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**Department of grammar and practical course of the English
language**

**Theme: “PUNCTUATION RULES OF THE
SENTENCE CONTAINING DIRECT SPEECH”**

COURSE WORK

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Introduction

In order to acquaint international community with the achievements and results of the reform in the sphere of continuous education development in Uzbekistan, the role of the government in training highly educated, intellectually advanced generation, under the patronage of President of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov the International Conference “Upbringing of Educated and Intellectually Advanced Generation – the Most Important Condition of Sustainable Development and Modernization of the Country” was held on 16-17 February, 2012. About 1000 people, 300 of them are representatives of foreign and prestigious international organizations, leaders of educational and research institutes, scholars, scientists and specialists in the sphere of education, science and culture participated in the Forum. There were six sessions of the sections in the course of which questions outlined in the agenda were discussed and perspectives of concrete types of education development and trends of activity of continuous education were determined, namely:

1. School Education is the Basis for Upbringing of Intellectually Advanced Generation.
2. Vocational Education and Establishment of Modern Labor Market.
3. Priorities of Development of Higher Education and its Role in Modernization of the Country.
4. Modern Information-Communicative Technologies in the Educational Process.
5. Education and Science– Continuous Relations.
6. Education and Development of Culture.

The Conference enabled to exchange mutual experience, analyze the results of the implementation of the Laws of the Republic of Uzbekistan “On Education” and “National Program of Personnel Training”, on the basis of it to define evidence-based tendencies and highlight number of issues requiring their solution in the nearest perspectives in the system of continuous education of

Uzbekistan and to work out agreed recommendations on the problems of improving of organization and content of education and upgrading of personnel training quality as well as developing international cooperation.

The participants of the Conference outlined the peculiarities of developing education in the world and in Uzbekistan at the current stage, and underlined its important role in providing sustainable development and modernization of economy and social sphere, highlighted important functions of education in cultural and spiritual renovation of the society, and formation of new public conscious. At present education is considered as a main factor and unprecedented condition of socio-economic progress, the most important value and basic capital of modern society, priority and a powerful force in progress is an individual who is able for searching, thinking independently and creatively in mastering of new knowledge, socio-professional activity and creation.¹

In this Course work we've set forth to study punctuation rules, their types and ways of using, to consider the function of grammar in everyday life of the humanity.

Writing has three distinct advantages over speaking:

1. In writing, you can take it back. The spoken word, however, cannot be revised. Once you make a statement verbally, it affects your listeners in a particular way and you can't "take it back" or rephrase it to the point that the first statement is forgotten. However, if you write a statement and, after looking at it, realize that it sounds offensive or incorrect, you can revise it before giving it to

the intended audience .Writing is a careful, thoughtful way of communicating.

2. Writing forces you to clarify your thoughts. If you're having trouble writing, it's often because you're not yet finished with the thinking part.

Sometimes, just sitting down and writing whatever is on your mind helps you discover and organize what you think.

3. Another advantage is permanence. Ideas presented in writing carry far more weight than spoken ideas. Additionally, they can be reviewed and

referred to in their exact, original form. Spoken ideas rely upon the sometimes inaccurate memories of other people.

Writing is nothing more than thought on paper— considered, organized thought. Many people are protective of their thoughts and, therefore, prefer to keep them hidden inside their heads. Many great ideas and observations are never born because their creators won't express them. Writing rules can help you express your ideas in clear, grammatically correct ways. After you learn how to insert commas and semicolons correctly, clearly some punctuation rules especially, then you may do it easily .

More and more jobs these days require at least some writing. So I'll try to show specific features of punctuation rules of the sentence on my course work. It will show us what we already know and what we need to learn about grammar, mechanics, and punctuation.

No one can sit down and write polished memos, reports, or letters without changing (or revising) them at least slightly. Even professionals have to revise their work. For instance, writer Ernest Hemingway had to revise the last page of his famous novel” *A Farewell to Arms*” 39 times before he was satisfied.

