DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

M.A JOURNALISM AND MASS COMMUNICATION

30942

NEW MEDIA COMMUNICATION

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UNIT 2
Internet: LAN, MAN, WAN, Email, Web, Ownership and administration of Internet, ISPs, WAP, types of Internet connections: Dial-up, ISDN, lease-line

Unit 3
Optical fiber: structure, advantages and application; protocols of Internet: SLIP, CSLIP, TCP/IP, PPP

Unit 4
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BLOCK 2 Searching Engine and Online Editing
Unit 5
Searching: through directory search engine, search resources; video conferencing and telephony, e-commerce commerce; buying, selling, banking and advertising on Internet

Unit 6
Web page development, inserting, linking, editing, publishing, locating, promoting and maintaining a website

Unit 7
Cyber Journalism; online editions of newspapers management and economics; cyber newspapers - creation, feed, marketing, revenue and expenditure

Unit 8
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BLOCK 3 Social Effect and empowerment
Unit 9
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**Unit 10**
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**Unit 11**
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**Unit 12**
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**Unit 13**
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**Unit 14**
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M.A. DEGREE EXAMINATION
Second Semester
Journalism and Mass Communication
NEW MEDIA COMMUNICATION Sub. Code 30942

Time: Three hours
Maximum Marks: 75 marks

Answer all questions Part-A (10x2=20 marks)

1. What is Communication Technology?
2. What is WAP?
3. Optical fiber
4. TCP
5. HTTP
6. What is Websites?
7. Connotation
8. Cyber Journalism
9. What is Digital marketing?
10. What is Social Networking?

Part-B (5x5=25 marks)

Answer each of the following questions choosing either (a) or (b)

11. a. Explain the importance ICT in education. Or
       b. Illustrate the classification of Internet.
12. a. Explain the various protocols of internets. Or
       b. Write a short note on HTML.
13. a. Explain the new trends in video conferencing. Or
       b. How will you create a blog?
14. a. Describe about e-commerce Or
       b. Write a short note on Web page development.
15. a. Describe the merits and demerits of e journalism with examples. Or
       b. What is E publishing?

Part-C (3x10=30 marks)

Answer any three of the following questions

16. Discuss the Social and Cultural effects of new Media.
18. Elucidate the Right to information Act.
19. Explain the importance of English in media.
20. Elaborate the Extensive reading and writing skills.
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UNIT 1
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1.1 Introduction
Communication Technology (CT) concept and scope
Communications technology, also known as information technology, refers to all equipment and programs that are used to process and communicate information. Professionals in the communication technology field specialize in the development, installation, and service of these hardware and software systems.1
Communications technology refers to how computers or any machines, communicate with each other or with people usually people or machines who are not all in the same location. It includes the processes of transferring data from one machine to another, using radio, telephone equipment, fax machines, video, email or other means.

1.2 Concept of Communication Technology
Communication Technology is also comprised of two words like Communication & Technology. We have already discussed that technology is the science of the application of knowledge to practical purposes. You also know that information means any communication or representation of knowledge in any form. Now we will know what communication is? Communication is an integral part of human existence. It is communication that decides the very identity of human

1 learn.org
Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
Url: https://learn.org/articles/What_is_Communication_Technology.html
beings Modern society is turning into an information society and communication is the exchange of information. It is the process & transferring information from a Sender to a receiver with the use of a medium in which the communication information is understood by both sender and receiver. Communication Technology implies the knowledge, skills and understanding needed to exchange information verbally or non-verbally. It is processing of information in terms of accessing information, decoding information and sending it via a medium and changer to the receivers. Medium or channel can be written or oral or gesture form of information through speech, action or any electronic machine. Communication Technology is the electronic systems used for communication between individuals or groups. It facilitates communication between individuals or groups. Who are not physically present at the same location? Systems such as telephone, telex, Fax, radio, T.V. and Video are included, as well as more recent computer based technologies, including electronic data interchange and e-mail. In short, communication technology is the activity of designing and constructing and maintaining communication systems.

1.3 CT and IT
Information technology is all about how computers work and what they can do, while communication technology is about facilitating communication between people. Communication technology includes not only computers, but also telephones, radios, faxes and other devices. Because of the convergence of the two technologies in the sense that we increasingly use digital data to communicate, a new term has been coined: information and communication technology (ITC). Today we use computers to call each other and telephones to process data and send emails.

1.4 Similarities and differences telephony electronic digital exchange
Telephony is the field of technology involving the development, application, and deployment of telecommunication services for the purpose of electronic transmission of voice, fax, or data, between distant parties. The history of telephony is intimately linked to the invention and development of the telephone. Telephony is commonly referred to as the construction or operation of telephones and telephonic systems and as a system of telecommunications in which telephonic equipment is employed in the transmission of speech or other sound between points, with or without the use of wires. The term is also used frequently to refer to computer hardware, software, and computer network systems that perform functions traditionally performed by telephone equipment. In this context the technology is specifically referred to as Internet telephony or voice over Internet Protocol (VoIP)².

² en.wikipedia.org
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Url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Telephony
Starting with the introduction of the transistor, invented in 1947 by Bell Laboratories, to amplification and switching circuits in the 1950s, and through development of computer-based electronic switching systems, the public switched telephone network (PSTN) has gradually evolved towards automation and digitization of signaling and audio transmissions. Digital telephony is the use of digital electronics in the operation and provisioning of telephony systems and services. Since the 1960s a digital core network has replaced the traditional analog transmission and signaling systems, and much of the access network has also been digitized.

Digital telephony has dramatically improved the capacity, quality, and cost of the network. End-to-end analog telephone networks were first modified in the early 1960s by upgrading transmission networks with Digital Signal 1 (DS1/T1) carrier systems, designed to support the basic 3 kHz voice channel by sampling the bandwidth-limited analog voice signal and encoding using PCM. While digitization allows wideband voice on the same channel, the improved quality of a wider analog voice channel did not find a large market in the PSTN.

Later transmission methods such as SONET and fiber optic transmission further advanced digital transmission. Although analog carrier systems existed that multiplexed multiple analog voice channels onto a single transmission medium, digital transmission allowed lower cost and more channels multiplexed on the transmission medium. Today the end instrument often remains analog but the analog signals are typically converted to digital signals at the serving area interface (SAI), central office (CO), or other aggregation point. Digital loop carriers (DLC) and fiber to the x place the digital network ever closer to the customer premises, relegating the analog local loop to legacy status.

1.5 C-Dot-Pagers

A pager (also known as a beeper) is a wireless telecommunications device that receives and displays alphanumeric or voice messages. One-way pagers can only receive messages, while response pagers and two-way pagers can also acknowledge, reply to, and originate messages using an internal transmitter.

Pagers operate as part of a paging system which includes one or more fixed transmitters (or in the case of response pagers and two-way pagers, one or more base stations), as well as a number of pagers carried by mobile users. These systems can range from a restaurant system with a

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3 en.wikipedia.org
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Url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Telephony
single low-power transmitter, to a nationwide system with thousands of high-power base stations.
Pagers were developed in the 1950s and 1960s, and became widely used by the 1980s. In the 21st century, the widespread availability of cellphones and smartphones has greatly diminished the pager industry. Nevertheless, pagers continue to be used by some emergency services and public safety personnel, because modern pager systems' coverage overlap, combined with use of satellite communications, can make paging systems more reliable than terrestrial-based cellular networks in some cases, including during natural and man-made disasters. This resilience has led public safety agencies to adopt pagers over cellular and other commercial services for critical messaging.
The UK National Health Service is thought to use over 10% of remaining pagers in 2017 (130,000), with an annual cost of £6.6 million. Matt Hancock, Secretary of State for Health and Social Care, announced in February 2019 that the 130,000 pagers still in use were to be phased out.
In Japan, circa 1996, ten millions of pagers were active. On October 1, 2019, Japan's last page provider shut down radio signals and terminated its service.
Pagers themselves vary from very cheap and simple beepers, to more complex personal communications equipment, falling into eight main categories.

1.6 Beepers or tone-only pagers
Beepers or tone-only pagers are the simplest and least expensive form of paging. They were named beepers because they originally made a beeping noise, but current pagers in this category use other forms of alert as well. Some use audio signals, others light up and some vibrate, often used in combination. The majority of restaurant pagers fall into this category.

Voice/tone
Voice/Tone pagers enable pager users to listen to a recorded voice message when an alert is received.

Numeric
Numeric Pagers contain a numeric LCD display capable of displaying the calling phone number or other numeric information generally up to 10 digits. The display can also convey pager codes, a set of number codes corresponding to mutually understand pre-defined messages.

Alphanumeric
Alphanumeric pagers contain a more sophisticated LCD capable of displaying text and icons. These devices receive text messages, often through email or direct connection to the paging system. The sender must enter a message, either numeric and push # or, text & push # or a verbal message. The pager does not automatically record the sender's number; the pager will beep but no message can be seen or heard if none has been entered.
Response
Response pagers are alphanumeric pagers equipped with built-in transmitters, with the ability to acknowledge/confirm messages. They also allow the user to reply to messages by way of a multiple-choice response list, and to initiate "canned" messages from pre-programmed address and message lists. These devices are sometimes called "1.5-way pagers" or "1.7-way pagers" depending on capabilities.

Two-way
Two-way pagers are response pagers with built-in QWERTY keyboards. These pagers allow the user to reply to messages, originate messages, and forward messages using free-form text as well as "canned" responses.

One-way modems
One-way modems are controllers with integrated paging receivers, which are capable of taking local action based on messages and data they receive.

Two-way modems
Two-way modems have capabilities similar to one-way modems. They can also confirm messages and transmit their own messages and data.

1.7 Cellular Telephone
Cellular telephone, sometimes called mobile telephone, is a type of short-wave analog or digital telecommunication in which a subscriber has a wireless connection from a mobile phone to a relatively nearby transmitter. The transmitter's span of coverage is called a cell. A mobile phone, cell phone, cellphone, or hand phone sometimes shortened to simply mobile, 'cell or just phone, is a portable telephone that can make and receive calls over a radio frequency link while the user is moving within a telephone service area. The radio frequency link establishes a connection to the switching systems of a mobile phone operator, which provides access to the public switched telephone network (PSTN). Modern mobile telephone services use cellular network architecture, and, therefore, mobile telephones are called cellular telephones or cell phones, in North America. In addition to telephony, 2000s-era mobile phones support a variety of other services, such as text messaging, MMS, email, Internet access, short-range wireless communications (infrared, Bluetooth), business applications, video games, and digital photography. Mobile phones offering only those capabilities are known

4 wikivisually.com
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5 wikivisually.com
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Url: https://wikivisually.com/wiki/WBXML
as feature phones; mobile phones which offer greatly advanced computing capabilities are referred to as smartphones. The first handheld mobile phone was demonstrated by John F. Mitchell and Martin Cooper of Motorola in 1973, using a handset weighing c. 2 kilograms (4.4 lbs). In 1979, Nippon Telegraph and Telephone (NTT) launched the world's first cellular network in Japan. In 1983, the DynaTAC 8000x was the first commercially available handheld mobile phone. From 1983 to 2014, worldwide mobile phone subscriptions grew to over seven billion—enough to provide one for every person on Earth. In first quarter of 2016, the top smartphone developers worldwide were Samsung, Apple, and Huawei, and smartphone sales represented 78 percent of total mobile phone sales. For feature phones (slang: “dumbphones”) as of 2016, the largest were Samsung, Nokia, and Alcatel.

1.7.1 The common components found on all phones are:
* A CPU, the processor of phones.
* A battery, providing the power source for the phone functions.
* An input mechanism to allow the user to interact with the phone. These are a keypad for feature phones and touch screens for most smartphones.
* A display which echoes the user's typing, and displays text messages, contacts, and more.
* Speakers for sound.
* SIM cards and R-UIM cards.

Low-end mobile phones are often referred to as feature phones and offer basic telephony. Handsets with more advanced computing ability through the use of native software applications are known as smartphones.

1.7.2 Central processing unit
Mobile phones have central processing units (CPUs), similar to those in computers, but optimized to operate in low power environments. Mobile CPU performance depends not only on the clock rate (generally given in multiples of hertz) but also the memory hierarchy also greatly affects overall performance. Because of these problems, the performance of mobile phone CPUs is often more appropriately given by scores derived from various standardized tests to measure the real effective performance in commonly used applications.

1.8 Display
1.8.1 Main article: Display device
One of the main characteristics of phones is the screen. Depending on the device's type and design, the screen fills most or nearly all of the space on a device's front surface. Many smartphone displays have an aspect ratio of 16:9, but taller aspect ratios became more common in 2017.

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Screen sizes are measured in diagonal inches; feature phones generally have screen sizes below 3.5 inches. Phones with screens larger than 5.2 inches are often called "phablets." Smartphones with screens over 4.5 inches in size are commonly difficult to use with only a single hand, since most thumbs cannot reach the entire screen surface; they may need to be shifted around in the hand, held in one hand and manipulated by the other, or used in place with both hands. Due to design advances, some modern smartphones with large screen sizes and "edge-to-edge" designs have compact builds that improve their ergonomics, while the shift to taller aspect ratios have resulted in phones that have larger screen sizes whilst maintaining the ergonomics associated with smaller 16:9 displays. Liquid-crystal displays are the most common; others are IPS, LED, OLED, and AMOLED displays. Some displays are integrated with pressure-sensitive digitizers, such as those developed by Wacom and Samsung, and Apple's "3D Touch" system.

**Sound**

In sound, smartphones and feature phones vary little. Some audio-quality enhancing features, such as Voice over LTE and HD Voice, have appeared and are often available on newer smartphones. Sound quality can remain a problem due to the design of the phone, the quality of the cellular network and compression algorithms used in long distance calls. Audio quality can be improved using a VoIP application over WiFi. Cell phones have small speakers so that the user can use a speakerphone feature and talk to a person on the phone without holding it to their ear. The small speakers can also be used to listen to digital audio files of music or speech or watch videos with an audio component, without holding the phone close to the ear.

**Battery**

The average phone battery lasts 2–3 years at best. Many of the wireless devices use a Lithium-Ion (Li-Ion) battery, which charges 500-2500 times, depending on how users take care of the battery and the charging techniques used. It is only natural for these rechargeable batteries to chemically age, which is why the performance of the battery when used for a year or two will begin to deteriorate. Battery life can be extended by draining it regularly, not overcharging it, and keeping it away from heat.

1.9 **SIM card**

1.9.1 **Main articles: Subscriber Identity Module and Removable User Identity Module**

**Typical mobile phone mini-SIM card**

Mobile phones require a small microchip called a Subscriber Identity Module or SIM card, in order to function. The SIM card is approximately the size of a small postage stamp and is usually placed underneath the battery in the rear of the unit. The SIM securely stores the service-subscriber key (IMSI) and the Ki used to identify and authenticate the user of the mobile phone. The SIM card allows users to change phones
by simply removing the SIM card from one mobile phone and inserting it into another mobile phone or broadband telephony device, provided that this is not prevented by a SIM lock. The first SIM card was made in 1991 by Munich smart card maker Giesecke & Devrient for the Finnish wireless network operator Radiolinja. A hybrid mobile phone can hold up to four SIM cards, with a phone having an IMEI per SIM Card. SIM and R-UIM cards may be mixed together to allow both GSM and CDMA networks to be accessed. From 2010 onwards, such phones became popular in emerging markets, and this was attributed to the desire to obtain the lowest on-net calling rate.

Summary
Information communication technology is useful for all the fields especially in banking, education and digital marketing. ICT is a tool for empowerment for women and farmers and which useful for agricultural field as well. Because of the ICT we use less man power and energy and which save time and money. ICT connect every corner of the world and create the way for global communication.

Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short note on Information and Communication Technology

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Unit – End Exercises
1. List out the importance of ICT
2. What is ICT?
3. Explain the Similarities and differences telephony electronic digital exchange
4. Define C-DOT.

Answer to check your progress
1. Communication is an integral part of human existence. It is communication that decides the very identity of human beings. Modern society is turning into an information society and communication is the exchange of information. It is the process & transferring information from a Sender to a receiver with the use of a medium in which the communication information is understood by both sender and receiver. Communication Technology implies the knowledge, skills and understanding needed to exchange information verbally or non-verbally. It is processing of information in terms of accessing information,
decoding information and sending it via a medium and changer to the receivers.

2. Communications technology, also known as information technology, refers to all equipment and programs that are used to process and communicate information. Professionals in the communication technology field specialize in the development, installation, and service of these hardware and software systems.

3. Telephony is the field of technology involving the development, application, and deployment of telecommunication services for the purpose of electronic transmission of voice, fax, or data, between distant parties. The history of telephony is intimately linked to the invention and development of the telephone. Telephony is commonly referred to as the construction or operation of telephones and telephonic systems and as a system of telecommunications in which telephonic equipment is employed in the transmission of speech or other sound between points, with or without the use of wires. The term is also used frequently to refer to computer hardware, software, and computer network systems that perform functions traditionally performed by telephone equipment.

4. A pager (also known as a beeper) is a wireless telecommunications device that receives and displays alphanumeric or voice messages. One-way pagers can only receive messages, while response pagers and two-way pagers can also acknowledge, reply to, and originate messages using an internal transmitter.

Suggested Reading


3. Url: [https://learn.org/articles/What_is_Communication_Technology.html](https://learn.org/articles/What_is_Communication_Technology.html)

UNIT 2

2.1 Internet: LAN, MAN, WAN
2.2 Email
2.3 Web
2.4 Ownership and administration of Internet
2.5 ISP
2.6 WAP
2.7 Wireless Application Environment (WAE)
2.8 WAP Push
2.9 WAP 2.0
2.10 MMS
2.11 Types of Internet connections: Dial-up, ISDN, lease-line
   2.11.1 Dial-up
   2.11.2 ISDN
   2.11.3 ISDN (B-ISDN).
   2.11.4 Lease-line

2.1 Internet: LAN, MAN, WAN

‘The Internet is the global system of interconnected computer networks that use the Internet protocol suite (TCP/IP) to link devices worldwide. It is a network of networks that consists of private, public, academic, business, and government networks of local to global scope, linked by a broad array of electronic, wireless, and optical networking technologies. The Internet carries a vast range of information resources and services, such as the inter-linked hypertext documents and applications of the World Wide Web (WWW), electronic mail, telephony, and file sharing.’

A local area network (LAN) is a computer network that interconnects computers within a limited area such as a residence, school, laboratory, university campus or office building. By contrast, a wide area network (WAN) not only covers a larger geographic distance, but also generally involves leased telecommunication circuits. Ethernet and Wi-Fi are the two most common technologies in use for local area networks. Historical technologies include ARCNET, Token ring, and AppleTalk.

A metropolitan area network (MAN) is a computer network that interconnects users with computer resources in a geographic region of the size of a metropolitan area. The term MAN is applied to the interconnection of local area networks (LANs) in a city into a single

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7 E-learning and educational media by EMMRC Subject expert.pdf
Document: E-learning and educational media by EMMRC Subject expert.pdf (D21354309)
larger network which may then also offer efficient connection to a wide area network. The term is also used to describe the interconnection of several local area networks in a metropolitan area through the use of point-to-point connections between them.

A wide area network (WAN) is a telecommunications network that extends over a large geographical area for the primary purpose of computer networking. Wide area networks are often established with leased telecommunication circuits. Business, as well as education and government entities use wide area networks to relay data to staff, students, clients, buyers and suppliers from various locations across the world. In essence, this mode of telecommunication allows a business to effectively carry out its daily function regardless of location. The Internet may be considered a WAN.

2.2 Email

Electronic mail (email or e-mail) is a method of exchanging messages ("mail") between people using electronic devices. Invented by Ray Tomlinson, email first entered limited use in the 1960s and by the mid-1970s had taken the form now recognized as email. Email operates across computer networks, which today is primarily the Internet. Some early email systems required the author and the recipient to both be online at the same time, in common with instant messaging. Today's email systems are based on a store-and-forward model. Email servers accept, forward, deliver, and store messages. Neither the users nor their computers are required to be online simultaneously; they need to connect only briefly, typically to a mail server or a webmail interface for as long as it takes to send or receive messages.

Originally an ASCII text-only communications medium, Internet email was extended by Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions (MIME) to carry text in other character sets and multimedia content attachments. International email, with internationalized email addresses using UTF-8, has been standardized, but as of 2017 it has not been widely adopted.

2.3 Web

The World Wide Web (WWW), commonly known as the Web, is an information system where documents and other web resources are identified by Uniform Resource Locators (URLs, such as https://www.example.com/), which may be interlinked by hypertext, and are accessible over the Internet. The resources of the WWW may be accessed by users by a software application called a web browser.

English scientist Tim Berners-Lee invented the World Wide Web in 1989. He wrote the first web browser in 1990 while employed at CERN near Geneva, Switzerland. The browser was released outside CERN in 1991, first to other research institutions starting in January 1991 and then to the general public in August 1991. The World Wide Web has been
central to the development of the Information Age and is the primary tool billions of people use to interact on the Internet.

Web resources may be any type of downloaded media, but web pages are hypertext media that have been formatted in Hypertext Markup Language (HTML). Such formatting allows for embedded hyperlinks that contain URLs and permit users to navigate to other web resources. In addition to text, web pages may contain references to images, video, audio, and software components which are displayed rendered in the user's web browser as coherent pages of multimedia content.

Multiple web resources with a common theme, a common domain name, or both, make up a website. Websites are stored in computers that are running a program called a web server that responds to requests made over the Internet from web browsers running on a user's computer. Website content can be largely provided by a publisher, or interactively where users contribute content or the content depends upon the users or their actions. Websites may be provided for a myriad of informative, entertainment, commercial, governmental, or non-governmental reasons.”

### 2.4 Ownership and administration of Internet

Originally it would have been the American Government as they owned ARPANET. Today it is owned by everyone. ‘The physical network that carries network traffic is the backbone of the internet. Today several large organizations provide the routers and cables for this backbone. Individual computer networks that that make up the internet can have owners .’

Every ISP has its own network. Governments oversee nation’s networks. Many companies have local area networks (lans) that link to the internet. The owners of these networks can control access to the internet. You might be an owner of the internet. If you own a device such as a Smartphone or router you could own a piece of the internet. ‘The U.S. government's ultimate control of the Domain Name System results in substantial power over the entire Internet. Other countries object to this American dominance and demand that control of the Internet be handed over to the UN or the ITU. The United States could have a legal claim for control based on ownership because the Internet is, or was at least originally, an American thing, invented and funded by the United States. The paper examines such an ownership idea by applying property and intellectual property law on both the American and the international

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8 [howlingpixel.com](https://howlingpixel.com/i-en/World_Wide_Web)
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Url: [https://howlingpixel.com/i-en/World_Wide_Web](https://howlingpixel.com/i-en/World_Wide_Web)

9 [sites.google.com](https://sites.google.com/site/everythingabouttheinternet/fundingoftheinteret)
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Url: [https://sites.google.com/site/everythingabouttheinternet/fundingoftheinteret](https://sites.google.com/site/everythingabouttheinternet/fundingoftheinteret)
level. An examination of ownership is crucial because other approaches that could provide a legal basis for special power, like sovereignty, face problems because U.S. sovereignty ends at its borders and conflicts with the sovereignty of other states that are affected by U.S. policy decisions about the Internet. If you think of the Internet as a unified, single entity, then no one owns it. There are organizations that determine the Internet's structure and how it works, but they don't have any ownership over the Internet itself. No government can lay claim to owning the Internet, nor can any company. The Internet is like the telephone system -- no one owns the whole thing. From another point of view, thousands of people and organizations own the Internet. The Internet consists of lots of different bits and pieces, each of which has an owner. Some of these owners can control the quality and level of access you have to the Internet. They might not own the entire system, but they can impact your Internet experience. The physical network that carries Internet traffic between different computer systems is the Internet backbone. In the early days of the Internet, ARPANET served as the system's backbone. Today, several large corporations provide the routers and cable that make up the Internet backbone. These companies are upstream Internet Service Providers (ISPs). That means that anyone who wants to access the Internet must ultimately work with these companies'.

2.5 ISP
An Internet service provider (ISP) is an organization that provides services for accessing, using, or participating in the Internet. Internet service providers may be organized in various forms, such as commercial, community-owned, non-profit, or otherwise privately owned. Internet services typically provided by ISPs include Internet access, Internet transit, domain name registration, web hosting, Usenet service, and collocation.

2.6 WAP
‘Wireless Application Protocol (WAP) is a technical standard for accessing information over a mobile wireless network. A WAP browser is a web browser for mobile devices such as mobile phones that uses the protocol. Introduced in 1999 WAP achieved some popularity in the early 2000s, but by the 2010s it had been largely superseded by more modern standards. Most modern handset internet browsers now fully support HTML, so they do not need to use WAP markup for web page compatibility, and therefore, most are no longer able to render and display pages written in WML, WAP's markup language.

10 sites.google.com
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Url: https://sites.google.com/site/everythingabouttheinternet/fundingoftheinternet
Before the introduction of WAP, mobile service providers had limited opportunities to offer interactive data services, but needed interactivity to support Internet and Web applications such as email, stock prices, news and sports headlines. The Japanese i-mode system offered another major competing wireless data protocol.  

The WAP standard described a protocol suite or stack allowing the interoperability of WAP equipment and software with different network technologies, such as GSM and IS-95 (also known as CDMA).

### 2.7 Wireless Application Environment (WAE)

- WAP protocol suite
  - Wireless Session Protocol (WSP)
  - Wireless Transaction Protocol (WTP)
  - Wireless Transport Layer Security (WTLS)
  - Wireless Datagram Protocol (WDP)

The bottom-most protocol in the suite, the Wireless Datagram Protocol (WDP), functions as an adaptation layer that makes every data network look a bit like UDP to the upper layers by providing unreliable transport of data with two 16-bit port numbers (origin and destination). All the upper layers view WDP as one and the same protocol, which has several "technical realizations" on top of other "data bearers" such as SMS, USSD, etc. On native IP bearers such as GPRS, UMTS packet-radio service, or PPP on top of a circuit-switched data connection, WDP is in fact exactly UDP.

WTLS, an optional layer, provides a public-key cryptography-based security mechanism similar to TLS.

WTP provides transaction support (reliable request/response) adapted to the wireless world. WTP supports more effectively than TCP the problem of packet loss, which occurs commonly in 2G wireless technologies in most radio conditions, but is misinterpreted by TCP as network congestion.

This protocol suite allows a terminal to transmit requests that have an HTTP or HTTPS equivalent to a WAP gateway; the gateway translates requests into plain HTTP.

The Wireless Application Environment (WAE) space defines application-specific markup languages.

For WAP version 1.X, the primary language of the WAE is Wireless Markup Language (WML). In WAP 2.0, the primary markup language is XHTML Mobile Profile.

### 2.8 WAP Push

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WAP Push was incorporated into the specification to allow the WAP content to be pushed to the mobile handset with minimal user intervention. A WAP Push is basically a specially encoded message which includes a link to a WAP address.

WAP Push was specified on top of Wireless Datagram Protocol (WDP); as such, it can be delivered over any WDP-supported bearer, such as GPRS or SMS. Most GSM networks have a wide range of modified processors, but GPRS activation from the network is not generally supported, so WAP Push messages have to be delivered on top of the SMS bearer.

On receiving a WAP Push, a WAP 1.2 (or later) -enabled handset will automatically give the user the option to access the WAP content. This is also known as WAP Push SI (Service Indication). A variant, known as WAP Push SL (Service Loading), directly opens the browser to display the WAP content, without user interaction. Since this behaviour raises security concerns, some handsets handle WAP Push SL messages in the same way as SI, by providing user interaction.

