



**The Impact of English Punctuation
Marks on Meaning with Reference to
Seventh Semester Students at the
English Department**

**By:
Khuluod Mohammed Libadi.**

**Supervised by:
Dr. Nuwara Mohammed Imssalem**

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University of Benghazi

Faculty of Arts



Department of English

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By

Khuluod Mohammed alobidi

This Thesis was Successfully Defended and Approved on **30.1.2019**

Supervisor

Dr. Nuwara Mohammed Imssalem .

Signature: 

Dr. Naji Mahmoud El-Hemmi. (**Internal examiner**)

Signature: 

Dr. Fadil Suliman Almenfi (**External examiner**)

Signature: 

(Dean of Faculty)

Abdulkareem Jwili Abdulalli

(Director of Graduate studies and training)

Mohammed Saleh Buamoud

‘Dedication

I would like to dedicate this work to my
beloved grandmother’s soul

“Dewan Moussa Issa”

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Khuluod Mohammed Libadi.
Supervised by:
Dr. Nuwara Imssalem

Abstract

This study attempts to comprehend students' knowledge of punctuation marks usage and implementation such as the comma, the question mark, exclamation marks, parentheses and others.

It is supposed that the usage and implementation of punctuation marks by the foreign students of English contributes in gaining command in writing in English. This study applies error analysis method when conducting a questionnaire to gain students' knowledge of punctuation marks from the perspective of its impact on the meaning and on the reader from the perspective of comprehending written texts by the students. Students are subjected to an exam which requires the usage and implementation of punctuation marks for one of the texts in order to pinpoint the common errors of the students taking the exam; hence, answers analysis and classifications of student's answers are conducted, then statistics and percentage are provided for each and every chosen part to reach thorough figures and statistics to evaluate the errors.

Chapter one

Background to the Study

1.1 Introduction

The writing of the sounds of language was first thought of and created to represent the oral use of language. The alphabet letters are meant to symbolize and represent the uttered sounds produced by the speakers of a given society. As a result, writing, speaking, listening and reading are skills that go hand in hand; therefore, the punctuation marks play a significant role in facilitating comprehension of reading as they organize thoughts and ideas throughout conveying the messages intended by the writer through reading. Due to the fact that reading decodes the meaning of the written text, different punctuations help the reader transmit and convey the spirit, the psychological impact, and the intentions of the writer by their diverse uses. "Together, reading and writing facilitate the development of critical thinking" (Carson,& Leki (1993).

Writing should be dealt with patiently to maintain clear transmission of thoughts and ideas. Anne Pallant (2004), stated that "writing is a recursive process. Effective writing results from rewriting and revising at each stage of the composing process. A good writer goes back and thinks again before continuing to write"

Punctuation marks play a greater role in reading out loudly particularly to children as in reading bed-time stories. As Thomas, 2000:376 stated "you must keep the reader

in mind. Younger, less experienced readers, for instance, need more help from punctuation than older, sophisticated ones"

The pronunciation devices such as the question mark (?), the exclamation mark (!) as well as the other punctuation marks have a psychological impact on the reader and the listener because they entail the use of a rising intonation which draws the attention of the listener to the end of the utterance and consequently have a remarkable psychological impact. Ibid:

It is convenient to divide punctuation marks into two broad categories: the stops and the other marks. Stops take their name from the fact that they correspond (though only loosely) to pauses and intonations in speech, vocal signals which help listeners follow what we say. Stops include the period, the question mark, the exclamation point, the colon, the semicolon, the comma, and the dash.

One of the main targets and objectives of the use of the punctuation marks in writing is to convey the state of mind of the writer to the reader who does not actually know the state of mind of the writer prior to reading. The writer and the reader do not physically exist neither in the same place nor at the same time. However they mentally become unified in conveying and receiving the same understanding of the message's content via the use of punctuation. Consequently, the punctuation marks have a crucial psychological impact. Ibid "In fact, punctuation is a mixed bag of absolute rules, general conventions, and individual options".

This research aims at explicating the English punctuation devices in order to rid the learners from foreign features to the English language. Ibid "All punctuation exists, basically, to help readers understand what you wish to say. Mostly marks of punctuation do this by signaling the grammatical or logical structure of a sentence (usually these are the same)".

So, what is the definition of punctuations? According to Graham (2001:1) punctuation. n. [Punctum, Latin]. 1. The use of symbols not belonging to the alphabet to indicate intonation and meaning not otherwise conveyed in the written language. 2. The symbols used for this purpose. He clarifies, punctuations makes possible the clear presentation of the written language. Or, punctuation is 'a courtesy designed to help readers to understand a story without stumbling'.

There is a strong view that punctuation is more important than spelling. Temple(1938) , "if you are getting your commas, semicolons and full stops wrong, it means that you are not getting your thoughts right, and your mind is muddled"

This study discusses learners writing skills, in terms of how they should use punctuation marks in their writing, since the purpose of punctuation is to make it easy to read and understand any written form. Punctuation marks tell us about the way native English speaker implement their language; for instance, comma indicates a slight pause between parts of the sentence; full stops indicate a longer pause between the sentences and so on. In speech one may repeat something; rise or lower voice, as to place special emphasis to some words, however, in writing that cannot be done without punctuation. So; this research attempts to establish whether learners have

knowledge of individual punctuation marks' meaning. Furthermore, the research attempts to seek reasons and causes of using punctuation marks inappropriately.

One may ask, what is the point of punctuation? Punctuation may appear physically insignificant on a page of print and evanescent in our speech, but without them all would be chaos. Not knowing how to use them properly can result in even greater chaos. As Graham (2001:2) claimed when saying to someone:

I hate habitual liars; like you, I find them detestable.

That person would very likely agree. But imagine the reaction should you fix slightly with punctuation:

I hate liars like you; I find them detestable.

1.2 Research Questions

This research attempts to answer the following:

1. Are learners aware of the appropriate usage of punctuation marks?
2. Do learners use punctuation marks properly in their writing?
3. What is the impact of using punctuation marks?

1.3 Hypothesis

It's believed that students of seventh semester at English Department Benghazi University face difficulty with using punctuation marks.

1.4 Aim of the study

This research attempts to investigate learner's knowledge of the use of punctuation marks, and it also aims to seek whether learners make use of punctuation marks in their writing.

1.5 Scope of the Study

This study focuses on seventh semester students of English language in Benghazi University.

1.6 Methodology

This study has applied the error-analysis approach in investigating learners' knowledge of punctuation marks and their semantic meanings, the student were given:

a. a text to punctuate. In order to pinpoint the common errors shared by those who have taken the test.

b. One text was given to the examinees several times with different punctuation then; they were asked how they understood the text to extract their semantic interpretation of the text each time.

c. The examinees' errors were analyzed and classified.

Statistics was provided after each section to give an accurate figure to assess the errors.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

This chapter is an introduction to the development of the punctuation marks, which present studies related to the skill of writing and its mechanics.

2.1 Historical Background to the Punctuation System

The punctuation system is similar to other aspects of language, in the sense that, it has undergone a process of change in form and usage until it has reached its present form and usage. The punctuation system history and background dates back from the ancient Greek and Latin periods until our present day. Many marks have been in use for quite some time, then have disappeared temporarily just to be substituted by other forms; in turn, the new forms also have disappeared and have been replaced by others and so on. This chapter traces the movement of the punctuation system since the ancient Greek period through its history.

2.1.1 Ancient Greek History of Punctuation

The orthographic world of ancient Greece was a sparse old pace. When reading a contemporary manuscript, a literate Greek of Homer's time would be faced with an UNBROKENSTREAMOFLETTERS, all uppercase (because at that time there was no other case), with lines running alternately left-to-right and then right-to-left across the page in "ox-turning" style similar to a horseshoe or a U turn, as a farmer driving his oxen across a field. Perhaps most cruelly, the visual signposts of punctuation that today we take for granted were completely absent. It was the reader's unenviable lot to tease out words, clauses, and even sentences from this densely zigzag of characters. Huston(2014: 4).

Despite some recent scholarly murmurs to the contrary, it is generally held that the painstaking task of interpreting a document like this would have been accomplished

by reading it aloud. At the time, the written word was very much an adjunct to spoken language, and silent reading was the exception rather than the rule; as a matter of fact, as only the elite and the bourgeois as well as clergymen and kings' courtiers had the opportunity to lay hands on written material. They had the liberty of physically pronouncing the syllables helped practicing reading, like church sermons and political proclamations and announcements, to decode and retain their meaning and to discover the rhythms and cadences lurking in the unbroken text.(ibid:5)

Aristophanes of Byzantium, librarian of the great institution at Alexandria in the third century BC, was the first to give readers some room to breathe when he created a system of marks for augmenting and blending texts written according to the rules of classical rhetoric.

Statements were broken into clauses of varying length and meaning, and a skilled orator would pause or draw breath to emphasize each such unit. Aristophanes defined a system of dots or (distinctions), to indicate the points at which these pauses should take place—a boon for non native readers, such as the Romans, who were attempting to decipher and decode Greek literature (Ibid:5) . A century later, the grammarian Dionysius Thrax described the system in his essay *The Art of Grammar*:

There are three punctuation marks—the full (or high dot), the intermediate (or middle dot), and the subordinate (or underdot). The full mark is the sign used to indicate the completion of the sense, the intermediate is used to show where the reader can take a breath, and the subordinate is used if the sense is not yet complete but still lacks something. The difference between the full and the subordinate is one of duration: in the case of the full, the time interval is long, whereas it is without exception short for the subordinate.

The so-called intermediate (·), subordinate (.), and full (´) dots, signaling short, medium, and long pauses respectively, were placed after corresponding rhetorical units called the *komma*, *kolon*, and *periodos*.

Though it took centuries for these marks of punctuation to crystallize into the familiar visual forms we know today, their modern names are not so far removed: "comma," "colon," and "period". (Ibid 2014 : 6)

Unlike modern punctuation, which authors use chiefly to make clear the semantics, or meaning, of their words, Aristophanes' dots were intended solely as aids for reading aloud; as has been previously mentioned in the introduction the punctuation mark system is mainly used to clarify the realm of meaning given specifically to the words used in a particular context; *distinctions* were to be added retroactively by a reader preparing a text to be performed in front of an audience. An intermediate dot, for instance, did not turn the preceding words into a formal rhetorical *komma*, but rather marked the pause for breath that a reader would take after speaking such a clause aloud, while texts were not terminated with a *periodos*, or high dot, since after the final letter there was nothing more to punctuate (or read). Even now, many marks of punctuation still act wholly or largely as vocal stage direction: parentheses denote the typographical equivalent of a spoken aside; the exclamation mark implies a surprised, rising tone of voice; and the question mark is as much about inflection as it is about interrogation.

