ii **Meetings:** During general meetings, information is given by a subject-matter specialist for consideration and future action. General meetings are usually composed of a heterogeneous group of individuals with varying levels of socio-economic and socio-cultural backgrounds. General meetings are employed to reach a large group of people to ascertain their reaction to extension activities.

The meeting agenda must be carefully outlined to help accomplish the objective and must allow a session for questions and answers.

Other forms of meetings are seminars/workshops as well as performance groups and celebrations.

Advantages

1. Meetings allow people to share ideas
2. They help explain details and respond to questions and doubts
3. They also legitimise messages and build consensus
4. Meetings provide support for changing attitudes and behaviour and the maintenance of new behaviour
5. They help to clear rumours and misinformation
6. Audience members are selected as guides/key mobilisers during meetings.

Disadvantages

1. They allow uniform message content which is not appropriate to all members
2. Responding to questions of a personal nature is not possible in general meetings
3. Encouraging the active participation of certain groups such as minorities is, also, impracticable
4. Reaching large sections of the population at the same time is not possible.

3.1.3 One-on-One Discussion/Individual Channel

In this face-to-face interaction, extension personnel persuade farmers to adopt new technologies. Examples of individual contact methods include:

- Visual aid
- Telegraphy
- Office calls
- Telephone calls
- Circular letters.

Advantages

These channels are good for:

- i supporting behaviour change
- ii legitimising, reinforcing and sustaining new knowledge, attitudes and behaviour
- iii responding to questions and needs of a personal nature
- iv identifying and filling information gaps
- v allowing flexibility to individual schedules and needs.

Disadvantages

- i. They cannot be used to reach many people quickly, without extensive planning and training of many staff or volunteers, followed by good monitoring and supervision.
- ii. They fail to clarify information or messages if communicators are not well trained.
- iii. They cannot prevent communicators' biases from entering communication.

3.2 Conditions/Guidelines for Channel Usage

The type of communication channels a communicator chooses to use is broadly determined by audience capability, nature of subject matter, channels available, and cost. Experience has shown that a combination of channels that appeal to different senses appears to be very effective in disseminating messages to farmers.

Different communication channels function at different stages of innovation adoption process. Mass media channels (print and radio) are, generally, knowledge creators (for creating awareness), whereas interpersonal communication channels are good at persuading farmers to

adopt an innovation. The use of audio-visuals and demonstrations are good for teaching skills to farmers.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

State the best channel of communication and state your reasons.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The sender of a message has a range of choices to select from. To help ensure successful communication, the sender needs to select the channel appropriate for the context. In choosing an appropriate channel, one needs not consider only richness (rich channels are those handling multiple inherent cues simultaneously, such as using feedback, non-verbal cues, and several senses). A face-to-face meeting which employs feedback as well as radio and visual senses is considered extremely rich. Other factors to consider include training and accessibility.

4.0 SUMMARY

Communication channels fall into categories, namely, mass media (radio, television etc.), group channels (meetings, seminars etc.) and individual channels (discussion, telephone calls etc.).

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Describe the advantages and disadvantages of using either the mass media or individual channels to communicate with rural farmers.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Adebayo, K. (1997). *Communication in Agriculture*. Abeokuta: Greenlinks International, Nigeria.

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UNIT 4 ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION: RECEIVER

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Nature and Characteristics of Farmers
 - 3.2 How Farmers Learn
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The farmer is at the centre of all communication matters. He has personal, social and economic needs as an individual and as a member of the social system. He is a farmer, a husband, a neighbour and a friend to different persons. His nature needs to be understood by the development agent.

Change agents should understand their audience before the message is packaged. This will help characterise the current knowledge about the audience, cultural background, economic and social skills.

The information needs and media use patterns of clientele should be understood in order to be able to design and implement relevant programmes.

The farmer is the receiver or the target of communication. He decodes the message symbols into meanings.

The receiver in the communication process may be an individual, a group such as a discussion group, or a member of mass audience.

Good communication requires a thorough analysis of the receivers. The sender's knowledge of the audience would help him to plan an appropriate intervention approach.

The more an audience is known by the sender of message, the better job of communication he can do. When the receiver attends to, accurately interprets, accepts and utilises a transmitted message, we can assume a successful communication. The element of attention, comprehension,

acceptance and usage are essential for successful message delivery. Once the message has been perceived, the final component of the communication process (the destination) responds to the perceived message with the denotative and connotative internal experience which is referred to as meaning. The function of the receiver is to interpret a message into meaning.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- state the nature and characteristics of the farmer/receiver
- describe the way the farmer learns as an adult.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Nature and Characteristics of Farmers

- i. They already have the knowledge of what they do.
- ii. Farmers want their experiences to be practical and rewarding.
- iii. Adults learn best when they sense a need to change.
- iv. They learn best when the topic is relevant and the tools are appropriate.
- v. They can accept responsibility on any issue arrived at through their consent or general agreement.
- vi. Although they may be illiterate, they are rich in indigenous knowledge about their environment and issues affecting their life.
- vii. They have more learning difficulties than young people.
- viii. They participate actively in the teaching and learning process and make meaningful contributions (Agbarevo and Obinne, 2010).

3.2 How Farmers Learn

The extension agent should draw farmers' attention to the subject matter, and arouse their interest and desire in a message. This would ultimately change the farmer's farming behaviour (knowledge, skills and attitude) in a desired direction and ultimately improve farm productivity (Ifenkwe, 2009). So, how do farmers learn?

- i. There must be the desire to learn before any meaningful learning can occur.
- ii. Farmers learn slowly because of their accumulated knowledge and the interference of previous experiences.
- iii. Farmers learn best when they have opportunity to share experiences.
- iv. They learn best under a good environment.

- v. They learn best when they discover new things themselves.
- vi. Farmers learn best only when the subject matter is realistic and practical.
- vii. They learn best in group situations.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

The teacher should organise a discussion with the students on their experiences concerning how farmers learn, and the various factors that tend to affect farmers' learning.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It has been shown that farmers, as adults, have special characteristics which should be understood by change agents in order to ensure effectiveness in communicating with them (the farmers). The way farmers learn is, also, unique.

5.0 SUMMARY

Farmers are adults and possess a special nature, a rich knowledge base, useful farm experiences like active participation etc. They learn slowly, like to share their experiences and want a desirable learning environment.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Enumerate the characteristics of farmers.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Agbarevo, M. N. B. & Obinne, C. P. O. (2010). *Elements of Rural Sociology and Agricultural Extension*. Uwani-Enugu: Teo Publishers. pp. 236.

Ifenkwe, G. E. (2009). *Discourse Analysis and Conversational Maxims: Implications for Agricultural Communication*. In: J.U. Agbamu (Ed.). *Perspectives in Agricultural Extension and Rural Development*. Owerri: Springfield Publishers Ltd. pp. 197–213.

MODULE 3

Unit 1	Feedback in Communication
Unit 2	Two-Step Flow Communication Theory: Assumptions and Implications
Unit 3	Skills in Communication and Perception

UNIT 1 FEEDBACK IN COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
	3.1 The Nature of Feedback in Communication
	3.2 The Role of Feedback in Communication
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Communication is defined as a process by which information is transferred from a source to the receiver with the intent of changing the behaviour of the receiving unit (Anyanwu, 1987). It is an interactional process between different individuals. This means that communication is a two-way process in which the sender and the receiver of information are active participants and are involved in the exchange process and usually can swap roles. Communication is, therefore, achieved when the sender and receiver of message exchange ideas, facts and feelings in ways that both gain common understanding of the meaning and the use of the information exchanged. This implies that communication is said to be complete and effective when there is an appropriate feedback (response) from the receiver.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the nature of feedback in communication
- explain the role of feedback in a communication effort.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Nature of Feedback in Communication

Feedback is the reaction or response to a message by a receiver, often seen in mental or physical actions. The effect of communication is implicit in the feedback. The effect relates to what has been gained, i.e., the change in behaviour that has been created in the receiver.

The three main types of communication effects are changes in the receiver's (a) knowledge, (b) attitudes and (c) acquisition of new skills. It is important that the receiver responds in one or more ways in order to convince the sender of the status of his communication efforts. Feedback, therefore, is generally a measure of the changes that occur in the receivers as a result of the message.

Effective communication between members of an organisation is partly dependent on feedback. It expresses the reaction or feeling of the receiver as a result of the message communicated. When the receiver responds to a message, the direction of communication process is reversed and the sender becomes the receiver while the original receiver becomes the sender. This response contains feedback (Agbamu, 2006).

