CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Errors

Corder (in Ellis, 1994: 51) states that an error (in this technical sense) takes place when the deviation arises a result of lack of knowledge. It represents lack of competence…

Richards (1985: 95) states that error (in the speech or writing of second or foreign learner), the use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical word, a speech act, etc) in way which a fluent of native speaker of the language regards as showing or incomplete learning. It results from incomplete knowledge.

Richards classifies errors into two kinds: Interlanguage Errors and Intralanguage Errors.

a. Interlanguage Errors

Richards (1970: 2) says that interlanguage errors; that is, errors caused by interference of the learner’s mother tongue.

b. Intralingual Errors

Richards (1970: 3) says that intralingual and developmental errors reflect the learner’s competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition. Their origins are found within the structure of English itself, and through reference to the strategy by which a second language is acquired and taught. The intralingual errors classify errors as follows:
1. Over-generalization

Jacobvits in (Richards, 1970: 6) defines generalization or transfer, as “the use of previously available strategies in new situations…. In second language learning…
some of these strategies will prove helpful in organizing the facts about the second
language but others, perhaps due to superficial similarities will be misleading and
inapplicable.” Richards defines over-generalization covers instances where the
learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in
the target language.

2. Ignorance of Rule Restrictions

Richards (1970: 9) states that closely related to the generalization of deviant
structures, is failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is, the
application of rules to context where they do not apply.

3. Incomplete Application of Rules

Richards (1970: 12) states that under this category we may not the occurrence
of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules
required to produce acceptable utterances.

4. False Concepts Hypothesized

Richards (1970: 14) states that in addition to the wide range of intralingual
errors which have to do with faulty rule learning at various levels, there are a class of
developmental errors which derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the
target language. These are sometimes due to poor gradation of teaching items.
2.2 Punctuation

Punctuation marks are essential when you are writing. They show the reader where sentences start and finish and if they are used properly they make your writing easy to understand. This section gives practical guidance on how to use commas, semicolons, and other types of punctuation correctly, so that your writing will always be clear and effective. (http://oxforddictionaries.com/us/words/punctuation-american). Writer concludes that in writing, the using the right punctuation is very important in order to can understand and catch the meaning.

In analyzing this analysis which are punctuation errors made by the third year students of Junior High School of W.R. Supratman 2 Medan. The writer uses Phyllis Dutwin ‘English Grammar Demystified’ to analyze the usage of punctuation.

2.2.1 Phyllis Dutwin’s Theory

Phyllis Dutwin’s theory ‘English Grammar Demystified’ (Dutwin 2010: 91-124)

2.2.1.1 Period

The period is used to indicate a complete pause in thought.

Rule for Using a Period

a. End a sentence with a period.

1. Correct punctuation promotes comprehension.

b. Put a period after abbreviations.

2. Jan. 1st, Mr. Letterman, A.M., 97 Main St., e.g.

c. Place a period inside quotation marks.

3. Mack said, “I’ll be back at 9 P.M. to pick you up.”

d. Do not end a sentence with a period if it already ends with another end mark such as an exclamation point or question mark.
4. Will you leave for training soon?

e. Do not use a period at the end of a sentence that is enclosed in parentheses and embedded in another sentence.

5. When the trainee heard that she was accepted into the program (she had harbored no hope at all), she was very excited.

f. Use a period at the end of a sentence that is enclosed in parentheses but stands alone.

6. When the trainee heard that she was accepted into the program, she was very excited. (She had harbored no hope at all.)

g. Use only one period at the end of a sentence when the sentence ends in an abbreviation.

7. After school, I’m going to work for All Things Computer, Inc.

Note: Some widely known acronyms (short forms of names or organizations) do not require periods:

8. NBC, UNICEF, NFL, YWCA, CIA, FBI

This also applies to two-letter state abbreviations in zip codes:

9. NY, NJ, CA, MA

2.2.1.2 Question Mark

The question mark, another end mark, has an obvious use: It is used to ask a question or make an inquiry:

10. Are you coming?

Again, when you use a question mark, do not use any other end mark. The exception, of course, is when an abbreviation precedes the question mark. For example:
11. Did you say that Jack is starting his job at All Things Computer, Inc.?