The first chapter: The sentence and its types

Sentence (linguistics)

There are different concepts of the term sentence and I tried to give all of them and to show their difference. They are followings:

1. A **sentence** is a linguistic unit consisting of one or more words that are grammatically linked. A sentence can include words grouped meaningfully to express a statement, question, exclamation, request, command or suggestion. A sentence is a set of words that in principle tells a complete thought, although it may make little sense taken in isolation out of context. Typically a sentence contains a subject and predicate. A sentence can also be defined purely in orthographic terms, as a group of words starting with a capital letter and ending in a full stop. (However, this definition is useless for unwritten languages, or languages written in a system that does not employ both devices, or precise analogues thereof.) For instance, the opening of Charles Dickens's novel *Bleak House* begins with the following three sentences:

London. Michaela's term lately over, and the Lord Chancellor sitting in Lincoln's Inn Hall. Implacable November weather.

The first sentence involves one word, a proper noun. The second sentence has only a non-finite verb (although using the definition given above, e. g., "Chancellor sitting in Lincoln's Inn Hall." would be a sentence by itself). The third is a single nominal group. Only an orthographic definition encompasses this variation.

As with all language expressions, sentences might contain function and content words and contain properties distinct to natural language, such as characteristic intonation and timing patterns.

Sentences are generally characterized in most languages by the inclusion of a finite verb, e. g., "The quick brown fox *jump* solver the lazy dog".

The traditional definition of a sentence states that a sentence expresses a complete thought. A sentence is a group of words that expresses a complete thought.

Sentences always have a subject and a verb.

Three Kinds of Sentence

1. **A declarative sentence** makes a statement.

- It is raining.
- Tom likes football.
- The school bell was ringing.
- The children are playing with the dog.
- Topeka is in Kansas.

2. **An interrogative sentence** asks a question.

- Where are my keys?
- Why is the sky blue?
- Who is talking to the teacher?
- Is this the way to the ice skating rink?

3. **An exclamatory sentence** makes a very strong statement called an exclamation. It shows a strong feeling such as surprise or anger.

- What a kind thing to do!
- How beautiful she is!
- The silly boy!

Notes

- An interrogative sentence ends with a question mark (?)
- An exclamatory sentence ends with an exclamation point (!).
- A declarative sentence ends with a period.

Components of a sentence

Clauses

A clause typically contains at least a subject noun phrase and a finite verb. While the subject is usually a noun phrase, other kinds of phrases (such as gerund phrases) work as well, and some languages allow subjects to be omitted. There are two types of clauses: **independent** and **subordinate (dependent)**. An independent clause is a complete sentence in itself, although it may not express a complete thought: for example, *They did it*.

A subordinate clause is not a complete sentence: for example, *because I have no friends*. See also copula for the consequences of the verb *to be* on the theory of sentence structure.

A simple complete sentence consists of a single clause. Other complete sentences consist of two or more clauses.

Classification

By structure

One traditional scheme for classifying English sentences is by clause structure, the number and types of clauses in the sentence with finite verbs.

- A *simple sentence* consists of a single independent clause with no dependent clauses.
- A *compound sentence* consists of multiple independent clauses with no dependent clauses. These clauses are joined together using conjunctions, punctuation, or both.
- A *complex sentence* consists of one independent clause and at least one dependent clause.
- A *complex-compound sentence* (or *compound-complex sentence*) consists of multiple independent clauses, at least one of which has at least one dependent clause.

By purpose

Sentences can also be classified based on their purpose:

- A *declarative sentence* or declaration, the most common type, commonly makes a statement: "I have to go to work."
- An *interrogative sentence* or question is commonly used to request information — "Do I have to go to work?" — but sometimes not;
- An *exclamatory sentence* or exclamation is generally a more emphatic form of statement expressing emotion: "I have to go to work!"
- An *imperative sentence* or command tells someone to do something (and if done strongly may be considered both imperative and exclamatory):
"Go to work." or "Go to work!"

Major and minor sentences

A major sentence is a *regular* sentence; it has a subject and a predicate. For example: "I have a ball." In this sentence one can change the persons: "We have a ball." However, a minor sentence is an irregular type of sentence. It does not contain a main clause. For example:

"Mary!" "Precisely so." "Next Tuesday evening after it gets dark."

Other examples of minor sentences are headings (e.g. the heading of this entry), stereotyped expressions ("Hello!"), emotional expressions ("Wow!"), proverbs, etc. These can also include nominal sentences like "The more, the merrier". These mostly omit a main verb for the sake of conciseness, but may also do so in order to intensify the meaning around the nouns: this type of sentence is often found in poetry and catchphrases.

Sentences that comprise a single word are called word sentences, and the words themselves sentence words.