There are different forms of feedback in communication, namely:

- 1 adoption of an innovation
- 2 clapping of hands
- 3 verbal responses e.g. chorus ovation of "yes" or "no"
- 4 nodding of heads
- 5 frowning/squeezing of faces
- 6 a written letter of response

In agricultural extension programmes, the feedback in the form of adoption of a recommended agricultural practice (innovation) implies that communication has been effective and suitable.

In face-to-face communication, the immediate feedback may be that the farmer asks questions on areas he does not understand clearly and, afterwards, expresses satisfaction of having understood the method or practice.

3.2 The Role of Feedback in Communication

- i. Adoption or rejection by farmers is expressed in the feedback (i.e. farmer's response or reaction) which shows to what extent the farmers have been affected by the message passed (change in their knowledge, attitudes and skills).

- ii. Feed back is necessary as a basis for improving or modifying subsequent communication content, channels and the strategies to achieve the set objective.
- iii. Absence of a knowledge whether an audience understood a message, accepted it and took the actions recommended means one cannot know how he/she is faring and cannot take intelligent action to improve effectiveness.
- iv. Feedback serves as a tool to appraise and evaluate the entire process of communication with regards to the achievement made and the areas that need improvement or modification.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The active pursuit of feedback information from farmers to extensionists not only enhances technology transfer in the short run but, also, greatly lays the basis for redesign of agricultural innovations that were hitherto compatible with local conditions.

5.0 SUMMARY

Feedback simply refers to the reaction or response of a receiver regarding the message transferred to him. It is very essential in any communication process because it expresses the feelings and reactions of the receiver in relation to the message. It expresses the extent to which the receiver has accepted the message as observed in the changes in knowledge, attitude and skills as a result of the message disseminated. Feedback serves as an evaluation or appraisal tool in the communication process.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss
 - a. the nature and
 - b. the role of feedback in agricultural extension communication efforts.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Agbamu, J. U. (2006). *Essentials of Agricultural Communication in Nigeria*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Limited.
- Anyanwu, A. C. (1987). *Communication Principles and Techniques in Livestock Extension*. A Monograph, Department of Agricultural Extension, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

UNIT 2 TWO-STEP FLOW COMMUNICATION THEORY: ASSUMPTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Assumptions of the Two-Step Flow Model
 - 3.2 Implications of the Theory
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Two-Step Flow model states that mass media have direct influence on the decision making process of people. Mass media do not operate in social vacuum but have an input into a very complex web of social relationship and compete with other sources of idea, knowledge and power (Agbamu, 2009) and (Kombol, 2005). The belief of the theory is that mass media messages reach opinion leaders first before other members of the society. However, the truth is that opinion leaders only have influence during decision making by others. Mass media messages reach everyone at the same time. Responses to media messages are mediated through social relationships and their effects are limited by interpersonal and group membership. Receivers are not all members of a ‘mass audience’ as they are all not equal in their reception of media messages. Messages can be received through many media. Receiving a message does not imply responding to it. Non-reception does not imply non-response because messages may be received through other media like interpersonal sources.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the assumptions of the Two-Step Flow communication theory
- state the implications of the theory.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Assumptions of the Two-Step Flow Model

Basic assumptions of the model are that:

- individuals are not social isolates, but members of social groups in interaction with other people
- responses and reactions to media messages will not be direct and immediate but mediated through and influenced by those relationships
- two processes are involved, that of reception and attention and another of response in the form of acceptance or rejection of the influence
- individuals are not equal in the face of media campaigns but have different roles in the communication process and, in particular, can be divided into:
 - a those who are active in receiving and passing on ideas from the media and
 - b those who mainly rely on other personal contacts as their guides
- opinion leaders are characterised by more use of the mass media, higher levels of gregariousness and self-perception to influence others.

3.2 Implications of the Theory

The theory indicates that information from the media that passes only through opinion leaders will only reach the audience after it had been filtered and those not accepted by opinion leaders will never reach the audience even if they are beneficial. Furthermore, opinion leaders influence the acceptance or rejection of such information by the audience (Kombol, 2005).

Personal influence is said to be the underlining factor in the Two-Way model.

There are two major disadvantages, namely:

- 1 its concept of political undertone, and
- 2 the imbalance in its mode or system of information transfer.

The random alteration in the symbols as the message moves from the opinion leaders to the masses and, in some cases, distortion, alteration or deletion of the message makes messages (whose intention may need immediate action or precise adherence) to be misused or untimed.

Opinion leaders, in some cases, hoard information from the subjects who may not regard them as leaders. Forcing the masses to accept whatever information they hear as coded.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The Two-Way Flow Model, (also called “The People’s Choice” Model) propounded in 1994 by Paul Lazarsfeld emphasises the direct influence of mass media on the decision-making process of individuals.

5.0 SUMMARY

The aim of communication is to create awareness. The use of mass media for communication is to reach a larger audience. According to Udoh (1999), mass media serve mainly to increase factual information about an issue and are more successful in telling people what to think about than what to think.

The Two-Way Flow Model seems not to fit into today’s communication sequence as the masses are becoming more educated, have access to mass communication facilities and prefer, in most cases, personal contact for mutual understanding.

The trends in globalisation have made information readily available from the mass media to the masses, thus, by-passing the opinion leaders in most cases.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain any two major assumptions of the Two-Step Flow communication theory.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 SKILLS IN COMMUNICATION AND PERCEPTION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Definitions of Concepts/Terms
 - 3.2 Dialogical Communication Concepts and Skills
 - 3.2.1 Listening with an Open Mind
 - 3.3 Probing
 - 3.4 Non-Verbal Communication
 - 3.5 Perception
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

To be effective in their roles as facilitators, advisors and supporters of farmers' efforts, change agents need to be able to communicate with farmers in true dialogue. Yet, this crucial skill is often neglected in formal education (Veldhuizen, *et al.*, 1997). Dialogical communication starts with realising how people select, project and interpret in their perception of reality, influenced by their cultural background, socio-economic position, education etc. The challenge is to accept and respect these differences in perception, but still try to build bridges between them (Van Veldhuizen *et al.*, 1997).

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the basic principles of dialogical versus monological and mechanical communication
- develop the skills to communicate dialogically
- describe the perception process and its role in communication.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definitions of Concepts/Terms

- a. **Dialogical communication:** People of equal status exchange views and information which are mutually understood.

- b. **Probing:** Continued questioning to unobtrusively stimulate the partner's flow of thought and analysis.
- c. **Non-verbal communication:** Facial expressions and inclination of the body are among factors that communicate opinions and interest without use of the spoken word.
- d. **Perception differences:** People observe and interpret the same reality differently. This is due to personal and socio-cultural differences, their back-ground and previous experiences.

3.2 Dialogical Communication Concepts and Skills

In a **dialogical communication**, two partners of equal status can exchange their views by means of messages which are mutually understood. Dialogical communication stimulates common action. The contrast is **monological communication**, in which one party (the "sender") determines the messages without giving the other party (the "receiver") any chance to express his or her ideas and comments. Thus, monological communication reduces one party to passivity and, in the long run, produces a frustrating situation in which much human potential is lost.

3.2.1 Listening with an Open Mind

Extension personnel aim at communicating receptivity and respect and at listening to what the farmers are saying with an open mind. Some habits that prevent listening well are:

- a after hearing parts of a story, thinking that we understand the main points and letting our minds wander to other matters
- b becoming angry at certain words or phrases, and ceasing to listen
- c quickly feeling that what we hear is boring or does not make sense
- d rejecting new views/ideas.

Table 1: Listening Techniques

Some techniques of good listening are presented:

Types of techniques	Purpose	Possible Responses
Clarifying	To get at additional facts. To help the person exploring all sides of a problem	Can you clarify this? Is this the problem as you see it now?
Restatement	To check our meaning and interpretation with the other person. To show we are listening and that we understand what the other person has said.	Is this what you have decided to do? And the reasons are that...?
Neutral	To convey that we are interested and listening. To encourage the person to continue talking.	I see. I understand. That's a good point.
Reflective	To show that we understand how the other person feels about what is being said. To help the person evaluate and temper his/her own feelings as expressed by someone else.	You feel that...
Summarising	To bring the discussion into focus in terms of a summary. To serve as a springboard to discussion of new aspects of the problem.	These are the key ideas that have been expressed.

Source: Van Veldhuizen, 1997, p. 76.

3.3 Probing

Probing is naturally related to listening. It aims to combine receptive listening with questions that unobtrusively direct the dialogue partner's flow of comment.

