

COURSE CODE:	ARD 509
COURSE TITLE:	Radio and Television Broadcasting
NUMBER OF UNITS:	2 Units
COURSE DURATION:	Two hours per week

COURSE DETAILS:

Course Coordinator:	Dr. T.O.A. Banmeke , <i>B.Sc., M.Sc., PhD</i>
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COURSE CONTENT:

Development of radio and television broadcasting. Purpose of broadcasting. The use of radio and television in extension. Types of radio and television programmes. Production and presentation of radio and television programmes. Interview techniques. Use of a T. V. camera. Forms of reporting. Guidelines for documentary production.

COURSE REQUIREMENTS:

Students are expected to participate in all the course activities with a minimum attendance of not less than 70% in order to sit for the final examination which will carry a score of 70%. Also, the continuous assessment will attract a score of 30% and this will comprise of class assignments, intermittent test to be conducted during the duration of lectures and a report of the excursion to broadcast media organisations.

READING LIST:

1. Swanson, B. E. (1984). *Agricultural Extension: A reference manual*, 2nd Edition, Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome. P259.
2. Van de Ban and Hawkins H. S. (1996). *Agricultural Extension* 2nd Edition, Blackwell publishers.
3. Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation (CTA, 1998). Radio serving the rural areas of the ACP countries, CTA directory.
4. Adebayo, K. (1997): *Communication in agriculture*. Greenlinks International, Abeokuta, pp 102.
5. Ekwuazi, H. (1991). *Creating the screen image: Visual composition for television and film*. Craft books limited, Lagos.

LECTURE NOTES

Definition of broadcasting

Broadcasting may be defined as the distribution of audio and/or video signals that is used to transmit programs to an audience. It can also be defined as the transmission of information through radio waves from a radio or television station, to the audience in far and near places, through their receivers, which help in decoding such information.

History of broadcasting

Radio broadcasting started commercially around 1920 from the US: radio broadcasting is an audio (sound) broadcasting service, broadcast through the air as radio waves from a transmitter to an antenna and, thus, to a receiving device.

Television broadcasting started experimentally from 1925 and commercially from the 1930s. Television broadcasting combines both audio and visual signals.

Purpose of broadcasting

Basically, broadcasting serves three broad purposes; to inform, educate and entertain the audience. However, broadcast stations such as radio and television perform the following functions:

- **News function:** The broadcast station surveys the environment and provides information about things, happenings or going on in the environment. These are then reported in news form to the public.
- **Opinion function:** The broadcast media provide an ample avenue for different shades of opinion to be aired in the society.
- **Education function:** Through the broadcast media, people acquire new knowledge, attitudes and skills, thus enabling them cope better with the society and life in general. **Propaganda function:** Governments and other owners of the media use radio and television for propaganda purposes.
- **Commercial Function:** Radio and television are often used for advertisements which help inform audiences about the existence of certain goods and services.
- **Entertainment function:** Drama, comic and musical programmes are aired on the stations to ease boredom.

Use of radio and television in extension

Radio

Radio is considered an important mass communication tool used for extension work. In fact, it is considered as the most important mass medium for farmers in less industrialized countries and popular with the rural populace. Extension workers have found that radio works most successfully at local level to communicate local problems, solutions and activities. Radio is more effective at the awareness and interest stages of the adoption process.

Utilization of radio broadcasting

- It is a medium that is effective for mass mobilisation.
- It is useful in mass education.
- It could be used as an instrument for formal education.
- Radio could be used in cultural innovation or diffusion.
- Information dissemination is fastest through radio.
- The entertainment value of radio is very great.

However, some limitations in the use of radio for extension activities are that;

- listeners cannot refer back to what they heard on the radio.
- they cannot see what is being described on the radio set.
- limited in its ability to convey detailed, technical and complex information.
- it cannot be used alone without combining it with other teaching materials.

Types of use of broadcast radio

There are basically two types of broadcast radio commonly used for extension and these are:

1. Open broadcast: Here the extension worker provides programming for the station's broadcast such as spot announcements to be taped and repeated at intervals during the day, or longer programmes, presented in person or taped for use on scheduled programme.
2. Group listening to open broadcast: These are also called listening clubs, radio schools or farm forum. It involves local participants gathering at a particular time to listen to a programme broadcast by a certain station, and then discuss the programme in terms of their own situations.

Producing and presenting radio broadcast

The production and presentation of agricultural programmes is very similar if not the same with other radio programmes, but for the fact that the programme(s) is targeted towards agricultural practitioners specifically. Some important tips in preparing and presenting radio programmes for broadcast include:

1. Try to localize the content and match it to the interest of the listeners.
2. Take advantage of the timeliness of radio by emphasizing current activities, trends, issues, development and so on.
3. Use sounds in creative ways.
4. Attract the listener's attention quickly.
5. Give information a flowing quality that makes it personal and easy to follow.
6. Speak in a normal conversational voice, at a natural speed.
7. Use changes of pace in your presentation in order to hold the interest of your listeners.
8. Try to repeat important facts, such as dates, time and places of meetings.
9. It is necessary to invite listeners to take part.

