Punctuation in English and Kurdish:
A Contrastive Study

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ABSTRACT

Punctuation, of paramount significance in written discourse analysis, is a highly developed system which modifies linguistic forms on phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic strata in written texts. Nevertheless, until recently, it has not received ample attention due to remaining in the shade of prosody or grammatical relations. In the last few decades, strikingly, it has been established that a genuine conception of the written language is impracticable if punctuation is not taken into consideration. Meanwhile, cross-linguistic studies have been recommended by some scholars (e.g. Little, 1986; Krahn, 2014); thus, though some studies have been conducted comparing the English punctuation system with that of other languages, there is a dearth of studies exploring this crucial aspect of written discourse in English and Kurdish. Therefore, drawing on Krahn's new paradigm (2014) which treats punctuation as an independent linguistic feature of the written modality, the present paper aims to cross-examine the punctuation system in both languages in a quest for outlining any similarities and differences that the two languages uncover in this area. More specifically, the study seeks to answer these questions: 1) How are the punctuation marks different or similar in English and Kurdish? 2) Does the punctuation system exhibit the same level of complexity in both languages? 3) Are all the punctuation marks manifested in English realised in Kurdish either and vice versa? The paper is purely based on a qualitative research approach. The results show that the two languages bear significant similarities and differences in the manifestation and employment of punctuation symbols. Yet, the punctuation system in English is more complex than Kurdish. Punctuation in the static and dynamic axes instantiates an area of considerable divergence between the two languages— though some similarities are predominant.

KEY WORDS: Dynamic Punctuation, English Language, Kurdish Language, Punctuation, Static Punctuation.

1. INTRODUCTION:

It is maintained that the set of the punctuation marks constitute an autonomous 'enclosed linguistic system' (Krahn, 2014) in the sense that it encompasses a specific number of 'symbols', designated as objects, which do not have an intrinsic meaning; their meanings are established through convention. Conversely, akin to any other linguistic feature, punctuation is subject to cross-linguistic variation. Compelling evidence comprises the fact that the numbers of the punctuation symbols and also the senses or uses associated with individual signs vary from one language to another. For instance, there exist relatively sixteen punctuation marks in English; yet there are only twelve in Kurdish few of which are only marginally existent (e.g. quotations and hyphens). Besides, parentheses perform different functions in the two languages: In English, parentheses denote non-compulsory subsidiary material whereas a major function of parentheses in Kurdish is to highlight words or phrases allocated particular importance (See 3.2 below).

In a similar vein, other languages present different formulae in the employment of the punctuation features. In Spanish, thus, the names of languages and

nationalities are not capitalized, whereas they are in English (Meyers, 2009, p. 339). French suspension points designate a pause while they indicate the removal of some items in English as well as Kurdish; commas tend to be used as conjunctions. An exclamation mark, in German, is an attention-drawing device which achieves emotive effects and emphasis. Moreover, it could be doubled calling for special attention. Semi-colons mark cohesion between sentences (Newmark, 1988, p.58).

In essence, as Newmark (ibid) points out, punctuation is a pivotal component of discourse analysis for it represents the semantic links that hold between sentences and clauses, which may vary according to particular languages.

Little (1986, p. 84) calls for cross-linguistic and diachronic studies on punctuation and avers that they are crucial for a preferable understanding of and revealing the universal principles that underlie language in the written modality. She acknowledges that the punctuation practice, similar to any other linguistic phenomena, must be approached in various ways, scrutinizing one or more aspects at a time.

It follows that a number of studies (e.g. Alqinai, (2006); Mugahed (20012); Kayumuva, (2015); Markov et al., 2018 etc.) have been conducted on the topic in the field of linguistics and translation as well presenting a cross-linguistic account of punctuation highlighting the way it functions across particular languages under investigation. There is, however, a shortage of studies comparing punctuation in English and Kurdish. Moreover, studies which consider all the punctuation features are scarce and hence fail to give a comprehensive account of the topic for they are limited to individual features. Most previous work, including even the handbooks on punctuation, suffer from a disability: they do not provide a clear picture of how the system in proper works; instead, they start with the rules governing the deployment of individual punctuation features rather than putting it in a well-defined framework or model that would disambiguate it in a full proof way and provide the ground for a salient comparison. The current study, unlike many others, prior to any practical analysis, based on the available literature, outlines a solid theoretical background via which an appropriate model is adopted – a model (Krahn, 2014) which, as noted above, seeks to consider punctuation as 'an independent linguistic property specific to the written mode' and which furnishes the ground for a meticulous cross- examination of the system in the two languages under study.

To answer the research questions noted early in the study , it is hypothesized that 1) the two languages show similarities and differences in the manifestation and employment of punctuation marks; 2) the same punctuation feature has different functions in the punctuation system of the two languages; 3) some punctuation marks are not, or only marginally, rendered in the Kurdish language and vice versa; and 4) some punctuation marks do exist in practice in both languages particularly in Kurdish but, in theory, they have not been included in the system.

The data for analysis includes previous studies on the punctuation marks in each language. In addition, in particular for the Kurdish data, the researchers have relied on observation, introspection and their intuition as native speakers.

The study is hoped to be a good source for linguists, discourse analysts, Kurdish EFL teachers and students. It is also deemed advantageous for teachers and students of the Kurdish language department as the adopted model has not previously been applied to Kurdish.

2. THEORETICAL GROUNDWORK

2.1 Definition of Punctuation

Punctuation marks involve a set of orthographic symbols adopted in written language to mark particular critical "grammatical and attitudinal contrasts" (Crystal, 1992, p. 321). They are, as Meyers avers (2009, p. 300), symbols that assist readers to process texts and avoid confusion. Thus, inaccurate punctuation is likely to mark the end of a sentence that has not ended, unite ideas that should not be united or set apart ideas that should not be separated.

According to Xoshnaw (2016, p.134), punctuation marks are similar to traffic symbols which are mainly designed to facilitate driving. By analogy, adequate employment of punctuation symbols guides readers to effectively process a written text and abandons misconception in the same way as careful adherence to traffic symbols discards unwelcome consequences. He (ibid) also proposes that such marks make a text more elegant, for each symbol occurs in its particular position. In this regard, Elliot (2006) postulates that punctuation symbols do for texts exactly what road signs do for a high way: they guide readers where to speed, where to slow down, and where to stop.

Another metaphor comes from Allen who writes "punctuation is to writing what stitching is to clothing: just as stitches hold a garment together and help give it shape, punctuation helps hold our words together and gives form to our writing." (cf. Spector, 2017, p 10).