The network entity that processes WAP Pushes and delivers them over an IP or SMS Bearer is known as a Push Proxy Gateway (PPG).

2.9 WAP 2.0
A re-engineered 2.0 version was released in 2002. It uses a cut-down version of XHTML with end-to-end HTTP, dropping the gateway and custom protocol suite used to communicate with it. A WAP gateway can be used in conjunction with WAP 2.0; however, in this scenario, it is used as a standard proxy server. The WAP gateway's role would then shift from one of translation to adding additional information to each request. This would be configured by the operator and could include telephone numbers, location, billing information, and handset information.

Mobile devices process XHTML Mobile Profile (XHTML MP), the markup language defined in WAP 2.0. It is a subset of XHTML and a superset of XHTML Basic. A version of Cascading Style Sheets (CSS) called WAP CSS is supported by XHTML MP.

2.10 MMS
Multimedia Messaging Service (MMS) is a combination of WAP and SMS allowing for sending of picture messages’.

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2.11 Types of Internet connections: Dial-up, ISDN, lease-line

2.11.1 Dial-up
A dial-up connection is any connection that is connected through a regular phone line. When that phone line is connected to a modem and then configured to dial a specific number, a user can access the Internet. Dial-up Internet access is a form of Internet access that uses the facilities of the public switched telephone network (PSTN) to establish a connection to an Internet service provider (ISP) by dialing a telephone number on a conventional telephone line. The user’s computer or router uses an attached modem to encode and decode information into and from audio frequency signals, respectively.

2.11.2 ISDN
Integrated Services Digital Network (ISDN) is a set of communication standards for simultaneous digital transmission of voice, video, data, and other network services over the traditional circuits of the public switched telephone network. It was first defined in 1988 in the CCITT red book. Prior to ISDN, the telephone system was viewed as a way to transport voice, with some special services available for data. The key feature of ISDN is that it integrates speech and data on the same lines, adding features that were not available in the classic telephone system. The ISDN standards define several kinds of access interfaces, such as Basic Rate Interface (BRI), Primary Rate Interface (PRI), Narrowband ISDN (N-ISDN), and Broadband 2.11.3 ISDN (B-ISDN).

ISDN is a circuit-switched telephone network system, which also provides access to packet switched networks, designed to allow digital transmission of voice and data over ordinary telephone copper wires, resulting in potentially better voice quality than an analog phone can provide. It offers circuit-switched connections (for either voice or data), and packet-switched connections (for data), in increments of 64 kilobit/s. In some countries, ISDN found major market application for Internet access, in which ISDN typically provides a maximum of 128 kbit/s bandwidth in both upstream and downstream directions. Channel bonding can achieve a greater data rate; typically the ISDN B-channels of three or four BRIs (six to eight 64 kbit/s channels) are bonded.

ISDN is employed as the network, data-link and physical layers in the context of the OSI model. In common use, ISDN is often limited to usage to Q.931 and related protocols, which are a set of signaling protocols establishing and breaking circuit-switched connections, and for advanced calling features for the user. They were introduced in 1986.

In a videoconference, ISDN provides simultaneous voice, video, and text transmission between individual desktop videoconferencing systems and group (room) video conferencing systems.
2.11.4 Lease-line
A leased line, also known as a dedicated line, connects two locations for private voice and/or data telecommunication service. A leased line is not a dedicated cable; it is a reserved circuit between two points. The leased line is always active and available for a fixed monthly fee. A leased line is a private bidirectional or symmetric telecommunications circuit between two or more locations provided according to a commercial contract. It is sometimes also known as a private circuit, and as a data line in the UK.
Unlike traditional telephone lines in the public switched telephone network (PSTN) leased lines are generally not switched circuits, and therefore do not have an associated telephone number. Each side of the line is permanently connected and dedicated to the other. Leased lines can be used for telephone, Internet, or other data communication services. Some are ring down services, and some connect to a private branch exchange (PBX) or network router.
Typically, leased lines are used by businesses to connect geographically distant offices. Unlike dial-up connections, a leased line is always active. The primary factors affecting the recurring lease fees are distance between end points and the bandwidth of the circuit. Since the connection does not carry third-party communications, the carrier can assure a given level of quality.
An Internet leased line is a premium Internet connectivity product, normally delivered over fiber, which provides uncontended, symmetrical bandwidth with full duplex traffic. It is also known as an Ethernet leased line, dedicated line, data circuit or private line.

Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short note on Internet

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Unit – End Exercises

1. Write about Internet: LAN, MAN, WAN
2. What is Email?
3. Explain the history of WWW.

Answer to check your progress

1. The Internet is the global system of interconnected computer networks that use the Internet protocol suite (TCP/IP) to link devices worldwide. It is a network of networks that consists of
private, public, academic, business, and government networks of local to global scope, linked by a broad array of electronic, wireless, and optical networking technologies. The Internet carries a vast range of information resources and services, such as the inter-linked hypertext documents and applications of the World Wide Web (WWW), electronic mail, telephony, and file sharing.

2. Electronic mail (email or e-mail) is a method of exchanging messages ("mail") between people using electronic devices. Invented by Ray Tomlinson, email first entered limited use in the 1960s and by the mid-1970s had taken the form now recognized as email. Email operates across computer networks, which today is primarily the Internet. Some early email systems required the author and the recipient to both be online at the same time, in common with instant messaging. Today's email systems are based on a store-and-forward model. Email servers accept, forward, deliver, and store messages. Neither the users nor their computers are required to be online simultaneously; they need to connect only briefly, typically to a mail server or a webmail interface for as long as it takes to send or receive messages.

3. The World Wide Web (WWW), commonly known as the Web, is an information system where documents and other web resources are identified by Uniform Resource Locators (URLs, such as https://www.example.com/), which may be interlinked by hypertext, and are accessible over the Internet. The resources of the WWW may be accessed by users by a software application called a web browser.

Suggested Reading
1. Url: https://howlingpixel.com/i-en/World_Wide_Web
2. Url: https://sites.google.com/site/everythingabouttheinternet/fundingoftheinternet
3.1 Optical fiber: structure, advantages and application
3.2 Protocols of Internet: SLIP, CSLIP, TCP/IP, PPP
3.3 SLIP
3.4 CSLIP
3.5 TCP/IP
3.6 PPP

3.1 Optical fiber: structure, advantages and application
An optical fiber is a flexible, transparent fiber made by drawing glass (silica) or plastic to a diameter slightly thicker than that of a human hair. Optical fibers are used most often as a means to transmit light between the two ends of the fiber and find wide usage in fiber-optic communications, where they permit transmission over longer distances and at higher bandwidths (data rates) than electrical cables. Fibers are used instead of metal wires because signals travel along them with less loss; in addition, fibers are immune to electromagnetic interference, a problem from which metal wires suffer. Fibers are also used for illumination and imaging, and are often wrapped in bundles so they may be used to carry light into, or images out of confined spaces, as in the case of a fiberscope. Specially designed fibers are also used for a variety of other applications, some of them being fiber optic sensors and fiber lasers.

Optical fibers typically include a core surrounded by a transparent cladding material with a lower index of refraction. Light is kept in the core by the phenomenon of total internal reflection which causes the fiber to act as a waveguide. Fibers that support many propagation paths or transverse modes are called multi-mode fibers, while those that support a single mode are called single-mode fibers (SMF). Multi-mode fibers generally have a wider core diameter and are used for short-distance communication links and for applications where high power must be transmitted. Single-mode fibers are used for most communication links longer than 1,000 meters (3,300 ft).

Being able to join optical fibers with low loss is important in fiber optic communication. This is more complex than joining electrical wire or cable and involves careful cleaving of the fibers, precise alignment of the fiber cores, and the coupling of these aligned cores. For applications that demand a permanent connection a fusion splice is common. In this technique, an electric arc is used to melt the ends of the fibers together. Another common technique is a mechanical splice, where the ends of the fibers are held in contact by mechanical force. Temporary or semi-permanent connections are made by means of specialized optical fiber connectors.

The field of applied science and engineering concerned with the design and application of optical fibers is known as fiber optics. The term was
coined by Indian-American physicist Narinder Singh Kapany, who is widely acknowledged as the father of fiber optics.

**3.2 Protocols of Internet: SLIP, CSLIP, TCP/IP, PPP**

The Internet Protocol (IP) is the principal communications protocol in the Internet protocol suite for relaying datagrams across network boundaries. Its routing function enables internetworking, and essentially establishes the Internet.

IP has the task of delivering packets from the source host to the destination host solely based on the IP addresses in the packet headers. For this purpose, IP defines packet structures that encapsulate the data to be delivered. It also defines addressing methods that are used to label the datagram with source and destination information.

Historically, IP was the connectionless datagram service in the original Transmission Control Program introduced by Vint Cerf and Bob Kahn in 1974, which was complemented by a connection-oriented service that became the basis for the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP). The Internet protocol suite is therefore often referred to as TCP/IP.

The first major version of IP, Internet Protocol Version 4 (IPv4), is the dominant protocol of the Internet. Its successor is Internet Protocol Version 6 (IPv6), which has been in increasing deployment on the public Internet since c. 2006.

**3.3 SLIP**

The Serial Line Internet Protocol (also SLIP) is an encapsulation of the Internet Protocol designed to work over serial ports and router connections. It is documented in RFC 1055. On personal computers, SLIP has been largely replaced by the Point-to-Point Protocol (PPP), which is better engineered, has more features and does not require its IP address configuration to be set before it is established. On microcontrollers, however, SLIP is still the preferred way of encapsulating IP packets due to its very small overhead.

Some people refer to the successful and widely used RFC 1055 Serial Line Internet Protocol as "Rick Adams' SLIP", to avoid confusion with other proposed protocols named "SLIP". Those other protocols include the much more complicated RFC 914 appendix D Serial Line Interface Protocol.\(^{13}\)

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\(^{13}\) [en.wikipedia.org](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Serial_Line_Internet_Protocol)

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3.4 CSLIP
A version of SLIP with header compression is called Compressed SLIP (CSLIP). The compression algorithm used in CSLIP is known as Van Jacobson TCP/IP Header Compression. CSLIP has no effect on the data payload of a packet and is independent of any compression by the serial line modem used for transmission. It reduces the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) header from twenty bytes to seven bytes. CSLIP has no effect on User Datagram Protocol (UDP) datagrams'.

3.5 TCP/IP
The Internet protocol suite is the conceptual model and set of communications protocols used in the Internet and similar computer networks. It is commonly known as TCP/IP because the foundational protocols in the suite are the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) and the Internet Protocol (IP). During its development, versions of it were known as the Department of Defense (DoD) model because the development of the networking method was funded by the United States Department of Defense through DARPA.
The Internet protocol suite provides end-to-end data communication specifying how data should be packetized, addressed, transmitted, routed, and received. This functionality is organized into four abstraction layers, which classify all related protocols according to the scope of networking involved. From lowest to highest, the layers are the link layer, containing communication methods for data that remains within a single network segment (link); the internet layer, providing internetworking between independent networks; the transport layer, handling host-to-host communication; and the application layer, providing process-to-process data exchange for applications.
The technical standards underlying the Internet protocol suite and its constituent protocols are maintained by the Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF). The Internet protocol suite predates the OSI model, a more comprehensive reference framework for general networking systems.

3.6 PPP
In computer networking, Point-to-Point Protocol (PPP) is a data link layer (layer 2) communications protocol between two routers directly without any host or any other networking in between. It can provide connection authentication, transmission encryption, and compression. PPP is used over many types of physical networks including serial cable, phone line, trunk line, cellular telephone, specialized radio links, and fiber optic links such as SONET. Internet service providers (ISPs) have used PPP for customer dial-up access to the Internet, since IP packets

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cannot be transmitted over a modem line on their own, without some data link protocol. Two derivatives of PPP, Point-to-Point Protocol over Ethernet (PPPoE) and Point-to-Point Protocol over ATM (PPPoA), are used most commonly by ISPs to establish a digital subscriber line (DSL) Internet service connection with customers.

Check your Progress- 1
Note: Write your answer given below
i. Write a short Optical fiber: structure, advantages and application

Unit – End Exercises
1. Write about SLIP.
2. What is TCP/IP?
3. Explain PPP.

Answer to check your progress
1. The Serial Line Internet Protocol (also SLIP) is an encapsulation of the Internet Protocol designed to work over serial ports and router connections. It is documented in RFC 1055. On personal computers, SLIP has been largely replaced by the Point-to-Point Protocol (PPP), which is better engineered, has more features and does not require its IP address configuration to be set before it is established. On microcontrollers, however, SLIP is still the preferred way of encapsulating IP packets due to its very small overhead.

2. The Internet protocol suite is the conceptual model and set of communications protocols used in the Internet and similar computer networks. It is commonly known as TCP/IP because the foundational protocols in the suite are the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) and the Internet Protocol (IP). During its development, versions of it were known as the Department of Defense (DoD) model because the development of the networking method was funded by the United States Department of Defense through DARPA.

3. In computer networking, Point-to-Point Protocol (PPP) is a data link layer (layer 2) communications protocol between two routers directly without any host or any other networking in between. It can provide connection authentication, transmission encryption, and compression. PPP is used over many types of physical networks including serial cable, phone line, trunk line, cellular telephone, specialized radio links, and fiber optic links such as SONET. Internet service providers (ISPs) have used PPP for customer dial-
up access to the Internet, since IP packets cannot be transmitted over a modem line on their own, without some data link protocol

**Suggested Reading**
4.1 WEB PAGE

‘A web page (also written as webpage) is a document that is suitable to act as a web resource on the World Wide Web. In order to graphically display a web page, a web browser is needed. This is a type of software that can retrieve web pages from the Internet. When accessed by a web browser it may be displayed as a web page on a monitor or mobile device. Typical web pages are hypertext documents which contain hyperlinks, often referred to as links, for browsing to other web pages. The term web page usually refers to what is visible, but may also refer to the contents of the source code itself, which is usually a text file containing hypertext written in HTML or a comparable markup language. Most current web browsers include the ability to view the source code. Web browsers will frequently have to access multiple web resource elements, such as style sheets, scripts, and images, while presenting each web page.

A website will typically contain a group of web pages that are linked together, or have some other coherent method of navigation. The most important web page on a website is the index page. Depending on the web server settings, the index page can have any name, but the most common names are index.html and index.php. When a browser visits the homepage of a website or any URL pointing to a directory rather than a specific file, the web server serves the index page. If no index page is defined in the configuration or no such file exists on the server, either an error or directory listing will be served to the browser.

Websites and the web pages that comprise them are usually found with assistance from a search engine, but they can receive traffic from social media and other sources. On a network, a web browser can retrieve a web page from a remote web server. The web browser uses the Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP) to make such requests to the web server. The web server may restrict access to a private network (for example, a corporate intranet).

A static web page is delivered exactly as stored, as web content in the web server's file system. In contrast, a dynamic web page is generated by a web application, driven by server-side software, running on the client-
side (on the web browser), or both. Dynamic web pages help the browser (the client) to enhance the web page through user input to the server.  

4.2 Websites

A website or web site is a collection of related network web resources, such as web pages, multimedia content, which are typically identified with a common domain name, and published on at least one web server. Notable examples are wikipedia.org, google.com, and amazon.com. Websites can be accessed via a public Internet Protocol (IP) network, such as the Internet, or a private local area network (LAN), by a uniform resource locator (URL) that identifies the site. Websites can have many functions and can be used in various fashions; a website can be a personal website, a corporate website for a company, a government website, an organization website, etc. Websites are typically dedicated to a particular topic or purpose, ranging from entertainment and social networking to providing news and education. All publicly accessible websites collectively constitute the World Wide Web, while private websites, such as a company's website for its employees, are typically part of an intranet.

Web pages, which are the building blocks of websites, are documents, typically composed in plain text interspersed with formatting instructions of Hypertext Markup Language (HTML, XHTML). They may incorporate elements from other websites with suitable markup anchors. Web pages are accessed and transported with the Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP), which may optionally employ encryption (HTTP Secure, HTTPS) to provide security and privacy for the user. The user's application, often a web browser, renders the page content according to its HTML markup instructions onto a display terminal. Hyperlinking between web pages conveys to the reader the site structure and guides the navigation of the site, which often starts with a home page containing a directory of the site web content. Some websites require user registration or subscription to access content. Examples of subscription websites include many business sites, news websites, academic journal websites, gaming websites, file-sharing websites, message boards, web-based email, social networking websites, websites providing real-time stock market data, as well as sites providing various other services. End users can access websites on a range of devices, including desktop and laptop computers, tablet computers, smartphones and smart TVs.

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15 en.wikipedia.org
Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
Url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Web_page

16 en.wikipedia.org
Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
4.3 Homepages
A home page or a start page is the initial or main web page of a website or a browser. The initial page of a website is sometimes called main page as well. A home page is generally the main page a visitor navigating to a website from a web search engine will see, and it may also serve as a landing page to attract visitors. The home page is used to facilitate navigation to other pages on the site by providing links to prioritized and recent articles and pages, and possibly a search box. For example, a news website may present headlines and first paragraphs of top stories, with links to full articles, in a dynamic web page that reflects the popularity and recentness of stories. Meanwhile, other websites use the home page to attract users to create an account. Once they are logged in, the home page may be redirected to their profile page. This may in turn be referred to as the "personal home page".

4.4 Introduction to HTTP, HTML, ELP, DNS, JAVA

4.4.1 HTTP
The Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP) is an application protocol for distributed, collaborative, hypermedia information systems. HTTP is the foundation of data communication for the World Wide Web, where hypertext documents include hyperlinks to other resources that the user can easily access, for example by a mouse click or by tapping the screen in a web browser.

Development of HTTP was initiated by Tim Berners-Lee at CERN in 1989. Development of early HTTP Requests for Comments (RFCs) was a coordinated effort by the Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF) and the World Wide Web Consortium (W3C), with work later moving to the IETF.

HTTP/1.1 was first documented in RFC 2068 in 1997. That specification was obsoleted by RFC 2616 in 1999, which was likewise replaced by the RFC 7230 family of RFCs in 2014.

HTTP/2 is a more efficient expression of HTTP's semantics "on the wire", and was published in 2015; it is now supported by major web servers and browsers over Transport Layer Security (TLS) using an Application-Layer Protocol Negotiation (ALPN) extension[2] where TLS 1.2 or newer is required.

HTTP/3 is the successor to HTTP/2, using UDP instead of TCP for the underlying transport protocol. Like HTTP/2, it does not obsolete previous

Url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Website

17 en.wikipedia.org
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Url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Home_page
major versions of the protocol. HTTP/3 support was added in Cloudflare, Google Chrome, and Mozilla Firefox on 26 September 2019.  

4.4.2 HTML

Hypertext Markup Language (HTML) is the standard markup language for documents designed to be displayed in a web browser. It can be assisted by technologies such as Cascading Style Sheets (CSS) and scripting languages such as JavaScript.

Web browsers receive HTML documents from a web server or from local storage and render the documents into multimedia web pages. HTML describes the structure of a web page semantically and originally included cues for the appearance of the document. HTML elements are the building blocks of HTML pages. With HTML constructs, images and other objects such as interactive forms may be embedded into the rendered page. HTML provides a means to create structured documents by denoting structural semantics for text such as headings, paragraphs, lists, links, quotes and other items. HTML elements are delineated by tags, written using angle brackets. Tags such as `<img />` and `<input />` directly introduce content into the page. Other tags such as `<p>` surround and provide information about document text and may include other tags as sub-elements. Browsers do not display the HTML tags, but use them to interpret the content of the page. HTML can embed programs written in a scripting language such as JavaScript, which affects the behavior and content of web pages. Inclusion of CSS defines the look and layout of content. The World Wide Web Consortium (W3C), former maintainer of the HTML and current maintainer of the CSS standards, has encouraged the use of CSS over explicit presentational HTML since 1997.

4.3 Browsing and browsers

A web browser (commonly referred to as a browser) is a software application for accessing information on the World Wide Web. When a user opens a particular website, the web browser retrieves the necessary content from a web server then displays the resulting web page on the user's device.

A web browser is not the same thing as a search engine, though the two are often confused. For a user, a search engine is just a website, such as Google Search, Bing, or DuckDuckGo, that stores searchable data about
other websites. However, to connect to a website's server and display its web pages, a user must have a web browser installed. As of March 2019, more than 4.3 billion people use a browser, which is about 55% of the world's population. The three most popular browsers are Chrome, Firefox, and Safari.

4.4 Bookmarks

In the context of the World Wide Web, a bookmark is a Uniform Resource Identifier (URI) that is stored for later retrieval in any of various storage formats. All modern web browsers include bookmark features. Bookmarks are called favorites or Internet shortcuts in Internet Explorer, and by virtue of that browser's large market share, these terms have been synonymous with bookmark since the first browser war. Bookmarks are normally accessed through a menu in the user's web browser, and folders are commonly used for organization. In addition to bookmarking methods within most browsers, many external applications offer bookmark management.

Bookmarks have been incorporated in browsers since the Mosaic browser in 1993. Bookmark lists were called Hotlists in Mosaic and in previous versions of Opera; this term has faded from common use. Other early web browsers such as Viola WWW and Cello also had bookmarking features.

With the advent of social bookmarking, shared bookmarks have become a means for users sharing similar interests to pool web resources, or to store their bookmarks in such a way that they are not tied to one specific computer or browser. Web-based bookmarking services let users save bookmarks on a remote web server, accessible from anywhere.

Newer browsers have expanded the "bookmark" feature to include variations on the concept of saving links. Mozilla Firefox introduced live bookmarks in 2004, which resemble standard bookmarks but contain a list of links to recent articles supplied by a news site or weblog, which is regularly updated via RSS feeds; however, Mozilla removed this feature in 2018. "Bookmarklets" are JavaScript programs stored as bookmarks that can be clicked to perform a function.

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20 en.wikipedia.org
Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on websites.

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Unit – End Exercises
1. Write about web page.
2. What is Homepages?
3. Explain HTTP, HTML.

Answer to check your progress
1. A web page (also written as webpage) is a document that is suitable to act as a web resource on the World Wide Web. In order to graphically display a web page, a web browser is needed. This is a type of software that can retrieve web pages from the Internet. When accessed by a web browser it may be displayed as a web page on a monitor or mobile device. Typical web pages are hypertext documents which contain hyperlinks, often referred to as links, for browsing to other web pages.

2. A home page or a start page is the initial or main web page of a website or a browser. The initial page of a website is sometimes called main page as well. A home page is generally the main page a visitor navigating to a website from a web search engine will see, and it may also serve as a landing page to attract visitors.

3. The Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP) is an application protocol for distributed, collaborative, hypermedia information systems. HTTP is the foundation of data communication for the World Wide Web, where hypertext documents include hyperlinks to other resources that the user can easily access, for example by a mouse click or by tapping the screen in a web browser.

Hypertext Markup Language (HTML) is the standard markup language for documents designed to be displayed in a web browser. It can be assisted by technologies such as Cascading Style Sheets (CSS) and scripting languages such as JavaScript.

Suggested Reading

5.1 Searching: through directory search engine

‘A web directory or link directory is an online list or catalog of websites. That is, it is a directory on the World Wide Web of (all or part of) the World Wide Web. Historically, directories typically listed entries on people or businesses, and their contact information; such directories are still in use today. A web directory includes entries about websites, including links to those websites, organized into categories and subcategories. Besides a link, each entry may include the title of the website, and a description of its contents. In most web directories, the entries are about whole websites, rather than individual pages within them (called “deep links”). Websites are often limited to inclusion in only a few categories.

There are two ways to find information on the Web: by searching or browsing. Web directories provide links in a structured list to make browsing easier. Many web directories combine searching and browsing by providing a search engine to search the directory. Unlike search engines, which base results on a database of entries gathered automatically by web crawler, most web directories are built manually by human editors. Many web directories allow site owners to submit their site for inclusion, and have editors review submissions for fitness. Web directories may be general in scope, or limited to particular subjects or fields. Entries may be listed for free, or by paid submission (meaning the site owner must pay to have his or her website listed). RSS directories are similar to web directories, but contain collections of RSS feeds, instead of links to web sites’.

5.2 Video conferencing and telephony

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21 en.wikipedia.org
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Url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Web_directory
Video conferencing and telephony or Videotelephony comprises the technologies for the reception and transmission of audio-video signals by users at different locations, for communication between people in real-time.[1] A videophone is a telephone with a video display, capable of simultaneous video and audio for communication between people in real-time. Videoconferencing implies the use of this technology for a group or organizational meeting rather than for individuals, in a video conference. Telepresence may refer either to a high-quality videotelephony system (where the goal is to create the illusion that remote participants are in the same room) or to meet up technology, which goes beyond video into robotics (such as moving around the room or physically manipulating objects). Videoconferencing has also been called "visual collaboration" and is a type of groupware.

At the dawn of its commercial deployment from the 1950s through the 1990s, videotelephony also included "image phones" which would exchange still images between units every few seconds over conventional POTS-type telephone lines, essentially the same as slow scan TV systems. The development of advanced video codecs, more powerful CPUs, and high-bandwidth Internet telecommunication services in the late 1990s allowed videophones to provide high quality low-cost colour service between users almost any place in the world that the Internet is available.

Although not as widely used in everyday communications as audio-only and text communication, useful applications include sign language transmission for deaf and speech-impaired people, distance education, telemedicine, and overcoming mobility issues. It is also used in commercial and corporate settings to facilitate meetings and conferences, typically between parties that already have established relationships. News media organizations have begun to use desktop technologies like Skype to provide higher-quality audio than the phone network, and video links at much lower cost than sending professional equipment or using a professional studio. More popular videotelephony technologies use the Internet rather than the traditional landline phone network, even accounting for modern digital packetized phone network protocols, and even though videotelephony software commonly runs on smartphones.

5.3 E-Commerce
E-commerce (electronic commerce) is the activity of electronically buying or selling of products on online services or over the Internet. Electronic commerce draws on technologies such as mobile commerce, electronic funds transfer, supply chain management, Internet marketing, online transaction processing, electronic data interchange (EDI), inventory management systems, and automated data collection systems. E-commerce is in turn driven by the technological advances of the semiconductor industry, and is the largest sector of the electronics industry.
Modern electronic commerce typically uses the World Wide Web for at least one part of the transaction's life cycle although it may also use other technologies such as e-mail. Typical e-commerce transactions include the purchase of online books (such as Amazon) and music purchases (music download in the form of digital distribution such as iTunes Store), and to a less extent, customized/personalized online liquor store inventory services. There are three areas of e-commerce: online retailing, electronic markets, and online auctions. E-commerce is supported by electronic business.

E-commerce businesses may also employ some or all of the followings:
* Online shopping for retail sales direct to consumers via Web sites and mobile apps, and conversational commerce via live chat, chatbots, and voice assistants
* Providing or participating in online marketplaces, which process third-party business-to-consumer or consumer-to-consumer sales
* Business-to-business buying and selling;
* Gathering and using demographic data through web contacts and social media
* Business-to-business (B2B) electronic data interchange
* Marketing to prospective and established customers by e-mail or fax (for example, with newsletters)
* Engaging in pre-tail for launching new products and services
* Online financial exchanges for currency exchanges or trading purposes.

