Unit – I: Grammar and Usage
a. Tense and Composition
b. Basic Transformations
i Active/Passive
ii Negatives
iii Questions
c. Simple, Complex and Compound Sentences
d. Reported Speech
e. Some Common errors

Unit – II: Comprehension and Composition
a. Reading Comprehension
b. Comprehension of Legal Texts
c. Paragraph and Precis writing
d. Formal Correspondence
e. Note Taking
f. Drafting of Reports and Projects
g. Abstracts

Unit – III: Legal Language
a. Legal maxims
b. Foreign words
c. Drafting of moot memorials

Unit – IV: a. Common Hindi and Urdu words used in Courts
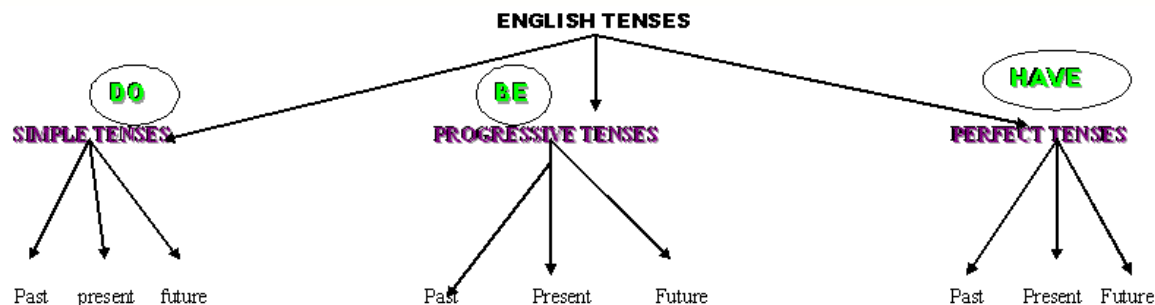b. Translation from Hindi to English and Vice Versa

TENSES

In grammar, **tense** is a category that locates a situation in time, to indicate when the situation takes place. Tense is the grammaticalisation of time reference, often using three basic categories of "before now", i.e. the past; "now", i.e. the present; and "after now", i.e. the future. The "unmarked" reference for tense is the temporal distance from the time of utterance, the "here-and-now", this being absolute-tense. Relative-tense indicates temporal distance from a point of time established in the discourse that is not the present, i.e. reference to a point in the past or future, such as the *future-in-future*, or the *future of the future* (at some time in the future after the reference point, which is in the future) and *future-in-past* or *future of the past* (at some time after a point in the past, with the reference point being a point in the past).

Not all languages grammaticalise tense, and those that do differ in their grammaticalisation thereof. Languages without tense are called tenseless languages and include Burmese, Dyirbal and Chinese. Not all grammaticalise the three-way system of past–present–future. For example, some two-tense languages such as English and Japanese express past and non-past, this latter covering both present and future in one verb form, whereas others such as Greenlandic and Quechua have future and non-future. Four-tense languages make finer distinctions either in the past (e.g. remote vs recent past), or the future (e.g. near vs remote future). The six-tense language Kalaw Lagaw Ya of Australia has the remote past, the recent past, the today past, the present, the today/near future and the remote future. The differences between such finer distinctions are the Distance on the timeline between the temporal reference points from the present.

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ENGLISH TENSES

DO — SIMPLE TENSES

BE — PROGRESSIVE TENSES

HAVE — PERFECT TENSES

SIMPLE TENSES: Past, present, future

PROGRESSIVE TENSES: Past, Present, Future

PERFECT TENSES: Past, Present, Future

Subject + verb	Subject + be + verb + ing	Subject + have + past participle

Simple present / Simple past

I walk
You walk
He
She walk**s**
It

We
You walk
They

I
You
He
She
It   walk**ed**
We   **ate**
You
They

Present continuous

I   am   working
You are   working

He
She is   working
It

We
You are working
They

I   was   working
You were   working

He
She was   working
It

We
You were   working
They

Present Perfect

I
You have worked

He
She has worked
It

We
You have worked
They

Past Perfect

I
You
He
She
It   had worked
We
You
They

Simple future

Future continuous   **Future Perfect**

tense	Affirmative/Negative/Question	Use	Signal Words
Simple Present	**A:** He speaks. **N:** He does not speak. **Q:** Does he speak?	action in the present taking place **once, never or several times** facts actions taking place one after another action set by a timetable or schedule	always, every …, never, normally, often, seldom, sometimes, usually if sentences type I (*If I talk, …*)
Present Progressive	**A:** He is speaking. **N:** He is not speaking. **Q:** Is he speaking?	**action taking place in the moment of speaking** action taking place only for a limited	at the moment, just, just now, Listen!, Look!, now, right now

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		period of time action arranged for the future	
Simple Past	**A:** He spoke. **N:** He did not speak. **Q:** Did he speak?	action in the past taking place **once, never or several times** actions taking place one after another action taking place in the middle of another action	yesterday, 2 minutes ago, in 1990, the other day, last Friday if sentence type II (*If I talked*, …)
Past Progressive	**A:** He was speaking. **N:** He was not speaking. **Q:** Was he speaking?	action **going on** at a certain time in the past actions taking place at the same time action in the past that is interrupted by another action	when, while, as long as
Present Perfect Simple	**A:** He has spoken. **N:** He has not spoken. **Q:** Has he spoken?	putting emphasis on the **result** action that is still going on action that stopped recently finished action that has an influence on the present action that has taken place once, never or several times before the moment of speaking	already, ever, just, never, not yet, so far, till now, up to now
Present Perfect Progressive	**A:** He has been speaking. **N:** He has not been speaking. **Q:** Has he been speaking?	putting emphasis on the **course or duration** (not the	all day, for 4 years, since 1993, how long?, the

		result) action that recently stopped or is still going on finished action that influenced the present	whole week
Past Perfect Simple	**A:** He had spoken. **N:** He had not spoken. **Q:** Had he spoken?	action taking place before a certain time in the past sometimes interchangeable with past perfect progressive putting emphasis only on the **fact** (not the duration)	already, just, never, not yet, once, until that day if sentence type III (*If I had talked*, …)
Past Perfect Progressive	**A:** He had been speaking. **N:** He had not been speaking. **Q:** Had he been speaking?	action taking place before a certain time in the past sometimes interchangeable with past perfect simple putting emphasis on the **duration or course** of an action	for, since, the whole day, all day
Future I Simple	**A:** He will speak. **N:** He will not speak. **Q:** Will he speak?	action in the future that cannot be influenced **spontaneous** decision assumption with regard to the future	in a year, next …, tomorrow If-Satz Typ I (*If you ask her, she **will help** you.*) *assumption*: I think, probably, perhaps
Future I Simple (going to)	**A:** He is going to speak. **N:** He is not going to speak.	**decision** made for the future	in one year, next week,

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		Q: Is he going to speak?	conclusion with regard to the future	tomorrow
Future I Progressive	A: He will be speaking. N: He will not be speaking. Q: Will he be speaking?	action that is **going on** at a certain time in the future action that is sure to happen in the near future	in one year, next week, tomorrow	
Future II Simple	A: He will have spoken. N: He will not have spoken. Q: Will he have spoken?	action that will be **finished** at a certain time in the future	by Monday, in a week	
Future II Progressive	A: He will have been speaking. N: He will not have been speaking. Q: Will he have been speaking?	action taking place before a certain time in the future putting emphasis on the **course** of an action	for …, the last couple of hours, all day long	
Conditional I Simple	A: He would speak. N: He would not speak. Q: Would he speak?	action that **might** take place	if sentences type II (*If I were you, I **would go** home*.)	
Conditional I Progressive	A: He would be speaking. N: He would not be speaking. Q: Would he be speaking?	action that might take place putting emphasis on the **course / duration** of the action		
Conditional II Simple	A: He would have spoken. N: He would not have spoken. Q: Would he have spoken?	action that **might** have taken place in the past	if sentences type III (*If I had seen that, I **would have helped***.)	
Conditional II Progressive	A: He would have been speaking. N: He would not have been speaking. Q: Would he have been	action that might have taken place in the past puts emphasis on the **course / duration** of		

BASIC TRANSFORMATIONS

ACTIVE / PASSIVE VOICE

Active voice

In most English sentences with an action verb, the subject performs the action denoted by the verb.

These examples show that the subject is doing the verb's action.

Because the subject does or "acts upon" the verb in such sentences, the sentences are said to be in the **active voice.**

Passive voice

One can change the normal word order of many active sentences (those with a direct object) so that the subject is no longer *active*, but is, instead, being *acted upon* by the verb - or *passive*.

Note in these examples how the subject-verb relationship has changed.

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> Five hamburgers must have been eaten by the man.
>
> **Hamburgers** (subject) *are being* **eaten** (verb).
>
> The letter was mailed by Marilyn.
>
> The **letter** (subject) *was being* **mailed** (verb).

Because the subject is being "acted upon" (or is *passive*), such sentences are said to be in the **passive voice**.
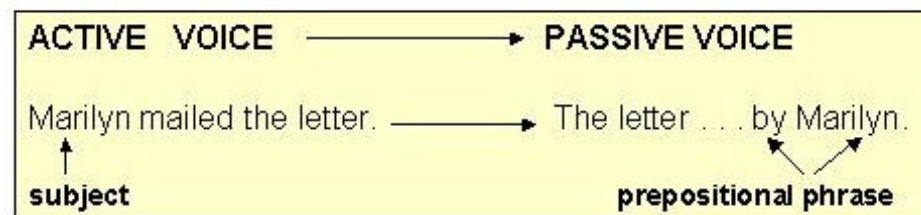
NOTE: *Colorful parrots live in the rainforests* cannot be changed to passive voice because the sentence does not have a direct object.

To change a sentence from active to passive voice, do the following:

1. Move the active sentence's direct object into the sentence's subject slot

> ACTIVE VOICE ⟶ PASSIVE VOICE
>
> Marilyn mailed the letter ⟶ The letter . . . .
>
> direct object   subject
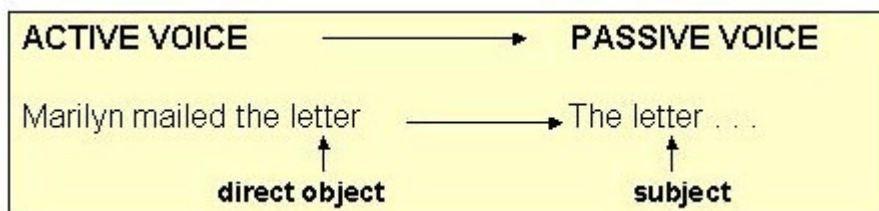
2. Place the active sentence's subject into a phrase beginning with the <u>preposition</u> *by*

> ACTIVE VOICE ⟶ PASSIVE VOICE
>
> Marilyn mailed the letter. ⟶ The letter . . . .by Marilyn.
>
> subject   prepositional phrase

3. Add a form of the <u>auxiliary verb</u> *be* to the main verb and change the main verb's form

```
ACTIVE VOICE  ─────────►  PASSIVE VOICE

Marilyn mailed the letter.  ─────►  The letter was mailed by Marilyn
           ↑                                    ↖  ↗
         verb                              verb + be auxiliary.
```
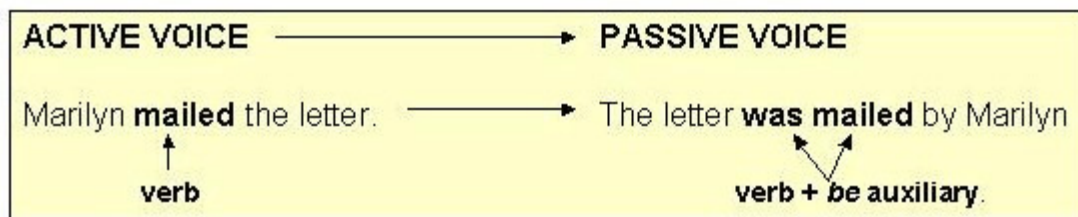
Because passive voice sentences necessarily add words and change the normal ***doer-action-receiver of action*** direction, they may make the reader work harder to understand the intended meaning.

As the examples below illustrate, a sentence in active voice flows more smoothly and is easier to understand than the same sentence in passive voice.

```
ACTIVE VOICE

Asbestos abatement teams will remove large chunks of asbestos-laden material
 from the hallways on  the second and  third floors.
                              ↑          ↑                              ↑
                        doer of action   action              receiver of action


PASSIVE VOICE

Large chunks of asbestos-laden material will be removed from the hallways on
the second and third floors by asbestos abatement teams.
        ↑                                      ↑                  ↖
   receiver of action                        action
                                                          doer of action
```

It is generally preferable to use the ACTIVE voice.

To change a passive voice sentence into an active voice sentence, simply reverse the steps shown above.

1. Move the passive sentence's subject into the active sentence's direct object slot
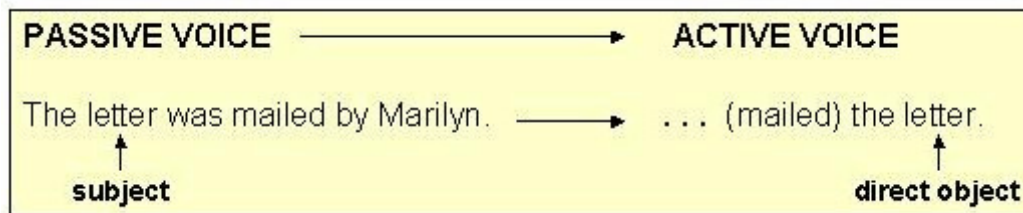
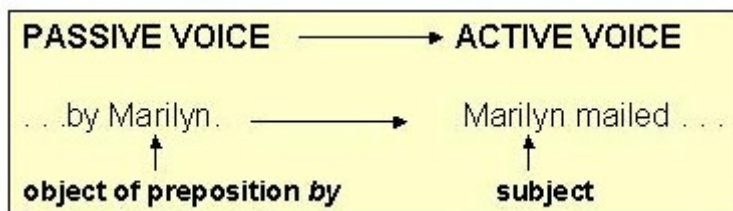2. Remove the auxiliary verb *be* from the main verb and change main verb's form if needed
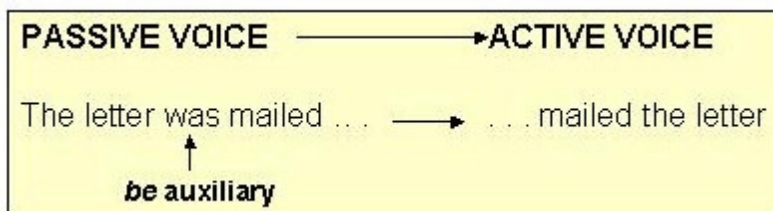
3. Place the passive sentence's object of the preposition *by* into the subject slot.

