

AN INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH

A Comprehensive Course Book Designed for LLB-1



Compiled by: Afshan Ishfaq

*M.Phil. Applied Linguistics
Lecturer*

*Reviewed by: Humaira Jahangir
PHD Scholar (Applied Linguistics)
Lancaster University
Lecturer*

Content List

Part 1: Grammar

1. Parts of Speech
2. Phrases and Clauses
3. Clause Pattern
4. Sentence Structures and Patterns
5. Sentence Type
6. Transitive and Intransitive
7. Active and Passive Voice
8. Direct and Indirect Speech
9. Punctuations

Part 2: Language Skills

Reading Skills

1. Types of Reading Skills
2. Speed Reading
3. Summary and Precise Writing
4. Comprehension Reading

Writing Skills

1. Paragraph Writing
2. Essay Writing and its Types
3. Translational Skills

Listening Skills

1. Note Taking
2. Notes Making
3. Smart Notes

Speaking Skills

1. Conversational Codes
2. Presentation skills
3. Effective Speaking Skills

Part 3: Technical Writing

1. Letter Writing
2. Memo Writing
3. CV Making
4. Minutes of Meeting
5. Formal and Informal Report writing

Part 1

Grammar

1. Parts of Speech

1. Noun and Its Types

Anything that refers to a Place, person, thing or an idea

Persons, places, animals: Tom, Australia, Cat

Objects and substances: chair, water, table

Qualities: beauty, kindness, arrogance

Actions (as nouns): cooking, dancing, sleeping

Types of Nouns

1. Common and Proper Nouns
2. Countable and Non-Countable Nouns
3. Collective Nouns
4. Abstract Nouns
5. Possessive Nouns

Common and Proper Nouns:

A common noun is the word used for a class of person, place or thing.

Example: car, man, city, iron, liquid, company, etc.

A proper noun is the name of a particular or specific person, place or thing. A proper noun always starts with a capital letter.

Example: Alfred, Asia, Brazil

Countable and Non-Countable Nouns:

I. A countable noun (or count noun) is a noun with both a singular and a plural form, and it names anything (or anyone) that you can count.

Example: John painted the table red and the chairs blue.

II. A non-countable noun (or mass noun) is a noun that does not have a plural form and that refers to something that you could (or would) not usually count.

Example: Joseph Priestly discovered oxygen.

Collective Nouns:

A collective noun is a noun naming a group of things, animals, or persons. You could count the individual members of the group, but you usually think of the group as one unit.

Example: The jury is dining on take-out chicken tonight.

Abstract Nouns:

Abstract nouns are used to describe emotions, qualities or feelings.

Examples: Honesty, goodness, kindness, etc.

Possessive Nouns:

When we want to show that something belongs to somebody or something, we usually add ('s) to a singular noun and an apostrophe to a plural noun.

Example: The boy's ball.

Nouns as adjectives:

Sometimes we use a noun to describe another noun. In that case, the first noun acts as an adjective.

Example: Race horse.

2. Pronouns and Its Types

A pronoun is defined as a word or phrase that is used as a substitution for a noun or noun phrase, which is known as the pronoun's antecedent. Pronouns are short words and can do everything that nouns can do and are one of the building blocks of a sentence.

Types of Pronouns

1. Indefinite pronouns
2. Personal pronouns
3. Reflexive pronouns
4. Demonstrative pronouns
5. Possessive pronouns
6. Relative pronouns
7. Interrogative pronouns
8. Reciprocal pronouns
9. Intensive pronouns

Indefinite pronouns:

Those referring to one or more unspecified objects, beings, or places, such as someone, anybody, nothing. Notice in the examples below that there is no set position for where an indefinite pronoun will appear in a sentence.

Indefinite pronoun examples:

1. Anyone
2. Somebody
3. Whichever
4. Whoever
5. Other
6. Something
7. Nobody

Indefinite pronoun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- Would **anyone** like a coffee?
- Take **whatever** you like. Jamie took one cookie and Ben took the other.
- **Whoever** owns this is in big trouble! I want someone to move this now.

Indefinite pronouns can also be used to create sentences that are almost abstract. Examples could include: this, all, such and something.

- **All** was not lost.
- **Such** is life.
- **Something** tells me **this** won't end well.

Personal pronouns:

Those associated with a certain person, thing, or group; all except you have distinct forms that indicate singular or plural number. Personal pronouns are always specific and are often used to replace a proper noun (someone's name) or a collective group of people or things. Personal pronouns have two main groups, one referring to the subject of the sentence and one to the object.

The first is used to replace the subject of the sentence: I, you, he, she, it, we, you and they. Notice that '**you**' is repeated as **you** can be singular, addressing one person, or plural, addressing a group of people.

Personal pronoun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

Jack and David are friends. **They** play basketball together.

I have more money than he

We will be late if **you** don't hurry up.

The second group of pronouns replaces the object of the sentence: me, you, him, her, it, us, you, them. Consider the sentence again:

We will be late if you don't hurry up.

In the above example, ‘**we**’ is the subject of the sentence, but ‘**you**’ is the object. Other examples of pronouns replacing the object:

Peter sang the song to **me**.

Missing the train will cause **us** to be late.

She packed **them** tightly in the suitcase.

Reflexive pronouns:

Those preceded by the adverb, adjective, pronoun, or noun to which they refer, and ending in –self or –selves. Reflexive pronouns are used to refer back to the subject or clause of a sentence. The list of reflexive pronouns includes: Myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

Reflexive pronoun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

Count **yourselves**

Annie only had **herself** to blame.

Peter and Paul had baked **themselves** cakes.

Demonstrative pronouns:

Those used to point to something specific within a sentence. There are only four demonstrative pronouns – this, that, these, those – but the usage can be a bit tricky at times. This and that are singular, whereas these and those are plural. As you may have noticed, there can be some crossover with indefinite pronouns when using this and that.

Demonstrative pronoun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

I prefer **this**.

These are beautiful, but **those** belong to Danny.

Did you see **that**?

While it can be confusing, this, that, these and those can sometimes be used as demonstrative adjectives. The difference between the two is that a demonstrative pronoun replaces the noun and a demonstrative adjective qualifies the noun.

I prefer **this** photo. **These** flowers are beautiful, but **those** vases belong to Danny. Did you see **that** rainbow?

It should be clear that **this**, **that**, **these** and **those** in the example above are not pronouns because they are being used to qualify the noun, but not replace it. A good trick for remembering the difference is that a demonstrative pronoun would still make sense if the word one or ones followed it in the sentence.

I prefer **this** (one). **These** (ones) are beautiful. Did you see **that** (one)? **Those** (ones) belong to Danny.

Possessive pronouns:

Those designating possession or ownership. Examples include: mine, its, hers, his, yours, ours, theirs, whose. Consider the example:

This cat is **mine**.

Mine is indicating possession, that the cat belongs to me. Incidentally, this in the sentence is not a pronoun but demonstrative adjective as it qualifies the noun cat. You will find that possessive pronouns often follow phrases that contain demonstrative adjectives.

Possessive pronoun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

Are these bananas **yours**?

This money is **ours**.

Is the fault **theirs** or **yours**?

Relative pronouns:

Those which refer to nouns mentioned previously, acting to introduce an adjective (relative) clause. They will usually appear after a noun to help clarify the sentence or give extra information. Examples include: who, which, that, whom, whose. Consider the following sentence:

The man **who** stole the car went to jail. The relative pronoun **who** acts to refer back to the noun man. It acts to open a clause by identifying the man as not just any man, but the one **who** stole the car. Relative pronoun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

The table, **which** sits in the hallway, is used for correspondence.

The car **that** crashed into the wall was blue.

This is the woman, **whose** key you found.

Interrogative pronouns:

Those which introduce a question. Examples include: who, whom, whose, what, which. We can usually identify an interrogative pronoun by the fact that they often appear at the beginning of a question.

Interrogative pronoun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

Who will come to the party?

Which do you prefer?

What do you need?

Whose clothes are on the floor?

Whom did you tell?

Whom and **who** are often confused, and even native speakers will use them incorrectly. Who will replace the subject of a sentence, whereas whom will replace the direct or indirect object. A good tip for deciding which to use is that you can replace who in the sentence with a personal pronoun and it will still make sense. Who will come to the party? I will come to the party. The same system would not work for Whom did you tell? I did you tell.

Reciprocal pronouns:

Those expressing mutual actions or relationship; i.e. one another.

There are just two reciprocal pronouns in English: one another and each other. They are mainly used to stop unnecessary repetition in a sentence, but also to reinforce the idea that collective and reciprocal actions are happening to more than one person or thing. John and Mary gave each other gifts. Using each other allows us the sentence to be more efficient than: John gave Mary a gift and Mary gave a gift to John. The countries worked with one another on national security. In this example, one another works to suggest that the action of working is being reciprocated back and forth by more than one country.

Reciprocal pronoun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

The boxers punched **each other**

The couple love **one another** deeply

Intensive pronouns:

Those ending in –self or –selves and that serve to emphasize their antecedents. These are almost identical to reflexive pronouns, but rather than just referring back to the subject of the sentence they work to reinforce the action. In many cases, the sentence would still make sense without the intensive pronoun.

Intensive pronoun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

I will do it **myself**.

We made this pie **ourselves**.

A nation speaks for **itself** through elections.

Notice how the intensive pronoun is working to emphasize the statement. The sentence would still technically be correct without the intensive pronoun, but it adds some important context to its meaning.

Pronoun Rules

There are a few important rules for using pronouns. As you read through these rules and the examples in the next section, notice how the pronoun rules are followed. Soon you'll see that pronouns are easy to work with.

Subject pronouns may be used to begin sentences. For example: We did a great job.

1. Subject pronouns may also be used to rename the subject. For example: It was she who decided we should go to Hawaii.
2. Indefinite pronouns don't have antecedents. They are capable of standing on their own. For example: No one likes the sound of fingernails on a chalkboard.
3. Object pronouns are used as direct objects, indirect objects, and objects of prepositions. These include: you, me, him, her, us, them, and it.
For example: David talked to her about the mistake.
4. Possessive pronouns show ownership. They do not need apostrophes.

Examples of Pronouns

We are going on vacation.

Don't tell **me** that **you** can't go with us.

Anybody **who** says it won't be fun has no clue what **they** are talking about.

These are terribly steep stairs.

We ran into **each other** at the mall.

I'm not sure **which** is worse: rain or snow.

It **is** one of the nicest Italian restaurants in town.

Richard stared at **himself** in the mirror.

The laundry isn't going to do **itself**.

Someone spilled orange juice all over the countertop!

3. Adjectives and Its Types

An adjective describes or modifies noun/s and pronoun/s in a sentence. It normally indicates quality, size, shape, duration, feelings, contents, and more about a noun or pronoun. Adjectives usually provide relevant information about the nouns/pronouns they modify/describe by answering the questions: What kind? How many? Which one? How much? Adjectives enrich your writing by adding precision and originality to it.

Example: o The team has a dangerous batsman. (**What kind?**) o I have ten candies in my pocket. (**How many?**) o I loved that red car. (**Which one?**) o I earn more money than he does. (**How much?**)

Types of Adjectives

1. Descriptive Adjectives
2. Quantitative Adjectives
3. Proper Adjectives
4. Demonstrative Adjectives
5. Possessive Adjectives
6. Interrogative Adjectives
7. Indefinite Adjectives
8. Articles
9. Compound Adjectives

Descriptive Adjectives

A descriptive adjective is a word which describes nouns and pronouns. Most of the adjectives belong in this type. These adjectives provide information and attribute to the nouns/pronouns they modify or describe. Descriptive adjectives are also called qualitative adjectives. Participles are also included in this type of adjective when they modify a noun. Examples: **I have a fast car.** (The word 'fast' is describing an attribute of the car) **I am hungry.** (The word 'hungry' is providing information about the subject) **The hungry cats are crying. I saw a flying Eagle.**

Quantitative Adjectives:

A quantitative adjective provides information about the quantity of the nouns/pronouns. This type belongs to the question category of ‘**how much**’ and ‘how many’. Examples: o I have 20 bucks in my wallet. (**How much**) They have three children. (**How many**) o You should have completed the whole task. (**How much**)

Proper Adjectives:

Proper adjectives are the adjective form of proper nouns. When proper nouns modify or describe other nouns/pronouns, they become proper adjectives. ‘Proper’ means ‘specific’ rather than ‘formal’ or ‘polite.’

A proper adjective allows us to summarize a concept in just one word. Instead of writing/saying ‘a food cooked in Chinese recipe’ you can write/say ‘Chinese food’.

Proper adjectives are usually capitalized as proper nouns are.

Example: **American cars are very strong.**

Chinese people are hard workers.

I love KFC burgers.

Marxist philosophers despise capitalism.

Demonstrative Adjectives:

A demonstrative adjective directly refers to something or someone.

Demonstrative adjectives include the words: this, that, these, those.

A demonstrative pronoun works alone and does not precede a noun, but a demonstrative adjective always comes before the word it modifies.

Examples: **That building is so gorgeously decorated.** (‘That’ refers to a singular noun far from the speaker)

This car is mine. (‘This’ refers to a singular noun close to the speaker)

These cats are cute. (‘These’ refers to a plural noun close to the speaker)

Those flowers are heavenly. (‘Those’ refers to a plural noun far from the speaker)

Possessive Adjectives:

A possessive adjective indicates possession or ownership. It suggests the belongingness of something to someone/something. Some of the most used possessive adjectives are **my, his, her, our, their, your**. All these adjectives always come before a noun. Unlike possessive pronouns, these words demand a

noun after them.

Examples:

My car is parked outside.

His cat is very cute.

Our job is almost done.

Her books are interesting.

Interrogative Adjectives:

An interrogative adjective asks a question. An interrogative adjective must be followed by a noun or a pronoun. The interrogative adjectives are: which, what, whose. These words will not be considered as adjectives if a noun does not follow right after them. 'Whose' also belongs to the possessive adjective type. Examples: o Which phone do you use? o What game do you want to play? o Whose car is this?

Indefinite Adjectives:

An indefinite adjective describes or modifies a noun unspecifically. They provide indefinite/unspecific information about the noun. The common indefinite adjectives are **few, many, much, most, all, any, each, every, either, nobody, several, some**, etc.

Examples:

I gave some candy to her.

I want a few moments alone.

Several writers wrote about the recent incidents.

Each student will have to submit homework tomorrow.

Articles

Articles also modify the nouns. So, articles are also adjectives. Articles determine the specification of nouns. 'A' and 'an' are used to refer to an unspecific noun, and 'the' is used to refer to a specific noun.

Examples:

A cat is always afraid of water

The cat is afraid of me.

An electronic product should always be handled with care.

Compound Adjectives:

When compound nouns/combined words modify other nouns, they become a compound adjective. This type of adjective usually combines more than one word into a single lexical unit and modifies a noun. They are often separated by a hyphen or joined together by a quotation mark.

Example:

I have a broken-down sofa.

I saw a six-foot-long snake.

He gave me an “I’m gonna kill you now” look.

The Degree of Adjectives:

There are three degrees of adjectives: Positive, comparative, superlative.

These degrees are applicable only for the descriptive adjectives.

Examples:

Positive degree: He is a good boy.

Comparative degree: He is better than any other boy.

Superlative: He is the best boy.

4. Verbs and Its Types

Verbs are the action words in a sentence that describe what the subject is doing. Along with nouns, verbs are the main part of a sentence or phrase, telling a story about what is taking place. In fact, without a verb, full thoughts can't be properly conveyed, and even the simplest sentences, such as *Maria **sings***, have one. Actually, a verb can be a sentence by itself, with the subject, in most case you, implied, such as, ***Sing!*** and ***Drive!***

How to Recognize a Verb?

As you can see from the examples above, one clue to help you recognize a verb is its location compared to the subject. Verbs almost always come after a noun or pronoun. These nouns and pronouns are referred to as the subject. The verb **thought** comes after the noun Jack, so the action Jack (subject) was taking was **thinking** (verb).

Types of Verbs

1. Auxiliary and Lexical Verbs
2. Finite and Nonfinite Verbs
3. Regular and Irregular Verbs
4. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs
5. Performative Verbs
6. Mental State Verbs
7. A Prepositional Verbs

Auxiliary and Lexical Verbs

An auxiliary verb (also known as a **helping verb**) determines the **mood** or **tense** of another verb in a phrase. In the sentence, "It will rain tonight," for example, the verb "will" helps the verb "rain" by explaining that the action will take place in the future. The primary auxiliaries are the various forms of be, have, and do. **The modal auxiliaries** include can, could, may, must, should, will, and would.

A lexical verb (also known as a full or main verb) is any verb in English that isn't an auxiliary verb: It conveys a real meaning and doesn't depend on another verb, such as, "It rained all night."

Finite and Nonfinite Verbs

A finite verb expresses tense and can occur on its own in a **main clause**: "She walked to school." A nonfinite verb (**an infinitive or participle**) doesn't show a distinction in tense and can occur on its own only in a dependent phrase or clause: "While walking to school, she saw blue parrot"

Regular and Irregular Verbs

A regular verb (also known as a weak verb) forms its past tense and past participle by adding -d or -ed (or in some cases -t) to the base form: "We finished the project." An irregular verb (also known as a strong verb) doesn't form the past tense by adding -d or -ed: "James ate the wrapper on his candy bar."