In addition, Brown and Miller (2013, p. 366) define punctuation marks as symbols employed in the written mode to "indicate a boundary of some kind". They (ibid), for instance, further add that commas signal boundaries between words, phrases or clauses. Two clauses that are too closely connected in content to be put into separate sentences can simultaneously be separated and linked

by a semicolon. Question marks imply that a sentence conveys a question, even if the sentence does not have an interrogative structure, as in:

1. You are late for work?

Related is the argument whether punctuation corresponds to prosodic features adopted in speech or a system in its own right that regulate written texts enhancing grammatical relations and/or distinctions. For some linguists, it is a mixture of both: On the one hand, punctuation is a substitute, though loosely, for supra-segmental features and a device through which grammatical relations are strikingly indicated, on the other. For illustration, Quirk et al. (1985, p.1610) advocate that punctuation refers to visual devices that help to communicate grammatical and other prosodic distinctions evident in speech.

Other linguists such as Meyers (2009, p. 300) argue that punctuation does not precisely reflect prosody in speech. He illustrates that if one tends to insert a comma wherever he hears a pause he might be mispunctuating. He, therefore, puts forward that commas serve specific functions- some to separate ideas and others to enclose them. (See 2.2)

In the same vein, Meyer (1987, p. 69) proposes that "punctuation is at best a rather crude reflection of the complexities of prosody and the relation between the two is unsystematic". Conversely, he (ibid, p. 71) argues that commas are sometimes, but not always, found in contexts where one would expect a pause in speech, and sometimes they appear in contexts lacking a prosodic juncture.

However, it should be noted that, though restricted to the visual code, punctuation remains a "linguistic feature" in as much as a change in the punctuation pattern inevitably results in a change in meaning (Sanchez-Stockhammer 2016, p. 144). Being conventional and functional akin to any other linguistic feature, it may even alter or even reverse the meaning of a sentence. Consider the contrastive meaning of the following two structurally similar sentences:

2. Democrats say the Republicans are sure to win the next election.

3. Democrats, say the Republicans, are sure to win the next election**.**

In [2] above, the Republicans are assumed to be the victors as opposed to [3] in which the Democrats are the assumed victors.

To put in a nutshell, the present study holds that punctuation is a set of symbols and graphical features deployed to regulate texts, clarify and modify their meanings principally by separating or linking morphemes, words and clauses. It thus considers punctuation as an independent linguistic system characteristic of the written modality. This is quite compatible with Krahn's view, which stresses that 'punctuation is a system of symbols and graphical devices that help to preserve the integrity of the linguistic forms in a sentence in the graphic medium of writing' (Krahn, 2014, p.104). The visual model or system requires to be analyzed in terms of visual and graphic standards in conjunction with how it functions with linguistic categories. In simple terms, punctuation refers to, as Ong (1992, p. 293) notes, tools invented to adjust the technological characteristics of writing considering writing as a technology in the sense that it reorganizes thought using tools such as graphemes i.e. letters as well as punctuation marks.

2.2 Functions of Punctuation

Early in the introduction to his famous book on the history of punctuation, Parkes (1993) emphasizes that punctuation is a remarkable feature of the written medium, and that its history is tied up with that of the written phenomenon. Traditionally, the written language was considered merely as a byproduct of the spoken word. However, recently, this view altered: writing is thought to convey information to the mind through the eye. Since this clear digression between the spoken and the written varieties, as Doran (1998, p. 6) avers, punctuation evolved into an autonomous system that does not reflect or reproduce features of speech. Thus, the paramount function of punctuation is to shape written texts (ibid, p. 7).

In this regard, Nunberg (1990) rejects the longly held view that "punctuation encompasses prosody". He provides an obvious example which quite elucidates the incompatibility between punctuation and prosody: question marks demarcate the end of all types of interrogative sentences, but it is widely known that the yes-no questions often have final rising prosody; yet, wh-questions do not.

Crystal (2010, p. 215) reinforces these critical claims and puts forward that the punctuation system bears two important functions: it enables stretches of a piece of writing to be read in a smooth as well as coherent way in the first place, and replicates, though roughly and never consistently, the vividness and rhythm of speech in the second.

Similarly, Sanchez-Stockhammer (2016, p.154) argues that although punctuation is commonly claimed to correspond to prosody as well as pauses in the written variety, it is, as Meyer (1987, p. 69-71) notes "a rather crude reflection" of the complexities associated with prosody and that the relationship that holds between the two is "unsystematic". For instance, commas are sometimes but not always found in positions where one would expect a pause in speech and sometimes, they appear in contexts lacking a prosodic juncture. For instance, the [4] below is usually uttered with a pause after *late*, but does not involve a comma:

4. Those who sleep late make unreliable workers.
By contrast, [5] is realised with a comma but not spoken with a pause in speech:

5. A couple of the males made good comedy, too.
Moreover, Meyer (1978, p. 69-70) outlines three major functions of punctuation:

1. Broadly punctuation facilitates understanding a text effortlessly;

2. It can emphasize a concept; and

3. It varies the rhythm of the text.

The realization of these functions, however, falls into two major categories: marks that separate and marks that enclose items. Accordingly, he observes that the functions of the marks and their realization are individual, separate notions.

Crystal (1992, p. 321) attributes three major functions to the punctuation practice: separation of units in a linear order - for example, a space separates words, a period separates sentences; an indication when a unit is incorporated within another- parentheses, for instance, shows that intervening material is included within more basic material; and demarcation of a specific grammatical and attitudinal function, such as a question which is signaled by a question mark.

Moreover, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1610-11) give a salient descriptive account of the function of punctuation. Although they state that punctuation is the visual counterpart of prosody, they, subsequently, modify this claim: "the link is neither simple nor systematic, and traditional attempts to relate punctuation directly to pauses are misguided". They make the intriguing argument that there is a considerable distinction between punctuation and prosody in that the former has to be explicitly taught, whereas the latter is acquired, and hence spontaneous. (See 2.3below)

For Dawkins (2003, p. 161), however, the purpose behind punctuation is 'rhetorical': punctuation is created to make meaning clearer as well as more effective. Thus, for him, the basis for punctuation is meaning and he argues for meaning-based rules for punctuating.

In line with these, and in an attempt to settle the argument, Man (2003) avers that the function of punctuation seems to overlap with that of pauses and other prosodic features rather than replacing them.

In addition, Dendenne (2010, p.27) highlights the role of punctuation as a cohesive device that contributes to the semantics of a text. Following Gething (1970, p.1) some punctuation marks namely full stop, semicolon, comma, brackets, dash, and the colon "are much part of the written language as the letters and words themselves; their proper use is fundamental to the writing of the good English, while the wrong use or omission can result in obscured or distorted meaning".