Because it is more direct, most writers prefer to use the active voice whenever possible.

The passive voice may be a better choice, however, when

- the doer of the action is unknown, unwanted, or unneeded in the sentence

  Examples

> The ballots have been counted.
>
> Sometimes our efforts are not fully appreciated.

- the writer wishes to emphasize the action of the sentence rather than the doer of the action

Examples

> The high-jump record was finally broken last Saturday.
>
> A suspect was questioned for sixteen hours by the police.

- The writer wishes to use passive voice for sentence variety.

NEGATIVES

Some sentences are written to convey an affirmative or negative connotation in order to influence or persuade a reader. Specific words are chosen to construct this affirmative or negative tone. The words purposely chosen to express a negative idea are sometimes referred to as a negation. The following lists are common negative words, adverbs and verbs used to illustrate a negative idea.

Negative words:

- No
- Not
- None
- No one
- Nobody
- Nothing
- Neither
- Nowhere
- Never

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Negative Adverbs:

- Hardly
- Scarcely
- Barely

Negative verbs:

- Doesn't
- Isn't
- Wasn't
- Shouldn't
- Wouldn't
- Couldn't
- Won't
- Can't
- Don't

The previous list can be overwhelming, as there appears to be a lot of negative words that must be memorized. The easiest way to remember the proper word, adverb or verb to use when forming a negation is chose a word that implies no or none. Another trick is to think about the message the reader is to absorb from the sentence as a whole, and pick words that will ensure this meaning is conveyed.

A double negative is usually produced by combining the negative form of verb (e.g., cannot, did not, have not) with a negative pronoun (e.g., nothing, nobody), a negative adverb (e.g., never, hardly) or a negative conjunction (e.g., neither/nor).

Examples:

I didn't see nothing.
I did not have neither her address nor her phone number.
It wasn't uninteresting
She is not unattractive.

A double negative gives the sentence a positive sense. (e.g., "I didn't see nothing" is similar in meaning to "I saw something.") A double negative is not always an error. The latter two examples, meaning "It was interesting." and "She is attractive.", are fine.

Example:

I cannot say that I do not disagree with you. (This brilliant quote by Groucho Marx can be considered a triple negative. If you follow it through logically, you'll find it means "I disagree

with you".)

QUESTIONS

Like many other Western European languages, English historically allowed questions to be formed by inverting the positions of verb and subject. Modern English permits this only in the case of a small class of verbs ("special verbs"), consisting of auxiliaries as well as forms of the copula be (see subject–auxiliary inversion). To form a question from a sentence which does not have such an auxiliary or copula present, the auxiliary verb do (does, did) needs to be inserted, along with inversion of the word order, to form a question (see do-support). For example:

- She can dance. → Can she dance? (inversion of subject she and auxiliary can)
- I am sitting here. → Am I sitting here? (inversion of subject I and copula am)
- The milk goes in the fridge. → Does the milk go in the fridge? (no special verb present; do-support required)

The above concerns yes-no questions, but inversion also takes place in the same way after other questions, formed with interrogative words such as where, what, how, etc. An exception applies when the interrogative word is the subject or part of the subject, in which case there is no inversion. For example:

- I go. → Where do I go? (wh-question formed using inversion, with do-support required in this case)
- He goes. → Who goes? (no inversion, since the question word who is the subject)

Note that inversion does not apply in indirect questions: I wonder where he is (not *... where is he). Indirect yes-no questions can be expressed using if or whether as the interrogative word: Ask them whether/if they saw him.

Negative questions are formed similarly; however if the verb undergoing inversion has a contraction with not, then it is possible to invert the subject with this contraction as a whole. For example:

- John is going. (affirmative)
- John is not going. / John isn't going. (negative, with and without contraction)
- Is John not going? / Isn't John going? (negative question, with and without contraction)

SOME COMMON ERRORS

What is an error in English?

The concept of language errors is a fuzzy one. I'll leave to linguists the technical definitions. Here we're concerned only with deviations from the standard use of English as judged by sophisticated users such as professional writers, editors, teachers, and literate executives and personnel officers. The aim of this site is to help you avoid low grades, lost employment opportunities, lost business, and titters of amusement at the way you write or speak.

Examples of Some Common errors

1. Wrong I have visited Niagara Falls last weekend

Right   I visited Niagara Falls last weekend.

2. Wrong   The woman which works here is from Japan.

Right   The woman who works here is from Japan.

3. Wrong She's married with a dentist.

Right She's married to a dentist.

4. Wrong   She was boring in the class.

Right   She was bored in the class

5. Wrong I must to call him immediately

Right I must call him immediately.

6. Wrong Every students like the teacher

Right Every student likes the teacher.

7. Wrong Although it was raining, but we had the picnic

Right Although it was raining, we had the picnic.

8. Wrong I enjoyed from the movie.

Right I enjoyed the movie.

9. Wrong I look forward to meet you.

   Right I look forward to meeting you.

  10. Wrong I like very much ice cream.

   Right I like ice cream very much.

SIMPLE, COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES

A simple sentence consists of an *independent clause, so* it contains a *subject* and a *verb*. It does **NOT** contain either a dependent clause or another simple sentence.
Examples of simple sentences –
Short simple sentence: The dog barked.
Long simple sentence: Leaning first this way and then that, the large tan dog with a wide black collar barked loudly at the full moon last night from under the lilac bush in the shadow of the north side of the house.
The simple sentence may have a compound subject: The dog *and* the cat howled.
It **may have a compound verb:** The dog howled *and* barked.
It **may have a compound subject and a compound verb:**
The dog and the cat howled and yowled, respectively.

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences joined by
(1) a comma followed by a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, yet, so*): The dog barked, and the cat yowled.
(2) a semicolon: The dog barked; the cat yowled.
(3) a comma, but **ONLY** when the simple sentences are being treated as items in a series:
The dog barked, the cat yowled, and the rabbit chewed.

A complex sentence consists of a combination of an independent clause and a dependent clause. An example with a *relative clause* as the dependent clause:

The dog that was in the street howled loudly.

A student who is hungry would never pass up a hamburger.

An example with a *subordinating conjunction* creating the dependent clause (note the various positions of the dependent clause):
End: The dog howled although he was well fed.
Front: Because the dog howled so loudly, the student couldn't eat his hamburger. Middle: The dog, although he was well fed, howled loudly.

A compound-complex sentence consists of a combination of a compound sentence and a complex sentence.

As the dog howled, one cat sat on the fence, and the other licked its paws.

REPORTED SPEECH

If we report what another person has said, we usually do not use the speaker's exact words (direct speech), but reported (indirect) speech. Therefore, you need to learn how to transform direct speech into reported speech. The structure is a little different depending on whether you want to transform a statement, question or request.

Statements

When transforming statements, check whether you have to change:

- pronouns
- present tense verbs (3rd person singular)
- place and time expressions
- tenses (backshift)

Type	Example
direct speech	"I speak English."
reported speech (no backshift)	He says that he speaks English.
reported speech (backshift)	He said that he spoke English.

When transforming questions, check whether you have to change:

- pronouns
- present tense verbs (3rd person singular)
- place and time expressions
- tenses (backshift)

Also note that you have to:

- transform the question into an indirect question

- use the interrogative or *if / whether*

Type		Example
with interrogative	**direct speech**	"Why don't you speak English?"
	reported speech	He asked me why I didn't speak English.
without interrogative	**direct speech**	"Do you speak English?"
	reported speech	He asked me whether / if I spoke English.

Requests

When transforming questions, check whether you have to change:

- pronouns
- place and time expressions

Type	Example
direct speech	"Carol, speak English."
reported speech	He told Carol to speak English.

1. Don't vs Doesn't

"**He don't** care about me anymore."

This is INCORRECT.

Doesn't, does not, or **does** are used with the **third person singular -** words like **he, she,** and **it.**

Don't, do not, or **do** are used for other subjects.

* "He **doesn't** care about me anymore."

This is CORRECT.

2. Bring vs Take

"When we **go to the party** on Saturday, let's **bring** a bottle of wine."

This is INCORRECT.

When you are viewing the movement of something from the point of arrival, use "bring":

＊ "When you **come** to the party, please **bring** a bottle of wine."

This is CORRECT.

When you are viewing the movement of something from the point of departure, use "take":

＊ "When we **go** to the party, let's **take** a bottle of wine."

This is CORRECT.

3. Fewer vs Less

Sign at the checkout of a supermarket: "**Ten items or less**".

This is INCORRECT.

You can count the items, so you need to use the number word "fewer". These nouns are *countable*.

＊ "Ten items or **fewer**."

This is CORRECT.

If you can't count the substance, then you should use "less". These nouns are *uncountable*.

＊ "You should eat **less** meat."

This is CORRECT.

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4. However

> "We were supposed to go to the dance last night**, however,** it was cancelled because of lack of interest."

This is INCORRECT.

A semicolon, rather than a comma, should be used to link these two complete sentences:

* "We were supposed to go to the dance last night**; however,** it was cancelled because of lack of interest."

This is CORRECT.

It should be noted that there ARE situations in which you can use a comma instead of a semi-colon:

* "The match at Wimbledon**, however,** continued despite the bad weather."

This is CORRECT.

There is only one complete sentence in this example. It is not a compound sentence.

5. Have vs Of

> "I never **would of thought** that he'd behave like that."

This is INCORRECT.

It should be **would have**:

* "I never **would have/would've** thought that he'd behave like that."

This is CORRECT.

It's the same for **should** and **could**:

"He **should of** come with me."

* "He **should have/should've** come with me."

This is CORRECT.

"She **could of** had anything she wanted."

This is INCORRECT.

* "She **could have** had anything she wanted."

This is CORRECT.

6. Double negative

"I'm **not** speaking to **nobody** in this class."

This is INCORRECT.

Since 'not' is a negative, you cannot use 'nobody' in this sentence:

* "I'm **not** speaking to **anybody** in this class."

This is CORRECT.

7. Present perfect

"He **has took** the train."

This is INCORRECT.

The correct form for the present perfect is:

would + have + **past participle**

* "He has **taken** the train."

This is CORRECT.

8. Went vs Gone

> "I **should have went** to school yesterday."

This is INCORRECT.

The correct form is:

should + have + **past participle**

* "I should have **gone** to school yesterday."

This is CORRECT.

9. Its vs It's

> "**Its** going to be sunny tomorrow."

This is INCORRECT.

It's is the contraction of It is:

* "**It's** going to be sunny tomorrow."

This is CORRECT.

> "What's that? I can't remember **it's** name."

This is INCORRECT.

Its is a possessive pronoun that modifies a noun:

* "What's that? I can't remember its name."

This is CORRECT.

READING COMPREHENSION

Reading comprehension is defined as 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.

Proficient reading depends on the ability to recognize words quickly and effortlessly. 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.

Many educators believe that students need to learn to analyze text (comprehend it) even before they can read it on their own, and comprehension instruction generally begins in pre-Kindergarten or Kindergarten. But other educators consider this reading approach to be completely backward for very young children, arguing that the children must learn how to decode the words in a story through phonics before they can analyze the story itself.

During the last century comprehension lessons usually consisted of students answering teachers' questions, writing responses to questions on their own, or both. The whole group version of this practice also often included "Round-robin reading", wherein teachers called on individual students to read a portion of the text (and sometimes following a set order). In the last quarter of the 20th century, evidence accumulated that the read-test methods assessed comprehension more than they taught it. The associated practice of "round robin" reading has also been questioned and eliminated by many educators.

Instead of using the prior read-test method, research studies have concluded that there are much more effective ways to teach comprehension. Much work has been done in the area of teaching novice readers a bank of "reading strategies," or tools to interpret and analyze text. There is not a definitive set of strategies, but common ones include summarizing what you have read, monitoring your reading to make sure it is still making sense, and analyzing the structure of the text (e.g., the use of headings in science text). Some programs teach students how to self monitor whether they are understanding and provide students with tools for fixing comprehension problems.

Instruction in comprehension strategy use often involves the gradual release of responsibility, wherein teachers initially explain and model strategies. Over time, they give students more and more responsibility for using the strategies until they can use them independently. This technique is generally associated with the idea of self-regulation and reflects social cognitive theory, originally conceptualized by Albert Bandura.

PARAGRAPH WRITING

In Process Writing, we have emphasized the fact that it is very hard for the teacher to concentrate on both the grammar and the organization errors on a student paper and still not discourage the student with those red marks all over the paper. Instead, we have suggested that the students should be able to comment on and edit their own paper to a certain extent. The advantages of such an approach would be raising awareness of the student and reducing the workload of the teacher.

The exercises we have here are organized in such a way that the students will concentrate on only one thing (e.g. organization, grammar, vocabulary choice, etc.) at a time. For each type of mistake, we first repeat the information presented in detail in Paragraph Development and The Essay, and then provide a writing exercise about it. For each type, the student first sees the original writing. Then, he corrects the writing by typing in the text box provided, and then sees the teacher-corrected version. The teacher-corrected version is only a suggestion. There may be many ways to correct a mistake. The examples given here are all original beginner level papers.