Aristophanes' system found use only fitfully, and later, as Rome usurped Greece with characteristically brutal efficiency, his *distinctions* had to contend with the Roman disdain for punctuation in general. Ibid (2014:6) Cicero, for instance, an orator,

philosopher, and politician from the first century BC who crops up with indecent frequency in any discussion of punctuation or grammar, looked down his aquiline nose at it. He considered that the end of a sentence "ought to be determined not by the speaker's pausing for breath, or by a stroke interposed by a copyist, but by the constraint of the rhythm." And although the zigzag boustrophedon style of writing had long since been replaced with lines running uniformly left to right, a brief, unrelated Roman experiment of SEPARATING.WORDS.WITH.DOTS had by the end of the second century been abandoned in favor of Greeks' monotonous, unspaced *scriptio continua* "a non-divided writing style which included no syllabus" . For the most part, the Romans had no truck nor alternative with punctuation. Ibid(2014:7)

With all this emphasis on reading aloud, it might come as a surprise that the paragraph—a purely semantic construct, with no counterpart in spoken language—had been marked up in texts even before the advent and appearance of Aristophanes' multifarious dots, and continued in common use throughout punctuation's dark days at the hands of Romans.

The *paragraphos*, from the Greek *para-*, "beside", and *graphein*, "write", first appeared around the fourth century BC and took the form of a horizontal line or angle in the margin to the left of the main text. The exact meaning of the *paragraphos* varied with the context in which it was used and the proclivities or intentions of the author, but most often it marked a change of topic or structure: in drama it might denote a change of speaker, in poetry a new stanza, and in an everyday document it could demarcate and clarify anything from a new section to the end of a *periodos*. In some uses, the symbol itself marked the start of the new section; in others, it served only to draw attention to a break elsewhere on the specified line.

2.1.2 Ancient Roman History of Punctuation

Since this research is on the English punctuation mark system, a brief account on written versions of Roman writing system might be worthwhile to mention and in particular, the origin on which the Romans depended on in writing.

Aristophane's venerable system of dots according to Houston (2014:11) , was revived by the fourth-century grammarian Donatus and popularized in the seventh century by Saint Isidore of Seville. In his meandering and not straight reference work *Etymologies*, which would remain one of the most important books in the West for more than eight hundred years, Isidore described a reorganized system in which the *comma*, *colon*, and *periodos* now lived at the bottom, middle, and top of the line respectively-though the words they punctuated were still welded together without spaces. The recognized *distinctiones* were joined by new marks of punctuation, while some old symbols assumed new meanings: the ancient *positura*, a 7-shaped mark, now signaled the end of a section of a text (in contrast to the *paragraphos*, which marked the start); questions were terminated with a *punctus interrogatives* (?) and the *diple* (>) called attention to quotations from sacred scripture, leading in turn to quotation marks (" ") and guillemots, the speech marks used in many non-English languages (<< >>). The technology of writing changed too: far from reed beds of the Nile delta, religious scholars of northern Europe forsook rough Egyptian papyrus for smooth animal-skin parchment, freeing their scribes to create a variety of flowing "uncial", or "inch-high" scripts.

Being an essential part of writing, the punctuation mark system has also been influenced by introducing printing ,as previously stated, punctuation mark system added and dropped many signs and forms. The printing machines in the renaissance period revolutionized writing in general and the punctuation mark system in particular. Huston (2013:197) talked about printing saying ‘‘Printing, as has been

fundamentally and permanently changed writing and punctuation.” Time-consuming luxuries such as hand painted illustrations and rubricated marks of punctuation fell victim to the economies of scale enabled by this new means of production. The marking of quotations was affected too, and deeply; so Gutenberg's system of movable type made underlining and printing in colored ink time-consuming and impractical; not to mention that early printers were curiously resistant to cutting punches for the *diple's* (or *double >*) divergent ranks of descendants.

Then, at the start of the sixteenth century, the *diple* was effectively rebooted. The army of "corrupt" handwritten *diple* was replaced by simple double commas (, ,). Derived from the slanted virgule (/) and used to indicate a brief pause, here deep breath must be taken to announce the introduction of one of the most debatable marks of punctuation, "the comma". The comma was a relative newcomer to the manuscript tradition; its adoption by printers seems to be entirely without precedent, as if one day a printer reached into a type case and pulled out the first mark that resembled a softened, curved *diple*. Houston (2014:197:198)

Tentatively at first, but with increasing frequency and assertiveness, the double comma made itself indispensable to the new body of printed work. Published in 1525, Bishop John Fisher's *Defensio Regie Assertionis contra Babylonicam Captivitatem* (roughly, Defense of the King's Assertion Against the Babylonian Captivity)—a short book with a long title, and one written in the finest traditions of internecine and fatal theological squabbling—provides a snapshot of the comma's early appearance and usage as quotation mark. Fisher's Luther-baiting screed hung doubled commas in the margin to indicate lines that contained quoted text, though not precisely where that

text began or ended. Unlike the inward-pointing *diple*; however, Fisher's commas were oriented, so that they opened *towards* the text: commas in the outer margin of right-hand, or recto, pages were set as normal (,,), but those on left-hand, or verso, pages were rotated by 180 degrees (“). Though the name for this practice would not be coined for another 250 years, the "inverted comma" had been born, so we conclude that, the comma and the inverted commas were first introduced at the early trials of printing as substitutions for the *diple*, they were not meant to be; however, were introduced accidentally in replacement for a softened *diple*.

Despite the modern appearance to modern readers of the quotation marks in *Defensio*, their usage was still in flux. Fisher used double commas to indicate statements made by his opponent, Martin Luther, but quotations from other sources—notably King Henry VII, in whose defense the book was written, not to mention scriptural and other religious text—received no special treatment other than a parenthesized (inquit), or "he said". Ibid(2014:197:200)

Following *Defensio* by four years, the renowned French printer Geoffroy Tory published a voluminous tract entitled *Champ Fleury* (literally "Field of Flowers", or written as a single word, a French idiom for "Paradise") that illustrated some alternative solutions to the quotation quandaries, disagreement facing early users of mark. *Champ Fleury* was both a typographic tour de force and an impassioned call for standards in language and writing. The accidental findings were sought to be put within rules in order to fix their usage, in which Tory held forth on the construction of letters in the newly revived roman style, on the use of accents as a guide to pronunciation, and on the apostrophe as means of indicating omitted letters. Like *Defensio*, quotations in *Champ Fleury* were marked with double commas, but the similarities ended there: unlike Fisher, Tory placed quotation-commas in the inner

margins to avoid clashing with his frequent notes in the outer margins, and also oriented them so that they opened *away* from the text as the *diple* had done. Not only that, but Tory quoted freely from classical authors; a sign of the new humanist world that was fast eroding the special status once enjoyed by scriptural and religious texts. When did the pioneers who were in charge of printing decide to standardize some punctuation marks such as quotation marks? Near the end of the sixteenth century, quotation marks took two significant steps toward their modern form. First, inverted commas moved from their isolation in the margin into the main body of the text itself, taking up positions at the leftmost edge of each line in quotation. The second breakthrough came in 1574, when a book of cautionary poems called *The Mirour for Magistrates* first used quotation marks to indicate direct speech:

- " O queane (quoth shee) that cause of warres hast beene,
- " And deadly ate, the like was neuer seen.
- " Come on, for these my hands shall ridde thy life,
- " And take reuengement of our mortall strife

Perhaps skeptical of the average reader's critical faculties, and unable to use the inverted comma in its *diple-esque* role of inviting especial attention to a line, the printers of the later 1587 edition took the precautionary measure of prefixing it with five pointed stars. On occasion, these typographic stars were in alignment with quotations of direct speech.

Unfortunately, the *Mirour's* use of quotation marks in this way was a false dawn. There were various punctuation marks in use. They were confusing to the reader; however, they were kept at a low key. The dizzying array of quotation marks, italics, and other typographic distinctions remained, with little sign of agreement on standard conventions of use. Handwritten documents mirrored and reflected the indecision

displayed by printed works: direct and reported speech might be signaled by any one of a number of competing techniques such as virgules, underlining, or verbs of speaking, with inverted commas largely reserved for sententious and inclusive remarks. The confused uses of quotation methods had grown unruly. Houston (2014:197:202)

2.2 The Skill of Writing and Its Mechanic

2.2.1 What is writing?

It is a complex process which requires many things such as spelling, punctuation, and the ability to explore thought and ideas. Harmer (2007:3) says:

"Spoken language, for a child, is acquired naturally as a result of being exposed to it, whereas the ability to write has to be consciously learned".

Writing also encourages thinking and learning for it motivates communication and makes thought available for reflection. Ghaith (2002). Archibald, and Jeffry (2000) sees writing as a complex activity which has a recursive process. The complexity of writing process comes from the many procedures the writer needs to complete the work. He does not only need to know how to spell the words correctly, but also needs another important process to make the piece of writing perfect, such as the ability to organize the information and the knowledge of the rules of grammar. According to Omaggio,(1993), the ability to write well is not a naturally acquired skill; it is usually

learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments. Writing skills must be practiced and learned through experience.

"The present trend of research into the writing of children focuses on the process of writing rather than on the product of writing, and on the recursive nature of writing rather than the linear nature of writing."

Ghaith (2002). According to Widdowson (1989:34-35) cited in Imssalem (2000:119) writing is a communicative activity and so is carried out in accordance with certain general principle which underline the use of language in communication. As a related note it enables learners to express the ideas in their minds without embarrassment and to write about whatever they like because they think carefully about the target subject as well as being able to correct any mistakes that occurred in their writing. However, this depends on mastering the different aspects of the skill of writing mentioned above. Another aspect of the skill of writing is that the writer has the ability to look back at the piece of writing to make any changes, according to Atwell(1987) when thought is written down, ideas can be examined, reconsidered, added to, rearranged, and changed.

2.2.2 What Does Writing Involve?

Writing involves knowledge of the grammar, vocabulary, spelling, coherence, punctuation of different types of paragraphs.

This research only focuses on the punctuation marks, the following section deals with the modern standard use of punctuation.

2.2.3 The Modern Standard Use of Punctuation

Punctuation marks have picked connotation usages throughout its historic background up to modern techniques of writing. Some punctuation marks have been completely altered, and some have been slightly modified according to our modern techniques of writing. Below are the most common punctuation marks used in writing today, according to Robey, Hedrick, and Morgan (1978).

.2.2.1.3 The Comma

Use a Comma When You Need It.

Some students feel like comma was invented only to cause problems in writing. Others decided where commas go in a sentence by reading the sentence aloud and placing a comma wherever they pause or vary their tone of voice. Both groups of students could manage the comma correctly and easily if they would learn the reasons for using commas and use commas only when there is a reason.

1. Use commas and the joining words and, but, or, nor, and for to join two complete, or finished sentences.

- If the sentences are short and about the same thing or are closely related, they can be joined to make a longer sentence.

Two sentences: it was a small shop between two other stores. It was a nice place.

Joined sentences: it was a small shop between two other stores, and it was a nice place.

Two sentences: the gym is located on Main Street. It is a large building with a green lawn around it.

Joined sentences: the gym is located on Main Street, and it is a large building with a green lawn around it.

Two sentences: we thought that Jean would be hard to get along with. We found out that this was not true.

Joined sentences: we thought Jean would be hard to get along with, but we found out that this was not true.

- Remember to use the comma before the joining words.

- 2. Use commas to join unfinished sentences containing subjects and verbs that begin with words like after, when, and while to complete, or finished, sentences.**

The comma is used only when unfinished sentences comes first and is followed by the finished sentence.