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

A transitive verb is followed by a direct object: "She sells seashells." By contrast, an intransitive verb doesn't take a direct object: "She sat there quietly." This distinction is especially tricky because many verbs have both transitive and intransitive functions.

Performative Verbs

"Performative verbs name actions that are performed, wholly or partly, by saying something (state, promise); non-performative verbs name other types of actions, types of action which are independent of speech (walk, sleep)."

E.g: "As your lawyer, your brother, and your friend, I highly *recommend* that you get a better lawyer,"

Mental State Verbs

Mental-state verb is a verb with a meaning related to understanding, discovering, planning, or deciding. Mental-state verbs refer to cognitive states that are generally unavailable for outside evaluation. Also known as a mental verb.

Common mental-state verbs in English include know, think, learn, understand, perceive, feel, guess, recognize, notice, want, wish, hope, decide, expect, prefer, remember, forget, imagine, and believe.

A Prepositional Verbs

A prepositional verb is an idiomatic expression that combines a verb and a preposition to make a new verb with a distinct meaning. Some examples of

prepositional verbs in English are care for, long for, apply for, approve of, add to, resort to, result in, count on, and deal with.

The preposition in a prepositional verb is generally followed by a noun or pronoun, and thus prepositional verbs are transitive.

E.g: "God has *cared for* these trees, saved them from drought, disease, avalanches, and a thousand tempests and floods. But he cannot save them from fools."

5. Adverbs

An adverb is a word/a set of words that modifies verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. It tells when, where, and how an action is performed or indicates the quality or degree of the action.

Many adverbs end in -ly but some words which end in -ly (such as friendly) are not adverbs. Many words can be both adverbs and adjectives according to their activity in the sentence.

Examples:

Robin is always hungry for success.

She loves her cat very much.

He is running fast

Alex works hard.

He wrote that willingly.

Adverb Clauses and **Adverb Phrases** are clauses and phrases that modify the verbs, adjectives or other adverbs in the sentence.

Example:

He ran toward the bus until he was tired. (Adverb Clause)

He came carrying his box with two hands. (Adverb Phrase)

We were panicked without any reason. (Adverb Phrase)

Types of Adverbs:

1. Conjunctive Adverbs
2. Sentence Adverbs
3. Adverbs of Time/Frequency (When?)
4. Adverbs of Place/Direction (Where?)
5. Adverbs of Degree (How Much?)
6. Adverbs of Manner (How?)

Conjunctive Adverbs:

A conjunctive adverb connects phrases or independent clauses. It provides transitions between ideas and shows relationships. Conjunctive adverbs are also called connectors.

Example

It rained last night. **Nonetheless**, the final match has not been canceled.

We are still confused, **however**, if the umpires will come.

Last season there was a great drought; **consequently**, we could not grow crops.

Sentence Adverbs:

A sentence adverb starts the sentence and modifies the whole sentence.

Example:

Hopefully, we will win the match.

Apparently, the sky is getting cloudy.

Certainly, I did not think of coming here.

Adverbs of Place/Direction (Where?)

Adverbs of place/direction that indicate place/direction of the action in the sentence. They answer the question ‘where is the action performed?’. Across, over, under, in, out, through, backward, there, around, here, sideways, upstairs, in the park, in the field, in that place, etc. are some common adverbs of place/direction.

Example:

I went through the jungle.

He plays in the field.

Alex is going to school.

He is staying at my home.

Adverbs of Degree (How Much?)

Adverbs that express the importance/degree/level of the action in the sentence are called **adverbs of degree**.

They answer the question ‘how much is the action performed?’. *Completely, nearly, entirely, less, mildly, most, thoroughly, somewhat, excessively, much, etc.* are common adverbs of degree.

Example:

She completely forgot about her anniversary.

I read the newspaper thoroughly.

I am so excited about the new job.

Robin hardly studies

Adverbs of Manner (How?)

Adverbs that express the manner/approach/process of the action in the sentence are called adverbs of manner. They answer the question ‘how is the action performed?’. *Beautifully, equally, thankfully, carefully, handily, quickly, coldly, hotly, resentfully, earnestly, nicely, tirelessly, etc.* are common adverbs of manner. These adverbs usually end in ly.

Example

Let's divide the prizes equally.

Please, handle the camera carefully.

Mike is walking slowly.

He is running fast.

6. Conjunctions

Conjunctions are used to join clauses, phrases, and words together for constructing sentences. Conjunctions make a link between/among words or groups of words to other parts of the sentence and show a relationship between/among them.

Examples:

Alex and Robin are playing together.

Alex plays well, but Robin plays better than him

I play cricket and Robin plays football.

When he was sick, I went to see him.

Types of Conjunctions

1. Coordinating Conjunction
2. Correlative Conjunction
3. Subordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating Conjunctions:

The job of a coordinating conjunction is to join two words, phrases, or independent clauses, which are parallel in structure. There are seven coordinating conjunctions which are by far the most common conjunctions: *and, but, for, nor, or, so, yet*.

Example:

We went to the stadium and enjoyed the cricket match.

Do you want an ice cream or chocolate?

Go away and never come back.

Correlative Conjunctions:

Correlative conjunction uses a set of words in a parallel sentence structure to show a contrast or to compare the equal parts of a sentence. The words of correlative conjunctions have a special connection between them.

The correlative conjunctions are not only - *but also*, either- *or*, neither - *nor*, both - *and*, not - *but*, whether - *or*.

Example:

Neither Alex nor Robin can play baseball.

I want both ice cream and cola

He ate not only the ice cream but also the chocolate.

Subordinating Conjunctions:

A subordinating conjunction joins elements of an unparalleled sentence structure. These elements are usually a dependent clause and an independent clause.

Most commonly used subordinating conjunctions are:

After, how, than, when, although, if, that, where, as, in order that, though, which, as much as, inasmuch as, unless, while, because, provided, until, who/whom, before, since, what, whoever/whomever.

Example:

Before we left home, I had had my breakfast.

Provided they come, we can start class Tuesday.

When he was washing my car, I went to the store.

Even though the weather was horrible, they still went outside

7. Interjections

Interjection can be defined as an interjection or exclamation is a word used to express a particular emotion or sentiment on the part of the speaker (although most interjections have clear definitions).

Explanation

An interjection is one of the parts of speech used to express a particular emotion or sentiment (strong feeling or sudden emotion like surprise, joy, excitement, disgust, enthusiasm, sorrow, approval, calling, attention, etc) of the speaker to the reader. Interjection words are generally used at the beginning of a sentence. Sometimes, it is used as a single word or non-sentence phrase and followed by the punctuation mark.

Some other interjection words used as introductory expressions such as yes, no, well, indeed, etc. A comma (for a mild interjection) or an exclamation mark (for surprising, emotional, or deep feeling interjections) is used after the use of an interjection word in a sentence.

List/Words

Aah, Ahh, Aww, Bingo, Eh, Eww, Wow, Hey, Well, What, Hurrah, Hmph, Oh, Oops, Ouch, Shh, Uh oh, Whew, Yay/Yaay, Yeah, Yikes, Yippee, Uh, Hush, Hmm, Er, Um, Bravo, Hello, Ugh, Ah, Ha ha, Well done, Alas, Fie, Hi, Yes, Ouch, Help, Happy Birthday, Good morning, dear, Hark, oops, huh, yum, oy, etc.

Examples:

Good! Now we can celebrate the party.

Oh, what's a surprise

Hey! Get out of the building

Yes! I can do it easily

No! I run so long

Well! I have a good news

Types of Interjection

Interjection is divided into the following types on the basis of ways to express interjections in the sentence such as greeting, joy, surprise, approval, sorrow, attention, and calling.

Interjections for Greeting

type of interjection is used in the sentence to indicate the emotion of warmth to the person meeting with such as hey, hello, hi, etc

For example:

Hey! Nice to see you here in the party.

Hello! I am Pooja.

Interjections for Joy

This type of interjection is used in the sentence to indicate immediate joy and happiness on any happy occasion that occurred such as hurrah, wow, hurray, etc.

For example:

Wow! You are looking gorgeous.

Hurray! We successfully won this football match.

Interjections for Approval

This type of interjection is used in the sentence to express the strong sense of approval or agreement for something that has happened such as well done, bravo, brilliant, etc.

For example:

Well done! You win the race.

Bravo! The first rank is yours this year.

Interjections for Attention

This type of interjection is used in the sentence to draw the attention of someone such as look, behold, listen, hush, etc.

For example:

Look! You so arrogant.

Listen! I have never copied you.

Behold! Someone strange is there.

Interjections for Surprise

This type of interjection is used in the sentence to express the strong sense of surprise about something that has happened such as ha, what, hey, ah, oh, eh, etc.

For example:

What! You failed.

Oh! Really you completed the task, I can't believe.

Ah! I got new job.

Interjections for Sorrow

This type of interjection is used in the sentence to express the emotion of sadness about something unfortunate that has happened such as alas, ouch, ah, oh, etc.

For example:

Alas! He is no more.

Ouch! It's very paining.

Interjections for Understanding/Misunderstanding

Interjections of understanding and misunderstanding are used to express one's understanding of a subject being talked about or something which wasn't well understood before the moment.

8. Prepositions

A word which expresses relationship of a noun or a pronoun to other words of the sentences. A preposition is used before a noun or pronoun to show the relationship of the same noun or pronoun to other words of the sentence. For Example: in, of, to, at, by, for, with, under, above, into, onto, upon, about, behind, beside, before, after, towards, Inside, outside, below, around.

Words of the sentence (i.e. subject, verb)	Preposition	Noun or Pronoun
He was sitting	on	a table.
She is going	to	college.
There is a cat	under	the bed.
They are dancing	in	the room.
He was drawing a picture	on	a wall.
His family lives	in	America.
She was knocking	at	the door.
She is throwing stones	into	a river.
The students were discussing	about	the exam.
The meeting was held	on	25th December.
They will come here	in	July.

There are Six types of Prepositions

1. Preposition of time
2. Preposition of place
3. Preposition of direction
4. Preposition of agent

5. Preposition of Instrument
6. Prepositional verbs

Preposition of time:

Prepositions are used to refer to time in various aspects. e.g. at, on, in.

Preposition	Time Nature
IN	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Months or Years (in March, in 2005) 2. Particular time of a day or a month or a year (in Evening, in the 3rd week of April, in summers) 3. A century or a specific time in past or future etc. (in the 20th century, in early days, in past)
ON	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A Day (on Sunday) 2. Dates (on 7th February) 3. Particular days (on my Wedding, on my birthday, on Independence day)
AT	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Time of a Clock (at 3 O'clock, at 4:30 AM) 2. Short or Precise Time (at night, at sunset, at noon)

Example:

She was born in 1986

His father died in 2005 in a car accident

I was very happy on the first day of my job

We went to see glaciers in the summer

The party will start at 8PM

2. Preposition for Place:

These prepositions are used for a place having some sort of boundary (physical or virtual), surface place and specific place e.g. **on, at, in**

Prepositions	Nature Of Place
IN	Place having some Physical and virtual boundary (in a hall, in the box, in the building, in a room)
ON	Surfaces of things (on the table, on the page, on the roof, on the map)
AT	Specific places (at bus stop, at the entrance, at the edge of roof)

Examples

They live in England

They placed their books on a table

I met him at the bus stop

She waited for her kids at the gate of her home
There's a cat under a table

Preposition of Direction:

These prepositions express the direction of something e.g. **into, through, towards**

Example

They are going to classroom
The snake was coming towards her
He threw a ball into a river

Preposition of Agent

These prepositions are used to express a causal relationship between the noun and an action e.g. **by, with**

Examples

A nice book written by John Keats
A lot of noise was made by the kids
The task was finished by him

Prepositions for Instruments, Devices or Machines:

These prepositions are used for joining nouns (instruments, devices, machines) to other words in the sentence e.g. **on, by, with, with the help of**

Examples:

He went to home by a car
This lock cannot be opened with the key
She watered the plants with the help of water-pipe
He broke the wall with a hammer

Prepositional Verbs:

Prepositional verbs are a combination of a verb and a preposition. It is simply a verb followed by a preposition

Some verbs require specific prepositions to be used after them in a sentence. The combination of such a verb and its required prepositions is called a prepositional verb.

Prepositional Verb = Verb + Preposition

Example:

She is waiting for him.

He is knocking at the door.

She is listening to the music.

The kids are laughing at a joker

We believe in God

She is suffering from fever

I agree with you

I agree to your proposal

2. Sentence Pattern, Types and Structure

A. Types of Sentence Structure

1. Simple Sentence Structure
2. Compound Sentence Structure
3. Complex Sentence Structure
4. Compound- compound Structure

Simple Sentence Structure

A simple sentence consists of one independent clause. (An independent clause contains a subject and verb and expresses a complete thought.)

Independent Clause

Examples

I like coffee.

Mary likes tea.

The earth goes round the sun.

Mary did not go to the party.

Compound Sentence Structure

A compound sentence is two (or more) independent clauses joined by a conjunction or semi-colon. Each of these clauses could form a sentence alone.

Independent clause----- Coordinating Conjunction----- Independent Clause

Examples:

I like coffee and Mary likes tea.

Mary went to work but John went to the party.

Our car broke down; we came last.

There are seven coordinating conjunctions:

and, but, or, nor, for, yet, so

Complex Sentence Structure A complex sentence consists of an independent clause plus a dependent clause. (A dependent clause starts with a subordinating conjunction or a relative pronoun, and contains a subject and verb, but does not express a complete thought.)

Independent Clause----- Subordinating Conjunction----- Dependent Clause

Examples

We missed our plane because we were late.

Our dog barks when she hears a noise.

He left in a hurry after he got a phone call.

Do you know the man who is talking to Mary?

Here are some common subordinating conjunctions:

after, although, as, because, before, how, if, once, since, than, that, though, till, until, when, where, whether, while

Here are the five basic relative pronouns:

that, which, who, whom, whose

Compound-Complex Sentence Structure

A compound-complex sentence consists of at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

**Independent clause----- Subordinating Conjunction----- Dependent Clause---
--- Coordinating Conjunction----- Independent Clause**

John didn't come because he was ill so Mary was not happy.

He left in a hurry after he got a phone call but he came back five minutes later

B. Sentence Pattern

Most sentences in English are constructed using one of the following five patterns:

1. Subject–Verb
2. Subject–Verb–Object
3. Subject–Verb–Adjective
4. Subject–Verb–Adverb
5. Subject–Verb–Noun

The subject is the person or thing taking an action or being described in the sentence. The verb is the action the subject takes.

Subject–Verb

This type of sentence begins with a core sentence such as “Jane walks.” Here, “Jane” is the subject and “walks” is the verb. Different parts of speech can be added to

expand the sentence. You can add an adverb to make the sentence “Jane walks quickly,” or you can add an expression of time to tell when she walks, e.g., “Jane walks all morning.”

Subject–Verb–Object

These sentences begin with a core sentence such as “She is playing a piano.” In this sentence, “She” is the subject, “is playing” is the verb, and “a piano” is the object. You can add elements to expand the sentence, such as an adjective (e.g., “She is playing a small piano”) or an adverb (e.g., “She is playing the piano beautifully”).

Subject–Verb–Adjective

This type of sentence begins with a core sentence like “He is handsome.” Here, “he” is the subject, “is” is the verb, and “handsome” is the adjective. Like the other types of sentences, you can expand on the sentence by adding other parts of speech, such as “He is very handsome,” where “very” serves as an adverb.

Subject–Verb–Adverb

These sentences begin with a core sentence such as “The girl walked away.” In this sentence, “the girl” is the subject, “walked” is the verb, and “away” is the adverb.

You can add elements to this type of sentence, such as “The girl slowly walked away,” where “slowly” is an adjective describing how the girl walked.

Subject–Verb–Noun

Sentences of this type begin with a core sentence such as “The professor is a woman.” Here, “the professor” is the subject, “is” is the verb, and “a woman” is the noun. As with the other sentence types, you can add words or phrases to expand on the sentence. For example, you can add the adjective “intelligent” and the adverbial phrase “at the university” to say “The professor at the university is an intelligent woman” to describe the professor more and tell where she works.

C. Sentence Types

1. Declarative sentence
2. Imperative sentence
3. Interrogative sentence
4. Exclamatory sentence

And there are only three punctuation marks with which to end a sentence:

Period (.)

Question mark (?)

Exclamation point (!)

A declarative sentence

Simply makes a statement or expresses an opinion. In other words, it makes a declaration. This kind of sentence ends with a period.

Examples:

I want to be a good writer. (makes a statement)

My friend is a really good writer. (expresses an opinion)

An imperative sentence

gives a command or makes a request. It usually ends with a period but can, under certain circumstances, end with an exclamation point.

Examples

Please sit down.

I need you to sit down now!

An interrogative sentence

Interrogative sentences ask a question. This type of sentence often begins with who, what, where, when, why, how, or do, and it ends with a question mark.

Examples

When are you going to turn in your writing assignment?"

Do you know what the weather will be tomorrow?"

An exclamatory sentence

Exclamatory sentences are those which expresses great emotion such as excitement, surprise, happiness and anger, and ends with an exclamation point.