Here are the contents:

1. ORGANIZATION OF THE PARAGRAPH

A. Unity

B. Coerenceh

C. Faulty Start

D. Lack of Topic Sentence

E. Development of ideas

2. VOCABULARY CHOICE

1. ORGANIZATION OF THE PARAGRAPH

A. Unity: It means that all the sentences refer to the main idea, or the topic of the paragraph.

   I live in a flat with my family. We have two bedrooms and a living room. We have a garden and we have some flowers there. In weekdays I arrive home at five o'clock and I have lunch. Then I do my homework and go to bed. I had a computer but now it doesn't work. I have a brother and a sister and I think I am very lucky to live with them. Sometimes our relatives visit us. Our flat becomes very crowded sometimes but I like it.

In a unified paragraph, we expect all the sentences to be about the main idea of the paragraph. The main idea in this paragraph is "the description of your house". If we examine the paragraph, we see that some sentences do not describe the house, such as:

   In weekdays I arrive home at five o'clock and I have lunch.

   Then I do my homework and go to bed.

   I had a computer but now it doesn't work.

Now, rewrite the main idea of the example paragraph so that it covers all the sentences the student has written.

B. Coherence: It means that the sentences should be organized in a logical manner and should follow a definite plan of development.

   I live in a house in Izmit. It isn't old or modern. It's a normal Turkish house. We can say it is near the sea. It takes about 10 minutes to go to the sea side on foot. We have one bedroom, one living room. We also have two other rooms, too. We use them as a dining room. Naturally, we have a kitchen, a bathroom, and a toilet. I live with my parents. And our house has a little garden; my parents spend their time there to grow vegetables and fruit.

First, let's see the order of the ideas:

1. Where the house is

2. Type of the house

3. The location

4. The rooms in the house

5. The fact that he lives with his parents

6. The garden

The paragraph is well organized until he says he lives with his parents. It looks like this idea interrupted his description of the house. It should be put somewhere else in the paragraph.

C. Faulty Start:

Here are some ways to bore your readers to death (!) when starting a paragraph/an essay:

You can start with:

1. a nonsense sentence:

   e.g. I want to talk about X.

2. a cliché:

    e.g. X plays a great role in our lives.
         X is a very important issue in today's world.

I want to talk about friendship. Friends can change your life. So, you must know who is a real friend. Firstly, your friend must understand you and of course, you must understand her, too. I think, another important point in a friendship is confidence. You mustn't tell lies to each other. In addition, you must say everything about yourself. I think these are important for a friendship. If you have a friend like this, you don't break up with her because a real friend is not found easily.

How do we understand that "I want to talk about friendship." is a nonsense sentence? If we leave the nonsense sentence out, the content and meaning of the paragraph does not change.

D. Lack of Topic Sentence: Topic sentence is the main idea, your attitude, your evaluation of something.

Having no topic sentence is bad both for the writer and the reader. First, the reader has to read the entire paragraph to get to the point. Here, the example is one paragraph long. What if the example was a paper of 2-3 pages? This is one side. Lack of a topic sentence also causes the writer to drift away from the topic. He loses control over the writing. He may write 3 sentences about one controlling idea and 1 for the other which causes an imbalance within the writing.

I hate lie. I always try not to tell lies and I want that from my friends, too. I think it is the most important behavior. I can believe everything my friends say. In addition, a good friend must say his ideas to me firstly. I mean, he shouldn't talk about me with other people. Especially about the bad thing, he doesn't have to talk because it might be wrong. Secondly, a good friend must help me. He must do his best. He should ask help from me too. If we solve problems together, our friendship will be better and it will become stronger. Thirdly, the talking time is important. I can talk with my friends for a long time, and during that time I must be happy. That's why we should like the same things. In conclusion, trust is the basics of a friendship.

E.   Development of the ideas: It means that every idea discussed in the paragraph should be adequately explained and supported through evidence and examples.

We generally believe that people would easily understand us when we write. Unfortunately, our use of language may not be perfect and our ideas may be different. If we want our ideas to be understood, we need to explain them and give specific examples of each. Listing our ideas is never enough.

See the example below

First of all, a friend mustn't tell lie. He must always tell me the truth and he must be honest because if there is honesty between two friends, their relationship will last until death. In addition to honesty, helping or being near a friend on a bad day is very important. Another point to consider is that he must criticize me if I make a mistake.

If we list the ideas, here is what we get:

A friend must:
 * not tell a lie
 * be there for him on a bad day
 * criticize when necessary

The list and the paragraph are the same length because the ideas in the paragraph are also listed without explanation. This means, the ideas are not developed. It also lacks a topic sentence. Let's write the paragraph again creating a topic sentence and some explanation of the ideas provided.

2.   VOCABULARY CHOICE:

Many reasons play a role in our vocabulary mistakes. There are some English words and expressions that are confused throughout the world where English is used. There even are dictionaries of common language errors. For example, effect/affect, advice/advice. There are

sites dedicated to these common errors and related exercises amongst the links we have provided. Here, we would especially like to work on language errors caused mainly by Turkish interference (aka Turklish).

Let's read the paragraph below and then discuss the issue:

Friends play a great role in our lives. They effect our lives negatifly or positifly. We should choose them very carefully. First, we can look at his behaviors. If it is OK, no problem but if it is not, we can't become a "Kanka". After that, we can look at his activities. It is very important to do something together. We must beware of a person who has bad habits such as smoking, bad speaking, etc. Some people don't think so but I think finally we should look at his phsical aparians because if you have diffirent phsical aparianse than him, you can't be relaxable. For example if you are taller than him, this generally does unrelaxable to him. As a consequently, it is very important to choose a friend according to your especialities.

First of all, *"negatif"* and *"positif"* are written in Turkish (or almost in Turkish "pozitif"). We, Turkish learners of English, generally make this mistake both in writing and in speaking (consider "psychology, sociology"). We may have similar words in both languages; however, we must pay attention to their spellings and pronunciations.

Secondly, "Kanka" is a Turkish word. It is correct to highlight it either by using double quotations or writing in italics, but does this explain what "Kanka" means? Do all of us (including foreign instructors reading this writing) need to know this word which is used mostly by teenagers? It is common practice to use foreign words or expressions. If we use them, we need to make ourselves clear by explaining their meanings.

Thirdly, we see many misspelled words. We can deduce what they are but do we have to? Unless we write words correctly, we cannot expect others to understand us. This attitude "This is how I write / talk. If they want to understand me, they should get used to my style" would not help anyone, and should not be.

Now, let's get rid of the "Turklish" in the sample paragraph and write it again, without changing the meaning much.

Now, you can compare your version with the paragraph we have written. Remember, ours is only a suggestion. It is quite normal to have a different paragraph.

PRECIS WRITING

Method of writing précis

As far as my experience is concerned, the best way to write a precis is to adopt the following method;

1...for the first time,read the whole paragraph irrespective of whether you understand it or not.Do not get tensed about the difficult words.ignore them.just read the whole passage.in first reading ,u wont understand anything.

2. Read it for the second time.you'll start getting the main idea of the paragraph.try to understand the meaning of the difficult words by reading the sentences carefully and how are they used in the context.

3. When you are reading it for the third time, start underlining the main lines of the paragraphs that u think shld be written in precis.

4. on the last sheet (rough paper), write the underlined sentences in your own words in bullet points.count them.if they're one third fine otherwise make them onethird of the passage.

5. Suggest three or four titles that suits best to the sentences uve already written in your own words.

6. Select the best title among these three or four topics and reproduce it/write it on the neat sheet where you'll be attempting that question.n also write the sentences u wrote at the rough page neatly in one para or if needed in two paras

PASSAGE FOR EXAMPLE

I know no place where the great truth that no man necessarily is brought home to the mind so, remorselessly, and yet so refreshingly, as the House of Commons. Over even the greatest reputations it closes with barely a bubble. And yet the vanity of politicians is enormous. Lord Melbourne,' when asked his opinion of men, replied, 'Good fellows, but vain, very vain.'

There is a great deal of vanity, both expressed and concealed, in the House of Commons. I often wonder why, for I cannot imagine a place where men so habitually disregard each other's feelings, so openly trample on each other's egotisms. You rise to address the House. The Speaker calls on you by name. Hardly are you through the first sentence when your oldest friend, your college chum, the man you have appointed guardian of your infant children, rises in his place, gives you a stony stare, and seizing his hat in his hand, ostentatiously walks out of the House, as much as to say, '1 can stand many things, but not this'.

Whilst speaking of the House I have never failed to notice one man, at all events, who was paying me the compliment of the closest attention, who never took his eyes off me, who hung upon my words, on whom everything I was saying seemed to be making the greatest impression. But this solitary auditor is not in the least interested either in me or in my speech, and the only reason why he listens so intently and eyes me so closely is that he has made up his mind of follow me, and is eager to leap to his feet, in the hope of catching the Speaker's eye the very

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moment I sit down. Yet, for all this, vanity thrives in the House—though what it feeds on I cannot say. We are all anxious to exaggerate our own importance, and desperately anxious to make reputations for ourselves and to have our names associated with some subject - to pose as its patron and friend.

Vocabulary

Remorselessly—without repentance ; barely—hardly ; enormous—huge ; vain—proud ; concealed— hidden ; disregard-paying no attention ; trample—crush ; stare—look fixedly ; ostentatiously—in a showy manner ; compliment—praise ; auditor—listeners ; thrives—prospers ; Exaggerate-over-emphasize ; pose—assume the role of.

Analysis with Comments

First Paragraph. There are four sentences in the paragraphs; they can be condensed thus—(/) House of Commons brings home the truth that no man is necessary, (ii) Reputation hardly matters, (iii) yet politicians are vain. Lord Melbourne called men vain. The condensation of the sentences shows that the first gives the topic whereas the rest of the two throw more light on it. So the analysis of the first paragraph is —

Topic point. House of commons brings home the unimportance of man.

Supporting arguments, (i) Reputation is disregarded, (ii) Still politicians are vain though they think men are so.

Second Paragraph. First sentence restates that politicians are vain. Second sentence tells that there is no reason to be vain because others' feelings are disregarded. Third, fourth and fifth sentences give two illustrations to explain the point (i) Speaker calls the members by name, (ii) Closest friends may not like views. Last three sentences are conversational in style so they present a bit of difficulty in condensing them in direct style. Analysis of the paragraph is—

Topic point. In House of Commons there is regard for other's feelings.

Supporting arguments. There are two illustrations of disregard (i) Speaker calls the members by name, (ii) closest friend may not like the views of others.

Third Paragraph. In this paragraph he gives another illustration. It is from the writer's personal life, so we will have to generalize it. First and second sentences can be condensed thus : Those who pay compliments and attention to the speaker have some motive like taking the floor after the speech. Third sentence tells that still politicians are vain. Last sentence tells about the egotism in general terms. So the analysis of the paragraph is—

Topic point. Members of the House of Commons are vain though there is no reason to be so.

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Supporting arguments, (i) others pay attention to the speaker only to see that they may get a chance.

Topic point of the passage. Members of the House of Commons are vain though there is no reason to be so.

Finished Precis

Title. Baseless Vanity of English M.P's.

Members of the House of Commons are vain though the proceedings of the House never encourage it. No attention is paid to the reputation of the member ; the Speaker calls them by name. Their feelings are ignored and even crushed. The closest friends may walk out as others express their views. If any one pays attention or praises the speech of another member, it is with the motive to get a chance to speak. In fact members are given no importance. Thus there is nothing to feed their vanity, still they are vain. And House of Common proves that no man is necessary.

FORMAL CORRESPONDENCE

Layout of a Formal Letter

The example letter below shows you a general layout for a formal letter. Pass your mouse over the different areas of it to find out more information (JavaScript needs to be turned on in your browser).

 Example of Sample Business Letter

Dr. Michael Smith
123 ABC St.
New York City, NY 99999
April 17, 2012
Dr. Patricia Brown
University of California, Los Angeles Medical Center
777 Medical Dr.
Los Angeles, CA 11111
Dear Dr. Brown,
I am the chairman of the 2012 Metropolitan Medical Conference that is being held in Miami, Florida on July 5, 2012, and I would like to invite you to present your research on beta blockers.

We would be delighted to listen to you discuss your work, and I hope you will also agree to run a short question-and-answer session after the presentation.

Additionally, Metropolitan Medical would be pleased to cover your travel and lodging expenses while you visit the conference, in addition to providing you with a per diem budget.

Please reply with your answer as soon as you are able, so that we may begin to arrange your travel. I encourage you to contact me with any questions or concerns.

Kind regards,

Dr. Michael Smith

Rules for Writing Formal Letters in English

In English there are a number of conventions that should be used when writing a formal or business letter. Furthermore, you try to write as simply and as clearly as possible, and not to make the letter longer than necessary. Remember not to use informal language like contractions.

Addresses:

1) Your Address
The return address should be written in the top right-hand corner of the letter.

2) The Address of the person you are writing to
The inside address should be written on the left, starting below your address.

Date:

Different people put the date on different sides of the page. You can write this on the right or the left on the line after the address you are writing to. Write the month as a word.

Salutation or greeting:

1) Dear Sir or Madam,
If you do not know the name of the person you are writing to, use this. It is always advisable to try to find out a name.

2) Dear Mr Jenkins,
If you know the name, use the title (Mr, Mrs, Miss or Ms, Dr, etc.) and the surname only. If you are writing to a woman and do not know if she uses Mrs or Miss, you can use Ms, which is for married and single women.

Ending a letter:

1) Yours faithfully
If you do not know the name of the person, end the letter this way.

2) Yours sincerely
If you know the name of the person, end the letter this way.

3) Your signature
Sign your name, then print it underneath the signature. If you think the person you are writing to might not know whether you are male of female, put you title in brackets after your name.