Unfinished: Because it rained everyday for a week

Finished sentence: we could not go on the camping trip.

Joined with comma:

Because it rained every day for a week, we could not go to the camping trip.

- 3. Use commas between the words or group of words in a series or list.**

Notice how the commas are used in the following sentences.

- The room was small, dingy, and cold.
- Make your breakfast table beautiful with a bowl of apples, oranges, bananas, and pears.
- Pearl is down the stairs, threw her book on the table, grabbed her coat, and started towards the door.

- 4. Use commas between descriptive words such as large, small, dark, beautiful, exciting, and noisy in place of the word and. If and cannot be used, a comma is not needed.**

Either the comma or and shows that both descriptive words refers to a person or thing being described. Study the following sentences, which use either a comma or the word and between descriptive words.

- She came running into the large, empty room.
- She came running into the large, and empty room.
- It was a noisy, exciting race.
- It was noisy and exciting race.
- The only clue was a small, dark stain on the carpet.
- The only clue was small and dark stain on the carpet. (the words small and dark both describe stain. The word and can be substitute for the comma.)

5. Use a comma to set off, or separate, the name of a person to whom you are speaking.

If the name of a person is simply mentioned in the sentence, the commas are not needed.

- Jim, take the book to the library. (a comma is used because someone is talking to Jim.)
- Jim will take the book to the library. (Someone is talking about Jim, and no comma is needed.)

6. Use a comma to separate the names of speakers from their exact, or quoted, words.

- Earlene said, "The book must go to the library before Tuesday."
- "The book," Earlene said, "must go to the library before Tuesday."

- "the books must go to the library before Tuesday," Earlene said.

7. Use a comma to separate the parts of names of places, dates, and dresses.

If only one item in a place name, date, or address is used. It is not separated by commas from the rest of the sentence.

- Norfolk, Virginia, is the location of the famous Azalea Gardens.
- The Azalea Gardens are located in Norfolk. (name of city state only)
- Virginia has many beautiful flowers in spring. (name of state only)
- Please send the package to Mrs. C.R. Chesterton, Lyman, Wyming 82937. (the zip code number is not separated by a comma from the name of the state.)

8. Use commas to separate a word or a group of words that may add information but are not necessary to the meaning of the sentence.

9. Use commas around a word or words that describe a person or thing that you have already mentioned.

Sometimes a person or a thing is renamed or described, but the word or group of words that is used is not necessary to the meaning of the sentence.

- Mary, the girl in the red dress, will be the first one in the talent show.

The words "the girl in the red dress" helps to describe Mary, but the meaning of the sentence does not depend on them. The group of words is properly separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

- Barbara has a wonderful job as a model.
- Barbara, my sister, has a wonderful job as a model. (The words Barbara and my sister describe the same person, but the fact that Barbara is someone's sister is not a necessary part of the sentence.)

10. Use commas to separate words such as however, therefore, for example, as a result, in fact, and in that case from the rest of the sentence.

These words may be used at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of the sentence.

- As a result, air and water pollution are increasing every day.
- The tire, however, will need to be balanced before it is used.
- They knew, in fact, that a mistake had been made.
- Not all dogs get along with small children, for example.

When words such as however, therefore, for example, as a result, in fact, and in that case are used to begin a sentence that is joined to another sentence, a semicolon is used before the word or words, and a comma is used after them.

- The score was forty-two to six at the half; therefore, the coach gave everyone on our team a chance to play.

The semicolon is needed because the word therefore is not the same as joining word like and, or, but. The word therefore may be used in another place in the sentence without changing the meaning.

- The score was forty-two to six at the half; the coach gave everyone on the team, therefore, a chance to play.

11. Use commas to separate introductory expressions containing –ing words or beginning with words such as to run, to walk, or to remove from the rest of the sentence.

- Moving rapidly, the last runner began to catch up with the rest of the group. (the words moving rapidly describe the last runner, but need to be separated from the rest of the sentence because of the –ing word.)

12. Use Commas After Words Such as Yes, No, Well, And Oh When These Words Begin a Sentence.

- Yes, I think I knew Charlie's brother when I was in school.
- Well, where did you find that horrible pink hat?
- Oh, what a rainy day this has been.
- No, they could not find the package.

13. Expression such as I hope, I believe, I say, and she says are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas when they are not used at the beginning of the sentence.

- This is, I hope, the last time it will happen.
- The money, she says, must last for the rest of the month.

Notice that when the expression is used at the beginning of a sentence, the rest of the sentence tells what is hoped or said. In this case, a comma should not be used.

- I hope this is the last time it will happen.
- She says the money must last for the rest of the month.

14. Use commas to make your meaning clear.

You may have to think carefully about what you mean to say. The following sentences use the same words in the same order, but notice that the meaning of the sentence is reversed when commas are added.

- Women say the men are more suitable for that work.
- Women, say the men, are more suitable for that work.

In the first sentence, women are speaking, and they say that men are better for a particular job. In the second sentence, men are speaking, and the men say that the women are better for the job.

2.2.3.2 The Semicolon

Use the semicolon between closely related sentences and between groups of words that already contain commas. Use the semicolon only when the parts to be joined are equal in importance.

1. Use a semicolon to join two complete, or finished, sentences that are closely related.

The semicolon is sometimes called a weak period; when it is used between incomplete, or finished sentences, it takes the place of a period at the end of the first sentence. Notice that the second sentence does not begin with capital letter because it has been joined to the first sentence by the semicolon.

- John did not know what to do; he stood in the middle of the room and tried to decide how to move the boxes.

The above sentence is made up of two complete, or finished, sentences which have been joined by a semicolon. The sentences could be written separately:

- John did not know what to do. He stood at the middle of the room and tried to decide how to move the boxes.

The sentences can also be correctly joined with a semicolon because they are closely related and because they are equal in importance. The choice is up to the writer. Having a choice, the writer can vary the length of the sentences and write texts more interesting than they would be with only short, choppy sentences. Read the following examples.

- Jim has never played football. He does not enjoy the game.
- Jim has never played football; he does not enjoy the game.
- The rain poured down. Mud ran into the street.

- The rain poured down; mud ran into the street.

Some words or group of words help the reader move smoothly from one thought or sentence to another; these words are called *transitional words*, and they tell something about when or how the action of the sentence is taking place. These words are different from the joining words and, but, or, nor, and for, which can be used with a comma to connect two finished sentences. The transitional words have a semicolon in front of them and are usually followed by a comma. Some of these words are:

Also	However	Nevertheless
As a result	In addition	On the other hand
Besides	In fact	Still
For example	Instead	Then
Furthermore	Meanwhile	Therefore

- The people were tired and hungry; as a result, no progress was made.
- Love is a universal emotion; still, some people never know love.
- Billie pushed all of the chairs and tables out of the room; then, she started cleaning the dirty floor.

2. Use semicolons between groups of words that already contain commas.

This use of semicolon helps the reader find the main divisions of the sentence and makes the idea clear.

- Mr. Howard bought a pot, knives, and bowls; two folding tables; and three kinds of bread from Graham's Bakery.

- Some drivers seem to count every fence post; examine, discuss, and reject every side road; and enjoy delaying traffic.

2.2.3.3 The Apostrophe

The apostrophe (') is used to show ownership or omission and to form some plural words, its place near the top of the written word in which it is used.

1. The apostrophe shows that something belongs to or is related to something else.

The ideas of ownership or relationship can be expressed in other ways, but the apostrophe makes it possible to write those ideas in fewer words.

With Apostrophe	Without Apostrophe
Jamie's book	The book that belongs to Jamie
Everyone's hope	The hope of everyone
The cat's favorite food	The favorite food of the cat
A day's work	The accomplished in a day
Tomorrow's class	The class of tomorrow
A dollar's worth of gas	The amount of gas that is worth a dollar

2. If the name of a person or thing does not end in s, add the 's.

Mary's dog was hit by a car.

Wind blew down the store's sign.

3. Use either's or only ' after a word that ends in s.

If the extra s makes pronunciation difficult, the apostrophe by itself is acceptable.

Mr. Hopkins's car was stolen.

Mr. Hopkins' car was stolen.

4. If the word is plural (meaning more than one), use s' if the word does not end in s and only ' if the word does end in s.

The children's feet made muddy tracks on the floor.

The men's hats were on the table.

(Children and men are plural words which do not end in s. add's.

The little girls' toys were scattered over the yard.

The boys' jackets had disappeared.

(Girls and boys are plural words which do end in s. Add' only.)

5. When words are used in place of the names of people or things, there are special rules for the use of the apostrophe.

Here is John sweater.

Here is his sweater.

The book belongs to Sally.

The book is hers.

6. If something belongs to two or more people, use's with only the last of the names.

I went to Jane and Sally's apartment. (Two people live in one apartment)

I went to Jane's and Sally's apartment.) two people each have their own apartment.)

The new shop is named Mike and Ed's. (Two people own the business.)

7. Use the apostrophe to show that a word has been shortened or that two words have been made into one by the omission of one or more letters.

The shortening is called a contraction.

Contracted forms

Long forms

O'clock

Of the clock

We'll

We will

Don't

Do not

Class of '75

Class of 1975

Rock 'n' roll

Rock and roll

They're

They are

8. Use the apostrophe to form the plural of numbers, letters, and words referred to as words.

The printer put s's after all of the names, and half of the s's are upside down.

Put circles around the and's.

He spells his name with two l's.

Your paper would be better if you left out the wow's and oh's.

The 1920's were called the Jazz Years.

2.2.3.4 Capitalization

Capital letters are an important form of punctuation in that they help to guide the eye and mind through a text. King (2009:16) some capitalizations are logical but many are not. Some are consistent through the language while others are arbitrary, differing from country to country and even from one publisher or newspaper to another.

1. Capitalize the First Word of a Sentence.

Show your readers exactly where each sentence begins by starting the first word of the sentence with a capital letter. If two short sentences have been joined to form a long sentence, only the first one begins with a capital.

My favorite sport is basketball.

Why do children rebel against their parents?

Many new ideas have been developed; however, not all of them are valid.

2. Capitalize Proper Names.

A proper name is the name of a specific, or particular, person, place, or thing.

People: man, woman, child.

Specific people: **Tom H. Larson, Julia Cardin, Sally.**

Places: City, state, nation.

Specific places: **Baltimore, California, France.**

Things: Car, book, day, camera.

Specific things: **Chevrolet, Bible, Tuesday, Kodak.**

3. Names of Persons are Capitalized. The initials of names stand for those names and are capital letters.

Did **John W. Trasmon** tell **Kelly** about the new school?

Specific names of animals or pets are also proper names and begin with capital letters.

One of Walt Disney's most popular creations was **Dumbo**, the little elephant with the big ears.

4. A Title Used before a Name is Capitalized.

- We all thought **Uncle Wilbur** should go with us.
- They saw **President Carter** leave the meeting.
- Did **Professor Ritter** call the office?
- My neighbors have met **Captain Farley**.
- A title not followed by a name is not usually capitalized.
- A club **president** should be able to maintain order.
- Ask your **professor** about the old book.
- The **captain** of the men came forward.
- Degrees and titles after a name are part of the name and are capitalized.
- **Mason R. Barkley, Jr. Ph.D.**
- **Carson D. Sommervale, Attorney at Law.**
- The name of the profession is not capitalized.
- **Carson D. Sommervale** is a lawyer .

