Camera Structure:

Cameras produce pictures by "capturing" or recording the characteristics of the light from a scene or subject. The main parts of the camera that are involved in the process are the camera body, the camera shutter, the camera lens, the lens aperture, and the camera's image sensor. The camera's LCD screen is for previewing and then viewing the captured image.

The camera body is a light proof box. The controls for exposure settings and other effects are located on the camera body. (cameras with Touch LCD Screens may also have many controls available right on the LCD screen) The camera shutter and the image sensor are located inside the camera body.

Depending on the type of camera, the camera lens may be permanently attached to the camera, (fixed lens) or removable. (interchangeable lens). When the camera's shutter release button is pressed, the camera shutter opens and any light flowing into the camera lens is directed through the lens aperture and the open shutter to the camera's image sensor

The amount of light that reaches the image sensor is determined by size of the camera lens aperture opening that has been set. The amount of time the light is exposed to the image sensor is determined by which shutter speed is being used.

When you take a picture, the colors and characteristics of the light that the image sensor is exposed to is recorded by the image sensor and then saved to the camera's memory card. (all objects reflect light and colors to varying degrees. That reflected light is actually what your pictures or images are made of)

The light that is captured by the camera's image sensor and saved to the memory card can then be reproduced on your camera's LCD screen, on a computer screen, or as a print on photo paper. Next, some of the parts of a camera and their functions are explained individually.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qS1FmgPVLqw

Different Types of Lenses:

FOCAL LENGTH	TYPE OF LENS	TYPE OF PHOTOGRAPHY
8-24mm	Fisheye (Ultra-wide)	Panoramic shots, cityscapes, landscape, real estate, abstract.
24-35mm	Wide Angle	Interiors, landscapes, architecture, forest photography.
35, 50, 85, 135mm	Standard Prime	Portraits, weddings, street/documentary photography.
55-200mm	Zoom	Portraits, weddings, wildlife photography.
50-200mm	Macro	Ultra detailed photography (rings, nature.)
100-600mm	Telephoto	Sports, wildlife, astronomy.

https://www.colesclassroom.com/6-types-camera-lenses-explained/

Camera Movements:

Here is a list of basic camera movements that are important to know, in order to help properly communicate the scene to your audience.

1. Locked-Down

We need to start with a baseline, a starting point from where we can grow. A locked-down shot has no camera movement. The camera is put on a stable platform (typically a tripod) and simply captures the action that happens within the frame. Never underestimate a locked-down shot. Sometimes all you need is a simple shot to let your subject convey the message.

2. Pan

A panning shot is when the camera lens moves horizontally from left to right or right to left (usually on a tripod head). The camera acts as the central point of the rotation. This is very similar to how it looks when you move your head while looking from your left shoulder to your right shoulder (or vice versa). A panning shot across a parking lot full of cars would show that a store is busy and packed with customers.

3. Tilt

A tilting shot is similar to a pan, except a tilt is on the vertical plane. The camera lens moves up or down from a stationary starting position. This is similar to the movement of your head when you start by looking at your toes, and then look straight up toward the sky. If we wanted to show how tall a building is, we would start with the camera facing the ground level, then tilt up until we see the top floor.

4. Zoom

A zoom shot is starting with a shot of a small subject, far away in the distance way (this is a wide shot), and then manipulating the lens so that the subject appears to be closer (tight shot). A zoom shot could also be the opposite: going from a tight to a wide shot. During a zoom shot, the camera never changes its distance to the subject. It only uses the mechanics of the lens to give

the appearance of being closer or farther away. If we wanted to have a nice, tight shot of our subject's face, so we could see the emotion, but then quickly have a wide shot showing the space around the subject… We could use a zoom shot.

5. Dolly

A dolly shot moves the camera toward or away from the subject. Traditionally, this was achieved by laying "dolly tracks," which look like miniature railroad tracks, and the camera was either pushed or pulled very smoothly on a cart down the tracks. Dolly tracks and systems are still used, but now camera-stabilizing systems, like Steadicam, have become more popular and prevalent due to their ability to move more freely than dollys, but maintain a smooth shot. A dolly shot and a zoom shot can often accomplish the same goal, but the feeling and mechanics are what make them different. A dolly shot gives the viewer more of the feeling that they are moving toward or away from the subject. If we wanted the viewer to feel like they are walking up to the front desk of a hotel, we would use a dolly shot.

6. Trucking

A trucking shot is similar to a dolly shot, except the camera moves left to right (or right to left) and maintains the same distance from the subject. A good example would be a camera trucking down a dugout, capturing all of the players sitting on the bench. Another example of a trucking shot would be if we wanted to follow a subject walking on a sidewalk passing store fronts. We would need to have the camera in the street, moving parallel with our subject.

7. Pedestal

A pedestal shot is moving the camera up or down, while keeping the lens at a constant angle. For example, if we wanted to show our subject's entire outfit from head to toe, we'd start at our subject's face and then pedestal down past the shirt, paints, and end at the shoes – the whole time keeping the camera's lens at a 90° angle to the ground. Pedestal shots are not typically accomplished with a tripod (tripods are best for locked-down, tilt, or pan shots). Instead, a crane or jib would be utilized for a pedestal shot.

Lighting Equipment and Techniques

Hard and Soft Light:
Photography is the capturing of light. A common lighting misconception made by those new to photography is that only the amount of photography light is important when it comes to taking a picture. But quality of light is one of the most vital aspects of picture making.

Quality of light is largely determined by the light's size and source. Other qualities, like color and direction are also integral to creating beautiful photographs, but they will be discussed in another article. Light is often described as hard or soft, and choosing one or the other will affect your photo's mood and overall appearance.

Hard light comes from a small or distant light source. This kind of light results in harsh shadows that create deep contrast in images, since the light is more direct and doesn't scatter as much as diffused light. Subjects lit with hard light appear to have sharp, defined edges.

A common example of a hard light situation is a clear, sunny day at noon. Though the sun is actually a very large light source, its distance from the Earth in the middle of the day makes it a small light.

Soft light from a window on a cloudy day evens out skin tones and minimizes shadows.

Soft light comes from a big light source relative to the subject. It is diffused and casts few shadows. This type of light is abundant on cloudy days. Everything is evenly lit because the clouds serve as a giant softbox.

Softboxes are used to make a small light source, such as as strobe, cover more area; the light source is enlarged. The closer the light source is brought to the subject, the larger and softer the light quality will be. This is why light appears softer as the sun gets closer to the horizon.

Quality over quantity is a motto that rings true in photographic lighting. It is, of course, crucial to have enough light, but the quality of light is what lets your photo take on a life of its own. Though some photographers refuse to shoot in hard light, others use all types of light to their advantage to create a variety of looks in their images.

Light and Emotions (Lighting Objectives)

At the end of the day, there's only one reason why people like good photos. It's a simple concept, really, but it also forms the foundation for all of photography. *Emotion*. For a photo to succeed, it has to resonate with your viewer. That could happen for a number of reasons, ranging from your subject to your composition. But the strongest tool to capture emotion is far more fundamental than that — it is, quite simply, your light.

Light has extraordinary power to create emotions in a photo. Most photographers know that light is important, but it's still something everyone should strive to learn about and improve. If you master light, you master photography. Photography *is* light. Without it, you couldn't take pictures in the first place.

Different qualities of light — brightness, contrast, direction, and so on — all carry their own emotions. A dark, backlit photo with high contrast sends a very different message from a bright, airy forest at sunrise. And in photography, *your light should complement your subject*. If you're trying to photograph an intense and dramatic waterfall, your light should contribute to that mood, not detract from what you're trying to say. The same is true if you're photographing a fun, happy portrait — the lighting should reflect those emotions.

Below, I'll go into the unique emotional impacts carried by different types of light. Although some parts of this are subjective, others are nea

1) Dark light

One of the most emotion-filled types of light is dark, intense lighting. This works well for all sorts of photography: moody portraits, powerful landscapes, and somber documentary work. Dark light is popular across the board, and with good reason.

Quite simply, it's unique. Dark light conceals information from viewers, making a photograph appear mysterious and — depending upon your subject — potentially ominous or refined. You'll see many product photographers capture dark images for high-end advertisements, since, again, it does such a good job of conveying emotions

The emotions of dark light:

- Powerful

- Ominous
- Refined
- Intense
- Somber

2) Bright light

The obvious counterpoint is that *bright light also exists*, and it carries its own set of important emotions. Say that you want to capture an ethereal, airy photograph. Would you rather take pictures under a dramatic storm, or during bright, hazy, late-afternoon sunlight? This shouldn't be a tough question — the afternoon sunlight will give your photo a much softer, airier quality.

The same is true in other cases. For example, maybe you want to capture a happy and optimistic image. If that's your goal, you probably won't go out in search of dim street corners at night. They just wouldn't fit the mood, while a brighter scene might.

Although bright light is pretty common, it's still worth seeking out in many cases. If you're after a certain type of mood — airy, optimistic, or ethereal — bright light will be your bread and butter.

The emotions of bright light:

- Optimistic
- Airy
- Light (the adjective)
- Gentle
- Etherial

3) High Contrast

Many good photos make use of high contrast — juxtaposing extremely bright and dark regions of the image right next to each other. If you have a dark mountain silhouetted in front of the sky, that's contrast. If you have a bright pond against a dark shoreline, that's contrast.

A lot of people think that contrast is the difference between the brightest and darkest parts of an image. Although that's true to a degree, it isn't the fundamental definition. For example, this gradient contains both white and black, but it has fairly low contrast:

Instead, contrast occurs when bright and dark elements are right next to each other (or elements of different colors, but that's an article for another day). The "contrast" slider in most editing software *does* add to the distance between the brightest and darkest part of an image. But it also makes smaller, side-by-side regions of contrast more punchy.

And that's one of the key words for contrast: *punchy*. As far as emotions go, it's no surprise that high-contrast images draw a lot of attention. They're dramatic, and they stand out from a crowd. That's not always a good thing — it depends upon the image — but it's also why high-contrast images are fairly popular on social media and photography websites right now. Quite simply, it's a good way to get your photo noticed.