When question marks are used with quotations, their usage is a bit more complicated, but very logical. Look at the following examples:

12. Did you know that Gwen said, “I’m a totally different person than the one I was as a teen”?

13. Gwen said, “Did you know that I’m a totally different person than the one I was as a teen?”

In the first sentence, the question refers to the entire sentence, not just the quoted part, so the question mark is placed outside the quotes. In the second sentence, the quoted portion is the question, so the question mark is placed inside the closing quotation marks.

2.2.1.3 Exclamation Point

The exclamation point is probably the simplest of all end marks. The only challenge is to not overuse it.

14. The detective cried, “This was definitely murder!”

2.2.1.4 Comma

The comma is the most misused punctuation mark. Since there are so many comma rules, it is understandable why people become confused about their use. Commas are supposed to help clarify sentences and note the logical pauses.

Rules for Using the Comma

a. To ensure clarity, use commas to separate items in a series.

   15. Clear the bushes, pull the weeds, and plant the spring flowers.

b. Use commas to separate words or groups of words that interrupt the flow of the
16. Hubert Humphrey, presidential hopeful, lost the election to Richard Nixon.

c. Use a comma to separate more than one adjective describing the same word.

17. The flourishing, bright, and imaginative summer garden lasts only a short while.

Note: *If the word and can be used between the adjectives, you need to use commas.*

18. He wore a heavyweight business suit.

In this example, you cannot use the word *and* between the adjectives *heavyweight* and *business*. Consequently, you should not insert a comma between the two words.

d. Use a comma to separate introductory words from the main part of the sentence, that is, from the part that can stand alone.

19. Before Michael Jordan retired from basketball, he was my favorite player.

e. Insert a comma when the words *nevertheless, however, inasmuch as,* and *therefore* interrupt a complete thought.

20. Unfortunately for Hubert Humphrey, however, his views on Vietnam alienated him from his former supporters.

f. Insert a comma to separate two complete thoughts (independent clauses) that are connected by a word such as *and, but, nor, yet, for,* and *or.*

21. The sun rises in the morning, and it sets in the evening.

Note: *When the clauses on both sides of the comma are complete thoughts, each could stand alone.*

22. “When it started raining, did you offer your friends a ride home?” she asked.

h. Use commas to separate the day from the year and the year from the rest of the sentence.
23. Do you expect to graduate on June 23, 2009?

i. Use a comma to separate the name of a city from the name of a state or country.

24. We grew up in Austin, Texas.

j. A comma is used in both the salutation and the closing of a friendly letter.

25. Dear Elizabeth,

k. When a sentence begins with a complete thought followed by an incomplete thought, a comma is not necessary,


27. Correct: I always eat a hearty breakfast before any activity.

l. When a sentence has one subject, a comma is not necessary to separate two verbs.

28. Incorrect: Harry returned to the polling place, and picked up the car keys he had left in the booth.

29. Correct: Harry returned to the polling place and picked up the car keys he had left in the booth.

   Note: Harry is the subject. He did two things, that is, he returned and picked up.

2.2.1.5 Semicolon

How to Use a Semicolon

a. Use a semicolon between closely related independent clauses not joined by a coordinating conjunction.

30. We’ve had extremely cold and wet weather this spring; my annual flowers are a month behind in growth.

b. Use a semicolon to connect independent clauses linked with a conjunctive adverb.

31. I can’t finish preparing the feast in one day; indeed, I may not be done in three days.
c. The semicolon is also used to connect other elements of equal weight. For example, use a semicolon between items in a series when the series contains internal punctuation.

32. My territory includes Detroit, Michigan; San Jose, California; and Jacksonville, Florida.

d. For clarity, use a semicolon to separate independent clauses that are joined by coordinating conjunctions when the clauses have internal punctuation that might lead to confusion.

33. In most cases, the counselor in charge will communicate with the parents; but on weekends, however, if the counselor in charge is not available, Dr. Alper will take that responsibility.

Remember that semicolons are always followed by a lowercase letter, unless that letter begins a proper noun.

Joining Complete Thoughts with a Semicolon

A semicolon is a strong mark of punctuation that, unlike the period, can be used in the middle of a sentence to join two complete thoughts. Semicolons join independent clauses. You may recall that an independent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought.

You may recall the quote from John Kennedy’s inaugural speech:

34. Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country.