5.4 M commerce
M-commerce (mobile commerce) is the buying and selling of goods and services through wireless handheld devices such as smartphones and tablets. As a form of e-commerce, m-commerce enables users to access online shopping platforms without needing to use a desktop computer. Examples of m-commerce include in-app purchasing, mobile banking, virtual marketplace apps like the Amazon mobile app or a digital wallet such as Apple Pay, Android Pay and Samsung Pay. Over time, content delivery over wireless devices has become faster, more secure and scalable. As of 2017 the use of m-commerce accounted for 34.5% of e-commerce sales. The industries affected most by m-commerce include:
* Financial services, which includes mobile banking (when customers use their handheld devices to access their accounts and pay their bills) as well as brokerage services, in which stock quotes can be displayed and trading conducted from the same handheld device.
* Telecommunications, in which service changes, bill payment and account reviews can all be performed from the same handheld device.
* Service and retail, as consumers are given the ability to place and pay for orders on-the-fly.
* Information services, which include the delivery of financial news, sports figures and traffic updates to a single mobile device.
5.4.1 Types of m-commerce
M-commerce can be categorized by function as mobile shopping, mobile banking or mobile payments. Mobile shopping allows for a customer to purchase a product from a mobile device, using an application such as Amazon, or over a web app. A subcategory of mobile shopping is app commerce, which is a transaction that takes place over a native app. Mobile banking includes any handheld technology that enables customers to conduct fanatical transactions. This is typically done through a secure, dedicated app provided by the banking institution. Mobile payments enable users to buy products in-person using a mobile device. Digital wallets, such as Apple Pay, allow a customer to buy a product without needing to swipe a card or pay with physical cash.

5.5 Buying, selling, banking and advertising on Internet
5.5.1 Buying and Selling on Internet
Online shopping is a form of electronic commerce which allows consumers to directly buy goods or services from a seller over the Internet using a web browser. Consumers find a product of interest by visiting the website of the retailer directly or by searching among alternative vendors using a shopping search engine, which displays the same product's availability and pricing at different e-retailers. As of 2016, customers can shop online using a range of different computers and devices, including desktop computers, laptops, tablet computers and smartphones.

An online shop evokes the physical analogy of buying products or services at a regular "bricks-and-mortar" retailer or shopping center; the process is called business-to-consumer (B2C) online shopping. When an online store is set up to enable businesses to buy from another business, the process is called business-to-business (B2B) online shopping. A typical online store enables the customer to browse the firm's range of products and services, view photos or images of the products, along with information about the product specifications, features and prices.

Online stores usually enable shoppers to use "search" features to find specific models, brands or items. Online customers must have access to the Internet and a valid method of payment in order to complete a transaction, such as a credit card, an Interac-enabled debit card, or a service such as PayPal. For physical products (e.g., paperback books or clothes), the e-tailer ships the products to the customer; for digital products, such as digital audio files of songs or software, the e-tailer usually sends the file to the customer over the Internet. The largest of these online retailing corporations are Alibaba, Amazon.com, and eBay.

5.6 Banking on Internet
Online banking, also known as internet banking, is an electronic payment system that enables customers of a bank or other financial institution to conduct a range of financial transactions through the
financial institution's website. The online banking system will typically connect to or be part of the core banking system operated by a bank and is in contrast to branch banking which was the traditional way customers accessed banking services.

Some banks operate as a "direct bank" (or “virtual bank”), where they rely completely on internet banking.

Internet banking software provides personal and corporate banking services offering features such as viewing account balances, obtaining statements, checking recent transactions and making payments.  

5.7 Advertising on Internet

‘Online advertising, also called online marketing or Internet advertising or web advertising is a form of marketing and advertising which uses the Internet to deliver promotional marketing messages to consumers. Many consumers find online advertising disruptive and have increasingly turned to ad blocking for a variety of reasons. When software is used to do the purchasing, it is known as programmatic advertising. Online advertising includes email marketing, search engine marketing (SEM), social media marketing, many types of display advertising (including web banner advertising), and mobile advertising. Like other advertising media, online advertising frequently involves a publisher, who integrates advertisements into its online content, and an advertiser, who provides the advertisements to be displayed on the publisher's content. Other potential participants include advertising agencies that help generate and place the ad copy, an ad server which technologically delivers the ad and tracks statistics, and advertising affiliates who do independent promotional work for the advertiser.

In 2016, Internet advertising revenues in the United States surpassed those of cable television and broadcast television. In 2017, Internet advertising revenues in the United States totaled $83.0 billion, a 14% increase over the $72.50 billion in revenues in 2016.

Many common online advertising practices are controversial and, as a result, have been increasingly subject to regulation. Online ad revenues also may not adequately replace other publishers' revenue streams. Declining ad revenue has led some publishers to place their content behind paywalls’.

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22 en.wikipedia.org
Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
Url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Online_banking

23 en.wikipedia.org
Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
Url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Online_advertising
Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on Video conferencing

Unit – End Exercises
1. Define E-Commerce
2. What is M commerce?
3. Give the Types of m-commerce
4. Write about Buying, selling, banking and advertising on Internet

Answer to check your progress
1. E-commerce (electronic commerce) is the activity of electronically buying or selling of products on online services or over the Internet. Electronic commerce draws on technologies such as mobile commerce, electronic funds transfer, supply chain management, Internet marketing, online transaction processing, electronic data interchange (EDI), inventory management systems, and automated data collection systems.

2. M-commerce (mobile commerce) is the buying and selling of goods and services through wireless handheld devices such as smartphones and tablets. As a form of e-commerce, m-commerce enables users to access online shopping platforms without needing to use a desktop computer. Examples of m-commerce include in-app purchasing, mobile banking, virtual marketplace apps like the Amazon mobile app or a digital wallet such as Apple Pay, Android Pay and Samsung Pay.

3. The M-commerce can be categorized by function as mobile shopping, mobile banking or mobile payments. Mobile shopping allows for a customer to purchase a product from a mobile device, using an application such as Amazon, or over a web app. A subcategory of mobile shopping is app commerce, which is a transaction that takes place over a native app. Mobile banking includes any handheld technology that enables customers to conduct fanatical transactions. This is typically done through a secure, dedicated app provided by the banking institution. Mobile payments enable users to buy products in-person using a mobile device. Digital wallets, such as Apple Pay, allow a customer to buy a product without needing to swipe a card or pay with physical cash.

4. Online shopping is a form of electronic commerce which allows consumers to directly buy goods or services from a seller over the
Internet using a web browser. Consumers find a product of interest by visiting the website of the retailer directly or by searching among alternative vendors using a shopping search engine, which displays the same product’s availability and pricing at different e-retailers. As of 2016, customers can shop online using a range of different computers and devices, including desktop computers, laptops, tablet computers and smartphones.

**Suggested Reading**

2. [en.wikipedia.org](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Online_banking)
3. [en.wikipedia.org](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Online_advertising)
   - Url: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Online_advertising](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Online_advertising)
6.1 Web page development

Web development is the work involved in developing a web site for the Internet (World Wide Web) or an intranet (a private network). Web development can range from developing a simple single static page of plain text to complex web-based internet applications (web apps), electronic businesses, and social network services. A more comprehensive list of tasks to which web development commonly refers, may include web engineering, web design, web content development, client liaison, client-side/server-side scripting, web server and network security configuration, and e-commerce development.

Among web professionals, "web development" usually refers to the main non-design aspects of building web sites: writing markup and coding. Web development may use content management systems (CMS) to make content changes easier and available with basic technical skills. For larger organizations and businesses, web development teams can consist of hundreds of people (web developers) and follow standard methods like Agile methodologies while developing websites. Smaller organizations may only require a single permanent or contracting developer, or secondary assignment to related job positions such as a graphic designer or information systems technician. Web development may be a collaborative effort between departments rather than the domain of a designated department. There are three kinds of web developer specialization: front-end developer, back-end developer, and full-stack developer. Front-end developers responsible for behavior and visuals that run in the user browser, while back-end developers deal with the servers’. 24

6.1.1 Inserting

To insert a link, use the <a> tag with the href attribute to indicate the address of the target page. Example: <a href="http://www.google.com"> . You can make a link to another page in your website simply by writing the file name: <a href="page2.html"> . Links can also be used to jump to other places on the same page.

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24 responsema.org
Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
Url: https://responsema.org/categories/website-development/
6.1.2 Linking
A link is specified using HTML tag <a>. This tag is called anchor tag and anything between the opening <a> tag and the closing </a> tag becomes part of the link and a user can click that part to reach to the linked document. Following is the simple syntax to use <a> tag.

6.1.3 Editing
To edit the whole page at once, click the "edit this page" tab at the top. To edit just one section, click the "edit" link to the right of the section heading.

6.1.4 Publishing
Publishing (also referred to as e-publishing or digital publishing or online publishing) includes the digital publication of e-books, digital magazines, and the development of digital libraries and catalogues. It also includes an editorial aspect that consists of editing books, journals or magazines that are mostly destined to be read on a screen (computer, e-reader, tablet, smartphone).

6.1.5 Locating, promoting and maintaining a website
Website promotion is the continuing process used by webmasters to improve content and increase exposure of a website to bring more visitors. Many techniques such as search engine optimization and search engine submission are used to increase a site's traffic once content is developed.
With the growing popularity of social sharing many webmasters have moved to platforms like Facebook, Twitter and Instagram for viral marketing. By sharing interesting content webmasters hope that some of the audience will visit the website. Examples of viral content are infographics and memes. Webmasters often hire outsourced or offshore firms to perform website promotion for them, many of whom provide "low-quality, assembly-line link building".

Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on Web page
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Unit – End Exercises
1. How to develop the Web page
2. What is Linking and Editing?
3. What is E-Publishing?

Answer to check your progress

1. Web development is the work involved in developing a web site for the Internet (World Wide Web) or an intranet (a private network). Web development can range from developing a simple single static page of plain text to complex web-based internet applications (web apps), electronic businesses, and social network services. A more comprehensive list of tasks to which web development commonly refers, may include web engineering, web design, web content development, client liaison, client-side/server-side scripting, web server and network security configuration, and e-commerce development.

2. **Linking**
   A link is specified using HTML tag `<a>`. This tag is called anchor tag and anything between the opening `<a>` tag and the closing `</a>` tag becomes part of the link and a user can click that part to reach to the linked document. Following is the simple syntax to use `<a>` tag.

   **Editing**
   To edit the whole page at once, click the "edit this page" tab at the top. To edit just one section, click the "edit" link to the right of the section heading.

3. Publishing (also referred to as e-publishing or digital publishing or online publishing) includes the digital publication of e-books, digital magazines, and the development of digital libraries and catalogues. It also includes an editorial aspect that consists of editing books, journals or magazines that are mostly destined to be read on a screen (computer, e-reader, tablet, smartphone).

Suggested Reading

1. responsema.org
   Url: https://responsema.org/categories/website-development/


   *New Media and the New Middle East*, 1-17.
   doi:10.1057/9780230605602_1
7.1 Introduction

Digital journalism, also known as online journalism, is a contemporary form of journalism where editorial content is distributed via the Internet, as opposed to publishing via print or broadcast. The information which is presented in the combination as text, audio, video, or some interactive forms through digital media technology.

Blog

‘With the rise of digital media, there is a move from the traditional journalist to the blogger or amateur journalist. Blogs can be seen as a new genre of journalism because of their "narrative style of news characterized by personalization" that moves away from traditional journalism's approach, changing journalism into a more conversational and decentralized type of news.

Citizen Journalism

Digital journalism's lack of a traditional "editor" has given rise to citizen journalism. The early advances that the digital age offered journalism were faster research, easier editing, conveniences, and a faster delivery time for articles. The Internet has broadened the effect that the digital age has on journalism. Because of the popularity of the Internet, most people have access, and can add their forms of journalism to the information network. This allows anyone who wants to share something they deem important that has happened in their community. Individuals who are not professional journalists who present news through their blogs or websites are often referred to as citizen journalists. One does not need a degree to be a citizen journalist. Citizen journalists are able to publish information that may not be reported otherwise, and the public has a greater opportunity to be informed. Some companies use the information that a citizen journalist relays when they themselves cannot access certain situations, for example, in countries where freedom of the press is limited.²⁵

7.1.1 Cyber Journalism

Cyber Journalism; online editions of newspapers management and economics cyber newspapers - creation, feed, marketing, revenue and expenditure. Cyber journalism or Digital journalism also known as online journalism is a contemporary form of journalism where editorial content


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is distributed via the Internet as opposed to publishing via print or broadcast.

Fewer barriers to entry, lowered distribution costs, and diverse computer networking technologies have led to the widespread practice of digital journalism.

It has democratized the flow of information that was previously controlled by traditional media including newspapers, magazines, radio, and television.

Some have asserted that a greater degree of creativity can be exercised with digital journalism when compared to traditional journalism and traditional media.

The digital aspect may be central to the journalistic message and remains, to some extent, within the creative control of the writer, editor, and/or publisher.

It has been acknowledged that reports of its growth have tended to be exaggerated.

In fact, a 2019 Pew survey showed of 16% decline of time spent on online news sites since 2016.

An online newspaper is the online version of a newspaper, either as a stand-alone publication or as the online version of a printed periodical. Going online created more opportunities for newspapers, such as competing with broadcast journalism in presenting breaking news in a timelier manner. The credibility and strong brand recognition of well-established newspapers, and the close relationships they have with advertisers, are also seen by many in the newspaper industry as strengthening their chances of survival.

The movement away from the printing process can also help decrease costs. Online newspapers, like printed newspapers, have legal restrictions regarding libel, privacy and copyright; also apply to online publications in most countries as in the UK. Also, the UK Data Protection Act applies to online newspapers and news pages.

Up to 2014, the PCC ruled in the UK, but there was no clear distinction between authentic online newspapers and forums or blogs. In 2007, a ruling was passed to formally regulate UK-based online newspapers, news audio, and news video websites covering the responsibilities expected of them and to clear up what is, and what isn't, an online news publication.
News reporters are being taught to shoot video and to write in the succinct manner necessary for internet news pages. Some newspapers have attempted to integrate the internet into every aspect of their operations, e.g., the writing of stories for both print and online, and classified advertisements appearing in both media, while other newspaper websites may be quite different from the corresponding printed newspaper.

### 7.2 Cyber Journalism challenges

A Computer: Computer equipment is a sizeable investment and thus you should select a computer carefully. Before buying a computer, understand your needs and then choose one accordingly. See that it comes with a warranty and that after sales service is available in case you need it. Internet Service Provider: This is the software that you will require to get online. You can now choose from a dial-up service or 24-hour broadband services.

This is the service that will help you to connect to the Internet and start your surfing experiences. The World Wide Web has spawned the newest medium for journalism, on-line or Cyber journalism. The speed at which news can be disseminated on the web, and the profound penetration to anyone with a computer and web browser, have greatly increased the quantity and variety of news reports available to the average web user. The bulk of on-line journalism has been the extension of existing print and broadcast media into the web via web versions of their primary products. News reports that were set to be released at expected times can now be published as soon as they are written and edited, increasing the deadline pressure and fear of being scooped which many journalists must deal with.

The digitalization of news production and the diffusion capabilities of the internet are challenging the traditional journalistic professional culture. Most news websites are free to their users, except some websites, for which a subscription is required to view its contents. But some outlets, such as the New York Times website, offer current news free, but archived reports and access to opinion columnists and other non-news sections for a periodic fee. Many newspapers are branching into new mediums because of the Internet. Their websites may now include video, podcasts, blogs and slide-shows. Story chat, where readers may post comments on an article, has changed the dialogue newspapers foster.

Traditionally kept to the confines of the opinion section as letters to the editor, story chat has allowed readers to express opinions without the time delay of a letter or the approval of an editor. The growth of blogs as a source of news and especially opinion on the news has changed journalism forever. Blogs now can create news as well as report it, and blur the dividing line between news and opinion.
The debate about whether blogging is really journalism rages on. Cyber journalism is a term coined after the merging of various traditional media brought about by the proliferation of media industries due to current influx of new technology and globalization. Cyber journalism made possible by the Internet technology has gained importance and is functioning as a pervasive medium along with the traditional media such as print and electronic. However, cyber journalism has created a big vacuum in journalism education and training since it is a recent development in journalism and journalism educators are caught unprepared.26

Conclusion
E-journalism have many merits and demerits, one of the main merits is which can easily available for reading everywhere we go with the help of our digital gadgets we can access the media. And if we want to share or save it for future references we can but which is not possible for traditional media. Here is the chance to add our comments and feedback is possible. The future of independent online news media or online news channel is very well and too scope in future. Without any huge investment the people can start and run the independent online media and create revenue via advertisement and viewership. But the only demerits are the credibility and the ethical violations. Because of the lack of cyber laws to monitor and regulate the online media is create the problems in this field.

Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on Web Portal

Unit – End Exercises

1. Define Cyber Journalism.
2. What are the merits and demerits of Cyber Journalism

Answer to check your progress

26 www.nraismc.com
Fetched: 2019-10-22T08:00:00
1. Cyber Journalism; online editions of newspapers management and economics cyber newspapers - creation, feed, marketing, revenue and expenditure. Cyber journalism or Digital journalism also known as online journalism is a contemporary form of journalism where editorial content is distributed via the Internet as opposed to publishing via print or broadcast.

2. The World Wide Web has spawned the newest medium for journalism, on-line or Cyber journalism. The speed at which news can be disseminated on the web, and the profound penetration to anyone with a computer and web browser, have greatly increased the quantity and variety of news reports available to the average web user. The bulk of on-line journalism has been the extension of existing print and broadcast media into the web via web versions of their primary products. News reports that were set to be released at expected times can now be published as soon as they are written and edited, increasing the deadline pressure and fear of being scooped which many journalists must deal with. The digitalization of news production and the diffusion capabilities of the internet are challenging the traditional journalistic professional culture. Most news websites are free to their users, except some websites, for which a subscription is required to view its contents.

Suggested Reading

1. www.nraismc.com


8.1 E publishing; security issues on Internet

Electronic publishing (also referred to as e-publishing or digital publishing or online publishing) includes the digital publication of e-books, digital magazines, and the development of digital libraries and catalogues. It also includes an editorial aspect that consists of editing books, journals or magazines that are mostly destined to be read on a screen (computer, e-reader, tablet, smartphone).

8.2 Security Issues

In the early 2000s, many of the existing copyright laws were designed around printed books, magazines and newspapers. For example, copyright laws often set limits on how much of a book can be mechanically reproduced or copied. Electronic publishing raises new questions in relation to copyright, because if an e-book or e-journal is available online, millions of Internet users may be able to view a single electronic copy of the document, without any "copies" being made. Emerging evidence suggests that e-publishing may be more collaborative than traditional paper-based publishing; e-publishing often involves more than one author, and the resulting works are more accessible, since they are published online. At the same time, the availability of published material online opens more doors for plagiarism, unauthorized use, or re-use of the material. Some publishers are trying to address these concerns. For example, in 2011, HarperCollins limited the number of times that one of its e-books could be lent in a public library. Other publishers, such as Penguin, are attempting to incorporate e-book elements into their regular paper publications.

8.3 Social, political, legal and ethical issues related IT and CT.

The industrial revolution of the nineteenth century gave rise to a number of unforeseen ethical and social issues—for instance, concerns about workplace safety, wages, discrimination, and child labor—which led to real changes in worker protections, labor practices, and law. Similarly, the technology revolution of the twentieth century—starting with the widespread use of the Internet and home computers—has spawned a new set of ethical and social concerns that people a hundred years ago couldn’t have imagined: for example, how should personal information and online privacy be protected? Who gets to own the information about our habits and “likes”? Before the advent of the Internet, people thought about and controlled their personal information in very different ways.
Today, many of us lead complex online lives, and we may not even realize how our personal information is being collected and used. Companies like Caesars can collect data on the purchasing patterns, personal preferences, and professional/social affiliations of their customers without their even knowing about it. In this section we’ll explore some of the ethical and social issues related to network security, privacy, and data collection that businesses must address.

**8.4 Technoethics**

Ethical and social issues arising from the use of technology in all areas of our lives—and in business, in particular—have lead to the creation of a new branch of ethics: technoethics.

Technoethics (TE) is an interdisciplinary research area concerned with all moral and ethical aspects of technology in society. It draws on theories and methods from multiple knowledge domains (such as communications, social sciences information studies, technology studies, applied ethics, and philosophy) to provide insights on ethical dimensions of technological systems and practices for advancing a technological society.

Technoethics views technology and ethics as socially embedded enterprises and focuses on discovering the ethical use of technology, protecting against the misuse of technology, and devising common principles to guide new advances in technological development and application to benefit society. Typically, scholars in technoethics have a tendency to conceptualize technology and ethics as interconnected and embedded in life and society. Technoethics denotes a broad range of ethical issues revolving around technology— from specific areas of focus affecting professionals working with technology to broader social, ethical, and legal issues concerning the role of technology in society and everyday life.

Recent advances in technology and their ability to transmit vast amounts of information in a short amount of time has changed the way information is being shared amongst co-workers and managers throughout organizations across the globe. Starting in the 1980s with information and communications technologies (ICTs), organizations have seen an increase in the amount of technology that they rely on to communicate within and outside of the workplace. However, these implementations of technology in the workplace create various ethical concerns and in turn a need for further analysis of technology in organizations. As a result of this growing trend, a subsection of technoethics known as organizational technoethics has emerged to address these issues.

Technoethical perspectives are constantly changing as technology advances into areas unseen by creators and users engage with technology in new ways.

**Technology, Business and Data**

Technology makes businesses more efficient, makes tasks faster and easier to complete, and ultimately creates value from raw data. However,
as much as technology impacts the way that companies do business, it also raises important new issues about the employer-employee relationship. If you send personal emails from your office computer, do you have the right to expect that they’re private? Does your employer have a legal and ethical right to “cyber-peek” at what you are doing with company assets? Twenty years ago this was not an issue; today it’s a case before the Supreme Court.

Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on ethics in E Publishing
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Unit – End Exercises
1. Explain the Social, political, legal and ethical issues related IT and CT.
2. What is Technoethics?
Answer to check your progress
1. The industrial revolution of the nineteenth century gave rise to a number of unforeseen ethical and social issues—for instance, concerns about workplace safety, wages, discrimination, and child labor—which led to real changes in worker protections, labor practices, and law. Similarly, the technology revolution of the twentieth century—starting with the widespread use of the Internet and home computers—has spawned a new set of ethical and social concerns that people a hundred years ago couldn’t have imagined: for example, how should personal information and online privacy be protected? Who gets to own the information about our habits and “likes”? Before the advent of the Internet, people thought about and controlled their personal information in very different ways.

2. Ethical and social issues arising from the use of technology in all areas of our lives—and in business, in particular—have lead to the creation of a new branch of ethics: technoethics. Technoethics (TE) is an interdisciplinary research area concerned with all moral and ethical aspects of technology in society. It draws on theories and methods from multiple knowledge domains (such as communications, social sciences information studies,
technology studies, applied ethics, and philosophy) to provide insights on ethical dimensions of technological systems and practices for advancing a technological society.

**Suggested Reading**

9.1 Social and Cultural effects of new Media

The impact of this new media on society is varied in both positive and negative outlooks. Internet makes everyone a publisher and everyone a librarian, in that anyone can both produce and retrieve an unprecedented amount of information. The gate-keeping and agenda-setting functions of the traditional media establishments are bypassed in favor of search engines and directories. Ideally, this means that any person with Internet access (still a fairly small number, confined primarily to the developed world) can gain information about any issue, event, or place, without the restrictions of time, expense, geography, and politics that used to limit such information gathering. By chatting with strangers in chat rooms and reading internationals newspapers online, we believe that we are learning about foreign cultures and perspectives directly from the sources. What is new in this type of communication is that young people today, and not only they, are happy to decide for themselves what is credible or worthwhile and what is not. The old media model was: there is one source of truth. The new media model is: there are multiple sources of truth, and we will sort it out. The mass media audience is no longer a captive; today's media consumer is unique, demanding, and engaged.

This has profound implications for traditional business models in the media industry, which are based on aggregating large passive audiences and holding them captive during advertising interruptions. In the new-media era, audiences will occasionally be large, but often small, and usually tiny. In fact, the Internet does provide ample opportunity to gain knowledge about faraway places, and offers a means of interacting across geographical expanses. In this sense, it is an ideal medium for establishing the sort of "cyber-peace" that is so earnestly desired. By personalizing news portals, web search guides, etc., the user is able to completely isolate him or her from issues that require knowledge and experience outside his or her own. There is a loss of personal one-on-one interaction with real-time voice calls being replaced by multimedia messages. However real-time video calls are empowering people to not only talk to each other while on the move, but also see what each other means through their facial expressions and mannerisms. Camera phones and recorders permit users to abuse the technology by taking away privacy rights, however they also allow the opportunity for the moral user to capture special moments. Furthering this, mobile phone
convergence enables greater freedom for the user as they can access their
emails and videoconference without being chained to the office; however
it makes them answerable to the workplace as they can always be
reached through any communication.

9.2 Social Networking
Social networking is the use of Internet-based social media sites to stay
connected with friends, family, colleagues, customers, or clients. Social
networking can have a social purpose, a business purpose, or both,
through sites such as Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, and Instagram, among
others. Social networking has become a significant base for marketers
seeking to engage customers.
Despite some stiff competition, Facebook remains the most popular
social network, with a reach 90% of U.S. mobile users, as of October
2018, the most recent data available, as of early 2019. It was followed, in
order of popularity, by Instagram, Facebook Messenger, Twitter, and
Pinterest
Marketers use social networking for increasing brand recognition and
encouraging brand loyalty. Since it makes a company more accessible to
new customers and more recognizable for existing customers, social
networking helps promote a brand’s voice and content.
For example, a frequent Twitter user may hear of a company for the first
time through a news feed and decide to buy a product or service. The
more exposed people are to a company’s brand, the greater the
company's chances of finding and retaining new customers.
Marketers use social networking for improving conversion rates.
Building a following provides access to and interaction with new, recent
and old customers. Sharing blog posts, images, videos or comments on
social media allows followers to react, visit the company’s website and
become customers.

9.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Social Networking
Customers may complement the company’s offerings and encourage
others to buy the products or services. The more customers are talking
about a company on social networking, the more valuable the brand
authority becomes. As a brand grows stronger, more sales result.
Increased company posts rank the company higher in search engines.
Social networking can help establish a brand as legitimate, credible, and
trustworthy.
A company may use social networking to demonstrate its customer
service level and enrich its relationships with consumers. For example, if
a customer complains about a product or service on Twitter, the company
may address the issue immediately, apologize, and take action to make it
right. However, criticism of a brand can spread very quickly on social
media. This can create a virtual headache for a company's public
relations department.
Although social networking itself is free, building and maintaining a
company profile takes hours each week. Costs for those hours add up
quickly. In addition, businesses need many followers before a social media marketing campaign starts generating a positive return on investment (ROI). For example, submitting a post to 15 followers does not have the same effect as submitting the post to 15,000 followers.

9.4 Information Overload
Information overloads (also known as infobesity
[1] infoxication
[2] Information anxiety
[3] and information explosion
[4] is the difficulty in understanding an issue and effectively making decisions when one has too much information about that issue.
[5] Generally, the term is associated with the excessive quantity of daily information. Information overload most likely originated from information theory, which are studies in the storage, preservation, communication, compression, and extraction of information. The term, information overload, was first used in Bertram Gross' 1964 book, The Managing of Organizations,
[6] and it was further popularized by Alvin Toffler in his bestselling 1970 book Future Shock.
[7] Speier et al. (1999) stated:
Information overload occurs when the amount of input to a system exceeds its processing capacity. Decision makers have fairly limited cognitive processing capacity. Consequently, when information overload occurs, it is likely that a reduction in decision quality will occur.
A newer definition of information overload focuses on time and resource aspects:
[8]Information overload is a state in which a decision maker faces a set of information (i.e., an information load with informational characteristics such as an amount, a complexity, and a level of redundancy, contradiction and inconsistency) comprising the accumulation of individual informational cues of differing size and complexity that inhibit the decision maker’s ability to optimally determine the best possible decision. The probability of achieving the best possible decision is defined as decision-making performance. The suboptimal use of information is caused by the limitation of scarce individual resources. A scarce resource can be limited individual characteristics (such as serial processing ability, limited short-term memory) or limited task-related equipment (e.g., time to make a decision, budget).
The advent of modern information technology has been a primary driver of information overload on multiple fronts: in quantity produced, ease of dissemination, and breadth of audience reached. Longstanding technological factors have been further intensified by the rise of social media and the attention economy. In the age of connective digital technologies, informatics, the Internet culture (or the digital culture),
information overload is associated with the over-exposure, excessive consumption, and input abundance of information and data.