You can find contrast by searching for non-diffused light. In other words, a sunny afternoon or an unmodified camera flash will likely result in high-contrast images (although this does depend upon your subject). Personally, for landscape photography, I look for contrast when I'm trying to make a photo pop — cases when the landscape itself is particularly dramatic and intense.

The emotions of high contrast:

- Dramatic
- Loud
- Vibrant
- Punchy
- Sharp

4) Low Contrast

As popular as high-contrast images can be, don't discount the opposite — photos that are low in contrast. Low-contrast images are more muted and subdued. They tend to occur when your light

source is heavily diffused (such as an overcast day). It also helps to capture relatively uniform subjects, such as the above photograph of a lupine field.

Often, low-contrast photos won't stand out as much upon first glance. They don't shout for attention. However, if you're after a more subtle look, they work quite well. That's because *successful light* doesn't always need to attract immediate attention; instead, it's the light that matches the character of your subject. If you're photographing a quiet, gentle landscape, or you want a soft mood for a portrait photo, my top recommendation is to search for low-contrast light.

Does that sound like something you're after? If so, add a diffuser to your flash, or move your subject into the shade. For landscape photography, wait until an overcast day, or until the sun has set below the horizon. For many photos, this will be a good way to complement your subject.

The emotions of low contrast:

- Subdued
- Gentle
- Soft
- Quiet
- Muted

5) Direction of light

So far, it should make sense that brightness and contrast strongly impact the emotions of a photo. But what about the direction of light?

There are five primary directions of light:

1. Backlighting
2. Frontlighting
3. Sidelighting (left or right)
4. Overhead lighting
5. Under-lighting

The last one, under-lighting, is relatively unusual, unless you're going for a Halloween look. But the others are fairly common in most types of photography, from street photos to landscapes. On top of that, you might have *multiple* light sources, typically for studio work. Indeed, high-end product photography setups may have more than a dozen different lights. There's really no limit, aside from simple practicality.

But does the direction of light impact your photos emotion?

The answer is yes. But the specific *way* it affects emotion is hard to generalize, since it depends upon the scene. Sometimes, backlighting will be high-contrast and dramatic. Other times — say, on a foggy day — it could cause the atmosphere to light up with bright, ethereal sunbeams. There's no inherent consistency.

That's even true if you're capturing a portrait under controlled conditions. You can get many different emotions from a single direction of light. For example, are you altering the diffusion of your flash? What about the color of the background, or even the emotion your subject is conveying? All of these factors mean that backlighting or side lighting — just to name a couple examples— won't always carry the same emotions from photo to photo.

(https://photographylife.com/landscapes/how-light-creates-emotion-in-photography)

Types of lighting:

The *Three Point Lighting Technique* is a standard method used in visual media such as video, film, still photography and computer-generated imagery. It is a simple but versatile system which forms the basis of most lighting. Once you understand three point lighting you are well on the way to understanding all lighting.

The technique uses three lights called the key light, fill light and back light. Naturally you will need three lights to utilise the technique fully, but the principles are still important even if you only use one or two lights. As a rule:
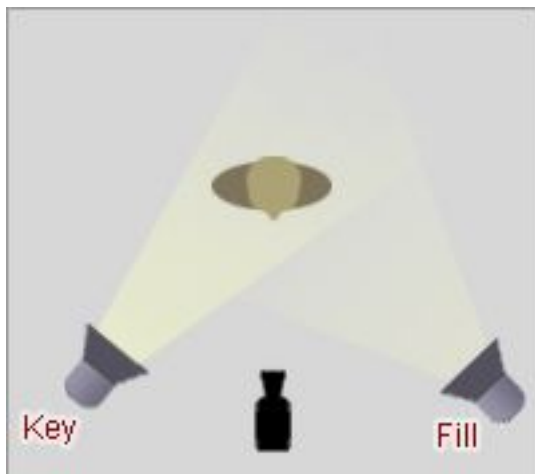
- If you only have one light, it becomes the key.

● If you have 2 lights, one is the key and the other is either the fill or the backlight.
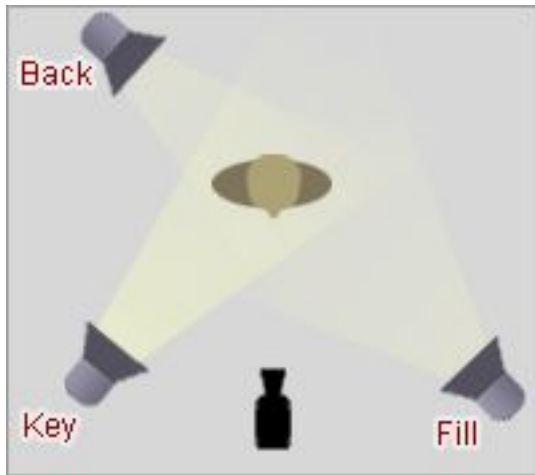
Key Light

This is the main light. It is usually the strongest and has the most influence on the look of the scene. It is placed to one side of the camera/subject so that this side is well lit and the other side has some shadow.

Fill Light

This is the secondary light and is placed on the opposite side of the key light. It is used to fill the shadows created by the key. The fill will usually be softer and less bright than the key. To

achieve this, you could move the light further away or use some spun. You might also want to set the fill light to more of a flood than the key.

Back Light

The back light is placed behind the subject and lights it from the rear. Rather than providing direct lighting (like the key and fill), its purpose is to provide definition and subtle highlights around the subject's outlines. This helps separate the subject from the background and provide a three-dimensional look.

If you have a fourth light, you could use it to light the background of the entire scene.

Lighting Concepts:

High key and Low key:

High Key is a style of lighting that is bright and shadowless with lots of fill light. It was used a lot in the classic Hollywood period in the 1930s and 40s, in particular for comedies and musicals.

Today high key lighting is primarily used for cosmetic commercials, sitcoms, and music videos. Although it does still find its place within modern cinema; see the above image from Harry Potter.

Features:

High key is shadowless.
Often close to overexposure on some areas of the image.
Is usually produced from frontal lighting.
High key will have a low lighting ratio.

Low Key:

An image with low key lighting is predominantly dark and filled with more shadows than light. There is little or no fill light. Low key focuses on the use of shadows as a character, rather than the subjects in the light itself. It's commonly used throughout horror and thriller films. Check out this article for more on making films dramatic with low key lighting.

Features:

Often will be achieved with just one light.
Low key lighting will have a high lighting ratio.
Low key lighting works better when using a hard light source.

Color Temperature: In short, each light source has its own individual color, or 'color temperature', which varies from red to blue.

Candles, sunsets and tungsten bulbs give off light that's close to red (hence the 'warm' look they give to pictures), whereas clear blue skies give off a 'cool' blue light. It's fairly obvious stuff once you read it.

Color temperature is typically recorded in kelvin, the unit of absolute temperature. Cool colors like blue and white generally have color temperatures over 7000K, while warmer colors like red and orange lie around the 2000K mark.

When you set your camera's white balance manually , you can choose from a number of pre-set color temperature options like Tungsten, Daylight, Cloudy and Shade, or customize your own setting.

Color Temperature	Light Source
1000-2000 K	Candlelight

2500-3500 K	Tungsten Bulb (household variety)
3000-4000 K	Sunrise/Sunset (clear sky)
4000-5000 K	Fluorescent Lamps
5000-5500 K	Electronic Flash
5000-6500 K	Daylight with Clear Sky (sun overhead)
6500-8000 K	Moderately Overcast Sky
9000-10000 K	Shade or Heavily Overcast Sky

White Balance: White balance (WB) is the process of removing unrealistic color casts, so that objects which appear white in person are rendered white in your photo. Proper camera white balance has to take into account the "color temperature" of a light source, which refers to the relative warmth or coolness of white light. Our eyes are very good at judging what is white under different light sources, but digital cameras often have great difficulty with auto white balance (AWB) — and can create unsightly blue, orange, or even green color casts. Understanding digital white balance can help you avoid these color casts, thereby improving your photos under a wider range of lighting conditions.

Composition: In the visual arts, composition is the placement or arrangement of visual elements or 'ingredients' in a work of art, as distinct from the subject. ... The term composition means 'putting together' and can apply to any work of art, from music to writing to photography, that is arranged using conscious thought. In photography, how we put different objects that we want to photograph in a frame is called composition. Rule of thirds is one of the guidelines that photographers use to compose their pictures.

Use of Color in Composition:

Color has four basic characteristics: hue, temperature, value and saturation. Briefly, hue is the color's identity in relation to the color spectrum. The titles blue, green, red, brown identify a color by hue. Technically, color temperature is a subset of hue but for the working artist, it's as important as the other three. Warm colors such as reds, oranges and yellows are associated with heat while cool colors like blues and greens are associated with things that are relatively cold such as ice, snow, sky and water. Value is the lightness or darkness of a color compared to a neutral value scale from black to white with as many middle grays as can be distinguished. Saturation is the purity or intensity of the color. Paint squeezed directly from the tube is of maximum intensity.

Depending upon the Color harmonies used we can create the mood we want in a picture. Colors have third own symbolism so can be used in different contexts to give some specific messages. Read up the analogous and complementary colors.

Rule of Thirds:

The rule of thirds involves mentally dividing up your image using 2 horizontal lines and 2 vertical lines, as shown below. You then position the important elements in your scene along those lines, or at the points where they meet.

The idea is that an off-centre composition is more pleasing to the eye and looks more natural than one where the subject is placed right in the middle of the frame. It also encourages you to make creative use of negative space, the empty areas around your subject.

When framing a photo, think about what elements of the photo are most important, and try to position them at or near the lines and intersections of the grid. They don't have to be perfectly lined up as long as they're close.

Lighting Accessories:

Some common types of equipment used in video and photography lighting.

18% Gray Card	A gray-coloured card which reflects 18% of the light which falls upon it. Used as a reference to calibrate light meters and set exposure.
Ballast	A device used to control the electrical current in a light.
Consoles	Hardware and software systems which control lighting. Operated by the lighting technician, consoles coordinate lighting displays on stages, studios, etc.
Light Meter	A tool used to measure light and indicate the ideal exposure setting. Also known as an exposure meter.