Content of a Formal Letter

First paragraph
The first paragraph should be short and state the purpose of the letter- to make an enquiry, complain, request something, etc.

The paragraph or paragraphs in the middle of the letter should contain the relevant information behind the writing of the letter. Most letters in English are not very long, so keep the information to the essentials and concentrate on organising it in a clear and logical manner rather than expanding too much.

Last Paragraph
The last paragraph of a formal letter should state what action you expect the recipient to take- to refund, send you information, etc.

Abbreviations Used in Letter Writing

The following abbreviations are widely used in letters:

- **asap** = as soon as possible
- **cc** = carbon copy (when you send a copy of a letter to more than one person, you use this abbreviation to let them know)
- **enc.** = enclosure (when you include other papers with your letter)
- **pp** = per procurationem (A Latin phrase meaning that you are signing the letter on somebody else's behalf; if they are not there to sign it themselves, etc)
- **ps** = postscript (when you want to add something after you've finished and signed it)
- **pto** *(informal)* = please turn over (to make sure that the other person knows the letter continues on the other side of the page)
- **RSVP** = please reply

Outline: A Covering Letter

A covering letter is the one that accompanies your CV when you are applying for a job. Here is a fairly conventional plan for the layout of the paragraphs.

Opening Paragraph
Briefly identify yourself and the position you are applying for. Add how you found out about the vacancy.

Paragraph 2
Give the reasons why you are interested in working for the company and why you wish to be considered for that particular post. State your relevant qualifications and experience, as well as your personal qualities that make you a suitable candidate.

Paragraph 3
Inform them that you have enclosed your current CV and add any further information that you think could help your case.

Closing Paragraph
Give your availability for interview, thank them for their consideration, restate your interest and close the letter.

Outline: A Letter of Enquiry

A letter of enquiry is when you are approaching a company speculatively, that is you are making an approach without their having advertised or announced a vacancy.

Opening Paragraph
introduces yourself briefly and gives your reason for writing. Let them know of the kind of position you are seeking, why you are interested and how you heard about them.

Paragraph 2
Show why their company in particular interests you, mention your qualifications and experience along with any further details that might make them interested in seeing you.

Paragraph 3
Refer to your enclosed CV and draw their attention to any particularly important points you would like them to focus on in it.

Closing Paragraph
Thank them, explain your availability for interview and restate your enthusiasm for their company and desire to be considered for posts that might as yet be unavailable.

NOTE TAKING AND NOTE MAKING

Throughout the learning process, you have to read different books, handouts, journals and websites which will provide plenty of information than shown in the slides. Moreover, lecturer may also give very useful tips and vital information for assignment or exams that you should not miss the classes. To deal with all the information there is no other method or particular way except to reduce them as notes. Note simply means quickly writing down information as a record or reminder. Note can be taken and even you can make your own. Let's see the definition of taking and making notes. Note taking is when you are reading or hearing something for the first time and you are trying to note down the key points so you can use it later. However, note making is when you return to those notes whether it is books or slides and makes notes on them. This means you annotate them, summaries or put things into your own words, draw diagram as mind maps and make notes as outline or as column. These are the different styles or ways of making notes.

➢ To remember the main points effectively without having to read text, paragraph and pages repeatedly all over again you can use annotation method. This is by writing the boarders, underlining the facts and highlighting etc. This method is most suitable for print modules, textbooks, articles, reports or any other resource.

➢ The second method is summaries. When you put information into your own words or summaries as note you need to take down the main point and write down them as paragraph form. Whenever you want to check the original source you can easily find. This is because in the summary you have written more specific information.

➢ Next method is mind maps. It shows relationship between ideas, tasks and concepts, connecting with lines. This method is useful for problem solving or to show the relationship between each other ideas or concepts. In this method you can place information in a format or different ways that you can easily get it.

➢ Another method is outline notes. Outline method are most helpful for material that moves from main ideas to detail. For this method you can use keywords and phrases, under different heading like subheadings etc. These notes are usually sequentially numbered as Roman numerals, Arabic numerals and letters of the English alphabet.

➢ Lastly, Column notes. This method is useful for information that has to be grouped according to its type. This method is appropriate for Economics, Mathematics and Science course etc.

➢ However, there are different formats or styles you can choose to make notes. You have to find a method that suits you, because it is a matter of preference for your own and personal needs. You might use any format or style depending on your purpose and needs. Moreover if you are going to choose any methods that exist then you have to know how to use that method.

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> There are benefits of taking and making notes. As we all know, the most vital requirement in studying is involving in the learning process. When you are taking or making notes it actively involves you in the learning process. So it helps to keep the learner's attention focused on the lecture. And this will help you to study while you are writing.

> Another benefit is that making notes allows you to reduce information to a manageable size. Furthermore, it helps you to see an overview of an entire topic by the end of it. As you know well-organized notes make the writing process much more efficient. Moreover this makes the subjects easier to remember. This shows making or taking notes is an aid for revision. If you revise from notes effectively then you can get a very good result.

> In addition to that, the next benefit is that taking or making notes allows you to understand and it helps you to learn summarize or to sort out the vital information. Moreover, it improves your writing skills and hearing skills or develops a sense of listening. More than that if you are able to take or make good notes you can save a lot of time and effort. It will avoid agony when it is time for you to write assignment or prepare for examinations. Another thing is you don't have to look all over again for the original text and pages. Without getting boring you will be able to get what you want.

> On the other hand, without identifying noteworthy materials if you are going to copy everything said by the lecturer tells then it is waste of time for writing than listening. So it requires active reading for some methods. As well as, if chosen a wrong method for taking or making note then you going to lose your vital information. Even more it is not possible to take notes when lecturer teaches if you are not a good listener so you have to improve your listening skills. Moreover, it may be waste of materials. This is because you may draw and write two or three times to make even short in different papers. Another thing is that you have to go through the whole topic quickly first before going to class or tutor. Without reading the whole topic then trying to take or make note then you may not understand all that is presented in the slides, to avoid this you have to understand at least the basic ideas of the topic.

> As a conclusion, I believe that while you are in learning process you have to be active rather than being passive. Taking or making notes are not meant to suppress the concentration on listening. When you are taking or making note this means you are concentrating on what is being said or read this will let you involve in learning process. This might be the way learner learns while they learning. However as I said before the person who is studying have to find a way that's easy for him or her

Ten Basic Steps:

1. Don't write down everything that you read or hear. Be alert and attentive to the main points. Concentrate on the "meat" of the subject and forget the trimmings.

2. Notes should consist of key words, or very short sentences. As a speaker gets side-tracked you can go back and add further information.

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3. Take accurate notes. You should usually use your own words, but try not to change the meaning. If you quote directly from the author, quote correctly.

4. Think a minute about your material before you start making notes. Don't take notes just to be taking notes! Take notes that will be of real value to you when you look over them later.

5. Have a uniform system of punctuation and abbreviation that will make sense to you. Use a skeleton outline, and show importance by indenting. Leave lots of white space for later additions.

6. Omit descriptions and full explanations. Keep your notes short and to the point. Condense your material so you can grasp it rapidly.

7. Don't worry about missing a point. Leave space and try to pick up the material you miss at a later date, either through reading, questioning, or common sense.

8. Don't keep notes on oddly shaped pieces of paper. Keep notes in order and in one place.

9. Shortly after making your notes, go back and rework (not recopy!) your notes by adding extra points, spelling out unclear items, etc. Remember, we forget quickly. Budget time for this vital step just as you do for the class itself.

10. Review your notes periodically. This is the only way to achieve lasting memory.

Taking Useful Notes

1. Use dashes for words when the speaker goes too fast. Leave space so that you can fill in details later.
2. Use symbols to call attention to important words: underline, CAPS, circle, box, *, !, ?, or › .
3. When the instructor says, "This is important" get it exactly and * (mark it). Get a reference to the text or other source if you can.
4. Don't erase a mistake and don't black it out completely. Draw a single line through it. This saves time and you may discover later that you want the mistake.
5. Abbreviate – Shortcuts, such as abbreviations, are alternatives to writing everything longhand. Abbreviate only if you will be able to understand your won symbols when you go back to study your notes. Be constantly on the lookout for new and useful abbreviations and symbols to shorten your writing time. This will also increase your listening time.

Commonly Used Symbols and Abbreviations:

&	And

No. or #	Number
=	equal to, is the same as
b/4	Before
ref.	Reference
w/	With
>	greater than
<	less than
i.e.,	that is
vs.	versus, as opposed to
e.g.,	for example
etc.	et cetera
Q.	Question
b/c	Because
w/o	Without

ABSTRACTS

The abstract, which is preceded by the title of the invention, contains a concise summary of the disclosure of the invention as contained in the description, claims and drawings . Abstracts are normally loaded approximately one month after the publication date, although this depends on availability and delivery from the national offices and patent-granting authorities.

An abstract may be a translation into English of the abstract of a published document not originally in English. In some cases the EPO has not translated either the title or the abstract into English.

English-language abstracts are available for all patent applications from the PCT minimum documentation and their corresponding documents dating from 1970 onwards, and in some cases even earlier than that.

Corresponding documents are chosen in the order shown below:

- The EP document in English (where available)
- The US document (where available)
- The GB document (where available)

Espacenet holds data on more than 80 million patent documents from over 90 patent-granting authorities. Within the abstract field, you can search for between one and ten words. If you enter more than one word (e.g. frame bicycle), only those documents will be retrieved in which all the words appear at some point in the abstract.

The highlighting of searched terms is activated by default. To deactivate it, deselect the relevant box under the Settings tab. You can also search for a term using quotation marks (e.g. "bicycle frame"). This will retrieve only those documents in which the exact phrase is present.

When searching in abstracts and titles you should avoid using stop words such as FOR, WITH, THE, BUT, AND, OF, ANY, etc. Apostrophes ('), hyphens (-) and slashes (/) are not allowed when searching in the worldwide database. Please use blank spaces instead. Apostrophes and hyphens are, however, allowed when searching the EP and WIPO databases. To obtain optimum results we recommend searching using a combination of the IPC /ECLA classification systems and abstract fields.

Introduction

Abstracts have always served the function of "selling" your work. But now, instead of merely convincing the reader to keep reading the rest of the attached paper, an abstract must convince the reader to leave the comfort of an office and go hunt down a copy of the article from a library (or worse, obtain one after a long wait through inter-library loan). In a business context, an "executive summary" is often the *only* piece of a report read by the people who matter; and it should be similar in content if not tone to a journal paper abstract.

Checklist: Parts of an Abstract

Despite the fact that an abstract is quite brief, it must do almost as much work as the multi-page paper that follows it. In a computer architecture paper, this means that it should in most cases include the following sections. Each section is typically a single sentence, although there is room for creativity. In particular, the parts may be merged or spread among a set of sentences. Use the following as a checklist for your next abstract:

- **Motivation:**
  Why do we care about the problem and the results? If the problem isn't obviously "interesting" it might be better to put motivation first; but if your work is incremental progress on a problem that is widely recognized as important, then it is probably better to put the problem statement first to indicate which piece of the larger problem you are breaking off to work on. This section should include the importance of your work, the difficulty of the area, and the impact it might have if successful.
- **Problem   statement:**
  What *problem* are you trying to solve? What is the *scope* of your work (a generalized approach, or for a specific situation)? Be careful not to use too much jargon. In some

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cases it is appropriate to put the problem statement before the motivation, but usually this only works if most readers already understand why the problem is important.

- **Approach:**
  How did you go about solving or making progress on the problem? Did you use simulation, analytic models, prototype construction, or analysis of field data for an actual product? What was the *extent* of your work (did you look at one application program or a hundred programs in twenty different programming languages?) What important *variables* did you control, ignore, or measure?

- **Results:**
  What's the answer? Specifically, most good computer architecture papers conclude that something is so many percent faster, cheaper, smaller, or otherwise better than something else. Put the result there, in numbers. Avoid vague, hand-waving results such as "very", "small", or "significant." If you must be vague, you are only given license to do so when you can talk about orders-of-magnitude improvement. There is a tension here in that you should not provide numbers that can be easily misinterpreted, but on the other hand you don't have room for all the caveats.

- **Conclusions:**
  What are the implications of your answer? Is it going to change the world (unlikely), be a significant "win", be a nice hack, or simply serve as a road sign indicating that this path is a waste of time (all of the previous results are useful). Are your results *general*, potentially generalizable, or specific to a particular case?

Other Considerations

An abstract must be a fully self-contained, capsule description of the paper. It can't assume (or attempt to provoke) the reader into flipping through looking for an explanation of what is meant by some vague statement. It must make sense all by itself. Some points to consider include:

- Meet the word count limitation. If your abstract runs too long, either it will be rejected or someone will take a chainsaw to it to get it down to size. Your purposes will be better served by doing the difficult task of cutting yourself, rather than leaving it to someone else who might be more interested in meeting size restrictions than in representing your efforts in the best possible manner. An abstract word limit of 150 to 200 words is common.

- Any major restrictions or limitations on the results should be stated, if only by using "weasel-words" such as "might", "could", "may", and "seem".

- Think of a half-dozen search phrases and keywords that people looking for your work might use. Be sure that those exact phrases appear in your abstract, so that they will turn up at the top of a search result listing.

- Usually the context of a paper is set by the publication it appears in (for example, *IEEE Computer* magazine's articles are generally about computer technology). But, if your paper appears in a somewhat un-traditional venue, be sure to include in the problem statement the domain or topic area that it is really applicable to.

- Some publications request "keywords". These have two purposes. They are used to facilitate keyword index searches, which are greatly reduced in importance now that on-line abstract text searching is commonly used. However, they are also used to assign papers to review committees or editors, which can be extremely important to your fate. So make sure that the keywords you pick make assigning your paper to a review category obvious (for example, if there is a list of conference topics, use your chosen topic area as one of the keyword tuples).