Television

There are two types of television media available for extension teaching. The first and most familiar is broadcast television, in which programmes are aired over a large geographical area. The second type is referred to as the closed –circuit television and it involves the use of video signals from video, CD or DVD players to one or more monitors.

It is important to note that television programmes require meticulous preparation as every piece of equipment must be in place and the dialogue must be well thought out.

Organisation is an essential ingredient of a television programme and the method used to arrange the sequence of related words and pictures that make up the story is called a "run down sheet". This sheet is divided into two columns; one is headed "video" for pictures, the other "audio" which is an outline of what is to be said. The run down sheet is not a script but an outline to guide the television crew as well as the performers.

Some basic tips useful for television programme include:

- Moving deliberately to allow the camera to follow.
- Operate within a small area.
- Hold any material steadily on target for camera viewing.
- Avoid the use of complicated demonstration materials.
- Time the presentation before going to the studio in order to make sure that the programme fits into the allotted time.
- Prepare some extra points ready to present in case the material runs short.
- Colour combinations and light contrasts are important.

CAMERA DISTANCE

This refers to the distance of the camera from the action/subject. This distance ranges from the long, through the medium to the close shot– depending on whether the camera is far from, in between or close to the action/subject.

The composites of camera distance are:

The long shots

- (a) Extreme long shot: ELS
- (b) Wide shot/Long shot: WS/LS
- (c) Medium long shot: MLS

The medium shots

- (a) Medium shot: MS
- (b) Medium close-up: MCU

The close shots

- (a) Close up: CU
- (b) Tight close up: TCU
- (c) Extreme close up: ECU (also XCU).

The long shots are therefore used:

- (a) When there is the need to show a full view of the action/subject; and
- (b) When there is the need to show the action/subject against its background.

The medium shots (MS) shows the human figure from about the waist: it shows half the human figure.

The medium close-up (MCU) shows a slightly smaller proportion – the human figure, say, from about the chest region upwards.

The Close Shots

The close up (CU) shows the human figure as from the shoulders. The tight close up (TCU) will show as from the jaw and will eliminate a great deal of the forehead: thus, it will show the face proper.

The extreme close up (ECU/XCU), again using the human figure as a reference point, will eliminate all but say, the eye or the nose.

Use of the Close Shots

Close shots are used primarily as highlighters: to highlight/emphasize detail – any important detail that needs to be emphasized or that might be lost within the context of the larger shots.

CAMERA MOVEMENT

Basically, there are two kinds of camera movement: non-spatial movement of the camera (pan, tilt, pedestal and zoom); and spatial movement of the camera (crane, trucking/tracking and dolly).

(1) Non-Spatial Camera Movement

In this kind of movement, the camera remains very stationary: it does not move from point A to point B. It moves, instead, either on its axis.

The camera has two axes: the 90° axis and the 360° axis. The axial movement of the camera results when the camera revolves on either of these two axes. On the 90° axis, it tilts: it looks up (tilt up) and it looks down (tilt down). On the 360° axis, it pans: it looks left (pan left) and it looks right (pan right). In other words, when the camera pans, it moves horizontally; and when it tilts, the movement is located on the vertical plane.

The pedestal is a camera mount. It can be raised or lowered, thus moving the camera up or down. To ped up, therefore, is to raise the camera, to move the camera p; to ped down, to lower it. For the zoom, the zoom lever on the camera is engaged. The effect created by this is one of movement – of the camera moving towards the action/subject (zoom in) or moving away from it (zoom out). On the whole, the effect is rather artificial.

(2) Spatial Camera Movement

The movement here involves the actual movement of the camera

For the crane shot, the camera is hoisted into the air in a crane. The truck is a mobile camera mount. By this means, the camera can move to the left (when we truck left) and to the right (truck right) of the action/subject.

The dolly is another mobile camera mount. Through it, it becomes possible to move the camera towards (dolly in) and away from the action/subject (dolly out).

General Uses of Camera Movement

While assessing the art of the motion, picture cameraman, Ernest Lindgren discusses, in general terms, the uses of camera movement. These are to:

- (a) keep a moving subject in sight.
- (b) establish or highlight the temporal relationship among subjects.
- (c) establish or highlight the spatial relationship among subjects.
- (d) impart the illusion of movement to static subjects.
- (e) annul the limitations inherent in the fixed and static proportions of the frame.
- (f) create the illusion of three-dimensionality on the two-dimensional frame; and

- (g) ensure a multi-dimensional angle of view for the audience.

Specific Uses of Camera Movement

It is, of course, not enough to know merely the general uses of camera movement. For effective image composition, the knowledge of when exactly to use which camera movement becomes absolutely essential.

The pan is used:

- (1) to follow action.
- (2) to show reaction on two faces to a given situation.
- (3) to show the viewer what the performer sees.
- (4) to adjust picture composition.
- (5) to orientate the viewer and to show the entire view.
- (6) to select one item at a time in a row.
- (7) to associate the physical relationship of two people or things.