Reflector Board	A specially-designed reflective surface used to act as a secondary light source. The board is lightweight and flexible, and is normally folded up for transport in a small carry-case.
Gels	Materials which are placed in front of a light source to alter it's characteristics, e.g. colour temperature or dispersion.
Spectrometer	A professional-level instrument which measures the spectrum of light. Technically speaking, a spectrometer analyses the electromagnetic spectrum and measures the intensity of radiation as a function of wavelength.
Stands & Clamps	Systems used to support lights and hold them in the correct position.

Stages of Production:

The video production process is broken into three simple stages:

- Pre-production
- Production
- Post-production

There are a lot of moving parts within each stage, and because of this, it is important to build in checkpoints and milestones along the way.

PRE-PRODUCTION

Pre-production begins the moment script development starts. It involves everything that happens before shooting begins: project kickoff, research, script writing and storyboarding, casting, hiring crews, scouting and locking locations, scheduling post-production, and more. Anything and everything about a video production's logistics are coordinated from scratch based on the script, and everything must be in place before the principle photography begins.

In the case of industry or commercial media, pre-production can include:

- Project kickoff

- Production schedule
- Script development
- Storyboards
- Graphics concepts
- Location scouting
- Prop and wardrobe identification and preparation
- Post-production preparation

PRODUCTION

Production is when all the planning during script development and pre-production comes together. "Action!" is called, and that is when the cameras roll and the fun begins. A professional video production crew has an eye for detail and should be meticulous about lighting, have a penchant for capturing great sound bites during interviews, directing talent, and capturing relevant and beautiful B-roll. Our animators and graphic artists work magic – creating the best animations and graphics to represent your brand.

POST-PRODUCTION

Post-Production – or editing – is the stage of production when the production team digs into the recorded video and audio footage and assembles it in accordance with the script. Graphics, music, sound effects, and visual effects are crafted and added, along with color correction, audio sweetening, and sound design.

Producing high-quality, professional video takes an experienced team, solid pre-production strategies and project management skills, a tried-and-tested production process, and a quality assurance system. All of these combined efforts will result in a video that matches your brand, meets your objectives, and exceeds your expectations.

Introduction to Video Editing: Video editing is the process and technique of working with video images to create a finished piece of video work. Understanding basic video making theory helps in which technical elements of video editing to use.

Video editing is the process of manipulating and rearranging video shots to create a new work. Editing is usually considered to be one part of the *post production* process — other post-production tasks include titling, colour correction, sound mixing, etc.

Many people use the term *editing* to describe all their post-production work, especially in non-professional situations. Whether or not you choose to be picky about terminology is up to you. The word *editing* broadly means the following:

- Rearranging, adding and/or removing sections of video clips and/or audio clips.
- Applying colour correction, filters and other enhancements.
- Creating transitions between clips.

Montage (Editing): In filmmaking, a montage is an editing technique in which shots are juxtaposed in an often fast-paced fashion that compresses time and conveys a lot of information in a relatively short period. Montage is the process by which an editor takes two pieces of film of tape and combines them to emphasise their meaning. It is a method by which through two unrelated shots we may create a third and different meaning.

Development :

Development is a process that creates growth, progress, positive change or the addition of physical, economic, environmental, social and demographic components. The purpose of development is a rise in the level and quality of life of the population, and the creation or expansion of local regional income and employment opportunities, without damaging the resources of the environment. Development is visible and useful, not necessarily immediately, and includes an aspect of quality change and the creation of conditions for a continuation of that change.

The international agenda began to focus on development beginning in the second half of the twentieth century. An understanding developed that economic growth did not necessarily lead to a rise in the level and quality of life for populations all over the world; there was a need to place an emphasis on specific policies that would channel resources and enable social and economic mobility for various layers of the population.

Through the years, professionals and various researchers developed a number of definitions and emphases for the term "development." Amartya Sen, for example, developed the "capability approach," which defined development as a tool enabling people to reach the highest level of their ability, through granting freedom of action, i.e., freedom of economic, social and family actions, etc. This approach became a basis for the measurement of development by the HDI (Human Development Index), which was developed by the UN Development Program (UNDP) in 1990. Martha Nussbaum developed the abilities approach in the field of gender and emphasized the empowerment of women as a development tool.

In contrast, professionals like Jeffrey Sachs and Paul Collier focused on mechanisms that prevent or oppress development in various countries, and cause them to linger in abject poverty for dozens of years. These are the various poverty traps, including civil wars, natural resources and poverty itself. The identification of these traps enables relating to political – economic – social conditions in a country in an attempt to advance development. One of the emphases in the work of Jeffrey Sacks is the promotion of sustainable development, which believes in growth and development in order to raise the standard of living for citizens of the world today, through relating to the needs of environmental resources and the coming generations of the citizens of the world.

Development communication:

Development communication refers to the use of communication to facilitate social development. Development communication engages stakeholders and policy makers, establishes conducive environments, assesses risks and opportunities and promotes information exchanges to bring about positive social change via sustainable development. Development communication techniques include information dissemination and education, behavior change, social marketing, social mobilization, media advocacy, communication for social change and community participation. Development communication

has been labeled the "Fifth Theory of the Press," with "social transformation and development," and "the fulfillment of basic needs" as its primary purposes. Jamias articulated the philosophy of development communication which is anchored on three main ideas, namely: purposive, value-laden and pragmatic.

Development Support Communication:

Development support communication is an activity aimed for purposive change in a society to improve socio economic condition. It is systematic use of art and science of human communication to persuade specific group of people to change their habits, lifestyle and thought pattern.

The aim of development support communication is utilization of mass media and other available communication means for mobilization of a specific segment of society towards o particular change. The main communication of development support communication is the message production unlike normal communication in order to bring socio-economic change in the target society.

Third world :

"Third World" is a phrase frequently used to describe a developing nation. Despite its current usage, the phrase emerged during the Cold War to identify countries whose views did not align with NATO and capitalism or the Soviet Union and communism. The First World described countries whose views aligned with NATO and capitalism and the Second World referred to countries that supported communism and the Soviet Union.

Third World countries referenced the nations, mostly in Asia and Africa that were not aligned with either the United States or the Soviet Union. The United States was considered a member of the First World, and Russia was considered a member of the Second World. Now, because the Soviet Union no longer exists, the definition of "Third World" is less precise and, thus, more open to interpretation.

The Marshall Plan:

also known as the European Recovery Program, was a U.S. program providing aid to Western Europe following the devastation of World War II. It was enacted in 1948 and provided more than $15 billion to help finance rebuilding efforts on the continent. The brainchild of U.S. Secretary of State George C. Marshall, for whom it was named, it was crafted as a four-year plan to reconstruct cities, industries and infrastructure heavily damaged during the war and to remove trade barriers between European neighbors – as well as foster commerce between those countries and the United States. In addition to economic redevelopment, one of the stated goals of the Marshall Plan was to halt the spread communism on the European continent.

Implementation of the Marshall Plan has been cited as the beginning of the Cold War between the United States and its European allies and the Soviet Union, which had effectively taken control of much of central and eastern Europe and established its satellite republics as communist nations.

The Marshall Plan is also considered a key catalyst for the formation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), a military alliance between North American and European countries established in 1949.

Post-war Europe was in dire straits: Millions of its citizens had been killed or seriously wounded in World War II, as well as in related atrocities such as the Holocaust. Many cities, including some of the leading industrial and cultural centers of Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy and Belgium, had been destroyed. Reports provided to Marshall suggested that some regions of the continent were on the brink of famine because agricultural and other food production had been disrupted by the fighting.

In addition, the region's transportation infrastructure – railways, roads, bridges, and ports – had suffered extensive damage during airstrikes, and the shipping fleets of many countries had been sunk. In fact, it could easily be argued that the only world power not structurally affected by the conflict had been the United States.

The reconstruction coordinated under the Marshall Plan was formulated following a meeting of the participating European states in the latter half of 1947. Notably, invitations were extended to the Soviet Union and its satellite states. However, they refused to join the effort, allegedly fearing U.S. involvement in their respective national affairs.

President Harry Truman signed the Marshall Plan on April 3, 1948, and aid was distributed to 16 European nations, including Britain, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, West Germany and Norway.

To highlight the significance of America's largesse, the billions committed in aid effectively amounted to a generous 5 percent of U.S. gross domestic product at the time.

The Marshall Plan provided aid to the recipients essentially on a per capita basis, with larger amounts given to major industrial powers, such as West Germany, France and Great Britain. This was based on the belief of Marshall and his advisors that recovery in these larger nations was essential to overall European recovery.

Still, not all participating nations benefitted equally. Nations such as Italy, who had fought with the Axis powers alongside Nazi Germany, and those who remained neutral (e.g., Switzerland) received less assistance per capita than those countries who fought with the United States and the other Allied powers.

The notable exception was West Germany: Though all of Germany was damaged significantly toward the end of World War II, a viable and revitalized West Germany was seen as essential to economic stability in the region, and as a not-so-subtle rebuke of the communist government and economic system on the other side of the "Iron Curtain" in East Germany.

Role of UN in development :

As the most representative inter-governmental organization of the world today, the United Nations' role in world affairs is irreplaceable by any other international or regional organizations. The United Nations has made enormous positive contributions in maintaining international peace and security, promoting cooperation among states and international development. Today, people of the world still face the two major issues of peace and development. Only by international cooperation can mankind meet the challenges of the global and regional issues. The United Nations can play a pivotal and positive role in this regard. Strengthening the role of the United Nations in the new century and promoting the establishment of a just and reasonable international political and economic order goes along with the trend of history and is in the interest of all nations.

In order to strengthen the role of the United Nations, efforts should be made to uphold the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations. The authority of the Security Council in maintaining international peace and security must be preserved and role of the United Nations in development area should be strengthened. To strengthen the role of the United Nations, it is essential to ensure to all Member States of the United Nations the right to equal participation in international affairs and the rights and interests of the developing countries should be safeguarded.