It is noteworthy that in view of the present study, as noted above, punctuation is taken to structure written texts where the writer is often not present to interpret his material when it is being read. Following Krahn (2014, p. 172), the study maintains that neither prosody nor grammar, nor rhetoric directly forms the basis for punctuation; rather punctuation responds to the canonical sentence schema which is governed by the order of words in a given language. Accordingly, it underscores that punctuation is grammatical only in the sense that punctuation symbols must be placed in appropriate positions when their correlation to the canonical sentence is determined and the abstract canonical sentence is retained intact. (See 2.4).

2.3 Classification of Punctuation: Hierarchy of Punctuation Marks

Taking the foregoing discussions in 2.2 above for granted, there appears to be a great amount of overlap between the functions of punctuation symbols and their classification as well. In essence, the classification of such symbols is grounded in their functions in as much as, by far the most, they are classified in view of the various functions they serve in different contexts. For illustration, Crystal (2010, p. 205) offers a hierarchical categorization of the punctuation marks: some pinpoint large portions of a text such as paragraphs; others specify smaller portions of intermediate size or complexity. For him, there exist broadly two kinds of punctuation features: features that separate and features that communicate meaning i.e. some features bear meaning (for e.g. an exclamation mark suggests that a given construction is exclamative).

In line with this is Nunberg's account which highlights that punctuation marks are not an arbitrary conglomeration of marks but, similar to natural language, manifest a series of hierarchically ordered abstract rules (1990).

Similarly, Quirk et al. (1985, p.1611) distinguish two broad categories of punctuation namely 'separation' and 'specification'. The former embodies a subdivision into: 'separation of successive units' involving disentanglement of units in a linear order such as isolating two successive words by a space; and 'separation of included units' designating the starting and ending points of a unit which is included within another, usually larger, unit. For instance, the commas denote the para clause *I think* which is inserted into the larger matrix clause in [6], namely *He is a teacher*:

6. He is, I think, a teacher.

In addition to separation signaling, some punctuation marks indicate a grammatical, semantic, or pragmatic function. Hence, the question mark in [7] has a specifying role characterizing the sentence as interrogative rather than affirmative apart from the primary separating function.

7. Where did you stay last night?

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 611-12) also invoke the notion of a hierarchy of punctuation marks in relation to the punctuation system establishing "a well-defined hierarchy of signs" ranging from word, or sometimes the morpheme level, to that of the paragraph. They establish a hierarchy that has at the bottom unseparated letters (opted) and goes up to the hyphen (co-opted), then to word space (…since co-opted…), to comma (… men, since co-opted), to colon (… men, since co-opted: Smith and Fox…), to semicolon (… men, since co-opted: Smith and Fox; they…), to period to semicolon (… men, since co-opted: Smith and Fox; they had been very useful. Votes of thanks…), and finally to the paragraph which represents the highest rank.

Peters (2004, p. 447), however, presents a division into: 'word punctuation' comprising hyphens and apostrophes which occur at the word level between unspaced letters, and 'sentence punctuation' which is employed at the sentence level involving full stops, question marks, exclamation marks, commas, semicolons and any other punctuation feature that marks a particular relationship at the sentence level.

In the present study, punctuation is classified along with vertical and horizontal dimensions of the written or orthographic sentence: some punctuation features operate in the vertical axis and others in the horizontal axis (See 2.4 below).

2.4 The Adopted Model

The current study is mainly conducted within the framework of Krahn's (2014) new linguistic paradigm for the punctuation practice which is, based on the available literature, deemed to be both the most up-to-date and salient encapsulation of the punctuation system. Moreover, the model could adequately be applied to Kurdish as well as English with the hope to locate the areas of similarity and difference between the two languages under study.

The rationale for Krahn's approach, as Krahn (ibid, p. 216) affirms, is that the grammar or prosody approach fails to account for the system in most languages. The alternative linguistic perspective stipulates a 'uniform standard' that would pave the way for a fair comparison. The approach is basically premised on the postulation that the written language is a visual phenomenon, as Krahn claims "quintessential graphic" (p. 125), represented by graphemes, and requires to be analyzed independently of the prosodic features that are peculiar to the spoken variety. Krahn uses Waller's (1982, p. 137) "text as diagram" metaphor which stresses the 'written-ness' of a text, and Shimojiama's (2001) account of 'a sentence as a graphic', facts underestimated by many linguists, to support this claim. He maintains that "punctuation is a symbol system in a graphic domain" which needs to be studied in terms of "visual and graphic standards in addition to how it functions with linguistic categories" (p. 171). The English writing system, he avers, conforms to all the rules for graphics. Similar to other graphics, it consists of two fundamental components namely the *figure* and the *ground*. The ground for writing involves the locus for it. It could be a rock, the wall of a building, a computer screen, or a sheet of paper…etc. The figure, the principal factor or element of the graphic in English, contains twenty- six minuscule graphemes (abcd…z) arranged in different configurations in a linear sequence on the ground on an "orthogonal matrix"(p. 126).

Accordingly, the graphemes lie in a matrix which has a vertical and also a horizontal dimension. The matrix can be presented on an L shaped graph: a commonplace way to show the relationship of variables on two angles (See graph 1.)

Graph 1.
The Writing System Matrix
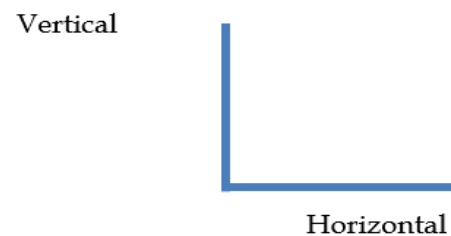
However, Krahn, relying on Giardiano (2013, p. 243), replaces the terms 'vertical' and 'horizontal', respectively, by more practical ones namely 'static' and 'dynamic' in order to make his model a standard one and useful for any future possible cross-linguistic studies. These would accurately describe what actually takes place in these locations rather than simply naming the dimensions. Admittedly, as a central unit of writing, an orthographic sentence is essentially an orthogonal projection into the vertical and horizontal angles with the vertical dimension manifesting the phonological, morphological, and sematic features, and the horizontal denoting syntactic operations or relations. It has an explicit start; yet, due to recursion, it is infinite. In addition to the graphemes, anything that is added or interspersed with graphemes, according to Krahn (2014, p. 138), is considered as punctuation. To put it another way, using a term used in the literature on graphology namely 'cell', a line of writing consists of cells; the writer has a choice to fill it with a grapheme, a punctuation feature or puncteme, as Krahn prefers (p. 215) to call it, or leave it vacant i.e. leave a space which is also categorized as punctuation (See 3.1.2.3 on space) (ibid, p. 147).