9.5 Information Rich and Information Poor
The division of the general public into two groups depending upon the way in which they use and relate to information. The information rich tend to be of a higher socioeconomic status, are better educated, have better access to technology and are more technologically savvy than the information poor.
Looking at the given definitions it would about connote that people holding a computing machine and Internet entree would automatically be seen as rich persons, but sometimes in developing states and surely in developed states were consumers widely have entree to these engineering we meet state of affairs where they are not considered as information rich. We should look at a different attack and formalize the distinction within our day-to-day world.
The “Information poor” are consumers who use traditional mass media information such as telecasting, DVDs, wireless and magazines. They possess a broad scope of electronic devices, MP3 participants, PDAs, game consoles and other calculating machines. They are considered as inactive consumers of information and presents as inactive users of new engineering, downloading digital e-book’s, listening to their favorite music, playing computing machine games, reading the last international intelligence. But they do not interact nor make any of this provided Information and are surely non involved in determination pickings. On the opposite “information rich” stands for new elite within the information society. They are involved into getting and treating information, utilizing web 2.0 online applications, bring forthing individualized diaries on community platforms, lucubrating group treatments in forums with a certain degree of knowing competency. They are moving at director degrees thanks to their acquired cognition and overall literacy. They are the supporters of this ever-growing information and engineering society who possesses the knowhow of Selective processing, bring forthing and administering information. This selective procedure of measuring provided information is determined by the consumers instead than the manufacturers. Consumers pull out the information that fits their demands to increase the value of the already acquired information. They allocates their main standards of values to the chosen information, they can absorb in its entirety, the Values could besides make a certain degree of accretion where the effectual processing of it becomes so ineffective, considered as “information overload”, but the mean “information rich” does cognize how to manage this.
Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on Social and Cultural effects of new Media

Unit – End Exercises
1. Define Social Networking
2. Write about the Advantages and Disadvantages of Social Networking
3. What is Information Overload?
4. What is Information Rich and Information Poor?

Answer to check your progress
1. Social networking is the use of Internet-based social media sites to stay connected with friends, family, colleagues, customers, or clients. Social networking can have a social purpose, a business purpose, or both, through sites such as Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, and Instagram, among others. Social networking has become a significant base for marketers seeking to engage customers.

2. Customers may complement the company’s offerings and encourage others to buy the products or services. The more customers are talking about a company on social networking, the more valuable the brand authority becomes. As a brand grows stronger, more sales result. Increased company posts rank the company higher in search engines. Social networking can help establish a brand as legitimate, credible, and trustworthy. A company may use social networking to demonstrate its customer service level and enrich its relationships with consumers. For example, if a customer complains about a product or service on Twitter, the company may address the issue immediately, apologize, and take action to make it right. However, criticism of a brand can spread very quickly on social media. This can create a virtual headache for a company’s public relations department.

3. Generally, the term is associated with the excessive quantity of daily information. Information overload most likely originated from information theory, which are studies in the storage, preservation, communication, compression, and extraction of information. The term,
information overload, was first used in Bertram Gross' 1964 book, The Managing of Organizations, 4. The division of the general public into two groups depending upon the way in which they use and relate to information. The information rich tend to be of a higher socioeconomic status, are better educated, have better access to technology and are more technologically savvy than the information poor.

Suggested Reading
10.1 Knowledge Gap and Cultural Alienation New media impact on old media

Social media and other online news sources, also known as the “new media”, have become an integral part of modern society. The presence of such new media, social media in particular, has threatened the existence of printed newspaper. The effect of this threat is felt on the circulation of print newspapers, especially in the USA. The average daily circulation of US newspapers declined 7% in the last and first quarters of 2008 and 2009 respectively, according to the latest data from the Audit Bureau of Circulations. The data indicate that a shift in consumer behavior has led more people to get their news and information online (New York Times, April 2009). However, the impact of the new media on print media is still manageable in India. This study aims to understand the impact of new media and print media on a representative subset of the Indian population. The research involves a thorough survey methodology and presents expert interviews to identify the preferred media for reading News. It also quantifies the social changes triggered by the advent of new media and user-generated content. Our studies show that the drop in circulation of print media can be attributed to the younger sect of the Indian population, which prefers the interactive nature of the new media and the reduced latency with which they can access news.

Social media is today’s most transparent, engaging and interactive form of public relations. It combines the true grit of real time content with the beauty of authentic peer-to-peer communication. Although, providing a detailed perspective on social media use among university students and underscoring that such use can produce both positive and negative consequences, according to a Nielsen Media Research study, in June 2010, almost 25 percent of students’ time on the Internet is now spent on social networking websites (Jacobsen, & Forste, 2011). The young people are more sensitive to information posted on social media, with the impact on them being twice as high as the impact on older people. Facebook alone reports that it now has 500 active million users, 50% of whom log on every day. This could be a logical consequence of the fact that young people have embraced social media more. It is therefore expected that information posted on social media will become increasingly important to consumers in the future. This shift means that organizations will feel the need to invest more and more in new media in the near future. But the open book, The Facebook once had outraged supporters demanding for the freedom of speech and expression when a
girl was kept behind the bars. The social media reacts angrily over an arrest of Facebook user who updated her Facebook status questioning the rationale behind Mumbai shutting down over the death of Shiv Sena supremo Bal Thackeray. This incident led the Press council of India, Markandy katju to write an open letter saying “We are living in a democracy, not a fascist dictatorship. In fact this arrest itself appears to be a criminal act since it is a crime to wrongfully arrest or wrongfully confine someone who has committed no crime”. But this incident never was a hurdle for the citizens to post their views on any issues. The above incident brought a big chaos letting the twitter, Facebook and others pooling with reaction over the arrest of Facebook users. The reaction by the people on social media brought in a clear picture on that the incident was never a threat for the public to share their opinions and views.

The consumption of the new media and Newspaper are noted down to understand the preferred media among the population for reading news. It is found that 4.4% of the population is subscribed to newspaper alone whereas 23.60% is subscribed to Internet alone and 58.20% is subscribed to both the media and it is also to be noted that 8.8% of the population is not subscribed to both. Below is the table that contains the preference and media on use for the 8.8% of the population who are not subscribed to both. Of the 8.8% of the population who is not subscribed to both, 13.63% uses and prefers newspaper whereas 9.09% of the population uses newspaper but prefers online. Also, 9.09% of the population uses online prefers newspaper whereas 54.54% both uses and prefers online. It is also analyzed from the above graph is that the percentage of the population who is accessed to print actually prefers online which means that preference might change into usage anytime. The percentage of population on their usage and preference on different media for reading news who are subscribed to at least either of the media.

The convenient access to online news for free seems to be little reason to pay for a newspaper subscription. The witness of not the “End” of print but rather the adaptation of print and News organizations to rapidly changing consumer patterns and a corresponding shift towards digital content has brought the new media to create its impact on the society at a faster pace.

10.2 ICTs for Development
Information and communication technologies for development (ICT4D) refers to the application of information and communication technologies (ICT) toward social, economic, and political development, with a particular emphasis on helping poor and marginalized people and communities. It aims to help in international development by bridging the digital divide and providing equitable access to technologies. ICT4D is grounded in the notions of "development", "growth", "progress" and "globalization" and is often interpreted as the use of technology to deliver a greater good.
Another similar term used in the literature is "digital development". ICT4D draws on theories and frameworks from many disciplines, including sociology, economics, development studies, and library, information science, and communication studies. ICT4D grew out of the attempts to use emerging computing technologies to improve conditions in the developing countries. It formalized through a series of reports, conferences, and funding initiatives that acted as key policy-making avenues: ICTs play a key role in modern human development, the World Summit on the Information Society held in Geneva in 2003 and Tunis in 2005. The focus of this earliest phase was on the use of IT (not ICT) in government and private sector organizations in developing countries. One of the earliest computers used in a developing country was a HEC machine installed in 1956 to undertake numerical calculations in the Indian Institute of Statistics in Kolkata. Today's active line of research grew out of work previously grouped under the term development communication, which focused on the diffusion of mass media in developing countries and goes back to work from some of the founders of today's Communication discipline in the social sciences.

* ICT4D 1.0: late-1990s to late-2000s. The advent of the Millennium Development Goals combined with the rise and spread of the Internet in industrialized countries led to a rapid increase in investments in ICT infrastructure and projects in developing countries. The most typical application was the telecentre, used to bring information on development issues such as health, education, and agricultural extension, into poor communities. Later, telecentres were also used to deliver government services.

* ICT4D 2.0: late-2000s to mid-2010s. There is no clear boundary between phases 1.0 and 2.0. The focus in phase 2.0 increasingly shifts toward technologies in use, such as the mobile phone and SMS technologies. There is less concern with e-readiness and more interest in the impact of ICTs on development. Additionally, there is more focus on the poor as producers and innovators with ICTs (as opposed to being consumers of ICT-based information). ICT4D 2.0 is about reframing the poor. Where ICT4D 1.0 marginalized them, allowing a supply-driven focus, ICT4D 2.0 centralizes them, creating a demand-driven focus. Where ICT4D 1.0 – fortified by the "bottom of the pyramid" concept – characterized them largely as passive consumers, ICT4D 2.0 sees the poor as active producers and active innovators.

* Current evolution:. As the digital paradigm evolves, so is the focus of this work. The most prominent recent change has been a shift in focus from the proliferation of communication (1970s & 1990s) and information (1990s & 2000s), to the extraction of knowledge from the resulting data. A shift from “Information Societies’ to “Knowledge Societies””. Work focused on the use of big data for development; quickly led to AI4D (Artificial Intelligence for Development) is not only
necessary to make sense of big data, but currently a main source for innovation in the economy and society. ICT as information, communication, and technology, provides three key aspects for influencing the education sector to develop the capacity for improving the influx of data that comprises one's learning curve. This provides alternative solutions to the obstacles encountered in the conventional educational system.

ICT initiatives on the educational sector primarily address the following needs: access to education, quality learning, quality teaching and educational planning and management. Interventions almost always include the provision of computers, necessary software and internet connection, and curriculum development, industrial design, content creation and literacy training and capacity building on the use of technologies, establishment of information systems (HR, Management and Financial).

Information and Communications Technology for Education or ICT4E as sector of ICT4D is an initiative that addresses issues and challenges regarding education of children and adults, especially in the developing countries. Projects under the ICT4E aims to make an impact on student learning and learning opportunities using information and communication technology - hardware, software, networks, and media for collection, storage, processing, transmission and presentation of information (voice, data, text, images).

Because of the advancement in ICT, UNESCO, the UN’s leading agency for Education recognizes ICT as a powerful tool to achieve progress towards the Sustainable Development Goals 4: Quality Education which has particular targets by 2030: achieve primary education, promote gender equality, empower women by disparity at all education levels.

The use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) play a vital role in promoting and making developments in terms of enhancing and ensuring the quality of education that the students receive and acquire. ICT in education allows learning to become student-centered rather than teacher-dominated, such as in the case of distance-learning programs. It has multiple impacts on student achievements and motivations, including but not limited to: confidence in computer usage, increased autonomy when learning, improved development in language and communication skills.

The purpose of ICT in education is to bridge the gap and promote online learning and interactive experience to students regardless of location in sharing ideas and information using different platforms of communication. As education is a key factor in socio-economic development, the education system of developing countries must be aligned with modern technology. ICT can improve the quality of education and bring better outcomes by making information easily accessible to students, helping to gain knowledge and skill easily and making training more available for teachers. However, it is not without its flaws – ICTs can easily become the focus of a program, in which the
technology is given and provided before much thought is given to the application of it.

10.3 Empowerment

The term empowerment refers to measures designed to increase the degree of autonomy and self-determination in people and in communities in order to enable them to represent their interests in a responsible and self-determined way, acting on their own authority. It is the process of becoming stronger and more confident, especially in controlling one's life and claiming one's rights. Empowerment as action refers both to the process of self-empowerment and to professional support of people, which enables them to overcome their sense of powerlessness and lack of influence, and to recognize and use their resources. To do work with power.

The term empowerment originates from American community psychology and is associated with the social scientist Julian Rappaport (1981).

[1] However, the roots of empowerment theory extend further into history and are linked to Marxist sociological theory. These sociological ideas have continued to be developed and refined through Neo-Marxist Theory (also known as Critical Theory).

[2] In social work, empowerment forms a practical approach of resource-oriented intervention. In the field of citizenship education and democratic education, empowerment is seen as a tool to increase the responsibility of the citizen. Empowerment is a key concept in the discourse on promoting civic engagement. Empowerment as a concept, which is characterized by a move away from a deficit-oriented towards a more strength-oriented perception, can increasingly be found in management concepts, as well as in the areas of continuing education and self-help.

Marshall McLuhan insisted that the development of electronic media would eventually weaken the hierarchical structures that underpin central governments, large corporation, and academia and, more generally, rigid, “linear-Cartesian” forms of social organization. From that perspective, new, “electronic forms of awareness” driven by information technology would empower citizen, employees and students by disseminating in near-real-time vast amounts of information once reserved to a small number of experts and specialists. Citizens would be bound to ask for substantially more say in the management of government affairs, production, consumption, and education World Pensions Council (WPC) economist Nicolas Firzli has argued that rapidly rising cultural tides, notably new forms of online engagement and increased demands for ESG-driven public policies and managerial decisions are transforming the way governments and corporation interact with citizen-consumers in the “Age of Empowerment”

In social work, empowerment offers an approach that allows social workers to increase the capacity for self-help of their clients. For example, this allows clients not to be seen as passive, helpless 'victims' to
be rescued but instead as a self-empowered person fighting abuse/oppression; a fight, in which the social worker takes the position of a facilitator, instead of the position of a 'rescuer'.
Marginalized people who lack self-sufficiency become, at a minimum, dependent on charity, or welfare. They lose their self-confidence because they cannot be fully self-supporting. The opportunities denied them also deprive them of the pride of accomplishment which others, who have those opportunities, can develop for themselves. This in turn can lead to psychological, social and even mental health problems. "Marginalized" here refers to the overt or covert trends within societies whereby those perceived as lacking desirable traits or deviating from the group norms tend to be excluded by wider society and ostracized as undesirables.

10.4 Right to information
‘Right to Information (RTI) is act of the Parliament of India to provide for setting out the practical regime of the right to information for citizens and replaces the erstwhile Freedom of information Act, 2002’. This law was passed by Parliament on 15 June 2005 and came fully into force on 12 October 2005.
‘Right to Information (RTI) is act of the Parliament of India to provide for setting out the practical regime of the right to information for citizens and replaces the erstwhile Freedom of information Act, 2002. Under the provisions of the Act, any citizen of India may request information from a "public authority" (a body of Government or "instrumentality of State") which is required to reply expeditiously or within thirty days. The Act also requires every public authority to computerize their records for wide dissemination and to proactively certain categories of information so that the citizens need minimum recourse to request for information formally. This law was passed by Parliament on 15 June 2005 and came fully into force on 12 October 2005. Every day, over 4800 RTI applications are filed. In the first ten years of the commencement of the act over 17,500,000 applications had been filed.
In India, the organization called Mazdoor Kisan Shakti Sangathan was instrumental in the passage of RTI Act. Aruna Roy is the mastermind behind the RTI Act 2005. RTI is a legal right for every citizen of India. The authorities under RTI Act 2005 are called quasi-judicial authorities. This act was enacted in order to consolidate the fundamental right in the Indian constitution 'freedom of speech'. Information disclosure in India is restricted by the Official Secrets Act 1923 and various other special laws, which the new RTI Act relaxes. Right to Information codifies a fundamental right of the citizens of India.

27 en.wikipedia.org
Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
Url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Right_to_Information_Act,_2005
RTI has proven to be very useful, but is counteracted by the Whistleblowers Act.  

‘The Right to information in India is governed by two major bodies:  
  * Central Information Commission (CIC) – Chief Information commissioner who heads all the central departments and ministries- with their own public Information officers (PIO)s. CICs are directly under the President of India.  
  * State Information Commissions – State Public Information Officers or SPIOs head over all the state department and ministries. The SPIO office is directly under the corresponding State Governor. State and Central Information Commissions are independent bodies and Central Information Commission has no jurisdiction over the State Information Commission.  

Citizen who desires to seek some information from a public authority is required to send, along with the application (a Postal order or DD (Demand draft) or a banker’s cheque) payable to the Accounts Officer of the public authority as fee prescribed for seeking information. If the person is from a disadvantaged community, he/she need not pay The applicant may also be required to pay further fee towards the cost of providing the information, details of which shall be intimated to the applicant by the PIO as prescribed by the RTI ACT’. 

**Check your Progress- 1**

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on ICTs for Development

Unit – End Exercises

1. Write a short note on Right to information

**Answer to check your progress**

1. Right to Information (RTI) is act of the Parliament of India to provide for setting out the practical regime of the right to information for citizens and replaces the erstwhile Freedom of information Act, 2002. This law was passed

**Suggested Reading**


11.1 Connotation
A connotation is a commonly understood cultural or emotional association that some word or phrase carries, in addition to its explicit or literal meaning, which is its denotation.

A connotation is frequently described as either positive or negative, with regard to its pleasing or displeasing emotional connection. For example, a stubborn person may be described as being either strong-willed or pig-headed; although these have the same literal meaning (stubborn), strong-willed connotes admiration for the level of someone's will (a positive connotation), while pig-headed connotes frustration in dealing with someone (a negative connotation).

Connotation" branches into a mixture of different meanings. These could include the contrast of a word or phrase with its primary, literal meaning (known as a denotation), with what that word or phrase specifically denotes. The connotation essentially relates to how anything may be associated with a word or phrase, for example, an implied value judgment or feelings.

In logic and semantics, connotation is roughly synonymous with intension. Connotation is often contrasted with denotation, which is more or less synonymous with extension. Alternatively, the connotation of the word may be thought of as the set of all its possible referents (as opposed to merely the actual ones). A word's denotation is the collection of things it refers to; its connotation is what it implies about the things it is used to refer to. The denotation of dog is (something like) four-legged canine carnivore. So saying, "You are a dog" would connote that you were ugly or aggressive rather than literally denoting you as a canine.

11.2 Denotation
Denotation is a translation of a sign to its meaning, precisely to its literal meaning, more or less like dictionaries try to define it. Denotation is sometimes contrasted to connotation, which includes associated
meanings. The denotation meaning of a word is perceived through visible concepts, whereas connotation meaning evokes sensible attitudes towards the phenomena. Example 1. For example, denotation of the word “blue” is the color blue, but its connotation is “sad”—read the following sentence: The blueberry is very blue. We understand this sentence by its denotative meaning—it describes the literal color of the fruit.

11.3 Reading Comprehension
Reading comprehension is the ability to process text, understand its meaning, and to integrate with what the reader already knows. Fundamental skills required in efficient reading comprehension are knowing meaning of words, ability to understand meaning of a word from discourse context, ability to follow organization of passage and to identify antecedents and references in it, ability to draw inferences from a passage about its contents, ability to identify the main thought of a passage, ability to answer questions answered in a passage, ability to recognize the literary devices or propositional structures used in a passage and determine its tone, to understand the situational mood (agents, objects, temporal and spatial reference points, casual and intentional inflections, etc.) conveyed for assertions, questioning, commanding, refraining etc. and finally ability to determine writer's purpose, intent and point of view, and draw inferences about the writer (discourse-semantics).

Ability to comprehend text is influenced by reader's skills and their ability to process information. If word recognition is difficult, students use too much of their processing capacity to read individual words, which interferes with their ability to comprehend what is read. There are many reading strategies to improve reading comprehension and inferences, including improving one's vocabulary, critical text analysis (intertextuality, actual events vs. narration of events, etc.) and practicing deep reading.

Reading comprehension is the level of understanding of a text/message. This understanding comes from the interaction between the words that are written, and how they trigger knowledge outside the text/message. Comprehension is a "creative, multifaceted process" dependent upon four language skills: phonology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. There are 7 essential skills for reading comprehension: Decoding, Fluency, Vocabulary, Sentence Construction and Cohesion, Reasoning and background knowledge, and Working memory and attention.

11.4 Reading between Lines
The phrase you mentioned “Read between the lines” is an idiom, which means Perceive or detect a hidden meaning, in something said or written; to try to understand what is meant by something that is not written explicitly or openly.

This expression derives from a simple form of cryptography, in which a hidden meaning was conveyed by secreting it between lines of text. It
originated in the mid 19th century and soon became used to refer to the deciphering of any coded or unclear form of communication, whether written or not; for example, one might say "She said she was happy to go to the party but didn't seem concerned when it was cancelled. Reading between the lines, I don't think she wanted to go in the first place". His popular phrase "to read between the lines" may have originated from messages actually hidden in disappearing ink or otherwise concealed between obvious lines of text. Its use has broadened over time, and has come to be associated with finding meaning in a text that is not obvious on a cursory examination.

11.5 There are similar kinds of meaning of “read between the lines”
1. to understand or find an implicit meaning in addition to the obvious one
2. to perceive or deduce a meaning that is hidden or implied rather than being openly stated
3. to discover a hidden meaning or purpose in something written, said, or done
Example sentences containing 'read between the lines'
1. Nothing was spelled out, yet everything was there for those who could read between the lines.
2. But then they clearly haven't quite got that knack I have of being able to read between the lines.
3. Anyone who knew her well might have been able to read between the lines of her lighthearted message.
Nearby words of 'read between the lines'
* reactuate
* read
* read a lesson
* read between the lines
* read head
* read in
* read into

11.6 Listening for cues
According to Oxford Living Dictionaries, to listen is to give attention to sound or action.
[1] When listening, one is hearing what others are saying, and trying to understand what it means.
[3] Affective processes include the motivation to listen to others; cognitive processes include attending to, understanding, receiving, and interpreting content and relational messages; and behavioral processes include responding to others with verbal and nonverbal feedback. Active
listening is listening to what someone is saying, and attempting to understand what is being said. It can be described in a lot of ways. Active listening is having good listening skills. The listener is attentive, nonjudgmental, non-interrupting. An active listener analyzes what the speaker is saying for hidden messages, and meanings contained in the verbal communication. An active listener looks for non-verbal messages from the speaker in order to indicate the full meaning of what is being said. With active listening, a person must be willing to hear what someone is saying and the intent to try to understand what the meaning of what the other person said. When active listening is used, there can be multiple benefits. Being an active listener means that you have the possibility to become a more effective listener over time, and your leadership skills will strengthen. Active listening is an exchange between two or multiple people. When those people are active listeners, the quality of the conversation will be better and clearer. They connect with each other on a deeper level with each other in their conversations. Active listening can create more deep and positive relationship between the individuals. Active listening is important in bringing changes in the speaker's perspective. Clinical research and evidence show that active listening is a catalyst in a person's personal growth. The growth is specific with personality change and group development. A person will more likely listen to themselves if someone else is allowing them to speak and get their message across.

11.7 Arguing skills- Negotiating skills

Argumentation is the thought process used to develop and present arguments. It is closely related to critical thinking and reasoning. Argument skills belong among the essential 21st century cognitive skills. We face complex issues that require careful, balanced reasoning to resolve. These truth values bear on the terminology used with arguments.

* Deductive arguments.
* Inductive arguments.
* Validity.
* Soundness.
* In informal logic.
* World-disclosing.

Negotiation is a method by which people settle differences. It is a process by which compromise or agreement is reached while avoiding argument and dispute. ... Negotiation skills can be of great benefit in resolving any differences that arise between you and others.

Here are five steps to the negotiation process, which are:

* Preparation and planning.
* Definition of ground rules.
* Clarification and justification.
* Bargaining and problem solving.
* Closure and implementation.

11.8 Introducing a chief guest - Introducing a programme
The information about the guest of honor would be included on the invitation:
Guests attending an event like this would, presumably, know this individual, so very few introductions would be necessary. But if you’re chief guest’s information is not going on the invitation, or guests aren’t receiving formal invitations, then you’d want to make introductions at the event itself. Be sure to include any titles your chief guest may have and his or her last name as a mark of respect.
Whether you have to speak before 1,000 people or just a team of your colleagues, it has become increasingly challenging to capture an audience's attention. As you compete with smartphone notifications and digital task lists, the first few seconds of your presentation will determine whether an audience continues listening or walks away—figuratively or literally.
So how do you get them hooked?
It’s vital to perfect your introduction. Typically speaking, a good introduction should accomplish three goals:
1. Get the attention of the audience
2. Clearly identify your subject
3. Tell the audience why this is important to them

11.9 Summarizing - evaluation & Analytical writing
These are the steps to writing a great summary:
1. Read the article, one paragraph at a time.
2. For each paragraph, underline the main idea sentence (topic sentence). If you can't underline the book, write that sentence on your computer or a piece of paper.
3. When you finish the article, read all the underlined sentences.
4. In your own words, write down one sentence that conveys the main idea. Start the sentence using the name of the author and title of the article (see format below).
5. Continue writing your summary by writing the other underlined sentences in your own words. Remember that you need to change both the words of the sentence and the word order. For more information, see video below.
6. Don't forget to use transition words to link your sentences together. See my list of transition words below to help you write your summary more effectively and make it more interesting to read.
7. Make sure you include the name of the author and article and use "author tags" (see list below) to let the reader know you are talking about what the author said and not your own ideas.
8. Re-read your piece. Does it flow well? Are there too many details? Not enough? Your summary should be as short and concise as possible.

Author Tag: You need to start your summary by telling the name of the article and the author. Here are three examples of how to do that (pay close attention to the punctuation):

First Sentence: Along with including the article's title and author's name, the first sentence should be the main point of the article. It should answer the question: What is this essay about?

Rest of Summary: The rest of your essay is going to give the reasons and evidence for that main statement. In other words, what is the main point the writer is trying to make and what are the supporting ideas he or she uses to prove it? Does the author bring up any opposing ideas, and if so, what does he or she do to refute them? Here is a sample sort of sentence:

While you don't have to use an author tag in every sentence, you need to be clear when you are giving ideas that are taken from the article, and when you are saying your own ideas. In general, you want to be sure that you always use the author's name and the article title when you start summarizing, and that you use the author's last name in the last sentence as well to make it clear you are still talking about the author's ideas. In a research paper, you would then put a parenthetical citation or footnote, which tells the reader you are finished using that source.

Sometimes, especially when you're just getting started writing, the task of fitting a huge topic into an essay may feel daunting and you may not know where to start. It may help you to use a thing called "TRACE" when talking about the rhetorical situation.

11.10 TRACE stands for Text, Reader, Author, Context, and Exigence

Text, Reader, and Author are easy to understand. When writing the analysis, you need to think about what kind of text it is and what the author wanted to have the audience think, do, or believe. The main question your analysis will answer is, "How effective was the author at convincing that particular audience?"

Context means several things: how the article fits into the history of discussion of that issue, the historical moment in time when the article is written, and the moment in time when a person reads the article.