Point four program:

The Point Four Program was a technical assistance program for "developing countries" announced by United States President Harry S. Truman in his inaugural address on January 20, 1949. It took its name from the fact that it was the fourth foreign policy objective mentioned in the speech.

Following World War Two, the United States found itself in a Cold War struggle against the USSR. The Truman administration came up with the idea for a technical assistance program as a means to win the "hearts and minds" of the developing world. By sharing US know-how in various fields, especially agriculture, industry and health, officials could help "third world" nations on the development path, raise the standard of living, and show that democracy and capitalism could provide for the welfare of the individual

Countries from the Middle East, Latin America, Asia and Africa had complained about the European emphasis of US foreign aid.

Truman denied that this was a colonial venture to dominate other countries. Rather, he insisted, "The old imperialism—exploitation for foreign profit—has no place in our plans. What we envisage is a program of development based on the concepts of democratic fair-dealing. All countries, including our own, will greatly benefit from a constructive program for the better use of the world's human and natural resources.

This was not a call for economic aid—on the order of the Marshall Plan but for the US to share its "know-how" and help nations develop with technical assistance

Point Four was the first global U.S. foreign aid program, yet it drew some inspiration from the nation's wartime Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs (OCIAA), which extended technical assistance to Latin American countries. Nelson Rockefeller, the administrator of the OCIAA, strongly supported the establishment of Point Four in congressional hearings.

According to the US Secretary of State Dean Acheson, it was the initiative of the then legal counsel to the president Clark Clifford, who suggested to president Truman to initiate an assistance on a worldwide basis, and to include the issue in his inaugural address. According to Robert Schlesinger's book, White House Ghosts, it was Benjamin H. Hardy who first came up with the concept. After the suggestion was as good as lost in the foggy miasma of the State Department's bureaucracy, Hardy decided to bring the idea to the attention of Truman aide, George Elsey. Elsey and Clifford went on to herald the abstraction into policy. Hardy eventually left the Department of State and became the new Technical Cooperation Administration's Chief Information Officer.

Communication and social change :

Social change refers to empowerment and development, mostly in a community context. A communication practitioner who specialised in communication for social change must be able to develop strategies to communicate with and on behalf of non-government organisations (including communities), the private sector as well as the government with the aim of empowering and mobilising societies for social change. This person specialises in strategic communication within a development context, keeping the uniqueness and challenges of this context in mind.

A specialist in communication for social change can work for corporate organisations, especially in managing communication within the context of corporate social responsibility initiatives. This person can also work for non-profit organisations that focus on empowerment and social change or can work for the government as communication practitioners in development initiatives. Since South Africa is a developing country where development contexts have to be considered when communication strategies are planned, there is also the opportunity to work as a communication for social change consultant either in an existing business or by starting your own.

Social marketing :

Social marketing is the use of commercial marketing principles and techniques to improve the welfare of people and the physical, social and economic environment in which they live. It is a carefully planned, long-term approach to changing human behavior.

Social marketing uses the same collection of tools to "sell" healthy behaviors that are used to sell jeans. There are four basic principles of commercial marketing. They are referred to as the "4 Ps".

P1 - Product is what you are marketing. In social marketing the product is a behavior change or a shift in attitude. For example, a campaign may be designed to increase condom use or to convince adolescents that spreading rumors is harmful or dangerous.

P2 - Price is the cost. In social marketing, price is the cost of changing behaviors. It is difficult to price the personal costs of using a condom when the individual commits to a new behavior that had been identified as inconvenient, time consuming and embarrassing. The goal of social marketing is to reframe the recommended behavior change so that the consumer realizes that the benefits of change outweigh the efforts or costs.

P3 - Place is where and how the priority population can be reached. In social marketing, place represents all efforts to make the behavior change as easy as possible to a consumer. It might mean offering free or inexpensive condoms at convenient locations (i.e. schools, bars, or restrooms) or changing a clinic schedule to accommodate busy students.

P4 - Promotion is the ways used to notify the public about the change messages. Advertising is just one method to achieve this goal. A promotion campaign includes incorporating messages about the recommended behavior change into all existing programs in the community in order to reinforce the message on multiple levels.

Social marketing employs a fifth P that is not included in the commercial campaigns. This special component of social marketing is:

P5 - Policy is the intent to influence policy that will not be punitive but will promote positive behavior change.

Social marketing is not always a success. If the attitudes and behavior changes you are encouraging are still not perceived as beneficial, acceptable and attainable by the priority population, it may not be worthwhile to develop a social marketing campaign at this time. In this situation, it is better to introduce a behavior change recommendation by developing connections with community and agreeing on a unified goal before planning a social marketing campaign.

Social audits :

A social audit is an official evaluation of an organization's involvement in social responsibility projects or endeavors. For example, a local family store makes a clothing donation to a local church that has a homeless shelter for women and children. The store makes a similar donation three times a year. This is something that a social audit might uncover. Factors examined by a social audit include records of charitable contributions, volunteer events, efficient utilization of energy, transparency, work environment, and employees' wages.

Social audits have several aims. One is to assess the type of social and environmental influence that the company has in its local community. Another aim is to make a judgment of the material and monetary

shortfalls between the needs of the community and the assets that are available for the development of the local society. Another aim of social audits is to make local social service providers and other beneficiaries aware of the needs of the community. Yet another is to provide information needed to improve the effectiveness of programs designed to enhance community development.

Many believe that social audits are an imposition on organizations to divulge some information that they want to keep internal. Others believe that social contributions should be left to the social conscience of the organizational leaders. However, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages.

Grassroots activism :

Grassroots activism is a method of campaigning for a cause that the activist or activists feel strongly about. Grassroots activists are often at the complete opposite end of the political spectrum from those in power. But these campaigns are often surprisingly effective when it comes to making a change.

At its most basic level, grassroots activism is a group of people who feel strongly enough about an issue to actively campaign to make a difference. Grassroots activism relies on the basic rights to freedom of speech and expression by individuals when it comes to trying to make a change to a particular issue. This type of activism is not controlled by any particular political party. They are an independent group of people who feel strongly about a certain issue and are willing to put in the effort to affect a change on the issue they are concerned about.

In a number of cases there will be individuals involved in grassroots campaigns who do hold political power. It could be politicians who pick up on a certain campaign through the media and believe in the issue strongly enough to add their support. In some cases this could look like the actions of a political party trying to gain favour from the public. However in many cases it will often be that the politician does actually support the cause and wishes to help the people involved in the campaign.

Grassroots activists can be anyone from any walk of life who feels passionately about a cause. Activists can be a community that are opposed to a large retailer moving into their town. They can be a group of individuals that are opposed to animal testing or who want to change a council's policies. Grassroots activism is politics at its most fundamental level; people coming together to stand up and make a difference. This could mean protesting outside the gates of a factory where an employee has been unfairly dismissed to leafleting a whole community on an issue that affects them.

Once a grassroots campaign starts to pick up momentum it can be very effective when it comes to making a change. A successful campaign can start off with one or two activists that can soon turn into hundreds and even thousands. If the media picks up on the campaign then this can make a real difference to the cause. If the cause has significant support it can effectively change government policies and laws.

Recent protests have included marches against the war in Iraq to campaigns to stop knife crimes in London. These have been protests started by a small number of people that grew to huge numbers through the strength of feeling regarding the particular causes.

Although most grassroots protests are intended as peaceful demonstrations for change this has not always been the ultimate outcome. Many activists have been arrested and in some cases endured time in prison due to their strong beliefs. Animal rights protestors often use extreme methods to highlight their protests including breaking into testing facilities. Protestors against nuclear disarmament in Britain are frequently arrested when they hold sit-ins outside warhead manufacturing plants. Some campaigns can last for many years and take real commitment from those involved.

Anyone who feels strongly about an issue can start their own grassroots campaign. The power of the Internet has made a real difference to the way campaigns are now run. Thanks to social networking sites it is now easier to recruit like minded activists and organise protests and campaigns. This is grassroots activism at its most basic level but it can make a difference and change the public's attitude towards certain issues.

Holding a political office is not always needed to make a difference to policies and issues. Many changes have been made in the world thanks to the results of grassroots activism. From civil rights activism to the campaigns for nuclear disarmament, grassroots activism will always be a way for the public to make a difference to the world in which we live.

Whistleblowers :

A whistleblower (also written as whistle-blower or whistle blower) is a person who exposes any kind of information or activity that is deemed illegal, unethical, or not correct within an organization that is either private or public. The information of alleged wrongdoing can be classified in many ways: violation of company policy/rules, law, regulation, or threat to public interest/national security, as well as fraud, and corruption. Those who become whistleblowers can choose to bring information or allegations to surface either internally or externally. Internally, a whistleblower can bring his/her accusations to the attention of other people within the accused organization such as an immediate supervisor. Externally, a whistleblower can bring allegations to light by contacting a third party outside of an accused organization such as the media, government, law enforcement, or those who are concerned. Whistleblowers, however, take the risk of facing stiff reprisal and retaliation from those who are accused or alleged of wrongdoing.

Because of this, a number of laws exist to protect whistleblowers. Some third-party groups even offer protection to whistleblowers, but that protection can only go so far. Whistleblowers face legal action, criminal charges, social stigma, and termination from any position, office, or job. Two other classifications of whistleblowing are private and public. The classifications relate to the type of organizations someone chooses to whistle-blow on: private sector, or public sector. Depending on many factors, both can have varying results. However, whistleblowing in the public sector organization is more

likely to result in criminal charges and possible custodial sentences. A whistleblower who chooses to accuse a private sector organization or agency is more likely to face termination and legal and civil charges.

Deeper questions and theories of whistleblowing and why people choose to do so can be studied through an ethical approach. Whistleblowing is a topic of ongoing ethical debate. Leading arguments in the ideological camp that whistleblowing is ethical maintain that whistleblowing is a form of civil disobedience, and aims to protect the public from government wrongdoing. In the opposite camp, some see whistleblowing as unethical for breaching confidentiality, especially in industries that handle sensitive client or patient information. Legal protection can also be granted to protect whistleblowers, but that protection is subject to many stipulations. Hundreds of laws grant protection to whistleblowers, but stipulations can easily cloud that protection and leave whistleblowers vulnerable to retaliation and legal trouble. However, the decision and action has become far more complicated with recent advancements in technology and communication. Whistleblowers frequently face reprisal, sometimes at the hands of the organization or group they have accused, sometimes from related organizations, and sometimes under law. Questions about the legitimacy of whistleblowing, the moral responsibility of whistleblowing, and the appraisal of the institutions of whistleblowing are part of the field of political ethics.