It naturally follows that, being a linguistic feature, the set of punctuation marks resides in the matrix along with the vertical and the horizontal axes of a written sentence. Thus, depending on their function, some punctuation features occur in the static axis and others in the dynamic axis. More specifically, taking this analogy into consideration, the vertical punctuation is associated with those aspects of the sentence that instantiate the vertical axis, notably phonological, morphological, and semantic features. Admittedly, the vertical punctuation is termed 'static punctuation' which is static in the sense that it is unvarying and stable or paradigmatic; it can be subcategorized into phonological, morphological, and semantic punctuation. For illustration, question marks which come under the category of semantic punctuation in the vertical static axis terminate a question regardless of context. It is thus fixed, not flexible.

By contrast, the horizontal punctuation matches the horizontal scale of the sentence. The horizontal punctuation, in turn, being syntagmatic in nature, designates the syntactic or 'dynamic punctuation' which is flexible and subject to contextual variation. For instance, the deployment of a comma depends on the intrasentential relations varying from one sentence to another; altogether it is dynamic i.e. flexible.

In addition, Krahn (ibid, p. 171) argues that the term 'punctuation mark' does not go with other terminologies in linguistics. What is more, the noun 'mark' is misleading and suggests that punctuation refers only to independent visible symbols; it disregards spaces and grapheme alterations. Hence it should be substituted with some other terminology that would go better with linguistic considerations about punctuation. Following Crystal' s -emic approach (1997, p. 143-135), Krahn (ibid, p. 199) proposes the terms " puncteme" as a replacement for the traditional term punctuation mark, and "punctemics" as the area that studies punctemes. Akin to other -emic constructs, punctemes bear functional relations and constitute an autonomous closed system of "contrastive and minimally distinctive units" (ibid, p. 200). He goes on to define punctemes: "punctemes are symbolic features which function in the English writing systems in one of the two ways: they modify some units in the writing system or they prevent the modification of other units".

In the static axis, units are modified on various linguistic levels, while some units are prevented from unintended modification in the dynamic dimension. For instance, graphical alterations such as bold, italics and underlining modify particular units phonologically as they add prominence to them; Initial capitals modify the first letter in an English sentence signifying that a new uint has begun. Hence, they come under phonological and semantic punctuation, respectively. Commas, in the

dynamic axis, prevent modification in a series of words (white, blue, green and red), phrases (in the morning, behind the car park, in the garden), or clauses (The man knocked at the door, waited for an answer, and handed in the envelop.) in that the comma after each unit prevents it from directly modifying the subsequent one.

In other cases, commas help prevent modifying the canonical sentence SVO by enclosing the interpolation (elements inserted into the structure of a sentence) which is not part of the basic pattern of the sentence as in:

8. He is, I believe, honest.

It is to be noted that the notion of an abstract canonical sentence is fundamental to Krahn's approach to dynamic syntactic punctuation (See dynamic punctuation below).

In effect, the action encompassed by punctuation, as will turn out later in the study, is simply either modification or its prevention. Based on Krahn (2014, p.172), the model, which will be applied to both languages under scrutiny respectively, is framed as follows:

Khran's New Paradigm for Punctuation (2014)

The new paradigm devises a taxonomy which categorizes punctuation into static and dynamic punctuation:

1. Static Punctuation: concerns a number of symbols and graphical features which modify linguistic forms or items in the static dimension phonologically, morphologically, or/and semantically adding up or creating new meaning. Broadly the features in this category affect one space at a time as they affect individual linguistic items calling for the attention of the reader (ibid, p. 129). It is subcategorized into:

a. Phonological Punctuation:

Phonological punctuation involves capitalization, quotations and also graphical features such as face and font size alteration. Thus, bold, italics and underlining are classed under this category. These commonly add prominence to the language item concerned, calling for the attention of the reader to particular linguistic forms or units. They, thus, offer a sort of phonological modification to the language item concerned.

To this category, font color change can be added as it is deployed to mark out or, more accurately, modify certain units phonologically, adding pre- eminence to a given item in the same way as prosodic features add prominence to certain items in the spoken language.

b. Morphological Punctuation:

This type covers the hyphen, the apostrophe, the period and space which operate at the morphological level modifying individual morphemes or words**.** For instance, the space modifies a word morphologically in that it specifies its boundary in order to block its collision with other words. The period used to mark

abbreviations, not to be confused with the sentence period, provides a formal modification in the morphological form of a long word by shortening it as in Prof. instead of professor.

c. Semantic Punctuation:

Semantic punctuation encompasses terminal punctuation namely the period, the question and the exclamation marks together with initial capitalization which semantically demarcate the beginning and the end of an orthographic sentence.

2. Dynamic Punctuation: Static punctuation is concerned with the phonological, morphological and other equivocations a language is subject to. Yet, as sentence structure gets complex, dynamic syntactic punctuation becomes a requirement. When words and phrases are added up to a simple sentence, which can produce confusion as the syntactic relations will not be discernible**,** a system is required to visually show this relation. Conversely, dynamic punctuation aims at retaining the canonical sentence pattern intact by making it apparent via the deployment of particular punctemes. It has chiefly a syntactic orientation which is why it is considered structural or internal punctuation; it involves sentence internal punctuation that responds to a schema determined by the canonical sentence pattern of a particular language.

To back up his approach to syntactic dynamic punctuation, Krahn reports what Baldwin and Coady (1978, p.370-371) wrote about punctuation: these scholars describe punctuation as a "cue system… an orthographic device which signals syntactic patterns to the reader". He also refers to Limaye (1983, p. 29) who stresses that punctuation is required when canonical word order is sundered. These early claims passed unnoticed as well as unpursued at that time but they were revived by Krahn (2014) maintaining that, to make the point behind punctuation clear, the canonical sentence is a much better guide to sentence internal punctuation than the traditional textbook rules.

Thus, according to Krahn (ibid), the *comma*, the *colon*, the *semicolon*, *dash*es, *parenthesis* and *ellipsis* fall under the category of dynamic punctuation which has a syntactic orientation within the framework of Krahn's paradigm for punctuation.

It is noteworthy that Krahn (2014) discards some symbols in his linguistic paradigm. These involve symbols which are replaceable by words and have no direct influence on the linguistic items or forms and their organization into familiar patterns; They do not affect the phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics of a written English sentence. The currency signs like $, #, @, %, / and the Unicode symbols are vivid examples which do not modify any linguistic units and are simply replaceable with words.

3. PUNCTUATION FEATURES IN ENGLISH AND KURDISH

Adopting the model sketched above, the study precisely compares and contrasts the punctuation features in both (Standard) English and (Central) Kurdish.

3.1 Static Punctuation

As noted above, static punctuation covers features that are associated with the vertical axis, thus resonating with the activities occurring in the vertical axis of an orthographic sentence namely phonological, morphological, and semantic features. It is subcategorized into phonological, morphological, and sematic punctuation each of which is given an in-depth look in both languages under the study in the upcoming subsections.