5. I is capitalized

When using the word **I**, a very specific person that's been talking about : yourself. **I** is used in place of your own name, and it is always a capital letter when used in this way.

- When **I** looked up, **I** saw people jumping from the window.
- **I** thought **I** saw people in the car.

6. The name of specific cities, states, countries, and continents are capitalized.

- We lived in **D**es **M**oines when I was a child.
- John has never driven in **C**alifornia.
- Her report is about Argentina, but mine is about another country.
 - Notice that words such as city, state, country, and continent are not capitalized unless they are part of the name of a particular city, state, country, or continent.
- The capital of a state may not be its largest city.

7 . The name of specific avenues, streets, and routes are capitalized.

- Bill took the car to 714 **G**ayle **A**venue, and I walked to the next street.
- They lived in the large yellow house on **B**ridge **S**treet.
- Did you locate U.S **R**oute 66 on the map?
- Notice that words such as avenue, street, or route are not capitalized unless they are part of the name of a particular avenue, street, or route.
- All the routes in the town have avenues or streets leading into them.

8 .The name of specific mountains, parks, bodies, or water, planets, and buildings are capitalized.

- They visited **M**ount **R**ushmore and **Y**ellowstone **N**ational **P**ark while they were on a vacation trip.
- Charles A. Lindbergh was the first person to fly alone across the **A**tlanctic **O**cean.
- Life on other planets, especially **M**ars, has long been a favorite theme of writers.

- Many people visit the **Empire State Building** each year while they are in New York City.
- Notice that words such as mountain, lake, or park are not capitalized unless they are part of the name of a particular mountain, lake, or park.
- The picnic can be held at the lake in the new park.

9 .The names of months, days of the week, and holidays are capitalized.

- My favorite month is **November**.
- In the United State, **May** and **June** are warm months.
- The class will meet for three hours each **Monday** for the next five weeks.
- There will be a parade on **Veterans Day**.
- Notice that words such as month, day, week, or holiday are not capitalized unless they are part of the name of a particular month, day, week, or holiday.
- There are **monthly** meetings scheduled every **day** for the next two **weeks**.

10. The names of departments and branches of government, political parties, companies, and organizations are capitalized.

- The **Justice Department** occupies several large buildings and has many employees.
- A rally was planned by the **Republican party**.
- The large building on the corner belongs to **Meglo Corporation**.
- The **Chesapeake Historical Society** meets every month.

11. The names of historical events and documents are capitalized.

- The **Battle of Waterloo** was an important event in French history.
- The **Revolutionary War** marks the beginning of our nation.

12. Words that refer to God, religious denominations, and sacred books are capitalized.

- Words referring to God or Deity: our Mark, Allah, the Trinity, the Messiah, the Jesus, the lord, and the Almighty.
- Religious denominations: Catholic, Jewish, Buddhist, Moslem, and Protestant.
- Sacred books or writings: the Bible, the Koran, the Old Testament, the Scriptures, and Vedas.

13. Words that come from names that are capitalized are themselves capitalized.

San Francisco a **S**an **F**ranciscan

England an **E**nglish course

Rotary Club the **R**otarians

- **Use the following reference list as a guide.**

Capitalized (specific)	Not Capitalized (General)
Valley High School	high-school days
the Conservative party	a political party
the Exchange Club	a club for civic leaders
Chase Bank Building	the bank building
the Medal of Honor	a medal for bravery
an All-Star game	a basketball game
the Richmond Coliseum	a sport arena
the Churchland Raider	a football team

History 312	a course in history
Emporia college	a college
the Spanish people	people of another country
the Middle Ages	An era in history
Pepsi-Cola	a cola drink
New York State	the state on the map
the Orient	an oriental country
the Blue Ridge Mountain	some mountains in Virginia
Veterans Day	a day to honor veterans
the Southern Railway System	a railway network
Cousin Jimmy	a cousin
Golden Gate Bridge	a long bridge
Christmas in December	a day in winter
Springdale Acres	a housing development

14. Capitalize the first, last, and important words in the titles of books, plays, songs, and poems. Capitalize the second part of important hyphenated words.

- The class will discuss **A**nimal **F**arm next week.
- Study the first two chapters in **H**istory of the **B**order **S**tates.
- The group sang "the **S**tar-**S**pangled **B**anner."
- Her first published poem was called "**L**eaves of **A**utumn."
- Notice that little words like the, a, an and of are not capitalized unless one of these words begins or end a title.
- The article was called " **A** Talent I Know **O**f."
- She sang " Do You Know **o**f a Beautiful Home?" while the group assembled.

15. Capitalize I and O when they are used as words.

- All of the books which **I** wanted were very expensive.
- Tell me, **O** reader, how to solve the problem.

The word O is always spelled with a single capital letter. The word oh begins with a capital letter only when it is the first word of a sentence, title, or quoted material.

16. Capitalize the first word of quoted sentences.

- Tom said, "**T**he game is over, and we lost."
- "**W**hen the bell rings," said Miss Johnson, "everyone may leave quietly."

2.2.3.5 The Quotation Marks

Use the quotation marks around the exact words of a writer or speaker are repeated, or quoted, by another person, the words are enclosed in quotation marks.

1. When the exact words of a writer or a speaker are repeated, quoted, by another person, the words are enclosed in quotation marks.

The speaker may be named before, after, or in the middle of the quotation. The name of the speaker is not included in the quotation marks.

Eloise said "Jane spent all of her money at the grocery store."

"Jane spent all of her money at the grocery store." Eloise said

"Jane spent all of her money", Eloise said, "at the grocery store."

Notice that all quotations begins with a capital letter and is separated from the name of the speaker by a comma. If the quotation is broken or separated within a sentence, the first word of the second part does not begin with a capital letter.

2. If the quotation has more than one sentence, the end quotation mark is placed at the end of the last sentence.

“The family reunion was a wonderful event, “Callie said. “We met cousins we had never heard of before. Everyone brought food, and we all had a good time.”

Notice that the quotation marks are placed after the comma or period that ends a quoted section.

3. If more than one speaker is quoted, begin a new paragraph each time the speaker changes.

“Help!” screamed Laura.

“Can you hold on?” yelled George. “I’ll be there in a minute.”

Notice that a comma is not used between the quotation and the name of the speaker if an exclamation point or question mark is needed.

4. A quotation within a quotation is enclosed in single marks

“the correct question is: “A penny saved is a penny earned,”” he said.

5. When other marks of punctuation are used with quoted material, all punctuation marks should be in the correct order.

Place periods and commas inside quotation marks except for the period or comma that follows identification of the speaker.

“If you wait,” I said, “you will miss the bus.”

Place colons and semicolons outside the quotation marks unless they are part of the quotation.

Most of us recited “The Raven”; only three chose “Kubla Khan”: Eddie, Julia, and Sam, [the colon and semicolon are not part of the quoted material.]

Read and summarize “Diets: Good and Bad” by Thursday. [the colon is part of the quoted material.]

Place question marks, exclamation points, and dashes inside the quotation marks if they apply to the quotation only and outside the quotation marks if they apply to the whole sentence.

Jimmy asked, “Did you bring the bread and the pickles?”

[Only the quotation is a question]

Did that sign say “Detour Ahead”? [The sentence is a question.]

6. Use the quotation marks to enclose the titles of short stories, songs, articles in magazine, and parts of books, television programs, and short poems when they are referred to in other written material. (The titles of complete books or magazines and other long works are underlined or italicized.)

“Checkpoint” is the first chapter of *The Spy Who Came In From the Cold*.

The rock group played “Boo-Hoo, Baby.”

Did you read “Land Use and Capital” in the last issue of the *Freeman*?

The children watched “Sesame Street” every afternoon.

Notice that the names of the things referred to are not separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. The sentence is punctuated just as though the question marks were not there. The quotation marks tell the reader that the words they enclose are the name of the song, title of the chapter of a book, or name of an article. Quotation marks are frequently used in this way in school writing.

Do not use quotation marks around the title of your own paper. The title of your paper is original, and it should not be treated as quoted material unless you have taken a question to use as a title.

Here is an example of the title of a paper.

My First Job

I am sure that I will never forget my first job because the experience taught me

...

7. Words used as words may sometimes be enclosed in quotation marks, or they may be underlined.

The important thing to remember is that it is usually better not to underline words or enclose them in quotation marks unless there is no other way to express the idea.

Weak The word “love” makes some people interested and makes others yawn.

Weak The word love makes some people interested and makes others yawn.

Better The thought of love is interesting to some people, but others may yawn at the idea.

Weak That “mysterious atmosphere” is just propaganda.

Better that mysterious atmosphere is just propaganda.

Notice that the same idea can be expressed without the use of quotation marks or underlining. Good writers hold their readers’ attention with well-chosen words and do not have to sprinkle a page with quotation marks.

2.2.3.6 The period and other marks

The period and the question mark are used more frequently than the other marks of punctuation, but all are important in your writing. The period, the question mark, and the exclamation point all show the end of a complete, or finished, sentence.

Statement The classroom is very crowded.

Question Is the classroom crowded?

Exclamation that classroom is too crowded!

The period also shows the end of most abbreviations. The colon, the dash, parentheses, and brackets are used within the sentence to call attention to a part of the sentence.

1. Use a period to end a statement, a request, or an indirect question, and after most abbreviations. Use ellipsis marks to show the omission of a word or words from quoted material.

2. Use period to end a statement, or telling sentence.

Most of the sentences you write will be statement; in them; you are telling about something.

The boy ran.

The tall, thin boy ran home after school.

The tall, thin boy in blue jeans and a green sweater ran rapidly down the street after school.

All of the above sentences are statements. It does not matter that one is very short and the other two are longer. Each is a telling sentence, or statement, because it tells what the subject (boy) did (ran).

3. Use a period to end a sentence that requests something or gives a mild command.

This type of a sentence may tell someone what to do. It requests or commands, but the command is not a strong one. If the sentence were spoken instead of written, it would be said in a normal, calm tone of voice.

Remember to close the windows and lock the front door when you leave. [the person spoken to (you) is requested to do something.]

Follow the pattern exactly and cut each piece carefully. [this sentence commands or gives directions.]

Committee members, please be there by seven o'clock. [certain members are requested to arrive at a special time.]

The subject of the sentence may not be included, but it is always the person spoken to, you (understood).

4. Use a period to end an indirect question.

Do not confuse an indirect question with a direct one. An indirect question is a type of statement. If the sentence states that someone asked a question, it is a telling sentence and needs a period at the end.

Wrong: Our neighbors wanted to know where the boxes came from?

Right: Our neighbors wanted to know where the boxes come from.

[The sentence is *telling* what the neighbors wanted to know.]

Wrong: Mrs. Hildreth asked me to come to work the next day?

Right: Mrs. Hildreth asked me to come to work the next day.

[The sentence is telling what Mrs. Hildreth wanted me to do.]

5. Use a period after every abbreviation.

The period is used after abbreviations, or short forms of words. The use of a person's initial instead of the name is an abbreviation.