U.S. civic activist Ralph Nader is said to have coined the phrase, but he in fact put a positive spin on the term in the early 1970s to avoid the negative connotations found in other words such as "informer" and "snitch". However, the origins of the word date back to the 19th century.

The word is linked to the use of a whistle to alert the public or a crowd about a bad situation, such as the commission of a crime or the breaking of rules during a game. The phrase whistle blower attached itself to law enforcement officials in the 19th century because they used a whistle to alert the public or fellow police. Sports referees, who use a whistle to indicate an illegal or foul play, also were called whistle blowers.

An 1883 story in the Janesville Gazette called a policeman who used his whistle to alert citizens about a riot a whistle blower, without the hyphen. By the year 1963, the phrase had become a hyphenated word, whistle-blower. The word began to be used by journalists in the 1960s for people who revealed wrongdoing, such as Nader. It eventually evolved into the compound word whistleblower.

Most whistleblowers are internal whistleblowers, who report misconduct on a fellow employee or superior within their company through anonymous reporting mechanisms often called hotlines. One of the most interesting questions with respect to internal whistleblowers is why and under what circumstances do people either act on the spot to stop illegal and otherwise unacceptable behavior or report it. There are some reasons to believe that people are more likely to take action with respect to unacceptable behavior, within an organization, if there are complaint systems that offer not just options dictated by the planning and control organization, but a choice of options for absolute confidentiality.

External whistleblowers, however, report misconduct to outside persons or entities. In these cases, depending on the information's severity and nature, whistleblowers may report the misconduct to

lawyers, the media, law enforcement or watchdog agencies, or other local, state, or federal agencies. In some cases, external whistleblowing is encouraged by offering monetary reward.

Sometimes it is beneficial for an organization to use an external agency to create a secure and anonymous reporting channel for its employees, often reffered to as a whistleblowing hotline. As well as protecting the identity of the whistleblower, these services are designed to inform the individuals at the top of the organizational pyramid of misconduct, usually via integration with specialised case management software. Implementing a third party solution is often the easiest way for an organization to ensure compliance, or to offer a whistleblowing policy where one did not previously exist. An increasing number of companies and authorities use third party services in which the whistleblower is anonymous also towards the third party service provider, which is made possible via toll free phone numbers and/or web or app-based solutions which apply asymmetrical encryption.

Private sector whistleblowing, though not as high profile as public sector whistleblowing, is arguably more prevalent and suppressed in society today.vSimply because private corporations usually have stricter regulations that suppress potential whistleblowers. An example of private sector whistleblowing is when an employee reports to someone in a higher position such as a manager, or a third party that is isolated from the individual chapter, such as their lawyer or the police. In the private sector corporate groups can easily hide wrongdoings by individual branches. It is not until these wrongdoings bleed into the top officials that corporate wrongdoings are seen by the public. Situations in which a person may blow the whistle are in cases of violated laws or company policy, such as sexual harassment or theft. These instances, nonetheless, are small compared to money laundering or fraud charges on the stock market. Whistleblowing in the private sector is typically not as high-profile or openly discussed in major news outlets, though occasionally, third parties expose human rights violations and exploitation of workers.

Despite government efforts to help regulate the private sector, the employees must still weigh their options. They either expose the company and stand the moral and ethical high ground; or expose the company, lose their job, their reputation and potentially the ability to be employed again. According to a study at the University of Pennsylvania, out of three hundred whistleblowers studied, sixty nine percent of them had foregone that exact situation; and they were either fired or were forced to retire after taking the ethical high ground. It is outcomes like that which makes it all that much harder to accurately track how prevalent whistleblowing is in the private sector.

Individual harm, public trust damage, and a threat of national security are three categories of harm that may come as a result of whistleblowing. Revealing a whistleblower's identity can automatically put their life in danger. Some media outlets associate words like "traitor" and "treason" with whistleblowers, and in many countries around the world, the punishment for treason is the death penalty, even if whoever allegedly committed treason may not have caused anyone physical harm. A primary argument in favor of the death penalty for treason is the potential endangerment of an entire people. In other words, the perpetrator is perceived as being responsible for any harm that befalls the country or its citizens as a result of their actions. In some instances, whistleblowers must flee their country to avoid public scrutiny, threats of death or physical harm, and in some cases criminal charges

Whistleblowers are sometimes seen as selfless martyrs for public interest and organizational accountability; others view them as "traitors" or "defectors." Some even accuse them of solely pursuing personal glory and fame, or view their behavior as motivated by greed in qui tam cases. Some academics (such as Thomas Alured Faunce) feel that whistleblowers should at least be entitled to a rebuttable presumption that they are attempting to apply ethical principles in the face of obstacles and that whistleblowing would be more respected in governance systems if it had a firmer academic basis in virtue ethics.

It is probable that many people do not even consider blowing the whistle, not only because of fear of retaliation, but also because of fear of losing their relationships at work and outside work.

Whistleblowers are often protected under law from employer retaliation, but in many cases punishment has occurred, such as termination, suspension, demotion, wage garnishment, and/or harsh mistreatment by other employees. A 2009 study found that up to 38% of whistleblowers experienced professional retaliation in some form, including wrongful termination. For example, in the United States, most whistleblower protection laws provide for limited "make whole" remedies or damages for employment losses if whistleblower retaliation is proven. However, many whistleblowers report there exists a widespread "shoot the messenger" mentality by corporations or government agencies accused of misconduct and in some cases whistleblowers have been subjected to criminal prosecution in reprisal for reporting wrongdoing.

The definition of ethics is the moral principles that govern a person's or group's behavior. The ethical implications of whistleblowing can be negative as well as positive. However, sometimes employees may blow the whistle as an act of revenge. Rosemary O'Leary explains this in her short volume on a topic called guerrilla government. "Rather than acting openly, guerrillas often choose to remain "in the closet," moving clandestinely behind the scenes, salmon swimming upstream against the current of power. Over the years, I have learned that the motivations driving guerrillas are diverse. The reasons for acting range from the altruistic (doing the right thing) to the seemingly petty (I was passed over for that promotion). Taken as a whole, their acts are as awe inspiring as saving human lives out of a love of humanity and as trifling as slowing the issuance of a report out of spite or anger. For example, of the more than 1,000 whistleblower complaints that are filed each year with the Pentagon's Inspector General, about 97 percent are not substantiated. It is believed throughout the professional world that an individual is bound to secrecy within their work sector. Discussions of whistleblowing and employee loyalty usually assume that the concept of loyalty is irrelevant to the issue or, more commonly, that whistleblowing involves a moral choice that pits the loyalty that an employee owes an employer against the employee's responsibility to serve the public interest. Robert A. Larmer describes the standard view of whistleblowing in the Journal of Business Ethics by explaining that an employee possesses prima facie (based on the first impression; accepted as correct until proved otherwise) duties of loyalty and confidentiality to their employers and that whistleblowing cannot be justified except on the basis of a higher duty to the public good.[50] It is important to recognize that in any relationship which demands loyalty the relationship works both ways and involves mutual enrichment.

NGO:

Non Governmental Organisation (NGO) or Non Profit Organisation (NPO) is a group, organisation, non profit establishment or non profit entrepreneurship of individuals, activists, voluntary and social persons. NGO or NPO is a social voluntary organisation of social activist, group of persons, community, persons, volunteers, civilians and citizens who are working or associated for social welfare and social development. If a group of person or community want to work for social change and on certain issues it can work as NGO without getting registration. NGO can be registered or can not be registered. NGO is recognised in its registered form and can get all kind of support including financial support when it is registered at Government registering authorities. NGO can be run, managed and operated by the members and other persons who are associated with it and work for social and ethical objects.

NGO as a association includes groups and institutions with primary humanitarian and co-operative objectives rather than commercial objectives completely or widely independent from Government. NGOs are private agencies to support development at local, national and international level by organised indigenous groups. NGO as a citizen Groups raises awareness and influence policies and includes independent cooperatives, community associations, societies, groups and various associations.

NGO works for the betterment and upliftment of socio-economically and politically weaker section of community to bring them in the main stream of society and move the society towards more improved and developed way of living and existence. As a community group and organisation NGO provides and fulfills certain services, development oriented tasks and works with aims and objectives to bring about required positive changes in society, community, areas and situations.

NGO helps and supports people for their legal rights and powers in society. NGO supports, maintain sand governs the status of Government organisations, ministries, departments, agencies, authorities for the aim, task, rules and purpose those are formed and running for; this is done in legal and democratic way and with people participation pattern to fulfill common interest. NGO is known and works for people's participation in various required issues and tasks to support and improve the circumstances, conditions and situations.

NGO is managed by the resources, funds and other kind of desirable support of Government, funding agencies, support agencies, support communities, with support and help of business groups and people. NGO can get help to run in a variety of sources, including the fees of members, private donations, grants, sales of goods and services. NGO as a charitable and religious associations manages private funds for development, distribution of food, clothes, medicines, equipments, facilities and tools to needy persons and communities. NGO as nonprofit making organisation in nature does not work for trade or business purpose but profits by sales of goods and services may be used for the aims and objectives. NGO is non profit making organisation, works for no profit and no gain so it is also known and identified

as Non Profit Organisation (NPO).Mission, Vision, Objectives and Goals of the NGOs are to improve human life and civilization.

Diffusion of Innovation Theory:

Diffusion of Innovation (DOI) Theory, developed by E.M. Rogers in 1962, is one of the oldest social science theories. It originated in communication to explain how, over time, an idea or product gains momentum and diffuses (or spreads) through a specific population or social system. The end result of this diffusion is that people, as part of a social system, adopt a new idea, behavior, or product. Adoption means that a person does something differently than what they had previously (i.e., purchase or use a new product, acquire and perform a new behavior, etc.). The key to adoption is that the person must perceive the idea, behavior, or product as new or innovative. It is through this that diffusion is possible.