3.1.1   Phonological Punctuation

Krahn (2014, p. 147) stresses that punctuation is a characteristic feature of linguistic items, modifying every unit of writing, one or more cells at a time. In other words, punctuation is relevant to every single unit in the sense that some items are made conspicuous or eminent, while others inconspicuous (inemenint). Phonological punctuation encompasses capitals and graphic devices that are chiefly adopted to call for the reader's attention, namely bold face, italics, underlining, font size and type, and quotation marks each of which will be discussed respectively below.

It is worthwhile to note that no Kurdish source considers these features as part of the traditional set of punctuation marks. This makes the room for a wide gap between English and Kurdish languages. Besides, Krahn (ibid) is the first scholar who crucially counts font type and size alteration as a punctuation mark. As for the bold face, Quirk et al. (1989, p. 1638) list it under the heading of "Miscellaneous minor conventions" confirming it as a minor feature.

a.   Capitals (A, B, C…)

Under the category of phonological punctuation, capitals, phonologically, modify a linguistic form. Thus, capitals mark the beginning of major words in titles, as in:

9. 'Pride and Prejudice' is one of the great novels.
    (Meyers, 2009, p. 341)

In Addition, initial capitals specify proper names and other nouns used as proper names such as the names of people (John Watters), races (American, Indian…etc.), religions (Islam, Christianity…etc.), sacred names (God, Quran…etc.) titles preceding names (President Trump), places (London), languages(French), courses (Biology), organizations (The National Organization for Women),

works of literature (A Raisin in the Sun), months of the year (January, February…etc.), the days of the week (Sunday, Monday…etc.) and the planets (Venus) except the earth, the sun, and the moon (Ruetten, 2012, p. 240-241; Quirk et al.,1989, p. 1637).

Such cases illustrate an area of divergence between English and Kurdish whereby capitalization does not have any manifestation in the Kurdish language. In other words, in Kurdish, the graphemes are not case sensitive (Omer, 2021).

10. da:rya:ba:ngi: rand daka:t. [[Darya is calling Rand.]

b. Quotations ('   ', "   ")

Similar to other punctemes, quotations, single ('   ') or double ("   "), have more than one function: it characterizes a direct quotation or draw attention for some language items (words or phrases) for one reason or another. Thus, they have a separating function. They characterize titles of books, films, pictures, plays or TV programmes and separates them from the rest of the text.

11. 'Sons and Lovers' is an interesting novel of D.H. Lawrence.

In the latter use, they are also termed 'scare quotes' whereby they are compatible with italics, bold, underling, or other graphical changes such as font type or size alterations (See 4.2.1.3 below) (Krahn, 2014, p182-183; Seely, 2009, p.75). Here are some more examples:

12. A: "He's very clever, you know", John said.

     B: "Very", said Mr. Datchery without enthusiasm.

13. The term "linguistics" refers to the scientific study of language.

In Kurdish, however, quotations bear some controversies. Xoshnaw (2016) and Jaf (2011) do not list quotations as punctuation features; instead, they argue that small double brackets mark off certain sentences or partials as direct quotations, as in:

14. péx:ambar (d.x.) dafarmwé: ((da:wa:y zanst bika, gar la či:nish bet)). The messenger (Peace be upon him) said: "Seek knowledge, even in China"]

In addition, Khursheed (2014, p. 31) postulate that small double brackets are employed to highlight certain words, phrases or sentences, as illustrated below:

15. za:na:ya:n ((zma:n)) ba kol:akay natawa da:danén. [Experts consider *language* as the pillar of a nation.]

16. ka:tek bitwa:ni:n ((alfbé cor bacora kurdi:yaka:n)) bikayn ba yaktir, zor kéšama:n bo ča:rasar dabét. [If we can unite the different Kurdish alphabets, we can solve many problems.] Parentheses can replace the small double brackets in [15] and [16] above:

15a. za:na:ya:n (zma:n) ba kol:akay natawa da:danén. [Experts consider *language* as the pillar of a nation.]

16a. ka:tek bitwa:ni:n (alfbé cor bacora kurdi:yaka:n) bikayn ba yaktir, zor kéšama:n bo ča:rasar dabét. [If we

unite the different Kurdish alphabet, we can solve many problems]

Meanwhile, Nigraftar (2005, p. 27) advocates that quotation marks either denote someone's speech or call attention to a word or phrase in a piece of writing:

17. ha:wrřékam ba:ngi: kirdm: "la sarm biwasta, du: xulaki: tr xom a:ma:da dakam". [My friend called me: "wait for me. I will be ready in two minutes."]

18. wéna nérdra:waka:n, ba hoy "i:nstitoy za:nsti: ta:ybat"awa ba šéwayaki: řék u pék, řa:va akrén. "télskobi: habél" ba coréki: sarsu:řhénar…(ibid, p. 27-28) [The pictures sent through "Private Scientific Institution" will be considered meticulously. "Habel Telescope" will, in amazing way….]

c. Graphical Alterations: Face and Font Size Alterations

As noted earlier, face alterations namely underlining, italicizing and bold face are mainly deployed to emphasis a word or more. They usually— but not always— affect a row of cells. According to Meyers (2009, p.315), both underlining and italicizing are utilized to designate words which are provided with a definition, as in

19. *Agnostic* literally means without knowledge of God. Underlining and italics also mark titles of complete books (<u>Chomsky: Ideas and Ideals</u> or *Chomsky: Ideas and Ideals*, the names of magazines Life or *life*, newspapers <u>the Guardian</u>, or *the Guardian* and journals <u>The International Journal of</u> <u>Humanities</u> or *The International Journal of Humanities*.

As for bold face, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1636) provide one single sentence, "Bold face draws special attention to an item." to define it without giving any examples. It is observed in titles, as it is the case in the current study, and elsewhere in a written text to make a given word (s) conspicuous.

In addition, changes in the font type or/and size of graphemes can also be an attention calling device especially in the cover page of books, booklets, or magazines.

These graphic devices have not been covered by any Kurdish linguists or scholars in the field as punctuation features. It is observed that bold face and font type as well as font size transfigurations are rendered in titles of books or magazines particularly on the cover page, articles, chapters, sections and subsections with a view to highlight them as titles or subtitles. The other two, namely underlining and italicizing are quite missing in written Kurdish.

Another graphic device, as noted earlier, namely font color can be added to the category of phonological punctuation in as much as it has been noticed that changing font color is adopted to draw the attention of readers to particular elements in a written text in both

languages. Consider the following examples in both languages:

20. The term dialect refers to an entire language variety. (Fasold and Connor-Linton, 2004, p312)

21. papula ciwa:naka:n [Beautiful Butterflies [This the title of short story for children]] (Slewa, 2019, p. 3).