Sentence length

After a slump in interest, sentence length came to be studied in the 1980s, mostly "with respect to other syntactic phenomena".

One definition of the average sentence length of a prose passage is the ratio of the number of words to the number of sentences. The textbook *Mathematical linguistics*, by Andres Korma, suggests that in "journalistic prose the median sentence length is above 15 words". The average length of a sentence generally serves as a measure of sentence difficulty or complexity. In general, as the average sentence length increases, the complexity of the sentences also increases.

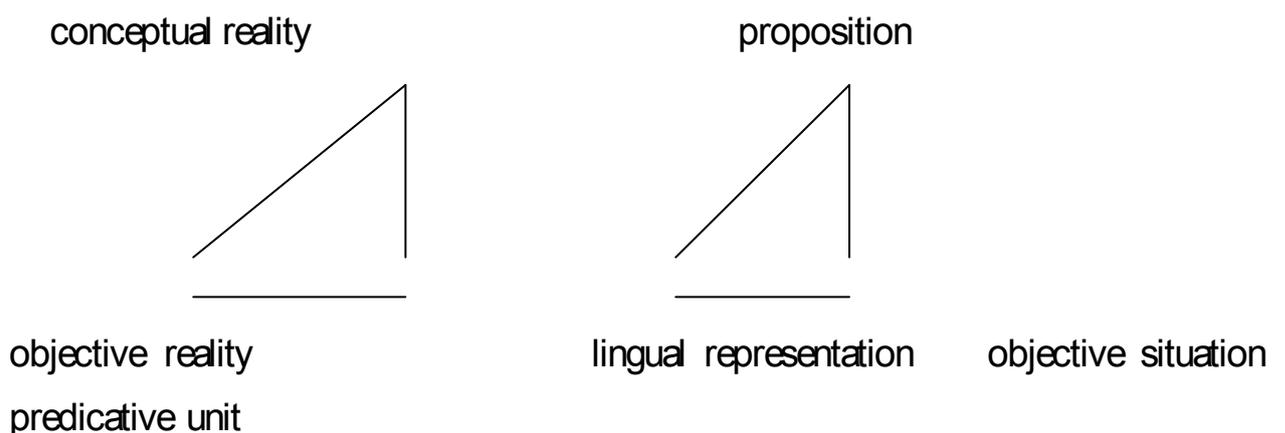
Another definition of "sentence length" is the number of clauses in the sentence, while the "clause length" is the number of phones.

Research by Erik Shills and Pieter de Han (by sampling five texts) showed that two adjacent sentences are more likely to have similar lengths than two non-adjacent sentences, and almost certainly have similar length when in a work of fiction. This countered the theory that "authors may aim at an alternation of long and short sentence".¹

Sentence length, as well as word difficulty, are both factors in the readability of a sentence. However, other factors, such as the presence of conjunctions, have been said to "facilitate comprehension considerably"

2. The sentence. It is rather difficult to define the sentence as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects – logical, psychological and philosophical. We will just stick to one of them - according to academician G. Pocheptsov, the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualises a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics. This definition works only in case we do not take into account the difference between the sentence and the utterance. The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence. In other words, the sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech.

The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are a) its **structural** characteristics – subject-predicate relations (primary predication), and b) its **semantic** characteristics – it refers to some fact in the objective reality. It is represented in the language through a conceptual reality:



By providing IC analysis we can make the two meanings clear:

old | men and women
| |

old | men and women
| |

Oppositional analysis.

The oppositional method in syntax means correlating different sentence types: they possess common features and differential features. Differential features serve the basis for analysis.

E.g. two member sentence :: one member sentence (John worked:: John! Work!

Or: I speak English :: I don't speak English.

Constructional analysis.

According to the constructional approach, not only the subject and the predicate but also all the necessary constituents of primary predication constitute the main parts because they are constructional significant. Therefore, the secondary parts of the sentence are sometimes as necessary and important as the main ones. If we omit the object and the adverbial modifier in the following sentences they will become grammatically and semantically unmarked: Bill closed the door; She behaved well.

The structural sentence types are formed on the basis of kernels (basic structures). Three main types of propositional kernels may be distinguished: N V, N is A, N is N. However, if we take into account the valet properties of the verbs (their obligatory valence) the group will become larger (8 kernels), e.g. N1 V N2 N3: *John gave Ann the book*, N1 V N2: *I see a house*.