In most of your writing, you should be careful to use complete words, but there are some titles, degrees, ranks, and other words which are usually abbreviated. Many of the abbreviations end with a period.

I saw Mr. Bronson last week.

Mrs. Saunders has a B.A. in history.

Lt. Wilbur Carson, Jr., lives on South Hampsted Avenue.

[the full words are Lieutenant and Junior.]

Abbreviations in common use include the following:

Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr., C.O.D., A.M., OR a.m., P.M., or p.m., B.C., A.D., R.S.V.P. OR r.s.v.p.

Abbreviation of the names of large organizations, government agencies, and some technical terms are frequently used without periods.

NAACP, GOP, YMCA, NATO, HEW, FBI, TV, FM, AM, CB

6. Use ellipsis marks, which are three spaced periods (...), to show

the omission of a word or words from quoted material.

If the ellipsis mark is at the end of a sentence, it is followed by another period, a question mark, or an exclamation point. Ellipsis marks are frequently needed in a library paper or other long formal paper.

A large group heard his words: "The strength of the movement ... is real and enduring."

7. Use a question mark to end an asking sentence.

Why is Ted leaving?

Are you taking history 186?

Did Marcie wear that old dress and coat to the party?

When will people learn that they must help each other?

The above examples are asking sentences, or questions. Each sentence is asking for information, and each sentence uses asking words such as when or why or begins with part of the verb.

Remember that an indirect question does not end with a question mark. The indirect question is really a statement about what is being asked, and the correct end mark is a period.

2.2.3.7 Use an exclamation point at the end of a sentence that shows strong feeling or surprise or one that gives a strong command.

Some sentences show strong feelings or surprise, or they may let you know that something is happening suddenly. You might yell or shout if you were saying the sentence instead of writing it. Such sentences are exclamation points.

Help! The house is on fire!

I'll hate you as long as I live.

Hold on, Ginny!

It was a wonderful surprise!

Shouting or exclaiming sentences are usually short. They can add strength and feeling to your writing, but they should not be used often. When you use exclaiming sentences, be sure that the idea you are expressing is truly one of strong or sudden feeling.

2.2.3.8 The Colon

Use the colon to call attention to something that follows.

The colon is used after the beginning, or salutation, of a business letter. This is considered a formal beginning; a friendly letter uses a comma.

Dear Sir:

Dear Senator Townleys:

Dear Martin,

Use the colon to separate the figures that give hours and minutes, or chapter and verse in the Bible.

Wrong I told Kevin I would be ready at 7:30, but at 6:45 the doorbell rang, and there he was.

Right I told Kevin I would be ready at 7:30, but at 6:45 the doorbell rang, and there he was.

Caution: a colon is used more frequently in formal writing than in informal writing. Do not confuse the colon and the semicolon; the names and the marks may seem to be similar, but the semicolon joins two sentences and the colon calls attention to something that follows it.

2.2.3.9 Use a dash to show a sudden or abrupt break in a sentence.

A dash may also set off a word or group of words that summarize the sentence. Do not confuse the dash with the hyphen. In handwriting, the dash is a line as long as two or three hyphens.

The girls on our street are all the same—except Louanne.

Good grades, a diploma, a fine job—these are his immediate goals.

2.2.3.10 Use parentheses to certain words, figures, or letters.

Parentheses are always used in pairs. Use parentheses to enclose figures or letters that go with items in a series.

It is important to (1) use the correct material (2) follow the directions carefully (3) observe all safety precautions, and (4) have proper storage for the finished product.

Use parentheses to enclose explanation or comment within a sentence. Periods and commas that are not part of the information enclosed in parentheses should be placed outside the parentheses.

Although Frank had not expected to do well in college (he had started because he had nothing else to do), he found himself near the top of the dean's list.

2.2.3.11 Use brackets to enclose a word or words of comment or explanation within quotation marks or parentheses.

Words in brackets are not part of the quotation.

“It should be understood [the message continued] that the situation cannot be tolerated any longer.”

Write clearly and logically; do not use complex structures if they can be avoided.
(They are usually [as here] difficult to follow.).

2.3 Previous Studies

One of the works related to this study is carried out by Sawsan Wahbi El-bouri (2003), according to her thesis which is based on the assumption that only by studying the writing process we can begin to evaluate the appropriateness of our teaching methods, so the main purpose in this research is to identify the difficulties students encounter in the writing process; with special emphasis on paragraph and essay writing. Moreover, some other problems such as: sentence connectors, word order, verbs, prepositions, articles, lexical choice, pronouns, cohesion, mechanics, etc.

According to Elbouri, her conclusion shows that the sample analyzed indicated that students encountered organizational and language structure problem and some students lack analytical and organizational skills.

EIDurssi (2013) said that writing is considered a multi-processed skill, which needs a lot of steps and procedures to be acquired including punctuation and the ability to explore thoughts.

EIDurssi thesis focused on using cooperative learning and Error analysis at teaching techniques in teaching the mechanics of writing (punctuation marks) for the final year English specialization secondary school students.

In her thesis, EIDurssi seeks to analyze the errors made by the final year English specialization students of Nur Alhuria secondary school, and to show the importance of cooperative learning in which students discover and correct each other's errors and the effectiveness of this approach in teaching and learning English as a second language.

The conclusion of EIDurssi thesis shows that the differences between the performance of the students of the experiential group and the performance of the control group, is a clear evidence of the effectiveness of the method of teaching and techniques upon the learning process.

Cooperative learning proved a great success as a teaching technique throughout the history of language teaching and error analysis also has an importance in recognizing the linguistic competence and the level of the learners.

Chapter three

Data collection and Analysis

3.1 Subject of the Study

The subject of this study is the seventh semester students of the English department at Benghazi University. 50 sample of the test were given to students, only 33 of them returned with answers that could be analyzed, 17 sample were returned either empty or with negative comments from the students. While only 11 samples were fully answered, and 20 answered the passage questions. Students had enough time to punctuate the passage.

Collecting a sample of second language learners gives the data for Error Analysis. The data of the current study refers to of seventh semester English students of the Department of English at the University of Benghazi during the academic year 2016-2017. These students have been studying English for six semesters at the university. They were provided with a passage to punctuate, and sentences with different punctuation to explain its meaning. Students were given sufficient time to write their answers.

3.2 The Test

The test consisted of two parts; the first part consisted of two passages for students to punctuate according to their understanding and what punctuation is needed according to their point of view. The second part students are asked to read sentences that have the same words yet different punctuations, and then write down what they understood from each sentence separately.

The test was designed in order to test different punctuation marks: capitalization, comma, full stop, semi-colon, apostrophe, etc and how students understand the use and meaning of each of them.

The first part of the test, in which students were required to read and punctuate two passages aimed at testing punctuation marks: capitalization, comma, and full stop, etc. Part two consisted of nine sentences that have the same words yet different punctuation marks, they were asked to read each sentence separately and write down its meaning depending on the different punctuation and how they semantically understood it.

3.3 Data Analysis

Because error analysis is the approach is going to be used in data analysis of this work, the following section is going to cover this approach:

3.3.1 Introduction to Error Analysis

Imssalem (2001: 181) states that until the late sixties, the dominant view of language learning in both applied linguistics research and language teaching and learning was behaviouristic, which viewed learning as "habit formation, and learning was a matter of acquiring a set of new language habits". Therefore, errors were considered as being the result of the persistence of existing mother tongue habits in the new language. In other words, errors are the result of negative transference of mother tongue habits into the new language. She adds that the technique that the behaviorists used was called Contrastive Analysis and this analysis was seen as central regarding foreign language teaching. However, the Contrastive Analysis was criticized as being not fully useful because of its limited view not only from the point

that there are no entirely described languages to permit complete comparison but also that Contrastive Analysis can't predict the nature of the mother tongue interference.

In the late sixties, as a reaction to Contrastive Analysis theory, Error Analysis has emerged to demonstrate that learner's errors were not only because of the learner's native language but also they reflected some universal learning strategies. Error Analysis, as Imssalem (2001:187) asserts, "is considered an evidence of a system which the second language learner is using although it is not a desired system". Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:24) refer to the difference between errors and mistakes. They declare that teachers and researchers must distinguish that mistakes are due to "memory lapse, physical states, psychological conditions" and that they do not reflect a defect in the linguistic knowledge of the first or second speaker of the language. However, errors reveal the underlying knowledge of the language of the second language learner. Brown (1980) affirms that the errors committed by second language learners are a sign that the learners are investigating and acquiring the new language, and that the errors are developmental rather than caused by mother tongue interference.

3.3.2 Sources of Errors

It is important to explain why errors are made and identifying the psycholinguistic reasons for them. A number of possible sources of errors are significant in understanding learners' interlanguage systems. They include: interlingual errors, developmental errors, and intralingual errors.

3.3.3 Interlingual Errors

explaining Interlingual transfer, Imssalem (2001) claims that when second language learners are committing errors that are due to mother tongue interference, this first language interference is not considered as a matter of transferring habits but a mental process that the learner of the language is using in order to cover his inability and ignorance in the target language.

According to Brown (1980), Interlingua errors are the result of first language transfer in learning a second language. Interference is considered the result of the proactive inhibition, that is, previously learned habits prevent the learning of a new habit. An empirical view of second language learning posited a transfer of habits from the native language to the second language

Interference comes from the native language; learners tend to transfer forms of both productive and receptive skills to the foreign language. Many linguists such as Palmer, Jespersen, Sweet, and Lado, were aware of the influence of the first language in learning a second language. According to behaviorist theory, interference can be defined as old habits which impede the learning of new habits. Thus, in second language learning the patterns of the learner's mother tongue get in the way of learning L2 (Ellis,1985).

Lado (1964) assumed that "a person learning a second language starts off with the habits associated with the first language, these habits interfere with those needed for second language speech and new habits must be formed" (as cited in Lighbown and Spada, 1993:23). For the behaviorists, errors were seen as first language habits interfering with second language habits.

3.3.4 Developmental Errors

Not all errors made by second language learners can be illustrated in terms of interference from the learner's first language. The literature has shown that a number of errors are developmental in nature which reflects the attempt of the learner to understand and discover the structure of the second language. They are described as developmental because they are similar, if not identical, to those made by children acquiring their first language (Lightbown and Spada, 1993). Corder(1973) stated that L1 and L2 speakers make errors in order to investigate the nature of the language they are learning.

Adult beginners usually use simple structures in their second language as do children who are acquiring their first language. The phrase “no understand” is a similar structure spoken among learners from different first language backgrounds (Lightbown and Spada, 1993).

There is a sequence in the development of the rules and patterns of any language; that is, certain features in the language seem to be acquired/learned earlier than others. Learners who receive grammar-based instruction will follow the same sequences of development and commit the same types of errors as those who acquire the language in a natural setting (Lightbown and Spada, 1993).

3.3.5 Intralingual Errors

Intralingual errors can be discussed in terms of overgeneralization, simplification, incomplete application of rules, ignorance of rule restrictions that reflects the failure to learn conditions under which the rules apply (Richards, 1971).