Strikingly, these graphic devices are cumulatively rendered in different contexts in both languages. Thus, some elements are simultaneously emboldened and colored as in the above-mentioned [21], and [22] below, or coloured and capitalised at the same time as in [23]:

22. Stephen Spector is a professor of English at Stony Book University. (Spector, 2017)

23. They tend to minimize its importance and instead stress the role of the LASS (Language acquisition support system)". (Quoted from Fasold and Connor-Linton, 2006, p 228)

3.1.2 Morphological Punctuation

Features that occur under morphological punctuation embody a morphological modification i.e. a change in the morphological form of an existing linguistic form such as leaving out some grapheme and putting an apostrophe to mark the omission. Hyphens are another example which separate elements in a compound to prevent ambiguity. Morphological punctuation can be subcategorized as follows:

a. The Apostrophe (')

In English, apostrophes perform two major functions: they mark the omission of one or more letters in words and figures in dates, and they show the possessive case ('s) in possessive nouns (Casagramde 2014: 10). For instance, the apostrophes in *he's* (he is) and *can't* (cannot) indicate the omission of one or more letters respectively; while it marks the genitive case in *Jack's book* (Lester and Beason, p. 235).

On the other hand, the apostrophe is not rendered in the Kurdish punctuation system.

b. The Hyphen (-)

The hyphen characterizes two types of division within a word. First, it demarcates word division between lines in handwriting not only in English but also in Kurdish separating a word between the end of one line and the beginning of the next, as in:

24. By the end of the course, students are expected to communicate fluently in En-glish.

25. yakéki: di:ka la ta:batmandi:yaka:ni: xéza:ni: tokmaw u, hastkirdna ba barpirsiya:ryati: w wa- fa: kirdna bara:mbar ba bal:énaka:n. (Mala Karim, 2019, p. 80)

[Another characteristic of a successful family is holding the responsibility and keeping the promises] Second, the hyphen indicates the parts of a word: it

distinguishes the bases of   a compound word or separates the pre-fix of a word and its base as in: anti-inflammatory, post- World War I (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1613).

This latter use substantiates a point of difference between the two languages for it is not observed in Kurdish.

c. The Space

There is a strong argument for counting the space which had been not only out of sight but also out of the mind of many authors for years, as an 'official' part of the punctuation system. Many authors strongly hold that the space, as a sort of zero punctueme, falls within the limits of punctuation features. For illustration, Waller (1980: 245) proposes that "Punctuation is the single aspect of written language… that does not represent words but also the spaces between them".

Nunberg (1990, p. 17) highlights that punctuation must be considered together with a number of other graphical characters in a written text. These comprise face alterations, capitalization, indentation and spacing.

In line with this view is Harris' (1995, p. 171) account of spaces as one of the primary attempts to text processing on the part of the writer. Lennard (2011, p. 123) refers to it as 'invisible' punctuation. He argues that the controversy arises from the confusion created by the phrase 'punctuation mark' which most writers readily admit it as synonymous with the word punctuation. Accordingly, since the space has zero manifestation, some scholars reject it as being part of the total system.

However, Krahn (2014, p. 146) attempts to settle the controversy by putting forward the term 'puncteme' by analogy with phoneme, morpheme, lexeme etc. proposing that it is more accurate than 'punctuation mark' which presupposes the existence of a symbol. Thus, he maintains that "space is primitive punctuation" and it is the crucial vertical i.e. static feature which modifies every linguistic item in the matrix by blocking their fusion.

Krahn (ibid, p. 139) adds that the importance of the space can be elucidated by omitting the spaces between the words of a given piece of writing. The resulting text proves to be hardly possible to read:

26. Hatim argues that a heightened awareness is needed of what actually happens when a piece of text is reinterpreted in translation across cultural and linguistic boundaries. (Quoted from Hatim 2004, back cover)

26a. Hatimarguesthat ahightendedawarenessisneededof whatactuallyhappenswhenapieceoftextis reinterpretedintranslationacrossculturaland linguisticboundaries.

Moreover, in Kurdish leaving out the spaces between words is not only confusing and overwhelming but-

sometimes- also leads to a change in meaning. For instance, *xa:n* in *čra: xa:n* is an address term: a polite form of addressing a lady called . *čra:* However, if the space between the two words is deleted, a new word *čra:xa:n* (extremely bright) is formed.; hence, omitting the space between the two words results in a radical change in the meaning of the words. In other words, removing the space between two words may result in a new word.

In effect, it should be noted that the space- though not acknowledged as a punctuation feature by Kurdish linguists- represents an important part of the punctuation system of both languages under study so much so that it is hardly possible to understand a written text without the spaces that separate the individual words.

d. The Period (.)

The period, as Krahn (2014, p. 148) proposes, can be indexed under the category of morphological punctuation, for "it marks an abbreviated word form" modifying it as "a morphological unit by shortening it" (ibid). Not likely to be confused with sentence punctuation (semantic punctuation), it has a terminating function in abbreviations that end with final letter or grapheme (e.g. Mr. (Mister) and Dr. (Doctor), and abbreviations that are composed of small letters (st. (street) or end in small letters (Ave. (Avenue)). (Rutten 2012, p.239).

According to Shanshez-Stockhammer (2016, p. 151), the period demarcates the boundary between items in email and website addresses modifying each individual unit as a morphological one at a time as in www.koyauniversity.org

This punctuation practice is also found in Kurdish whereby the first letter followed by a period usually stands for a given word identifying it as a morphological unit, as in d. standing for *diktor* (doctor) and m. for *ma:mosta:* (teacher).

Moreover, initial capitals are also evident in the abbreviated forms of the names of organizations, institutions, and countries which are not marked by a period. Instances include BBC, WFP, USA… etc. According to Krahn (2014, p. 137), these initialisms substantiate a morphological modification of a given name by adopting a conventional way to shorten them. However, In Kurdish, where letters are not case sensitive, initial letters in abbreviations are signaled by a period as in y.n.k. (yekéti: ni:šti:ma:ni: kurdsta:n).