The kernel sentences form the basis for syntactic derivation. Syntactic derivation lies in producing more complex sentences. Syntactic processes may be **internal** and **external**. Internal syntactic processes involve no changes in the structure of the parts of the sentence. They occur within one and the same part of the sentence (subject, etc.). External syntactic processes are those that cause new relations within a syntactic unit and lead to appearance of a new part of the sentence.

The internal syntactic processes are:

Expansion

*The phone was ringing **and ringing***

Compression

*They **were laughing and singing***

Complication

(a syntax. unit becomes complicated) (two parts of the sentence are joined

*I have seen it – I **could** have seen it*

Contamination

together – e.g. double predicate)

*The moon **rose red***

Replacement – the use of the words that have a generalized meaning: *one, do, etc,*

*I'd like to take this **one***

Representation – a part of the syntactic unit represents the whole syntactic unit:

*Would you like to come along? I'd love **to**.*

Ellipsis – *Where are you going? **To the movies***

The external syntactic processes are:

Extension - *a nice dress – a nice **cotton** dress.*

Enjoinment - the use of specifying words, most often particles: *He did it – **Only** he did it.*

Enclosure – inserting modal words and other discourse markers: *after all, anyway, naturally, etc.*

The utterance as opposed to the sentence is the unit of speech. The main categories of the utterance from the point of view of its informative structure are considered to be **the theme** and **the rhem**. They are the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) – actual division of the sentence (most language analysts stick to the term “sentence” but actually they mean “utterance”).

In English, there is a “standard” word order of Subject + Verb + Object: *The cat ate the rat* – here we have a standard structure (N1 + V + N2). However, there are numerous other ways in which the semantic content of the sentence can be expressed:

- *The rat was eaten by the cat.*
- *It was the cat that ate the rat.*
- *It was the rat that the cat ate.*

- *What the cat did was ate the rat.*
- *The cat, it ate the rat.*

Which of these options is actually selected by the writer or the speaker will depend on the context in which the utterance occurs and the importance of the information. One important consideration is whether the information has already been introduced before or it is assumed to be known to the reader or listener. Such information is referred to as **given** information or **the theme**. It contrasts with information which is introduced for the first time and which is known as **new** information or **the rhem**.

Informative structure of the utterance is one of the topics that still attract the attention of language analysts nowadays. It is well recognized that the rhem marking devices are:

Position in the sentence.

As a rule new information in English generally comes last: *The cat ate **the rat***

The use of the indefinite article.

However, sometimes it is impossible (as in 1): ***A gentleman** is waiting for you.*

The use of 'there is', 'there are'. *There is **a cat** in the room.*

The use of special devices, like 'as for', 'but for', etc.: *As for **him**, I don't know.*

Actinal utterance: N + V_{ac}. + Complement – actinal predicate

Performative utterance: I + V_{per}. /V say – performative predicate

Characterizing utterance: N + V_{be} + A/Q – characterizing predicate

3. **A sentence** is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means {communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it} .,.,

The second chapter: Punctuation rules and direct speech.

Punctuation

Punctuation is "the use of spacing, conventional signs, and certain typographical devices as aids to the understanding and correct reading, both silently and aloud, of handwritten and printed texts." Another description is: "The practice, action, or system of inserting points or other small marks into texts, in order to aid interpretation; division of text into sentences, clauses, etc., by means of such marks."

Punctuation	
apostrophe	, ’
brackets	[] () { } < >
colon	:
comma	, ‘ ’ \
dash	— — — —
ellipsis
exclamation mark	!
full stop, period	.
hyphen	-
hyphen-minus	-
question mark	?
quotation marks	‘ ’ “ ” ’ ’ ’ ’
semicolon	;
slash, stroke, solidus	/ /

In written English, punctuation is vital to disambiguate the meaning of sentences. For example: "woman, without her man, is nothing" (emphasizing the importance of men), and "woman: without her, man is nothing" (emphasizing the importance of women) have very different meanings; as do "eats shoots and leaves" (which means the subject consumes plant growths) and "eats, shoots, and leaves" (which means the subject eats first, then fires a weapon, and then leaves the scene). The sharp differences in meaning are produced by the simple differences in punctuation within the example pairs, especially the latter.

The rules of punctuation vary with language, location, register and time and are constantly evolving. Certain aspects of punctuation are stylistic and are thus the author's (or editor's) choice.