The first type is overgeneralization which is a device used when the structures of any utterance do not carry any contrast for the learners Ellis (1985). The learner produces an

incorrect structure based on his experience of other structures in the second language. Thus, one can define it as the use of previously learned knowledge in a new context or situation. Some of this knowledge will provide learners with a helpful guide in organizing the structures in the second language; however, other knowledge will be misleading and inappropriate due to certain similarities. Thus, the overgeneralization contains the creation of one deviant form in place of two correct structures (Richard, 1971).

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) state that over generalization is not the only intralingual strategy used by second language learners to communicate in the target language. Second language learners employ other strategies like misanalysis when they wrongly assume that "its" is plural because of the "s", false analogy which is a kind of over generalization as in "child" – "childs", false concepts hypothesized which derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language due to poor gradation of teaching items, like using the form "was" as a marker of the past tense and the form 'is' as a marker of the present tense, incomplete application of the rule which is considered a kind of over generalization.

Errors are also caused when learners tend to use a rule in a context when it does not fit. These types of errors can be described as simplification: learners use a simple form of the language in order to reduce the linguistic burden (Lightbown and Spada, 1993). Widdowson (1975) has suggested that the process of simplification occurs when "learners have limited processing space and, therefore, cannot cope with the total complexity of a language system, so they limit the number of hypotheses they test at one point in time" (as cited in Ellis, 1985:48).

Richards (1971) has suggested that there are certain causes that increase the frequency of overgeneralization. One is that the need of the learners to reduce the linguistic burden. It has argued that errors emanate from the learners' need to utilize the redundancy of any language by removing elements that are not important in the context of communication (Ellis, 1985). For instance, the misuse of concord and the “-ed” marker of the past tense is incorporated with redundancy reduction (Richards, 1971). It has been assumed that such kind of errors is universal among learners from different first language background (Ellis, 1985).

The second cause is that certain types of teaching techniques increase the over-generalized structures such as pattern drills and transformation exercises which require students to make up utterances that may well interfere with each other when students attempt to form correct structures.

Another type of intralingual error reflects the ignorance of the rules of second language grammar. Ignorance of rule restriction occurs when rule appear in contexts where they do not apply in the second language (Ellis, 1985), it is "the failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is the application of rules to context where they do not apply" (Richard, 1971:175).

Errors also occur due to incomplete application of rules which is related to the difficulty of learning a complex structure because the learners can recognize that they can use relative simple rules in order to communicate effectively (Ellis, 1985). Richards suggests that "we may note the occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances" (Richards, 1971:177). Richards believes that the ignorance of rule restrictions and the incomplete

application of rules are related to overgeneralization because they involve the same process (as cited in Imssalem, 2001).

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) add that when explaining errors, it is not always easy to identify the source of the errors committed.

3.3.6 Error Identification and Categorization

Identification of the errors is the first step in Error Analysis.

Corder (1973) identifies the errors in terms of the difference between the learners' utterance and the reconstructed version. He also made a distinction between *overt* and *covert* errors. Overt errors are unquestionably ungrammatical at the sentence level, and covert errors are grammatically well formed at the sentence level, but are not interpretable at the context level of communication like in the utterance "I'm fine" as a correspondence to the question of "how old are you?". Brown (1980) indicates that in both cases if a possible reading can be made of the sentence then one should form a reconstruction of the sentence in the target language, compare them and describe the difference.

3.3.7 The Concept of Error Analysis

It is an approach to analyzing learners' errors which was developed during the 1970s. It involves a detailed description and analysis of the kinds of errors second language learners make to understand how learners internalize the second language data. Ellis,(1994:48) cited in Imssalem (2001:186) states that it was not until the 1970s that error analysis became a recognized part of applied linguistics, a

development that owed much to the work of Corder. Lott (1983:256) states that error analysis is a recent development in language learning in which researchers have started to make hypotheses about how a second language is acquired. This is clearly useful for teachers by giving them techniques to analyze errors made by their students. Imssalem (2001:186) states that:

“The view that there is a parallel between the process of learning a mother tongue and the process of learning a second language has extended to the relationship between the errors made by children acquiring the language and those made by learners of a second language. As a result of this attitude towards error, researchers began to take a new approach to learners’ errors. This approach is known as ‘Error Analysis’”.

George (1972a:1) mentions:

The discovery that infants’ mother tongue grammars are autonomous not imperfect versions of adult grammar has stimulated interest in errors as feedback of information about the stage of learning.

According to Corder (1981:45) cited in Imssalam (2001:186) there are two purposes for error analysis. One is theoretical; the other is practical.

For more details Keshavars (1997) explains the purposes exactly and states that theoretical analysis of errors primarily concerns the process and strategies of language learning and its similarities with first language acquisition. In other words, it tries to investigate what is going on in the minds of language learners. Secondly, it tries to decode the strategies of learners such overgeneralization and simplification, and

thirdly, to go to a conclusion that regards the universals of language learning process whether there is an internal syllabus for learning a second language. Applied error analysis, on the other hand, concerns organizing remedial courses, and devising appropriate material and teaching strategies based on the findings of theoretical error analysis. According to Keshavars Ibid (1997:77) error analysts believe that a good understanding of the nature of errors is necessary to an understanding of the process of second language learning. So that, the study of errors is fundamental aspect of language teaching and, as a result of the movement toward the role of the learner in the learning process, we need to investigate the learner's production of error as one of the ways of evaluating our approach to language teaching. On the other hand, learners benefit from analyzing their errors so that they discover the correct form of the language they learn, as Carroll (1955) suggests that the learners should find the correct linguistic form by searching for it not by teaching him the correct form by simply giving it to him. Imssalem (2001:193) mentioned the distinction between systematic and non-systematic errors according to Corder.

Nonsystematic errors occur in one's native language; Corder calls these "Mistakes" and stated that they are not significant to the process of language learning. He keeps the term "error" for the systematic ones, which occur in the second language. She agrees with Corder that it is more efficient for learners to correct themselves than be corrected by the teacher. That is helpful in order to understand errors and use what is learned from error analysis and apply it to language competence.

3.3.8 Errors and Error Analysis

Some may find it strange to focus on what learners get wrong rather than focusing on what they achieve or get right. However, there are good reasons for focusing on errors. First it rises the question "why learners make errors?" Second, it is found

really useful for teachers to know what errors learners tend to make. Third, it is possible that making errors may actually help learners to learn when they self-correct the errors they make.

The first step in analyzing learner errors is to identify them. This is in fact easier said than done. To identify errors we have to compare the sentences learners produce with what seem to be normal or correct sentences in the target language which correspond with them. Sometimes this is straightforward, other times, it is quite difficult.

Once all errors have been identified, they can be described and classified into types. There are several ways of doing this. One way is to classify errors into grammatical categories. Another way might be to try to identify general ways in which the learners' utterances differ from the reconstructed target-language utterances. Such ways include 'omission', 'misinformation', and 'misordering'. Classifying errors in this way can help us to diagnose learners' learning problems at any one stage of their development and, also, to plot how changes in error patterns occur over time.

The identification and description of errors are preliminaries to much more interesting task of trying to explain why they occur. Errors are, systematic and predictable. Also many of them are universal. Errors then can have different sources. Some errors seem to be universal, reflecting learner's attempts to make the task of learning and using the second language simpler.

Some errors are considered more serious than others because they are more likely to interfere with the intelligibility of what someone says. Some errors known as global errors violate the overall structure of a sentence and for this reason may make it difficult to process. Other errors, known as local errors, affect only a single constituent in the sentence and perhaps, less likely to create any processing problems.

3.4 Analysis and Interpretation of the Test and the Results

Once the data had been collected, the next step was to analyze it. There are various techniques of analyzing the data. In this research, the technique used is error analysis. Error analysis illustrates the type of difficulties learners are facing in their learning process. In fact, there are two main approaches used in analyzing second language learners' errors. The first one is known as the "Pre-selected Category", and that is to set the learners' errors into categories, based into preconceptions about the learners' areas of difficulties. Etherton (1977) suggests lists of headings under which errors can be identified. The second approach is known as "Let the Errors Determine the Category". Where the errors are recorded onto separate cards, one error for every card, and then the cards are grouped together into boxes, so that errors can determine categories (Norrish, 1983: 80-83). Accordingly, the researcher identified the problematic areas that the students encounter, by classifying them into categories and illustrating each category with examples. The passages that student tried to punctuate are following:

First passage

What a fantastic place the safari park is! Why haven't you been to visit? There are mischievous monkeys, giant giraffes, and crawling crocodiles. As for other animals, the list is endless: lions, elephants, peacocks, pythons, and so many more. There something to watch all the time: a monkey swinging from a climbing frame, a peacock catching food, a lion climbing a ladder. If you are interested in food, a delicious menu is available, with indoor and outdoor eating. Are you still busy to visit? Surely not! The park is open every day between 8am and 8 pm. So book a date now. The animals are expecting you!

Second passage

I have a dog. He is a Labrador. He is black in color. He wags his tail and licks my face when he is happy. He loves going for walks and chasing a red ball. I take him to school sometimes. Once he saw black cat and wanted to chase her too, but I didn't let him. Is he mad at me? I don't know, but I sure hope he isn't. I love my dog very much, because he always obeys me and follows me everywhere.

After correcting them, mistakes found in the results that are common among students, which will be listed as follows:

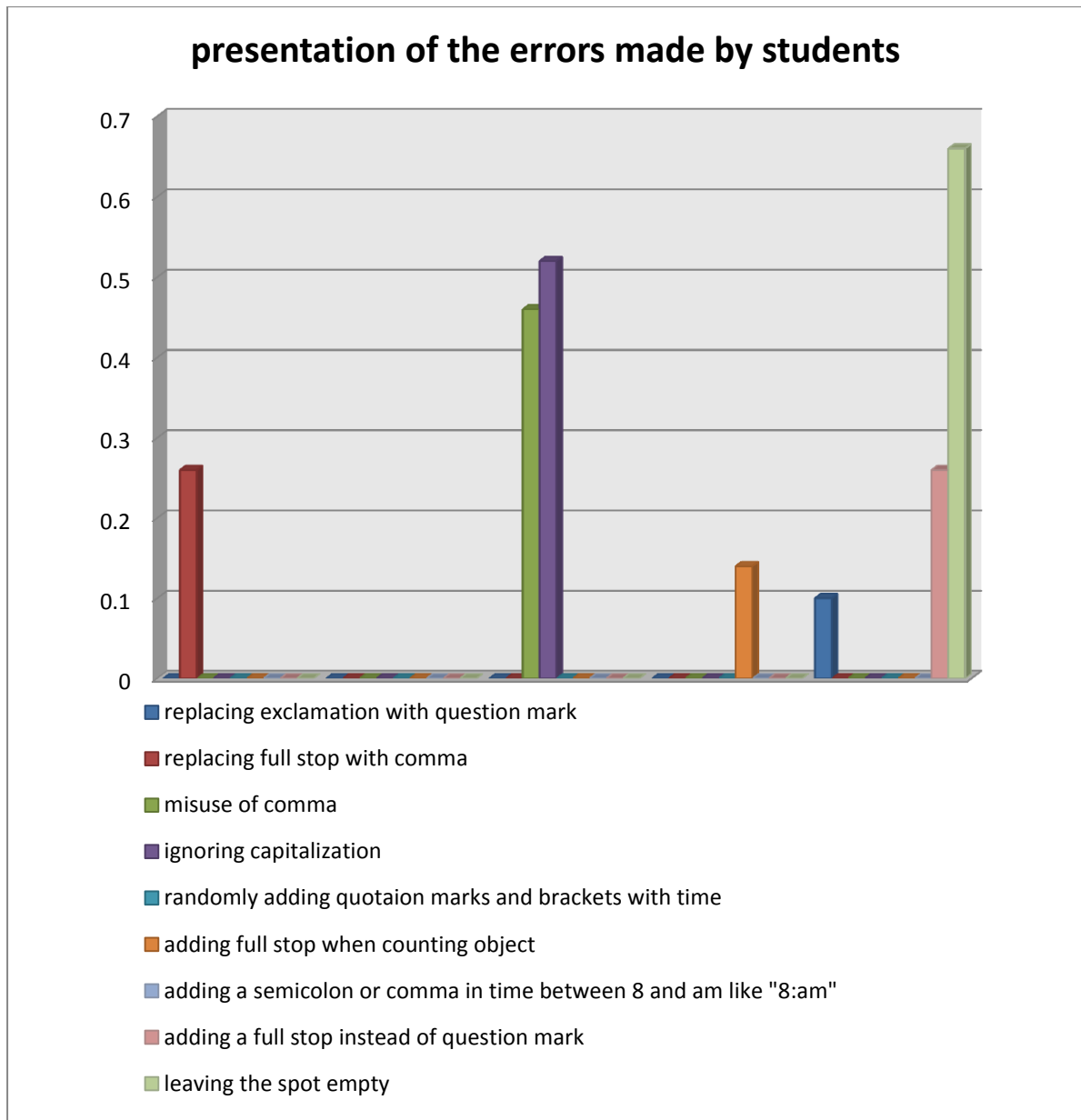
- Adding a full stop when counting objects.
- Adding a semicolon or comma in time between 8 and am like “8: am” .
- Ignoring capitalization, either with names, or after a full stop.
- Leaving the spot empty without punctuating it.
- Misuse of comma.
- Putting a full stop or comma after a question instead of question mark.
- Randomly adding quotation marks and brackets with time.
- Replacing a full stop with comma.
- Replacing an exclamation mark with question mark.

TABLE 1
The punctuations Errors that Most Students Fall in

Error	Percentage
Replacing an exclamation mark with question mark.	10%
Replacing a full stop with comma.	26%
Misuse of comma.	46%
Ignoring capitalization, either with names, or after a full stop.	52%
Randomly adding quotation marks and brackets with time.	8%
Adding a full stop when counting objects	14%
Adding a semicolon or comma in time between 8 and am like “8: am” .	16%
Putting a full stop or comma after a question instead of question mark.	26%
Leaving the spot empty without	66%

punctuating it.	
-----------------	--

Figure 1



The second part of the test had nine sentences each pair of them have the same words, but with different punctuation marks. Students were asked to write the meaning of each sentence separately according to what they understood. The following section will try to analyze this part of the test.

The first two sentences are:

- 1- The prime Minister said, “The leader of the opposition is a fool.”
- 2- “The prime Minister”, said the leader of the opposition, “is a fool.”

In these two sentences, the meaning is completely different. In the first sentence and from what is between quotation marks, the prime minister is literally saying each word that the leader is a fool. The second sentence held the exact opposite meaning that the prime minister is a fool and this is said by the leader. Both the leader and the prime minister are saying something but the fool is a different person every time. Approximately 34% of students wrote the exact interpretations. About 8% of the students provided an incorrect interpret, which might be said far from being correct, while about 24% of students left it unanswered. Here are some examples of students' answers and how they explained the differences (notice that grammar and spelling is not corrected):

Example a:

- 1- The opposition is poor.
- 2- The opposition is fool ~~poor~~

Example b:

- 1- He try to imbress his students.
- 2- He make sure that he is fool.

Example c:

- 1- That means he disagree with this fool.
- 2- (empty)

Example d:

- 1- If the leader of the country good there is no need to opposition.
- 2- If he did not good of the country the opposition it is good and did not fool.

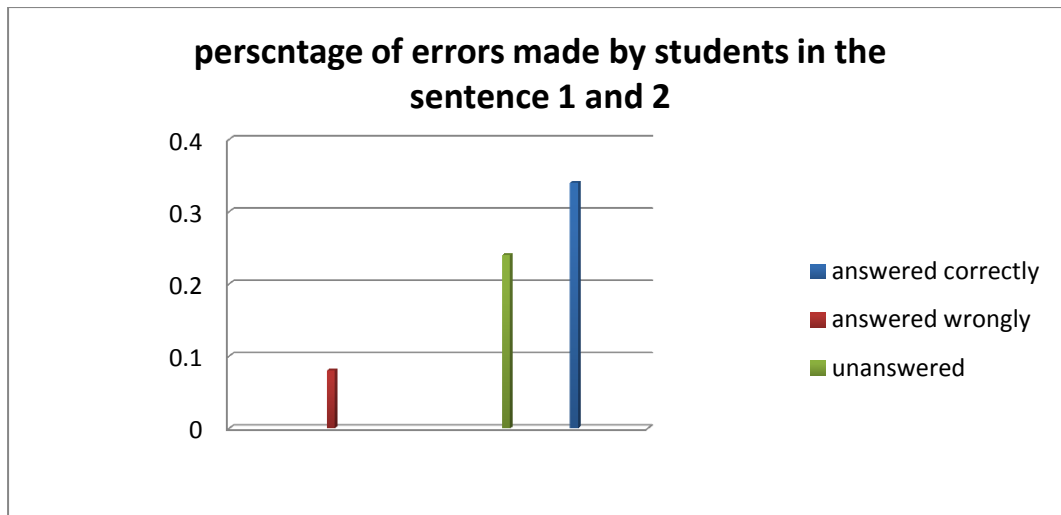


Figure two

Sentences 3 and 4

3- I've lost the oil. Can you find it for me?

4- I've lost the oil can. You find it for me!

In those two sentences, the meaning has completely changed by moving the period one word forward. "I've lost the oil" and "I've lost the oil" can are definitely not same thing. Losing the oil means losing the whole bottle of oil; however, losing the oil can is only losing the top of the bottle that is used to cover the oil. Moreover, the second part of the two sentences is also different; in sentence 3 "Can you find it for me?" Is a straight forward question that starts with a question word and end in a question mark asking for help to find it. In sentence 4 it is an expression sentence that is used to show a surprise state that after losing the cover someone actually found it, and it also ends in an exclamation mark. Here, the students that answered the two sentences correctly are approximately 26%, student answered it wrong are about 18%, where as those left unanswered are 22%. Here are some examples of students' answers and how they explained the differences (notice that grammar and spelling mistakes are not corrected):

Example a:

- 3- Ask for faver.
- 4- He tell you what to do.

Example b:

- 3- Mean he lost something is oil and need someone founding it.
- 4- He demand from someone helping to find it.

Example c:

- 3- This sentence is a question.
- 4- This sentence is exclamation.

Example d:

- 3- He lost the oil.
- 4- The oil had lost.

Example e:

- 3- I'm not understand this statement.
- 4 – Can you looking for the oil.

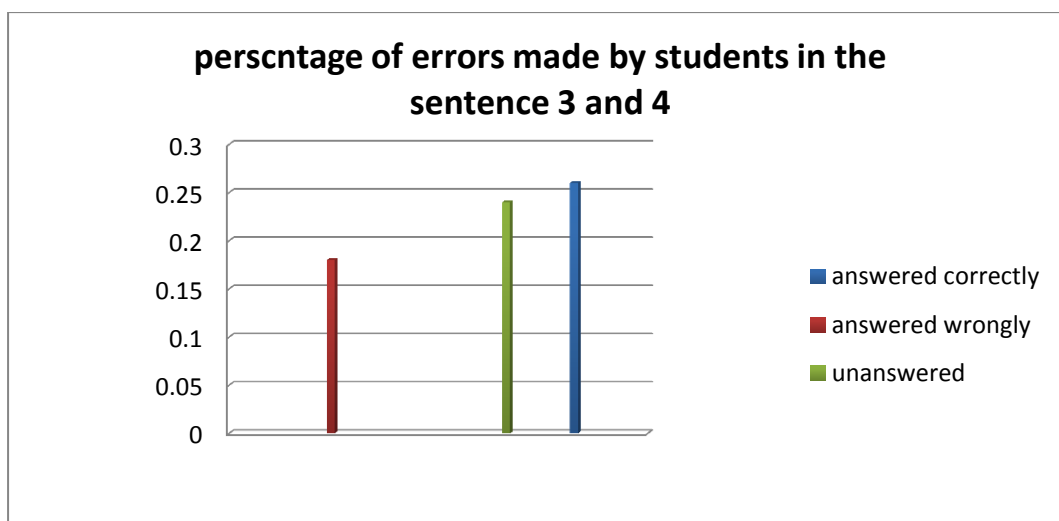


Figure three

Sentences 5, 6, 7 are:

5- I collect silver, paper, hats and chairs.

6- I collect silver paper, hats and chairs.

7- I collect silver, paper hats and chairs.

in sentence (5) there are four collected items that are listed and separated by comma: silver, paper, hats, chairs, which all considered as nouns. However, in sentence (6) the items collected are only three due to a missing comma compared to sentence (5) which is: silver paper, hats, chairs. Here silver paper is no longer a noun, but an adjective that describes a noun, which absolutely has a different meaning when separated with a comma, a hat that is made of silver. The same thing goes with sentence (7) paper hats is completely different in meaning when separated with comma. Here, the percentage of students that answered the three sentences correctly is about 18%, where as the percentage of the once that answered it wrong is 16%, and those who left the questions unanswered are about 32%. Here are some examples of students' answers and how they explained the differences (notice that grammar and spelling mistakes are not corrected):

Example a:

5- Talk about him self.

6- Talk about him self.

7- He show us what he do.

Example b:

5- He select silver, paper, and make from it something useful him.

6- He found tools to make something and thing he needed it.

7- He select silver, because he hats paper and chairs.

Example c:

- 5- Asked people to help silver, collect with each other and chairs.
- 6- Talk with each other about chairs need to collect with hats and chairs.
- 7- Will collect with chairs, paper hats chairs, collect and help silver.

Example d:

- 5- I collect silver and paper individually after that I lost hats and chairs together.
- 6- She collect a silver paper and hats and chairs.
- 7- She collect silver and hats that made from paper and chairs.

Example e:

- 5- This sentence take sentence give reader sme information.
- 6- I think and I understand take about what he collect.
- 7 – This sentence taked about collect paper hates just use important.