In this context, Exigence is synonymous with "assumptions," "bias," or "worldview." Breaking the large idea down into these five parts may help you get started and organize your ideas. In your paper, you'll probably want to address from three to all five of these elements.

Each of the following elements can be one paragraph of your analysis. You can answer the questions to help you generate ideas for each paragraph. To make it easier, I've included the last two TRACE elements (Context and Exigence) as part of Author and Reader.
Text
1. How is the essay organized? What is effective or ineffective about the organization of the essay?
2. How does the author try to interest the reader?
3. How well does the author explain the main claims? Are these arguments logical?
4. Do the support and evidence seem adequate? Is the support convincing to the reader? Does the evidence actually prove the point the author is trying to make?

Author
1. Who is the author? What does he or she know about this subject?
2. What is the author's bias? Is the bias openly admitted? Does that make his or her argument more or less believable?
3. Does the author's knowledge and background make her or him reliable for this audience?
4. How does the author try to relate to the audience and establish common ground? Is it effective?
5. How does the author interest the audience? Does she or he make the reader want to know more?
6. Does the author explain enough about the history of this argument? Is anything left out?

Reader
1. Who is the reader?
2. How would they react to these arguments?
3. How is this essay effective or ineffective for this audience?
4. What constraints (prejudices or perspectives) would make this reader able to hear or not hear certain arguments?
5. What is the exigence (events in this moment in time which affect the need for this conversation) that makes the audience interested in this issue?

Generally, your response will be the end of your essay, but you may include your response throughout the paper as you select what to summarize and analyze. Your response will also be evident to the reader by the tone that you use and the words you select to talk about the article and writer. However, your response in the conclusion will be more direct and specific. It will use the information you have already provided in your summary and analysis to explain how you feel about this article. Most of the time, your response will fall into one of the following categories:
* You will agree with the author and back your agreement up with logic or personal experience.
* You will disagree with the author because of your experience or knowledge (although you may have sympathy with the author’s position).
* You will agree with part of the author’s points and disagree with others.
* You will agree or disagree with the author but feel that there is a more important or different point which needs to be discussed in addition to what is in the article
Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on Reading Comprehension

Unit – End Exercises
1. What is Connotation?
2. What is Denotation?

Answer to check your progress
1. A connotation is a commonly understood cultural or emotional association that some word or phrase carries, in addition to its explicit or literal meaning, which is its denotation. A connotation is frequently described as either positive or negative, with regard to its pleasing or displeasing emotional connection. For example, a stubborn person may be described as being either strong-willed or pig-headed; although these have the same literal meaning (stubborn), strong-willed connotes admiration for the level of someone's will (a positive connotation), while pig-headed connotes frustration in dealing with someone (a negative connotation).

2. Denotation is a translation of a sign to its meaning, precisely to its literal meaning, more or less like dictionaries try to define it. Denotation is sometimes contrasted to connotation, which includes associated meanings. The denotation meaning of a word is perceived through visible concepts, whereas connotation meaning evokes sensible attitudes towards the phenomena. Example 1. For example, denotation of the word “blue” is the color blue, but its connotation is “sad”—read the following sentence: The blueberry is very blue. We understand this sentence by its denotative meaning—it describes the literal color of the fruit.

Suggested Reading


Media play a big part in influencing people. Whether the goal is to sell a product, impart an important case or set the standards in today’s society, they function as the fourth estate, meaning that their power is immense. Still, media written in certain languages have more power than others. The question is therefore, what role has the English-language media in this maze of languages and cultures we know as the international society? In the world of media there is especially one language that stands out, and that is English. It is the native language for approximately 360 million people and the second language for about 430 million people, giving newspapers and magazines, let alone articles on the internet, a broad audience. It is, therefore, natural that most information will be found in English and that the different media have more penetrating power than, for instance, Norwegian-language media. An example of
that are articles written on subjects like medicine. Today, all the most influential medical journals are written in English, and English has become the language of choice at international conferences. Where the medical terms were in former times derived from Latin or Greek, English has now become the joint language. The focus in today’s society has shifted from using different languages, towards having a joint language one can communicate with, namely English. That gives the English-language media a central role transmitting information.

However, there are other examples which are more pressing when showing the role English-language media has in the international society. Even though it can be wrong to pin the responsibility of today’s expectations regarding looks on only one language, the magazines in English are central in developing an international standard. Despite the fashion industry doing what they want, magazines have the choice not to publish pictures of thin models and stop retouch images. As English is an important language in the fashion industry, and the magazines written in English have a big audience, they help communicating images which can hurt their readers’ self-image. Furthermore, TV-shows in English and films from Hollywood often help contributing to the focus on looks and appearance. Films, TV-shows and magazines in English are, therefore, important when it comes to setting an international standard on how people should look and act.

To conclude, English-language media play a very central role in the international society, probably the most central, as it is read on a global scale and reach a bigger audience than most other languages. Consequently, it is important for the media to be aware that power and not misuse it.

To become a news reader anchors English fluency is very important. Even in media shows, everyone gives priority to the English language. Many websites are written and created in English, other site languages are given the option to translate their site into English only because English is the common language majority of people know to read, write, learn and speak. No matter where ever you are in the world you can easily find English newspapers and books. Your mother tongue may differ from each other language but English is most commonly used for many of us.

If you are working in media especially in the position like anchoring, you will have to travel to many places for your shows, in that case, it is necessary to know English and have a good flow when you communicate with others. You can easily travel around the world if you have better understanding and fluency in English. While booking ticket for movie or travel English is the common option available in all sites.
12.2 Foreign words in English
Many foreign phrases have taken their place in English speaking and writing. There is some confusion about whether foreign phrases should be italicized in English writing. There is no definitive rule regarding this. However, by convention, a foreign phrase should be italicized unless you have a strong expectation that your readers will know its meaning. This is a matter of judgment and it is safe to use italics when you write foreign phrases.

12.3 Reading reviews
A review is an evaluation of a publication, service, or company such as a movie (a movie review), video game (video game review), musical composition (music review of a composition or recording), book (book review); a piece of hardware like a car, home appliance, or computer; or an event or performance, such as a live music concert, play, musical theater show, dance show, or art exhibition. In addition to a critical evaluation, the review's author may assign the work a rating to indicate its relative merit. More loosely, an author may review current events, trends, or items in the news. A compilation of reviews may itself be called a review. The New York Review of Books, for instance, is a collection of essays on literature, culture, and current affairs. National Review, founded by William F. Buckley, Jr., is an influential conservative magazine, and Monthly Review is a long-running socialist periodical.

12.4 Listening to interpret & analyze
Effective listening is the process of analyzing the sounds, organizing them into recognizable patterns, interpreting the patterns and understanding the message by inferring the meaning. Listening is not to be confused with hearing. Hearing is a physiological process which involves receiving the sound waves by the eardrum and transferring them to the brain. Listening is more than hearing. It involves the process of interpretation and inference. Listening is extremely important for the communication process. Many of the problems we experience with people are primarily attributable to ineffective listening or lack of listening. Good listening skills are the foundation of effective human relations. Good listeners can be good negotiators and can handle crisis situations successfully.

The objectives of learning may be one or more of the following:
To learn
To increase one understands
To advice or counsel
To relieve one’s boredom
12.5 Importance of Listening
A lot of one’s time is spent on listening. One quarter of our waking time is spent in listening. Research shows that at the workplace, on an average, personnel spend about 32.7 per cent of their time listening, 25.8 percent of their time speaking and 22.6 percent of their time writing. Effective listening is one of the most crucial skills for becoming a successful manager. This requires paying attention, interpreting and remembering sound stimuli. Listening is an important skill to be inculcated by managers and workers.

12.6 Communication is not complete without effective listening.
An attentive listener stimulates better speaking by the speaker.
A good listener learns more than an indifferent listener.
A good listener can restructure vogue speaking in a way that produces clearer meaning.
A good listener learns to detect prejudices, assumptions and attitudes

12.7 Listening Process
For listening to be effective and meaningful, the process of listening should involve the following steps.

12.7.1 Hearing
Hearing is the first essential step in the listening process and relates to the sensory perception of sound. The listener further processes the perceived sound. For learning to be effective, hearing needs to be done with attention and concentration.

12.7.2 Filtering
The next step involves sensing and filtering of heard sounds. The heard message is categorized as wanted or unwanted, useful or useless. The unwanted message is discarded. In this step, the sense of judgment of the individual comes into play, that is, the filtering process is subjective and a person chooses to retain what makes sense to him

12.7.3 Comprehending
The next level of listening consists of comprehending or understanding. The listener understands or interprets what the speaker has tried to convey. This activity can be described as absorbing, grasping or assimilating. In order to grasp the meaning of the message, the listener uses his knowledge, experience, perception and cognitive power. The verbal and auditory message is coupled with non-verbal communication to understand it.

12.7.4 Remembering
Remembering relates to a process whereby the assimilated message is stored in memory to facilitate future recall. Remembering assumes significance because many times messages received are meant not for immediate consideration but for future use.
12.7.5 Responding
For listening to be complete, a response is important. Responding to a message may take place at the end of the communication, immediately after or later. When it is stored for future use, the response may take place later. However, if there is a need to seek clarification or to empathize with the listener, it may take place earlier. Responding may also take the form of prodding or prompting in order to show that the message is being received and comprehended.

12.8 Presenting and marketing a product
‘Product presentations are an important part of selling your product to prospective customers. In many cases, this will be the customer's first introduction to your company and potentially your product. First impressions are critical. There are also times when it is important to sell your product to the people inside your company as well as investors. Proper preparation is vital to presenting your product in the best light possible.

The objective of the product presentation is different depending upon the target audience and the presentation should be adjusted accordingly. It is important to know your audience and why they are interested enough to hear your presentation.

Before you even start building your presentation, be sure you know the following information:
Objective/call to action - At the end of your product presentation you want something to happen, either you want a customer to move forward to evaluate your product, your management to buy into what you are doing with the product, your sales people eager to sell your product, or an investor or your management to provide additional funding of your product.
Target audience - Who are you giving the presentation to? (Prospective customers, investors, management) What is their industry like right now? What are their needs and immediate concerns? What are their individual goals? Where is their pain?
Orientation - How much does your audience know of your product and other similar products? What is special about the way this audience looks at your product? Do they have any preconceived notions? Are they looking at competitors? If so, which ones? What are their special interests?
Target presenter - Who will be giving the presentation (you, sales person, company executive)?

It is helpful to write the above information down before building the product presentation so that you can go back and review it if you get stuck on any given point. You will want to refer to it later to make sure the presentation meets the objective and you will also need it for doing practice runs.
Once you have your basic product presentation, it can be modified for other presenters and other audiences, but it is important to have a target audience and a target objective when building the initial presentation. Failure to do so can result in a presentation that doesn't speak to the audience and one that is not focused on their needs.

The following is a basic outline for a product presentation. You will note that the maximum number of slides is twenty. Most sales calls allow 30 minutes for the formal presentation, at two minutes a slide, fifteen slides is the appropriate number. It is important to keep your presentation precise otherwise your point will be drowned out in detail.

Introduction - This is normally just a title slide where the speaker introduces themselves, and the point of the product presentation. This is where you want to hook your audience and tell them what is in it for them. If you are not going to be giving the presentation you may want to have a note slide with the point on it.

Agenda - An agenda is optional, but provides you with an opportunity to tell your audience what you are going to cover in your presentation. It avoids people asking questions early in the presentation about material you will be covering later.

Company Information - This is a way to establish credibility and to make the audience feel comfortable with your company. Ways to do this include customer lists, high-profile executives or advisors, information on funding (if a private company), awards and major milestones. Don't spend too much time on this; you don't want your audience falling asleep. In fact, in my more recent presentations I have moved this to the back, after I have the audience's attention.

Positioning - Successful products have a unique technology or positioning that sets them apart from other products on the market. You want to introduce this aspect of your product up front to let your audience know how your product is different and why they should listen to the rest of your presentation. Use this as an attention getter. This should be done in terms of the problem that they have and that you are solving with your product. Be sure to present this in terms of your audience and their pain. Performing a positioning exercise prior to building your presentation is very helpful. This part of your presentation must be very crisp and to the point.

Product description - Clearly describe your product in terms that your audience will understand. It may be helpful to have a chart with the product components. You want to give the audience a frame of reference for the features and benefits that they are going to see. You also want them to know how your product fits into their existing environment. Show how the product interfaces with other products or systems they may be using.

Clearly articulated benefits as they relate to your target audience - You can use a features and benefits list or just walk through the features and benefits. Whatever you do, do not forget the benefits! They may be obvious to you because you live and breathe the product, but your
audience should have them clearly called out and they must relate to their
needs.
Examples/successes - At this point in the presentation your audience
should be familiar with your product and why it is different and better. In
order to drive this point home use examples of how your product is being
used and how customers have benefited from the product. (1-3 slides)
Closing argument - This is your opportunity for a 'call to action'. You
want summarize your product presentation, reiterate the point of the
presentation, and ask your audience to do something, if that is the point
of your presentation.

Use Examples
Use examples whenever possible. Examples help to illustrate your points
and provide a frame of reference for those people in your audience that
don't already have one.

Simplify
Keep slides as simple as possible. Lots of text on a slide makes it difficult
to read and it loses its impact. Make sure the slides will be readable from
the back of the room. If you are not giving the presentation, you may feel
compelled to add more text to the slides - provide speaker's notes instead.
If you are using PowerPoint, don't get carried away with colors and many
different transitions. Pick a format and stick with it so that you don't draw
attention away from your subject.
One of the most effective presentations that I ever saw was done with a
single clip art picture in the middle of each slide. The picture makes a
point without drawing attention away from the speaker.

Easy-to-Read Fonts
A san-serif font (a font that does not have the little lines at the top and
bottom, as in the headings of this document) is easier to read for bullets
on slides.

Style
A presentation that uses the default PowerPoint fonts and lots of different
primary colors looks like a presentation that was slapped together with
little thought. Not everyone is a graphic artist, but you can learn some
basic principles and apply them to your slides.30 Below are a few key
points, but be sure to read Robin William's The Non-Designer's Design
Book for more tips.
‘Use a presentation template and then use the colors from the template
(or ones in the same family) for all charts and graphs.
Use alignment carefully. If your template is left or right aligned, use that
alignment throughout the presentation.
Remove harsh lines. PowerPoint always puts a dark line around any box
that you draw. These lines make the drawings look crude and harsh. By

30 www.mitso.by
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Url: https://www.mitso.by/images/stories/kaf_inyaz/umk/umk_fakultativ.docx
removing the lines your eye focuses more on the content of the box rather than the boxes themselves. Additional lines and arrows don't have to be dark either, try making them thicker and lighter so that they don't draw attention away from the point of the slide.

**Provide Speaker's Notes**
In order to keep the bullets on your slides concise; you may want to consider providing speaker notes to people that may be giving your presentation. If you do provide speakers notes, keep them short and concise and use bullets to make it easy to read. Remember that the more text you put on the speaker's notes, the less likely the speaker is to read it before the presentation. I can't tell you how many times I have seen a presentation where the speaker says, 'I think this slide is trying to say'. Both the speaker and the marketing group that provides the presentation look bad.

If you are using PowerPoint, print the slides with the speaker's notes so that the presenter does not get the notes out of sync with the presentation.

**Provide Handouts**
You will probably handout copies of the slides. It is always nice to print the slides in a format where there is room for the audience to take notes. You may want to use handouts in addition to providing copies of the slides. Often, to keep slides simple, you may compromise the ability for the viewer to use it as a reference later or you may have charts or back-up information that has too much detail to include in your presentation. In these cases it may help to include handouts and refer to them during your presentation.

12. 9 Use Themes for Group Presentations
If there are a group of people presenting it is helpful to use a theme and weave it throughout all the presentations. This provides a sense of cohesiveness to the entire presentation.

A good agenda is an important part of group presentations. You want to introduce all the speakers and let the audience know the topic each speaker will be discussing.

**Mark Confidential**
If the presentation is confidential, don't forget to mark it confidential. Slides often get copied at customer sites and can easily end up in your competitors' hands.

**When you are the Presenter**
Practice your presentation. No one ever has the time to do it, but even if you are used to winging presentations, the following are the benefits of practice:
Your pitch will be more powerful, polished, and professional
You are more likely to accomplish your objective
You look better
There is nothing worse than watching a presenter bring up a slide and then try to interpret it as if this is the first time they are seeing it. The slides are to support your presentation. I will often give the presentation
to a practice audience within the company first before giving it to an external audience. You will get some great suggestions from people who have a slightly different perspective. This is especially true if you can give your pitch to a different department. I have found that giving a product presentation to the engineering group will provide some great insights. Before you give your presentation to a practice audience, be sure to go over the "Points to Consider" above with your audience so that they understand your objective, target audience, and that target audience's perspective.

Additionally you should add slides that talk specifically to your audience. Identify the issues and problems that they are dealing with or tell them about how their competition is doing something. Then show them how your product will provide them with a competitive advantage.

**Other helpful hints:**
Use gestures to make things visual and clear.
Use an expressive voice to emphasize points and show your enthusiasm for your product.
Always stand, even when you are talking to a small audience. Standing projects more energy.
Use highlights or colors on charts to emphasize an important point. (Though don't over use this, and don't use red unless you want to set off alarms.)
Use controversy - It is sometimes useful to start your presentation with a controversial statement to grab your audience's attention.
Use metaphors to help with visualization.
Make sure you have a smooth verbal transition between slides for a very polished presentation. (This is where the practice really pays off.)

**Product Presentation Checklist**
- Identify Objective
- Identify Target Audience
- Identify the Point of the Presentation
- Include Positioning
- Include Company Overview
- Include Production Description
- Include Benefits
- Include Examples
- Identify and Include Closing Argument

Can the slides be read from across the room?
Do you need speaker notes?
Is the presentation proprietary?
Are there handouts to be included?³¹

³¹ [www.mitso.by](https://www.mitso.by)
**Scene description**
Scene description is the second most important part of a script. While the dialogue is where the writer opens up and can explode with creativity, the scene description is where economy of language is most important. This can be almost as difficult as dialogue.
Scene Description sets up what the characters are doing physically, and how they interact with each other and their physical surroundings. Because the reader is trying to imagine the film the writer is telling, scene description should be lucid in description without being too detailed. Details tend to slow the reader, breaking the fluidity of the imagination.

**Spacing**
The Scene Description should scan easily. This is accomplished by cutting the longer passages of description into blocks of not more than four to six lines. Action sequences which often last a page or more should never fill the page. The break of a blank white line every four to six lines makes it easier for the reader to keep their place while scanning a line. Again, your concern is to keep them in the vision of the scene.

**Detail**
If it is not absolutely essential, don't put it in. The color of the walls in the lobby of a hospital is not important. It may be important if there is a Diego Rivera mural of oppressed people being pulled from war rubble.

**Capitals**
Each time a new character comes into the screenplay, give their name in full capitals. Do this only once per character in the screenplay. Capitals in Scene Description should be minimal. When the production manager and the assistant director prepare the screenplay for budgeting and breakdown they will go through the script and CAPITALIZE the more important elements of the Scene Description such as sounds, props, sets, etc. You need not worry about this. Again, capitalization takes away from the reader’s fluid enjoyment. The rare case where you might want to capitalize a word is when you need impact. You might want accent the SLAM of the door which makes the character leap for fear. You also might like to capitalize the first time the FOGHORN blares and the shipwrecked lifeboat sailors know the are near another ship. But don't overuse this.

**Brevity**
The biggest problem with writing Scene Description is to keep it simple, to use a style which creates a visual image in your reader's mind. The convention of a novel allows the writer to spend a great deal of time describing the emotional life of characters. This is not accepted in the screenplay. The emotional life of the characters is implied in their dialogue and in the conceptual structure of the story. What is important is how the story and the characters interact. And avoid long pages of description that are not action sequences. Nothing bores a reader more than a beautiful montage which has been
rendered and detailed with grueling and meaningfully symbolic and poetic descriptions of images which should provoke enormous and significant philosophical and emotional transformations in the audience. There is nothing wrong with a meaningful and symbolic montage sequence. In fact, there are not enough of them in film. Just don't make them boring to read.

CAMERA DIRECTION: Some readers take offense at having to read the words "WE SEE" or "THE CAMERA DOLLIES IN ON." When reading a script, the reader wants to be there in the story. They want to see what the audience would see at the theater, not what the crew and the extras see making a movie.

Here is a Scene Description

The CAMERA is CLOSE UP on the back of a door with the name "Spam Sade, Private Investigator" backwards on the glass. The CAMERA CUTS TO the hand of the detective pulling a bottle of Gorgon's Gin from the top right drawer of the desk. The CAMERA PULLS BACK to reveal SPAM SADE, a gritty faced private detective in his late forties, as he pours himself a glass of gin. He sits back, stretching his pained back, and slugs down a shot of the gin. He looks up and around. The CAMERA PANS across the sordid office, coming to rest on a MEDIUM SHOT of the door. There is the CLICK, CLICK of high heels in the hall as a shadow rises on it, the silhouette of tall, slim woman in a broad veiled hat. The shadow seems reluctant to enter then forces the door open. The door opens revealing the sultry, thirtyish SHARY MAUNESSEY. We don't see her face until the door opens enough to let the desk lamp light it. That does describe the scene and makes certain that the filmmakers know what they should do with it. But then you might have written:

The light in the hall backlights the reversed name on the door glass: "Spam Sade, Private Investigator."

A man's hand pulls open the desk drawer and removes a half empty bottle of gin.

SPAM SADE, gritty, late forties, pours himself a glass, leans back trying to ease the pain out of his back, and slugs down the gin. He surveys his sordid office, stopping his gaze on the door at the sound of high heels approaching.

The silhouette of a slim woman in a veiled hat rises on the glass as she approaches. After a hesitation, SHARY MAUNESSEY opens to door, her face slowly revealed to the light of the desk lamp. They both say the same thing. One is a dictatorial explanation of how to shoot a scene. The other is a seductive image which will end up being shot exactly the way it's written and probably with the exact camera movement and cutting as the first passage. Which would you rather read? This would provoke you to say, "Damn, that would make a great scene." Which makes you imagine it?

A trick is to cut the paragraph when you want the camera to cut. This can be a problem if you want a long sequence in one shot but you can work out your own language for it. Some scripts have camera direction when it
would take too much time to say it economically. Action scripts often use Scene Slugs to cut an action sequence into shots which means the directions are less obtrusive since they are not actually part of the Scene Description. There are many creative ways to get around being boringly technical.

**12.10 Writing recommendations**

Writing a personal recommendation letter or character reference can be a challenge. After all, these letters are generally required for big life events, such as a new job, a home purchase, or admission to a program or school. Perhaps a few personal recommendation letter samples will help.

**12.10.1 Who to Ask for a Recommendation**

Personal recommendations and character reference letters can be written by teachers, neighbors, business acquaintances, clients, vendors, and other recommenders who can attest to an applicant's skills and abilities. A recommendation letter should be tailored to both the person being recommended and to the position or responsibilities involved. Your letter should describe how you know the person and why you’re recommending them. Also review how to write a reference letter for a friend, if you're writing a personal letter.

**12.10.2 How to Use Letter Samples**

A letter sample can help you decide what kind of content you should include, as well as how to format your letter. While letter samples are a great starting point for your own letter, you should always be flexible.32

‘If you’re the person requesting a reference, you might send a letter sample to the writer to help guide his or her own letter. However, be sure to provide the writer with clear instructions on what information you need them to include and give them a resume or list of your skills and experiences. You do not want them to simply copy and paste a sample letter.

**12.10.3 Tips on Writing Personal Recommendation Letters**

Think carefully before saying yes. Only say you will write the recommendation if you can recommend the person without reservation. If you're asked to write a reference and don't feel comfortable giving one, it's appropriate to politely decline the request for a reference. Follow a business letter format. Use the official business letter format when writing your letter. If time is of the essence, you might consider

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32 [www.thebalancecareers.com](https://www.thebalancecareers.com)
Fetched: 2019-10-22T08:00:00
sending a recommendation email instead of a letter. Review this list of the information that should be included in a recommendation letter.
Focus on the job description. Ask the person for whom you’re writing the letter for a copy of the job description. This way, you can focus on the requirements of the position. Try to include language from the job description in your letter. Even if you are writing a more general recommendation, you can still ask the person about the types of jobs they will be applying for.
Explain how you know the person, and for how long. Begin your letter with this basic information. If you have known the person for a long time, be sure to emphasize this.
Focus on one or two traits. In the body of your letter, focus on one or two qualities in this person that make him or her good fit for the job. Provide specific examples of ways in which the person has demonstrated these various traits in the past.
Remain positive. State that you think this person is a strong candidate. You might say something like, “I recommend this person without reservation.” You want to help this candidate stand out from the other applicants.
Share your contact information. Provide a way for the employer to contact you if they have further questions. Include your email address, telephone number, or both at the end of the letter.
Follow the submission guidelines. Ask the person for whom you’re writing the letter how to submit it. Make sure you follow any requirements, especially about where and when to send it and its requested format (for example, PDF, physical letter, etc.). If there is a submission deadline, be sure to submit it prior to the due date.

What to Include in Your Letter
A personal reference letter should provide information on who you are, your connection with the person you are recommending, why they are qualified, and the specific skills they have that you are endorsing. It should also include specific examples of times they demonstrated these skills. Review this template for ideas and suggestions on what to write and how to provide a compelling reference:

Salutation
When writing a character reference letter, include a salutation (Dear Dr. Jones, Dear Ms. Matthews, etc.). If you are writing a general letter, say "To Whom it May Concern" or don't include a salutation and start with the first paragraph of the letter.

Paragraph 1
The first paragraph of the character reference letter explains how you know the person you are recommending and why you are qualified to write a recommendation letter to recommend employment, college, or graduate school. With a personal letter, you are writing a recommendation letter because you know the person and their character, rather than because you have direct experience with their work or education.
Paragraph 2
The second paragraph of a reference letter contains specific information on the person you are writing about, including why they are qualified, what they can contribute, and why you are providing a reference letter. Use specific examples of times the employer demonstrated these skills or qualities. If necessary, use more than one paragraph to provide details.

Summary
This section of the reference letter contains a brief summary of why you are recommending the person. State that you "highly recommend" the person or you "recommend without reservation" or something similar.

Conclusion
The concluding paragraph of a reference letter contains an offer to provide more information. Include a phone number and/or email address within the paragraph and include the phone number and email address in the return address section of your letter, or in your email signature.

12.11 Writing a news report
Write a headline. Your headline should be accurate, clear, and easy to understand. Use key words from the story and keep it straight and plain. Use active and short action verbs in your headline. The headline should accurately lead readers to what the report is about. The headline should be attention grabbing, but not exaggerate or mislead. Capitalize the first word of the headline and any proper nouns after that. If you're having trouble coming up with a headline, you might try writing it last instead. It may be easier to think of a headline after you've finished your article. For example, your headline might read: "Armed robbery at Portland farmer's market"

Write a byline and place line. The byline goes directly underneath the headline. This is where you put your name and clarify who you are. The place line is where the article takes place and is written in all caps. Use AP Style state abbreviations.
An example of a byline: Sue Smith, Staff Reporter
An example of a place line: EUGENE, ORE.

Use a hard news lead. A news lead (or lede) is the opening paragraph of a report or article and is often considered the most important part. A news report is not the time for a verbose and artful lead. Keep your lead to the point, fitting as much of the basic information as you can into your lead. A lead is only one or maybe two sentences and summarizes the news story; the who, what, when, where, why, and how of you story should be emphasized in the lead.