By the 19th century, punctuation in the western world had evolved "to classify the marks hierarchically, in terms of weight". Cecil Hartley's poem identifies their relative values:

- The stop point out, with truth, the time of pause
- A sentence doth require at every clause.
- At every comma, stop while *one* you count;
- At semicolon, *two* is the amount;
- A colon doth require the time of *three*;
- The period *four*, as learned men agree.

The use of punctuation was not standardized until after the invention of printing. According to the 1885 edition of *The American Printer*, the importance of punctuation was noted in various sayings by children such as:

Charles the First walked and talked Half an hour after his head was cut off.

With a semi-colon and a comma added it reads:

Charles the First walked and talked, ' Half an hour after, his head was cut off'.

In a 19th-century manual of typography, Thomas Mackellar writes: Shortly after the invention of printing, the necessity of stops or pauses in sentences for the guidance of the reader produced the colon and full point. In process of time,

the comma was added, which was then merely a perpendicular line, proportioned to the body of the letter. These three points were the only ones used until the close of the fifteenth century, when Aldo Muncie gave a better shape to the comma, and added the semicolon; the comma denoting the shortest pause, the semicolon next, then the colon, and the full point terminating the sentence. The marks of interrogation and admiration were introduced many years after.

The standards and limitations of evolving technologies have exercised further pragmatic influences. For example, minimizations of punctuation in typewritten matter became economically desirable in the 1960s and 1970s for the many users of carbon-film ribbons, since a period or comma consumed the same length of expensive non-reusable ribbon as did a capital letter.

There are two major styles of punctuation in English: American or traditional punctuation; and British or logical punctuation. These two styles differ mainly in the way in which they handle quotation marks.

Novel punctuation marks

“Love point” and similar marks

In 1966, the French author Harvey Basin proposed a series of six innovative punctuation marks in his book *Plumons l’Oiseau* (“Let’s pluck the bird”, 1966). These were:

- the “irony point” or “irony mark” (*point d’ironie: ψ*)
- the “love point” (*point d’amour: ♡*)
- the “certitude point” (*point de conviction: †*)
- the “authority point” (*point d’autorité: †*)
- the “acclamation point” (*point d’acclamation: !*)
- the “doubt point” (*point de doute: ?*)
- “question comma”, “exclamation comma”

An international patent application was filed, and published in 1992 under WO number for two new punctuation marks: the “question comma” and the “exclamation comma”. The *question comma* is a comma in place of the dot underneath the curve of a question mark, while the *exclamation comma* has a

comma in place of the point at the bottom of an exclamation mark. These were intended for use as question and exclamation marks within a sentence, a function for which normal question and exclamation marks can also be used, but which may be considered obsolescent. The patent application entered into national phase exclusively with Canada, advertised as lapsing in Australia on 27 January 1994 and in Canada on 6 November 1995.

In contrast to **direct** speech, in which the exact words of the speaker are given, **indirect** speech is a form of utterance in which these words are reported.

When direct speech is converted into indirect speech the following changes are introduced: The quotation marks and the comma (or colon) are omitted.

If the speaker reports somebody else's words the pronouns of the 1st person are replaced by those of the 3rd person; the pronouns of the 2nd by those of the 1st or 3rd.

He said, "I am ready." He said he was ready.

If the speaker reports his or her own words, the pronouns are naturally "not changed:

I said, "I am ready." I said I was ready.

3. If the verb in the principal clause is in the past tense, demonstrative ■ pronouns and adverbials expressing nearness are replaced by words expressing • distance:

- *Here* is replaced by *there*.
- *This* by *that*, *these* by *those*.
- *Now* by *then*, *at that time (moment)*, or no adverb is used at all.
- *To-day* is replaced by *that day*.
- *Yesterday* by *the day before* or *on the previous day*.
- *Ago* by *before*.
- *A year ago* by *a year before*.
- *Last night* by *the previous night*.

DIRECT SPEECH

She said, "We have been **here** for a week."

INDIRECT SPEECH

She said they had been **there** for a week.

She said, "I met them **yesterday**."

She said she had met them **the day before**

Direct Speech .The exact words that someone says are called direct speech. Quotation marks “ ” are used to set off direct speech.

- Mom said, “Where are my keys?”
- “This ice cream is delicious,” said Tom.
- “Have you boys washed your hands?” asked Dad.
- “Please get out of the car,” the police officer ordered.
- “What a beautiful dress!” said Sally.