Adoption of a new idea, behavior, or product (i.e., "innovation") does not happen simultaneously in a social system; rather it is a process whereby some people are more apt to adopt the innovation than others.   Researchers have found that people who adopt an innovation early have different characteristics than people who adopt an innovation later. When promoting an innovation to a target population, it is important to understand the characteristics of the target population that will help or hinder adoption of the innovation. There are five established adopter categories, and while the majority of the general population tends to fall in the middle categories, it is still necessary to understand the characteristics of the target population. When promoting an innovation, there are different strategies used to appeal to the different adopter categories.

Innovators - These are people who want to be the first to try the innovation. They are venturesome and interested in new ideas. These people are very willing to take risks, and are often the first to develop new ideas. Very little, if anything, needs to be done to appeal to this population.

Early Adopters - These are people who represent opinion leaders. They enjoy leadership roles, and embrace change opportunities. They are already aware of the need to change and so are very comfortable adopting new ideas. Strategies to appeal to this population include how-to manuals and information sheets on implementation. They do not need information to convince them to change.

Early Majority - These people are rarely leaders, but they do adopt new ideas before the average person. That said, they typically need to see evidence that the innovation works before they are willing to adopt it. Strategies to appeal to this population include success stories and evidence of the innovation's effectiveness.

Late Majority - These people are skeptical of change, and will only adopt an innovation after it has been tried by the majority. Strategies to appeal to this population include information on how many other people have tried the innovation and have adopted it successfully.

Laggards - These people are bound by tradition and very conservative. They are very skeptical of change and are the hardest group to bring on board. Strategies to appeal to this population include statistics, fear appeals, and pressure from people in the other adopter groups.

The stages by which a person adopts an innovation, and whereby diffusion is accomplished, include awareness of the need for an innovation, decision to adopt (or reject) the innovation, initial use of the innovation to test it, and continued use of the innovation. There are five main factors that influence adoption of an innovation, and each of these factors is at play to a different extent in the five adopter categories.

Relative Advantage - The degree to which an innovation is seen as better than the idea, program, or product it replaces.

Compatibility - How consistent the innovation is with the values, experiences, and needs of the potential adopters.

Complexity - How difficult the innovation is to understand and/or use.

Triability - The extent to which the innovation can be tested or experimented with before a commitment to adopt is made.

Observability - The extent to which the innovation provides tangible results.

Limitations of Diffusion of Innovation Theory: There are several limitations of Diffusion of Innovation Theory, which include the following:

Much of the evidence for this theory, including the adopter categories, did not originate in public health and it was not developed to explicitly apply to adoption of new behaviors or health innovations.

It does not foster a participatory approach to adoption of a public health program.

It works better with adoption of behaviors rather than cessation or prevention of behaviors.

It doesn't take into account an individual's resources or social support to adopt the new behavior (or innovation).

This theory has been used successfully in many fields including communication, agriculture, public health, criminal justice, social work, and marketing. In public health, Diffusion of Innovation Theory is used to accelerate the adoption of important public health programs that typically aim to change the behavior of a social system. For example, an intervention to address a public health problem is developed, and the intervention is promoted to people in a social system with the goal of adoption (based on Diffusion of Innovation Theory). The most successful adoption of a public health program results from understanding the target population and the factors influencing their rate of adoption.

Demographic transition model:

Walt Rostow took a historical approach in suggesting that developed countries have tended to pass through 5 stages to reach their current degree of economic development.

These are:

Traditional society. This is an agricultural economy of mainly subsistence farming, little of which is traded. The size of the capital stock is limited and of low quality resulting in very low labour productivity and little surplus output left to sell in domestic and overseas markets.

Pre-conditions for take-off. Agriculture becomes more mechanised and more output is traded. Savings and investment grow although they are still a small percentage of national income (GDP). Some external funding is required - for example in the form of overseas aid or perhaps remittance incomes from migrant workers living overseas

Take-off. Manufacturing industry assumes greater importance, although the number of industries remains small. Political and social institutions start to develop - external finance may still be required. Savings and investment grow, perhaps to 15% of GDP. Agriculture assumes lesser importance in relative terms although the majority of people may remain employed in the farming sector. There is often a dual economy apparent with rising productivity and wealth in manufacturing and other industries contrasted with stubbornly low productivity and real incomes in rural agriculture.

Drive to maturity. Industry becomes more diverse. Growth should spread to different parts of the country as the state of technology improves - the economy moves from being dependent on factor inputs for growth towards making better use of innovation to bring about increases in real per capita incomes

Age of mass consumption. Output levels grow, enabling increased consumer expenditure. There is a shift towards tertiary sector activity and the growth is sustained by the expansion of a middle class of consumers.

These countries are ranked lowest in terms of the 2015 Human Development Index - many of these low-income countries remain heavily dependent on primary commodities.

Walt Rostow took a historical approach in suggesting that developed countries have tended to pass through 5 stages to reach their current degree of economic development.

World systems theory :

World-systems theory (also known as world-systems analysis or the world-systems perspective) is a multidisciplinary, macro-scale approach to world history and social change which emphasizes the world-system (and not nation states) as the primary (but not exclusive) unit of social analysis.

"World-system" refers to the inter-regional and transnational division of labor, which divides the world into core countries, semi-periphery countries, and the periphery countries. Core countries focus on

higher skill, capital-intensive production, and the rest of the world focuses on low-skill, labor-intensive production and extraction of raw materials. This constantly reinforces the dominance of the core countries. Nonetheless, the system has dynamic characteristics, in part as a result of revolutions in transport technology, and individual states can gain or lose their core (semi-periphery, periphery) status over time. This structure is unified by the division of labour. It is a world-economy rooted in a capitalist economy. For a time, certain countries become the world hegemon; during the last few centuries, as the world-system has extended geographically and intensified economically, this status has passed from the Netherlands, to the United Kingdom and (most recently) to the United States.

Immanuel Wallerstein has developed the best-known version of world-systems analysis, beginning in the 1970s. Wallerstein traces the rise of the capitalist world-economy from the "long" 16th century. The rise of capitalism, in his view, was an accidental outcome of the protracted crisis of feudalism. Europe (the West) used its advantages and gained control over most of the world economy and presided over the development and spread of industrialization and capitalist economy, indirectly resulting in unequal development.

Though other commentators refer to Wallerstein's project as world-systems "theory", he consistently rejects that term. For Wallerstein, world-systems analysis is a mode of analysis that aims to transcend the structures of knowledge inherited from the 19th century, especially the definition of capitalism, the divisions within the social sciences, and those between the social sciences and history. For Wallerstein, then, world-systems analysis is a "knowledge movement" that seeks to discern the "totality of what has been paraded under the labels of the... human sciences and indeed well beyond". "We must invent a new language," Wallerstein insists, to transcend the illusions of the "three supposedly distinctive arenas" of society, economy and politics. The trinitarian structure of knowledge is grounded in another, even grander, modernist architecture, the distinction of biophysical worlds (including those within bodies) from social ones: "One question, therefore, is whether we will be able to justify something called social science in the twenty-first century as a separate sphere of knowledge." Many other scholars have contributed significant work in this "knowledge movement".

World-systems analysis argues that capitalism, as a historical system, has always integrated a variety of labor forms within a functioning division of labor (world economy). Countries do not have economies but are part of the world economy. Far from being separate societies or worlds, the world economy manifests a tripartite division of labor, with core, semiperipheral and peripheral zones. In the core zones, businesses, with the support of states they operate within, monopolise the most profitable activities of the division of labor.

There are many ways to attribute a specific country to the core, semi-periphery, or periphery. Using an empirically based sharp formal definition of "domination" in a two-country relationship, Piana in 2004 defined the "core" as made up of "free countries" dominating others without being dominated, the "semi-periphery" as the countries that are dominated (usually, but not necessarily, by core countries) but at the same time dominating others (usually in the periphery) and "periphery" as the countries dominated. Based on 1998 data, the full list of countries in the three regions, together with a discussion of methodology, can be found.

The late 18th and early 19th centuries marked a great turning point in the development of capitalism in that capitalists achieved state society power in the key states, which furthered the industrial revolution marking the rise of capitalism. World-systems analysis contends that capitalism as a historical system formed earlier and that countries do not "develop" in stages, but the system does, and events have a different meaning as a phase in the development of historical capitalism, the emergence of the three ideologies of the national developmental mythology (the idea that countries can develop through stages if they pursue the right set of policies): conservatism, liberalism, and radicalism.

Proponents of world-systems analysis see the world stratification system the same way Karl Marx viewed class (ownership versus nonownership of the means of production) and Max Weber viewed class (which, in addition to ownership, stressed occupational skill level in the production process). The core nations primarily own and control the major means of production in the world and perform the higher-level production tasks. The periphery nations own very little of the world's means of production (even when they are located in periphery nations) and provide less-skilled labour. Like a class system with a nation, class positions in the world economy result in an unequal distribution of rewards or resources. The core nations receive the greatest share of surplus production, and periphery nations receive the smallest share. Furthermore, core nations are usually able to purchase raw materials and other goods from non-core nations at low prices and demand higher prices for their exports to non-core nations. Chirot (1986) lists the five most important benefits coming to core nations from their domination of periphery nations:

Access to a large quantity of raw material

Cheap labour

Enormous profits from direct capital investments

A market for exports

Skilled professional labor through migration of these people from the non-core to the core.

According to Wallerstein, the unique qualities of the modern world system include its capitalistic nature, its truly global nature, and the fact that it is a world economy that has not become politically unified into a world empire.