33 www.thebalancecareers.com
Fetched: 2019-10-22T08:00:00
Url: https://www.thebalancecareers.com/personal-recommendation-letter-samples-2062963
Don’t include people's names in the lead (save that information for later), unless everyone knows who they are (i.e. President Obama).

For example: A Seattle man was caught selling stolen cars at his auto shop on Tuesday when a police officer posed as a customer.

Write the body of your report. This is going to consist of the facts, but more detailed and specific than in your lead. Use the information you collected and gathered at the scene and in interviews. Write your report in third person and from a neutral perspective. Make sure your story conveys information and not an opinion.

Include quotes in the news report. Quotes can be included in your news report to convey information. Always introduce who you are quoting followed by the exact words that they said. Use their full name the first time you mention them then only use their last name.

For example: Mary Quibble has been the director of the children's theater for six years. “I love the children and how much they care about these performances,” Quibble said. “There are 76 kids in the programs. They range in age from 7 to 16 years old.”

Always include attributions. Unless the information is common knowledge, always attribute where you got it. You can get in trouble for not giving credit to someone. This is also important in case a fact is wrong, then it will be known who got the fact wrong and that it was not you.

For example: The woman ran out of the house at 11 p.m. when she heard the burglar enter, police said.

Write in hard news style. You don't want to use overly descriptive language when writing a news report. Just stick to the facts and keep the sentences short and concise. Use active language and strong verbs.

Speak in past tense when writing a news report.

Start a new paragraph whenever there is a new thought (this might mean you have paragraphs that are as short as a sentence or two)

Write your news report in AP Style.

Group created written reports giving instruction on various aspects of target vocabulary

According to Steven Stahl (2005), “Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world.” We continue to develop vocabulary throughout our lives. Words are powerful. Words open up possibilities, and of course, that’s what we want for all of our students.

Key Concepts

**12.12 Differences in Early Vocabulary Development**

We know that young children acquire vocabulary indirectly, first by listening when others speak or read to them, and then by using words to talk to others. As children begin to read and write, they acquire more words through understanding what they are reading and then incorporate those words into their speaking and writing.
Vocabulary knowledge varies greatly among learners. The word knowledge gap between groups of children begins before they enter school. Why do some students have a richer, fuller vocabulary than some of their classmates?

Language rich home with lots of verbal stimulation
Wide background experiences
Read to at home and at school
Read a lot independently
Early development of word consciousness
Why do some students have a limited, inadequate vocabulary compared to most of their classmates?
Speaking/vocabulary not encouraged at home
Limited experiences outside of home
Limited exposure to books
Reluctant reader
Second language—English language learners
Children who have been encouraged by their parents to ask questions and to learn about things and ideas come to school with oral vocabularies many times larger than children from disadvantaged homes. Without intervention this gap grows ever larger as students proceed through school (Hart and Risley, 1995).

How Vocabulary Affects Reading Development
From the research, we know that vocabulary supports reading development and increases comprehension. Students with low vocabulary scores tend to have low comprehension and students with satisfactory or high vocabulary scores tend to have satisfactory or high comprehension scores.
The report of the National Reading Panel states that the complex process of comprehension is critical to the development of children’s reading skills and cannot be understood without a clear understanding of the role that vocabulary development and instruction play in understanding what is read (NRP, 2000).
Chall’s classic 1990 study showed that students with low vocabulary development were able to maintain their overall reading test scores at expected levels through grade four, but their mean scores for word recognition and word meaning began to slip as words became more abstract, technical, and literary. Declines in word recognition and word meaning continued, and by grade seven, word meaning scores had fallen to almost three years below grade level, and mean reading comprehension was almost a year below. Jeanne Chall coined the term “the fourth-grade slump” to describe this pattern in developing readers (Chall, Jacobs, and Baldwin, 1990).

Incidental and Intentional Vocabulary Learning
How do we close the gap for students who have limited or inadequate vocabularies? The National Reading Panel (2000) concluded that there is no single research-based method for developing vocabulary and closing the gap. From its analysis, the panel recommended using a variety of
indirect (incidental) and direct (intentional) methods of vocabulary instruction.

Incidental Vocabulary Learning
Most students acquire vocabulary incidentally through indirect exposure to words at home and at school—by listening and talking, by listening to books read aloud to them, and by reading widely on their own. The amount of reading is important to long-term vocabulary development (Cunningham and Stanovich, 1998). Extensive reading provides students with repeated or multiple exposures to words and is also one of the means by which students see vocabulary in rich contexts (Kamil and Hiebert, 2005).

12.13 Intentional Vocabulary Learning
Students need to be explicitly taught methods for intentional vocabulary learning. According to Michael Graves (2000), effective intentional vocabulary instruction includes:
Teaching specific words (rich, robust instruction) to support understanding of texts containing those words.
Teaching word-learning strategies that students can use independently.
Promoting the development of word consciousness and using word play activities to motivate and engage students in learning new words.

Research-Supported Vocabulary-Learning Strategies
Students need a wide range of independent word-learning strategies. Vocabulary instruction should aim to engage students in actively thinking about word meanings, the relationships among words, and how we can use words in different situations. This type of rich, deep instruction is most likely to influence comprehension (Graves, 2006; McKeown and Beck, 2004).

Student-Friendly Definitions
The meaning of a new word should be explained to students rather than just providing a dictionary definition for the word—which may be difficult for students to understand. According to Isabel Beck, two basic principles should be followed in developing student-friendly explanations or definitions (Beck et al., 2013):
Characterize the word and how it is typically used.
Explain the meaning using everyday language—language that is accessible and meaningful to the student.
Sometimes a word’s natural context (in text or literature) is not informative or helpful for deriving word meanings (Beck et al., 2013). It is useful to intentionally create and develop instructional contexts that provide strong clues to a word’s meaning. These are usually created by teachers, but they can sometimes be found in commercial reading programs.

Defining Words within Context
Research shows that when words and easy-to-understand explanations are introduced in context, knowledge of those words increases (Biemiller and Boote, 2006) and word meanings are better learned (Stahl and Fairbanks, 1986). When an unfamiliar word is likely to affect
comprehension, the most effective time to introduce the words meaning may be at the moment the word is met in the text.

12.13.1 Using Context Clues
Research by Nagy and Scott (2000) showed that students use contextual analysis to infer the meaning of a word by looking closely at surrounding text. Since students encounter an enormous number of words as they read, some researchers believe that even a small improvement in the ability to use context clues has the potential to produce substantial, long-term vocabulary growth (Nagy, Herman, and Anderson, 1985; Nagy, Anderson, and Herman, 1987; Swanborn and de Glopper, 1999).

12.13.2 Sketching the Words
For many students, it is easier to remember a word’s meaning by making a quick sketch that connects the word to something personally meaningful to the student. The student applies each target word to a new, familiar context. The student does not have to spend a lot of time making a great drawing. The important thing is that the sketch makes sense and helps the student connect with the meaning of the word.

12.13.3 Applying the Target Words
Applying the target words provides another context for learning word meanings. When students are challenged to apply the target words to their own experiences, they have another opportunity to understand the meaning of each word at a personal level. This allows for deep processing of the meaning of each word.

12.13.4 Analyzing Word Parts
The ability to analyze word parts also helps when students are faced with unknown vocabulary. If students know the meanings of root words and affixes, they are more likely to understand a word containing these word parts. Explicit instruction in word parts includes teaching meanings of word parts and disassembling and reassembling words to derive meaning (Baumann et al., 2002; Baumann, Edwards, Boland, Olejnik, and Kame'enui, 2003; Graves, 2004).

12.13.5 Semantic Mapping
Semantic maps help students develop connections among words and increase learning of vocabulary words (Baumann et al., 2003; Heimlich and Pittleman, 1986). For example, by writing an example, a non-example, a synonym, and an antonym, students must deeply process the words persist.

12.13.6 Word Consciousness
Word consciousness is an interest in and awareness of words (Anderson and Nagy, 1992; Graves and Watts-Taffe, 2002). Students who are word conscious are aware of the words around them—those they read and hear and those they write and speak (Graves and Watts-Taffe, 2002). Word-conscious students use words skillfully. They are aware of the subtleties of word meaning. They are curious about language, and they enjoy playing with words and investigating the origins and histories of words.
Teachers need to take word-consciousness into account throughout their instructional day—not just during vocabulary lessons (Scott and Nagy, 2004). It is important to build a classroom “rich in words” (Beck et al., 2002). Students should have access to resources such as dictionaries, thesauruses, word walls, crossword puzzles, Scrabble and other word games, literature, poetry books, joke books, and word-play activities. Teachers can promote the development of word consciousness in many ways:

Language categories: Students learn to make finer distinctions in their word choices if they understand the relationships among words, such as synonyms, antonyms, and homographs.

Figurative language: The ability to deal with figures of speech is also a part of word-consciousness (Scott and Nagy 2004). The most common figures of speech are similes, metaphors, and idioms.

Once language categories and figurative language have been taught, students should be encouraged to watch for examples of these in all content areas.

**Check your Progress- 1**

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on English and its Importance in Media

Unit – End Exercises

1. Explain the Foreign words in English
2. Write the Importance of Listening

Answer to check your progress

1. Many foreign phrases have taken their place in English speaking and writing. There is some confusion about whether foreign phrases should be italicized in English writing. There is no definitive rule regarding this. However, by convention, a foreign phrase should be italicized unless you have a strong expectation that your readers will know its meaning. This is a matter of judgment and it is safe to use italics when you write foreign phrases.

2. A lot of one’s time is spent on listening. One quarter of our waking time is spent in listening. Research shows that at the workplace, on an average, personnel spend about 32.7 per cent of their time listening, 25.8 percent of their time speaking and 22.6 percent of their time writing. Effective listening is one of the most crucial skills for becoming a successful manager. This requires
paying attention, interpreting and remembering sound stimuli. Listening is an important skill to be inculcated by managers and workers.

Suggested Reading
1. www.mitso.by
   Url: https://www.mitso.by/images/stories/kaf_inyaz/umk/umk_fakultativ.docx

2. www.mitso.by
   Url: https://www.mitso.by/images/stories/kaf_inyaz/umk/umk_fakultativ.docx

3. www.thebalancecareers.com
   Url: https://www.thebalancecareers.com/personal-recommendation-letter-samples-2062963

4. www.thebalancecareers.com
   Url: https://www.thebalancecareers.com/personal-recommendation-letter-samples-2062963
13.1 British /American English
The British actually introduced the language to the Americas when they reached these lands by sea between the 16th and 17th centuries. At that time, spelling had not yet been standardized. It took the writing of the first dictionaries to set in stone how these words appeared. In the UK, the dictionary was compiled by London-based scholars. Meanwhile, in the United States, the lexicographer was a man named Noah Webster. Allegedly, he changed how the words were spelled to make the American version different from the British as a way of showing cultural independence from its mother country.
In terms of speech, the differences between American and British English actually took place after the first settlers arrived in America. These groups of people spoke using what was called rhotic speech, where the ‘r’ sounds of words are pronounced. Meanwhile, the higher classes in the UK wanted to distinguish the way they spoke from the common masses by softening their pronunciation of the ‘r’ sounds. Since the elite even back then were considered the standard for being fashionable, other people began to copy their speech, until it eventually became the common way of speaking in the south of England.
13.2 Spelling differences
British and American English have some spelling differences. The common ones are presented in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British English</th>
<th>American English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-oe/-ae (e.g. anaemia, diarrhoea, encyclopaedia)</td>
<td>-e- (e.g. anemia, diarrhea, and encyclopedia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-e- (e.g. anemia, diarrhoea, encyclopaedia)</td>
<td>-t (e.g. burnt, dreamt, leapt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ed (e.g. burned, dreamed, leaped)</td>
<td>-ed (e.g. burned, dreamed, leaped)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ence (e.g. defence, offence, licence)</td>
<td>-ence (e.g. defence, offence, licence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ell (e.g. cancelled, jeweller, marvellous)</td>
<td>-ell (e.g. cancelled, jeweller, marvellous)</td>
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<tr>
<td>-el (e.g. canceled, jeweler, marvelous)</td>
<td>-el (e.g. canceled, jeweler, marvelous)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ise (e.g. appetiser, familiarise, organise)</td>
<td>-ise (e.g. appetiser, familiarise, organise)</td>
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<tr>
<td>-ize (e.g. appetizer, familiarize, organize)</td>
<td>-ize (e.g. appetizer, familiarize, organize)</td>
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<tr>
<td>-l (e.g. enrol, fulfil, skillful)</td>
<td>-l (e.g. enrol, fulfill, skillfull)</td>
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<tr>
<td>-ll (e.g. enroll, fulfill, skillfull)</td>
<td>-ll (e.g. enroll, fulfill, skillfull)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ogue (e.g. analogue, monologue, catalogue)</td>
<td>-ogue (e.g. analogue, monologue, catalogue)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-og (e.g. analog, monolog, catalog)</td>
<td>*Note that American English also recognizes words spelled with –ogue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ou (e.g. colour, behaviour, mould)</td>
<td>-o (e.g. color, behavior, mold)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-re (e.g. metre, fibre, centre)</td>
<td>-re (e.g. metre, fibre, centre)</td>
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<tr>
<td>-er (e.g. meter, fiber, center)</td>
<td>-er (e.g. meter, fiber, center)</td>
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<tr>
<td>-y (e.g. tyre)</td>
<td>-y (e.g. tyre)</td>
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<tr>
<td>-i (e.g. tire)</td>
<td>-i (e.g. tire)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

13.3 Vocabulary differences
The Americans and the British also have some words that differ from each other. The table below lists some of the everyday objects that have different names, depending on what form of English you are using.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British English</th>
<th>American English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>trousers</td>
<td>pants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flat</td>
<td>flat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apartment</td>
<td>apartment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bonnet (the front of the car)</td>
<td>hood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hood</td>
<td>boot (the back of the car)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boot (the back of the car)</td>
<td>trunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trunk</td>
<td>lorry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lorry</td>
<td>truck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>truck</td>
<td>university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>university</td>
<td>college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>college</td>
<td>holiday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>holiday</td>
<td>vacation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vacation</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
jumper
sweater
crisps
chips
French fries
trainers
sneakers
fizzy drink
soda
postbox
mailbox
biscuit
cookie
chemist
drugstore
shop
store
football
soccer

13.4 Grammar differences
Aside from spelling and vocabulary, there are certain grammar differences between British and American English. For instance, in American English, collective nouns are considered singular (e.g. the band is playing). In contrast, collective nouns can be either singular or plural in British English, although the plural form is most often used (e.g. the band are playing).
The British are also more likely to use formal speech, such as ‘shall’, whereas Americans favour the more informal ‘will’ or ‘should’.
Americans, however, continue to use ‘gotten’ as the past participle of ‘get’, which the British have long since dropped in favour of ‘got’.
‘Needn’t’, which is commonly used in British English, is rarely, if at all used in American English. In its place is ‘don’t need to’.
In British English, ‘at’ is the preposition in relation to time and place. However, in American English, ‘on’ is used instead of the former and ‘in’ for the latter.
Final point
While there may be certain differences between British and American English, the key takeaway is that the two have more similarities. Accidentally using one instead of the other will not automatically lead to miscommunication. Americans and Brits can usually communicate with each other without too much difficulty, so don’t be too hard on yourself if you are unable to remember the nuances of both languages.
13.5 Media related vocabulary
There is no doubt that the media plays an important role in everyone’s life. The vocabulary we associate with it is extremely rich and varied. Essentially, there are two main types of media-related vocabulary: vocabulary related to the printed word and vocabulary related to the spoken word, as used in broadcasts on radio, TV, or through the internet. You can study the vocabulary below and take the gap-fill quiz at the end to check your understanding of some of the terms. You’ll find the answers at the bottom of the article. You can also use these tips on learning vocabulary to help you remember the words on this list.

13.6 Types of Media vocabulary
Print Media
Banner
Billboard
Book
Journal
Magazine
Newspaper
Tabloid
Types of News
Hard news
Soft news
Feature
Article
Editorial
Column
Review
Breaking news
News bulletin
Newspaper / Magazine Sections
International
Politics
Business
Opinion
Technology
Science
Health
Sports
Arts
Style
Food
Travel
Types of Advertising
Commercial
Native Advertisement
Ad
Spot
Media scheduling is one of the important decisions in advertising programme. Company should carefully decide on media timing for a maximum market response.

13.7.1 Media scheduling is simply a time-table showing:
(1) The time decision – when to advertise,
(2) The duration/space decision – how much to advertise each time, and
(3) The frequency to advertise the message through different media – how many times in a year (or specified time period) the message should be advertised in each of the media.

However, the first decision, i.e., time decision, is more relevant to media scheduling. Media scheduling calls for consideration of various factors to
arrive at appropriate media timing. The decision is vital due to the fact that demand is subject to vary as per cyclical trend and/or seasons. To realize the maximum benefits of advertising costs, the most effective time is selected. Those executives or experts responsible to carry out advertising activities take a media scheduling decision.

13.7.2 Types of Scheduling:
The advertiser has to consider two types of media scheduling problems:

13.7.3 Macro-scheduling:
The macro-scheduling involves allocating advertising expenditure and frequency (repetition/reproduction of message) in relation to season or broad picture of business cycle. The macro-scheduling problem concerns with how to schedule advertising in relation to seasonal and business cycle trends.
The broad picture of seasonal and/or cyclical trend is considered. This is due to the fact that the demand is fluctuated as per seasons and/or business cycle. Therefore, it is desirable to vary advertising expenditures to follow seasonal patterns. Company, as per its calculation, can spend more or less during the season or particular phase of business cycle. According to experts, advertising does not have immediate impact on consumer awareness, sales, or profits.
So, one should study relationship between:
(1) Timing of advertising and consumer awareness,
(2) Consumer awareness and impact on sales, and
(3) Sales and advertising expenditure.
Advertising timing should be adjusted as per time gap exists between advertising time and its impact. Computer-based mathematical model can be formulated to study these time relations. Advertiser has to decide on advertising time for different types of products, such as frequently purchased, seasonal products, and low-cost daily consumed products. Along with seasonal or cyclical aspect, an advertiser should also consider impact of the past advertising. Many consumers continue buying even without the present advertisement.

13.7.4 Micro-scheduling:
The micro-scheduling problem concerns with allocating advertising expenditure and frequency within a short period to obtain the maximum response or impact. In other words, the problem deals with how to distribute advertising expenditure within the given time.
For example, a company has decided to advertise specific message 60 times (that requires approximately Rs. 500000) through daily regional newspapers in a year. Now the question is to decide on which days/weeks/months/seasons the 60 times advertisement is to be allocated. Similarly, the same issue is related to radio or television spots.

13.7.5 Alternative Scheduling Strategies:
A company has following alternative scheduling strategies to decide on micro-scheduling:

1. Continuous Advertising:
This scheduling involves advertising the message evenly throughout a given period. For example, if company wants 48 television/radio spots, it will advertise 4 times in a month or once in a week, or on every Monday.

2. Concentrated Advertising:
This scheduling involves giving all the advertisement in a single period. Thus, the concentrated advertising means to spend the entire advertising budget within one flight. It is applicable when product is sold in one season, event, festival or holiday. For example, the company advertises 48 spots within four days during Diwali festivals, 12 times a day.

3. Fighting Advertising:
This scheduling involves giving advertisement at specific intervals. Company advertises for some period, followed by break of no advertisement, followed by the second flight of advertisement and likewise. Company with seasonal, cyclical, or infrequently purchase products follows such scheduling. Company with a limited fund prefers to advertise during a specific season or festival only.

4. Pulsing Advertising:
This scheduling is the combination of both continuous and fighting advertisements. It includes continuous advertising at low-weight level, reinforced periodically by waves of heavier activity. In other words, the company spends certain portion of advertising fund for continuous advertising, and the remaining fund for fighting advertisement. For example, the company may advertise once in a day with a brief advertisement message. And, its detail advertisement appears for a week regularly after every three months. This timing is preferred by the financially sound companies.

13.7.6 Factors Affecting Advertising Scheduling:
The allocation of advertising expenditure/frequency over time depends on advertising objectives, nature of product, and type of target customers, distribution channel, and other relevant marketing factors. But, mostly, following five factors are considered to decide on the timing pattern.
1. Buyer Turnover:
It shows the rate at which new buyers enter the market. The rule is, the higher the rate of buyer turnover, the more continuous the advertisement should be.
2. Purchase Frequency:
It shows the number of times during the specific period that the average buyer buys the product. The common rule is, the higher the purchase frequency, the more continuous the advertisement should be.
3. Forgetting Rate:
It shows the rate at which the buyer forgets the brand. The rule is, the higher the forgetting rate, the more continuous the advertisement should be.
4. Financial Condition of Company:
It shows an ability of a company to spend for advertisement. The rule is, the more is the ability to spend, the more continuous the advertisement will be.

5. Level of Competition:
Company facing a severe market competition will opt for more continuous advertisement through multiple media. The rule is, the more is the intensity of competition, the higher the frequency of advertisement will be.

13.8 Listening to interviews & Dialogues
Dialogue interviews engage the interviewee in a reflective and generative conversation. This tool can be used to prepare for projects, workshops, or capacity building programs.

13. 8.1 Dialogue Interviews:
• Provide insights into questions and challenges that the interviewees face
• May help you to find partners for a project • Prepare participants for to an upcoming event • Begin to build a generative field for the initiative you want to co-create.

To initiate a generative dialogue that allows for reflection, thinking together and some sparks of collective creativity to happen.
Dialogue Interviews can be used in all phases of the U-process. Most common use is during the preparation phase.

Principles
• Create transparency and trust about the purpose and the process of the interview. • Practice deep listening. • Suspend your “Voice of Judgment”: look at the situation through the eyes of the interviewee, don’t judge. • Access you ignorance: As the conversation unfolds, pay attention to and trust the questions that occur to you. • Access your appreciative listening: Thoroughly appreciate and enjoy the story that you hear unfolding. Put yourself in your interviewee’s shoes. • Access your generative listening: Try to focus on the best future possibility for your interviewee and the situation at hand. • Go with the flow: Don’t interrupt. Ask questions spontaneously. Always feel free to deviate from your questionnaire if important questions occur to you. • Leverage the power of presence and silence: One of the most effective “interventions” as an interviewer is to be fully present with the interviewee – and not to interrupt a brief moment of silence.

Uses and outcome
Dialogue Interviews are used to prepare for projects, workshops, capacity building programs or change initiatives. Dialogue interviews: • Provide data on the participants’ current challenges, questions, and expectations or on the organizational current challenges • Create increased awareness among participants or within an organization about the upcoming process and how it might serve their needs and intentions • Increase the level of trust between facilitators and participants that helps to create a generative
field of connections • Use with…Mindfulness Practice, Stakeholder Interviews.
People and Place • Dialogue interviews work best face-to-face. If not possible, use phone interviews. Time • 30-60 minutes for a phone interview. • 30-90 minutes for a face-to-face interview. Both figures are estimates and need to be adjusted to the specific context. Materials • Use the interview guideline (questionnaire), but feel free to deviate when necessary. • Use a paper and pen to take notes. Sometimes use a tape recorder.

Sequence
1. Preparation: a) Define/revise questions to adjust to the specific context and purpose. b) Schedule interviews. c) If the interview will be conducted face-to-face, find a quiet space. d) Get information about the interviewee and her or his organization. e) If several interviewers will conduct the interview agree on roles (primary interviewer, note taking).
2. Before you meet the interviewee allow for some quiet preparation or silence. For example, 15-30 minutes prior to a face-to-face interview begin to anticipate the conversation with an open mind and heart. 3. Begin the interview. Use the interview questionnaire on next page as a guide, but depart from it to allow the conversation to develop its own direction.
4. Reflection on the Interview. Take some time immediately after the interview to review: 5. what struck me most? What surprised me? 6. What touched me? 7. Is there anything I need to follow-up on? 8. After all interviews have been completed, review the interview data, and summarize results. 9. Close feedback loop: After each interview (by the following morning) send a thank-you note to your interviewee.

Sample Questionnaire:
1. Describe the leadership journey that brought you here.
2. When have you faced significant new challenges, and what helped you cope with them?
3. Describe your best team experiences. How do they differ from your other team experiences?
4. What top three challenges do you currently face?
5. Who are your most important stakeholders?
6. On the basis of what outcomes will your performance be considered a success or a failure - and by when?
7. In order to be successful in your current leadership role, what do you need to let go of and what do you need to learn? What capabilities do you need to develop?
8. How will you develop your team? What do you need from your team, and what does your team need from you?
9. Nine to twelve months from now, what criteria will you use to assess whether you were successful?
10. Now reflect on our conversation and listen to yourself: what important question comes up for you now that you take out of this conversation and into your forward journey?

13.9 Role plays in various authentic situations
Role-play is any speaking activity when you either put yourself into somebody else's shoes, or when you stay in your own shoes but put
yourself into an imaginary situation! Imaginary people - The joy of role-play is that students can 'become' anyone they like for a short time!

Role-playing is the changing of one's behaviour to assume a role, either unconsciously to fill a social role, or consciously to act out an adopted role. While the Oxford English Dictionary offers a definition of role-playing as "the changing of one's behaviour to fulfill a social role", in the field of psychology, the term is used more loosely in four senses:

To refer to the playing of roles generally such as in a theatre, or educational setting;

To refer to taking a role of an existing character or person and acting it out with a partner taking someone else's role, often involving different genres of practice;

Role playing may also refer to the technique commonly used by researchers studying interpersonal behavior by assigning research participants to particular roles and instructing the participants to act as if a specific set of conditions were true. This technique of assigning and taking roles in psychological research has a long history. It has been used in the early classic social psychological experiments by Kurt Lewin (1939/1997), Stanley Milgram (1963), and Phillip Zimbardo (1971). Herbert Kelman suggested that role-playing might be "the most promising source" of research methods alternative to methods using deception (Kelman 1965)

13.10 Conducting interviews

Now that you are well prepared, you are in a position to conduct a productive interview. If you are uncertain of your interviewing skills, you can always learn more by contacting your local chamber of commerce, taking courses at the community college level, or seeking the assistance of companies like Talent Edge Solutions

Introduce yourself. Greeting candidates courteously shows respect for them and will help put them at ease. Tell them something about yourself and the company. This is the first impression the candidate will make of you, so present a tidy office and turn off your cell phone.

Set the stage. Set the tone by telling the applicant what to expect for the next half hour or so. Remember, you too are being observed. Your behaviour will set the tone for the interview. If you come across as being too casual, an applicant may take the interview less seriously. But being too serious will likely make the candidate more nervous. In either case, you’re unlikely to bring out the best in the individual. How you conduct yourself during the interview must also reflect the image and values of your business.

Review the job. Spell out what the position involves in more detail than was outlined in the job posting, so candidates can make sure the job is right for them. Let them know what the core duties and responsibilities will be, and any working conditions that may affect them. Say whether the position is permanent or temporary, or on contract.

Start with generalized questions. Begin by asking a few questions about a candidate’s background and interest in the position. Get candidates to tell
you about how they see themselves in relation to the job and what they can contribute.
Review the applicant’s resume. Ask candidates about specific positions on their resume that relate to the position you are hiring for. Ask them about job details, responsibilities, what they accomplished, pressures they encountered. Ask about any inconsistencies or gaps in employment or education, as there may be a simple explanation. Ask about the candidate’s reasons for leaving a past or current job.
Ask some consistent questions. Use a specific set of questions for all applicants. This will help you to compare candidates and find the one whose skills and abilities most closely match what you’re looking for.
Vary your questions. It’s important that you ask questions on skills specifically related to the duties and responsibilities of the position. This will help you uncover candidates’ strengths and weaknesses. Don’t forget that open-ended questions are best during interviews, such as “What was the most difficult challenge of your last job?”
Give candidates a chance to ask questions. Confidently answering any question thrown at you means knowing all aspects of the position and being able to clarify your expectations, in addition to listing the benefits of working for your business. Applicants should be given the chance both to answer your questions and to ask questions of their own to determine if the job and the company are right for them. Their questions can help you assess whether candidates have adequately prepared for the interview and are genuinely interested in the job. An effective strategy is the 80/20 rule: You do 80 per cent of the listening and 20 per cent of the talking.
Provide a timeline. Always provide an estimate of the length of time until final selection will be made. Provide an indication as to when candidates might expect to hear back from you regarding the final outcome or the next step in the recruitment process.