Obviously, President Kennedy wanted the listener (reader) to fully appreciate how closely related the two thoughts were, that two requests existed simultaneously. In this case, a semicolon achieves this better than a period.

Go back much further to the King James Version of the Bible (1611) at Genesis.
Read the first part of the second verse in Genesis:

35. “And the earth was without form, and void; and darkness was upon the face of the deep . . .”

In this verse, the semicolon allows the reader to explore and add a deeper meaning to the first clause. The basic idea here is that “. . . the earth was without form, and void.” The next clause, “and darkness was upon the face of the deep,” gives the reader further detail, a clearer idea of what the formless earth looked like.

Other examples:

36. Two people started this project; only one person remains.

37. Bindu has a four-year-old daughter; the child is being raised according to her Indian heritage.

Either half of the Kennedy sentence as well as the preceding sentences could stand independently. Sometimes, however, for variety, we want to join thoughts that are closely related; we use a semicolon to do that. Otherwise, we might have a long series of not-too-interesting short sentences.

Notice that a comma would not work in place of the semicolon in the following sentence. In fact, you would create a common, serious error that is covered that is the run-on sentence. You cannot separate two complete thoughts with a comma:

38. Incorrect: Two people started this project, only one person remains.

You can, however, separate two thoughts with a comma and a conjunction in place of the semicolon.

39. Correct: Two people started this project, but only one person remains.

In summary, you can write one sentence three ways, each being correct:
40. I don’t like the terms of the contract. I will not sign it.
41. I don’t like the terms of the contract; I will not sign it.
42. I don’t like the terms of the contract, so I will not sign it.

Remember that you need a complete sentence on both sides of a semicolon:
43. Incorrect: While I’ve read through the complaint once; I’m not ready to sign it.
44. Correct: I’ve read through the complaint once; I’m not ready to sign it.

Which word in the first sentence makes the punctuation incorrect? The word *while* makes the first half of the sentence an incomplete thought. When you say the first sentence aloud, you want to ask, “What then?” Consequently, you can’t use a semicolon. A comma would be correct.

45. While I’ve read through the complaint once, I’m not ready to sign it.

What’s wrong with the following sentences?
46. Since I’m late already; I won’t stop for coffee.
47. When the car stopped suddenly; my son was restrained by a seat belt.
48. If the seller accepts our offer; we’ll be in our new house by June 1st.

The answer to the question asked before the examples is that the first half of each sentence is introduced by a word (i.e., *since, when, if*) that makes the introductory clause incomplete; it can’t stand alone, so the semicolon is incorrect. Insert commas instead.

49. Since I’m late already, I won’t stop for coffee.
50. When the car stopped suddenly, my son was restrained by a seat belt.
51. If the seller accepts our offer, we’ll be in our new house by June 1st.

Avoiding Confusion with Semicolons and Commas

Using a semicolon sounds easy enough; for variety, just join two complete thoughts with a semicolon instead of a period. Or join two complete thoughts with a comma
plus a connecting word such as *and, but, or*. However, if you do this, there is the potential for a problem. On occasion, two complete and related thoughts already contain commas. What can you do to avoid confusion?

52. I usually buy organic blueberries, strawberries, and grapes; but I don’t buy them as often when the prices go up in the winter.

Normally, as noted earlier, two related thoughts can be connected by a comma when you use the word *but*:

53. I usually buy organic strawberries, but I don’t buy them as often when the prices go up in the winter.

However, with all the commas in the original first clause (*blueberries, strawberries, and grapes*), you need to avoid the confusion that too many commas can cause. When this occurs, use a semicolon before the small connecting word:

54. Candy, my calico cat, is not very large; but even though she never wins, she tries to fight the local dogs.

Finally, use a semicolon between items in a series that contains internal punctuation. For example:

55. There are beautiful historic mansions in Newport, Rhode Island; Lake Geneva, Wisconsin; and Hudson Valley, New York.

This is sometimes called a *serial semicolon*—for obvious reasons.

Using Semicolons with Conjunctive Adverbs

The connecting words in the previous sentences were all short ones—*but, yet, so*. What if the connecting word you need is a long word? The following longer connecting words (conjunctive adverbs) are always preceded by a semicolon and followed by a comma when used to connect two complete thoughts.
For example:

56. The realtor, an old friend of mine, prepared the sales agreement; however, we held up the signing until our financing was approved.