Probing also, provides a crosscheck on one's understanding of the other person's point of view and the consistency of his/her remarks. Probing techniques are similar to those used for listening. There are three types of questions usually asked:

- a. **Leading questions:** The speaker tries to get the farmer to agree with the speaker's viewpoint ("Don't you think that...?"). These are not good when discussing with farmers.
- b. **Direct questions:** Direct questions may be used if the aim is to obtain specific points of information, e.g. How often? How much? Which variety?
- c. **Open questions:** These do not direct the response of the dialogue partner and allow free expression. Open questions are the best when discussing with farmers. They encourage real learning.

Examples of open questions are:

- i. Can you tell me more about this?
- ii. What makes you see it this way?
- iii. What are some reasons for that?
- iv. How do you feel about that?

3.4 Non-Verbal Communication

An extension worker may, consciously or unconsciously, communicate a great deal to farmers without actually saying anything. Facial expression, inclination of the body, and many other forms of body language and non-verbal communication indicate to the farmers how keen and honest the field worker's interest is in their situation. Messages are communicated without words.

3.5 Perception

Dialogical communication between people from different cultural backgrounds is possible only if each realises that the other perceives reality differently. Perception is relative/subjective. Perception guides our behaviour and communication with others. People observe and interpret the same reality differently. This is due to personal and socio-cultural differences, their background and previous experiences. Perception involves:

- a. **Selection:** From everything perceived by our eyes, ears and nose, we choose only the one which interests us, while neglecting others.
- b. **Projection:** This shows how our existing feelings, fears or wishes influence and colour what we perceive.

- c. **Interpretation:** We retain (“store”) our perception only after we have given it a certain meaning, or have ordered it on the basis of what we knew already.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

In your opinion, how do young people perceive farmers in Nigeria today?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Modern education produces, unfortunately, graduates who are trained in agriculture only scientifically, instead of integrating farmers’ holistic and, often, spiritual perception. Extension workers should learn new ways of perception to become holistic.

5.0 SUMMARY

Skills in communication and perception needed by extension personnel include dialogical communication, probing, non-verbal communication with body language as well as perception.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. State three types of listening techniques
- ii. Explain the purposes of listening techniques

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Van Veldhuizen, L., Waters-Bayer, A. & De Zeeuw, H. (1997). *Developing Technology with Farmers (A Trainer’s Guide for Participatory Learning)*. Zeb Books Ltd, London in Association with ETC Netherlands B.V. pp. 230.

MODULE 4

Unit 1	Training Materials: Meaning, Uses and Design
Unit 2	Media for Training
Unit 3	Choice of Media: Problems and Techniques
Unit 4	Communication with Illiterates

UNIT 1 TRAINING MATERIALS: MEANING, USES AND DESIGN

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Meaning and Purpose
3.2	Designing Training Materials
3.2.1	Graphics for Training
3.2.2	Design Approaches
3.2.3	Illustrating Development
3.2.4	Design Techniques
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Training materials are of different types with differing uses and designs. Thus, it is good to understand how to use and design them for greater benefit before deciding on their usage.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- list the uses of training materials
- describe how to design training materials including graphics for training, and design approaches.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning and Purpose

Training materials are the media used for the work of communicating. They can be any material that helps communication to be effective and to achieve its objectives. The main objective of training materials is to help the trainer get over the message to the trainees so that they can apply it and do something new.

Training implies communicating skills which will be used and applied.

1. Training media can help create an interest in the subject so that the trainees will be attentive and learn.
2. They help to clarify information by picking out the essential points, showing what is important and presenting in a logical order.
3. They enable trainees to practice the skills that they are being trained in through exercises, role play, case study etc.
4. They help farmers learn by actively participating by doing.
5. Materials help trainees remember what was learnt.

The materials need to be related to the message for training to be effective support. They need to be geared to the needs of the trainee. Materials need to be appropriate in terms of language and culture, as well as relation to the subject matter.

Modern research and learning experts agree that we forget what we hear, we remember what we see; but we understand what we hear; see and do. Materials are used to support the talking, support the seeing and support the doing involved in training. Materials need to really illustrate the information, not just give key words. They can be used to show what the idea looks like and how to use the information.

3.2 Design Training Materials

Appropriate training materials have differing uses, designs and media. Design involves working out and planning what the materials will be and how they would work before their production.

The most important skill in designing is being able to think clearly and imaginatively. Literate and illiterate people interpret words differently because of differences in past experiences. Illustrations reduce the risk of misunderstandings, as they help make messages clear and more attractive; and they increase learning.

Realistic illustrations are usually the most effective in extension work, although humorous drawings have a definite place. Good pictures make any publication easier to understand and more interesting to read.

Communication methods that rely on the audio or visual senses, either alone or in combination, help overcome the barrier of illiteracy (Swanson, 1984).

You do not have to be an artist to think clearly and creatively. We will discuss graphics for training, design approaches, illustrating development and design techniques as presented by Zeitlyn (1995).

3.2.1 Graphics for Training

These are all kinds of images that can be used for training and they include words, symbols, charts, diagrams, graphs, maps, cartoons/comics, mathematical conventions, photographs, and drawings.

- a. **Words:** Words are images. When words are written or printed they become graphic images. They can be designed in many different ways to convey or clarify meaning. Words can be emphasised by:
 - using italics
 - capitalisation
 - underlining
 - use of colour
 - making the word bold
 - spacing widely.
- b. **Diagrams:** Diagrams are usually simplified pictures that show how things work.
- c. **Graphs:** These are visual presentations of information to show how figures change over time. Examples are block graphs, line graphs, circle graphs, pyramid graphs, area graphs and pictographs.
- d. **Maps:** Maps are obviously designed to show where things are geographically- “reality”; they indicate relationships, links, what is happening, history, and geology. They also serve as means of moving from one place to another.
- e. **Mathematical Conventions:** Sets can be used to symbolise the grouping of information, and to show relationships of many types.

3.2.2 Design Approaches

How to put across information must be decided upon. The trainer should think through a problem and come up with visual design ideas.

There are five design approaches (Zeitlyn, 1995):

1. Information analysis
2. Sequence

3. Visualising
4. Appropriate graphic conventions
5. Design for the media.
 - a. **Information Analysis:** This is the process of sorting out information and emphasising the important points according to levels.
 - b. **Sequence:** Ordering information is important in designing training. Putting it in sequence is a useful design approach, to help people learn the first stage first and work through in a logical order (step by step). Breaking the message into steps is a useful method for creating design ideas.
 - c. **Visualising:** This approach involves working out the basic ideas behind the information about the material before illustration, i.e. determining if the design would be a whole picture or creating visual impression. The visual image will attempt to get across the idea of the information and need not be exact.
 - d. **Appropriate Graphic Conventions:** The right graphic convention should be used for the particular message and training. Information that is comparing quantity or other numerical information can best be shown visually using graphs. Information on how to get to a place can use the conventions of maps. We have to be familiar with the various graphic options as well as with the information itself. The design may be used to attract attention, clarify or emphasise information.
 - e. **Design for the Media:** The right media should be used for the message, by thinking of the most appropriate way of using media in training.

3.2.3 Illustrating Development

Illustration requires the use of pictures and images to show what words really mean. This is important for training illiterate farmers as well as highly educated officers.

Visual images that may be used are pictures, cartoons, photos, symbols and diagrams. They can be drawn and adapted. They can be produced with photocopies.

Images speak louder than words. People often remember more of what they see than what is heard or read.

Illustrations or pictures need to be placed next to the text or caption to which they refer. They need to be shown in the right order and only when they are needed to support the flow of information. They can improve the effectiveness of a presentation and the overall training. They can be used to reinforce ideas and to promote the participation of the trainees in a discussion.

3.2.4 Design Techniques

Some of the techniques are:

- **By hand** – This is by the use of free hand to draw using paper and pencil first during training session.
- **Tracing** – This is simply copying. The original image is placed under thin tracing paper where it can be seen through, allowing one to copy it almost exactly.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Designing is a fundamental process for producing training materials. High quality designing is central to visualisation which assists in communicating effectively with uneducated as well as educated audiences. For effective training of farmers, appropriate designs should be skillfully made to ensure the understanding of the trainees.

5.0 SUMMARY

Training materials help to communicate effectively. Good quality designing would enhance the training material.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. What is purpose of training materials in extension work?
- ii. Describe any three design approaches for training materials.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Zeitlyn, J. (1995). *Appropriate Media for Training and Development*. Netherlands: Tool Publications. pp. 24-68.