13.11 Organizing a programme
Organizing an event is not a simple task. But I can identify 10 key points that you should keep in mind for everything to go well.
1. Define the purpose and format
It seems pretty obvious but it’s worth having a critical approach to this issue. Formulate your goal as specifically as possible: do you want to convey knowledge to participants; express gratitude to partners; raise funds for a project or offer guests aesthetic pleasure? The format of the event will depend on the answer: its concept, timing and duration, role distribution within the team, the layout of the hall, catering and sound.
Try not to get stuck in traditional formats. Take a look at “unconference”, PechaKucha, TED format, thematic brunches, online events, open-air events. What counts is that your format helps to achieve the goal of the event.
2. Pay sufficient attention to planning
The plan should include logistics, content and the promotion of the event. Create a document available to the entire team where each member
would be able to see the tasks of the others and the big picture. First, prepare a list of the main tasks, and then flesh them out in as much detail as possible in the form of specific steps that must be completed. It is important to designate the timeframe in the plan: the time required for completing a task. It is often underestimated and preparation goes slower than you expected.

You can use Google templates, programmes such as Asana, Trello, Podio, GanttPro, Teamweek for planning. Even simple Excel won’t let you down.

3. Draft your budget taking into account unforeseeable situations

Look at the list of tasks and reflect them in your budget. It is also worth thinking about a reserve in case of unforeseeable situations. For example, there was an incident in my work when it rained on the day of an open-air event. We had to immediately change the location and transport all the equipment and furniture. It is better to think about such things in advance and be prepared for them financially.

As an option, you can use this budget template, adapt it or create your own.

4. The devil is in the detail

If you want to pleasantly surprise your guests, think about everything down to the smallest detail: how they register, who will greet participants and how, what music will be playing, do you have an interesting photo corner, how do your presentations look and how is your team dressed, what to do during breaks.

For example, during registration, participants could be offered the chance to attend a brief master class, play games or watch an information video. Try to surprise people and create the wow effect, exceed their expectations in the most ordinary things. This is exactly what creates the feel of an event.

5. Check the location and have a plan B

Always check the location in person as early as the selection stage. At the most unexpected moment it could turn out the air conditioning doesn’t work properly in the hall, there are no toilets for the disabled or the equipment won’t get through the door. Therefore, check such issues in advance.

Once I held a conference for 50 people and an hour into the event, the owner of the space asked to vacate the place without giving any explanation. Eventually, we spent an hour-long training session with the participants in a nearby park, until we found a new space. You may think that such a situation won’t happen to you, but it’s always best to have a plan B.

6. Allocate responsibilities

It is very important to distribute tasks among the team members not only at the preparation stage but also during the event. Allocate responsibilities by zone. For example, someone is responsible for the registration zone, someone else for greeting the speakers, a different person for the equipment, for catering, communication with the press,
etc. Every person needs to have his or her zone, which he or she should be responsible for throughout the entire duration of the event.
Give each member of the team a document with the assigned responsibilities, so that every person knows who to contact for any specific issue.
7. Tell your audience about the event
Do not underestimate the time required for the successful promotion of an event. The type of event, its target audience, internal resources and the budget all determine your marketing approach. When choosing your media partners, focus on those who target your audience. It’s better to have a few partners but targeted ones, rather than talk about the event to just about everyone.
It is also important to create one key message that will be broadcast on all channels. Make sure it is brief and that it accurately conveys the idea of the event to your audience.
8. Pay attention to service
Make sure that your team follows The Duck Face Rule. Be friendly to participants, speakers and partners. Try to address their problems or questions and meet their expectations, even if you feel tired and not everything runs to plan. At the end of the day, what people remember is how they were treated and the atmosphere not what the speaker was saying on the stage.
9. Carry out a final check 24 hours before the event
Make sure that you’ve informed the participants of how to get to the location, invited all the important guests, and prepared the printed materials, audio and video content. Check whether everyone understands his or her tasks and responsibilities and whether the space is ready. For this purpose you can draft a checklist, like this one.
A similar checklist can be drafted for the checking preparation on the day of the event: whether everything is in place, working, being done on time.
Be sure to print out the event programme, let each member of the team and volunteers have a copy. In addition, give everyone the main contact phone number for communication with one another in the event of an emergency.
10. Ask for feedback
You’re probably going to be tired and happy after the event, but it will be difficult for you to give an objective assessment of how it all went. That is why ask participants to complete a printed evaluation form at the end of the event or an online form when they get home. Ask them to assess various aspects of the event: logistics, speakers, locations, and the work of the organisers. This information will help you to avoid mistakes in the future and improve the quality of your events. If possible, get feedback through social networks or record video reviews at the end of an event. This will come in handy if your event is held again.
13.12 Job application with CV (with cover letter)

Read job advertisements carefully

‘Before you write a job application, read the job advertisement carefully and think about the kinds of skills and competence the employer is looking for. Think of how your competence corresponds to the employer’s wishes and requirements.

You can also contact the employer and ask for more information if you have a question that the advertisement does not answer. Call the employer only when you want to ask something concrete about the job.

13.12.1 Job application

Usually when you apply for a job, you send a job application and a CV (curriculum vitae) to the employer. Sometimes the job application can be a video, a portfolio or, for example, a web page. Write the application and CV in the same language that was used in the job advertisement.

Write a new application and update your CV every time you apply for a new job. You can type the application into an email message or add it as an email attachment with the CV. Always add attachments in the PDF format. You can often send the application and CV through the employer’s website.

The purpose of a job application is to arouse the employer’s interest so that they will invite you to an interview. The application is a reply to the job advertisement. Respond to the wishes and requirements that were mentioned in the job advertisement. Emphasize the things that are important for the task. Give concrete examples of your competence. Assure the employer that you are suitable for the task.

A job application is usually a little under one page long. Ask someone to read and check your application.

Desired salary

You often have to add a desired salary to applications. It is often difficult to estimate the correct amount. The desired salary must not be too high but not too low either. Trade unions may provide more information on the wage levels in different fields.

Recognizing your competence

In seeking employment, it is useful to recognize your competence. Go over your education and work experience and think about what skills they have taught you. What professional skills do you have? What are your strengths? Also think about what skills you have from hobbies or other experiences.

Certificates up to date

Keep certificates from your previous workplaces and studies. Always remember to ask for a certificate when you have been working, training or studying. Even ten years after the contract of employment has ended, the employer is obliged to provide a testimonial of service. There is usually no need to send testimonials of service to the employer in advance, but it is good idea to take them to the job interview in case the
employer wants to see them. It would be good if all your references and certificates obtained abroad were translated into Finnish or Swedish.  

**Recognition of foreign diploma and degree**

‘Job hunting is easier if you know how a degree or diploma gained abroad corresponds to a Finnish one. You can apply to the Finnish National Agency for Education for recognition of your diploma or degree which has been completed abroad. Recognition of a degree is subject to a charge.’

**‘Open job application**

You can contact an interesting employer directly. You can send an open job application or call the employer even if they are not advertising vacancies at the time.

In the open job application, describe your skills and the kinds of tasks you would be interested in doing. Add a curriculum vitae or CV to your application.

**13.13 Curriculum vitae or CV**

A curriculum vitae or CV includes your competence, work experience and education in a dense and clear format.

There are different CV models. In a traditional CV, you can list your competence chronologically. In a competence-based CV, you can group your skills into different competence areas. The CV can also be a video, portfolio or web page. Explore different CV models and build curriculum vitae that suit you.

A CV is usually 1–2 pages long. Remember to revise your CV for each new application.

**What does a CV include?**

Name and contact information – Address, e-mail address, telephone number.

Work experience – List your previous jobs, starting with the most recent one. Also specify the duration of the employment. Describe your tasks and the skills you have learned in the work.

Education – List your degrees chronologically, starting with the most recent one. Include the name of the degree, the name of the study programme, the name of the educational institute and the time of graduation.

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34 www.infofinland.fi
Fetched: 2019-10-22T08:00:00

35 www.infofinland.fi
Fetched: 2019-10-22T08:00:00
Courses – List less than one heading the Finnish language courses and other courses that you have completed.
Other competence – Language skills, IT skills, licenses such as a hygiene pass.
Publications and other demonstrations of skill – If you want, you can list your own publications or demonstrations of skill.
Hobbies, positions of trust – You can also share your own interests.
References – You can add the names of people who have promised to recommend you for the job. Add the contact information of the references. Remember to ask the reference for permission.
At the beginning of the CV, you can add a summary or a profile describing your background and core competence with a few sentences. You can describe the goals of your job search or your special competence. You can also include a photograph of yourself.  

**13.14 Competence-based CV**

‘A competence-based CV highlights your competence, skills and experience.
Select a few competence areas and describe your related experiences, skills and accomplishments under the headings. You can also add competence you have acquired, for example, in voluntary work, hobbies and studies. In addition to this, you can list your work experience and education chronologically.
In the beginning of the CV, you can add a summary or a profile describing your background and core competence with a few sentences. You can describe the goals of your job seeking or your special competence.
Make an individual CV for each job. Highlight the skills that are needed in the job. Think of what the employer should know about your skills and competence.’

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36 [www.infofinland.fi](https://www.infofinland.fi)  
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37 [www.infofinland.fi](https://www.infofinland.fi)  
Fetched: 2019-10-22T08:00:00  
Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on Media related vocabulary

---

Unit – End Exercises

1. Write about Macro-scheduling and Micro-scheduling:
2. How to conduct a interviews

Answer to check your progress

1. Media scheduling is one of the important decisions in advertising programme. Company should carefully decide on media timing for a maximum market response. The macro-scheduling involves allocating advertising expenditure and frequency (repetition/reproduction of message) in relation to season or broad picture of business cycle. The macro-scheduling problem concerns with how to schedule advertising in relation to seasonal and business cycle trends. The micro-scheduling problem concerns with allocating advertising expenditure and frequency within a short period to obtain the maximum response or impact. In other words, the problem deals with how to distribute advertising expenditure within the given time.

2. Now that you are well prepared, you are in a position to conduct a productive interview. If you are uncertain of your interviewing skills, you can always learn more by contacting your local chamber of commerce, taking courses at the community college level, or seeking the assistance of companies like Talent Edge Solutions. Introduce yourself. Greeting candidates courteously shows respect for them and will help put them at ease. Tell them something about yourself and the company. This is the first impression the candidate will make of you, so present a tidy office and turn off your cell phone. Set the stage. Set the tone by telling the applicant what to expect for the next half hour or so. Remember, you too are being observed. Your behaviour will set the tone for the interview. If you come across as being too casual, an applicant may take the interview less seriously. But being too serious will likely make the candidate more nervous. In either case, you’re unlikely to bring out the best in the individual. How you conduct yourself during the interview must also reflect the image and
values of your business. Review the job. Spell out what the position involves in more detail than was outlined in the job posting, so candidates can make sure the job is right for them. Let them know what the core duties and responsibilities will be, and any working conditions that may affect them. Say whether the position is permanent or temporary, or on contract.

Suggested Reading
1. www.infofinland.fi

2. www.infofinland.fi

3. www.infofinland.fi

4. www.infofinland.fi
14.1 Prepositional phrases - active & passive
A prepositional phrase is a group of words consisting of a preposition, its object, and any words that modify the object. Most of the time, a prepositional phrase modifies a verb or a noun. These two kinds of prepositional phrases are called adverbial phrases and adjectival phrases, respectively.  
At a minimum, a prepositional phrase consists of one preposition and the object it governs. The object can be a noun, a gerund (a verb form ending in “-ing” that acts as a noun), or a clause. 
He arrived in time.
Is she really going out with that guy?
To these two basic elements, modifiers can be freely added.
He arrived in the nick of time.
Is she really going out with that tall, gorgeous guy?
Some of the most common prepositions that begin prepositional phrases are to, of, about, at, before, after, by, behind, during, for, from, in, over, under, and with.

14.2 Prepositional Phrases That Modify Nouns
When a prepositional phrase acts upon a noun, we say it is behaving adjectivally because adjectives modify nouns. A prepositional phrase that behaves adjectivally is called, quite logically, an adjectival phrase.

The cat in the middle is the cutest.
I always buy my milk from the convenience store on Main Street.
My mother has always wanted to live in a cabin by the lake.

In the first of these sentences, in the middle answers the question of which cat the writer thinks is the cutest. Similarly, on Main Street gives us information about which store the writer is describing, and by the lake tells us what kind of cabin the writer’s mother is dreaming about. All of these adjectival phrases provide specificity to a noun in order to enhance our understanding.

Prepositional Phrases That Modify Verbs
When a prepositional phrase acts upon a verb, we say it is behaving adverbially because adverbs modify verbs. A prepositional phrase that behaves adverbially is called an adverbial phrase.

To find the person who stole the last cookie, look behind you.
Harry drank his Butter beer with fervor.

In the first sentence, behind you answers the question “Look where?” In the second, with fervor answers the question “Drank how?”

Prepositional Phrases Acting as Nouns
Less frequently, prepositional phrases can function like nouns in a sentence.
During the national anthem is the worst time to blow your nose.
After the game will be too late for us to go to dinner.

How to Avoid Excessive Prepositional Phrases
It is tempting to overuse prepositions and prepositional phrases. If you see more than one preposition for every ten or fifteen words in your writing, you should edit some of them out. You may be surprised at how much more elegant and economical your writing is when you make the effort to do this.

It is best to behave with caution when running with a sword in the presence of Magneto.
There is nothing grammatically incorrect about this sentence, but it has two “with” phrases, an “of” phrase, and an “in” phrase, which is a sure sign that it could be written more efficiently.

In Magneto’s presence, run cautiously with swords.
Here, it was possible to replace one of the prepositional phrases, with caution with the correlating adverb cautiously. Of Magneto was simply a possessive that can be easily converted into Magneto’s. Four prepositional phrases have been reduced to two.

Another way to reduce prepositional phrases is to switch from a passive voice to an active voice. There is a famous example to illustrate this concept.

Why was the road crossed by the chicken?
Clearly, the passive voice makes this sentence fussy and the prepositional phrase by the chicken seems a bit silly. It would be better written in an active voice, with the chicken in the driver’s seat where it belongs.  

**14.3 Why did the chicken cross the road?**

In English grammar the category voice refers to the systematic correspondence between so called active and passive clauses. Thus, normally, a clause with a transitive verb (i.e. one that occurs with an object) can be transformed into one where the object appears as the subject, as in the following pair:

Active:
We interviewed all the patients.

Subject
Predicate verb
Direct object
Passive: All the patients were interviewed.

Often, active clauses have a subject which refers to a 'doer', or agent (as in the example), or to an external cause (as in The wind destroyed the house.). The passive provides a means of selecting another element as the grammatical subject, while leaving the agent, cause, etc. unexpressed.

A majority of passives resemble the example above in not expressing the subject of the corresponding active clause. When necessary, it may, however, be expressed as the complement of the preposition by, as in the following example:

(1) The patients were interviewed by a team of medical students.

The 'short', agentless passive (without the by-phrase) is very common in scientific texts, probably due to its impersonal flavour. For example, in descriptions of experiments, interviews, and other kinds of data-gathering activities, the active researcher need not be explicitly mentioned. In fact, style manuals for academic writers often advice strongly against the use of personal subjects.

The active voice describes a sentence where the subject performs the action stated by the verb. It follows a clear subject + verb + object construct that's easy to read. In fact, sentences constructed in the active voice add impact to your writing.

With passive voice, the subject is acted upon by the verb. It makes for a murky, roundabout sentence; you can be more straightforward with active voice. As such, there are many ways to change the passive voice to the active voice in your sentences.

Over time, writing in the active voice will become second nature. Let's explore several examples of active and passive voice to reduce your use of the passive voice where the active voice is preferred.

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39 [www.grammarly.com](https://www.grammarly.com)

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Url: [https://www.grammarly.com/blog/prepositional-phrase/](https://www.grammarly.com/blog/prepositional-phrase/)
The Subject Changes in Each Voice
Before we explore a wealth of examples, let's review some active writing tips. You'll notice that, in the passive voice examples below, there are a few key words. Examples include:
is - is roamed; is viewed
was - was changed; was run
were - were eaten; were corroded
Pay special attention to the subject in each sentence. Is the subject performing the action denoted by the verb? If so, chances are you have a nice, clear sentence, written in active voice.
In the passive voice, however, the subject is no longer performing the action of the verb. Rather, it's being acted upon by the verb. Put another way, the subject of a sentence in the passive voice is no longer the "doer" of the action, but the recipient of the action. Meanwhile, what was the subject of a sentence in the active voice (the "doer") becomes the "agent" in the equivalent passive voice sentence.

14.4 Active and Passive Voice Comparison
As you read through the following example sentences, you'll start to become an active voice expert.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active Voice</th>
<th>Passive Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Harry ate six shrimp at dinner.</td>
<td>At dinner, six shrimp were eaten by Harry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful giraffes roam the savannah.</td>
<td>The savannah is roamed by beautiful giraffes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sue changed the flat tire.</td>
<td>The flat tire was changed by Sue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are going to watch a movie tonight.</td>
<td>A movie is going to be watched by us tonight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I ran the obstacle course in record time.</td>
<td>The obstacle course was run by me in record time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The crew paved the entire stretch of highway.</td>
<td>The entire stretch of highway was paved by the crew.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mom read the novel in one day.</td>
<td>The novel was read by Mom in one day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will clean the house every Saturday.</td>
<td>The house will be cleaned by me every Saturday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The company requires staff to watch a safety video every year.</td>
<td>The staffs are required by the company to watch a safety video every year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom painted the entire house.</td>
<td>The entire house was painted by Tom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher always answers the students' questions.</td>
<td>The students' questions are always answered by the teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The choir really enjoys that piece.</td>
<td>That piece is really enjoyed by the choir.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A forest fire destroyed the whole suburb.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The whole suburb was destroyed by a forest fire.
The two kings are signing the treaty.
The treaty is being signed by the two kings.
The cleaning crew vacuums and dusts the office every night.
Every night, the office is vacuumed and dusted by the cleaning crew.
Larry generously donated money to the homeless shelter.
Money was generously donated to the homeless shelter by Larry.
The wedding planner is making all the reservations.
All the reservations are being made by the wedding planner.
Susan will bake two dozen cupcakes for the bake sale.
Two dozen cookies will be baked by Susan for the bake sale.
The science class viewed the comet.
The comet was viewed by the science class.
The director will give you instructions.
Instructions will be given to you by the director.
Thousands of tourists visit the Grand Canyon every year.
The Grand Canyon is visited by thousands of tourists every year.
The homeowners remodeled the house to help it sell.
The house was remodeled by the homeowners to help it sell.
The saltwater corroded the metal beams.
The metal beams were corroded by the saltwater.
The kangaroo carried her baby in her pouch.
The baby was carried by the kangaroo in her pouch.

14.5 Extensive reading- novels & plays
In this, the first of two articles for Teaching English, Alan Maley considers the benefits extensive reading can bring to English language learners and teachers.
What is Extensive Reading (ER)?
Extensive Reading is often referred to but it is worth checking on what it actually involves. Richard Day has provided a list of key characteristics of ER (Day 2002). This is complemented by Philip Prowse (2002). Maley (2008) deals with ER comprehensively. The following is a digest of the two lists of factors or principles for successful ER:
Students read a lot and read often.
There is a wide variety of text types and topics to choose from.
The texts are not just interesting: they are engaging/compelling.
Students choose what to read.
Reading purposes focus on: pleasure, information and general understanding.
Reading is its own reward.
There are no tests, no exercises, no questions and no dictionaries.
Materials are within the language competence of the students.
Reading is individual, and silent.
Speed is faster, not deliberate and slow.
The teacher explains the goals and procedures clearly, then monitors and guides the students.
The teacher is a role model...a reader, who participates along with the students. The model is very much like that for L1 reading proposed by Atwell (2006). It has been variously described as Free Voluntary Reading (FEVER), Uninterrupted Silent Reading (USR), Sustained Silent Reading (SSR), Drop Everything and Read (DEAR), or Positive Outcomes While Enjoying Reading (POWER).

14.5.1 So what are the benefits of ER?
Both common sense observation and copious research evidence bear out the many benefits which come from ER (Waring 2000, 2006). There are useful summaries of the evidence in Day and Bamford (1998: 32-39) and The Special Issue of The Language Teacher (1997) including articles by Paul Nation and others, and passionate advocacy in Krashen’s The Power of Reading. (2004). The journals Reading in a Foreign Language and the International Journal of Foreign Language Learning are also good sources of research studies supporting ER. (See references for websites) And there is the indispensable annotated bibliography

14.5.2 ER develops learner autonomy.
There is no cheaper or more effective way to develop learner autonomy. Reading is, by its very nature, a private, individual activity. It can be done anywhere, at any time of day. Readers can start and stop at will, and read at the speed they are comfortable with. They can visualize and interpret what they read in their own way. They can ask themselves questions (explicit or implicit), notice things about the language, or simply let the story carry them along.
ER offers Comprehensible Input.
Reading is the most readily available form of comprehensible input, especially in places where there is hardly any contact with the target language. If carefully chosen to suit learners’ level, it offers them repeated encounters with language items they have already met. This helps them to consolidate what they already know and to extend it. There is no way any learner will meet new language enough times to learn it in the limited number of hours in class. The only reliable way to learn a language is through massive and repeated exposure to it in context: precisely what ER provides.

14.5.3 ER enhances general language competence.
In ways we so far do not fully understand, the benefits of ER extend beyond reading. There is ‘a spread of effect from reading competence to other language skills ~ writing, speaking and control over syntax.’ (Elley 1991) The same phenomenon is noted by Day and Bamford (1998: 32-39) but they even note evidence of improvements in the spoken language. So reading copiously seems to benefit all language skills, not just reading.

14.5.4 ER helps develop general, world knowledge.
Many, if not most, students have a rather limited experience and knowledge of the world they inhabit both cognitively and affectively. ER
opens windows on the world seen through different eyes. This educational function of ER cannot be emphasized enough. ER extends, consolidates and sustains vocabulary growth. Vocabulary is not learned by a single exposure. ER allows for multiple encounters with words and phrases in context thus making possible the progressive accretion of meanings to them. By presenting items in context, it also makes the deduction of meaning of unknown items easier. There have been many studies of vocabulary acquisition from ER (Day et al 1991, Nation and Wang 1999, Pigada and Schmitt, 2006). Michael Hoey’s theory of ‘lexical priming’ (Hoey 1991, 2005) also gives powerful support to the effect of multiple exposures to language items in context.

14.5.5 ER helps improve writing.
There is a well-established link between reading and writing. Basically, the more we read, the better we write. Exactly how this happens is still not understood (Kroll 2003) but the fact that it happens is well-documented (Hafiz and Tudor 1989) Commonsense would indicate that as we meet more language, more often, through reading, our language acquisition mechanism is primed to produce it in writing or speech when it is needed. (Hoey 2005).
ER creates and sustains motivation to read more. The virtuous circle - success leading to success - ensures that, as we read successfully in the foreign language, so we are encouraged to read more. The effect on self-esteem and motivation of reading one’s first book in the foreign language is undeniable. It is what Krashen calls a ‘home run’ book: ‘my first’! This relates back to the point at the beginning of the need to find ‘compelling’, not merely interesting, reading material. It is this that fuels the compulsion to read the next Harry Potter. It also explains the relatively new trend in graded readers toward original and more compelling subject matter. (Moses)

So why don’t teachers use ER more often?
A good question. When I conducted an inquiry among teachers worldwide, the answers came down to these:
 a) Insufficient time.
 b) Too costly.
 c) Reading materials not available.
 d) ER not linked to the syllabus and the examination.
 e) Lack of understanding of ER and its benefits.
 f) Downward pressure on teachers to conform to syllabi and textbooks.
 g) Resistance from teachers, who find it impossible to stop teaching and to allow learning to take place.
Oddly, the elephant in the room: the Internet culture of young people was not mentioned. There is work on the non-linear reading required by Internet users in Murray and Macpherson (2005), and articles on hypermedia by Richards (2000), and Ferradas Moi (2008) and some interesting reflections in Johnson (2006). The ‘non-reader’ issue will not
go away but it is too important to deal with here and needs a separate article.

14.6 Extensive Reading

Contention is that reading extensively, promiscuously and associatively is good for teacher, and for personal development. ‘The idea of the teacher having to be someone who is constantly developing and growing as a whole human being as a prerequisite for being able to truly help his or her pupils to be able to do the same, is such a core truth of teaching, yet it is typically ignored in FLT. (Peter Lutzker)

ER helps teachers to be better informed, both about their profession and about the world. This makes them more interesting to be around – and students generally like their teachers to be interesting people. For our own sanity we need to read outside the language teaching ghetto. For the sake of our students too.

It also helps teachers to keep their own use of English fresh. As we saw, the research on language learner reading shows how extensive reading feeds into improvements in all areas of language competence. (Krashen 2004) If this is true for learners, how much more true for teachers, who risk infection by exposure to so much restrict and error-laden English or who only read professional literature? Regular wide reading can add zest and pleasure to our own use of the language.

Teachers who show that they read widely are models for their students. We often tell students to ‘read more’ but why should they read if we do not? Teachers who are readers are more likely to have students who read too.

Furthermore, the books we read outside our narrow professional field can have an unpredictable effect on our practice within it. So much of what we learn is learned sub-consciously. Its effects spread more by infection than by direct injection. And it is highly individual. Individuals form associative networks among the books they read. This results in a kind of personal intertextuality, where the patterns form and re-form as we read more different books. This gives us rich mental yeast which we can use to interact with others, while still retaining our individual take on the texts and the world.

Play, as a formal literary term, describes the form of writing used for the theater. All plays are drama in the most literary, formal usage of the term. When drama is used this way, it is often phrased as dramatic form.

This terminology helps to avoid a confusion that stems from the fact that within the realm of theatrical writing there is a common, categorical distinction between plays. There are dramas and there are comedies.

The word is taken directly from the Greek drama, meaning “a deed or action of the stage.” The Greek word evolved from the Greek term dran, meaning “to do” or “to act” (eNotes).

In this sense, a drama will be a play that features a narrative which "dramatizes" the human experience in one way or another. Here
"dramatize" means "bring to life" or "show via exaggeration." (It is this last meaning of the term drama that relates most closely to the everyday use of the phrase as it turns up in conversation.)

"Novel - a lengthy fictitious prose narrative portraying characters and presenting an organized series of events and settings" (eNotes).

The novel is a form of fiction writing that features prose as its central element and which offers a narrative (or set of narratives) with a beginning, middle and end. Longer than short stories but the same in terms of its reliance on prose writing, the novel is a very flexible mode of writing that has been used in various ways to tell stories since Don Quixote of La Mancha was published in 17th century Spain.