57. Marcello, my Italian friend, is a chef in Florence; nevertheless, he is currently in Boston taking classes and demonstrating his amazing skills.

2.2.1.6 Quotation Marks

Quotation marks are used to set off the exact words said by someone. Notice the difference between a direct and an indirect quotation:

58. Direct quotation: My doctor said, “You should worry more about taking antibiotics you don’t need than about not taking one at all.”

59. Indirect quotation: My doctor said that I should worry more about taking an antibiotic I don’t need than about not taking one at all.

In the second sentence, which small word tells you that this is an indirect quotation, that you don’t need quotation marks? The word is that. That introduces the report of something said.

Look at the following examples:

60. Incorrect: My doctor continued many upper respiratory infections are viral, so antibiotics won’t help.

61. Correct: My doctor continued, “Many upper respiratory infections are viral, so antibiotics won’t help.”

62. Incorrect: She explained that “bacteria almost immediately learn how to override
our prescription.”

63. Correct: She explained that bacteria almost immediately learn how to override our prescription.

No quotations marks are needed. The word that makes this sentence a report of what the doctor said, not a direct quote.

64. Incorrect: She advised, always ask three questions before you accept the prescription: Is it necessary, is there a less powerful drug, and can I wait a few days to see if I get better?

65. Correct: She advised, “Always ask three questions before you accept the prescription: Is it necessary, is there a less powerful drug, and can I wait a few days to see if I get better?”

Remember to capitalize the first word in the direct quotation.

How to Use Quotation Marks

a. Use quotation marks to set off the exact words of a speaker. Place a comma between the speaker and the quoted words. A period is placed inside a quotation. A semicolon is placed outside the closing quotation mark.

66. You said, “Plan a partner’s desk for me”; so I planned one.

b. When a quotation is broken, use quotation marks to set off both parts. Capitalize the first word of the second part of the quotation only if it is the beginning of a new sentence.

67. “Well, how could we have been on time,” she asked, “when the traffic was bumper-to-bumper the entire way?”

68. “Well, how could we have been on time?” he complained. “The traffic was bumper-to-bumper the entire way!”
c. Never use two forms of punctuation at the end of a quotation. When the entire sentence is a question, but the quotation is not, place the question mark after the closing quotation marks.

69. Did you hear Henry say, “Give your time to the charity if you don’t have any money to spare”?

70. Was Mark’s request, “Be in early tomorrow, people,” the last thing you heard before you left?

When the quoted portion is a question, place the question mark inside the quotation marks.

71. Henry said, “Can you give some of your time to the charity instead of giving cash?”

72. Alicia responded, “Can you give me time off so that I can give that time to charity?”

d. Rule c in the previous section applies to the exclamation mark as well: Place it outside the quotation marks if it refers to the entire sentence; place it inside the quotation marks if it refers to the quotation only.

73. “Please give! We’re desperate for cash to carry on our important work!” the director pleaded.

74. I’m sure you heard how furious I was when he said, “We’ll meet again tomorrow and the next day as well”!

e. Use quotation marks to enclose titles of poems, articles, chapters, or any part of a book or magazine.


f. Use a single quotation mark for a quotation within a quotation.
76. Jason asked, “Can you tell me if Marc said, ‘I’ve already paid off the cost of the repairs’ when you discussed his financial situation?”

2.2.1.7 Colon

Both the colon and the semicolon can be used to build better, more interesting sentences. Good writers use these marks of punctuation to build memorable sentences. You know that you can use a semicolon to join two sentences to create a compound sentence when the two thoughts are closely related. On the other hand, you can use a colon when the first sentence creates an expectation in the reader that the second sentence will explain, illustrate, or fulfill the idea stated in the first sentence.

We’ve quoted John F. Kennedy; now fast-forward to Barack Obama’s one line in his speech to the Democratic Convention, August 2008.

77. *That’s the true genius of America: America can change*. Our union can be perfected. What we’ve already achieved gives us hope for what we can and must achieve tomorrow.

What does the colon accomplish in the first sentence? It clearly helps fulfill the expectation set in the first half of the sentence. What is the true genius of America? The answer follows the colon.