Examples:

It is too dangerous to climb that mountain!

I got an A on my book report!

3. Tenses

Present Tense

Present Indefinite Tense

The present indefinite tense, also known as simple present tense, denotes a state, habitual or eternally true action.

Generally simple present tense is used to indicate an action which happens always, regularly, every day, daily, normally, generally, usually, occasionally, sometimes, often, rarely, frequently, nowadays, naturally, seldom, constantly, never, every week, every year, once a year, on a week, at times, at present, now and then, or all the time.

Structure:

**Subject (third person singular number) + verb in simple present form + s/es +-
-----**

Subject (all other kinds) + verb in simple present form + -----

Person/Number	Singular	Plural
First	I am a good cricket player.	We are good cricket players.
Second	You are an irresponsible person.	You all are always irresponsible.
Third	The earth is smaller than Jupiter.	Junk foods are not good for health.

There are some stative verbs which are usually used in simple tenses whether present or past or future. The stative verbs are

Have	Hate	Appear	Smell	Sound
Understand	Need	See	Want	Own
Know	Hear	Like	Taste	
Believe	Love	Seem	Wish	

Examples:

I know Billy Bob.

He understands it.

They love swinging in the park

Some people do not believe in God.

I usually wake up at 6.00 AM.

He plays cricket, but his brother plays football.

Earth is bigger than Mercury.

The heat of the sun is the least in the polar.

Present Perfect Tense

The present perfect tense is used when one intends to indicate:

An action that occurred at a time which is indefinite and has its effect on the subject or an action that occurred many times and has the possibility to occur in the present/future or an action that began in the past and still going on in the present.

Structure:

Subject + have/has + verb in the past participle form + -----

Example:

Ali has read the book through. (No time is indicated)

I have read this poem many times. (Not habitual but occurred many times in the past)

He has lived in this apartment for 15 years. (Still going on)

Just, already, yet, just now, ever, lately, recently, etc. are some of the signs for present perfect tense.

Note: Already comes between have/has and the past participle; yet appears with a negative form at the end of the sentence.

Example:

Ali has already reached there.
Alisha has not reached yet.
I have already cleaned the house.
I have not cleaned the house yet.

Present Perfect Continuous

It is the least used form of present tense. Present perfect progressive is used to indicate an action that began in the past and is still occurring in the present. Both present perfect and present perfect continuous can be used to indicate this type of action.

Structure:

Subject + have/has + been + [verb + ing] + -----

Example:

Ali has been reading for 3 years.
I have been sleeping since 10.00 AM
Robert has been working in that shop for 6 years.
We have been living together for four years.

Past Tense

Past Indefinite Tense

The past indefinite tense, also known as simple past tense, is used to indicate a finished or completed action/task that occurred/happened at a specific point in time in the past. 'A specific time' can be diverse and can cover a long period of time but it cannot be undeterminable.

Structure:

Subject + verb in the past form + adverb of time +-----

Note: Adverb of time can also be at the beginning of the sentence. Other sentences can also refer to that adverb and can use simple past tense.

Example:

Alex went to Mexico last year.
I ate a mango a few minutes ago.
He had an exam yesterday.

I used to travel around the world when I was fit. (It can also indicate a habit of the past which is not a habit in the present.)

Past Continuous Tense

The past continuous tense is used to demonstrate an action that was happening in the past for a period of time in a particular context. The context can be a specific time or another action.

Structures:

Subject + was/were + verb + ing + ----- a specific time

Ali was sleeping yesterday at 6.30 AM

I was cleaning the dishes at around 5.30-6.30 yesterday.

When + subject + simple past tense + subject + was/were + verb+ing -----

When I went out, you were shouting from behind.

When Ali came, I was sleeping.

Subject + was/were + verb+ing + when + subject + simple past tense-----

You were shouting from behind when I went outside.

I was sleeping when Ali came home.

While + subject + was/were + verb+ing + subject + was/were + verb+ing-----

While I was sleeping, you were making noises.

While Ali was playing, I was sleeping.

Note: While can also be placed between the two clauses, and one of the clauses can be of simple past tense.

Examples

I was writing articles on different topics.

He was reading various kinds of books.

They were playing football in that field.

She was drinking coffee in that coffee shop.

He was studying in the library.

We were shopping in this market last week.

We were watching a movie in this Cineplex yesterday.

You were shopping in that market.

I was singing different kinds of songs, especially modern.

I was listening to melodious songs last evening.
He was traveling around the world.

Past Perfect Tense

The past perfect is used to demonstrate an action that occurred before another action in the past. There are usually two completed actions in the sentence; one happens before the other.

Structures:

Subject + had + past participle form of the main verb + before + subject + simple past tense

Ali had completed the task before the teacher asked.
I had bought a phone before you came here.

Before + subject + simple past tense + subject + had + past participle form of the verb +-----

Before I went to the office, I finished some business with her.
Before she went home, she had taken a test.

Subject + simple past tense + after + subject + had + past participle-----

Mark ate after I had bought him a bat.
I went to the office after I had finished some business with her.

After + subject + had + past participle + subject + simple past tense----

After I had bought a phone, she came to the shop.
After she had gone, I came in.

Note: When can be used in place of before or after in any of the above structures.

Examples:

I had written articles on various topics before he came.
He had read different kinds of books before you came.
They had played football in that field before it started to rain.
She had gone to the coffee shop before she came home.
He had studied in the library before he came to the class.
I came here after you had left.
We had shopped in that shop before we came home.
We had watched a movie in that Cineplex before he came.
You had shopped in that market before you came home.

I had practiced the songs before the program started.
I had listened to melodious songs before I started the work

Past Perfect Continues Tense

The past perfect progressive tense is an extension to the past perfect tense and its structures. Past perfect progressive is used to demonstrate an action which continued for a specific period of time but stopped before another action.

Structure:

Subject + had + been + verb+ing + -----+ for/since + -----+ before + subject + past simple tense

Ahmed had been playing cricket for 18 years before he retired.
Jaleel had been living in Lahore since 2010 before he moved to Quetta

Note: This tense can be replaced by the past perfect tense withdrawing for/since.

Examples:

I had been writing articles on various topics for three hours.
He had been reading different kinds of books since morning.
They had been playing football in that field before it started to rain.
Jane had been gossiping in the coffee shop for two hours.
Jeff had been studying in the library before he came to the class.
We had been shopping in that shop before we came home.
We had been watching a movie in this Cineplex for three hours.
You had been shopping in that market before you came home.
I had been singing different kinds of songs for an hour.

Future Tense

Simple Future (Future Indefinite) Tense

The simple future tense is used when an action is promised/thought to occur in the future.

Structure:

Subject + shall/will + verb +-----

Example:

We shall move to another city.
He will come to New York tomorrow.
They will make a phone which has artificial intelligence.

Note: The structure of the present progressive tense also can be used when an action is promised/arranged/planned to take place in the near future.

Example:

We are moving to Texas next week.
The bus is leaving at 6.00 PM.
I will write articles on different topics.
Robert will read various kinds of books.
They will play football in that field.
April will prefer coffee to tea.
Bunny will go to the library tomorrow.
We will go shopping in that market this Monday.
We will watch a movie in this Cineplex on next Friday.
You will shop at that market tomorrow.
I will sing different kinds of songs, especially modern.

Future Continuous Tense

The future continuous tense is used when an action is promised/thought to be going on at a specific time/context in the future.

Structure:

Subject + shall/will + be + verb+ing-----

Example:

I shall be sleeping at around 6.00 AM tomorrow.
They will be playing at this time tomorrow.
She will be watching TV when I come home.
I will be working in the office while you watch a movie.

Future Perfect Tense

The future perfect tense is used to demonstrate an action which is promised to be done by a certain time in the future.

Structure:

Subject + shall/will + have + verb in the past participle-----

Example:

I shall have completed the assignment by Monday.

She will have cleaned the house before her father comes.

Ali will have submitted the tender by tomorrow.

Before I go to see her, she will have left the place.

They will have finished making the bridge by January.

Future Perfect Continuous tense:

There is no Practical use of this tense.

4. Linking, Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

To understand sentence construction, it helps if you know a little about three types of verb:

1. Linking verbs
2. Intransitive verbs
3. Transitive verbs

All verbs have a subject (the person or thing that "does" the action). The real difference between linking, intransitive and transitive verbs is whether or not they have an object (the person or thing that "gets" the action).

S = subject

V = verb

SC = subject complement

DO = direct object

IO = indirect object

linking verbs <i>take a subject complement</i>	intransitive verbs <i>take NO object</i>	transitive verbs <i>take an object</i>	
		mono- transitive verbs <i>take ONE object: a direct object</i>	di-transitive verbs <i>take TWO objects: an indirect object + direct object</i>
cannot be passive		can be passive	

S-V-SC	S-V	S-V-DO	S-V-IO-DO
<i>be</i> <i>seem</i> <i>become</i> <i>appear</i> <i>feel</i> <i>get</i> <i>look</i>	<i>arrive</i> <i>break down</i> <i>come</i> <i>cough</i> <i>go</i> <i>sleep</i>	<i>clean</i> <i>destroy</i> <i>eat</i> <i>like</i> <i>turn down</i> <i>want</i>	<i>buy</i> <i>give</i> <i>pass</i> <i>send</i> <i>show</i> <i>tell</i>
many verbs are ambitransitive —they can be intransitive OR transitive depending on context			

Linking Verbs

Linking verbs have **NO object**.

Linking verbs link two parts of a sentence.

They link the subject to a noun or adjective.

In this sense, linking verbs are like a mathematical equals sign (=).

subject	verb	subject complement
Mary	is	a nurse.
Mary	=	a nurse

Mary is a nurse.



Linking verbs do not make sense if used alone: they need a "subject complement" to complete their meaning.

- They are (???)
They are *teachers*

- I feel (???)
I feel *unwell*

In the above examples, *teachers* and *unwell* are subject complements.

Linking verbs work in two different ways:

1. the two parts of the sentence are the **same thing** (*Mary is my mother*)
2. the first part has the **quality** described by the second part (*Mary is English*)

The most obvious linking verb is the verb: *be*

Other linking verbs include:

appear, become, feel, get, grow, look, remain, seem, smell, sound, taste, turn

Linking verbs cannot be passive.

Look at these example sentences with linking verbs:

- **Is** that your car?
- I am **feeling** thirsty.
- John **is** my boyfriend.
- My father **became** an engineer.
- The milk will **turn** sour if you leave it.
- Her explanation did not **appear** plausible.
- Hillary **remained** under suspicion for the rest of her life.

Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs have **NO object**.

Their action is not transferred from the subject to something else.

subject	verb
She	cried.

She cried.



Many intransitive verbs can make sense if used alone:

- He **fainted**.
- She **cried**.
- Our car **broke down**.

Of course, we often do follow intransitive verbs with other words telling us *how*, *where* or *when*—but NEVER with an object:

- He **fainted** after lunch.
- She **coughed** bitterly.
- Our car **broke down** in Bangkok.

Intransitive verbs cannot be passive.

Examples of intransitive verbs are:

bark, boast, change, cough, die, go, live, run, sit, sleep, wave

Example:

- They **live** in London.
- Tell your dog **to sit** now.
- Were the dogs **barking**?
- The news hasn't **changed**.
- He **died** after a long illness.
- When I saw him he was **running**.
- The president **waved** to the crowds.

Transitive Verbs

Transitive verbs have an object. Their action is Transferred from the subject to something else (the object).

Transitive verbs can be active OR passive.

Some transitive verbs have one object; some have two objects

Monotransitive verbs

Monotransitive verbs have ONE object: a **direct object**

subject	verb	direct object
He	kicked	the ball.

He kicked the ball.



Examples:

bomb, clean, break, destroy, eat, kill, like, put off, trigger, turn down, want

Example:

Do you love me?

The Allies bombed Dresden.

Pick it up and throw it away.

Tara doesn't want a new car.

Bond killed the snake and ate it.

Can fracking trigger earthquakes?

Do you think they'll turn down my offer / turn my offer down?

Ditransitive verbs

Ditransitive verbs have TWO objects: a **direct object** and an **indirect object**

subject	verb	indirect object	direct object
Sue	passed	Ann	the ball.

Sue passed Ann the ball.



Examples:

buy, give, grant, lend, make, pass, send, serve, show, teach, tell

Example:

- **Make** me an offer.
- Who **teaches** him French?
- The bank won't **lend** them any money.
- They will **serve** the guests lunch at 12:30pm.
- Kid refused to **show** the teacher her homework.
- Anthony **bought** his new girlfriend some roses on her birthday.
- The local council have **granted** us permission to open a shop.

5. Direct and Indirect Speech

Reported Speech is also known as Direct and Indirect Speech or Narration. In Indirect Speech, we convey the speaker's message in our own words. Thus, the message can be conveyed in 2 ways.

1. Direct Speech
2. Indirect Speech

Direct speech is known as repeating the exact words spoken and Indirect speech is known as reporting the words.

There are certain rules to make changes in a sentence from Direct to Indirect speech

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
Can	Could
May	Might
Must	Had to/ Would have to
Should	Should
Might	Might
Could	Could
Would	Would
Ought to	Ought to

Examples:

He said, "I can cook food."

He said that he could cook food.

They said, "We may go to Canada."

They said that they might go to Canada.

She said, "I must finish the work on time."
She said that she had to finish the work on time.

Modals that remain unchanged are: Should, might, could, would, ought to.

Kamran said, "I ought to avoid junk food."
Kamran said that she ought to avoid junk food.

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
Present simple Subject +V1st + Object	Past simple Subject +V2 + Object
Present continuous Subject +is/am/are+V1 +ing+ Object	Past Continuous Subject +was/were+V1 +ing+ Object
Present perfect Subject + has/have+V3+Object	Past perfect Subject+had+V3+Object
Past simple Subject+V2+Object	Past perfect Subject+had+V3+Object
Past Continuous Subject +was/were+V1 +ing+ Object	Past perfect continuous Subject +had been+V1 +ing+ Object
Future simple Subject+ will/shall+V1+object	Present Conditional Subject+ would+V1+object
Future Continuous Subject +will/shall+be+V1 +ing+ Object	Conditional Continuous Subject +would+be+V1 +ing+ Object

Changes in Place and Time

Words are changed in an Indirect Speech to replace nearness from distance. In the table, we are sharing some words which are changed in Indirect speech.

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
Now	Then
Here	There
Today	That day
Tomorrow	The next day
Last week	The previous week
This	That
Tonight	That night
Ago	Before
Thus	So
Hither	Thither
Come	Go
Hence	Thence

Hina said, “I walk.”

Hina said that she walked.

Danish said, “I am having tea.”

Danish said that he was having tea.

Ayesha said, “Honey has left for school.”

Ayesha said that Honey had left for school.

Waleed said, “Anam took pasta.”

Waleed said that Anaya had taken pasta.

They told, “We were living in Paris.”

They told that they had been living in Paris.

Rimsha said, “I will go to Sri Lanka.”

Rimsha said that he would go to Sri Lanka.

Aisha Said, “They will be watering plants.”

Aisha said that they would be watering plants.

Changes of Pronouns

While making the changes from Direct and Indirect speech, one should be having knowledge of rules of changes in pronouns.

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
I	He/she
You	He/she/they
We	They
They	They
He	He
She	She
It	It
Us	Them
Our	Their
His	His
Her	Her
Its	Its

Ali said, "I am a good girl."
Ali said that she was a good girl.

I told them, "You have finished your work."
I told them that they had finished their work.

She said, "She is in Lahore."
She said that she was in Lahore.

6. Punctuation Marks and Usage

1. Full Stop or Period (.)

This includes the period (or full stop), question mark, and exclamation point. There are three ways to end a sentence, and this includes using the period, the question mark, and the exclamation mark. The **period** or full stop (.) is used for ending a declarative statement, believed to be complete. It is also used following abbreviations.

Examples:

Ending a sentence:

“My children walked to school.”

Abbreviation:

“Their father, Mr. Gerald Smith, took charge of the hostel on Feb. 2019.”
A comma or a hyphen can't take the place of a period. Take a look at the following examples to understand what the difference would be when you use a hyphen or comma in place of a period.

“I can't understand why she's jubilant; she's out of key.”

“I won't lie; I just don't care much for the truth.”

“She believes you eat junk food, is she right?”

Now see how these sentences look with a period instead of a comma:

“I can't understand why she's jubilant. She's out of key.”

“I don't lie. I don't care much for the truth.”

“She believes you eat junk food. Is she right?”

The meaning is the same, but now you have correctly punctuated sentences that make sense on their own and don't require a comma.

2. Question Mark (?)

We use a **question mark** whenever we ask questions.

Example:

“What did you buy for his birthday?”

“We've always wondered, why is that boy so angered?”

“I enjoyed the movie last night?”

“We've always wondered why is that boy so angered?”

3. Exclamation Mark (!)

We use an **exclamation point** or **exclamation mark** (!) when we wish to express sudden joy, disgust or despair, or for generally emphasizing something.

Within dialogue:

“Oh My God!” *she screamed.*

To underscore a point:

Her brother’s bragging annoyed her!

Comma, Semicolon, and Colon

The comma, semicolon, and colon are the most commonly misused punctuation.

Since they are all used for a pause of some sort, we tend to mix them up, often using them interchangeably.