The tilt is used:

- (1) to follow action.
- (2) to adjust picture composition.
- (3) to create a dramatic effect.

The pedestal is used:

- (1) to adjust camera height.
- (2) to shoot, without changing angle or distance, a graphic or sign.
- (3) to follow action.

The zoom is used

- (1) to change field of view.
- (2) to follow action.
- (3) to achieve dramatic effect.
- (4) to adjust picture composition.

The truck or dolly is used

- (1) to follow action.
- (2) to give increased feeling to depth with foreground objects in shot.
- (3) to show objects in a row.

The dolly is used

- (1) to follow action.
- (2) to change field of view (dolly in to see something better).
- (3) to give something special emphasis (dolly back to show relationship of object to its environment).

CONCEPT AND GUIDELINES OF DOCUMENTARY PRODUCTION

A documentary is an exhaustive examination of a chosen topic which could be about people, places, personalities or events. It is also a creative treatment of animate and inanimate objects including crops, animals, etc. A video documentary involves using the camera to record reality in an unbiased and unmanipulated way. It is usually accompanied by narration.

Characteristics of a documentary

- (1) It is always factual.
- (2) It is as objective as possible.
- (3) Its primary aim is to educate and enlighten.
- (4) It deals with all aspects of the subject.
- (6) The illustrative materials are always real or true.

Types of documentary

- (1) Historical Documentary deals with past history of a people a place, or events.
- (2) Social Documentary treats societal issues, e.g. National Development Plans; Nigeria Today; and Mirror.
- (3) Biographical Documentary is the type that deals with the past experiences, or existence of a particular person, e.g. Artiste's Profile; Personality Profile.
- (4) Cultural Documentary seeks to throw more light on certain aspects of a people's culture in a thought-provoking and creative way, e.g. Our Heritage; Children and Our Culture.

Stages/Procedure for Documentary Production

- (a) Preparation:
- (b) Script Writing
- (c) Shooting
- (d) Audio Recording
- (e) Editing
- (f) Finalising

FORMS OF REPORTING

The following are the generally accepted forms of reporting

- (1) **Straight Reports:** These are the most common forms of reporting in news bulleting and newspapers. Such reports, because of the "current factor" of news, are time-bound. They deal with current events, or are seasonal in nature. They are also referred to as "spot news".
- (2) **Background reports:** These are reports that deal, not only with the present event but also with the past.
- (3) **In-Depth Reports:** These are reports that deal with "who did what to whom, when and where" as well as "why and how". In -depth reports are a combination of straight reports and background reports.
- (4) **News Analysis:** In this form of reporting, the situation surrounding a news-worthy event is thoroughly and carefully examined in order to find out more (perhaps, hitherto unknown) facts. It involves breaking down a news-situation into its various parts (i.e. political aspects, economic importance, social impact, etc) and studying each part with some deep thoughts and judgments.
- (5) **News talk:** Invariably, this applies solely to the electronic media (i.e. radio and television. "A News item is singled out, and one gives some talk on the issues. The news item is either contained in the day's news-bulletin, or that issues at stake

should be so current that there is need for some clarification or further enlightenment

(6) **Editorials:** Editorials are those forms of reporting that may have nothing in common with the news of the day. Editorials are specially written (but, not too lengthy) articles that reflect the opinion of the paper's editor (or editorial board) on some cogent and current issues.

(7) **Commentaries:** These have direct relevance to a particular news item of the day. Commentaries are expressed remarks and opinions about an event, or issue.

"Comment is free; but facts are sacred", they say. Commentaries are descriptions, explanations, remarks, opinions, judgments and conclusions that are freely drawn from a given state of affairs, or events. Such deductions are freely expressed by the editor, newscasters or a station's representative.

(8) **Propaganda:** A propaganda is any attempt (either verbally, in writing, printing, publishing, broadcasting, or by action) to spread the news, the ideas, the principles, the beliefs, etc of a particular set up or organization. Invariably, a propaganda attempts to influence the thinking, opinions and attitudes of the masses.

It is important to note that the issues at stake (within the propaganda) are not necessarily correct or true. Part of the report (and, at times, the whole report), may be based on facts or falsehood. A whole propaganda may be a fabrication; based on lies and imagination.

INTERVIEW TECHNIQUES

Steps to be followed:

1. Give an honorable invitation to your proposed guest and intimate him with the topic for discussion.
2. Get the background information about the person and the topic.
3. Be at the studio to welcome your guest before air time.
4. Introduce the guest and the topic.
5. Ask question one after another, one question at a time.
6. Ask leading questions.
7. You may use preceding answers as springboard to the next question.
8. Avoid questions that require yes or no answer.
9. Avoid mannerism and vocal pauses.
10. Avoid double barreled questions and talking with too much speed.
11. Do not acknowledge cues, but obey them and do not distract your guest with time cues.
12. See your guest graciously to the door at the end of the interview.