Here is another example of building ideas with punctuation from Barack Obama’s acceptance speech in Chicago:

78. And for the sake of our economy, our security, and the future of our planet, I will set a clear goal as President: In ten years, we will finally end our dependence on oil from the Middle East.
What is the clear goal? The answer follows the colon.

After all the rules you’ve learned about various punctuation marks, you’ll find the colon has very few. However, the colon offers the writer an opportunity for variety in sentence structure; consequently, it is a valuable addition to your writing power.

How to Use the Colon

a. Use a colon to introduce a list, as in the following sentence.

79. Assemble these ingredients for the cake: flour, sugar, baking powder, eggs, and vanilla.

b. Use a colon to introduce an explanation.

80. I have a motto about getting distasteful chores done fast: Make a list of the chores, put a limit on the time you will devote to the work, and start with the one you dislike the most.

When you use the colon correctly, the information that comes before the colon should be able to stand alone as a complete thought. Otherwise, you should not use a colon.

81. Incorrect: I ordered: potatoes, sugar, flour, eggs, and coffee.

Also, if the information that comes after the colon is a complete sentence (as in the first example for Rule b), use a capital letter, as you would normally do in the beginning of a sentence.

Look at another example:

82. Children will take up activities if you supply some good ideas for play: Color and paint in an art center that you create, cut up used holiday cards and paste them as stickers, choose a costume from a costume box and create a play or dance routine.
Note: In the preceding sentence, the words before the colon could stand alone as a sentence. What would happen if you added the words which are after good ideas for play?

83. Children will take up activities if you supply some good ideas for play which are:
   color and paint in an art center that you create, cut up used holiday cards to paste as stickers, choose a costume from a costume box and create a play or dance routine.

You now see a common colon error. To avoid it, do not use a verb before the colon—in this case the verb is the word are.

Other Uses of the Colon

Use a colon after the salutation in a business letter:

84. Dear Dr. Murphy:

85. Dear Mrs. Light:

Use a colon between numbers to show the time:

86. 1:45 P.M.

2.2.1.8 Apostrophe

For a very small mark of punctuation, the apostrophe can cause a big problem. You need to use it correctly for clarity, and here are the rules you need to know.

How to Use an Apostrophe

Use an apostrophe to show the omission of a letter. In the following three examples, the o’s are omitted.

87. You weren’t (were not) expected until noon.

88. My other friend isn’t (is not) coming.

89. There aren’t (are not) enough days in a New England summer.
Note: Ain’t is not a word and is never acceptable in written or spoken English.

Use an apostrophe to show possession. Apostrophes are placed differently according to whether the word is singular or plural as well as the way a particular word forms its plural.

90. Singular: The printer’s door is jammed. (Singular printer: Place the apostrophe before the s.)

91. Plural: The three executives’ offices face the parking lot. (Plural executives: Place the apostrophe after the s.)

Exceptions: Its is the possessive form of it. However, it’s means it is. His and hers are the possessive forms of he and she.

92. The dog puts its ears back when it is angry. (Possessive form of it.)

93. It’s a perfect day for a picnic. (It’s means it is.)

94. Hers is the new Apple computer. (Hers is the possessive form of she.)

95. He picked up his daughter. (His is the possessive form of he.)

Use an apostrophe to indicate the plural of letters in order to avoid confusion.

96. A’s, B’s, I’s, L’s, v’s, c’s, W’s, Z’s

2.2.1.9 Dash and Hyphen

Take a look at the small, but important, differences in length between a hyphen, en-dash, and em-dash. Hyphens and dashes look slightly different, and, in fact, they are used for different purposes: hyphen - en dash – (the width of a capital n) em dash — (the width of a capital m)

a. Em Dash

Use em dashes—one on each side of the interrupting thought—to emphasize an interruption within a sentence. Remember this one caution: Don’t overuse them.
Here’s an example:

97. Call me if you’re going to be late—even 15 minutes—or I will worry about you.

The preceding sentence shows an example of an em dash. As you saw, the em dash signaled an abrupt, emphatic break in the sentence. If your word processor lacks this character, just type two hyphens, with no space on either side.

The em dash can also be used to amplify a thought or indicate a sudden break:

98. Her painting was reminiscent of the great painters—Monet, Manet, Bonnard—who preceded her.

In addition, the em dash can be used with another form of punctuation, a question mark or exclamation point:

99. Suddenly, my son—was he out of his mind?—yelled at the police officer.

b. En Dash

The en dash is used chiefly to connect numbers and sometimes words.