However,

each one’s use is quite different and much more purposeful.

4. The Comma (,)

The **comma** helps us to separate ideas, phrases, or elements within a sentence.

It is also used for expressing numbers, dates, and in other cases, such as letter writing following salutations.

Here are some examples of how a comma is used:

Direct address:

“We are pleased to have you over, Hans.”

Separation of two complete sentences.

“They went to the laboratory, and then they went to the hospital. “

Listing elements within sentences:

“Greg demanded the blue, red, and green toy car.”

The “Oxford Comma”

Adding a comma before the conjunction in a series of items is debatable.

These days, you will find a mixture of the two, especially when you encounter web-based write-ups.

However, it’s worth taking into consideration the use of placing a final comma before and when there is; a series of items separated by commas.

So, let’s consider the following:

“My honorable teachers, Mark Twain, and Mary Moore.”

“To my parents, Mark Twain and Mary Moore.”

Never Use a Comma for a Vocal Pause

Commas serve many purposes, but representing arbitrary pauses in speech is not one of them.

For example, this is not when you should use a comma.

“It’s heartbreaking for a cat owner when he finds out the cats are the real masters.”
“It’s heartbreaking for a cat owner when he finds out the cats are the real masters.”

5. Semicolon (;)

We use the **semicolon** for connecting independent clauses. It helps to show a closer relationship between the clauses than a period would show.

“Angie fell ill; she needed to get to a hospital.”

“He’s not a good listener; it feels like I’m talking to myself.”

“We can’t stop thinking about our cat; she was everything to us.”

“That hat is horrible; it smells bad too.”

“She looks like a mole; she’s weird.

6. Colon

We use a **colon** (:) for three primary uses.

In the first case, we use it before a quote, something in greater, to cite an example, or laying down a series of some elements, possibly related.

Example:

“The country needed desperate attention in the following areas: economy, defense, welfare, and judicial processes.”

The second way we use a colon is to link two independent clauses, wherein the second clause helps to clarify the first clause. This is similar to what a semicolon does.

Example:

We raced to the bus stop: It was getting late.

The third way that we use a colon is for emphasizing a subject:

Example:

There is just one thing that sets the tone for a stable home; peace.

Only use colons for stand-alone sentences

Colons can be used in a similar fashion that semicolons are.

However, in the case of a colon, you should only use it if you’re expressing an example of what was stated *before* the colon:

“He offered one piece of advice: Never hurt any animal.”

“She’s an intelligent girl: She solves crosswords in minutes and speaks five languages.”

Using the colon in the way we have above, invokes a second rule:

The words stated before the colon should have meaning on its own, and must not be reliant on the words following the colon.

if you replace the colon and end the sentence there with a period.

“I love puppies because they look good.”

“They shed tears when: they are scared.”

It’s noteworthy to mention that if you just remove the colon from incorrect sentences, all the words together form a complete sentence.

This means that if any punctuation serves no value or has no grammatical influence, it’s best to avoid it.

7. Dash

We use a **dash** when we need to separate words into statements. The two types of dashes that we use include:

- **En dash:** The en dash is double the length of a hyphen (–). We use it when writing or printing when indicating a period, range, connections, such as 2010 — 2015.
- **Em dash:** This is visibly longer than the en dash. We use it like a comma, parenthesis, or as a colon, and the aim is to ensure stress on a conclusion of a sentence.

Example:

- “His answer was final — No!”

Placing spaces around the em dash or not is up to you.

8. Hyphen

We use a **hyphen** merge two or more words for enhanced meaning. These compound words aren’t separable by spaces.

Example:

Two-day

All-inclusive

Step-by-step.

9. Brackets ([])

We use for brackets for explaining technical matters, but even without their inclusion, your sentence alone will make sense.

Example:

“She [Ms. Burns] was first seen at a political rally.”

10. Braces ({})

We use **braces** for carrying two or more lines of text or listed items that are considered as a unit.

They may not be used, but tend to be used in computer programming descriptive text because they demonstrated what should be carried within the same lines.

Braces are also seen quite a bit of mathematical statements.

Example:

$$4\{2x+[13-5]\}=xy.$$

11. Parenthesis ()

We use Parentheses to include further detail or qualifying remarks.

The repetition in parentheses can be held in place by commas too. In many cases, the meaning would not change.

“Clark and Ian (who were distant relatives) went to the same school.”

12. Apostrophe (‘)

We often use an **apostrophe** to indicate:

1. When we’re omitting a letter or letters

Example:

“We’ve been there a few times.”

2. Possessive cases

Example:

“The cat’s food is in the bowl.”

3. The plurals of lowercase letters

Example:

“Don’t forget to dot your I’s and cross your t’s.”

13. Quotations marks (” “) and (‘ ‘)

We use quotations marks to indicate the exact words someone has used.

They might also be used for indicating meanings and unusual or dubious verbiage.

“Please avoid making a noise,” he said.

We use Single quotation marks (’) most frequently for quotes within quotes.

Sam told his father, “We ran by the two men at the park, just as one told the other ‘I don’t feel well,’ before collapsing.”

14. Ellipsis (. . .) or (***)

We usually use an ellipsis with three periods (. . .)

while occasionally you will see them used with three asterisks (***)

We use an ellipsis to indicate when we’re omitting something, such as letters or words.

You will have seen examples of these in quotations.

When they are used, you will notice that they indicate a jump from one phrase to another,

avoiding the mention of unnecessary verbiage.

Omitted words that are understood to be continuing to its logical conclusion:

The countdown began, “ten, nine, eight ...” until the rocket blasted off.

A quoted statement with unnecessary words omitted:

When Steve Jobs said, “Design is not just how it looks and feels...” he brought the importance of User Experience to light.

It’s important to use punctuation only when it adds value.

To wrap it all up

You might feel tempted to add commas and semicolons more in your work, but there is no point in having more than one tail on a monkey.

However,

when you do need to use commas, make sure you use them in the right place to elucidate the intended meaning.

If you don’t, revisit the introduction and see how great a comma or a colon can be.

PART 2
READING SKILLS
WRITING SKILLS
LISTENING SKILLS

1. Reading Skills

Types of Reading skills:

1. Skimming
2. Scanning
3. Intensive
4. Extensive

Skimming

This reading mode is used to get to know and understand if this information is useful to you (you are viewing a book in a store or a magazine on the shelf before buying it). In this case, the text is also viewed quickly, but not as carefully as in the previous case. The goal is not to search for specific facts, but to evaluate the text for complexity, interest and a general storyline.

Scanning

This reading mode is aimed only at finding the necessary information in the text. It does not mean a complete immersion in the text and a deep comprehension of the facts, analysis of grammatical constructions. Often in this mode, the text is viewed for the presence of unfamiliar words, so that after their translation it will be more easy to read the text fully. This type of reading is also called 'diagonal reading'.

Intensive reading

This reading involves learners to read in detail with specific learning aims and tasks. It can be compared with extensive reading, which involves learners reading texts for enjoyment and to develop general reading skills. The learners read a short text and put events from it into chronological order.

Extensive reading

This reading involves learners reading texts for enjoyment and to develop general reading skills. It can be compared with intensive reading, which means reading in detail with specific learning aims and tasks. A teacher reads a short story with learners, but does not set them any tasks except to read and listen.

2. Speed Reading

Speed reading is the process of rapidly recognizing and absorbing phrases or sentences on a page all at once, rather than identifying individual words.

The amount of information that we process seems to be growing by the day, whether it's emails, reports and websites at work, or social media, books and magazines at home. We likely feel pressure to get through this information more quickly, so that we can **"stay in the loop"** and make informed decisions.

Most people read at an average rate of 250 words per minute (wpm), though some are naturally quicker than others. But, the ability to speed read could mean that you double this rate.

How to Speed Read?

All speed reading techniques have one thing in common, you avoid pronouncing and "hearing" each word in your head as you read it, a process known as "sub-vocalization." Instead, you "skim" lines or groups of words, as you can understand words more quickly than you can say them.

One way to stop yourself from sub-vocalizing is to focus on blocks of words rather than on individual ones. Do this by relaxing your face and "softening" or expanding your gaze on the page, so that you stop seeing words as single, distinct units. As you practice this, your eyes will skip faster across the page.

Then, when you approach the end of a line, allow your peripheral vision to take your eye to the final set of words. This will help to stop pauses in your reading (often at full points), meaning that you scan across and down to the next line more quickly.

Three methods to boost reading speed:

1. The Pointer Method

Utah school teacher Evelyn Nielsen Wood was one of the pioneers of speed reading. In the 1950s, she claimed that she could read at up to 2,700 wpm if she swept a finger along the line as she read.

This became known as the Pointer method, and is also sometimes called **"hand pacing"** or **"meta guiding."** Holding a card under each line and drawing it down the page as you read works just as well.

2. The Tracker-and-Pacer Method

This is a variant of the Pointer method where you hold a pen, with its cap still on, and underline or track each line as you read it, keeping your eye above the tip of the pen. This will help to increase the pace at which you take in each line, and improve your focus on the words. Whether you actually underline the words is your choice.

Try to spend no more than one second on each line and then increase your speed with each subsequent page. You will probably find that you retain very little information at first, but, as you train your brain and you become more comfortable with the technique, your comprehension should improve.

Note:

An advantage of the Pointer and Tracker-and-Pacer methods is that they should reduce your need to skip back and re-read sentences – a hindrance to speed reading that is known as "regression."

3. The Previewing Method

"Previewing" involves moving your eyes quickly down the page often down the center and identifying specific words and phrases as you go. These can be key sentences (often the first sentence of each paragraph), names, numbers, or trigger words and ideas. Learning to expand your peripheral vision can help with this.

You won't read every word, but your eye will land on what is important to allow you to grasp the basic idea. It may be helpful to use a mind map to organize the information you take in.

3. Precise and Comprehension

Precise/Summary Writing

“Precis is a short form of the text which briefly gives only the important parts.”

QUALITIES OF A GOOD PRECIS

A good precis shows the writing skills of a person. It must have the following qualities.

1. Clarity

Clarity means getting your message across so that the receiver can understand what the writer is trying to convey. It is the basic and essential need of a precis. The ideas should be clear and understandable. There should not be any ambiguity in your writing. The writer can achieve clarity by using simple language and simple structure. If your precis is not understandable to the reader it will lose its importance and meanings for the reader.

2. Correctness

Mistakes in your writings always irritate the reader. Of course mistakes are never intentional; even so there is no excuse for them. At the time of writing or composing a precis the writer must ensure that the facts and figures are correct. Structure of sentences and spellings of words must be correct because a single mistake in structure and spelling may spoil the message. We may consider the mistakes under the following headings:

Misspelled words

Mistakes in figures and dates

Mistakes in punctuation

Mistakes of grammar and structure

3. Objectivity

Objectivity means the ability to present or view facts uncolored by feelings, opinions and personal bias. While making a precis, the writer should adopt an objective approach. He should not give and add his personal opinion and ideas in a precis. A precis should be purely a summary of the original text without any addition.

4. Coherence

Coherence means the logical and clear interconnection of ideas in a written piece of work. A good precis should be coherent. The ideas which are presented in a precis must have a logical connection and they all should be interrelated. In short we may

say that the ideas should be well knitted so that the writer may not be confused and lose his interest.

5. Completeness

Another striking feature of a good precis is completeness. A precis should be complete in all respects. Completeness means that the writer should include all the important facts in a precis. To make it short he should not omit the important ideas. This mistake on the part of the writer will spoil the importance and meaning of the precis.

6. Conciseness

Conciseness is a desirable quality of a good precis. Conciseness means to say all that needs to be said and no more. The writer should write what is necessary and avoid writing unnecessary details. A concise piece of work conveys the message in the fewest possible words. But one point must be kept in mind that the writer should not omit some basic and essential facts to achieve conciseness. To achieve conciseness, notice the following suggestions:

Omitting unnecessary details

Eliminate wordy expressions

Include only relevant material

Avoid unnecessary repetition

RULES OF MAKING A PRECIS

A well written precis should be a serviceable substitute for the original work. The goal of a precis is to preserve the core essence of the work in a manner that is both clear and concise. While writing a precis, the writer should follow the below given rules to make it an effective piece of work.

Read Carefully

First read the passage twice or thrice carefully to summarize it. This will enable you to understand the main theme of the passage.

Underlining

Underline and mark the important ideas and essential points from the original text.

Outline

With the help of underlined ideas, draw the outline of your precis.

Omission

Omit all the unnecessary information or the long phrases which could be replaced by one word. All the adjectives and the adverbs can also be omitted in order to make a good precis.

Don't Omit

While making a precis, the writer should never omit the important points and ideas which are essential to be described.

Size

Keep the fact in your mind that the length of the precis should be the one third of the original passage.

Indirect Speech

A precis should be written in indirect speech. If there is direct speech in the passage, it should be changed into indirect speech.

Tense and Person

It should be written in the third person and past tense. In the case of universal truth the present tense should be used.

Own Words

A precis should be written in your own words and the writer should abstain from borrowing words from the original passage.

Precis of a Dialogue

The precis of a dialogue or conversation should always be expressed in form of narrative.

Objective Approach

A precis writer should adopt an objective approach. He should not add his personal ideas to a precis. Put all the important points and ideas in a logical order.

One Paragraph

There could be two or more paragraphs in the original text. While making the precis, try to write all the ideas in one paragraph.

Rough Draft

After omitting all the unnecessary ideas, the writer should prepare a rough draft to finalize it.

Final Draft

Having read the rough draft and pointed out some mistakes which may be found in the rough draft, the writer can prepare the final draft.

Sample Paragraph

When we survey our lives and efforts we soon observe that almost the whole of our actions and desires are bound up with the existence of other human beings. We notice that whole nature resembles that of the social animals. We eat food that others have produced, wear clothes that others have made, live in houses that others have built. The greater part of our knowledge and beliefs has been passed on to us by other people through the medium of a language which others have created. Without language and mental capacities, we would have been poor indeed comparable to higher animals.

We have, therefore, to admit that we owe our principal knowledge over the least to the fact of living in human society. The individual if left alone from birth would remain primitive and beast like in his thoughts and feelings to a degree that we can hardly imagine. The individual is what he is and has the significance that he has, not much in virtue of the individuality, but rather as a member of a great human community, which directs his material and spiritual existence from the cradle to grave.

Precis Summary

Being social animals, human beings have their actions and desires bound up with society. In matter of food, clothes, knowledge and belief they are interdependent. They use language created by others. Without language their mental power would not grow. They are superior to beast, because they live in human society. An individual life left alone from birth would grow utterly beast like. So human society and not individuality guides man's material and spiritual existence.

COMPREHENSION

A comprehension test is based on a short passage or article. A student who has to answer the comprehension questions has to understand and grasp the meaning of the passage or article. The understanding power and level of the student is evaluated in a comprehension test. Hence it is important for students to read the comprehension carefully first and then only answer the questions. The passage or article has to be understood perfectly well before questions are answered.

Instructions to Be Read with Extra Care

While reading instructions, always take extra care. At times, the questions are tricky leading the student to misunderstand or miss out important points. Consider the context of the answer first. All questions which you know should be answered first. You can eliminate questions you are not too sure about.

First Read the Questions

Make it a habit to go through the questions first. This will help you to look for relevant answers while reading the passage. Process of fetching answers can be hastened by doing this. If the passage is read first and then the questions, the chances of losing time are more as you will be reading everything again.

Check Marks Allotted to Each Question

There is no point in dedicating too much time on a question that is worth very few marks. Make sure that questions with more marks are answered first and then quickly finish off the ones with the least marks.

Allocate Appropriate Time

You will have to note down the time required for answering every question and accordingly stick to that time, so that all the questions can be attempted in due time.

Highlighting Keywords

Once you have read the questions and have started reading the passage, make sure you highlight any headings, phrases, keywords etc that can help in answering the questions. This method will help you save a lot of time, searching through the passage again.

Avoid Copying Text Directly

While writing down the answers you should not copy chunks of text directly.

Review What You Have Written

To check for avoidable mistakes, you must review the paper again at least twice once you are done with answering the questions. If sentences have to be reframed or corrected, then this can be done. In case of answering multiple choice questions, and in case of doubt, importance to reviewing must be given.

Use Quotation Marks Wherever Necessary

Quotation marks will have to be used if at all you will be making use of quotations from the passage. This also carries marks, so make sure you don't forget them quotation marks.

Avoid Using Any Knowledge from Outside the Passage

Make sure the comprehension is read at least twice. While answering the questions, the answers have to be from what is given in the passage itself as outside knowledge is not entertained in a comprehension. Avoid any answer that is not supported by relevant information from the passage or article or they will be rendered as incorrect.

If these few important points and techniques are kept in mind, then you will surely be able to attempt the examination and comprehension well and in the process score good marks.

2. Writing Skills

Paragraph Writing

There are following steps to write a quality paragraph:

1. write an outline

Add the topic and supporting information.

Example

Topic — smoking & health hazards

Outline

Lung cancer — proven link

Other lung diseases — emphysema, bronchitis

Heart disease — risk factor

Passive smoking — effect on others

2. write the topic sentence

Example

There are several serious health hazards directly linked to smoking.

3. write supporting sentences

write a supporting sentence for each point. Use facts or examples to support your points.