Indirect Speech You can report what someone says without using their exact words. To do this, use a verb like say, ask or tell, followed by that. This is called indirect speech. There are several differences between a sentence with direct speech and a sentence with indirect speech.

- You don't use quotation marks with indirect speech.
- You change the tense of the verb.
- You change the pronouns and determiners.

THE THIRD CHAPTER: THE USE OF PUNCTUATION RULES IN THE SENTENCE CONTAINING DIRECT SPEECH, EXAMPLES AND TASKS

Punctuation in direct speech. In reports and stories, a writer often wants to tell the reader what someone has said. There two ways of doing this. The speakers words can either be reported (in a style known as reported speech), or they can be quoted directly in what' s called direct speech.

In reported speech ,the actual words are not usually quoted directly. Usually, they are summarized or paraphrased and there are no special punctuation issues to take into account:

- *the 180 respondents said that the main reason for setting up in business was to be their own boss.*
- *Trade union representatives expressed their satisfaction at the news that there would be no job losses .*

In direct speech, various punctuation conventions are used to separate the quoted words from the rest of the text : this allows a reader to follow what' s going on. Here are the basic rules:

- The words that are actually spoken should be enclosed in inverted commas:
- ' He' s very clever, you know.'

In British English, the usual style is to use single inverted commas but it is not wrong to use double ones:

- " He' s very clever, you know."

Every time a new speaker says something, you should start a new paragraph:

- ' They think it' s a more respectable job,' said Jo.
- ' I don' t agree,' I replied.

There should be comma, full stop, question mark, or exclamation mark at the end of a piece of speech. This is placed inside the closing inverted comma or commas.

- “Can I come in?” he asked.
- “Just a moment!” she shouted.
- ‘You are right,’ he said.
- ‘I didn’t expect to win.’

If direct speech comes after the information about who is speaking, you should use a comma to introduce the piece of speech, placed before the first inverted comma:

- Steve replied, ‘No problem.’

If the direct speech is broken up by information about who is speaking, we need a comma (or a question mark or exclamation mark) to end the first piece of speech and a full stop or another comma before the second piece (before the inverted comma or commas):

“You are right,” he said.

“it feels strange” ‘thinking back,’ she said, ‘he didn’t expect to win.’

‘No!’ I cried. ‘You can’t leave now!’

There are some other uses of quotation marks in English, such as “scare quotes” and the use of quotation marks with the titles of short works, like short stories or poems (Edgar Allen Poe’s “The Raven,” for example). Some of those other uses of quotation marks have different rules than the rules listed below.

Rule#1: the use of quotation marks for all direct speech.

When someone’s words are repeated exactly as that person said or wrote them, we must put those words in quotation marks. This style is called “direct speech”, as we said above, because we are quoting the words directly, exactly as the words were spoken:

- The hare said, “I will challenge the tortoise to a race.”

Direct speech is not limited to words that are spoken out loud or written down. We should also report someone’s thoughts as direct speech inside quotation marks:

- The hare thought, “I know I can beat the tortoise easily!”

When the words are not quoted directly, that is “indirect speech”. When we use indirect speech, we don’t use the quotation marks. Quotation marks are used for direct speech compare these examples of direct speech to examples of indirect speech, and you will see that they are very different:

- direct speech. The hare said, “ I will challenge the tortoise to a race.”
- Indirect speech. The hare said that he would challenge the tortoise to a race.
- direct speech. The hare thought, “I know I can beat the tortoise easily!”
- Indirect speech. The hare thought that he know could beat the tortoise easily.

As you can see, direct speech is often much more lively and vivid than indirect speech.

Rule #2: Quotation marks are used in pairs.

There is an "opening" quotation mark that comes before the first word of the quoted speech, and then there is a "closing" quotation mark that comes after the last word of the quoted speech.

- *The hare said to the tortoise, "You are so slow that I will beat you very easily."*

In some fonts, you can see a slightly different shape used for the opening and closing quotation marks:

- *The hare said to the tortoise, “ You are so slow that I will beat you very easily.”*

This style is sometimes called "smart quotes," and it is usually a feature you can turn on or off in your word processor based on which style you prefer.

Rule #3: The first word of a quoted sentence is capitalized.