DRAFTING OF PROJECT & REPORT

1. Why is the report important?
If you wish to secure a good mark for your project, it is absolutely essential that you write a good report. It is the report which is marked, not the program or anything else you might have constructed during the project period. No matter how significant your achievements, if you do not write up your work, and write it up well, you will obtain a poor mark.

It is essential to understand that the report will be read and marked by a number of examiners (normally 2 - 4), only one of whom - your supervisor - will have any familiarity with the work which the report describes. Examiners are not mind-readers, and cannot give credit for work which you have done but not included in the report.

2. What are the examiners looking for?
Each project report is marked initially by two examiners, one of whom is the supervisor. Each examiner fills in an online mark form, giving marks for various aspects of the report and an overall mark. Studying the mark sheet will give you a good idea of what aspects of the report are important.

The notes to examiners which accompany the mark sheet use the terms ``perfect'', ``quite good'', ``abysmal'' and so on to describe the attributes of a particular numerical mark (e.g. 5 is ``satisfactory''). There is a separate document which goes into great detail about what precisely ``satisfactory'' means in particular contexts, but I'm not sure that these definitions are widely used: most examiners believe that they have an accurate and objective understanding of what is ``satisfactory''.

Note that supervisors might specify on the mark sheet that a particular aspect of the project is to be assessed - for example, a review of the project area - even if that area is not covered in the project report. Decisions on what is to be assessed are the supervisor's responsibility, but you should be aware of the standard headings, think carefully about what you present (or do not present) under each, and discuss and agree it with your supervisor.

Remember that your report is an academic dissertation, not a popular article or commercial proposal. For example, rather than describing only a series of events and a final product, try to

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establish criteria, present arguments, derive principles, pose and answer questions, measure success, analyse alternatives and so on. Where a project has been undertaken with industrial support, the significance of that support for the project, and the relevance of the project to the supporting industry, should be discussed.

3. The mechanics of writing

The problem you have to solve is this: to transfer your own experiences of doing the project, and the knowledge you have gained, from your brain onto paper in a coherent, logical and correct form.

There are several ways of achieving this. Different authors have different techniques. My own method, which I think is quite common among technical authors, is to write as quickly as I can, without regard for coherency, structure or order, until I have written down (or rather, typed in) all the points I can think of. If my brain is running faster than my fingers and a thought pops into my head which belongs in another part of the document, I skip to the end of the page and insert a few words there to remind me to expand that point later, then resume where I was. The aim is to transfer as much relevant material from brain to paper as quickly as possible. This method has been called the ``brain dump''. It is practised, I think, by some writers of fiction as well as by technical authors.

After three hours of ``brain dumping'' I might have four or five pages of disorganized text. I then spend perhaps six hours putting the text into order and tightening up the prose, after which I might have three pages of good-quality prose. This method of writing is an iterative process, with periods of ``brain dumping'' alternating with periods of tidying-up.

At the rate of three pages of polished text every nine hours, a typical 60-page PR3 project report will take you about four weeks to complete, working full-time. You must allow time to prepare the appendices (e.g. program listings) and illustrations. Good-quality illustrations, in particular, take a long time to prepare. You should therefore allow at least *six weeks* to write the report.

If you kept a note-book during the project period, you will find the writing-up process much easier.

4. How to write well

Many students appear not to realize how difficult it is to write well. Any type of writing (except perhaps advertising copy) is difficult, but technical writing is particularly hard.

There are many books which address the subject of good technical writing. By far the best among those which I have seen is Scientists Must Write by Robert Barrass (1982). Though published over twenty years ago, this superb little book is still in print. There are several copies in the J.B. Morrell library, but since it costs only £11.19 (from the Internet Bookshop), you would be well advised to buy a copy and to read it from cover to cover.

4.1. Precision

You must strive first to be absolutely precise. When you write, it is not sufficient that *you* know what you mean; neither is it sufficient that your writing admits of the meaning which you intend: it must admit of no other meaning. What you write must not be capable of misinterpretation. Take exceptional care to choose the right word for the occasion. Do not, for example, write ``optimum'' if you mean ``good''. ``Approximate'' means ``close'', so ``very approximate'' means ``very close'' - which is not what many people seem to think it means.

4.2. Vigour

Precision in writing is mainly a matter of taking sufficient care. Good writing is not only precise, however, it is *vigorous*, and that is much harder to achieve. It helps if you have read widely, especially novels. Here are some hints which might help you to write forcefully and vigorously.

Prefer short sentences to long sentences. Prefer short words to long words, provided that the short word has the meaning you need. Terseness is a great virtue in technical writing. (But don't go too far; remember Horace's observation: ``Brevis esse laboro, obscurus fio''.) Avoid circumlocutions. ``In almost all sectors of the computing marketplace'' can be replaced in most contexts by ``almost everywhere''.

The question of whether to use the passive voice in technical writing is a thorny one. Most older writers still write ``a program was written ...'' rather than ``I wrote a program ...''. Many of your examiners might share this preference for, or prejudice in favour of, the passive voice, but this style is passing out of favour in all technical writing, and I advise you not to use it. Whatever you do, do not use the ``royal we'' (``we wrote a program'' when you mean ``I wrote a program'').

There is general agreement that Latin phrases are best avoided in technical writing (but the occasional Latin quotation might lend a spurious air of erudition!) Nevertheless, many careful writers have their own favourite Latin phrases which find occasional use. The best rule is that a Latin phrase is acceptable if it abbreviates a circumlocutionary English phrase. *Mutatis mutandis*, for example, one of my own favourites, is permissible in place of ``making the appropriate changes'', since any English gloss seems to be ugly and unwieldy. ``I.e.'' (note the roman font and punctuation) is often useful in place of ``in other words'' or ``that is'', and is widely understood. Quite often, however, ``*X*, i.e., *Y*'' can be replaced by ``*Y*'', because the writer realized while writing *X* that *Y* said the same, only better. ``E.g.'' is overused and best used sparingly; prefer ``for instance'' or ``for example''.

4.3. Spelling and grammar

You must take exceptional care to spell correctly. Poor spelling is a distraction to the proficient reader. In most cases there is very little excuse nowadays for spelling errors; there are many excellent spell-checker programs which make a good job of finding the errors for you, and excellent (paper) dictionaries which will tell you what the correct spelling is. Be especially

careful with words whose common misspelling is a correct spelling of a different word, in particular the following pairs: lead/led; loose/lose; affect/effect. It is dangerous to allow the spell-checker to ``correct'' a misspelling by itself; many such hilarious ``corrections'' have been reported, for example recently in *New Scientist*.

Believe the spell-checker. Very many people, for example, on finding that the spell-checker questions ``idiosyncracy'' [sic], say to themselves ``it must be missing from the dictionary file'', and leave the word alone. It is - for a good reason.

If you have a medical condition which makes it difficult for you to spell correctly, make sure that your supervisor knows about it, so that it can be taken into account by the examiners.

If poor spelling is a distraction which impedes understanding, poor grammar is more so. There are so many potential grammatical solecisms that it would be inappropriate to attempt to list them here. Read Fowler's *Modern English Usage* for guidance. This book has been revised several times since its first publication in 1926. The most recent (1998) edition is probably the best to use, not because its recommendations are more permissive or up-to-date, but because it draws attention to traps which it would not have occurred to Fowler in 1926 that anyone could fall into. The original 1926 edition is famous for its vigorous, fiery language, which has been successively watered down in later revisions.

Take care with apostrophes. Historically, the apostrophe denoted the omission of one or more letters: don't = do not, John's book = John his book. For this reason, careful writers of British English restrict the possessive use of the apostrophe to animate possessors. You may write ``John's book'' but not ``the program's function'', since (so the argument goes) one cannot write ``the program his function'': you must write ``the function of the program'' instead. This rule is being steadily eroded under American influence, and will probably soon be obsolete.

I mention the ``animate possessor'' rule in order to illustrate and to explain a very common blunder. *Never* use an apostrophe with a possessive pronoun. ``It's'' means ``it is'' (the letter that's omitted is an ``i''), *not* ``it his'', which is plain silly. One never sees spurious apostrophes in his, hers, ours, yours, theirs; so why does one so often see ``it's'' in place of ``its'', which is the correct possessive pronoun?

The brain of the experienced reader, on seeing ``it's'', performs a lexical-level macro-expansion, replacing ``it's'' by ``it is''. This then fails to make syntactic sense in the context, necessitating a backtracking and re-parsing operation, and conscious expenditure of effort. It really does slow down, and consequently annoy, the reader. This crass and ignorant blunder probably does more to distract and to impede the reader of students' reports than any other grammatical solecism.

Summary: ``it's'' = ``it is'' (needed rarely, if at all, in formal writing). ``Its'' is the pronoun (This is my program. Its purpose is to ... .) You almost certainly mean ``its''.

Even if you yourself do not place a strong emphasis on good spelling and good grammar, most of your examiners do, some fanatically. Most examiners will be irritated by poor spelling and poor grammar. It is always worth doing whatever you can, short of bribery, to put your examiner in a good mood. Write well and spell well, for this reason if for no other!

4.4. Typography

When I prepared my own final-year project report, I wrote it with pen and ink and handed the manuscript to the departmental secretary who typed it for me on an IBM typewriter. Modern practice is different, and now you yourself are responsible for producing a computer-typeset report. This means that you must be familiar both with the formal requirements set out in the Students' Handbook (restricting the number of pages, type size, width of margins, and so on) and with the rudiments of typography. You will not be penalized severely, if at all, if you violate typographical conventions, but good typography creates a subliminal impression akin to that of good proportion in a painting, and is desirable for that reason. Since it is a matter of simply learning and following the rules, you should try to do so. You should learn at least enough (for example) to know the difference between the hyphen, minus, en-dash and em-dash, and when to use each of them.

4.5. Illustrations

Your report should generally contain illustrations (figures or diagrams), but they must be relevant. Ask yourself if the illustration helps the reader to understand the text. If the text is readily comprehensible without the illustration, delete the illustration. If it is not, it is usually better to make the text clearer than to add a diagram.

All illustrations should be prepared by an appropriate program, such as *pic*, *xfig* or *grap*. They should not be hand-drawn. The only common exception to this rule is circuit diagrams: given the current state of the art in schematic-entry packages, a hand-drawn circuit diagram is usually preferable to a computer-drawn one.

If possible, include figures close to the text which refers to them, rather than all together in an appendix. Circuit diagrams are, again, a possible exception to this rule. It is normal to list tables and figures at the beginning of the report, after the table of contents.

5. Structure

1. Top-level structure

At the top level, a typical report is organized in the following way.

1. Abstract. (This is a couple of paragraphs - no more - which summarizes the content of the report. It must be comprehensible to someone who has not read the rest of the report.)
2. Introduction. (The scope of the project, setting the scene for the remainder of the report.)

3. Previous work. (One or more review chapters, describing the research you did at the beginning of the project period.)
4. Several chapters describing what you have done, focusing on the novel aspects of your own work.
5. Further work. (A chapter describing possible ways in which your work could be continued or developed. Be imaginative but realistic.)
6. Conclusions. (This is similar to the abstract. The difference is that you should assume here that the reader of the conclusions has read the rest of the report.)
7. References and appendices.

5.2. References

References must be relevant. A typical PR3 project report might contain about one page of pertinent references, if the initial research period was well spent. Do not include references which you have not read, no matter how relevant you think they might be. If you refer to standard material which is covered by a large number of text-books, choose one or two really good ones and cite those, rather than a long list of mediocre texts.

5.3. Lower-level structure

Structure is a recursive concept. A well-structured report has its top-level sections well ordered, and it is easy to get this right; but each section must in itself be well ordered, and that is more difficult.

Most paper documents, and many on-line documents, are read linearly from beginning to end. This is certainly true of an examiner reading a project report. Consequently, the writer of a well-structured document avoids forward references wherever possible. Try to avoid writing ``... as we shall see in chapter 10 ...'', especially if the material in chapter 10 is essential to an understanding of the text at the point where the reference occurs. Occasionally such references are unavoidable, but more often than not they are a sign that the text needs to be re-ordered.

In the old days, re-ordering text entailed ``cutting and pasting'' with real scissors and real paste. Nowadays, the word-processor has made these operations so easy that there is no excuse for slovenly structure. Take your time, and keep rearranging words or phrases within sentences, sentences within paragraphs, paragraphs within sections and sections within the whole report until you have got it right. Aim for a logical progression from beginning to end, with each sentence building on the previous ones.

If the chapters are numbered 1, 2, 3... then the sections within (say) chapter 1 will be numbered 1.1, 1.2, ... It is permissible to sub-divide a section: the sub-sections within section 1.1 will be numbered 1.1.1, 1.1.2, ... Do not however nest sub-sections to more than four levels: sub-sub-section 1.2.3.4 is acceptable, but 1.2.3.4.5 is not. It is quite possible, with care, to write even a large and complex book without using more than three levels.

Footnotes are a nuisance to the reader. They interrupt the linear flow of text and necessitate a mental stack-pushing and stack-popping which demand conscious effort. There are rare occasions when footnotes are acceptable, but they are so rare that it is best to avoid them altogether. To remove a footnote, first try putting it in-line, surrounded by parentheses. It is likely that the poor structure which was disguised by the footnote apparatus will then become apparent, and can be improved by cutting and pasting.

6. The role of artefacts in projects

Deep down, all students seem to believe that their project is ``to write a program'' (or, ``to build a circuit''). They believe that they will be judged by how much their program does. They are amazed when their supervisor is unconcerned about the inclusion or non-inclusion of a listing in the report. They fear that they will be penalized if their program is small-scale or if they do not make grandiose claims for its power and functionality.

This leads to reports heavy with code and assertions about code, but light on reasoning. Students omit the reasoning because they are short of time and think the code more important, and thereby they lose credit they could have had. It leads also to the omission of testing. Hence there are assertions about the extent of implementation, but no evidence (in the form of records of testing) to back them up.