3.1.3   Semantic Punctuation

As noted above, this involves punctuation marks that have a semantic value. It comprises initial capitals and terminal punctuation: features that semantically mark the onset or close off a sentence or an utterance. Initial

capitals announce the beginning of a new sentence by modifying the first letter through upper case; the period, the exclamation, and the question mark which are usually followed by a space instantiate semantic punctuation in the sense that they semantically indicate whether a sentence conveys information, asks for information, or expresses surprise as shown in the following examples respectively:

27. She is a physician.

28. How old is she?

29. What a nice car!

a. Initial Capitals

Capitalization, as Lester and Beason (2013, p. 317) behold, elevates as well as reinforces clarity. In English, hence, upper case letters represent or modify the beginning of a new sentence. Consider the following example in which the initial letter, more precisely the initial grapheme, is made prominent by capitalizing it:

30. She watches television all day.

However, as noted earlier, graphemes are not case sensitive in the Kurdish language; that is, a new sentence does not start with an upper case letter. (See e.g. [10] above)

b. The Period (Full Stop) (.)

A very frequent punctuation mark in both languages is the period which shows that a statement, a command or an indirect question is ended (Meyers, 2009, p. 307; Xoshnaw, 2016, p. 135), as exemplified below:

31. The child ate the apple.

32. Shut the door.

33. I do not know why he leaves.

34. xwéndka:raka:n wa:nakaya:n xwénd. [The students took their lecture]

35. xéra biřo.[Go fast.]

36. na:za:nm boči: wa: daka:t.[I do not know why he is doing that.] However, Brown and Miller (2013) argue that indirect questions end with question marks. Nigraftar (2005, p. 19) adds that, in Kurdish, polite requests, though interrogative in form, are marked by a period rather than a question mark, as in:

37. zah:mat nabét akré aw pénusam bo xulakék bidayté. [Can you lend me this pen for two minutes please?]

It is noteworthy that the period, in Kurdish, ends the exclamative sentences that begin with an exclamative word such as ئای, ئۆی, ئۆخەی where an exclamation mark is inserted directly after the exclamative word and a period designates the end of the sentence, as illustrated below:

38. oxay! la dast zorda:ry řizga:rma:n bu:.[Oh, we have survived from oppression.] (Xoshnaw, 2016, p. 136-137).

d. The Question Mark (?)

Broadly, the question mark preludes the use of other punctuation marks. Thus, it has a terminating function similar to a period, for either mark, in English, requires capitalization of the initial letter of the following sentence.

The question mark in both languages, as pointed out by Quirk et al. (1985, p.1633) and Nigraftar (2005, p.17), indicates that a given sentence is a question which could be interrogative or less frequently declarative in form, as in:

39. What is your favorite color?
40. You are alone?
41. kay déyawa? [When will you be back?]
42. har xoti:? [Are you alone]

Another use involves using question marks to show that the writer is uncertain about a fact particularly a date:

43. Geoffrey Chaucer (1343? -1400) …. (Spector, 2017, p. 235)

Moreover, Xoshnaw (2016, p. 139-140) reports that the question mark in Kurdish denotes doubt and criticism:

44. čima: načuyta ba:zar? [You have not gone to the market!]
45. Kay ahangaka kotayi: dét? [When will the party end?] In respect to English, Casagrande (2014, p. 84) notes that both a question mark as well as an exclamation point can co-occur at the end of a sentence where both marks are crucial to the meaning of the sentence. Here is an example:
46. Why did you scream charge!?

However, the practice of multiple question or exclamation marks or both is not recommended in professional writing or genres; yet it is common in casual correspondence (ibid), as it is the case in the following example:

47. Are you crazy??!!

e. The Exclamation Mark (!)

The exclamation point, in English, usually shows emphasis, surprise and also high emotions, as in:

48. What a lovely day!
49. I am really shocked by her behavior! (Straus, 2008, p. 61; Casagrande, 2014, p.86)

Similarly, in Kurdish, strong feelings [50], emphasis [51] or surprise [52] are terminated with mark:

50. xéra:, biřo daré! [Go out quickly!
51. har ésta: dabét béyt! [You must come right now!]
52. nakay bam ta:ri:ka šawa biřoy! [You'd better not to go at this dark night.] (Kurdish Academy, 2009, p. 51-53)

It is worthwhile to note that in both English and Kurdish, as Xoshnaw (2016, p. 137) and Casagrande (2014, p.86) aver, the exclamation point may occur after an exclamatory word or an interjection and the sentence ends with a period as illustrated in:

53. Oh! You ruined everything.
54. a:fari:n! ba yakam darču:y. [Excellent! You stood the first.]

3.2 Dynamic Punctuation

As noted earlier, some punctuations features, namely those appear on the horizontal axis, help to preserve the canonical order of the elements in a sentence; they either demarcate the boundaries of the linguistic units or connect them taking for granted their centrality in the basic structure of the sentence. Features or marks that fall under this type are dynamic in the sense that they are context dependent i.e. the punctuation practice highly relies on the unique structure of the sentence and marks any deviations from the canonical word order. What is important, therefore, is the form of the sentence which indicates how language is configured, and which punctuation symbol should be inserted. Thus, the main place where punctuation is found is between the sentence partials or fragments, reflecting their relation to the basic pattern of the sentence. Marks that come under this type are sometimes called structural punctuation marks, for they are syntactic in nature and mark syntactic patterns (Ehrlich, 1992)

A number of punctuation symbols are used to insert interpolations in the dynamic dimension. These comprise *the comma, the semicolon, the colon, dashes, parentheses, brackets, braces, and also ellipsis points.*

a. The Comma

The word 'comma' originates from the ancient Greek term meaning "a short piece of text cut off from the rest of the line or sentence". For the last four centuries, the term has come to denote the "modest little punctuation mark" that separates clauses, phrases, and even single words. More specifically, commas clarify the structure, and eventually the meaning, of a sentence by setting off its grammatical elements (Spector 2017, p. 68). Thus, commas reinforce order and create clarity within sentences.

According to Jarvie (1992, p10), the comma has been characterized as "the most ubiquitous, elusive, and discretionary of all stops". Both the comma and the period are the most widely used punctuation marks. However, the comma beats the period due to its versatility i.e. flexibility. However, this equivocation can be resolved by advocating that "a comma is an anti-modification device… preventing the oncoming next-to –the right structure from directly modifying the existing one to the left" (Krahn 2014, p. 166). In other words, the

comma prevents each unit from modifying the next one by preventing closure with units that are not part of the basic canonical sentence. Consider [55] below which is a nightmare:

55. The cat I'm referring to the neighbor's cat which comes around our house frequently begging for food something I don't want to give it because it might lose its interest in our neighbor and start thinking it lives at our house is black and white. (ibid, p. 167)

The writer fails to show the reader the basic sentence namely "The cat that I am referring to is black and white", which can be accomplished simply by adding commas to mark the intervening material (appositive, relative clause, apposition, subordinate clause with coordination) each of which can be prevented from modifying the next proving that the sentence is not yet resolved; the verb 'is' indicates that the sentence is going to be closed and hence the integrity of the sentence protected. In essence, these units are visually part of the orthographic sentence but not part of the basic structure of the sentence as illustrated below:

55a. *The cat I'm referring to*, the neighbor's cat, which comes around our house frequently begging for food, something I don't want to give it because it might lose its interest in our neighbor and start thinking it lives at our house, *is black and white.* (ibid, p. 167).