In quoted speech, just as in other forms of writing, we capitalize the first word of every sentence. Here is an example:

- *"When should we do it?" asked the tortoise.*

Here's what can be tricky: we also capitalize the first word of the quoted sentence even when it is being inserted inside another sentence. Here's an example:

The tortoise asked, "When should we do it?"

The word "*When*" is capitalized because it is the first word of a quoted sentence, even though it is not the first word of the main sentence.

Rule 4: we can include multiple sentences inside a single set of quotation marks.

As long as the character is speaking, we can keep on quoting those words inside the same set of quotation marks. Here is an example where there are three sentences inside the quotation marks:

The hare said to the tortoise, "You are so slow that I will beat you very easily. In fact, I feel sorry for you because you are so slow. I know I will defeat you!"

The opening quotation mark shows where the hare started speaking, and the closing quotation mark showed where the hare stopped speaking.

Rule #5: When the QUOTED SPEECH comes AFTER the verb of speaking, we use a comma after the verb of speaking and before the quoted speech.

Here's an example that shows quoted speech after the verb of speaking, with a comma between the verb of speaking and the quoted speech:

- *The hare said to the tortoise, "I challenge you to a race!"*

Here is another example that shows the verb of speaking first and the quoted speech coming after the verb of speaking:

- *The tortoise replied, "I accept your challenge."*

This use of the comma helps the reader by signaling the break between the main sentence and the quoted speech.

Rule #6: When the QUOTED SPEECH comes BEFORE the verb of speaking and the final sentence of the quoted speech ends with a PERIOD, we replace the period at the end of the final quoted sentence with a comma.

Here is an example where the quoted speech, ending with a period, comes before the verb of speaking. The period at the end of the quoted speech changes to a comma:

- *"I accept your challenge," the tortoise replied.*

The original quoted sentence ended with a period: "I accept your challenge." When the quoted speech is put before that verb of speaking, we replace the final period of the quoted speech with a comma. This rule only applies to quoted sentences that end with a period. For sentences that end with a question mark or with an exclamation mark, see the next rule.

Rule #7: When the QUOTED SPEECH comes BEFORE the verb of speaking and the final sentence of the quoted speech ends with an EXCLAMATION MARK or a QUESTION MARK, we do NOT replace the exclamation mark or question mark with a comma.

Instead of replacing the exclamation mark or question mark with a comma, we just leave it unchanged. Here's an example with an exclamation mark:

- *"I challenge you to a race!" the hare said to the tortoise.*

Here's an example with a question mark:

- *"When should we do it?" asked the hare.*

We can combine Rule #6 and Rule #7 as follows: when we have quoted speech coming before the verb of speaking, we replace the final period of the quoted speech with a comma — but we do not replace an exclamation mark or a question mark.

Rule #8: We can split a quoted sentence into two parts that are wrapped around the verb of speaking.

When the quoted sentence is split, you put a comma after the first chunk of quoted speech, and we also put a comma after the verb of speaking clause. Here is an example:

- *"I challenge you," the hare said, "to a race!"*

The quoted statement ("I challenge you to a race!") has been wrapped around the verb of speaking. To make this style work, we need both commas: a comma after the first chunk of quoted speech, along with a comma after the verb of speaking.

Rule #9: Punctuation marks for quoted speech always go inside the quotation marks.

Here are some examples:

Period: "I accept your challenge."

Comma: "I accept your challenge," replied the tortoise.

Question Mark: "When should we do it?" asked the hare.

Exclamation Mark: "I challenge you to a race!" the hare said to the tortoise.

All four types of punctuation marks — period, comma, question mark, and exclamation mark — go inside the quotation marks that indicate quoted speech. This is a rule that does not necessarily apply to other uses of quotation marks in English, but it is a rule we can confidently apply to quoted speech.

Rule #10: After we have finished a sentence containing quoted speech, we need to use a new set of quotation marks for quoted speech in the next sentence.

If we have a quoted sentence (or sentences) together with a verb of speaking, that is a complete sentence, so we need another set of quotation marks to indicate quoted speech in the next sentence. Here's an example of a complete sentence using quoted speech:

- *"I challenge you to a race!" the hare said to the tortoise.*

If the hare is going to start speaking again in the next sentence, we need another set of quotation marks, although we don't need another verb of speaking since it is clear that the hare is the speaker:

- *"I challenge you to a race!" the hare said to the tortoise. "You are so slow that I will beat you very easily. In fact, I feel sorry for you already because I know you will lose."*

Here is another example with quoted speech starting up again after the verb of speaking:

"You are very confident," replied the tortoise. "I will just do my best, and we will see what happens."