7. You and your supervisor

Writing is a solitary pursuit. Whereas your supervisor will guide you through the early stages of your project work, you must write the report on your own. It is a University assessment, and the rules on plagiarism and collusion (do consult the Students' Handbook!), and the conventions which restrict the amount of help a supervisor can give, apply. Nevertheless, most supervisors will be happy to read and to comment on drafts of sections of your project report before you hand it in, if you give them enough time to do so. It's also a good idea to ask your supervisor to suggest some high-quality past projects in a similar field to yours, and to look them up in the departmental library. This will give you an idea of what is required.

8. Summary

1. Good writing is difficult, but it is worth taking the trouble to write well.
2. Leonard was trying to form his style on Ruskin: he understood him to be the greatest master of English prose.

LEGAL MAXIMS.

A

A mensa et thoro - From bed and board.

A vinculo matrimonii - From the bond of matrimony.

Ab extra - From outside.

Ab initio - From the beginning.

Absoluta sententia expositore non indiget - An absolute judgment needs no expositor.

Abundans cautela non nocet - Abundant caution does no harm.

Accessorium non ducit sed sequitur suum principale - An accessory does not draw, but follows its principal.

Accessorius sequitur - One who is an accessory to the crime cannot be guilty of a more serious crime than the principal offender.

Acta exteriora iudicant interiora secreta - Outward acts indicate the inward intent.

Actio non accrevit infra sex annos - The action has not accrued within six years.

Actio non datur non damnificato - An action is not given to one who is not injured.

Actio personalis moritur cum persona - A personal action dies with the person.

Actiones legis - Law suits.

Actori incumbit onus probandi - The burden of proof lies on the plaintiff.

Actus nemini facit injuriam - The act of the law does no one wrong.

Actus non facit reum nisi mens sit rea - The act does not make one guilty unless there be a criminal intent.

Actus reus - A guilty deed or act.

Ad ea quae frequentius acciduunt jura adaptantur - The laws are adapted to those cases which occur more frequently.

Ad hoc - For this purpose.

Ad infinitum - Forever, without limit, to infinity.

Ad perpetuam rei memoriam - For a perpetual memorial of the matter.

Ad quaestionem facti non respondent judices; ad quaestionem legis non respondent juratores - The judges do not answer to a question of fact; the jury do not answer to a question of Law.

Aedificare in tuo proprio solo non licet quod alteri noceat - It is not lawful to build on one's own land what may be injurious to another.

Aequitas legem sequitur - Equity follows the law.

Aequitas nunquam contravenit legem - Equity never contradicts the law.

Alibi - At another place, elsewhere.

Alienatio rei praefertur juri accrescendi - Alienation is preferred by law rather than accumulation.

Aliunde - From elsewhere, or, from a different source

Allegans contraria non est audiendus - One making contradictory statements is not to be heard.

Allegans suam turpitudinem non est audiendus - One alleging his own infamy is not to be heard.

Allegatio contra factum non est admittenda - An allegation contrary to a deed is not to be heard.

Ambiguitas contra stipulatorem est - An ambiguity is most strongly construed against the party using it.

Ambiguitas verborum patens nulla verificatione excluditur - A patent ambiguity is never helped by averment.

Amicus curiae - A friend of the Court.

Angliae jura in omni casu libertati dant favorem - The laws of England are favorable in every case to liberty.

Animo furandi - With an intention of stealing.

Animo testandi - With an intention of making a will.

Annus luctus - The year of mourning.

Ante - Before.

Aqua currit et debet currere, ut currere solebat - Water runs and ought to run.

Arbitrium est judicium - An award is a judgment.

Arbor dum crescit; lignum cum crescere nescit - A tree while it grows, wood when it cannot grow.

Argumentum ab auctoritate fortissimum est in lege - An argument drawn from authority is the strongest in law.

Argumentum ab impossibilii plurimum valet in lege - An argument from impossibility is very strong in law.

Argumentum ad hominem - An argument directed a the person.

Argumentum ad ignoratiam - An argument based upon ignorance (i.e. of one's adversary).

Arma in armatos sumere jura sinunt - The laws permit the taking up of arms against the armed.

Assentio mentium - The meeting of minds, i.e. mutual assent.

Assignatus utitur jure auctoris - An assignee is clothed with rights of his assignor.

Audi alteram partem - Hear the other side.

Aula regis - The King's Court.

B

Benignior sententia in verbis generalibus seu dubiis est preferenda - The more favorable construction is to be placed on general or doubtful words.

Bis dat qui cito dat - He gives (pays) twice who pays promptly.

Bona fide - Sincere, in good faith

Bona vacantia - Goods without an owner

Boni judicis est ampliare jurisdictionem - It is the part of a good judge to enlarge his jurisdiction, i.e. remedial authority.

Boni judicis est judicium sine dilatione mandare executioni - It is the duty of a good judge to cause execution to issue on a judgment without delay.

Boni judicis lites dirimere est - It is the duty of a good judge to prevent litigation.

Bonus judex secundum aequum et bonum judicat et aequitatem stricto juri praefert - A good judge decides according to justice and right and prefers equity to strict law.

Breve judiciale non cadit pro defectu formae - A judicial writing does not fail through defect of form.

C

Cadit quaestio - The matter admits of no further argument.

Cassetur billa (breve) - Let the writ be quashed.

Casus fortuitus non est spectandus; et nemo tenetur divinare - A fortuitous event is not to be foreseen and no person is bound to divine it.

Catalla reputantur inter minima in lege - Chattels are considered in law among the minor things.

Causa proxima, non remota spectatur - The immediate, and not the remote cause is to be considered.

Caveat emptor - Let the purchaser beware.

Caveat venditor - Let the seller beware.

Cepi corpus et est languidum - I have taken the body and the prisoner is sick.

Cepi corpus et paratum habeo - I have taken the body and have it ready.

Ceteris paribus - Other things being equal.

Consensu - Unanimously or, by general consent.

Consensus ad idem - Agreement as to the same things.

Consuetudo loci observanda est - The custom of the place is to be observed.

Contemporanea expositio est optima et fortissima in lege - A contemporaneous exposition is best and most powerful

in law.

Contra - To the contrary.

Contra bonos mores - Against good morals.

Contra non valentem agere nulla currit praescriptio - No prescription runs against a person not able to act.

Contractus est quasi actus contra actum - A contract is an act as it were against an act.

Conventio et modus vincunt legem - A contract and agreement overcome the law.

Conventio privatorum non potest publico juri derogare - An agreement of private persons cannot derogate from public right.

Coram Domino Rege - In the presence of our Lord the King.

Coram non judice - Before one who is not a judge.

Corpus - Body.

Corpus delicti - The body, i.e. the gist of crime.

Corpus humanum non recipit aestimationem - A human body is not susceptible of appraisement.

Crescente malitia crescere debet et poena - Vice increasing, punishment ought also to increase.

Crimen omnia ex se nata vitiat - Crime vitiates every thing, which springs from it.

Crimen trahit personam - The crime carries the person.

Cujus est dare, ejus est disponere - He who has a right to give has the right to dispose of the gift.

Cujus est solum, ejus est usque ad coelam; et ad inferos - He who owns the soil owns it up to the sky; and to its depth.

Cum duo inter se pugnantia reperiuntur in testamentis ultimum ratum est - When two things repugnant to each other are found in a will, the last is to be confirmed.

Cursus curiae est lex curiae - The practice of the court is the law of the court.

Custos morum - A guardian of morals.

D

Damnum sine injuria - damage without legal injury.

De bonis asportatis - Of goods carried away.

De bonis non administratis - Of goods not administered.

De die in diem - From day to day.

De facto - In fact.

De futuro - In the future.

De integro - As regards the whole.

De jure - Rightful, by right.

De minimis lex non curat - The law does not notice trifling matters.

De novo - Starting afresh.

Debile fundamentum fallit opus - Where there is a weak foundation, the work fails.

Debita sequuntur personam debitoria - Debts follow the person of the debtor.

Debitor non praesumitur donare - A debtor is not presumed to make a gift.

Debitum et contractus sunt nullius loci - Debt and contract are of no particular place.

Debitum in praesenti, solvendum in futuro - A present debt is to be discharged in the future.

Delegata potestas non potest delegari - A delegated authority cannot be again delegated.

Derivativa potestas non potest esse major primitiva - The power which is derived cannot be greater than that from which it is derived.

Deus solus haeredem facere potest, non homo - God alone, not man, can make an heir.

Dies Dominicus non est juridicus - Sunday is not a day in law.

Discretio est discernere per legem quid sit justum - Discretion is to discern through law what is just.

Doli incapax - Incapable of crime.

Dominium - Ownership.

Domus sua cuique est tutissimum refugium - Every man s house is his safest refuge.

Dona clandestina sunt semper suspiciosa - Clandestine gifts are always suspicious.

Dormiunt leges aliquando, nunquam moriuntur - The laws sometimes sleep, but never die.

Doti lex favet; praemium pudoris est; ideo parcatur - The law favors dower; it is the reward of chastity, therefore let it be preserved.

Dubitante - Doubting the correctness of the decision.

Duo non possunt in solido unam rem possidere - Two cannot possess one thing each in entirety.

E

Ei incumbit probatio qui - The onus of proving a fact rests upon the man.

Ei incumbit probatio qui dicit, non qui negat - The burden of the proof lies upon him who affirms, not he who denies.

Error, qui non resistitur approbatur - An error not resisted is approved.

Et cetera - Other things of that type.

Ex cathedra - With official authority.

Ex concessis - In view of what has already been accepted/

Ex dolo malo actio non oritur - A right of action cannot arise out of fraud.

Ex facie - On the fact of it.

Ex gratia - Out of kindness, voluntary.

Ex nihilo nil fit - From nothing nothing comes.

Ex nudo pacto actio non oritur - No action arises on a contract without a consideration.

Ex parte - Proceeding brought by one person in the absence of another.

Ex post facto - By reason of a subsequent act.

Ex praecedentibus et consequentibus optima fit interpretatio - The best interpretation is made from things preceding and following.

Ex turpi causa non oritur actio - No action arises on an immoral contract.

Exceptio probat regulam - An exception proves the rule.

Executio est executio juris secundum judicium - Execution is the fulfillment of the law in accordance with the judgment.

Executio est finis et fructus legis - An execution is the end and the fruit of the law.

Executio legis non habet injuriam - Execution of the law does no injury.

Extra legem positus est civiliter mortuus - One out of the pale of the law (i.e. an outlaw) is civilly dead.

F

Faciendum - Something which is to be done.

Factum - An act or deed.

Facultas probationum non est angustanda - The right of offering proof is not to be narrowed.

Falsa demonstratio non nocet - A false description does not vitiate.

Fatetur facinus qui judicium fugit - He who flees judgment confesses his guilt.

Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas - Happy is he who has been able to understand the causes of things.

Felonia implicatur in qualibet proditione - Felony is implied in every treason.

Festinatio justitiae est noverca infortunii - The hurrying of justice is the stepmother of misfortune.

Fictio cedit veritati; fictio juris non est, ubi veritas - Fiction yields to truth. Where truth is, fiction of law does not exist.

Fides servanda est - Good faith is to be preserved.

Fieri facias (abreviated fi. fa.) - That you cause to be made.

Filiatio non potest probari - Filiation cannot be proved.

Firmior et potentior est operatio legis quam dispositio hominis - The operation of law is firmer and more powerful than the will of man.

Forma legalis forma essentialis est - Legal form is essential form.

Fortior est custodia legis quam hominis - The custody of the law is stronger than that of man.

Fractionem diei non recipit lex - The law does not regard a fraction of a day.

Fraus est celare fraudem - It is a fraud to conceal a fraud.

Fraus est odiosa et non praesumenda - Fraud is odious and is not to be presumed.

Fraus et jus nunquam cohabitant - Fraud and justice never dwell together.

Fructus naturales - Vegetation which grows naturally without cultivation.

Frustra probatur quod probatum non relevat - That is proved in vain which when proved is not relevant.

Furor contrahi matrimonium non sinit, quia consensus opus est - Insanity prevents marriage from being contracted because consent is needed.

G

Generale nihil certum implicat - A general expression implies nothing certain.

Generalia praecedunt, specialia sequuntur - Things general precede, things special follow.

Generalia specialibus non derogant - Things general do not derogate from things special.

Generalis regula generaliter est intelligenda - A general rule is to be generally understood.

Gravius est divinam quam temporalem laedere majestatem - It is more serious to hurt divine than temporal majesty.

I

Id est (i.e) - That is.

Id quod commune est, nostrum esse dicitur - That which is common is said to be ours.

Idem - The same person or thing.

Idem nihil dicere et insufficienter dicere est - It is the same to say nothing as not to say enough.

Ignorantia facti excusat, ignorantia juris non excusat - Ignorance of fact excuses, ignorance of law does not excuse.

Imperium in imperio - A sovereignty within a sovereignty.

Impotentia excusat legem - Impossibility is an excuse in the law.

Impunitas semper ad deteriora invitat - Impunity always leads to greater crimes.

In aequali jure melior est conditio possidentis - When the parties have equal rights, the condition of the possessor is better.

In alta proditione nullus potest esse acessorius; sed principalis solum modo - In high treason no one can be an accessory; but a principal only.

In Anglia non est interregnum - In England there is no interregnum.

In camera - In private.

In casu extremae necessitatis omnia sunt communia - In a case of extreme necessity everything is common.

In criminalibus probationes debent esse luce clariores - In criminal cases the proofs ought to be cleared than the light.

In curia domini regis, ipse in propria persona jura discernit - In the King s Court, the King himself in his own person dispenses justice.

In delicto - At fault.

In esse - In existence.

In extenso - At full length.

In fictione legis aequitas existit - A legal fiction is consistent with equity.

In foro conscientiae - In the forum of conscience.

In futoro - In the future.

In jure non remota causa sed proxima spectatur - In law not the remote but the proximate cause is looked at.