100. They lived in Italy from 1989–1993. (The en dash means to.)

When an en dash is used with the birth year, it means that the person is still alive.


The professor was born in 1978 and is still living.

c. Hyphen

You may want to think of hyphens as spelling devices. Their most common use is to join compound words. Look at the following example:

102. brother-in-law

Use a hyphen to join two or more words serving as a single adjective before a noun:
103. chocolate-covered cake

On the other hand, if the compound modifiers come after the noun, don’t use a hyphen:

104. The cake was chocolate covered.

Use a hyphen with compound numbers:

105. fifty-three

Use a hyphen with the prefixes ex- (meaning “former”), all-, self-; between a prefix and a capitalized word; with the suffix -elect; and with figures or letters:

106. ex-wife

Use a hyphen to avoid confusion regarding meaning or to avoid an awkward combination of letters:

107. re-sign your name (not resign [leave a job])

108. semi-independent (vs. semicircular)

Use a hyphen when you need to break a word at the end of a line. Break between syllables:

109. un-til

Break between double consonants in words ending in -ing. Otherwise, hyphenate at the suffix:

110. run-ning

At the end of a line, divide already-hyphenated words at the hyphen:

111. self-induced
2.2.1.10 Parentheses and Brackets

Use parentheses for words not strictly necessary to the main thought of the sentence. The rule of thumb is this: When you read the sentence, you should be able to skip the words in parentheses and still have the sentence make sense. If it doesn’t, the parentheses are used incorrectly.

112. Use heavy-weight (bright white) printing paper

In this sentence, the meaning and intention are clear without the additional information in the parentheses.

Do not use a capital letter or final punctuation (except the question mark) within parentheses. For example:

113. I left for Arizona on a Friday (or was it Saturday?) last year.

Use parentheses to enclose letters or numbers that mark items in a list:

114. The chapters include (1) Birth to Six Months Old, (2) Six to 18 Months Old, (3) etc.

Note that parentheses do not change the final punctuation in a sentence:

115. The movie was written by Harvey Allen (1934–1998).

Of course, when the parentheses hold a complete sentence, the punctuation goes inside the parentheses:

116. The movie was written by Harvey Allen. (He was born in 1934.)

Use brackets within parentheses and within a quotation for clarity. For example:

117. We traveled in Europe (Italy [Florence and Rome], Belgium, and England).

118. Arben said, “We read famous short stories aloud [Poe and O. Henry] just for the fun of it.”
2.3 Capitalization

Phyllis Dutwin’s theory ‘English Grammar Demystified’ (Dutwin 2010: 127-133)

The Rules of Capitalization

a. Capitalize the first letter of the first word in a sentence.
   119. Books make a great gift.

b. Capitalize the pronoun I and the interjection O or Oh.
   120. I decided to stay home for dinner.
   121. And Oh! that even now the gust were swelling (“Dejection,” a poem by Samuel Taylor Coleridge)

c. Capitalize the first letter of the first word in each new line of poetry if the poet has capitalized it.
   122. What is so rare as a day in June?

d. Capitalize the deity, place names, street names, persons’ names and initials, organization names, languages, and specific course names.
   123. God in His Universe, Allah, Columbia River, New York City, New York, Main Street, John T. McMasters, American Red Cross, Spanish I, Algebra, Modern European History

e. Capitalize Mother, Dad, and other titles if you can insert the person’s name, and titles like Grandma and Major when they appear with a formal name. If you can replace the “mother/mom” or “father/dad” with the person’s formal name, “Mother/Mom” or “Father/Dad” should be capitalized.
   124. Mother is really my best friend.
   125. Donna is really my best friend.

If you cannot replace the “mother/mom” or “father/dad” with the person’s formal name, then “mother/mom” or “father/dad” should not be capitalized.
126. My father is really tall.

127. Fred is really tall.

f. Capitalize days, months, holidays, and special days.

128. Monday, May, Christmas, New Year’s Day, Martin Luther King Day

g. Capitalize historical events, documents, periods, or movements but not the small words that surround them.