UNIT 2 MEDIA FOR TRAINING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Chalkboard and Models
 - 3.2 Displays, Cloth Board and Flip Charts
 - 3.2.1 Displays
 - 3.2.2 Cloth Board
 - 3.2.3 Flip Charts
 - 3.3 Slides and Overhead Projector
 - 3.4 Computer and other Media
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

A good foundation to the application of training materials is an understanding of what they are, what they do (functions) and how to use them. These are the issues presented in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the useful and use techniques of various media for training.
- state the advantages and disadvantages of Flip Charts.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Chalkboard and Models

The chalkboard can take any colour, and can be seen by more people. We can design images or layouts of words and illustrations for use on the chalkboard/blackboard.

It is important to get a good surface. Coloured chalks are cheaply available. To improve the chalk use, we need a good board cleaner.

How to Use Chalkboard

The words and images on the board should relate to what is being discussed. Erase the board clean after each discussion. To erase the board clean, rub from the top down to reduce the dust that can fly around.

Useful Techniques

'Stick' people can be used on the board. Templates (shapes that are cut out of rigid board or card) can be cut out in the shape of a common image. It can be drawn out in pen on the card and then cut, following the drawn shape. Then, quickly draw round the template in chalk to make the shape.

Face the trainees and let them see what is on the board at the same time. Draw on the board from time to time. Do not crowd the board. Use bold letterings on the board.

Models

The use of models helps people to feel and try things out for themselves to really believe and understand the training. Models should be exact and fully operational, but the vital process should be seen and should be workable. Models can be made with the same material as a real one. Materials that can be used to make models are old boxes, paint, tape, cardboard, and clay.

Physical models as well as computer games or mathematical models can help people try out, play, use and gain experience in things that they normally could not get their hands on (Zeitylyn, 1992).

3.2 Displays, Cloth Board and Flip Charts

3.2.1 Displays

Displays can be made for all kinds of visual and written subjects. They can be printed and distributed widely. All kinds of places can be used for displays, e.g. training room. Display boards can be used to put up the displays and other materials such as flip charts easily. In the absence of a wall for displaying images, the trainer can wind ropes or strings around trees and then clip the display to those ropes.

3.2.2 Cloth Board

It is also called flannel graph when it is covered in flannel. It is a board covered in a rough fabric such as flannel, jute, felt or even a blanket. Pictures are placed on the board during farmer training. The board is set up at an angle. Paper images can be mounted on strips of sandpaper, thus creating a rough surface on the back of the images so that they will not slip off the board when in use.

Images placed on the cloth board can be pictures, symbols or words. The picture is mounted on the back with sandpaper. We can use strips of sandpaper on the top and bottom of the image.

3.2.3 Flip Charts

There are four types of flip chart:

- a. Hand-drawn flip charts may be prepared before the training session and shown in order to support a prepared talk.
- b. Sheets of newsprint paper which can be written up during training.
- c. Flip books can be designed, illustrated and printed and can work like small flip charts.
- d. Flip charts can be designed and printed.

Advantages of Flip Charts

Flip charts can be prepared, designed and used sequentially. The material drawn on flip chart can be used again and reviewed. Flip chart stands are cheap to produce and easy to use. They can be made out of wood or metal.

Disadvantages of Flip Charts

Flip charts are usually a small area to work on. They cost money to buy the pens, paper and the board. They take time to prepare.

3.3 Slides and Overhead Projector

Slides

Slides and slide projectors are good for training. Photographic slides can be used to present a vivid, realistic and illustrated presentation.

We can use slides with audiotapes to make a presentation that can be similar to a video with recorded music, voice and other sound to go with the pictures.

The Overhead Projector

The Overhead Projector (OHP) can be used to present prepared material or can be used like a chalkboard in training. It is projected and can work in normal daylight, thus, it can focus trainee's attention on the screen and on the message.

Electricity supply and a stand are required to set up OHP. The OHP needs to be set up in a room with plain white wall or screen to project on. When making a presentation, it is advisable to reduce the light coming into the room as much as possible. A 'transparency' or 'voile' is usually put on the OHP and this can be made by hand or with a photocopier or thermo copier.

Transparencies can be made with cellophane. Cellophane is much thinner than acetate and is cheaper. It should be mounted on to a cardboard frame so that it doesn't curl. Transparencies should be stored carefully for future use.

3.4 Computers and other Media

Computers

Computers are used for training as well as for designing and making materials for other media. Their appropriateness for training depends on how they are used. Their rapid adaptation for many functions means that their use is becoming widespread. They are used to deliver programmed and individual learning. This sort of learning enables the trainee to select what they need.

According to Zeitlyn (1995), computers' interactive capability has been applied successfully to learning. It can be used with video and the large storage capacity of CD ROM (Read Only Memory). With computers, an interactive system can store images as well as information.

Computers serve as a learning tool especially when installed with computer-aided learning programmes. They provide means by which learners could receive on-line tutorials and manuals in a given subject. The computer programme lets trainees interact with the information so it can be a real simulation. Computers can be used to make presentations with graphics, video clips and text. However, computers have caused people to lose their privacy and computer crimes are on the increase.

Other Media

a **Real things**

One set of 'media' involves the use of real things such as samples, visits, experiments, demonstrations, hands-on-experience, etc. They are the most successful way of training in practical skills.

b **Visual aid boards**

Magnetic boards are metals and we can mount the images on magnetic backing.

c **Folk Media**

Many societies or cultures have traditional forms of storytelling, singing, drama and rituals which can be useful in training. They support training.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Various media are necessary to make learning easier for farmers. They should be selected based on relevance, location and affordability.

5.0 SUMMARY

Many media have been discussed including the modern or emerging ones. Useful techniques have been explained in each case.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Choose one type of training media and discuss its uses, application and disadvantages.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Agbarevo, M. N. B. & Obinne, C. P. O. (2010). *Elements of Rural Sociology and Agricultural Extension*. Uwani-Enugu: Teo Publishers, pp, 236.

Zeitlyn, J. (1995). *Appropriate Media for Training and Development*. Netherlands: Tool Publication.

UNIT 3 CHOICE OF MEDIA: PROBLEMS AND TECHNIQUES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Media Types and their Properties
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Trainers are often facing challenges in their choice of media. These range from the problems of cost to trainee number.

In this unit, a chart has been used to illustrate the issues involved. This presentation is adapted from the work of Zeitlyn (1995).

The trainer is expected to discuss the issues pertaining to each of the media with the students and ensure their active participation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the problems/challenges in the use of selected media types
- state the properties of types of media selected.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Media Types and their Properties

Chart 1(A): Choice of Media: Problems and Techniques

S/No	Media Type	Costs to use		Ease of use	Equipment cost	Dependent on electricity	Number of trainees	Can be changed in the training	Visual	Comments and Techniques
		Cheap	Expensive							
1.	Chalkboard	√		√	√	√	2 → 50	√	√	Depends on the size of the board used
2.	Flip charts:	√		√	√	a √	2 → 30	√	√	Used to record trainees' contributions
	(a) hand									
	(b) printed	√		√	√	b √		X		Printed flip charts can be designed and illustrated
3	Cloth board	√		X	√	√	2 → 30	√	√	Can be built up as the presentation goes on
4	OHP		X	X	X	X	2 → 100	√	√	An ideal electric chalkboard can project very large images
5	Slides		X	√	X	X	2 → 100	X	√	Visually very strong and can be a centre of attention for a large audience
6	Models		X	X	X	X	2 → 30	√	√	Can be felt, seen and used
7	(a) Audio cassettes		X	√	X	a x	2 → 50	X	X	Cassettes can be used over and over again
	(b) Radio	√		√	X	b x	1 → infinity	X	X	Radio broadcasts can reach a large audience
8	(a) TV		X	X	X	a x	100 → infinity	X	√	Broadcast TV can reach a large audience if they have TVs
	(b) Video		X	√	X	b x	2 → 50	X	√	Video can be used as a high quality visual aid
9	Computers	√	X	X	X	X	1 → 2	√	√	Can be used as an interactive teaching machine with the right software
10	(a) Displays	√		√	√	a	1 → 50	X	√	Needs a wall and a method of fixing displays to stay up
	(b) Posters		X	√	√	b √	1 → 50	X	√	Posters can be taken home to be displayed

Key: √ = Good/cheap
 X = Bad/expensive

Source: Zeitlyn (1995) Pages 16–17.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In the use of any media type, a few issues usually arise. The trainer has to be able to resolve them and ensure their effective deployment in training.