Example

The link between smoking and cancer is well known. As well smoking is linked to other lung diseases like emphysema and bronchitis. Smokers also have a greater risk of heart disease later in life. This is evidenced in recent court cases in the USA where smokers have been awarded damages from tobacco companies. Further, there is substantial research that even passive smoking can have long term effects on health.

4. concluding sentence

write a concluding sentence to sum up.

Example

Clearly smoking is a dangerous habit and should be avoided.

5. conclude paragraph

Example

topic sentence

There are several serious health hazards directly linked to smoking. The link between smoking and cancer is well known. As well smoking is linked to other lung diseases like emphysema and bronchitis. Smokers also have a greater risk of heart disease later in life. This is evidenced in recent court cases in the USA where smokers have been awarded damages from tobacco companies. Further, there is substantial research that even passive smoking can have long term effects on health. Clearly smoking is a dangerous habit and should be avoided.

supporting sentences

concluding sentence

Essay writing

Steps to write an Essay

Pick a topic.

If possible, choose something that interests you.

Brainstorm.

Write down any idea that comes to your head about things you'd like to include, including key points, examples, and illustrations.

Organize.

1. Pick out a thesis, or main point you are trying to prove. This will become your first paragraph.
2. Identify three points to back up this thesis. These will become your 3 supporting paragraphs.
3. Think of a conclusion, which will become your fifth paragraph.

Write.

1st paragraph: State your thesis and add a transitional hook that alerts the reader to what they can expect in the body of the paper

2nd paragraph: This should be your strongest argument or point. Include examples and illustrations.

3rd paragraph: This should be your second strongest argument or point. Include examples and illustrations.

4th paragraph: This should be your weakest argument or point. Include examples and illustrations.

5th paragraph: This is your conclusion. Restate the thesis, summarize your three points, and make a strong final statement that ties up and concludes the essay.

Revise.

Read your paper over after not viewing it for a while so you can see it with fresh eyes. Look for ways you could strengthen your argument or grammar.

Points to Consider:

1. Avoid semicolons as they are difficult to use correctly and effectively.
2. Paragraphs should follow a 'theme'. They generally consist of more than one sentence.
3. It comprises, but is composed of (it never comprises of).
4. Avoid using the same word too frequently or twice in quick succession.
5. Do not use clichés, metaphors or similes.
6. Do not use abbreviations. Stick to formal English (don't use don't).
7. Try to avoid using the first person. ("I").
8. Try to use the active voice rather than the passive voice where possible, it makes for more direct and interesting reading.

Types of Essay

Distinguishing between types of essays is simply a matter of determining the writer's goal. The writer wants to tell about a personal experience, describe something, explain an issue, or convince the reader to accept a certain viewpoint.

1. Narrative Essays: Telling a Story
2. Descriptive Essays: Painting a Picture
3. Expository Essays: Just the Facts
4. Persuasive/Argumentative Essays: Convince Me

Narrative Essays: Telling a Story

In a narrative essay, the writer tells a story about a real-life experience. While telling a story may sound easy to do, the narrative essay challenges students to think and write about themselves. When writing a narrative essay, writers should try to involve the reader by making the story as vivid as possible. The fact that narrative essays are usually written in the first person helps engage the reader. "I" sentences give readers a feeling of being part of the story. A well-crafted narrative essay will also build towards drawing a conclusion or making a personal statement.

Descriptive Essays: Painting a Picture

A cousin of the narrative essay, a descriptive essay paints a picture with words. A writer might describe a person, place, object, or even memory of special significance. However, this type of essay is not description for description's sake. The descriptive essay strives to communicate a deeper meaning through the description. In a descriptive essay, the writer should show, not tell, through the use of colorful words and sensory details. The best descriptive essays appeal to the reader's emotions, with a result that is highly suggestive.

Expository Essays: Just the Facts

The expository essay is an informative piece of writing that presents a balanced analysis of a topic. In an expository essay, the writer explains or defines a topic, using facts, statistics, and examples. Expository writing encompasses a wide range of essay variations, such as the comparison and contrast essay, the cause and effect essay, and the "how to" or process essay. Because expository essays are based on facts and not personal feelings, writers don't reveal their emotions or write in the first person.

Persuasive/Argumentative Essays: Convince Me

While like an expository essay in its presentation of facts, the goal of the persuasive essay is to convince the reader to accept the writer's point of view or recommendation. The writer must build a case using facts and logic, as well as examples, expert opinion, and sound reasoning. The writer should present all sides of the argument, but must be able to communicate clearly and without equivocation why a certain position is correct.

Translational Skills

The ability to transfer style, tone and cultural elements accurately from one language to another. If you attend a university to gain an appropriate language qualification, your course will teach you many important translation skills.

Modes of Translation

1. Literal Translation

Literal translation is a translation in which every word is being translated according to the sentence structure

2. Contextual Translation

Contextual translation is a mode where context of the content is being conveyed through translation.

Rules for translation

Avoid translating first names

If you find a proper name in a document, be it from a person, company or institution, avoid translating it because it can make the text lose its meaning.

As for the names of people, these should be kept as they appear in the original text.

Beware of false pair of words

For those who do not speak the language so fluently, “push” in English can sound “puxe” (pull) in Portuguese. “Apellido”, in Spanish, sounds “apelido” (nickname) in Portuguese and “die Zigarre” in German may sound “cigarro” in Portuguese or “cigarette” in English.

Being aware of false cognates are among the basic rules of translation in any language. Inferring the meaning of a foreign word based on the knowledge you have of your native language can confuse things.

Always have tools and materials to help you translate and avoid this classic trap that has been around for some time.

Not every word has a literal translation

It may be weird to think that not all words can be translated literally, but this is true. Some terms and expressions cannot be translated using only a few words and sometimes need to be accompanied by a long and detailed explanation.

Nevertheless, the need to include an explanation for certain terms is common to all languages

Types of Translation

The world of translation is a vast and varied one. There are different translation techniques, diverse theories about translation and eight different translation services types, including technical translation, judicial translation and certified translation.

TECHNICAL TRANSLATION

The term “technical translation” can be understood in two ways:

In its broadest sense, it is about translating user manuals, instructions leaflets, internal notes, medical translation, financial reports, minutes of proceedings, administrative terms in general, and so forth. These documents share the distinction of being for a specific and limited target audience and usually have a limited shelf-life.

In its most limited sense, technical translation refers to “technical” documentation such as engineering, IT, electronics, mechanics, and industrial texts in general. Technical translation requires a knowledge of the specialized terminology used in the sector of the source text.

SCIENTIFIC TRANSLATION

As a sub-group of technical translation, as its name indicates, scientific translation deals with documents in the domain of science: articles, theses, papers, congress booklets, conference presentations, study reports etc.

FINANCIAL TRANSLATION

Financial or economic translation, of course, deals with documentation relating to the likes of finance, banking, and stock exchange activity. This includes company annual accounts, annual reports, financial statements, financial contracts, financing packages, and so forth.

LEGAL TRANSLATION

Legal translation covers a wide range of different documents. These may include legal documents such as summons and warrants; administrative texts such as registration certificates, corporate statutes and remittance drafts; technical documents such as expert opinions and texts for judicial purposes; and a number of other texts in addition to reports and minutes of court proceedings.

JUDICIAL TRANSLATION

Judicial translations, not to be confused with legal or certified translation, refers to the task of translation undertaken in a court setting. Judicial translators specialize in translating documents such as letters rogatory, minutes of proceedings, judgements, expert opinions, deposition, minutes of interrogation sessions etc.

JURIDICAL TRANSLATION

Juridical translation refers to legally-binding documentation. For example, this could be the translation of documents such as laws; regulations and decrees; general sales and purchase conditions; legally binding contracts such as labor; license and commercial contracts; partnership agreements, accords; protocols and conventions; internal regulations; insurance policies; and bail assurance, among others. The juridical translator must have a solid legal background in addition to their linguistic training.

CERTIFIED TRANSLATION

A certified translator or sworn translator may use their signature to authenticate official translations. These are usually documents which require legal validation and are thus referred to as “certified” or “sworn”. Certified translators often work in courtrooms as juridical translators, or act in the capacity of a legal expert, as well as providing translations of civil status documentation, marital agreements, divorce settlements, decesses, and wills.

LITERARY TRANSLATION

This is probably the hardest of all the different kinds of translation, as obviously, the translator must first try to render the semantic content of the original text (as should be the case for the translation of any kind of text), and then in addition deal with a number of other difficulties.

3. Listening Skills

Listening means paying attention not only to the story, but how it is told, the use of language and voice, and how the other person uses his or her body. In other words, it means being aware of both verbal and non-verbal messages.

Modes of Effective Listening

Most of what we do or don't do (the way we act and respond to others) is based upon our understanding of the messages that have been conveyed to us. In "real world" terms, misunderstanding can cost us time, money, credibility, and even relationships. Conversely, accurately received messages create comfort, confidence, and appreciation in the minds of others, from friends to coworkers to customers.

Effective listening has three modes:

1. Attentive listening,
2. Responsive listening
3. Active listening.

Understanding these modes will help you increase your listening accuracy and reduce the opportunity for misunderstanding.

Attentive Listening

Attentive listeners focus on the speaker and work hard to eliminate distractions (such as ambient noise or poor delivery skills). They are also patient and let the speaker finish their thoughts without interruption. While not easy, attentive listening is essential for effective communication.

Responsive Listening

Responsive listeners demonstrate to the speaker that they are listening and understanding what is being said, which encourages the speaker to continue. Encouraging responses may include both nonverbal and verbal cues:

- Nonverbal Responses
 - Smiling
 - Appropriate facial expression
 - An affirmative nod of the head
 - Good (appropriate) eye contact
 - Minimizing distractions (turning off cell phones, etc.)
 - Taking notes (under-utilized way to broaden the depth of learning)
 - Leaning slightly towards the speaker

- Verbal Responses
 - “Uh-huh”
 - “I see”
 - “Yes”
 - “Really?”

Occasionally repeating or paraphrasing short phrases to show what you’ve heard

Active Listening

Active listening is probably the most important listening skill. It is “active” because it combines the skills of listening and responding without invalidating the speaker’s comments, giving the speaker personal opinions, advice, or trying to draw ownership of the conversation away from the speaker.

An active listener monitors the communication of a message at both the content and feeling level. They pay attention to what people say, how they say it, and why they’re saying it. Then, once the listener feels they understand the sender’s message, they paraphrase it back to the speaker to ensure understanding prior to responding with their own answer or message. The listener’s goal is to first understand the messenger’s thoughts, feelings, and needs and then send them back for verification of accuracy before proceeding. When paraphrasing, it is important to use your own words; don’t just simply parrot back what the messenger said.

Types of Listening

When we engage in listening we are doing so for many different reasons depending upon the goals in which we are trying to achieve. There are four different types of listening that are essential to know when deciding what your goal as the listener is. The four types of listening are appreciative, empathic, comprehensive, and critical. Familiarize yourself with these different types of listening so you can strengthen and improve your ability to critically think and evaluate what you have heard.

Appreciative Listening

When you listen for appreciation you are listening for enjoyment. Think about the music you listen to. You usually listen to music because you enjoy it. The same can be said for appreciative listening when someone is speaking. Some common types of appreciative listening can be found in sermons from places of worship, from a motivational speech by people we respect or hold in high regard, or even from a standup comedian who makes us laugh.

Empathic Listening

When you listen empathically you are doing so to show mutual concern. During this type of listening you are trying to identify with the speaker by understanding the situation in which he/she is discussing. You are stepping into the other’s shoes to get

a better understanding of what it is he/she is talking about. Usually during this type of listening you want to be fully present in the moment or mindfully listening to what the speaker is saying. Your goal during this time is to focus on the speaker, not on yourself. You are trying to understand from the speaker's perspective.

Comprehensive Listening

If you are watching the news, listening to a lecture, or getting directions from someone, you are listening to understand or listening to comprehend the message that is being sent. This process is active. In class, you should be focused, possibly taking notes of the speaker's main ideas. Identifying the structure of the speech and evaluating the supports he/she offers as evidence. This is one of the more difficult types of listening because it requires you to not only concentrate but to actively participate in the process. The more you practice listening to comprehend, the stronger listener you become.

Critical Listening

Have you ever had to buy an expensive item, such as a new appliance, a car, a cell phone, or an iPad? You probably did some research beforehand and listened closely to the salesperson when you went to compare brands. Or perhaps your best friend is telling you about some medical tests he/she recently had done. You listen closely so you can help your friend understand her results and the possible ramifications of the findings. Both of these scenarios are examples of critical listening. Critical listening is listening to evaluate the content of the message. As a critical listener you are listening to all parts of the message, analyzing it, and evaluating what you heard. When engaging in critical listening, you are also critically thinking. You are making mental judgments based on what you see, hear, and read. Your goal as a critical listener is to evaluate the message that is being sent and decide for yourself if the information is valid.

Note Taking Techniques

Techniques for Note Taking

Write phrases, not full sentences.

Only record the key words that you need to get the idea of the point. Skip words like “the” and “a” that don’t add additional meaning to the lecture content. Retain key technical or discipline-specific terms.

Take notes in your own words

Paraphrase what you hear so it makes sense to you it helps you to understand and remember what you hear. Try to paraphrase everything except where information needs to be noted exactly.

Structure your notes with headings, subheadings and numbered lists

Use headings to indicate topic areas or to include bibliographic details of the sources of information. Use outline form and/or a numbering system and indenting to help you distinguish major from minor points and as a clear way of indicating the structure of lecture information.

Code your note

use color and symbols to mark structure and emphasis.

Use color

Highlight major sections, main points and diagrams. You can also use different colors to classify and link concepts or information by topic. However, don’t focus too much on color coding when you’re in the lecture. It requires time and concentration, so it’s more useful to do most of the highlighting and underlining when you’re revising your notes later.

Underline, circle, star, etc:

To identify key information, examples, definitions, or other important materials. Devise your own marking code to indicate each type.

If you miss something

Write key words, skip a few spaces, and get the information later. Leave a space on the page for your own notes and comments.

Use Symbols and Abbreviations

Symbols and abbreviations for frequently used words, phrases or names are useful for note taking in lectures when speed is essential. It's important to be consistent so you remember what they represent and can use them easily. Keep a 'key list' of frequently used symbols/abbreviations and their meanings so that you can refer to them in the future.

Methods for Note Taking:

1. The Cornell Method
2. The Outlining Method
3. The Mapping Method
4. The Charting Method
5. The Sentence Method

The Cornell Method

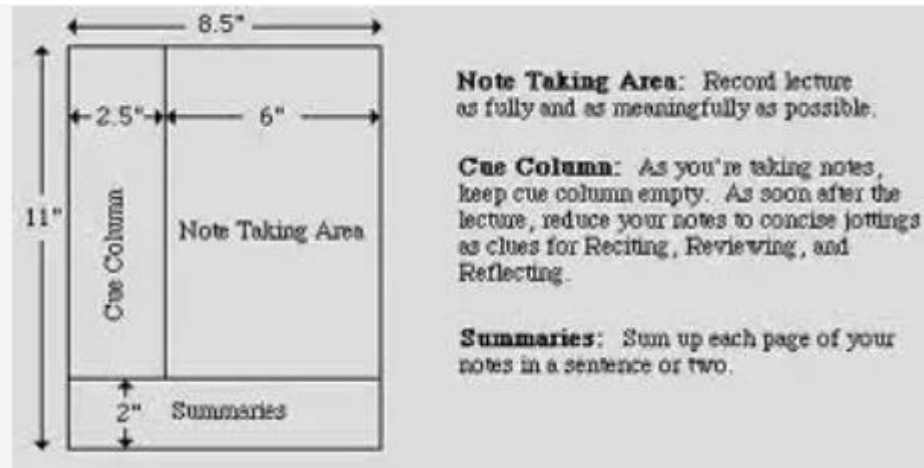
The Cornell method provides a systematic format for condensing and organizing notes without laborious recopying. After writing the notes in the main space, use the left-hand space to label each idea and detail with a key word or "cue."

Method: Rule your paper with a 2 _ inch margin on the left leaving a six-inch area on the right in which to make notes. During class, take down information in the six-inch area. When the instructor moves to a new point, skip a few lines. After class, complete phrases and sentences as much as possible. For every significant bit of information, write a cue in the left margin. To review, cover your notes with a card, leaving the cues exposed. Say the cue out loud, then say as much as you can of the material underneath the card. When you have said as much as you can, move the card and see if what you said matches what is written. If you can say it, you know it.

Advantages: Organized and systematic for recording and reviewing notes. Easy format for pulling out major concept and ideas. Simple and efficient. Saves time and effort. "Do-it-right-in-the-first-place system."

Disadvantages: None

When to Use: In any lecture situation.



The Outlining Method

Dash or indented outlining is usually best except for some science classes such as physics or math.

The information which is most general begins at the left with each more specific group of facts indented with spaces to the right.

The relationships between the different parts are carried out through indenting.

No numbers, letters, or Roman numerals are needed.

Method: Listening and then write in points in an organized pattern based on space indentation. Place major points farthest to the left. Indent each more specific point to the right. Levels of importance will be indicated by distance away from the major point. Indentation can be as simple as or as complex as labeling the indentions with Roman numerals or decimals. Markings are not necessary as space relationships will indicate the major/minor points.