129. World War II (not In World War II); Declaration of Independence (not Declaration Of Independence); Magna Carta, Middle Ages, Romantic Movement

h. Capitalize names of organizations, businesses, and institutions.

130. The American Red Cross, American Airlines, Providence County Mental Health

i. Capitalize specific places, structures, or geographic locations. Carefully consider the names of places. Capitalize directions that are names (North, South, East, and West when used as sections of the country, but not as compass directions). We capitalize the Middle East and Southeast Asia, because these regions have their own distinctive identity; however, we write central Europe and southeast Rome, because these regions are not thought of as having the same kind of identity. Note, too, the difference between South Africa (the name of a particular country) and southern Africa (a vaguely defined region).

131. The Ku’s have moved to the Southwest.

132. Mac’s house is two miles north of Providence.

133. Turn south at the next corner.

Other examples include:

134. the Lake District; Newport, RI; Radio City Music Hall; the Northeast; the
j. Capitalize the names of languages, races, and nationalities.

135. English, Native American, Portuguese

k. Capitalize religions and their followers.

136. Christianity, Christian; Islam, Muslim; Judaism, Orthodox Jew

l. Capitalize religious terms for sacred persons and things.

137. Christ, Allah, Buddha, the Bible, and the Koran

m. Capitalize the Roman numerals and the letters of the first major topics in an outline.

138. I, II, III, A, B, C,

n. Capitalize the first word of a direct quotation.

139. My son asked, “Will you buy me a guitar for my birthday?”

o. In a broken quotation, capitalize the first word in the second part of the quotation only if it starts a new sentence.

140. “I’ll start the meeting,” she said, “if you will finish it after lunch.”

141. “I’ll start the meeting,” she said. “You can finish it after lunch.” (You starts a new sentence.)

p. Do not capitalize the report of something said.

142. My son asked if I would buy him a guitar for his birthday.

q. Capitalize brand names but not products.

143. Dodge, Xerox, Kleenex tissue

r. Capitalize titles when they precede proper names, but not when they follow proper names or are used alone.

144. Principal Walters, Superintendent Konner

145. Example: Mr. Walters, principal; Mr. Konner, superintendent
146. Example: *The Secret Life of Bees, Romeo and Juliet*

The writer uses this theory because more details and has depth explanation of the usage of punctuation than other theories. Each type of punctuation consists of explanation about the rules, some examples and also some examples of incorrect usage of punctuation and the correct. By this theory, it makes easier the writer recognizes the punctuation errors in students’ test.

### 2.4 The Relevant Studies

1. An Analysis of Language, Grammatical, Punctuation, Letter-Form Errors of Fourth-Grade Children Life Letters (Parks, 1938)

   Parks uses Geoghegan and Kremer as her references in her study because they have courses of the study that had done such as Geoghegan about Composition and Letter-Form Errors in Fifth-Grade Children’s Life Letters and Kremer about A Study of Errors in Letters of Sixth-Grade Children. (Parks 1938: 30). Her methods are collection and sorting the letters, construct of a check list for tabulating errors, tabulate the errors, and give and an experiment for checking consistency in tabulation of errors. (Parks 1938: 27-41). The Result is the average number of language errors per letter for all letters at fourth-grade level was 4.51. The effect of age on the amount of error is evident from the following facts. For nine-year old children, the average number of language errors per letter was 4.11; for ten-year old children, 4.68; for children of other ages, 4.55 errors per letter, the average number of formal grammar errors per letter for all letters at fourth-grade level was 1.00. The amount of formal grammar error decreased for each age level. The average number of errors per
letter for each age level was as follows: nine-year old children 1.44; ten-year old children 1.52; children of other ages, mostly older. .90, There was more error in punctuation than in any other composition usage in these 750 letters of fourth-grade children. The average number of punctuation errors per letter was 7.10. Ten-year old children made more errors than their younger or older classmates. Fewer errors were made by fourth-grade children eleven and older, than by either nine or ten-year old children. The average number of errors for each group was: nine-year old children, 6.89; ten-year old children, 7.78; children of other ages, 6.72, and in these letters, fourth-grade children showed little care for letter form. The type of stationery on which many of the letters were written rendered difficult the observance of some of the standards of good form. Very small sized picture stationery, or sheets of paper taken from a tablet or notebook were the usual mediums of writing. Many of the letters were written in pencil. Few were properly placed on the paper, and margins were usually omitted. (Parks 1938: 109-113).