Because the tortoise is being quoted again in the second sentence, we need a new set of quotation marks, but because the tortoise is the same speaker as before, you don't need another verb of speaking.

Using Speech Punctuation Correctly: An Explanation and Worksheet

The use of speech punctuation is associated with the writing of direct speech. This is where we record exactly what the person says, in the exact way that it is said. For example:

“I really enjoyed going out for dinner last night,” said Jane.

Speech punctuation itself is primarily about the use of speech marks (inverted commas). These should surround the part of the sentence that state what is being said. This can sometimes be difficult for children to grasp, and they may surround the whole sentence or the part that contains the word ‘said’. This can be overcome by saying the sentence out loud.

Children should also be aware of the other forms of punctuation needed when writing sentences that contain speech. The type of statement or the way the statement is said needs to be taken into account when considering if the speech requires a question mark or exclamation mark. For example:

- “Stop!” shouted the policeman.
- “How are you today?” enquired the kind lady.

There are further chances below that we can copy and paste to practice this skill further. If there is no need for a question mark or exclamation mark then children will need to remember to add a comma at the end of their statements. For example:

- “The children were playing in the park earlier,” said Jane.

Lastly children must be familiar with the rule – new speaker, new line. This means that each time a new person begins to speak, their speech should be recorded on a new line. For example:

The Wrong Way

“How are you today?” enquired Jack. “I’m fine thanks,” replied Sally.

This is incorrect as both speakers are on the same line.

The Right Way

“How are you today?” enquired Jack.

“I’m fine thanks,” replied Sally.

This would be correct as the statement of the new speaker (Sally) has been recorded on the line below.

Here are some sample tasks to practice this skill further.

Task One:

Add the speech marks to these sentences in the correct place. Remember speech marks should surround the part of that is being said, not who is saying it.

Who are you? Asked the little boy.

I don’t know where they have gong, exclaimed Emma.

I love eating a great, big slice of chocolate cakes with lots of cream on the side, said the greedy, little boy.

Come back! Yelled the boy’s mother.

I really enjoyed today, said Emily.

Task Two:

Add the correct speech punctuation to these sentences. Remember you should include commas, question marks and exclamation marks, as well as speech marks.

Did you have a nice time at the park asked Tom’s mother.

How are you today asked Emma.

I saw something run behind the cupboard said Heather.

It’s just down to the end of the road on the left stated Max.

Turn off that music yelled mom.

Task Three:

Rewrite this passage so that each new speaker begins on a new line.

“Have you ever seen something so weird?” asked James. “What is it?” enquired Emma. “I have no idea!” said Emma, prodding the small, brown parcel carefully. It was such an unusual shape. “How did it fit through the letter box?” wondered James out loud. “It wouldn’t fit so I have no idea how it has got into the house.”

CONCLUSION

‘The central part of a language is its grammar and this should be of vital interest to any intelligent educated person’ said Frank Palmer. And that is true because every language is alive with its grammar, as grammar language’s heart. All of us know that grammar means “the art of correct writing” and of course “correct speaking”.

Can you image to speak without any pause or any emotions? No of course if we do it like that our speech will be like robots or computers speech. Oh no either they speak with pause. So what I want to say? I want to say that punctuations show our emotions our declaratives and so on. Each punctuation mark has its own role in speech. As I sowed above punctuation rules and their types they differs from each other. Also they are differs in speeches. Especially in the sentences containing direct speech.

And we have showed it as: Punctuation in direct speech. In reports and stories, a writer often wants to tell the reader what someone has said. There two ways of doing this. The speakers words can either be reported (in a style known as reported speech), or they can be quoted directly in what’s called direct speech.

In reported speech ,the actual words are not usually quoted directly. Usually, they are summarized or paraphrased and there are no special punctuation issues to take into account.

Besides that we have given many examples such as:

“Stop!” shouted the policeman.

“I really enjoyed going out for dinner last night,” said Jane.

“How are you today?” enquired the kind lady

“Have you ever seen something so weird?” asked James.

“You are very confident,” replied the tortoise. “I will just do my best, and we will see what happens.” And others.

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