5.0 SUMMARY

Cheap and inexpensive training materials/media include the chalkboard, flip charts, cloth board and displays. Video, television, slides and computers could be expensive. They all have special advantages in their use especially with ease of use, number of trainees served and equipment cost.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Compare the use of models and chalkboards with overhead projectors and television particularly among rural dwellers in Nigeria.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Zeitlyn, J. (1995). *Appropriate Media for Training and Development*. Netherlands: Tools Publications.

UNIT 4 COMMUNICATION WITH ILLITERATES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 3.0 Objective
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Intelligence and Motivation of Illiterates
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Most of our farmers have remained illiterate over the years. Very often, change agents had thought of indigenous, illiterate farmers as conservative. The belief was that they could not learn well or accept innovations. This required a new set of tools or techniques in dealing with illiterate persons. The problem seems to be that of illiteracy. In this unit, effort is made to determine how best to communicate with illiterate farmers. Are they not intelligent? Can they not be well-motivated to innovate or learn?

2.0 OBJECTIVE

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the nature of the illiterate farmer and the basis for a new training approach.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Intelligence and Motivation of Illiterates

Illiteracy is viewed as a major barrier to development. It is very important to raise the literacy level of farmers. Human capacity development is desirable and should be promoted among farmers if the nation is to achieve food sufficiency.

Rural areas and the agricultural sector lose their most valuable human resources as young men and women move to the cities in search of jobs.

Some adults learn to read and write but there are often no interesting opportunities to apply the newly learnt skills in rural areas. In particular, there is a lack of material for reading. Reading skills are lost rapidly. Literacy campaigns are, thus, carried out in many countries in the national language as a

way of solving the problem. Functional literacy is what is needed, particularly in Africa. The programme is strictly limited to essential knowledge and operations required for specific purposes.

Where the audience is predominantly illiterate, field staff should use direct personal communication even if recipients have a certain degree of reading and writing skills. Perception involves the reception of sensory stimuli and, also, the active further processing of these stimuli through to storage in memory. Research on intelligence is one of the most important branches of cognitive psychology. Our adult farmers are intelligent. They have their cognitive skills developed over time. They can and do grasp relations and symbolic thinking which can be seen in their life.

According to Hoffman (2002), it is only through an increased use of writing that it becomes possible to hand down ever more and increasingly specialised stocks of knowledge. Increasing division of labour and specialisation is the logical consequence if the growing knowledge is to be applied.

Increased use of symbolic forms of communication points thought in new directions, promotes the development and increased use of formal logic, more abstract classification and mathematical operations and, thus, furthers the ability to conduct formal intellectual operations (termed by Piaget as the fourth stage of intellectual development).

In terms of individual learning potential, there are no limits to acquiring the cognitive abilities associated with modern literacy. Adults can easily undergo formal training. Two-dimensional pictorial depth perception can be learnt very quickly.

The true problem is that illiterates might be incapable of using symbolic forms of learning and of acquiring the associated abstract mental skills, but rather, from their perspective, these abilities appear strange, and exceedingly useless. A major barrier in applying tasks of the 'intelligence test' type thus already presents itself in making their purpose comprehensible.

Nine attributes which characterise the modes of thought and expression of illiterates are:

- additive rather than subordinate
- aggregative rather than analytic thought
- redundant or 'copious'
- conservative or traditionalist
- close to the human life world
- agonistically toned
- emphatic and participatory rather than objectively distanced
- homeostatic

- situational rather than abstract (Hoffmann, 2002).

Experts note that to gain orientation in this multifaceted world, illiterates have no other choice than to optimise recurrent events or connections in a set way, for instance, in proverbs, figures of speech, and sayings. In non-literate cultures, critical differentiation harbours the greatest hazard of disorientation. “Without a writing system, breaking up thought (that is, analysis) is a high-risk procedure.

In terms of motivation, there is no difference between literate and illiterate persons. There are recurring basic needs which everyone must meet.

Motives develop according to the person and situation, and socially and culturally mediated concepts of value exert a considerable influence upon motivational structures. Therefore, motivation of illiterates is not different from that of literates; the only difference may be in the situation.

If one takes literacy and illiteracy as the sole distinguishing criterion, it is hard to identify any consistent motivational differences (Zeitlyn, 1992). If we compare industrialised with developing countries, world market-oriented with subsistent-oriented farmers, Europeans with Africans or African city dwellers with African villagers, we find in each case relatively distinct difference both in fundamental motivations and in most spheres of behaviour.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Generally, illiterate farmers are not conservative and not less intelligent than literate ones. It is possible to deal successfully with illiterate farmers in order to develop agriculture.

5.0 SUMMARY

The intelligence of illiterate farmers cannot be very different from that of literate ones except as influenced by the situation. Farmers can easily be motivated to act on recommended innovations.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Are illiterate farmers motivated differently from literate ones? Give reasons for your answer.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Hoffmann, V. (2002). *Picture Supported Communication in Africa*. Germany: Margraf Verlag/CTA, Weikersheim, pp. 352.

MODULE 5

Unit 1	Visual Aids in Training
Unit 2	Visual Aids and Good Illustrations
Unit 3	Effective Writing and Editing
Unit 4	The Internet in Extension Work
Unit 5	Audio-Visual Aids and Techniques

UNIT 1 VISUAL AIDS IN TRAINING

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	The Roles of Visual Aids in Training
3.2	Functions of Media Communication in Rural Development
3.3	Preparing a Poster
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The place of visual aids among literate and illiterate societies cannot be over-emphasised. In order to classify this concept, this unit concentrates on the role of visual aids in extension work.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the roles of visual aids in training
- explain the functions of pictures in communicating information.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Roles of Visual Aids in Training

- a. Visual aids convey greater meaning by supplementing the written or spoken word. They can be used to provide examples and demonstrate relationships.
- b. Visual aids attract and hold the attention of an audience. They make instructions more interesting for the learners/trainees.

- c. Visual aids make the learning process very interactive. They help to arouse curiosity and generate questions and discussions
- d. Visual aids assist in overcoming the limitations of time, size and space. It is possible to enlarge and reduce visual aids for use in training.

3.2 Functions of Media Communication in Rural Development

1. Communication for rural development means information, training and extension. The teacher's work is to motivate, inform, reinforce and stimulate his clientele. The teacher motivates by presenting an object in an unfamiliar way to make it more interesting.
2. Media accomplish two super-ordinate functions; informing and developing mental skills. These two basic functions may be further differentiated to indicate six types of uses in education (Hoffmann, 2002).
3. Media transmit already coded information.
4. Media have specific cognitive effects while the information is transmitted.
5. Media short-circuit specific mental operations for better acquisition of information.
6. Media arouse or activate specific mental operations deemed relevant to the task which, in turn, can then be developed.
7. Media teach coding systems so that learners will be better able to extract information from media and to handle new domains of content.
8. Media are sources of coding systems to be internalised and schematically used as mental tools.
9. The use of pictures can substantially support communication compared with communication using the spoken word alone.

3.3 Preparing a Poster

- 1 Posters can be used to present technical information. Decide on the precise topic and subject matter to communicate.
- 2 Proceed to plan the poster.
- 3 Write the complete content of the information.
- 4 Revise it thoroughly until all the information to convey has been included.
- 5 Edit the text conscientiously to keep it brief.
- 6 Approach a graphic artist and describe exactly what you wish to show in the poster. The artist will produce a design of the poster for you to review and approve. Study this design carefully. When satisfied with it, give approval for the artist to proceed with production of the final poster.

The trainer can prepare a good poster himself. Here are a few hints to help in preparing a poster for a conference poster session.

- i. Plan, write and edit the text.
- ii. Decide what is to be illustrated.
- iii. Arrange to make large prints of the photos.
- iv. Make a large sketch of the graphs and diagrams to include in the poster. The importance of the material being illustrated will determine the relative sizes of the illustrations.
- v. Set the text in large type, about 14 to 18 point size. Make the text concise and brief.
- vi. Paste the text groups on separate sheets of paper (the sizes will vary according to the amount of text).
- vii. Check on the size of the poster. Prepare a rough layout diagram to scale, indicating the exact place where each element will fit in the final poster.
- viii. Paste the text on separate small sheets of paper and cut out the extra paper areas. Make sure to paste the section in straight lines vertically and horizontally.
In order to enhance the appearance of one's poster, he can print the text on coloured paper or print it on white and then paste the text blocks on contrasting colour paper such as black, green, orange or red. Photos, drawings and graphs can, also, be pasted on contrasting colour backgrounds.
- ix. Carry the component parts of the poster to the venue and set up the poster there, using the poster layout plan as a guide. Be sure to mount all the elements straight and neatly in order to attract attention and readership.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Visual aids have been found to be very helpful in extension training. Extension workers should deploy them in training farmers.