Marxist theory :

Marxist philosophy or Marxist theory are works in philosophy that are strongly influenced by Karl Marx's materialist approach to theory, or works written by Marxists. Marxist philosophy may be broadly divided into Western Marxism, which drew out of various sources, and the official philosophy in the Soviet Union, which enforced a rigid reading of Marx called dialectical materialism, in particular during the 1930s. Marxist philosophy is not a strictly defined sub-field of philosophy, because the diverse influence

of Marxist theory has extended into fields as varied as aesthetics, ethics, ontology, epistemology, theoretical psychology and philosophy of science, as well as its obvious influence on political philosophy and the philosophy of history. The key characteristics of Marxism in philosophy are its materialism and its commitment to political practice as the end goal of all thought.

Marxist theorist Louis Althusser, for example, defined philosophy as "class struggle in theory", thus radically separating himself from those who claimed philosophers could adopt a "God's eye view" as a purely neutral judge.

Marxism is a theory and method of working-class self-emancipation. As a theory, it relies on a method of socioeconomic analysis that views class relations and social conflict using a materialist interpretation of historical development and takes a dialectical view of social transformation. It originates from the works of 19th-century German philosophers Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels.

Marxism uses a methodology, now known as historical materialism, to analyze and critique the development of class society and especially of capitalism as well as the role of class struggles in systemic economic, social, and political change. According to Marxist theory, in capitalist societies, class conflict arises due to contradictions between the material interests of the oppressed and exploited proletariat—a class of wage labourers employed to produce goods and services—and the bourgeoisie—the ruling class that owns the means of production and extracts its wealth through appropriation of the surplus product produced by the proletariat in the form of profit.

This class struggle that is commonly expressed as the revolt of a society's productive forces against its relations of production, results in a period of short-term crises as the bourgeoisie struggle to manage the intensifying alienation of labor experienced by the proletariat, albeit with varying degrees of class consciousness. In periods of deep crisis, the resistance of the oppressed can culminate in a proletarian revolution which, if victorious, leads to the establishment of socialism—a socioeconomic system based on social ownership of the means of production, distribution based on one's contribution and production organized directly for use. As the productive forces continued to advance, Marx hypothesized that socialism would ultimately be transformed into a communist society: a classless, stateless, humane society based on common ownership and the underlying principle: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs".

Marxism has developed into many different branches and schools of thought, with the result that there is now no single definitive Marxist theory. Different Marxian schools place a greater emphasis on certain aspects of classical Marxism while rejecting or modifying other aspects. Many schools of thought have sought to combine Marxian concepts and non-Marxian concepts, which has then led to contradicting conclusions. However, lately there is movement toward the recognition that historical materialism and dialectical materialism remains the fundamental aspect of all Marxist schools of thought. Marxism has had a profound impact on global academia and has influenced many fields such as archaeology, anthropology, media studies, political science, theater, history, sociology, art history and theory, cultural studies, education, economics, ethics, criminology, geography, literary criticism, aesthetics, film theory, critical psychology and philosophy.

Community radio :

Community radio is a radio service offering a third model of radio broadcasting in addition to commercial and public broadcasting. Community stations serve geographic communities and communities of interest. They broadcast content that is popular and relevant to a local, specific audience but is often overlooked by commercial or mass-media broadcasters. Community radio stations are operated, owned, and influenced by the communities they serve. They are generally nonprofit and provide a mechanism for enabling individuals, groups, and communities to tell their own stories, to share experiences and, in a media-rich world, to become creators and contributors of media.

In many parts of the world, community radio acts as a vehicle for the community and voluntary sector, civil society, agencies, NGOs and citizens to work in partnership to further community development aims, in addition to broadcasting. There is legally defined community radio (as a distinct broadcasting sector) in many countries, such as France, Argentina, South Africa, Australia and Ireland. Much of the legislation has included phrases such as "social benefit", "social objectives" and "social gain" as part of the definition. Community radio has developed differently in different countries, and the term has somewhat different meanings in the United Kingdom, Ireland, the United States, Canada and Australia, where freedom of speech laws and de facto realities differ.

UNESCO is a strong supporter of community radio and works to increase the viability of local radio stations around the world. In 2001, the Media Development and Society Section produced the "Community Radio Handbook" to share best practices collected through the Organization's involvement in the sector. This handbook specifically gives recommendations to radio station personnel in how to engage listeners in democratic debate as a means to forward community development.

The Organization has also supported community radio through the direct training of radio station staff. The "Empowering Local Radio with ICTs" project strengthened the reporting capacities of 59 local radio stations from 2012 to 2018. This UNESCO project was implemented in 10 countries of Sub-Saharan Africa, including Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kenya, Lesotho, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia. Workshops focused on improving the quality of broadcasts, building widespread correspondent networks and promoting sustainability.

Gender sensitivity training was another important aspect of the project, with many of the best stories pertaining to gender issues being amalgamated in the "On air with rural women" exhibition[46], opening the celebrations for International Women's Day 2018 and being showcased at the 2018 European Development Days.

MDGs:

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were eight international development goals for the year 2015 that had been established following the Millennium Summit of the United Nations in 2000,

following the adoption of the United Nations Millennium Declaration. All 191 United Nations member states at that time, and at least 22 international organizations, committed to help achieve the following Millennium Development Goals by 2015:

To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

To achieve universal primary education

To promote gender equality and empower women

To reduce child mortality

To improve maternal health

To combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases

To ensure environmental sustainability

To develop a global partnership for development

Each goal had specific targets, and dates for achieving those targets. The 8 goals were measured by 18 targets. To accelerate progress, the G8 finance ministers agreed in June 2005 to provide enough funds to the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the African Development Bank (AfDB) to cancel $40 to $55 billion in debt owed by members of the heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC) to allow them to redirect resources to programs for improving health and education and for alleviating poverty.

Interventions evaluated include (1) improvements required to meet the millennium development goals (MDG) for water supply (by halving by 2015 the proportion of those without access to safe drinking water), (2) meet the water MDG plus halving by 2015 the proportion of those without access to adequate sanitation, (3) increasing access to improved water and sanitation for everyone, (4) providing disinfection at point-of-use over and above increasing access to improved water supply and sanitation (5) providing regulated piped water supply in house and sewage connection with partial sewerage for everyone (Hutton, G. Evaluation of the Cost and Benefits of Water and Sanitation Improvements at the Global Level, 2004 WHO-Geneva)

Critics of the MDGs complained of a lack of analysis and justification behind the chosen objectives, and the difficulty or lack of measurements for some goals and uneven progress, among others. Although developed countries' aid for achieving the MDGs rose during the challenge period, more than half went for debt relief and much of the remainder going towards natural disaster relief and military aid, rather than further development.

As of 2013, progress towards the goals was uneven. Some countries achieved many goals, while others were not on track to realize any. A UN conference in September 2010 reviewed progress to date and adopted a global plan to achieve the eight goals by their target date. New commitments targeted

women's and children's health, and new initiatives in the worldwide battle against poverty, hunger and disease.

Among the non-governmental organizations assisting were the United Nations Millennium Campaign, the Millennium Promise Alliance, Inc., the Global Poverty Project, the Micah Challenge, The Youth in Action EU Programme, "Cartoons in Action" video project and the 8 Visions of Hope global art project.

1.Principles of Reporting:

1)Journalism's first obligation is to the truth.

2) Its first loyalty is to citizens.

3) Its essence is a discipline of verification.

4) Its practitioners must maintain an independence from those they cover.

5) It must serve as an independent monitor of power.

6) It must provide a forum for public criticism and compromise.

7) It must strive to make the significant interesting and relevant.

8) It must keep the news comprehensive and proportional.

9) Its practitioners must be allowed to exercise their personal conscience.

2. Functions and Responsibilities

Journalists educate the public about events and issues and how they affect their lives. They spend much of their time interviewing expert sources, searching public records and other sources for information, and sometimes visiting the scene where a crime or other newsworthy occurrence took place. After they've thoroughly researched the subject, they use what they uncovered to write an article or create a piece for radio, television or the internet

Reporting Duties

Before journalists can write about a subject, they must first gather information. They usually conduct several interviews with people involved in or having knowledge of the subject. They may also go to the scene of an event, such as a crime or an accident, to interview witnessees or law enforcement officers and to document what they see. In addition, they often search public records or other databases to find information and statistics to back up their stories. Researching a story is often similar to conducting an investigation, and journalists must sometimes ask difficult questions. They may have to invest a lot of time tracking down information and people relevant to the story.

Working With People

Even though a news article bears a single journalist's byline, the process requires significant collaboration. How good a journalist's story is often depends on how adept he is at communicating and working with others. For example, journalists take instruction from their editors regarding what angle to approach when writing a story, how long the story should be and whom to interview. They also need strong people and communication skills so they can persuade sources to talk to them. Journalists frequently approach people they don't know, whether when reporting from the scene or calling to request an interview. If they're uncomfortable around strangers, they'll make others uncomfortable as well, making it less likely that people will want to be interviewed.

Legal Responsibilities

In addition to serving the public interest, journalists must also follow the law, especially regarding the confidentiality and privacy of the people they interview or write about. For example, while journalists often tape record their interviews to ensure accuracy, federal and state laws generally make it illegal to record a conversation without the permission of the other party. In this case, journalists must tell their sources they're recording the interview before it begins. Journalists must also understand the laws regarding libel and invasion of privacy. If a journalist

is careless when reporting criminal allegations against a person, for example, he could face a defamation lawsuit if the accusations are proved untrue.

Ethical Responsibilities

Some aspects of a journalist's job are not subject to any kind of law but are just as important. Journalists must strive to present an accurate, well-balanced explanation of the stories they cover. For example, they have an obligation to present all sides of an issue, and to conduct extensive research and talk to several sources knowledgeable about the subject. If they present only popular opinion, or if they conduct minimal research without fully exploring the subject, they don't give readers and viewers the information they need to understand the implications of the event or issue. Journalists must also be honest with the people they interview, telling them before talking to them what the article is about and that they plan to quote them in the piece.

News Values:

News values are the elements of story that journalists have used for decades to quickly assess and determine whether an idea or event is worth sharing — and if so, how prominently.

There are seven news values that journalists typically consider in order to make coverage choices, and any organization that produces news can apply them as a starting point and rule of thumb when assessing contributed content.

In no particular order, here are the seven news values:

Timeliness

An event is more newsworthy the sooner it is reported.