Advantages: Well-organized system if done right. Outlining records content as well as relationships. It also reduces editing and is easy to review by turning main points into questions.

Disadvantages: Requires more thought in class for accurate organization. This system may not show relationships by sequence when needed. It doesn't lend to diversity of a review attach for maximum learning and question application. This system cannot be used if the lecture is too fast.

When to Use: The outline format can be used if the lecture is presented in outline organization. This may be either deductive (regular outline) or inductive (reverse outline where minor points start building to a major point). Use this format when there is enough time in the lecture to think about and make organization decisions when they are needed. This format can be most effective when your note-taking skills are super and sharp and you can handle the outlining regardless of the note-taking situation.

Body Language and Oral Presentations

Traditional Format

I. BODY LANGUAGE (conveys your state of mind)

A. Movement

1. Strive for natural movement.

2. Control distracting mannerisms. (pacing, pen-clicking).

3. Develop natural style

(a) Move forward to stress points.

(b) Step back and focus attention on screen.

4. Hold objects so audience can see them.

(Never pass them around)

5. Avoid excessive and uncontrolled movement.

B. Facial Expressions

1. Smile.

2. Appear relaxed and friendly.

C. Gestures

1. Use natural gestures to emphasize what you're saying.

2. Integrate and coordinate gestures with text.

3. Examples

(a) number of fingers = number discussed.

(b) sizes, shapes - tall, short

4. Use gestures to help pace yourself.

5. Use gestures based on audience size.

D. Posture

1. Practice good posture.

2. Don't prop up against wall or desk.

3. Don't sit unless it's part of presentation.

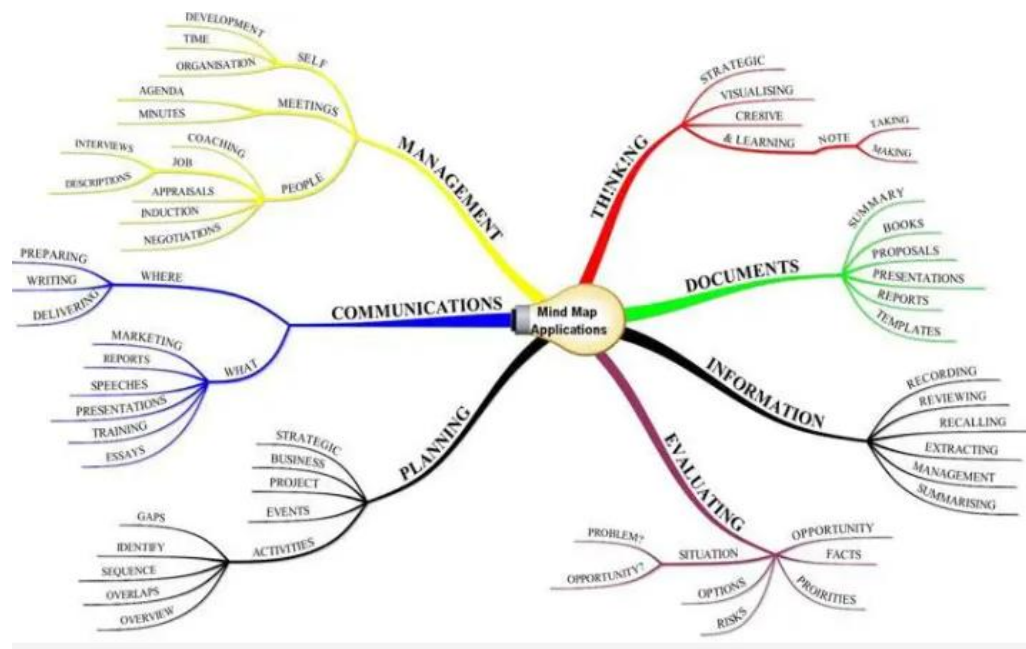
The Mapping Method

Mapping is a method that uses comprehension/concentration skills and evolves in a note-taking form which relates each fact or idea to every other fact or idea. Mapping is a graphic representation of the content of a lecture. It is a method that maximizes active participation, affords immediate knowledge as to its understanding, and emphasizes critical thinking.

Advantages: This format helps you to visually track your lecture regardless of conditions. Little thinking is needed and relationships can easily be seen. It is also easy to edit your notes by adding numbers, marks, and color coding. Review will call for you to restructure thought processes which will force you to check understanding. Review by covering lines for memory drill and relationships. Main points can be written on flash or note cards and pieced together into a table or larger structure at a later date.

Disadvantages: You may not hear changes in content from major points to facts.

When to Use: Use when the lecture content is heavy and well-organized. May also be used effectively when you have a guest lecturer and have no idea how the lecture is going to be presented.



The Charting Method

If the lecture format is distinct (such as chronological), you may set up your paper by drawing columns and labeling appropriate headings in a table.

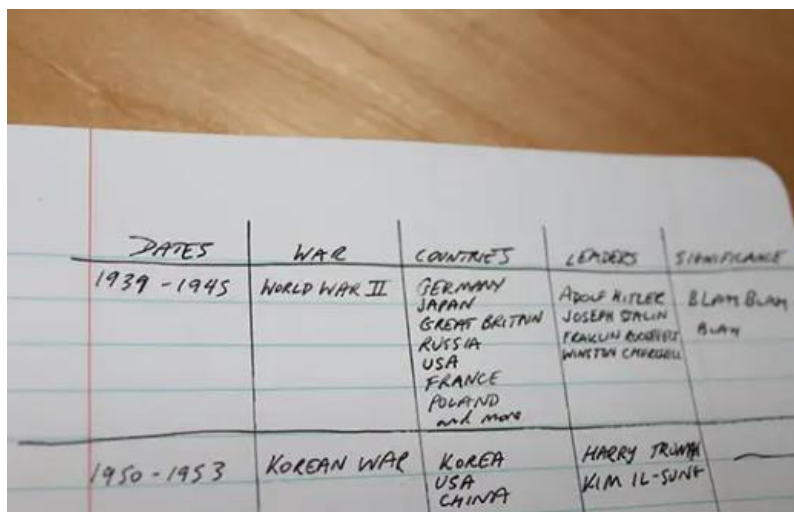
Method: Determine the categories to be covered in lecture. Set up your paper in advance by columns headed by these categories. As you listen to the lecture, record information (words, phrases, main ideas, etc.) into the appropriate category.

Advantages: Helps you track conversation and dialogues where you would normally be confused and lose out on relevant content. Reduces amount of writing

necessary. Provides easy review mechanism for both memorizations of facts and study of comparisons and relationships.

Disadvantages: Few disadvantages except learning how to use the system and locating the appropriate categories. You must be able to understand what's happening in the lecture.

When to Use: Test will focus on both facts and relationships. Contents is heavy and presented fast. You want to reduce the amount of time you spend editing and reviewing at test time. You want to get an overview of the whole course on one big paper sequence.



DATES	WAR	COUNTRIES	LEADERS	SIGNIFICANCE
1939 - 1945	WORLD WAR II	GERMANY JAPAN GREAT BRITAIN RUSSIA USA FRANCE POLAND and more	ADOLF HITLER JOSEPH STALIN FRANKLIN ROOSEVELT WINSTON CHURCHILL	BLAME BLAME BLAME
1950 - 1953	KOREAN WAR	KOREA USA CHINA	HARRY TRUMAN KIM IL-SUNG	

The Sentence Method

Method: Write every new thought, fact or topic on a separate line, numbering as you progress.

Advantages: Slightly more organized than the paragraph. Gets more or all of the information. Thinking to tract content is still limited.

Disadvantages: Can't determine major/minor points from the numbered sequence. Difficult to edit without having to rewrite by clustering points which are related. Difficult to review unless editing cleans up relationship.

When to Use: Use when the lecture is somewhat organized, but heavy with content which comes fast. You can hear the different points, but you don't know how they fit together. The instructor tends to present in point fashion, but not in grouping such as "three related points."

TECHNICAL WRITING

1. Curriculum Vitae (CV)

Your CV, short form curriculum vitae, is a personal marketing document used to notify yourself to prospective employers. It should tell them about you, your professional history and your skills, abilities and achievements. Ultimately, it should highlight why you're the best person for the job.

A CV is required when applying for a job. In addition to your CV, employers may also require a cover letter and a completed application form.

What to include in your CV in 2021?

While the structure of a CV is flexible, bending to your unique skill set and experiences, there are particular sections that employers expect to see on your CV regardless.

Here are the sections you must include in your CV:

Name, professional title and contact details

The first part of your CV, positioned at the top of the page, should contain your name, professional title and contact details. Under no circumstances should you title your CV with 'curriculum vitae' or 'CV' as it's a waste of valuable space. Treat your name as the title instead.

When it comes to your contact details, your email address and phone number(s) are essential. Once upon a time, it was customary to include your full address on your CV. Today, you simply need to list your town and county.

If you like, you can also include a link to your LinkedIn profile in this section – but only if it's up to date!

Example of how your name, professional title and contact details might look.

Forename Surname

Email: name@example.com

Location: Town, Country

Contact: 0123 456789

Personal profile/Objective

A personal profile, also known as a personal statement, career objective and professional profile, is one of the most important aspects of your CV. It's a short paragraph that sits just underneath your name and contact details giving prospective employers an overview of who you are and what you're all about.

Objective

It's a short paragraph that sits just underneath your name and contact details giving prospective employers an overview of who you are and what you're all about.

You should tailor your profile to every job you apply for, highlighting specific qualities that match you to the role. Aim to keep your personal statement short and sweet, and no longer than a few sentences. To make the most of this section, you should try to address the following:

Who are you?

What can you offer the company?

What are your career goals?

Education and qualifications

Like your experience section, your education should be listed in reverse chronological order. Include the name of the institutions and the dates you were there, followed by the qualifications and grades you achieved.

If you have recently left education, you may write your degree, A-levels or GCSEs (or equivalents)

Academic Qualification

Latest Degree

Institute name

Year/session e.g 2010-2015

Second Latest

Institute Name

So on....

Experience and employment history

Your employment history section gives you a chance to outline your previous jobs, internships and work experience.

List your experience in reverse chronological order as your recent role is the most relevant to the employer.

When listing each position of employment, state your job title, the employer, the dates you worked and a line that summarizes the role. Then bullet point your key responsibilities, skills and achievements, and strengthen each point with powerful verbs and figures to support each claim and showcase your impact.

It helps to choose the duties most relevant to the job you're applying for, especially if it's a long list. If you have many years' worth of experience, you can reduce the detail of old or irrelevant roles.

Work Experience

May, 2010 – Aug, 2014

Company Name, Location

ABC

Role Title

XYZ

Outline

Key responsibilities

Key achievements/projects

Internship

May, 2010 – Aug, 2014|

Company Name, Location

ABC

Role Title

XYZ

Outline

responsibilities

Professional Training

State any professional training

Additional sections

There is a range of additional sections that may strengthen your CV and highlight your skills. Here are just a few you can include if you have room:

Key skills: If you're writing a functional CV, or have some abilities you want to show off to the employer immediately, insert a key skills section underneath your personal profile. You should aim to detail four to five abilities at most.

Hobbies and interests: If you feel that your CV is lacking, you can boost your document by inserting a hobbies and interests section at the end. This can help to show how well you fit into the company or the industry. For example, if you're applying for an environmental job, why not include that you have a big interest in climate change activism?

Be careful though; avoid listing hobbies that don't add value to your CV or are run-of-the-mill, like reading. Draw on interests that make you stand out or are relevant to the job.

Skills & Abilities

Technical skills:

Social Skills:

Interests/ Hobbies

Mention Your Interests and Hobbies which add quality to your CV

Short Course/ Diplomas

Mention all short courses and Diplomas (virtual Or Not Virtual) in reverse chronological order

Memberships	Mention memberships and their designated roles if any.
--------------------	--

Reference	Available upon request
------------------	------------------------

Format for CV

Forename Surname

Email: name@example.com

Contact: 0123 456789

Location: Town, Country

Objective

It's a short paragraph that sits just underneath your name and contact details giving prospective employers an overview of who you are and what you're all about.

Academic Qualification

Latest Degree

Institute name

Year/session e.g 2010-2015

Second Latest

Institute Name

So on....

Work Experience

May, 2010 – Aug, 2014

Company Name, Location

ABC

Role Title

XYZ

Outline

Key responsibilities

Key achievements/projects

Internship	May, 2010 – Aug, 2014 Company Name, Location ABC Role Title XYZ Outline responsibilities
Professional Training	State any professional training
Skills & Abilities	Technical skills: Social Skills:
Interests/ Hobbies	Mention Your Interests and Hobbies which add quality to your CV
Short Course/ Diplomas	Mention all short courses and Diplomas (virtual Or Not Virtual) in reverse chronological order
Memberships	Mention memberships and their designated roles if any.

Reference	Available upon request

2. Letter Writing

Types of Letter

Formal letter

A formal letter is written using a formal language and a structured format to be used, this is usually used in workplaces, businesses, governments & authorities and much more.

Informal letter

An informal letter is used when we are writing to a friends, relatives etc. This type of letter also known as friendly letter is usually written for personal communications.

Semi-formal letter

A semi-formal letter is used addressing to a person you may know or have business relationship such as your assistant, advisor, teacher etc. It usually follows the same format as a formal letter.

Letter Samples

Business Letter

Nicole Thomas

35 Chestnut Street

Dell Village, Wisconsin 54101

555-555-5555

nicole@thomas.com

August 3, 2020

Jason Andrews

Manager

LMK Company

53 Oak Avenue, Ste 5

Dell Village, Wisconsin 54101

Dear Jason,

I'm writing to resign from my position as customer service representative, effective August 14, 2020.

I've recently decided to go back to school, and my program starts in early September. I'm tendering my resignation now so that I can be as helpful as possible to you during the transition.

I've truly enjoyed my time working with you and everyone else on our team at LMK. It's rare to find a customer service role that offers as much opportunity to grow and learn, as well as such a positive, inspiring team of people to grow and learn with.

I'm particularly grateful for your guidance while I was considering furthering my education. Your support has meant so much to me.

Please let me know if there's anything I can do to help you find and train my replacement.

Thanks, and best wishes,

Nicole Thomas (signature hard copy letter)

Nicole Thomas

Cover Letter

Forename Surname

example@gmail.com

0123 4567890

This is Forename Surname

According to my Academics experience (Mention your academic Details in reverse chronological Order)

As far as Professional endeavors are concern, I am working (Mention Work Experience in Detail in reverse chronological order, which is suitable for the specific vacant post)

When it comes to skills and (Mention skills and abilities set up to mark to the post)

In terms of discipline, punctuality, dedication, hard work and commitment organization will find me on my toes. I look forward to elaborating on how my specific skills and abilities will benefit an Organization.

Thank You! Looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Date:

Informal Letter

Sector 17
Vashi
New Bombay

6th July, 2013

Dear Maya

Thank you very much for your last letter. It was great to hear from you after so many months. You seem to be having a nice time in France.

Thanks also for the photographs. I absolutely loved that snap of yours standing in front of the Eiffel Tower. France looks stunning. Someday, I would definitely like to go there.

There's not much happening here. I am busy with my work and kids.

By the way, are you coming home anytime soon? If you are, let me know the dates and we can arrange to meet up.

Hope to see you soon!

Aditi

3. Memo Writing

Memo writing is something of an art form. A letter is not a memo, nor is a memo a letter. A memo is a short, to the point communication conveying your thoughts, reactions or opinion on something. A memo can call people to action or broadcast a bit of timely news. With memo writing, shorter is better.

As with all writing, memo writing needs a structure. Because they are short, rambling meanderings will soon destroy the memo's effectiveness and become a waste of productive time to those that read it and to the person who wrote it.

If you have something longer than a page, it's better to send it as an attachment or a document that follows the memo used as a cover letter. Never make a memo too long. If someone takes a glance at a memo that appears to be too long, there's a good chance it will be set aside for a time when they aren't busy. This can defeat your memo's purpose which is timely communication.

Types of memos

There are a few main types of memos you can write depending on your needs and the content of your message. Below are some of the most common types of memos.

Report memo: Typically sent to give an update or progress report.

Request memo: Submitted as a request to a certain person or team. Persuasive language works well in request memos.

Confirmation memo: Written to confirm an agreement made between two parties.

Suggestive memo: Usually sent by management requesting input from employees on how to solve a certain problem.

How to write a memo?

While each memo should be written to address its unique needs, there are a few steps you can follow to create a clear, highly readable document. Like many other professional business documents, memos will include an introduction, body and conclusion.

Start with a header that clearly indicates that the communication is a memorandum, the intended recipients, the sender, the date and the subject.

Write an introduction that uses a declarative sentence to announce the main topic of the memo.

Include a body paragraph with discussion points that elaborate or list the main ideas associated with the memo's topic. To make your memo easier to read, write in short paragraphs and break the information into smaller, more manageable chunks.

Since the recipients will likely be scanning the memo, you should also use subheadings and bulleted lists when possible.

Conclude your memo with any remaining information following the body paragraph. This is a summary of the memo and should clearly inform the reader of any actions required.

Close with your name, email address and phone number in case anyone needs to contact you.