The contributions for this analysis are the errors of punctuation are categorized then give an example of the errors in each of the category and the errors can be presented in column. There are some differences, namely, they use the previous courses of study as references to analyze the errors, analyze the errors determine the effect of age, sex, and place of school attendance, and use an experiment to check the consistency of the tabulation errors, whereas in this analysis, the writer uses a theory about punctuation from Phyllis Dutwin ‘English Grammar Demystified’, does not determine the errors based on their age, sex, and place of school attendance, and does not use an experiment.

2. The Most Common Punctuation Errors Made by the English and the TEFL Majors at An-Najah National University (Awad, 2012)
Awad arranges his study in regarding the other researcher’s works. One of some studies he uses as reference is Meyer (1985) found that educators see punctuation accuracy as the difference between “good” writing and, “bad” writing. (Awad 2012 : 216). His method is descriptive statistics that includes frequency of punctuation errors, percentages and of (χ²). He uses a comprehension passage without punctuation marks and asking the students to insert the correct punctuation marks was the tool used to collect the necessary data. He uses the comprehension passage as it requires from students to refer to almost all punctuation marks. (Awad 2012: 222). The result as the following:

Table (2): Result of the most common mistakes among English and the TEFL majors at An-Najah National University. (Awad 2012: 224-226).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Punctuation Mark</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comma</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semicolon</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>16.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quotation</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>12.64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital Letters</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>21.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (3): The result of (χ²) test due to gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Comma</th>
<th>Semicolon</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Quotation</th>
<th>Capital</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>x²</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.806</td>
<td>0.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>509</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>1056</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4): The result of χ² test due to department.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Comma</th>
<th>Semicolon</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Quotation</th>
<th>Capital</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>x²</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eng. dept</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.181</td>
<td>0.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods of Teaching</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>498</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>465</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>1056</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

significant at α = .05
Table (5): The result of $\chi^2$ test due to academic level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Level</th>
<th>Comma</th>
<th>Semicolon</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Quotation</th>
<th>Capital</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>191.349</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>403</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>278</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>217</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>541</td>
<td>1858</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

significant at $\alpha = .05$

The contributions for this analysis are the addition theory the term of punctuation and comma splices as insights and uses comprehension passage without punctuation marks so that they are asked insert the appropriate punctuation marks. There are some differences, namely, he uses research works to arrange his analysis, uses descriptive statistics method, and they use study variables of the distribution of sample that consist of gender, department, and academic level, whereas in this analysis, the writer uses descriptive qualitative method and does not study variables in distribution of sample.

3. Syntactical and Punctuation Errors : An Analysis of Technical Writing Students

Science College, Taif University, KSA (Alamin and Ahmed, 2012)

Alamin and Ahmed analyze the errors with using a reference that is about intralingual interference which associated with the developmental sequence of learning English for technical communication in form of speaking, listening, reading and writing, rather than to interference of the mother tongue. (Alamin and Ahmed 2012: 2). Their methods are collected from homework assignments and writing compositions of one hundred students. They focus on the possible ways in which errors could be avoided in their gradual process of learning English for technical communication. (Alamin and Ahmed 2012: 4). The result is the syntactical errors consists of omission of indefinite articles (a, an), choosing the technical verbs,
adjectives and adverbs, using the simple present and present continuous tenses, plurality, the possessive genitive, question forms, passive and active voice, and compound nouns, and punctuation errors consists of starting new sentences with lower case letters, not using capital letters for proper nouns, using the colon incorrectly, using the semicolon incorrectly at the beginning of the passages and after the words, the exclamation mark hardly used, forgetting to use full stops at the end of a sentence, not using enough space between words, hardly using question marks, and hardly using hyphens. (Alamin and Ahmed 2012: 4-7). The contribution for this analysis is all students who are used as sample, required to have studied English as foreign language for five to ten years. In this analysis, the writer takes sample from the third year students of junior high school. There are some differences, namely, they collect data from homework assignments and writing compositions, whereas in this analysis, the writer uses a theory about punctuation from Phyllis Dutwin ‘English Grammar Demystified’ and only collects data from test that the students are asked to insert the correct punctuation marks in paragraphs and sentences.