14.7 Listening for data collection

Data collection in longitudinal field research should preferably be conducted using a multi-technique approach if scholars want to build evidence that is both broad and deep. The need for depth and breadth is a result of the data being contextually and temporally bounded in longitudinal field studies (Mari & Meglio, 2013b). Combining a range of different methods, when carrying out research over time, allows for the cross-validation of data and enables the research strategy to be modified when collecting further data. We think that there is enough empirical evidence and sufficient suggestions from seasoned scholars to recommend adopting a multi-method approach to data collection when conducting longitudinal field research, even though a comprehensive framework for guiding such an approach is still lacking. Our contribution is to bridge this gap and formulate a proposal for organizing the different data-gathering techniques within a comprehensive framework that can be defined as the listening, observing and tracing (LOT) strategy (Mari & Meglio, 2013a). As far as we know, both the label and the acronym are new, and we think that it might form an effective way to avoid neglecting potential routes for data collection. Of course, we do not claim that our proposal is completely new, because others before us have called for a multi-method approach, but our formulation tries to combine in a single strategy the toolbox of every longitudinal field researcher. Listening, observing and tracing are the core approaches for data gathering in research where there are two main features: the immersion in the ongoing social activities of some individuals or group, and the across-time perspective. The LOT strategy is the result of a series of dilemmas that any researcher needs to address during the course of the research process (McGrath, 1981) when deciding how to conduct their inquiry. This approach is an alternative framework to the conventional discourse about the research process, depicted as a linear and logical flow of tasks from problem formulation to the implementation of results.

The proposed strategy is a blend of listening, observing and tracing techniques. Taken together, these techniques depict a coherent strategy, based on three fundamental approaches to data gathering that are not necessarily employed in all fieldwork, but are strongly recommended for
building broad and deep data. These approaches share the following characteristics. Firstly, each of them can help in studying a social setting (Spradley, 1980) through its basic dimensions (that is, actors, activities and places). More precisely people, groups and collectivities may be understood by using a combination of listening, observing and tracing approaches. Activities and behaviours engaged in by actors, and the physical space and territory where actors display that behaviour, require observing and tracing approaches to be used in order to collect data. Secondly, gathering data is a cyclical task that is repeated many times during the course of the fieldwork, especially in a longitudinal study. What changes over time is the emphasis of data collection, which moves from descriptive to focused, to selective, like a funnel (Spradley, 1980). Initially, researchers gather broad data in order to gain an overview of the social setting and what goes on there (that is, descriptive emphasis). After analyzing the initial evidence, the researcher is able to narrow the scope of the investigation and collect further data (that is, focused emphasis). Finally, after more analysis, the fieldwork proceeds in a narrower direction that represents the smallest focus through which data are gathered (that is, selective emphasis). The funnel progression is applied to actors, activities and places relevant to the research topic. Thirdly, each research approach can employ one or more specific research techniques to gather data.

Here we present the most useful techniques for longitudinal fieldwork, highlighting their features in a comparative way rather than providing a detailed description of each of them. The listening approach is based on interviewing, which means understanding how informants make sense of their actions (Lofland, Snow, Anderson, & Lofland, 2006). It means that researchers try to access the internal lives of people and give voice to them (Langley, 2009) through speech as the data source. Interviewing can be conducted at the individual and group levels, depending on both the research aims and the broader range of influences depicted above. Ideally, the two levels should not be considered as alternatives, but rather as complementary in cross-validating data.

The observation approach enables close access to and experience of the lives and activities of others (Dawson, 1997; Lofland et al., 2006). It means understanding evolving patterns of daily interaction and behaviour that shed light on the ‘how’ of organizational life. Observation can be participant or non-participant, according to the role played by the researchers. The former implies that they actually participate in the work they are investigating. This may happen overtly (that is, working as a temporary member of the organization and asking permission to conduct the fieldwork) or covertly (that is, taking a working role without disclosing the research aims). The latter requires the researchers to observe the phenomena but not take part in them. Moreover non-participant observation involves limited interaction between the people observed and the researchers.
The tracing approach to organizational research provides a valuable way of studying key event chronologies spanning long periods of time, records of arguments and justifications (Langley, 2009), and logs of personal activities and events (Alaszewski, 2006). It takes the form of diaries and archival records, and may contribute to a better understanding of the organizational life because it conveys data that are usually difficult to gather through the other approaches. Here, we refer to solicited diaries that fit the research aims rather than unsolicited documents that are already available, such as life histories or memoirs (Alaszewski, 2006). Archival records (Ventresca & Mohr, 2002; Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest, 2000) are written materials that can be produced by either public sources (that is, data periodically gathered for purposes other than scholarly ones) or private sources (data from organizational archives).

14.8 Evaluating problems and giving suggestions - giving directions

Problem solving is the act of defining a problem; determining the cause of the problem; identifying, prioritizing, and selecting alternatives for a solution; and implementing a solution.

The four basic steps of the problem solving process

In order to effectively manage and run a successful organization, leadership must guide their employees and develop problem-solving techniques. Finding a suitable solution for issues can be accomplished by following the four-step problem-solving process and methodology outlined below.

Step

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Define the problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differentiate fact from opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specify underlying causes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consult each faction involved for information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State the problem specifically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify what standard or expectation is violated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determine in which process the problem lies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoid trying to solve the problem without data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Generate alternative solutions

Postpone evaluating alternatives initially

Include all involved individuals in the generating of alternatives

Specify alternatives consistent with organizational goals

Specify short- and long-term alternatives

Brainstorm on others' ideas

Seek alternatives that may solve the problem

3. Evaluate and select an alternative

Evaluate alternatives relative to a target standard
Evaluate all alternatives without bias
Evaluate alternatives relative to established goals
Evaluate both proven and possible outcomes
State the selected alternative explicitly

4. Implement and follow up on the solution
Plan and implement a pilot test of the chosen alternative
Gather feedback from all affected parties
Seek acceptance or consensus by all those affected
Establish ongoing measures and monitoring
Evaluate long-term results based on final solution

1. Define the problem
Diagnose the situation so that your focus is on the problem, not just its symptoms. Helpful problem-solving techniques include using flowcharts to identify the expected steps of a process and cause-and-effect diagrams to define and analyze root causes.
The sections below help explain key problem-solving steps. These steps support the involvement of interested parties, the use of factual information, comparison of expectations to reality, and a focus on root causes of a problem. You should begin by:
Reviewing and documenting how processes currently work (i.e., who does what, with what information, using what tools, communicating with what organizations and individuals, in what time frame, using what format).
Evaluating the possible impact of new tools and revised policies in the development of your “what should be” model.

2. Generate alternative solutions
Postpone the selection of one solution until several problem-solving alternatives have been proposed. Considering multiple alternatives can significantly enhance the value of your ideal solution. Once you have decided on the "what should be" model, this target standard becomes the basis for developing a road map for investigating alternatives.
Brainstorming and team problem-solving techniques are both useful tools in this stage of problem solving.
Many alternative solutions to the problem should be generated before final evaluation. A common mistake in problem solving is that alternatives are evaluated as they are proposed, so the first acceptable solution is chosen, even if it’s not the best fit. If we focus on trying to get the results we want, we miss the potential for learning something new that will allow for real improvement in the problem-solving process.

3. Evaluate and select an alternative
Skilled problem solvers use a series of considerations when selecting the best alternative. They consider the extent to which:
A particular alternative will solve the problem without causing other unanticipated problems.
All the individuals involved will accept the alternative.
Implementation of the alternative is likely.
The alternative fits within the organizational constraints.

4. Implement and follow up on the solution

Leaders may be called upon to direct others to implement the solution, "sell" the solution, or facilitate the implementation with the help of others. Involving others in the implementation is an effective way to gain buy-in and support and minimize resistance to subsequent changes.

Regardless of how the solution is rolled out, feedback channels should be built into the implementation. This allows for continuous monitoring and testing of actual events against expectations. Problem solving, and the techniques used to gain clarity, is most effective if the solution remains in place and is updated to respond to future changes.

14.9 Creative writing

Creative writing is any writing that goes outside the bounds of normal professional, journalistic, academic, or technical forms of literature, typically identified by an emphasis on narrative craft, character development, and the use of literary tropes or with various traditions of poetry and poetics. Due to the looseness of the definition, it is possible for writing such as feature stories to be considered creative writing, even though they fall under journalism, because the content of features is specifically focused on narrative and character development. Both fictional and non-fictional works fall into this category, including such forms as novels, biographies, short stories, and poems. In the academic setting, creative writing is typically separated into fiction and poetry classes, with a focus on writing in an original style, as opposed to imitating pre-existing genres such as crime or horror. Writing for the screen and stage—screenwriting and playwriting—are often taught separately, but fit under the creative writing category as well.

Creative writing can technically be considered any writing of original composition. In this sense, creative writing is a more contemporary and process-oriented name for what has been traditionally called literature, including the variety of its genres.

14.9.1 Programs of study

Creative Writing programs are typically available to writers from the high school level all the way through graduate school/university and adult education. Traditionally these programs are associated with the English departments in the respective schools, but this notion has been challenged in recent time as more creative writing programs have spun off into their own department. Most Creative Writing degrees for undergraduates in college are Bachelor of Fine Arts degrees (BFA). Some continue to pursue a Master of Fine Arts in Creative Writing, the terminal degree in the field. At one time rare, PhD. programs are becoming more prevalent in the field, as more writers attempt to bridge the gap between academic study and artistic pursuit.

Creative writers typically decide an emphasis in either fiction or poetry, and they usually start with short stories or simple poems.
make a schedule based on this emphasis including literature classes, education classes and workshop classes to strengthen their skills and techniques. Though they have their own programs of study in the fields of film and theatre, screenwriting and playwriting have become more popular in creative writing programs, as creative writing programs attempt to work more closely with film and theatre programs as well as English programs. Creative writing students are encouraged to get involved in extracurricular writing-based activities, such as publishing clubs, school-based literary magazines or newspapers, writing contests, writing colonies or conventions, and extended education classes.

In the classroom
Creative writing is usually taught in a workshop format rather than seminar style. In workshops students usually submit original work for peer critique. Students also format a writing method through the process of writing and re-writing. Some courses teach the means to exploit or access latent creativity or more technical issues such as editing, structural techniques, genres, random idea generating or unblocking writer's block. Some noted authors, such as Michael Chabon, Kazuo Ishiguro, Kevin Brockmeier, Ian McEwan, Karl Kirchwey, Rose Tremain and reputed screenwriters, such as David Benioff, Darren Star and Peter Farrelly, have graduated from university creative writing programs.

14.10 Controversy in academia
Creative writing is considered by some academics (mostly in the USA) to be an extension of the English discipline, even though it is taught around the world in many languages. The English discipline is traditionally seen as the critical study of literary forms, not the creation of literary forms. Some academics see creative writing as a challenge to this tradition. In the UK and Australia, as well as increasingly in the USA and the rest of the world, creative writing is considered a discipline in its own right, not an offshoot of any other discipline.

Those who support creative writing programs either as part or separate from the English discipline, argue for the academic worth of the creative writing experience. They argue that creative writing hones the students’ abilities to clearly express their thoughts and that creative writing entails an in-depth study of literary terms and mechanisms so they can be applied to the writer’s own work to foster improvement. These critical analysis skills are further used in other literary study outside the creative writing sphere. Indeed, the process of creative writing, the crafting of a thought-out and original piece, is considered by some to be experience in creative problem solving.

Despite the large number of academic creative writing programs throughout the world, many people argue that creative writing cannot be taught. Louis Menand explores the issue in an article for the New Yorker in which he quotes Kay Boyle, the director of creative writing program at San Francisco State for sixteen years, who said, “all creative-writing programs ought to be abolished by law.” Contemporary discussions of creative writing at the university level vary widely; some people value
MFA programs and regard them with great respect, whereas many MFA candidates and hopefuls lament their chosen programs' lack of both diversity and genre awareness.

Traditionally referred to as literature, creative writing is an art of sorts - the art of making things up. It's writing done in a way that is not academic or technical but still attracts an audience. Though the definition is rather loose, creative writing can for the most part be considered any writing that is original and self-expressive. A news article, for example, cannot be considered creative writing because its main goal is to present facts and not to express the feelings of the writer. While a news article can be entertaining, its main purpose is to present the facts.

The purpose of creative writing is to both entertain and share human experience, like love or loss. Writers attempt to get at a truth about humanity through poetics and storytelling. If you'd like to try your hand at creative writing, just keep in mind that whether you are trying to express a feeling or a thought, the first step is to use your imagination.

**14.10.1 Types of creative writing include:**
- Poetry
- Plays
- Movie and television scripts
- Fiction (novels, novellas, and short stories)
- Songs
- Speeches
- Memoirs
- Personal essays

As you can see, some nonfiction types of writing can also be considered creative writing. Memoirs and personal essays, for example, can be written creatively to inform your readers about your life in an expressive way. Because these types are written in first person, it's easier for them to be creative.

**14.10.2 Techniques used in creative writing include:**
- Character development
- Plot development
- Vivid setting
- Underlying theme
- Point of view
- Dialogue
- Anecdotes
- Metaphors and similes
- Figures of speech
- Imaginative language
- Emotional appeal
- Heavy description
14.10.3 Using online resources to extract authentic materials on specific areas of interest

Authentic texts have been defined as “...real-life texts, not written for pedagogic purposes” (Wallace 1992:145) they are therefore written for native speakers and contain “real” language. They are “materials that have been produced to fulfill some social purpose in the language community.” (Peacock (1997), in contrast to non-authentic texts that are especially designed for language learning purposes. The language in non-authentic texts is artificial and unvaried, concentrating on something that has to be taught and often containing a series of “false-text indicators” that include:
- perfectly formed sentences (all the time);
- a question using a grammatical structure, gets a full answer;
- repetition of structures;
- very often does not “read” well.

The artificial nature of the language and structures used, make them very unlike anything that the learner will encounter in the real world and very often they do not reflect how the language is really used. They are useful for teaching structures but are not very good for improving reading skills (for the simple fact that they read unnaturally). They can be useful for preparing the learner for the eventual reading of “real” texts. If authentic texts have been written not for language learning purposes but for completely different ones, where do they come from and how are they selected?

The sources of authentic materials that can be used in the classroom are infinite, but the most common are newspapers, magazines, TV programs, movies, songs and literature. One of the most useful is the Internet. Whereas newspapers and any other printed material date very quickly, the Internet is continuously updated, more visually stimulating as well as being interactive, therefore promoting a more active approach to reading rather than a passive one. From a more practical point of view, the Internet is a modern day reality, most students use it and for teachers, there is easier access to endless amounts of many different types of material. From a even more practical/economical point of view, trying to obtain authentic materials abroad can be very expensive, an English paper/magazine can cost up to 3-4 times the price that it usually is and sometimes is not very good. Often by having unlimited access in the work place, looking for materials costs nothing, only time. Authentic materials should be the kind of material that students will need and want to be able to read when travelling, studying abroad, or using the language in other contexts outside the classroom. Authentic materials enable learners to interact with the real language and content rather than the form. Learners feel that they are learning a target language as it is used outside the classroom. When choosing materials from the various sources, it is therefore worth taking into consideration that the aim should be to understand meaning and not form, especially when using literary texts with the emphasis being on what is being said and not necessarily
on the literary form or stylistics. Nuttall gives three main criteria when choosing texts to be used in the classroom suitability of content, exploitability and readability. Suitability of content can be considered to be the most important of the three, in that the reading material should interest the students as well as be relevant to their needs. The texts should motivate as well as. Exploitability refers to how the text can be used to develop the students’ competence as readers. A text that cannot be exploited for teaching purposes has no use in the classroom. Just because it is in English does not mean that it can be useful. Readability is used to describe the combination of structural and lexical difficulty of a text, as well as referring to the amount of new vocabulary and any new grammatical forms present. It is important to assess the right level for the right students.

Variety and presentation also influence the choice of authentic materials. A reading course can be made more interesting if a variety of texts is used. Students very often find it very boring when dealing with only one subject area, as can be the case when dealing with English for Specific Purposes (ESP). One of the advantages of using texts dealing with the same subject area is that they use the same vocabulary, with the student having to make very little conscious effort to learn it. While on the contrary, the student becomes highly specialized in that particular area and not in others. Whether the text looks authentic or not, is also very important when presenting it to the student. The “authentic” presentation, through the use of pictures, diagrams, photographs, helps put the text into a context. This helps the reader not only understand the meaning of the text better but also how it would be used. A more “attractive” text will appeal to the student and motivate them into reading. It may seem to be a very superficial aspect but the appearance of any article is the first thing that the student notices. An “attractive” looking article is more likely to grab the reader’s attention rather than a page full of type. Very often it is so easy to just download an article from the Internet and present the student a page full of impersonal print, without taking any of these factors into consideration.

Other factors worth taking into consideration when choosing authentic material for the classroom can include whether the text challenges the students’ intelligence without making unreasonable linguistic demands, does the language reflect written or spoken usage is the language in the text natural or has it been distorted in order to try and include examples of a particular teaching point? It is also important that the text lends itself to being studied, can good questions be asked about it or tasks based on it created? Above all does the text make the student want to read for himself, tell himself something he doesn’t know as well as introduce new and relevant ideas?
14.10.4 Important Factors in Choosing Authentic Reading Material

Suitability of Content
Does the text interest the student?
Is it relevant to the student’s needs?
Does it represent the type of material that the student will use outside of the classroom?

Exploitability
Can the text be exploited for teaching purposes?
For what purpose should the text be exploited?
What skills/strategies can be developed by exploiting the text?

Readability
Is the text too easy/difficult for the student?
Is it structurally too demanding/complex?
How much new vocabulary does it contain? Is it relevant?

Presentation
Does it “look” authentic?
Is it “attractive”?
Does it grab the student’s attention?
Does it make him want to read more?

Fig. 1. – Important Factors in Choosing Authentic Reading Materials

The concept of authenticity is central to CLT, with the learner being exposed to the same language as a native speaker. Four types of authenticity within the classroom have been identified and in particular to the use of authentic texts:
1. Authenticity of the texts which we may use as input data for our students;
2. Authenticity of the learners’ own interpretations of such texts;
3. Authenticity of tasks conducive to language learning;
4. Authenticity of the actual social situation of the classroom language.

(Breen 1985:61) Widdowson has a process-orientated view of authenticity, making a distinction between “authentic” and “genuine”. Genuine is an example of native speaker language, while authentic is a native speaker response (it can also include the response the writer intended upon when writing the text.):

“The language presented to them may be a genuine record of native speaker behaviour, genuine, that is to say, as textual data, but to the extent that it does not engage native speaker response it cannot be realized as authentic discourse.” (Widdowson 1990:45)

Authenticity can therefore be considered to be the interaction between the reader and the text and not just the text in itself. Reading is considered to be an ongoing interaction, going beyond the physical context of the text, looking for meaning as well as processing information. Goodman takes this even further claiming that reading is “…an essential interaction between language and thought” (1988:12)

Where the writer encodes his thoughts as language and the reader decodes the language into thought.

One of the main ideas of using authentic materials in the classroom is to “expose” the learner to as much real language as possible. Even if the classroom is not a “real-life” situation, authentic materials do have a very
important place within it. It has been argued that by taking a text out of its original context, it loses its authenticity: “As soon as texts, whatever their original purpose, are brought into classrooms for pedagogic purposes they have, arguably, lost authenticity.” (Wallace 1992:79) Even if true, the learner is still exposed to real discourse and not the artificial language of course textbooks, which tend not to contain any incidental or improper examples. They also tend to reflect the current teaching trend. Authentic materials also give the reader the opportunity to gain real information and know what is going on in the world around them. More times than not, they have something to say, be it giving information, a review. They also produce a sense of achievement. Extracting real information from a real text in a new/different language can be extremely motivating, therefore increasing students' motivation for learning by exposing them to 'real' language (Guarento & Morley 2001). They also reflect the changes in language use, (again something that does not occur in textbooks, which become very dated, very quickly) as well as giving the learner the proof that the language is real and not only studied in the classroom: “Authentic texts can be motivating because they are proof that the language is used for real-life purposes by real people.” (Nuttall 1996:172) The wide variety of different types of text means that it is easier to find something that will interest the learner and may even encourage further reading or reading for pleasure. An advantage of taking a complete newspaper or magazine into classroom, rather than photocopies of an article, is that students can actually choose what they want to read. The more the learner reads, the better a reader he will become, not only improving his language level but also confidence. If the text interests the learner it can also be related to his own experiences.

One of the aims of authentic materials is to help the student react in the same way L1 speakers react in their first language (L1). Learners who live in the target language environment, once outside of the classroom will encounter a variety of situations in which different reading purposes/skills are required. We can claim that learners are being exposed to real language and they feel that they are learning the 'real' language. The main advantages of using authentic materials in the classroom therefore include: - having a positive effect on student motivation; - giving authentic cultural information; - exposing students to real language; - relating more closely to students’ needs; - supporting a more creative approach to teaching. These are what make us excited and willing to use authentic materials in our classrooms, but while using them, it is inevitable that we face some problems. 65 The negative aspects of authentic materials are that they can be too culturally biased, often a good knowledge of cultural background is required when reading, as well as too many structures being mixed, causing lower levels problems when decoding the texts (Martinez 2002). Students often bring copies of newspaper articles (in particular the tabloids) or song lyrics to the classroom, asking to translate them after having looked up each word in the dictionary and not understood a single word. Richards (2001) notes
that authentic materials often contain difficult language, unneeded vocabulary items and complex language structures, which can often create problems for the teacher too. They can also become very dated, very quickly but unlike textbooks can be updated or replaced much easier and more cost effectively. The biggest problem with authentic materials is that if the wrong type of text is chosen, the vocabulary may not be relevant to the learner's needs and too many structures can create difficulty. This can have the opposite effect, rather than motivate the learner; it can de-motivate and in Krashenite terms “put up the effective filter”.

When bringing authentic materials into the classroom, it should always be done with a purpose, as highlighted by Senior “…we need to have a clear pedagogic goal in mind: what precisely we want our students to learn from these materials.” (Senior 2005:71). Students feel more confident, more secure when handling authentic materials as long as the teacher gives them with pedagogical support. Authentic materials should be used in accordance with students' ability, with suitable tasks being given in which total understanding is not important. In order to overcome the problems created by difficult authentic texts, one solution is to simplify them according to the level of the learner. This can be done by removing any difficult words or structures but this can also remove basic discourse qualities, making the text “less” authentic. The basic parameters to consider when simplifying a text are: - Linguistic simplicity: grammatical structures, lexical items and readability; - Cognitive simplicity: age, education, interests of the learner; - Psychological simplicity: does it follow traditional social norms? Another possible solution is to give text related tasks. They are three basic types: Pre-reading: used not just to test or compensate for linguistic/socio-cultural inadequacies but also used to activate existing schemata; While-reading: used to encourage the learner to be a flexible, active reader also to promote a dialogue between reader and writer; Post-reading: often are questions that follow a text, used to test understanding but sometimes good schemata will be enough. Rather than just simplifying the text by changing its language, it can be made more approachable by eliciting students' existing knowledge in pre-reading discussion, reviewing new vocabulary before reading and then asking students to perform tasks that are within their competence, such as skimming to get the main idea or scanning for specific information, before they begin intensive reading. The reading approach must be authentic too. Students should read the text in a way that matches the reading purpose, the type of text, and the way people normally read. This means that reading aloud will take place only in situations where it would take place outside the classroom. Reading is an activity with a purpose. The purpose for reading guides the reader's selection of texts. The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension.
Check your Progress- 1

Note: Write your answer given below

i. Write a short on importance of English in media

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Unit – End Exercises

1. What are Extensive reading- novels & plays?
2. Define Creative writing.

**Answer to check your progress**

1. Extensive Reading is often referred to but it is worth checking on what it actually involves. Contention is that reading extensively, promiscuously and associatively is good for teacher, and for personal development. ‘The idea of the teacher having to be someone who is constantly developing and growing as a whole human being as a prerequisite for being able to truly help his or her pupils to be able to do the same, is such a core truth of teaching, yet it is typically ignored in FLT. (Peter Lutzker)

ER helps teachers to be better informed, both about their profession and about the world. This makes them more interesting to be around – and students generally like their teachers to be interesting people. For our own sanity we need to read outside the language teaching ghetto.

2. Creative writing is any writing that goes outside the bounds of normal professional, journalistic, academic, or technical forms of literature, typically identified by an emphasis on narrative craft, character development, and the use of literary tropes or with various traditions of poetry and poetics. Due to the looseness of the definition, it is possible for writing such as feature stories to be considered creative writing, even though they fall under journalism, because the content of features is specifically focused on narrative and character development. Both fictional and non-fictional works fall into this category, including such forms as novels, biographies, short stories, and poems.

**Suggested Reading**

3. Biber, Douglas; Leech, Geoffrey; Conrad, Susan

   a Series of Letters: Intended for the Use of Schools and of Young
   Persons in General, but more especially for the use of Soldiers,
   Sailors, Apprentices, and Plough-Boys. New York and Chicago:
   A. S. Barnes and Company.

   English Language (Oxford Language Classics). Oxford
   University Press. p. 256. ISBN 0-19-860508-0. Check date values
   in: |year= (help)

   the English Language: Volumes I (Parts of Speech) & II (Syntax).
   Verbatim Books. p. 1045. ISBN 0-930454-03-0. Check date
   values in: |year= (help)

   Dictionary of Modern English Usage, Oxford University Press,

   Grece from the German edition Englische Grammatik: Die Lehre
   von der Wort- und Satzfügung. Professor Whitney in
   his Essentials of English Grammar recommends the German
   original stating "there is an English version, but it is hardly to be
   used." (p. vi)


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Declerck, Renaat (1990). A Comprehensive Descriptive Grammar of English. Kaitakusha,Tokyo. p. 595. ISBN 4-7589-0538-X. Declerck in his introduction (p.vi) states that almost half his grammar is taken up by the topics of tense, aspect and modality. This he contrasts with the 71 pages devoted to these subjects in The Comprehensive Grammar of English. Huddleston and Pullman say they profited from consulting this grammar in their Cambridge Grammar of the English Language. (p. 1765)


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Maetzner, Eduard Adolf Ferdinand, 1805–1892. (1873). An English grammar; methodical, analytical, and historical.


Seib, P. (2007). New Media and Prospects for Democratization. *New Media and the New Middle East,* 1-17. doi:10.1057/9780230605602_1


- pts. 1-2. Syntactical units with one verb.--pt.3. 1st half.
- Syntactical units with two verbs.--pt.3. 2d half. Syntactical units with two and more verbs.


**E-Resources and Journals**

1. [learn.org](https://learn.org/articles/What_is_Communication_Technology.html)
   - Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
   - Url: [https://learn.org/articles/What_is_Communication_Technology.html](https://learn.org/articles/What_is_Communication_Technology.html)

2. [en.wikipedia.org](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Telephony)
   - Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00

3. [wikivisually.com](https://wikivisually.com/wiki/WBXML)
   - Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
   - Url: [https://wikivisually.com/wiki/WBXML](https://wikivisually.com/wiki/WBXML)

4. [howlingpixel.com](https://howlingpixel.com/i-en/World_Wide_Web)
   - Fetched: 2019-10-16T12:36:00
   - Url: [https://howlingpixel.com/i-en/World_Wide_Web](https://howlingpixel.com/i-en/World_Wide_Web)

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30. [http://m/cyclopediaofnewmedia.com](http://m/cyclopediaofnewmedia.com), Mobile phones - convergence - social impact

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37. [www.wall-street.ro](http://www.wall-street.ro), Internetul amenință televiziunea prin cablu din 11 Ianuarie 2007

38. [www.wall-street.ro](http://www.wall-street.ro), Laura Culiță - Clipurile video online amenință televiziunea tradițională din 14 August 2007.


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