Basic Formats

Memos can be approached in different ways depending on your purpose:

Decide if it's to be persuasive or informative: While many memos are a combination of the two ("In order to process your claim promptly, please submit it no later than January 15."), sometimes memos have to be one or the other for the reader to take the appropriate action. A persuasive memo engages the reader's interest before issuing a directive, where as an informative memo outlines the facts and then requests the reader's actions.

Clearly state the purpose of communication in the subject line. Most memo formats have the basics of the header, like "to," "from" and "date" in place. But you have a responsibility to make the subject line as descriptive as possible so the reader understands the intent. A memo simply titled "Vacation Time" might appear to be good news – until the document explains that vacation time won't be granted unless first requested in writing. Thus, a better memo title might be "New Vacation Time Request Policy".

Write memos with purpose and make that purpose known in the first paragraph. Needless memo writing should be a crime across all states. One way to make sure no one reads or heeds memos is to send them out for the slightest issue. Try to avoid doing this. Also, outline the purpose and the desired action in the memo's first paragraph. Readers will become conditioned to the importance of a memo and gain that knowledge as soon as they open it.

Keep It Simple: Most memo formats accommodate one page of information. This means that the topic details should be concise, with clear directives and contacts for follow-up. If it's a complex topic extending into multiple pages, still keep the language as direct as possible, add headings or bullets to guide the reader and conclude with a summary paragraph of key points.

Reinforce the reader's necessary action. At the end of the memo, specifically direct the reader to the desired action.

Effective business communication improves workflow and relationships. Use the tools of memo formats and well-constructed information to your advantage.

Template for Memorandum

To: Names of intended recipients

From: Your Name, Title

Date: Month Day, Year

Subject: Subject of the memo

Begin the memo with a sentence that describes the reason you are writing. It should be very short—about one or two sentences in length. The introduction should clearly state the purpose of the memo so the reader immediately understands what it is about. If the memo is meant to respond or follow up on a certain topic or situation, include that in the first paragraph.

Bullet point to list important information.

Bullet point to list important information.

Bullet point to list important information.

Use the last few sentences to conclude your memo. Make sure you include a request for any action you need people to take after reading your memo.

Thank you,

[Your name]

[Your email address]

[Your phone number]

Attachment: Attachment of image, graph or chart that your intended recipients might need.

Sample Memorandum

Memorandum

DATE: March 18, 2013
TO: Department Managers
FROM: Safiyya Dev, Store Manager
SUBJECT: Customer Service Excellence Nominations

Please submit your nominations for the quarterly Customer Service Excellence Award by April 8. Help us identify great employees!

Direct and concise opening states the purpose of the memo.

Do you have an employee whom you feel fortunate to have in your department? Does this employee show a positive and professional attitude when helping customers? Do you get frequent comments about this person's friendliness and helpfulness? Now, you have an opportunity to give this employee the recognition he or she deserves!

According to nominating criteria, nominees must . . .

Body paragraphs provide criteria that will enable the department managers to follow through on the request.

- demonstrate excellent customer service consistent with Variety Craft Supplies' policies;
- have worked at Variety Craft Supplies for at least six months;
- work 20 or more hours per week;
- not have received the Customer Service Excellence Award within the last year;
- have a record clear of oral and written warnings for the last six months; and
- have no work absences within the last six months.

The winner of the award will receive a framed certificate and a \$100 check.

A nominating form is attached. Please complete and return it to me by Monday, April 8. Thank you for your help in identifying and rewarding excellent customer service representatives.

Conclusion provides action information, deadline, and a courteous close.

4. Minutes of Meeting

Meeting minutes are a written record of the conversation and decisions that are made over the course of a meeting. Meeting minutes are applicable to any kind of group within a company, including a board meeting, where the parties involved include boards of directors.

This type of meeting notes can actually be written for any kind of meeting that requires an official record. This written record can then be used to either inform team members who weren't able to attend what happened or to keep track of decisions and action items that can be revisited. Minutes from previous meetings can therefore be used in order to make future organizational decisions.

purpose of meeting minutes

So what's all the hype around meeting minutes? To start, they provide a historical record of the company's short and long-term planning. Participants have the ability to use the meeting minutes as a record for future reference, to understand what kinds of progression has taken place.

Minutes also provide legal protection for the organization. Many times, due diligence is captured in companies' meeting minutes, which can then be officiated and documented to confirm the ethical, fair practices of the organization. Meeting notes also serve as proof of why and how a company came to certain decisions. This is going to be helpful in answering any questions that arise in reference to decisions that have been made.

Importance of meeting minutes:

They are a record of a group's decisions and actions

They are a reminder of who was given assignments

They are evidence of deadlines

They are a benefit for people who are absent when decisions are made.

Effective meeting minutes

1. Meeting name and place

2. Date and time of the meeting

3. List of meeting participants

4. Purpose of the meeting

5. For each agenda items: decisions, action items, and next steps

Next meeting date and place

6. Documents to be included in the meeting report

Formal Meeting Minutes:

Formal meeting minutes are used to document big or official decisions that often require approval. These meeting minutes use formal language and are structured with the purpose of being shared with all of the meeting participants afterwards.

Formal meeting minutes are commonly used by nonprofits, government, schools, and public companies. In fact, most trade unions, schools, city and county governments model their meeting minutes.

If you're writing minutes for a formal meeting, it's important to document as much information as possible, and keep the meeting format consistent from meeting to meeting.

It's smart to use a meeting template for more formal conversations to give them the structure that you're looking for. Organization of notes is key, since you'll be sharing the notes with everyone afterwards.

Template Formal Meeting Minutes

Formal Meeting Minutes

Company + Department Name

Date

1. Call to order

[Meeting facilitator] called to order the regular meeting of [Organization] at [time] on [date] in [location].

2. Roll call

[Secretary] conducted a roll call. The following persons were present:

[List of attendees]

3. Approval of minutes from last meeting

[Secretary] read the minutes from the last meeting. The minutes were approved.

4. Open issues

Open issue 1 + Summary of discussion

Open issue 2 + Summary of discussion

5. New business

New business + Summary of discussion

New business + Summary of discussion

6. Adjournment

[Meeting facilitator] adjourned the meeting at [time meeting ended].

Minutes submitted by: [Name]

Minutes approved by: [Name]

Informal Meeting Minutes

Informal meeting minutes serve as a quick reference to important topics that have been covered in your meeting such as goals, obstacles, deadlines or ideas that have surfaced.

If your organization doesn't require you to use a specific meeting minutes' template, you can use and customized a simpler template. Contrary to a formal meeting minutes' template, no one needs to have approved the minutes for this type of meeting and they serve to only document the key points and next steps.

Informal Meeting Minutes Template

Meeting attendees

Date

1. Meeting objective

State the purpose of your meeting: what are you planning to accomplish?

2. Talking points

New talking point

New talking point

3. Action items

New action item, due date, and assignee

New action item, due date, and assignee

5. Report Writing

Report writing is a formal style of writing elaborately on a topic. The tone of a report is always formal. The important section to focus on is the target audience. For example, report writing about a school event, report writing about a business case, report writing for Research etc.

All your facts and information presented in the report not only have to be bias-free, but they also have to be 100% correct. Proof-reading and fact-checking is always what you do as a thumb rule before submitting a report.

Essentially, a report is a short, sharp, concise document which is written for a particular purpose and audience. It generally sets out and analyses a situation or problem, often making recommendations for future action. It is a factual paper, and needs to be clear and well-structured.

Requirements for the precise form and content of a report will vary between organization and departments and in study between courses, from tutor to tutor, as well as between subjects, so it's worth finding out if there are any specific guidelines before you start.

Reports are written with much analysis. The purpose of report writing is essential to inform the reader about a topic, minus one's opinion on the topic. It's simply a portrayal of facts, as it is. Even if one gives inferences, solid analysis, charts, tables and data is provided. Mostly it is specified by the person who's asked for the report whether they would like your take or not if that is the case.

In many cases, what's required is your suggestions for a specific case after a factual report. That depends on why are you writing the report and who you are writing it for in the first place. Knowing your audience's motive for asking for that report is very important as it sets the course of the facts focused on your report.

Elements of Report Writing

- A description of a sequence of events or a situation:
- Some interpretation of the significance of these events or situation, whether solely your own analysis or informed by the views of others, always carefully referenced of course (see our page on Academic Referencing for more information);
- An evaluation of the facts or the results of your research;
- Discussion of the likely outcomes of future courses of action;
- Your recommendations as to a course of action; and

- Conclusions.

Not all of these elements will be essential in every report.

Steps for Report Writing

The structure of a report is very important to lead the reader through your thinking to a course of action and/or decision. It's worth taking a bit of time to plan it out beforehand.

Step 1: Know your brief

You will usually receive a clear brief for a report, including what you are studying and for whom the report should be prepared.

First of all, consider your brief very carefully and make sure that you are clear who the report is for (if you're a student then not just your tutor, but who it is supposed to be written for), and why you are writing it, as well as what you want the reader to do at the end of reading: make a decision or agree a recommendation, perhaps.

Step 2: Keep your brief in mind at all times

During your planning and writing, make sure that you keep your brief in mind: who are you writing for, and why are you writing?

All your thinking needs to be focused on that, which may require you to be ruthless in your reading and thinking. Anything irrelevant should be discarded.

As you read and research, try to organize your work into sections by theme, a bit like writing a Literature Review.

Make sure that you keep track of your references, especially for academic work. Although referencing is perhaps less important in the workplace, it's also important that you can substantiate any assertions that you make so it's helpful to keep track of your sources of information.

The Structure of a Report

However, as a rough guide, you should plan to include at the very least an executive summary, introduction, the main body of your report, and a section containing your conclusions and any recommendations.

Executive Summary/ Abstract

The executive summary or abstract, for a scientific report, is a brief summary of the contents. It's worth writing this last, when you know the key points to draw out. It should be no more than half a page to a page in length.

Remember the executive summary is designed to give busy 'executives' a quick summary of the contents of the report.

Introduction

The introduction sets out what you plan to say and provides a brief summary of the problem under discussion. It should also touch briefly on your conclusions.

Report Main Body

The main body of the report should be carefully structured in a way that leads the reader through the issue.

You should split it into sections using numbered sub-headings relating to themes or areas for consideration. For each theme, you should aim to set out clearly and concisely the main issue under discussion and any areas of difficulty or disagreement. It may also include experimental results. All the information that you present should be related back to the brief and the precise subject under discussion.

If it's not relevant, leave it out.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The conclusion sets out what inferences you draw from the information, including any experimental results. It may include recommendations, or these may be included in a separate section.

Recommendations suggest how you think the situation could be improved, and should be specific, achievable and measurable. If your recommendations have financial implications, you should set these out clearly, with estimated costs if possible.

Writing Style

When writing a report, your aim should be to be absolutely clear. Above all, it should be easy to read and understand, even to someone with little knowledge of the subject area.

You should therefore aim for crisp, precise text, using plain English, and shorter words rather than longer, with short sentences.

You should also avoid jargon. If you have to use specialist language, you should explain each word as you use it. If you find that you've had to explain more than about five words, you're probably using too much jargon, and need to replace some of it with simpler words.

Consider your audience. If the report is designed to be written for a particular person, check whether you should be writing it to 'you' or perhaps in the third person to a job role: 'The Chief Executive may like to consider...', or 'The minister is recommended to agree...'

Warning

As with any academic assignment or formal piece of writing, your work will benefit from being read over again and edited ruthlessly for sense and style.

Pay particular attention to whether all the information that you have included is relevant. Also remember to check tenses, which person you have written in, grammar and spelling. It's also worth one last check against any requirements on structure.

For an academic assignment, make sure that you have referenced fully and correctly. As always, check that you have not inadvertently or deliberately plagiarized or copied anything without acknowledging it.

Types of Report

1. Research Report

A. Preliminary Section

1. Title Page
2. Acknowledgments (if any)
3. Table of Contents
4. List of Tables (if any)
5. List of Figures (if any)
6. Abstract

B. Main Body

1. Introduction
 - a. Statement of the Problem
 - b. Significance of the Problem (and historical background)
 - c. Purpose
 - d. Statement of Hypothesis
 - e. Assumptions
 - f. Limitations
 - g. Definition of Terms
 - h. Ethical Considerations
 - i. Budget (proposal only)
 - j. Proposed Timeline (proposal only)

2. Review of Related Literature (and analysis of previous research)

3. Design of the Study

- a. Description of Research Design and Procedures Used
- b. Sources of Data
- c. Sampling Procedures
- d. Methods and Instruments of Data Gathering
- e. Statistical Treatment

4. Analysis of Data

- a. text with appropriate
- b. tables and
- c. figures

5. Summary and Conclusions

- a. Restatement of the Problem
- b. Description of Procedures
- c. Major Findings (reject or fail to reject H_0)
- d. Conclusions
- e. Recommendations for Further Investigation

C. Reference Section

1. End Notes (if in that format of citation)

2. Bibliography or Literature Cited

3. Appendix

Template for Research Report

Title: Be specific. Tell what, when, where, etc. In one main title and a subtitle, give a clear idea of what the paper investigated.

Acknowledgment: Include only if special help was received from an individual or group.

Abstract: Summarizes the report including the hypotheses, procedures, and major findings.

Introduction: Sections may be combined in short reports.

Statement of the Problem: This is a general introduction to the topic.

Significance of the Problem: Comment on why this question merits investigation.

Purpose: What is the goal to be gained from a better understanding of this question?

Statement of the Hypothesis: In one statement (not a question) declare the question which is investigated and the expected results. (For a null hypothesis, no difference is predicted.)

Assumptions: Explain everything that is assumed in order for the investigation to be undertaken.

Limitations: Explain the limitations that may invalidate the study or make it less than accurate.

Definition of Terms: Define or clarify any term or concept that is used in the study in a non-traditional manner or in only one of many interpretations.

Ethical Considerations: Discusses the ethical issues related to the study and explains the processes and status of the review by the Institutional Review Board.

Review of Related Literature: Gives the reader the necessary background to understand the study by citing the investigations and findings of previous researchers and documents the researcher's knowledge and preparation to investigate the problem.

Design of the Study: Gives the reader the information necessary to exactly replicate (repeat) the study with new data or if the same raw data were available, the reader should be able to duplicate the results. This is written in past tense but without reference to or inclusion of the results determined from the analysis.

Description of the Research Design and Procedures Used: Completely explain step-by-step what was done.

Sources of Data: Give complete information about who, what, when, where, and how the data were collected.

Sampling Procedures: Explain how the data were limited to the amount which was gathered. If all of the available data were not utilized, how was a representative sample achieved?

Methods and Instruments of Data Gathering: Explain the procedures for obtaining the data collected. Include the forms or manner by which it was recorded.

Statistical Treatment: Explain the complete mathematical procedures used in analyzing the data and determining the significance of the results.

Analysis of Data: Describe the patterns observed in the data. Use tables and figures to help clarify the material when possible.

Summary and Conclusions: This section condenses the previous sections, succinctly presents the results concerning the hypotheses, and suggests what else can be done.

Restatement of the Problem: This is a short reiteration of the problem.

Description of the Procedures: This is a brief reiteration of important elements of the design of the study.

Major Findings: The final results from the analysis are presented, the hypothesis stated, and the decision about the rejection or the failure to reject the hypothesis is given.

Conclusions: Comments about the implication of the findings are presented.

Recommendations for Further Investigation: From the knowledge and experienced gained in undertaking this particular study, how might the study have been improved or what other possible hypotheses might be investigated?

End Notes: These are like footnotes but are located at the back rather than the bottom of each page. These would include all of the references for all works cited in the Review of Related Literature or any other sections of the report as well as the references for quotations, either direct or indirect, taken from other sources, or any footnote comments that might have been included. These are listed in numeric order as presented in the text.

Bibliography or Literature Cited: These are the bibliographic reference for each of the works cited in the End Notes.

Appendix: Any tables, figures, forms, or other materials that are not totally central to the analysis but that need to be included are placed in the Appendix.

2. Annual Reports

This type of report we'll cover is an annual report. This will typically round up a business's year of progress and performance to let supervisors and team members know how the company did.

1. Work out your timetable

It's a basic point but you need to give yourself enough time to get the report written and published. Don't underestimate this.

Writing an annual report can easily take eight weeks or more, bearing in mind that you need to gather the information, produce a draft, get it reviewed (often several times), then signed off by management and (probably) the board. Then you'll need to allow time for art working, proofreading, printing and mailing.

If there isn't a fixed date, then set yourself a realistic point when you want it done. Give yourself enough time but don't let it drag or it'll become a burden and your corporate memory of the year will fade.

2. Start to think about the content

Good planning is essential if you're going to make the writing stage as painless as possible. Think about what you want to say before you start writing. There are three main aspects to this

what you want to say

what you have to say, and

what others in your industry are saying?

a) What you want to say: meeting your audience's needs

All good business writing is created with the needs of its audience in mind. Annual reports are no exception.

If you're not bound by the regulations, then you might have a different audience in mind – your customers or business partners, for example.

Whoever you're writing for, you need to understand what they want from you. Put yourself in their shoes. If you were looking to invest in a company, what would you want to know about it?

b) What you have to say: understanding the regulatory requirements. Good reports reflect your desire to communicate effectively but you can't ignore the reporting rules

c) What others are saying: peers and best practice

Have a look at what your competitors are saying in their reports. You can draw inspiration from the things they do well and find opportunities to stand out. If your peers aren't clearly articulating their strategies, for example, you can seize the high ground with a compelling explanation of what you're looking to achieve.