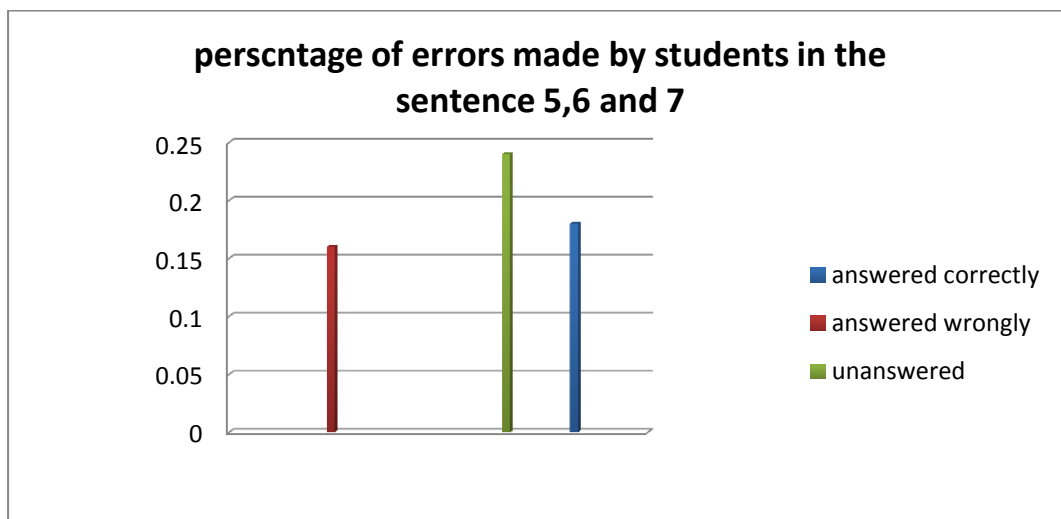


Figure four

Sentences 8 and 9 are:

8- Women say the men are more suitable for that work.

9- Women, say the men, are more suitable for that work.

In those two sentences, the meaning has completely changed by adding two commas. Sentence (8) starts with a capital letter and ends in a period, making the subject Women is the doer of the action, which is, men are more suitable for the work. However, in sentence (9) there is two commas that completely changes the meaning of the sentence compared to sentence (8) where men here are the doer of the action, which is saying that women are more suitable for the work. The percentage of students answering these two sentences correctly is 20%, whereas that whose answer is wrong is about 14%, and students who did not answer about 32%. Here are some examples of students' answers and how they explained the differences (notice that grammar and spelling mistakes are not corrected):

Example a:

8- She can't do it.

9- The man should do it.

Example b:

8- The bodys men and power that have more than women in had work as heavy thing and hard duity.

9- The man stronger than women for hard work.

Example c:

8- Women talk about someone whering a convortabl clouthes for work.

9- The same wome talk about espesific person, more suitable for that work.

Example d :

8- Maybe she mean's, that men's stronger than women's for these jobe.

9- Maybe she wan't to send a message, that sai'd men's suitable than women, to make more simply the good person, in the correct place.

Example e:

8- women said that this type of work just suitable for men.

9 – empty.

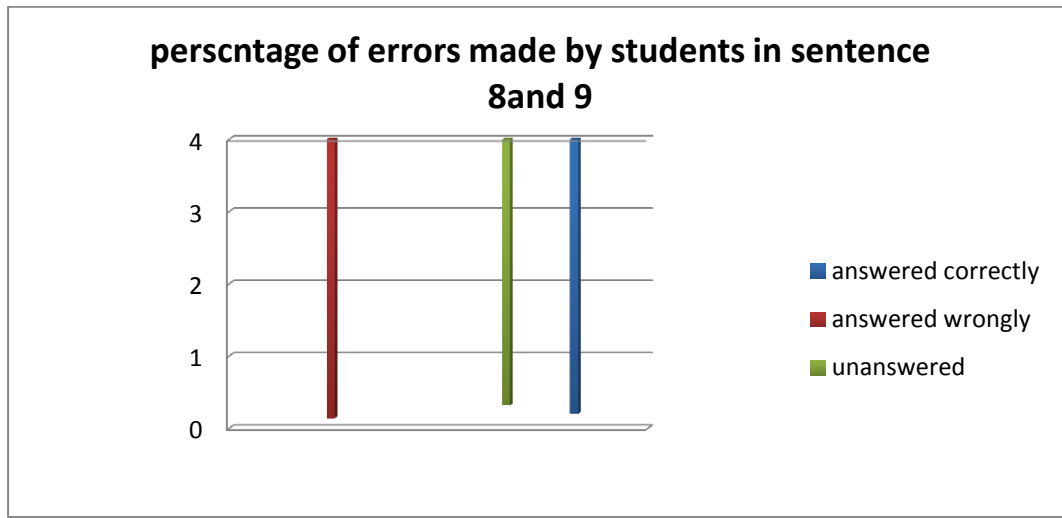


Figure five

Chapter four

Conclusion and Recommendations

4.1 Conclusions

The findings of this research prove the hypothesis posed at the beginning of this study; that is, seventh semester students at the English Department at Benghazi University, really encounter difficulties in the use of punctuation marks. So, it has been found that most of the students who were included in this study, do not have a good command of understanding the meaning of sentences in English after changing the punctuation mark, do not know how to use punctuation marks properly, and therefore they will graduate having problems in understanding what they read.

Also, the findings of this research reveal that most of the students have no idea when to use exclamation mark in the sentence, or what is the difference between an exclamation mark and a question mark. Surprisingly found some students use a period at the end of a question instead of a question mark, or add a period when counting objects instead of a comma.

Moreover, students found difficulties in the appropriate use of a comma, it was found that some students either over used the comma, or misused it instead of a period or even a semicolon.

Furthermore, some of the students tend to use quotation marks and brackets with time, which shows a complete ignorance of the uses of brackets or quotation marks.

It can be said the students at the English Department encounter all the above mentioned difficulties in punctuation marks because of other factors relating to the students themselves. Firstly, a lot of the students are not motivated to learn English;

they joined the Department just to get a job after graduation or to get a degree to satisfy their parents, and some of them do not intend even to do anything with the certificate after getting it, so that they do not care about improving their English.

4.2 Recommendations

Based on the performance of the students and the results, the following are some recommendations that can help in improving the writing skill of students:

- Do not use a comma by itself to join two complete or finished, sentences.
- Do not use a comma to separate the subject from the verb.
- Do not use a comma to separate the verb from the object.
- Do not use a comma with the word *and* when and is used between words or groups of words in a series or list, or when and is used between two subjects, verbs, or objects.

- Do not use a comma before the first word or after the last word in a list or series.
- Do not use a comma between descriptive words if and cannot substitute for the comma.
- Do not use a comma between the name of a state and the zip code.
- Do not use a comma unless there is a reason.
- Do not carelessly use a semicolon instead of a comma.
- Do not use a semicolon to join unfinished sentences to complete sentences.
- Do not use a semicolon with the joining words.
- Do not confuse the semicolon with a colon.
- Do not use ‘ with his, its, ours, yours, or whose.
- Words such as anybody or everyone should not have ‘s added.
- If something belongs to two or more people, use ‘s with only the last of the names.
- Do not confuse its and it’s.
- Do not use ‘s when you need only add s to form the plural of a word.
- Do not use quotation marks around common nicknames, technical terms, or well-known expressions.
- Do not use a period at the end of the title of a song, paper, book, magazine, or newspaper.
- Do not use more capital than you need.
- Do not capitalize the name of a school subject unless it is the name of a specific course or a language.
- Do not capitalize the name of seasons or directions.
- Do not capitalize the names of trees, fruits, vegetables, birds, or flowers.
- Do not capitalize the names of games or sports unless the name is a trademark.
- Do not capitalize the name of a disease unless it is named for a person, and then do not capitalize the word disease.
- Do not capitalize the name of musical instrument.

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Appendixes

Appendix i

Read the following passage and then punctuate it according to its content from your own point of view..

What a fantastic place the safari park is why haven't you been to visit there are mischievous monkeys giant giraffes and crawling crocodiles as for other animals the list is endless lions elephants peacocks pythons and so many more there something to watch all the time a monkey swinging from a climbing frame a peacock catching food a lion climbing a ladder if you are interested in food a delicious menu is available with indoor and outdoor eating are you still busy to visit surely not the park is open every day between 8am and 8 pm so book a date now the animals are expecting you

Appendix ii

Read the paragraph. Then insert the correct punctuation marks and capitalize words wherever necessary. Rewrite the paragraph with the proper punctuation marks in the space provided below.

I have a dog hi is a Labrador he is black in color he wags his tail and licks my face when he is happy he loves going for walks and chasing a red ball I take him to school sometimes once he saw black cat and wanted to chase her too but I didn't let him is he mad at me I don't know but I sure hope he isn't I love my dog very much because he always obeys me and follows me everywhere

Appendix iii

Read the following sentences with different punctuation, and then write down what you understood:

1- The prime Minister said, “The leader of the opposition is a fool.”

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2- “The Prime Minister”, said the leader of the opposition “is a fool.”

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3- I’ve lost the oil. Can you find it for me?

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4- I’ve lost the oil can. You find it for me!

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5- I collect Silver, paper, hats and chairs.

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6- I collect silver paper, hats and chairs.

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7- I collect silver, paper hats and chairs.

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8- Women say the men are more suitable for that work.

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9- Women, say the men, are more suitable for that work.

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بحث للحصول علي درجة الماجستير تحت عنوان (تأثير علامات الترقيم علي المعني بالإشارة الي طلبة الفصل السابع بقسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة بنغازي).

قدمت من قبل:

خلود محمد العبيدي

تحت اشراف :

دكتورة نواره محمد امسلم

ملخص الدراسة:

تقوم هذه الدراسة بمحاولة فهم معرفة الطلبة بكيفية استخدام علامات الترقيم مثل الفاصلة , علامة الاستفهام , علامة التعجب والأقواس وغيرها. يُفترض أنّ استخدام علامات الترقيم من قبل دراسي اللغة الانجليزية الاجانب يُسهم في التحكم في كتابة اللغة الانجليزية بشكل أفضل, كما ان هذه الدراسة تؤدي الي مساعدة الاخرين المهتمين في مجال اللغة الانجليزية. تُطبق هذه الدراسة فرضية تحليل الاخطاء عند إجراء استبيان معرفة الطلبة بموضوع علامات الترقيم من حيث تأثيرها علي المعني و علي القارئ , حيث يخضع الطلبة لامتحان يُطلب فيه وضع علامات الترقيم لأحد النصوص وذلك كي يتم تحديد الاخطاء المشتركة التي يقع فيها جميع من يأخذ الامتحان ,ويتم بعد ذلك تحليل الاجابات وتصنيفها , علي ان تُقدم الاحصاءات و النسب لكل جزء تم اختباره للوصول الي ارقام وإحصاءات دقيقة لتقييم الاخطاء. من المتوقع ان يكون هناك أخطاء في فهم واستخدام بعض من علامات الترقيم مثل (;) وغيرها من علامات الترقيم بغية التركيز علي تدريس ما يرصد من اخطاء متكررة من قبل الطلبة فيما بعد.



تأثير علامات الترقيم علي المعني بالإشارة الي طلبة الفصل السابع بقسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة بنغازي

قدمت من قبل:

خلود محمد العبيدي

تحت اشراف :

دكتورة نورة محمد امسلم

قدمت هذه الرسالة استكمالاً لمتطلبات الحصول على درجة الماجستير في
اللغة الانجليزية.

جامعة بنغازي

كلية الاداب

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