In limine - At the outset, on the threshold.

In loco parentis - In place of the parent.

In mortua manu - In a dead hand.

In novo casu novum remedium apponendum est - In a new case a new remedy is to be applied.

In omni re nascitur res quae ipsam rem exterminat - In everything is born that which destroys the thing itself.

In omnibus - In every respect.

In pari delicto potior est conditio possidentis - When the parties are equally in the wrong the condition of the possessor is better.

In personam - Against the person.

In pleno - In full.

In quo quis delinquit in eo de jure est puniendus - In whatever thing one offends in that he is to be punished according to law.

In re dubia magis inficiatio quam affirmatio intelligenda - In a doubtful matter the negative is to be understood rather than the affirmative.

In republica maxime conservanda sunt jura belli - In a State the laws of war are to be especially observed.

In situ - In its place.

In terrorem - As a warning or deterrent.

In testamentis plenius testatoris intentionem scrutamur - In wills we seek diligently the intention of the testator.

In traditionibus scriptorum non quod dictum est, sed quod gestum est, inspicitur - In the delivery of writings (deeds), not what is said but what is done is to be considered.

In verbis, non verba sed res et ratio quaerenda est - In words, not words, but the thing and the meaning are to be inquired into.

Indicia - Marks, signs.

Injuria non excusat injuriam - A wrong does not excuse a wrong.

Intentio inservire debet legibus, non leges intentioni - Intention ought to be subservient to the laws, not the laws to the intention.

Inter alia - Amongst other things.

Interest reipublicae res judicatas non rescindi - It is in the interest of the State that things adjudged be not rescinded.

Interest reipublicae suprema hominum testamenta rata haberi - It is in the interest of the State that men s last wills be sustained.

Interest reipublicae ut quilibet re sua bene utatur - It is in the interest of the State that every one use properly his own property.

Interest reipublicase ut sit finis litium - It is in the interest of the State that there be an end to litigation.

Interim - Temporary, in the meanwhile.

Interpretare et concordare leges legibus est optimus interpretandi modus - To interpret and harmonize laws is the best method of interpretation.

Interpretatio fienda est ut res magis valeat quam pereat - Such a construction is to be made that the thing may have effect rather than it should fail.

Interruptio multiplex non tollit praescriptionem semel obtentam - Repeated interruption does not defeat a prescription once obtained.

Invito beneficium non datur - A benefit is not conferred upon one against his consent.

Ipsissima verba - The very words of a speaker.

Ipso facto - By that very fact.

Ira furor brevis est - Anger is brief insanity.

Iter arma leges silent - In war the laws are silent.

FOREIGN LEGAL WORDS AND PHRASES

A

A Fortiori	By so much the stronger reason, i.e., all the more
A Posteriori	Argument from the consequence to the antecedent
A Priori	Deductive; from earlier i. e., original or antecedent; argument from antecedent to the consequent; not empirical
A Prendre	See Profit
Ab Antiquo	From Ancient times
Ab Extra	From without
Ab Initio	From the beginning
Ab Intestato	'Succession ab intestate' means succession to the property of a person who has not made his will
Ab Intra	From within
Absolute sententia expositore non indiget	Plain language does not need an interpreter
Absolvitur	An acquittal; a decree in favour of the defendant
Absque	Without impeachment of waste

Impetitione Vasti

Absque Injuria	Without any infringement of a right
Absque Talicausa	Without such cause
Acquitas factum habet quod fieri oportuit	Equity regards as done that which ought to have been done. Equity treats a contract to do a thing as producing the state of affairs which the parties intended should exist when the contract had been duly performed
Actionary	A shareholder
Act in pais	A judicial or other act performed out of court and not a matter of record
Actus Reus	Wrongful act
Ad alium diem	At another day
Ad audiendum	To hear
Ad Diem	At the day
Ad Filum Aquae	To the thread or centre line of the stream
Ad.Filum vise	To the centre of the way or road
Ad Finem	At or near end
Ad Hoc	For this
Ad hominem	To the man ; personal
Ad Idem	Agreeing in the essential point
Ad Infinitum	Without limit
Ad Interim	In the meantime
Ad Litem	On a suit or action
Ad Longum	At length

Ad Miseri Cordium	In pity
Ad Nauseum	Disgusting
Ad Referendum	For further consideration
Ad Valorem	According to the value
Alia Enormia	Other wrongs. A declaration in trespass usually concluded thus ; "and other wrongs to the plaintiff then did" etc. [Rawson]
Alias	Otherwise called
Alibi	A plea by a person accused of an offence that he was 'elsewhere' - that having regard to the time and place when and where he is alleged to have committed the offence, he could no have been present.
Alieni Juris	Under another's authority. See Sui • juris
Alieno solo	In the land of another ; on other's land
Alio Intuitie	With another intent than that alleged, i, e., not bona fide
Aliter	Otherwise
Amicus Curiae	(Friend of Court) ; A stander-by, not being a party to, or interested in, the cause, who informs the Court of any decided case or other fact of which it can take judicial notice. [Rawson]
Animus deserendi	Intention to desert
Animus domini	The intention of possession and ownership by entry or user
Animus possidendi	The intention of possessing
Animus revertendi	The intention of returning

Ante	A reference to the previous part of the same book or statement
Ante Bellum	Before the war
Ante Litem Motam	Before litigation commenced
Arbitrium est Judicium	An award is a judgment
Audi alteram partem	Hear the other side. Both sides should be heard before a decision is arrived at
Aute De Fe	Act of faith
Autre (Auter) Droit	In right of another, e. g., a trustee holds in the right of his cestui que trust
Autre Fois Acquit	Formerly acquitted. A plea in criminal cases that one has been already acquitted on the same charge
Autre Fois Attaint	Formerly attainted. A plea in criminal cases that one is still attainted
Autre Fois Convict	Formerly - convicted. A plea in criminal cases that one was already convicted on the same charge
A Vinculo Matrimoni	From the bond of matrimony

B

Bastard Eigne	If a man has a natural son, and afterwards marry the mother, and by her have a legitimate son, the latter is called mulier puisne and the elder son Bastard eigne [Rawson]
Bille Vera	A true bill
Bona Fide	With good faith, i. e., without fraud or unfair dealing

Brevia Testa — Short attested memoranda, originally introduced to obviate the uncertainty arising from parol feoffments : hence modern conveyances have gradually arisen. [Rawson]

C

Cadit Queslio	The argument is at end
Camera Stellata	The Star Chamber, a Court originally created to prevent the obstruction cf justice in the inferior courts by undue influence
Cassetur Billa	(Let the bill be quashed) ; an entry on the record that the plaintiff withdraws his bill
Casus Belli	An occurrence giving rise to or justifying war
Casus Faederis	A case stipulated by treaty or which comes within the terms of compact
Casus Omissus	A point unprovided for by statute
Causa Causans	The immediate cause ; same as causa proxima
Causa 'Mortis	In respect of death
Causa Proxima	[See Causa causans]
Causa sine qua non	A cause without which the effect would not have been caused
Caveat Emptor	Let the purchaser beware. Where the purchaser does not require a warranty, he, in most cases, has to take the risk of the article not being of the desired quality. [Rawson]
Caveat Viator	Let the traveller beware. This applies where gratuitous permission is given to persons to pass over private land, who must take the risk of accident arising from negligence of the owner. [Rawson]
Cepi corpus	I have taken the body and have it ready
Cestui Que Trust	The person who possesses the equitable or beneficial right to property, the legal estate of which is vested in a trustee. Also called a beneficiary
Clam Viaut Precario	By stealth, force or licence
Communis error facit jus	Common or universal error makes law
Conge D' Accorder	Leave to accord or agree
Conge D' Elire	Leave to choose
Consideratum Est Per Curiam	It has been considered by the court
Contractue uberrima fides	Contract requiring of utmost goodwill
Contra Bonos Mores	Against good morals
Coram Non Judice	In presence of a person who is not Ridge
Coram Paribus	Before his peers

Corpus delicti	The body of facts which constitute an offence; gist or of the offence
Corpus possessionis	The thing possessed
Cry De Pais	Hue and cry
Culpa Lata or Magna	Gross neglect
Culpa Levis	Slight or excusable neglect
Cum Grano Salis	With a grain of salt
Cum Testamento Annexo	With the will annexed
Curia Advisari Vult	(Abbreviated as cur. adv. vult, or C.A.V.) The desires to consider
(In) Custodia Legis	In the custody of the law

D

Damage-Feaisant or Faisant	Doing damage
Damnosa Haereditas	A disadvantageous or unprofitable inheritance
Damnum Absque Injuria, also Damnum Sine Injuria	Loss of by an act is not wrongful
Data	What is given ; the promises upon which an argument is based ; certain given facts from which others may be inferred
De Bene Esse	To allow a thing to be done provisionally and out of due course. This phrase is used when anything is allowed to be done at a present time with the view of its being examined at a future time, and then standing or falling according to the merit of the thing in its own nature.
Debitum Fundi	A real debt, a charge on land
Decree nisi	A decree is said to be made nisi when it is to take effect after a specified period or after the person affected by it fails to show cause against it within a certain time
De Die in Diem	From day to day ; continuously
Dedi et Concessi	I have given and granted
Dedimus Potestatum	We have given the power
De Facto, De Jure	In fact, by right
Defectus Sanguins	Failure of issue

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Dehors	Outside of ; unconnected with ; unrelated to
De jure	In law, independent of what obtains in fact
De minimis non , curat lex	The law takes no account of very trifling matters [S. 95, I.P.C.]
Delegatus non potest delegare	A delegated power cannot be further delegated
deli in capax	Incapable of malice. In Indian Law, this conclusive presumption has been adopted for children under seven years of age. [S. 82. I.P.C.]
De Novo	Anew, afresh
Dies Non	Day on which no legal business can be transacted, e. g., Sunday. Christmas Day
Dom Proc (Domus procerum)	The House of Lords
Donatio Mortis Causa	A gift of personal property in prospect of death
Dum Sola	Whilst single or unmarried
Dureate bene placito	During the pleasure

E

Edictal Citation	Passages or names quoted on edicts
Ejusdem Generis	Of the same kind or nature
En ventre sa mere	Child in womb
Eminent domain	The right of power of the government to take private property for public use on making just compensation therefor. The power of a Sovereign State to take or to authorise the taking of any property with in its jurisdiction for public use without the owner's consent
Ex Abundanti Cautela	From abundant or excessive caution
Ex Cathedra	With the weight of one in authority
Executio est finis et fructus legis	Execution is the end and fruit of the law
Ex Debito Justitiae	From what is due of right
Ex-delicto	From a delict, tort, fault, crime or malfeasance
Exempli Gratia	(Abbreviated as e.g.,) For the purpose of example
Ex Mero Motu	Of his own accord
Ex Officio	By virtue of his office
Ex pacto illicito non oritur actio	No action arises on an illegal agreement
Ex parte	Expression used to signify something done or said by one person not in

Ex Post Facto	Made after the occurrence
Ex Relatione Amici	Narrated to the reporter by a friend
Ex turpi causa	From a base cause
Ex Ve Termini	From the force or meaning of the expression

F

Facsimile	Made it like ; an exact copy
Factum Valet	The "fact which cannot be altered" though it should not have been done
Fait accompli	An accomplished fact
Fait Enrolle	A deed enrolled
Falsa Demonstratio	The incorrectly described quantity has to be rejected as falsa demonstratio. [Irongaobi Pisciculture Co-operative Society v Chief Commissioner of Manipur, AIR 1969 Manipur 84 (87)]
Fang	A thief taken with the fang is one caught having the stolen property upon him
Felo De Se	A felon with respect to himself ; a suicide
Feme Covert	A married woman
Femi Sole	An unmarried woman
Ferae Naturae	Wild animals
Fait	Let it be done ; a decree
Flagrante Delicto	In the very act of committing the crime
Fiat justitia	Let justice be done
Fiat justitia, ruat caelum	Let justice be done, though the heavens fall
Foetus	A baby in the womb
Forum	A Court
Forum Originis	The Court of the country of a man's domicile by birth
Functus Officio	The phrase is used of one who having discharged his duty has terminated his authority or appointment

G

Gestio Pro Haerede	Behaviour as heir ; conduct by which the heir renders himself liable for his ancestor's debts, as by taking possession of title-deeds, receiving rent, etc. [Rowson]

Gilda Mercatoria	A mercantile meeting or assembly
Glebae Ascriptitii	Assigned to the land

H

Haeredes Proximi	Heirs begotten ; children
Haeredes Remotiores	Heirs riot begotten, e.g., grand children and. others descending in a direct line
Haereditas Jacens	An inheritance not taken up
Haeres Faetus	Heir appointed by will
Haeres Natus	Heir by descent
Hors de combat	Unfit to light, disabled

I

Ibidim, Ibid, Id	In the same place, volume of case
Idem Per Idem	An illustration or proof
Idem Sonans	Sounding alike
litera Legis	Letter of legislation
Imprimatur	A licence to print or publish
In Alio Loco	In another place
In Arbitrio Judicis	At the discretion of the Judge
In Articulo Mortis	At the point of death
In Auter (Autre) Droit	In another's right
In Custodia Legis	In the custody of the law
In Esse	Actually existing ; as opposed to in posse : in a state of possible existence
In Extenso	From beginning to end ; leaving out nothing
In Extremis	At the last gasp
In Favorem Libertatis or Vitae	In favour of liberty or life
In Fieri	In course of accomplishment or completion
In Forma Pauperis	As a 'pauper' . See Pauper
In Gemio Legis	In the bosom of the law
In Invidium	To excite prejudice
In Invitum	Against a person's will