Proximity

Events are more newsworthy the closer they are to the community reading about them.

Impact

Events are more newsworthy when they affect a greater number of people.

Prominence

Events are more newsworthy when they involve public figures.

Oddity

Events are more newsworthy the more out of the ordinary they are.

Relevance

Events are more newsworthy when they involve an issue that is top of mind in the public.

Conflict

Events are more newsworthy when they involve disagreement.

News Gathering/ Getting Story Ideas:

•Celebrate normalcy, you can't write a story about every person or everything, but they all have stories.

• Understand your audience. Consider who your readers are and what types of things they want to read. If you aren't sure, ask them.

• Observe your surroundings and talk with people. Often you see things that turn into story ideas. Watch what people are doing. Look for signs (literally) of things that are happening in your area.

• Read everything. A great way to find good ideas is by reading every publication you can get, and adapting ideas to fit your pub. It's ok to "borrow" ideas from other publications as long as you give them your own flare.

• Focus your topic. One of the most difficult things about generating story ideas is focusing them so they are feasible. Break big topics into several "bite-sized" chunks.

• Ask your sources. The people you interview for one story are excellent sources for your next idea. Ask them what they're interested in reading about. Make notes of other story ideas you get during interviews.

• Write little stuff. Not every topic is a major story, but you may find some subjects that make great sidebars (smaller stories that run beside main ones). Be willing to develop several stories instead of writing just one that is really long. • Eavesdrop. You can't write stories based off of what you hear, but you can get ideas from listening to what people around you discuss.

Reporter is a type of journalist who researches and presents information in certain types of mass media.Reporters gather their information in a variety of ways, including tips,press releases, and witnessing events. They perform research through interviews,public records, and other sources. The information-gathering part of the job is sometimes called"reporting" as distinct from the production part of the job, such as writing articles. Reporters generally split their time between working in a newsroom going out to witness events or interview people.

Most reporters working for major news media outlets are assigned an area to focus called a beat. They are encouraged to cultivate sources to improve their information gathering. When hiring reporters,editors tend to give much weight to the reporter's previous work such as newspaper clippings, even when written for a student newspaper or as part of an internship. Reporting skills

can be learned, just like any other skill. The entire reporting process involves setting objectives, through data gathering and analysis tools, to planning, drafting, editing and designing the report.

Set evaluation goals-know what you are doing from the start.

Select data gathering methods-select the best way to get breadth and depth of information. Analyze quantitative and qualitative data-really understand what your data is telling.

Plan the report-put your ideas into a structure that works.Write more clearly and organize your ideas and analysis effectively-getting to the point in a powerful,persuasive style

Types of News Reports:

1.City reporting assignments include coverage of all important events happening in the city. It could be a political rally, an accident, a crime incident, a book launch, a seminar, a cultural programme, a disease outbreak etc. For the starters, city reporting may seem hectic but as you grow in the profession, you may start enjoying it.

2. Crime news forms an important part of daily news coverage by media. Even as India is one of the fastest growing economy in the world, there is no let down in the number of crime incidents. Every day, a number of incidents are reported in a city. People want to read about them. While some crimes are about greed, violence, sex, revenge etc, some reflect important social tensions. For example: Attacks carried out by illegal cow vigilantes on Dalits, or an organised attack by a community against other, which often leads to riots. Crime reporting allows you to understand some of the basics techniques of journalism. It helps you learn how to research for a story, how to follow a lead, how to interview people to extract information from them and how to write your story in a way that will draw the attention of your reader.

3. **Covering Politics.** India is a democratic country. Constitution of India allows people the freedom of speech and opinion and also the freedom to take part in the electoral process. You must have noticed by now that some type of election keeps happening around year across the country. It could be General Elections for the formation of new Union government or Assembly elections for the formation of governments in states or even elections to the local municipal and panchayati raj or cooperative bodies. So many elections throughout the year and a robust democracy naturally generate people's interest in politics. People want to know about developments, even controversies and scandals in different parties. No wonder why much of the space in a newspaper caters to political reports. This is true also about the web and TV media. However, political reporting is not as easy as interesting it seems while reading. One requires a solid understanding of political realities, Constitution, history of the country as well as the political parties to become a successful political reporter. Because of the seriousness and knowledge required to cover politics, fresh journalists are hardly asked to cover this beat. In the age of paid media menace and social, it has become difficult for political remain neutral and rid their reports from political biases. A reporter hence needs to tread carefully if he wishes not to be labeled as an agent of a particular political party or a leader. Political reporting involves

Covering political parties and leaders

Covering elections, political rallies

Covering state assemblies, municipal bodies and Parliament

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Covering political parties and leaders.

Covering elections, political rallies.

Covering state assemblies, municipal bodies and Parliament.

Covering government actions.

Covering public policy issues and actions.

Covering public policy issues.

4. **Legal Reporting**: With the increasing number of cases in courts and judiciary increasing interference in matters that should ideally be addressed by the executive, the significance of legal reporting has also increased. If you scan through a newspaper, every day you would find a number of reports of court verdicts, proceedings of a case, condition of the judiciary, legal trends, laws of the country etc. Legal reporting is often used synonymously with court reporting. However, there is a difference. All legal reports do not necessarily emanate from court. With the increasing number of cases in courts and judiciary's increasing interference in matters that should ideally be addressed by the executive, the significance of legal reporting has also increased. If you scan through a newspaper, every day you would find a number of reports of court verdicts, proceedings of a case, condition of the judiciary, legal trends, laws of the country etc. Legal

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While court judgments cover a major part of legal reports in the media, sometimes you must have also seen interviews of lawyers, retired judges and reports on speeches by judges in public or court functions, interviews of lawyers, retired judges and reports on speeches by judges in public or court functions.

Pitch, Tone and Intonation:

Tone, pitch and intonation all refer to different aspects of pronunciation or use of voice.

Pitch is the degree of highness or lowness with which one speaks. For example, some people naturally have a high-pitched voice. Emotional factors can also affect the pitch of someone's voice. For example, people may speak in a lower pitch when they are tired. Surprise may make them speak in a higher pitch than usual.

Tone usually refers to the emotion that is conveyed in the voice. Think about the expression "I didn't like his tone of voice". Tone can show anger, impatience,etc.

Intonation refers to the music of a language; that is how it rises and falls over a chunk of speech (sentence, phrase, group of sentences). Each language has its intonation and some are more musical than others. In English, a wide range is used. In some instances, intonation carries the meaning of a phrase. For example, in question tags the intonation used can indicate whether the speaker is looking for agreement. It is important for speakers of other languages to be aware of intonation. If their language does not have the same range, they can sound monotonous or even bored when speaking English. Misunderstandings can also arise between speakers who are not aware of the intonation of the other person's mother tongue.

Types of Microphones:

Cardioid Microphones

 Cardioid mics capture everything in front and block everything else. This front-focused pattern will let you point the mic to a sound source and isolate it from unwanted ambient sound, making it ideal for live performance and other situations where noise reduction and feedback suppression are needed. Cardioid mics surpass other polar patterns by far in terms of popularity, used widely in live performances, from karaoke to big arena concerts. Other common uses include miking loud instruments like drum kits and guitar speakers. Note that these types of mics add subtle sound coloration when the source is off axis, which is why mic position when speaking and singing is very important.

Super/Hyper Cardioid Microphones

 These mics have the same front directionality, but have a narrower area of sensitivity compared to cardioids. This results in improved isolation and higher resistance to feedback. Because of their enhanced ability to reject noise, you can use these for loud sound sources, noisy stage environments or even for untreated recording rooms. On the flip side, back rejection is a bit compromised, so you will have to position unwanted sounds like stage monitors and drum kits on the dead spot sides.

Omnidirectional Microphones

 These are microphones that capture sound from all angles. Because of their nondirectional design and zero rejection, these mics capture nuances better, resulting in a more natural sound. You can use these mics in studios and other venues (like old churches) with great acoustics, and can also be used for live recording of multiple instruments, as long as the noise level is low. The obvious downside is that they lack background noise rejection and are prone to monitor feedback, which makes them unsuitable for loud and noisy venues.

Shotgun Microphones Shotgun mics, also called Line and Gradient, feature a tube like design that make their polar pattern even more directional than hyper cardioids. The capsule is placed at the end of an interference tube, which eliminates sound from the sides via phase cancellation. This design results in a tighter polar pattern up front with longer pickup range. Although Shotgun mics are more commonly used for film and

Ribbon

While these mics are no longer as popular, Ribbon mics were once very successful particularly in the radio industry. The light metal ribbon used in these mics allows it to pickup the velocity of the air and not just air displacement. This allows for improved sensitive to higher frequencies, capturing higher notes without the harshness while retaining a warm vintage voicing. These days, interest for Ribbon mics have returned, especially since modern production ribbon mics are now sturdier and more reliable than their old counterparts, making them viable for live multi-instrument recording on venues where noise level is manageable. You can also use them for recording if you're looking for vintage vibe, or you can set it up in combination with dynamic or condenser mics for a more open sounding track.

Peace to Camera:

A piece to camera is the television and film term used for when a presenter or a character speaks directly to the viewing audience through the camera. It is most common when a news or television show presenter is reporting or explaining items to the viewing audience. Indeed, news programmes usually take the form of a combination of both interviews and pieces to camera. There are three type of "piece to camera" :

1. opening PTC - when presenter opens-up the news, and introduce himself/herself to the audience.

2. bridge PTC - information that presenter gives to bridge the gap between empty space.

3. conclusive or closing PTC - ending of news where the presenter acknowledge itself and the cameraman, place and the news channel. The term also applies to the period when an actor, playing a fictional character in a film or on television, talks into the camera and hence directly to the audience. Depending on the genre of the show, this may or may not be considered as a breaking the fourth wall.

Vox-Pop-

Vox populi is a Latin phrase which literally means voice of the people. In English usage, it means the opinion of the majority or what most people think.

In the United States it is most commonly pronounced (vox pop u leye), but outside the United States it is (vox pop u lee). Either is correct. There is no plural form as this is a mass noun.