5.0 SUMMARY

Visual aids support communication in the areas of information giving, training and extension work.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Clearly list the major functions of media in communication.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Hoffmann, V. (2002). Picture Supported Communication in Africa.
Germany: Margraf Verlag/CTA Weikersheim, pp. 352.

UNIT 2 VISUAL AIDS AND GOOD ILLUSTRATIONS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Major Factors involved in Selecting Visual Aids
 - 3.2 Qualities of Good Illustrations
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In order to successfully use visual aids in training and in deciding the techniques to use, certain factors need to be examined by the trainers. These factors are described in this unit. What makes a good illustration has, also, been treated in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the major factors that should be considered in selecting and developing visual aids
- determine the qualities found in good illustrations.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Major Factors involved in Selecting Visual Aids

- a. **Audience Characteristics:** The nature and socio-economic characteristics of individual or group members in training should be analysed and understood in order to develop suitable visual aids.
- b. **Objectives of Training:** The visual aids to select and develop should be those that meet the training objectives. Put in another way, the objectives must guide the use of visual aids.
- c. **Training Location:** This factor is crucial because the visual aids to be selected should be those that can readily fit into the available space. The location must not be too far from the point of visual aid production in order to minimise transportation cost.

- d. **Message:** Visual aids must be developed based on the special message content to be delivered. They should directly relate to the message in every respect.
- e. **Delivery System:** The type of visual aid to use must be adaptable for use in a given medium. For example, a picture can easily be shown to an audience in a village setting, but that cannot be said if a television is to be used with trainers that do not own the facility.
- f. **Time:** Some visual aids might take a long time to display and use in training. Trainers are, therefore, advised to select those that would not take too much time to exhibit.
- g. **Budget:** It is usual to experience high cost with the development/purchase of certain visual aids. If affordable, they may be used.

3.2 Qualities of Good Illustrations

It is necessary to ensure the development and selection of good illustrations for training. The essential qualities of good illustrations are listed below.

- i. **Accuracy:** Illustrations should be accurately prepared to be accepted as being good. They need not be haphazardly developed.
- ii. **Simplicity and Clarity:** Illustrations need not be complex. A good illustration should be quite simple to prepare and use. It must be clear in its structure/shape and size.
- iii. **Pleasing and Attractive:** Illustrations that are said to be good must be pleasing to look at. Illustrations should add to improve the general appearance of a publication.
- iv. **Captions:** Good illustrations must have clear labels and captions.
- v. **Specifications:** Good illustrations must suit the specifications in terms of size and quality.
- vi. **Ease of Understanding:** Good illustrations convey information/ideas/messages to make concepts easier to understand by trainees.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Important factors should be taken into consideration while selecting and developing visual aids for use in extension work. This would facilitate effective presentation and learner understanding.

5.0 SUMMARY

Some important factors to consider in selecting or developing visual aids are audience characteristics, message, delivery system and budget. Key qualities of illustrations that should be accepted include clear labels and captions, accuracy, attractiveness and easy of understanding by the trainees.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain any three qualities of a good illustration for teaching farmers.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Agbarevo, M. N. B. & Obinne, C. P. O. (2010). *Elements of Rural Sociology and Agricultural Extension*. Uwani-Enugu: Teo Publishers, pp, 236.

UNIT 3 EFFECTIVE WRITING AND EDITING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Guidelines for Effective Writing
 - 3.2 Reasons for Editing a Training Manuscript
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with effective writing and editing. Training materials need to be prepared correctly and this requires paying attention to specifics including lettering and use of correct spelling. Good editing is essential just like good writing.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- list the guidelines needed to write training materials effectively
- give reasons for editing a training manuscript.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Guidelines for Effective Writing

A trainer is a good communicator. To be effective he/she should write effectively.

The guidelines for effective writing are summarised as follows:

- use of good illustrations
- active verbs should be used
- writing should be clear
- usage of simple language/terms
- emphasise essential points
- redundancy and repetitions should be avoided
- terminologies used must be consistent and meaningful

- unfamiliar words need explanations
- short words and sentences should be used
- logical arrangement of points is essential
- it is necessary to use short paragraphs.

3.2 Reasons for Editing a Training Manuscript

Among literate people, the trainer needs to review/edit his papers/books. The reasons are to ensure that:

- all the facts are correct
- there are no grammatical errors or spelling mistakes
- the overall message of the text is clear
- punctuation marks are used properly
- appropriate examples and exercises are used
- copyright laws are respected
- the design suits the subject, suits the budget and is appealing
- there is consistency in the use of various elements of the text
- illustrations are suitable, of good quality and relevant to the text
- the text is well structured, well written, covers the subject and is of an appropriate length
- the information in tables, charts and graphs agrees with the text.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Effective writing is essential if the trainer is to communicate effectively. In addition, to produce a good manuscript useful in training, careful editorial work should be done by the developer or trainer.

5.0 SUMMARY

The major guidelines to observe in writing out training materials have been listed to include use of good illustration, avoidance of redundancy and clear writing. Good reasons for editing training manuscript include the avoidance of grammatical errors, the use of appropriate examples and making the message of the text clear.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Why should training materials be edited?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Zeatlyn, J. (1992). *Appropriate Media for Training and Development*. Netherlands: Tools Publications, pp. 124.

UNIT 4 THE INTERNET IN EXTENSION WORK

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning and Uses of Internet
 - 3.2 How the Internet Works
 - 3.3 Cyber Extension
 - 3.3.1 Using Web-Based Portal to Optimise the Linkage System
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

‘Global’ village is used to indicate that the mass media had linked people from different parts of the globe into one village. The term village signifies a sense of oneness which has been created by the message through the medium. The media cut across all classes of people. The effective medium is internet which offers unique opportunity of near instant communication with anyone in the globe.

Internet is the product of a military undertaking. The Pentagon funded its creation in 1969 with a view to providing reliable communication network for military use. In the late 1980s, the American government through its agency, the National Science Foundation, set up five super-computer centres which became the main nodes of the internet to which the university and research laboratory networks became connected. In the 1980s the internet users at universities came up with software to participate in discussions over the network.

The internet has created a ‘cyberspace’ where one is free from the boundaries created on the basis of distance and language. The development of internet has created an information super high way and the World Wide Web is like a truck that uses that highway.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- give the meaning and uses of the internet
- describe how the internet works
- describe how cyber extension works.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning and Uses of Internet

Internet refers to Inter-network system. It is a network of networks, linking millions of computers worldwide for communication purposes (Sampath *et al.*, 1998). Internet is a global pool of information and services accessible by means of locally executed interface software. It connects many smaller networks together and allows all the computers to exchange information with each other. To accomplish this, all the computers have to use a common set of rules for communication. These rules are protocols and the internet uses a set of protocols called Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) and Internet Protocol (IP).

Usefulness of the Internet

- (a) Helps browse, through resources of private or public information services that are on the internet.
- (b) Communicate in real time with others connected in the Internet.
- (c) Exchange of e-mail with millions of people with e-mail addresses.
- (d) Search for, retrieve and read literally millions of files stored on computers throughout the world.
- (e) Send or receive sound, animation and picture files to and from very distant places.

3.2 How the Internet Works

According to Sampath *et al.* (1998), the content of internet is held by computers known as the “servers”, which are owned by organisations and companies. If a request is made of these servers for the information, they bundle the requested information in small packets with the address where it is to be sent and send them to the nearest connection to the internet. When they arrive at the point, the packets are read by the router and sent down to the address.

The internet is probably the most open network in the world and many internet services are free. Thousands of computers provide facilities that are available to anyone who has Net access. Sometimes, the networks are very restrictive in their service to users and require specific arrangements and passwords for each service.

The internet can effectively support extension education systems. It is only required that the learner (the farmer) should develop the following skills and abilities to gather information from internet, synthesise them and draw inferences.

- i Basic knowledge of computer
- ii Familiarity with multimedia software
- iii Familiarity with internet and net surfing software
- iv Communication with the resource person
- v Storing and retrieving information from internet.

The learning process on internet is interactive and interesting. It is a kind of tele-teaching.

3.3 Cyber Extension

Information and communication technology, national and international information networks, internet expert systems and multimedia learning systems are now used to improve information access to the farmer and extension workers.