In Limine	At the outset
In Loco Parentis	When a person assumes the moral obligation of providing for an infant as a parent should, he is said to be in loco parentis i.e., in the place of a parent
In Medias Res	To the heart of the matter
In Notis	In the notes
In Fais	Done without legal formalities
In pari delicto	When both parties are equally in fault, in equal fault
In Pari Materia	In an analogous case
In personam	An act or proceeding done or directed against or with reference to a specific person
In posse	Possibility of being as opposed to in esse-in a state of being Achikd en ventre sa mere is a child in posse but the law regards it as in esse for all purposes which are for its benefit
In presenti	At the present time ; at once ; immediately effective
In Re	In the matter of
In rem	An act or proceeding done or directed with reference to no specific person or with reference to all whom it might concern
In Solido	In the whole ; entirely
In Status quo	In an unaltered old state
In Terrorem	For the purpose of intimidating
In Totidem Verbis	In so many words
In Toto	In the whole ; totally
Incipitur	It is begun
Injuria sine damno	Injury without damage ; am infringement of a right without causing damage
Intelligible differentia	Difference capable of being understood. A factor that distinguishes one in different state or class from another which is capable of being understood
Inter Alia	Among other things
Intra Vires	Within its powers, as opposed to ultra vires
Ipse Dixit	(He himself and it) ; a mere or bare assertion resting on one's own authority
Ipso Facto	By the very fact itself
Ipso jure	By the law, itself
Ire Ad Largum	To go at large

J

Judicium Dei	Judgment of God
Juris Et De Jure	Of law and from law. A conclusive presumption, which cannot be rebutted, is so called
Jus Ad Rem	An inchoate and imperfect right
Jus commune	The common and natural rule of right
Jus Desponendi	The right of disposing of property
Jus dicere et non ins dare	To declare the law, not to make it
Jus in Personam	A right against another person to oblige him to do or not to do something
Jus In Re	A complete and full right to a thing to the exclusion of all other men
Jus non scriptum	The unwritten law
Jus Precarium	A right depending on request, not enforceable at law
Jus Privatum	The private or civil or municipal law
Jus Relictae	The right of a widow in her deceased husband's personality
Jus Tertii	The right of a third person
Juxta Formum Statuti	According to the form cf the statute

L

Legitimi Haeredes	Legitimate heirs-agnates
Leonina Societas	A partnership in which one gets the lion's share
Lex Domicilii	The law of the country of one's domicile
Lex Fori	The law of the country where an action is brought
Lex Loci Contractus	The law of the country where the contract was made
Lex Loci Delicti	The law of the country where a tort has been committed
Lex Loci Rei Sitae	The law of the place where the thing is situate
Lex Mercatoria	The mercantile law
Lex non cogit ad impossibilia	The law dues not compel the impossible
Lex Non Scripta	The unwritten law
Lex Ordinandi	Same as Lex fori
Lex Scripta	The written or statute law
Lex Talionis	The law of realisation
Lex tallienes	(Law of retaliation)
Liberum Tenementum	Frank. or free tenement
Lis pendens	A pendig suit

Loco Regit Actum	The place governs the act
Locum Tenens	A deputy
Locus in Quo	The place in which
Locus Poenitentiae	A chance of repentence
Locus Standi	The right of a party to appear and be heard by a court of justice

M

Mala Fides	Bad faith as opposed to bona fide
Mala in Se	Acts which are wrong in themselves whether prohibited by human laws or not as distinguished from mala prohibita.
Mala Praxis	Bad management
Mala Prohibita	Acts prohibited by human law
Malitia Praecogita	Malice atore-thought.
Malo Grate	In spite ; unwillingly
Malus usuo	A bad custom
Mens rea	A guilty mind
Mesne	Middle or intermediate
Mesne profits	The profits which a person in wrongful possession of the property actually received or might with ordinary diligence have received therefrom together with interest on such profits excluding the profits due to improvement made by the person in wrongful possession
Miseri Cordia	An arbitrary americament or punshment
Modo Et Forma	In the manner and the form mentioned
Modus operandi	Mode of operating ; the way in which a thing, cause etc. operates ; the way in which a person goes to work ; a distinct pattern or method of procedure thought to be characteristics of an individual criminal and habitually followed by him
Modus vivendi	The manner of living ; a way of life
Mutatis Mutandis	With the necessary changes being made. When there is provision in a statute to apply certain law or its provision mutatis mutandis, the same cannot imply delegation, or abdication of legislative power. [Debi Mata v State of W.B., 76 CWN 308: AIR 1972 Cal 497]

N

Nemine contradicente	(Nem, con.) Non contradicting

Nemo	No one, nobody
Nexus	Bond, link or connection
Nisi	A decree, rule or order of the Court is said to be made nisi when it is not to be of force unless the party against whom it is made fails within a certain time to show cause against, i.e., a good reason why it should not be made. [Rawson]
Nisi Prius	A nisi prius trial now means a trial before Judge with a jury
Nolle Prosequi	To be unwilling to prosecute
Nolens Volense	Whether willing or unwilling
Nomen generalissium	Extremely common name
Non Assumpsit	He did not promise
Non bis in idem	Nonn twice for the same
Non Cepit	He took not
Non Compos Mentis	Person of unsound mind
Non Consessit	He did not grant
Non Constat	It is not certain, it does not follow
Non Demisit	He did not demise
Non est factum	It is a defence in an action founded on a document when there has been a mistake as to the very nature of the transaction
Non Obstante	Notwithstanding
Non Sequitur	It does not follow
Noscitur a Sociis	One is known by his companions ; the meaning of a word or expression is to be gathered from the surrounding words, that is from the context
Novos Actus Interveniens	A new act intervening
Nudum Pactum	A bare contract, i. e., one not made under seal and for no consideration
Nullius Filius	A son of nobody, i.e., a natural child

O

Obiter Dictum	A saying by the way
Onus Probandi	Onus of proof
Ore Tenus	By word of mouth

P

Pacta sunt servanda	Contracts are to be kept
Pari Materia	Having same matter, text or language
Pari Passu	With equal steps
Pars Rationabilis	Reasonable part
Particeps Criminis	A partner in crime
Participient Criminis	Sharer of a crime
Pater Familias	A sui juris and head of the family
Pendente Lite	During pendency of litigation
Per annum	By the year
Per Capita	By the number of individuals
Per Centum ad Valorem	Percentage according to the value
Per diem	By the day
Per mensem	By the month
Per Stirpes	By the number of families
Per Incuriam	Thought want of care
Per Quad	Whereby
Per Se	By itself
Persona Designata	One described as an individual
Persona grata	An acceptable person (in diplomatic parlance)
Persona non grata	An unacceptable person (in diplomatic parlance)
Pessimi Exempli	Of the worst example
Plenum dominium	Full ownership, the right of property in a thing coupled with the right to its. use and enjoyment
Post Litem Motam	After the starting of litigation
Prima Facie	On the first aspect
Prima Impressionis	Of first impression
Privatum Commodum Publico Cetid	Private advantage must yield to public
Pro Forma	As a matter of form
Pro Hac Vice	For this occasion
Pro Rata	In proportion
Probono Publico	For the public good
Pro tanto	To that extent
Pro Tempore	For the time being, temporarily, provisionally
Proprio Vigore	By its own force
Public Juris	Of public right
Puisne	Later born

Q

Qua	In the character of, in virtue of being
Quarantine	As must be deserved
Quantum Valebant	As much they were worth
Que Est Eadem	(Which is the same), a form of plea in actions of trespass and the like, traversing the time and place named in the declaration. [Rawson]
Quia Timet injunction	Where an injunction is granted to prevent a threatened as distinguished from an existing wrongful act, it is called quia timet injunction
Quid Pro Quo	Something for something ; a consideration
Quo Animo	With that mind
Quoad Hoc	As to this
Quod cum	That whereas
Quod Recuperet	That he do recover the debt or damages, a final judgment for a plaintiff in a personal action
Quod Ultra	As to the rest
Q. V.-Quod Vide	(Which see) ; a means of reference to the word which precedes

R

Raison d' Etre	Reason or justification for existence.
Ratio Decidendi	The reason for the decision in a cause or matter
Ratio Legis	The reasons or occasion of the law
Ratione Tenurae	By reason of tenure or occupation
Recius in Curia	One against whom no accusation is made
Reductio Ad Absurdum	The method of disproving an argument - showing that it leads to an absurd conclusion
Regulae Generales	General rules
Res Communes	Things common to all
Res Gestae	All things done in the course of a transaction
Res Integra	A matter not yet decided
Res Ipsa Loquitur	(The thing speaks for itself). A matter in which no proof is required. A phrase used in actions for injuries due to negligence
Res Judicata	A matter already judicially decided
Res Nullius	A thing that has no owner

Res Publicae	Things of the state dedicated to the use of citizens
Restitutio in Integrum	The rescinding of a contract or transaction on the ground of fraud, etc, so as to restore the parties to their original position. [Rawson]
Rule nisi	A rule or order upon condition that is to become absolute when cause is shown to the contrary

S

S. C.	Same case
Sans Recours	Without recourse
Scienter	(Knowingly, wilfuly), an allegation in the pleading that the defen-dant did the thing in question wilfully. It must be proved in an action of deceit. [Rawson]
Secundum Allegataet probata	According to the pleadings and the proofs
Secus	(Otherwise), to the contrary effect
Semble	(It seems). Used in Reports to show that a point is not decided directly, but may be inferred
Sine Die	Without day ; indefinitely
Sine Proble	Without issue
Sine Qua Non	An indispensable requisite
Solatium	A sum paid to an injured party over and above the actual damages by way of solace to his wounded feelings
Spes Successionis	The chance of an heir apparent succeeding to an estate
Stare Decisis	To stand by thing decided ; to abide by precedents where the same points come again in litigation
Status quo	Existing condition
Strictissimi Juris	Of the most strict law
Sub Modo	Under condition or restriction
Subpoenea	A writ commanding attendance in a court under penalty
Sub Judice	In course of trial
Sub Silentio	In silence
Suggestio Falsi	A false suggestion, misrepresentation
Sui Juris	(Of his own right), a person who is neither a minor nor insane nor subject to any disability, as opposed to alieni juris.
Suppressio Veri	A wilful concealment of a truth
Sus. Per. Coll	Let him be hanged by the neck

T

Terminus A Quo	The starting point
Terminus Ad Quem	The terminal point
Terra Firma	Firm ground
Totidem Verbis	In so many words
Toties Quoties	As often as occasion arises
Transfer Inter Vivos	Transfer between living persons [S. 2(d). Government Savings Certificates Act]
Trustee do son Tort	One who, of his own authority, enters into the possession or attends to the management of the porperty which belongs beneficially to another
Turpis Causa	A base or immoral consideration, on which no action can be founded

U

Uberrima Fides	(Most entire confidence). Contracts made between persons in a particular relationship of confidence, as guardian and ward, attorney and client, or insured and insurer, require the fullest information to be given before hand by the person in whom the confidence is reposed to the person confiding, or the court will refuse to enforce the contract on behalf of the former. [Rawson]
Ubi jus ibi remedium	When there is a right, there is a remedy
Ultimtus Haeres	The ultimate or last heir
Ultra Vires	Beyond their powers. It means that something has been clone by a person or body of persons which was beyond him, or their power

V

Vadium Mortuum	A dead pledge ; a mortgage
Valebat Quantum	Let it have its weight
Vi Et Armis	By force of arms
Vide	See ; a word of reference
Vires	Authority ; power

| **Vis Major** | Irresistible force |
| **Viva Voce** | By word of mouth |

DRAFTING MOOT MEMORIALS

How are the best of the memorials written.

I have found that the best written Memorials are also the most organized and they are precise and use simple English.

They usually annex the Moot Problem but then restate the facts from the point of view of the Side for whom the Memorial is being presented.

A good index is essential and a pagination that is running   (that is, which numbers pages serially and consecutively adopting the same style, without needlessly using three or four different systems such as 1 and 2 and again (i) and (ii) which can be very confusing for the poor Judge).

After the facts have been properly presented the Memorial sets out the principles of law involved which include the questions to be decided and the preliminary points/jurisdictional issues.

Then come the arguments which contain references, usually in the form of the name of the case in the body and the citation as a footnote, and the statutes, statutory rules, orders and notifications, which would be relied upon.

Tackling Objections

Where particular objections are certain to come, they are also set out as points of law that are to be addressed and either negated or distinguished in the facts of the case, with judgments being cited in the same manner.

Then the prayers are set out.

I understand that in some foreign moots there is a requirement to bind the memorials in leather though in India spiral binding and good quality paper for the contents and laminated durable covers are preferred.

Since you are marked on the memorials do not make the mistake of submitting shoddy work.

Do your research well

Again, while we sometimes put a justifiably high value on the oral submissions, please remember that without research most submissions of counsel would be hot air.

Do your research well, using legal software that is pervasive and a good search engine.

Download entire judgments and notifications or statutes that you want to use, ascertaining that they have not been overruled and that they are still good law or that they have not been amended or repealed, in case of the laws and notifications.

Have one copy for every judge

Have at least five to six copies of each such document that you wish to rely upon and which is not annexed to your memorial.

A compilation of cases and documents such as Judgments and notifications, statutes and rules that you will rely upon is very helpful.

You should know how many judges are going to judge each stage, and have at least one copy for each judge and one copy to give to the other side, apart from the one that you will be using yourself.

Finish on time

These will make the Judges job easier, save the time that is usually wasted when only one copy has to serve all the judges, you and also the opposing side.

Remember, most Moots have time stipulations and the Judges penalize you where time is wasted and you overshoot the time for reasons other than answering the questions of the Judges.

Here are a few summarized tips for moot court competitions:

1. Use precise and simple English in your moot memorials.
2. Present facts from the point of the view of the side which is presenting the memorial.
3. Have a good index and pagination. Using 1, 2,3 and i, ii, iii etc. can be confusing for the judges.
4. Tackle objections which might come from the other side. Negate or distinguish the cases which might be used by the other party.
5. Use spiral binding and good quality paper. Presentation matters.
6. Have multiple copies of every document you want to use. Have one copy for every judge and save time.

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