The point of these exercises is not to slavishly copy other reports. Find what you can use and tailor it to your situation.

3. Determine your key messages

It's highly likely that your senior management will have key points they want your audience to understand about the business, its strategy, its performance and its prospects. For example, was it a good year or merely an average one? Do you want to be cautious or optimistic about the future? What do you want to say about the level of competition? Your success with new products? Your sustainability strategy?

Every company will have its own set of hot topics. Understanding yours at the outset will save you a lot of pain and rewriting later on.

4. Agree your writing style

If you're lucky, your organization will already have a clearly defined tone of voice. If not, you'll need to decide how you want to present your organization in writing. This needs to reflect your brand and culture, so don't fall into the trap of thinking that a formal document like the annual report has to have a formal writing style. If your organization prides itself on being straightforward and easy to deal with, then a simple conversational style may fit best.

Whatever route you go down, get your senior management to agree to it before you start. If necessary, write an example paragraph or two in a number of different ways, so they can get a good feel for what you mean. Otherwise you may have to rewrite your report when they recoil at the way you've done it.

5. Decide on your structure

The work you've done under point 2 should have given you clear thoughts about structuring your report. If you're a UK-listed company, you're going to have:

A strategic report, a corporate governance section, including the directors' report, the corporate governance report and the remuneration report, and the financial statements.

The strategic report, though, has much more flexibility. There's no definitively 'correct' way of structuring a strategic report and the FRC has deliberately avoided giving an example, because it wants companies to have the freedom to tell their story. However, most good strategic reports include the following:

Strategic report

Business overview

Markets

Business model

Strategy

Highlights of the year

Chairman's statement

Chief executive's statement

Key performance indicators

Principal risks and uncertainties

Operating review

Financial review

Sustainability

Optional – case studies to illustrate particular products or a theme, such as the importance of your people

Thought

The thought you put in now will save you time and against later.

6. Work out the likely content for each page

You've thought about who you're writing for and worked out your structure. Now you can rough out the main areas of content for each section. So in the markets section, for example, you might cover:

Who your customers are

The size of the market and its growth rate

What's driving your market (for example, social trends, new product development, regulation)

The international spread of your market

Who your competitors are and whether competition is increasing or decreasing

Once you've roughed out the content for each section, you'll be in a much better position to efficiently gather the information you'll need to write it. This process also allows your design agency to start thinking about page designs and word counts, which are key for when you start to write.

7. Work out who your contributors will be

In other words, who in your company has the information you need to create the content? This is likely to include your:

Chairman

Chief executive

Finance director

Divisional / operational heads

Company secretary

HR director

Head of sustainability

You may also need to talk to procurement and customer service.

Make sure all your contributors are aware that you need their input and that they'll have to review drafts and sign off the content.

8. Decide how you're going to get the information you need

Your contributors have the information. You need to get it out of them. To do this, you can:

Interview them

Don't wing it. Prepare your questions in advance, making sure they cover all the areas on which you need input. It can be helpful to send the questions to your interviewees, so they can prepare.

Get long enough appointments to go through every question. Record your interviews, so you can listen back later and be absolutely clear on what you were told. Unless you can do shorthand, it's almost impossible to write everything down when someone is talking at normal speed.

Make sure your interviewees give you a considered answer to every question. Don't be afraid to ask them to clarify their points or to go into more detail. If they give you too much information, repeat the key points you've taken from what they've said, and ask them to confirm that it's right.

Send them questionnaires to complete

Instead of interviewing your contributors, you can ask them to give you written answers to your questions. This can work well but you'll often get variable amounts and quality of information. Some will supply too much, while others give you almost nothing. Often you'll need a follow-up call or meeting.

Ask them to draft their sections

This can save you a lot of time. Ask your contributors to give you the content directly, either as fully formed copy or as bullet points you can work into proper text. If you want them to write copy, you'll need to give them careful guidance on content and style.

This approach is often effective but it can be very difficult for a first report, when your contributors will be less clear of what's expected. It can also be hard to conform all the styles afterwards, so you end up with report that looks like it's been written by a committee.

9. Start writing

If your contributors aren't writing their own sections, it's time for you to get started.

There's no right or wrong way to do this. Sometimes it helps to begin at the first page and work through the sections consecutively. Other times, it feels right to tackle the key sections – the ones you suspect are going to be hardest to get right or which there's likely to be most debate about. Or you might want to start with the easiest bits, so you feel you're making progress. That can give you a confidence boost.

For each section, take your outline content from step 6 and use it to write subheadings. These are really useful for:

- (a) setting out your main messages, so the reader can get the gist of the content without reading all of it, and
- (b) breaking the text up visually, so it's easier and more inviting to read.

Taking our hypothetical example of the markets section, your headings might be:

A £10 billion market

New products are increasing demand

Competition is strong but steady

New markets are opening up

Then use the information you got from your contributors to fill in the content under each heading. You can start by jotting notes, until you've got your argument straight.

As you're doing this, test the content against the following criteria:

Does my audience want to know this?

Is it material to their understanding of the subject?

Is it consistent with our key messages?

Is it consistent with what we're saying elsewhere in the report?

Do I need to cross reference this to somewhere else in the report, where there's more information?

Then check through your interview notes or questionnaires, to make sure you haven't missed anything vital. It's likely you'll have been given more information than you can actually use and it's easy to lose important nuggets within that wealth of detail.

Once you're happy you've got the right content, turn it into proper sentences and paragraphs. This is the easy bit. Do your best to stick to the word count, accepting that it will need editing later anyway.

10. Read through your draft

Think about the following questions:

Does this report tell a consistent story throughout?

Is there unnecessary repetition?

Can I cut any of this without losing information my readers will want?

Is the style consistent?

Does this meet regulatory requirements?

Have I drawn out the connections between the different sections?

Amend your draft as necessary.

11. Send your material out for review

Some people will need to see the full report but others might just get the sections they've contributed to. Ask for specific feedback that you can use to correct the text. You may want to ask them to focus on:

Factual errors

Materiality, whether you've given a subject too much or too little coverage, relative to its importance

Understandability, whether the content makes sense

Repetition, whether you've covered the same thing in too many places

Fairness and balance, whether you've been too positive or negative

Set deadlines for when you need feedback. Give your contributors enough time but chase everyone who's late. Delays getting feedback can kill your timetable.

12. Incorporate feedback

Make sure the style is consistent and that any new material doesn't contradict what is already there.

13. Reissue and seek further feedback

If things are going well, this should just be fine tuning. If not, take a triage approach. Focus on the key things that aren't working and make sure you fix them first. You can't leave your strategy description to the night before your deadline. Worry about the small stuff later.

14. Ask your contributors to sign off the content

Get them to do it in writing. If that means a signature on a printed copy, so be it. At the very least get an email confirmation that they're happy with it.

Doing this will:

- (a) focus their minds on whether you're really saying the right things, and
- (b) give you peace of mind that your content is properly approved.

15. Provide the final copy to your design agency

You're nearly there. Once you have the typeset copy, check it thoroughly – everything from image captions to content pages need to be right.

Don't try to do the final proofread yourself, though. When you've worked with the copy, you start to see what you think is there, not what actually is. Find a couple of

smart and conscientious people in your organization to proof it, or employ a professional – you’ll be glad you did.

16. Capture the lessons for next time

Once the dust has settled, sit down with your key contributors and your design agency. Figure out what parts of the process worked well and where you can improve next time. There’s no perfect process but you can always make life easier for yourself, so don’t miss the opportunity.

Template for Annual Report:



3. Project Report

Decide the Objective

Take some time to think about the purpose of the report. Do you need to describe, explain, recommend, or persuade? Having a clear purpose from the outset ensures that you stay focused, which makes it easier to engage your reader.

Understand Your Audience

Writing a formal annual report for your stakeholders is very different from a financial review. Tailor your language, use of data, and supporting graphics to the audience.

It is also useful to consider the personal communication style of the reader, for example, how do they write emails or structure documents? Reflect their preferences where possible. You may need to develop a more formal or informal tone to your own natural style.

Adopting this technique will build rapport and make the reader more receptive to your ideas

Report Format and Type

Before you start, check the report format and type. Do you need to submit a written report or deliver a presentation? Do you need to craft a formal, informal, financial, annual, technical, fact-finding, or problem-solving report?

You should also confirm if any templates are available within the organization.

Checking these details can save time later on!

Gather the Facts and Data

Including engaging facts and data will solidify your argument. Start with your collaborative project site and work out as needed. Remember to cite sources such as articles, case studies, and interviews.

Structure the Report

A report typically has four elements:

Executive Summary. Your report will begin with the summary, which is written once the report is finished. As the first item the reader encounters, this is the most important section of the document. They will likely use the summary to decide how much of the report they need to read so make it count!

Introduction: Provide a context for the report and outline the structure of the contents. Identify the scope of the report and any particular methodologies used

Body: It's now time to put your writing skills to work! This is the longest section of the report and should present background details, analysis, discussions, and recommendations for consideration. Draw upon data and supporting graphics to support your position

Conclusion: Bring together the various elements of the report in a clear and concise manner. Identify the next steps and any actions that your reader needs to take.

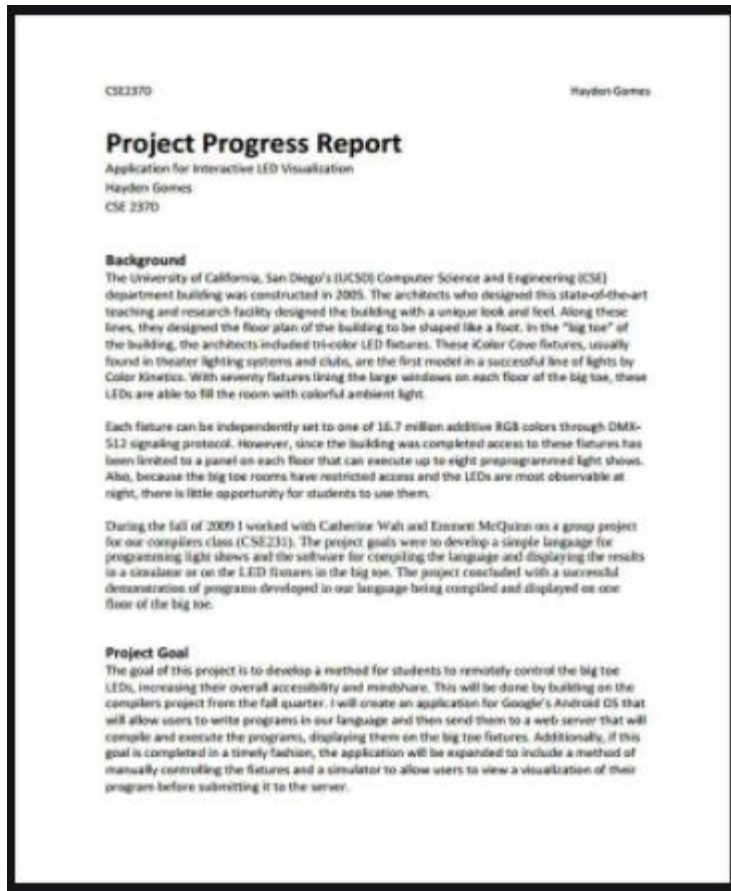
Readability

Spend some time making the report accessible and enjoyable to read. If working in Word, the Navigation pane is a great way to help your reader work through the document. Use formatting, visuals, and lists to break up long sections of text.

Edit

The first draft of the report is rarely perfect so you will need to edit and revise the content. If possible, set the document aside for a few days before reviewing or ask a colleague to review.

Project Report Template



Long Report and Short Reports:

These kinds of reports are quite clear, as the name suggests. A two-page report or sometimes referred to as a memorandum is short, and a thirty-page report is absolutely long. But what makes a clear division of short reports or long reports? Well, usually, notice that longer reports are generally written in a formal manner.

Internal and External Reports:

As the name suggests, an internal report stays within a certain organization or group of people. In the case of office settings, internal reports are for within the organization.

We prepare external reports, such as a news report in the newspaper about an incident or the annual reports of companies for distribution outside the organization. We call these as public reports.

Vertical and Lateral Reports:

This is about the hierarchy of the reports' ultimate target. If the report is for your management or for your mentees, it's a vertical report. Wherever a direction of upwards or downwards comes into motion, we call it a vertical report.

Lateral reports, on the other hand, assist in coordination in the organization. A report traveling between units of the same organization level (for example, a report among the administration and finance departments) is lateral.

Periodic Reports:

Periodic reports are sent out on regularly pre-scheduled dates. In most cases, their direction is upward and serves as management control. Some, like annual reports, is not vertical but is a Government mandate to be periodic in nature.

That is why we have annual or quarterly or half-yearly reports. If they are this frequent, it only makes sense to pre-set the structure of these reports and just fill in the data every period. That's exactly what happens in most cases too.

Furthermore,

Formal and Informal Reports:

Formal reports are meticulously structured. They focus on objectivity and organization, contain deeper detail, and the writer must write them in a style that eliminates factors like personal pronouns.

Informal reports are usually short messages with free-flowing, casual use of language. We generally describe the internal report/memorandum as an informal report. For example, a report among your peers, or a report for your small group or team, etc.

Informational and Analytical Reports:

Informational reports (attendance reports, annual budget reports, monthly financial reports, and such) carry objective information from one area of an organization to maybe a larger system.

Analytical reports (scientific research, feasibility reports, and employee appraisals) show attempts to solve actual problems. These analytical reports usually require suggestions at the end.

Proposal Reports:

These kinds of reports are like an extension to the analytical/problem-solving reports. A proposal is a document one prepares to describe how one organization can provide a solution to a problem they are facing.

There's usually always a need to prepare a report in a business set-up. The end goal is usually very solution-oriented. We call such kinds of reports as proposal reports.

Functional Reports:

These kinds of reports include marketing reports, financial reports, accounting reports, and a spectrum of other reports that provide a function specifically. By and large, we can include almost all reports in most of these categories. Furthermore, we can include a single report in several kinds of reports.

News Report:

Most newspaper articles break down into two categories:

- News articles
- Feature articles

You will also find opinion pieces, like editorials and book and movie reviews. But this lesson deals strictly with news and feature articles.

Here's how you can tell the difference between a news story and a feature story.

- **News articles** cover the basics of current events. They answer the questions: who, what, where, how, and when?
- **Feature articles** are longer and more in depth than regular news articles. They cover one subject from multiple angles and are written in a more creative, entertaining format. Although a news story can be creative and entertaining, too. Check out the examples below.

It is important to remember that both news and features demand the same level of research and reporting.

The Basic Story Outline

The best way to structure a newspaper article is to first write an outline. Review your research and notes. Then jot down ideas for the following six sections. Remember, this is just a foundation upon which to build your story.

Lead sentence

Grab and hook your reader right away.

Introduction

Which facts and figures will ground your story? You have to tell your readers where and when this story is happening.

Opening quotation

What will give the reader a sense of the people involved and what they are thinking?

Main body

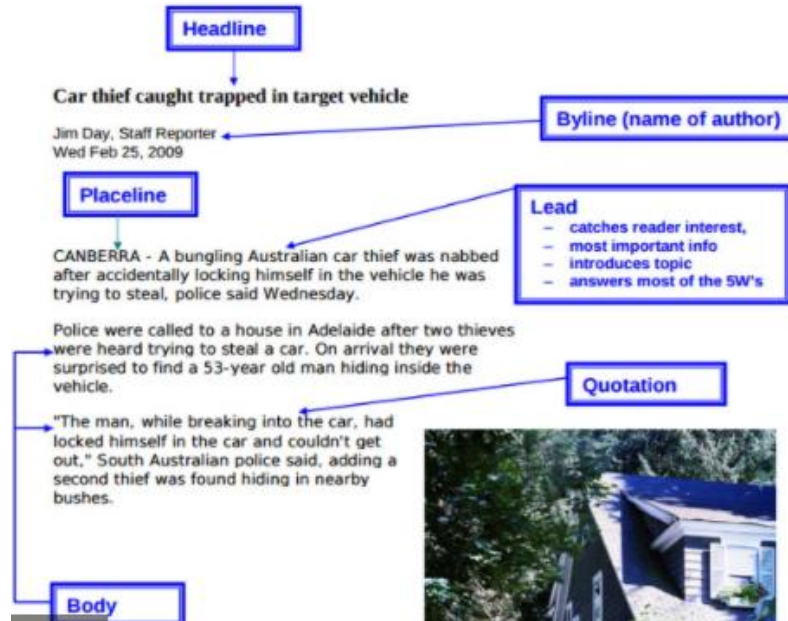
What is at the heart of your story?

Closing quotation

Find something that sums the article up in a few words.

Conclusion (optional—the closing quote may do the job)

What is a memorable way to end your story? The end quote is a good way to sum things up. That doesn't always work. If you are quoting more than one person with different points of view in your story, you cannot end with a quote from just one of them. Giving one of your interviewees the last word can tilt the story in their favor. In this age of the Internet, you can also send your story with a link to more information or even your own behind-the-scenes blog post.



The End