Access to information and improved communication is a crucial requirement for sustainable agricultural development (Idu and Obinne, 2009). A timely and systematic transmission of relevant agricultural information from the source via appropriate communication media (channel) to the intended audience (receiver) is important. It is expected that the client's reactions to the message be passed back to the source for the communication process to be complete.

ICT can achieve information dissemination more effectively than other communication methods in extension. ICT has played a major role in diffusing information to rural communities.

Computerised information management can be used to improve the sharing of information. Community-based organisations such as farmer organisations can help facilitate their members' acquisition of relevant information and skills on application of appropriate technologies using ICT.

In Nigeria today, cellular telephony, satellite connectivity and the internet services as well as cyber cafes are common. These services provide avenues for building on their intrinsic capacity for immediacy and sharing of large volume of information at a minimal cost.

A study on University-Based Extension Web Project for Agricultural Research Output, also called Cyber Extension (Idu and Obinne, 2009) has shown how the Web could be utilised to provide research output that can serve the needs of farmers as well as domestic and international extensionists and agro-industrialists. The internet is recommended as the appropriate forum for the educational outreach as a way to cost-effectively reach extension agents, educators and opinion leaders who could then download fact sheets for their clientele (Idu and Obinne, 2009).

Benefits of using ICT include:

- a faster and easier access to records and accounts
- b help with complex decisions through decision support system
- c cheaper running costs in communication and
- d rapid access to vast stores of information through the World- Wide Web.

Publications from the Internet can be produced in a downloadable electronic form instead of paper format, allowing access to information, which before now involved a trip to a specialist library in some distant, often inaccessible location.

The application of ICTs in rural areas can help to improve communication, increase active participation in development programming and further the dissemination of information and sharing of knowledge and skills. The **impact** of modern communication technologies can be found in:

- i Capacity to reach a large audience with the use of the Internet.
- ii Effective use of training and demonstrations, for community mobilisation, learning and action. Some farmers can connect directly to agricultural research stations through the Internet, by-passing extension agents, while the jobs and roles of extension workers/change agents would be that of facilitation and consultation. Even if every farmer does not have a computer terminal, there are commercial cyber cafes where extension agents would help farmers to make decisions (Idu and Obinne, 2009).
- iii ICT can be used for networking among and between key stakeholders.

3.3.1 Using Web-Based Portal to Optimise the Linkage System

A research portal (called Web-Based Online Extension System) is proposed as a bridge between research stations, extensionists and end-users of agro-technologies. The portal will have a Front-End comprising all the consumers of research results, while the Back-End comprises a database of researches from the research stations, centrally hosted by Agricultural Extension Departments/Units of each Faculty of Agriculture/Research Institute. The agricultural extension units of research institutes would serve as a pivot of research information. The results would be posted to the extension web site. Farmers, extension agents and agro-industrialists would view the net at any local resource centre. The job of the conventional extension agent would be to concentrate on tasks and services where human interaction is essential in helping farmers, individually and in small groups, to diagnose problems, interpret data, and apply knowledge in farm activities. Extension workers will engage farmers (especially illiterate farmers) in the search and packaging of information on demand and interpreting research results. Apart from posting research results to the farmers, the portal has a portfolio that would enable the consumers of research results post their contemporary problems to the research stations through the central database of the web (Idu and Obinne, 2009).

4.0 CONCLUSION

The usefulness of the internet as a mass communication medium has been explained. The essence is to encourage the learner to appreciate the facility and make effort to understand and utilise it for greater communication impact.

5.0 SUMMARY

Internet is a network of networks which can skillfully be deployed for extension work among farmers in urban and rural settings. Cyber extension is an appropriate forum for extension outreach.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain the uses and application of the internet in extension work.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Idu, E. E. & Obinne, C. P. O. (2009). Promoting Effective Research–Extension-Farmer-Input Linkage System in Nigeria: Information and Communication Technology as a Cornerstone. In: J. U. Agbamu (Ed.). *Perspectives in Agricultural Extension and Rural Development*. Owerri: Springfield Publishers Ltd. pp. 182–196.
- Sampath, K. Panneerselvam, A. & Santhanam, S. (1998). *Introduction to Educational Technology*, Revised and Enlarged edition. New Delhi-110020: Sterling Publishers Private Ltd. pp. 348.

UNIT 5 AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS AND TECHNIQUES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 4.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Radio
 - 3.2 Television and Video
 - 3.2.1 Educational Television
 - 3.2.2 Video
 - 3.3 Participatory Video Technique
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Learning is enhanced when a combination of media is used in training. The radio, television and video can be jointly applied in training sessions.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the value of using the radio, television and video for extension training
- explain the value and process of participatory video in development work.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Radio

Sound media such as both audio cassettes and broadcast radio can be very useful for training. Radio is one very useful mass communication tool for extension work. It offers immediacy. Broadcast radio with its 'reach' can get to a large audience far from the training centre. Radio provides the warmth of the human voice. Extension workers use the radio successfully at the local level to communicate local problems, solutions and farming activities. Radio is most effective at the awareness and interest stages of innovation adoption.

The teacher broadcasts to trainees who sit at home or in the classroom and learn from the teacher's broadcast. Radio can be used to reinforce the message of training. If people have been trained to take part in a credit programme or in a particular form of agriculture, the radio can be used to remind the ex-trainees the time to repay the loans or plant the particular seeds (Zeitlyn, 1995). Radio can, also, inform, entertain and inspire listeners in different ways.

3.2 Television and Video

Video and broadcast TV have great value as they are seen as being very real, even when there are actors playing a part. They are very watchable, attractive and interesting. Videos can be used to motivate trainees. Video is not a very good medium for teaching a practical skill.

Video or TV is a very useful tool that are often put for use with illiterate or semi-educated people. Using participatory video makes the process of video making easily done with the people who are to watch it. Vans may be used to take the video to the villages where it is needed, including remote communities.

3.2.1 Educational Television

Television is the most exciting and efficient means of mass communication. Television transmission has the advantage of visual experience which is made more dynamic and meaningful by the movement and sound associated with the visual experience. Live programmes and motion pictures can be broadcast in television.

Video is a powerful communication channel in delivering very vital information to end-users.

Educational Value of Television

- a TV can bring the world of reality to the home and to the classroom.
- b Communication by TV is effective because it can bring very good demonstrations and audio-visual materials to the classroom.
- c TV can save the time and effort of the learner and teacher.
- d The concrete nature of TV makes some programmes understandable, appealing to a wide variety of age and educational levels of people.
- e TV can be both instructive and enjoyable.

Limitations of TV

- a TV permits only a one-way communication. It does not stop to answer questions.
- b There is no personal contact with the teacher.
- c TV encourages a passive form of learning rather than an active seeking of knowledge/information.
- d TV screen is small in size as compared to projected pictures.
- e The equipment necessary for TV is costly and complicated.

For good reception of television broadcasts, a good aerial is necessary. Television receivers are classified on the following basis:

- (1) According to size of the screen – TV picture aspect ratio is 4:3.
- (2) According to use of
 - a Values
 - b Transistors – Integrated circuits, (Solid State)
 - c Valves, Transistors and Integrated circuits (Hybrid circuit).
- (3) According to number of channels: Single channel or multichannel.

The performance of the receiver will be affected by variations of mains voltage. A receiver can be damaged by excessive surge in voltage.

Operation of TV Receiver

The antenna is located as high as possible. There should be adequate ventilation on all sides of the receiver. Ideal location is at a corner of the room separated from the wall by at least 25cm. No direct light through a door or window should fall on the TV screen. Exposure to bright sunlight of the TV screen may affect its performance. The receiver should be kept in a cool and dry place. The TV receiver should be a perfect adjustment. It is not desirable to open the back and make an adjustment by a person not trained in TV servicing. The operating procedure consists of the following steps.

- 1 Switch on power.
- 2 Adjust fine tuning to get a good and stable picture.
- 3 Adjust brightness to desired level.
- 4 Adjust contrast to get the required sharpness.
- 5 Adjust sound volume to desired level.

TV Scriptwriting

Script is one of the factors responsible for the success or failure of a television programme. The following points will be helpful to any scriptwriter.

- **Kind of Audience:** The scriptwriter must know the age group, socio-cultural background and psychological profile of the audience whom the programme is meant to serve.
- **Objectives of the Programme:** The specific objectives must be spelt out in terms of learning outcomes.
- **Treatment of Topics:** The scriptwriter must present the subject in an attractive and effective manner by planning to include all the audio-visual aids that are needed.
- **Orderliness of Information:** The scriptwriter must collect data from many sources and arrange them sequentially.
- **Format of the Programme:** A programme may be prepared in various formats like drama, conversation, talk, etc., using graphics, animation and pictures.
- **Consideration of the Limitations:** The important point be emphasised, repeated and explained with the help of visuals and demonstrations, all because TV offers a one-way communication.
- **Pre and Post-telecast Preparations:** A TV scriptwriter should keep in mind the preliminary preparation that the audience needs and, also, the follow-up, so that the programme becomes clear and meaningful (Sampath *et al.*, 1998).

Guidelines for Writing a TV Script

- The script must be simple, direct and personal.
- It must be written with a full knowledge and involvement of programme visuals.
- It must stress and recapitulate its salient points.
- The presenter's style and personality should be taken into account.
- It should suggest suitable visuals, sound effects etc.
- It should not attempt to say too much in the time available.
- It should involve and address the audience directly.
- It should end with a simple resume of the programme's main points, possibly with a different visual presentation.
- The TV scriptwriter should be skillful, creative, imaginative and resourceful.

Differences between Film and Television

Both television and film use similar narrative devices and compositional techniques (Sampath *et al.*, 1998).

Film	Television
Recorded and transmitted by optional means	Recorded and transmitted by electric means
Larger screen and, hence, easy to watch	Smaller with different screen proportions
Used on screen only for viewing	Several screens can be looped together at once
Images register on light-sensitive film and reproduced by projecting light	Light is transformed into electronic energy and transformed electronically back into light
Requires different equipment for recording, developing and projecting – requires a dark room for viewing	Records and plays back on same equipment; can be seen in daylight
Only one person can see the actual image while it is being filmed	Many people can see the actual image on monitors while it is being recorded
Outside processing: time-consuming and expensive	Instantaneous transmission: can be transmitted live or played back in minutes
Sound is synchronised later on magnetic tape and then transferred to film on optical sound track	Automatically synchronises picture and sound electronically
Films are more expensive and can be used only once	Video tapes are less expensive and can be used many times
Time-consuming and difficult to operate the projector	More flexible and spontaneous; easier to operate
More formal, illusionary and manipulative quality	More casual and intimate; more immediate and participatory

Source: Sampath *et al.*, 1998, pp. 242-243.

3.2.2 Video

Tape and VCD

Storage of instruction for repetitive use is easily accomplished now with the use of video tapes and VCD. Video tape can provide virtually instantaneous reproduction and, in that sense, it is superior to films. **Video cassettes** are also available. The cassette is portable and can be used often.

Video materials can be used for mass lectures and individualised learning. Many processes and procedures, techniques and skills lend themselves to video presentation, including demonstrating a process or procedure in most agricultural practices.

Modes of Using Videos

There are many ways that learners can use the videos.

- (a) The video can be played continuously to a large group in a lecture before a discussion and a question-answer session.
- (b) The video can be given or loaned to individual learners supported by handout or workbook material.
- (c) The video can be part of an open learning package, where learners individually or collectively in small groups use it at their own pace.

Guidelines for Preparing a Video

Sampath *et al.* (1998) suggest some guidelines:

- 1 **Objective:** Formulate the specific behavioural objectives in terms of learning outcomes.
- 2 **Audience:** Identify who will use the lesson in terms of age and subject knowledge.
- 3 **Content Outline:** Determine the content of the lesson by gathering materials and extracting the most important elements.
- 4 **Treatment:** Determine the style or combination of styles, viz., lecture, demonstration, interview, dramatic form, field observations. Decide on the specific visual and aural materials like title, charts, models, sound and music.
Narrative should play a supportive role rather than a central role. The TV camera makes use of four types of lens, namely; normal, wide angle, telephoto and zoom. A wide angle lens helps to create illusion of objects being further apart. Telephoto lens narrows the angle and compresses distance and creates illusion of objects being closer than they are. The zoom lens changes the focal length from the telephoto to the wide angle usually in the ratio of 4:1.
5. **Continuity and Pacing:** While preparing the script, let the sequences be logical. Determine how much time each point should take. Provide variety and pace for difficult points.
6. **Review:** To focus attention, a brief review of materials covered may be given, summarising main points at the end, or one review in the middle.
7. **Instructional Guides:** To clarify materials and methods and reinforce concepts, instructional guides may be designed to accompany the video cassette.

8. **Evaluation:** Evaluation will give information concerning the value of the tape in instructional process. A few questions can be arranged with reference to achievement of goals, the relevance and accuracy of the subject matter, effectiveness of the graphics used, etc.
9. **Validation:** On the basis of the evaluation, the cassette material may suitably be revised, re-used, re-evaluated and validated for wider use.

3.3 Participatory Video Technique

Participatory video methodology involves packaging locally produced “messages”, or “information” for training, teaching, enlightenment, entertainment and awareness campaign. The participatory development communication methodology seeks to enhance the involvement of the end-users of agricultural knowledge and information in the generation, production, storage and dissemination of technologies. It is a multi-media approach which includes radio, television and prints media. Traditional/Indigenous communication media such as folklore, drama, dances, “sayings-of-the-wise” proverbs, “town crier” and traditional music could be integrated where applicable. The video/audio cassettes, e-mail, internet, interpersonal contact, agricultural shows/fairs/exhibition, posters, technical information leaflet, billboard adverts, seminars/workshops, magazines, journals and so on are intricately weaved together. Through interviews, discussions and role-play drama, the problems, fears, opinions and ideas of the end-users are articulated by development agencies for effective planning, execution, management, monitoring and evaluation of technologies. With this methodology, the end-users are also involved in information generation. It creates trust, confidence and effective rapport. It, also, leads to positive self-esteem among rural people. Horizontal learning, that is, transfer of information and experiences from one village to the other, is feasible. It discourages centralised electronic media and promotes rural radio, television and newspapers (Isiaka, 2002).

The video component of the participatory communication methodology is concerned with the use of video technology in packaging technologies and methods, agricultural knowledge and information, which are disseminated to the farmers in small or large groups through video. The information or instruction is shown on a monitor/television via a video player; or a white screen via a video projector.

Participatory Video (PV) provides an opportunity for rural people to document their own knowledge and experiences and to express their wants and hopes from their own perspectives.

- The process of PV is extremely simple, and the equipment required is increasingly widely available and affordable. This is the way the process works:

- The rural people rapidly learn how to use video equipment through games and exercises facilitated by outsiders
- The facilitators help local groups to identify and analyse important issues in their community and to plan how to show this on video
- The Video messages are directed and filmed by the local groups
- The footage is shown to the wider community at daily screenings, setting in motion a dynamic exchange of ideas and perceptions.

Advantages

1. All people in a community, whatever their formal level of education; can use video to communicate their perspectives. PV is a potentially strong complement to existing farmer-to-farmer and community-to-community mechanisms for exchanging information, such as storytelling and local markets. The completed films can be used to promote awareness and exchange within the same community and in other communities. PV provides a channel for farmers to communicate their ideas, innovations, theories and decisions not only to each other but, also, to formal researchers and development agents. The films can, also, be used for lobbying and advocacy purposes by showing them to policymakers at the local, national or even international level (IK Notes, 2004).
2. PV presents an “inside” view in a lively way. The films can be easily understood and stimulate the interest of people at all levels. The video medium is easily transportable and easily shared; in other words, it has a big “spread effect”.

The Potential of PV in Promoting Local Innovation

PV is a medium based on visual and verbal communication. It has great potential to enhance indigenous means of communication which is also primarily visual and verbal. Video films can also be easily copied onto CD-ROMs and can then be viewed using a laptop computer or via the Web. In this way, PV can bring local experiences and knowledge into a global network, allowing all relevant actors to learn from each other (IK Notes, 2004).

Above all, it gives the less experienced farmers the opportunity to learn from the village “experts”, innovators and keepers of traditional knowledge.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Radio, television and video make learning effective for farmers. They should be selected based on relevance, location and affordability.

5.0 SUMMARY

Radio, television and video are very powerful tools for training; the guidelines for preparing them were discussed in this unit. Useful techniques have been explained in each case. The advantages of PV were also discussed

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. What are the educational uses of TV?
- ii. What is participatory video? What is the process of participatory video?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Isiaka, B. T. (2002). Video as a Channel for Development Communication. In: Lai Oso (Ed.). *Communication and Development. (A Reader)*. Abeokuta: Jedidiah Publishers, pp. 135–151.

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Zeitlyn, J. (1995). *Appropriate Media for Training and Development*. Netherlands: Tool Publication.