It is noted that any element whether a word, phrase or a clause that occurs in a sentence and interrupts the natural flow of the sentence, i.e., the SVO pattern, is counted as an interrupter and, hence, is delimited by commas. Thus, commas support the grammatical structure of the sentences. Connectives like however, therefore, then, as a result, for instance…etc. are regarded parenthetical and are usually cut off from the basic sentence.

A similar modification counteraction is observed in recursion when a number of language forms of the same type occur recursively in a construction. For instance, the comma in [56] prevents *nice* from modifying the other two adjectives *smart* and *young* following it and set them apart as distinct units:

56. She was nice, smart, and young.

To sum up, the comma has two basic functions: to prevent words and phrases from directly modifying canonical sentence and to separate recursive units preventing inappropriate modification (Krahn, 2014, p. 167). Into the first category fit the lengthy rules reported in handbooks and studies on punctuation: commas delimiting sentence initial elements [57], sentence final elements [58], nonrestrictive relative clauses[59], parenthetical words [60]or phrases[61], appositives [62], any interrupter [63] and [64], quotations [65], and clauses both main [66] and subordinate [67] which designate that the abstract basic sentence (written in

italics in the examples given below) is modified either through additional units or sundered through interrupters.

57. To apply for this job, *you must have previous experience.*
58. *A face-to face meeting with applicants would damp such criticism*, though it hardly eliminates it.
59. *The woman*, who works hardest, *will get the promotion.*
60. *Karen*, happily, *joined the army*
61. *The man*, with great courage, *went off to battle.*
62. *My husband,* Jack, *bought a nice car.*
63. *I am*, as you have probably noticed, *very nervous about this.*
64. *He always gave priority his career and*, as a result, *lost his family*
65. *"Why"*, I asked, *"Do you always forget to do that?"*
66. *I have painted the entire house,* but *he is still working on sanding the doors.*
67. Although he was late, *he did not apologize* (Bryaktar, 1988; Casagrande, 2014, p.32; Straus, 2008, p56)

In relation to [66] above, Spector (2017, p. 93) and Messenger (1988, p. 72) characterize the linkage of two sentences or main clauses with a comma only as "comma splice": described elsewhere as 'run-on sentences'; in this case it is a prerequisite that the main clauses should be combined with coordinators as is clear in]66a] where the deletion of the coordinating conjunction results in inappropriateness marked by an asterisk:

66a. * *I have painted the entire house; he is still working on sanding the doors*

These two sentences should be separated by a period, not a comma as they are both independent clauses which can stand alone as a sentence.

The second category, as noted earlier, encompasses the common use of the comma to separate recursive words, phrases, or clauses to block inappropriate modification and, hence, it adverts confusion. For illustration, deleing the comma after the *son* in [67] below would assemble and modify *son* and *nephew* as one unit and would lead to the conclusion that they would have to split one-third of the estate:

68. My $10 million estate is to be split among my husband, my son, and my nephew.

As for the Kurdish language, the comma has been described as the most widespread punctuation symbol. It is noted that it has a number of functions or uses. It is also argued that the rules governing the use of the comma are not so accurate and subject to variation (Jaf, 2011). A number of Kurdish authors (e.g. Hashmi, 2020; Nigrafter, 2005; Xoshnaw, 2016) made attempts to classify the functions of commas, but their attempt seems to be duplications of English and Arabic sources.

Kurdish is essentially an SOV language; yet it belongs to the non-configurational class of languages whereby

word order is not fixed and there is room for interruption everywhere in a Kurdish sentence making the sentence complex or in the majority of cases complex-compound. This justifies such common use of commas in the Kurdish language in as much as the clause boundaries, both main and subordinate, are marked by commas. In effect, the comma is a good treatment for overwhelmingly long sentences which cause breathlessness on the part of readers (Khursheed 2014, p. 28)

Crucially, the uses of the comma in the Kurdish as an SOV language, with one major exception, well fit into Krahn's unique approach to the comma as a device discarding modification. For one thing, the employment of the comma to set off appositives [69] as well as main clauses [70], and the elements listed in a series [71], (Hashmi 2020) are, respectively, in harmony with the two primary functions of the comma proposed by Krahn.

69. masturay kurdista:ni:, nusar u řojna:ma nu:s, la řojhal:a:ty kurdista:n dajya:. [Masturay Kurdistany, the writer and the journalist, lived in eastern Kurdistan.]

70. agar gul; ni:t, dřki:š maba. [If you are not a flower, do not be a thorn.]

71. xwé, řon, piya:z u birnc hamu: aw šta:nan ka péwistn. [Salt, onion, and rice are all necessary.] (Xoshnaw, 2016, p. 140)

This substantiates a point of similarity between English and Kurdish and provides a uniform account in dealing with the comma regardless of the fact that English is an SVO language while Kurdish is SOV one.

Upon closer consideration, meanwhile, in Kurdish, notwithstanding English, it is quite common in Kurdish for the comma to separate or link main clauses which are not combined by a connective word, as proposed by Xoshnaw (ibid, p. 141) as in:

72. a:za:d ha:t, muhamad řošt. [Azad came; Mohammed went.] Another example comes from Slewa (2019, p.):

73. dwa:tr zya:tr giwéy bo řa:grt, bi:ni: dangi: girya:naka la sar mézaka dét. [Later, she listened to him more carefully; she realized that the weepy sound comes from the table.]

It follows that the comma occurs in positions whereby a period is deployed in English. Thus, in the following example, a comma should be replaced by a period if the sentence is translated into English as English does not admit subsequent main clauses separated with a comma only:

74. awa:na sruštéki: xošawi:stya:n haya, falsafakaya:n la xošawi:sty u bočua gašbi:nakaya:n bo jiyan la ta:l:tri:n řojgarda: ya:rmatya:n dada:t. (Quoted from Muhammad, 2008, p. 77)

The English version of [74] would be something like:

74a. These have a lovely nature. Their love philosophy and optimism help them in the hardest days of their life.

but with a period signifying the clause's boundary, not a comma.

b. The Semicolon (;)

The semicolon, as pointed out by Garner (2016, p.476),"marks grammatical separation in the relations of a thought to a degree greater than a comma". More specifically, it joins two complete sentences into a single written sentence when the two sentences are felt to be too closely related to be separated by a full stop and when there are no connecting words (such as *and* or *but*) which would require a comma (Trask, 1997, p. 42). In one sense, it suggests coordination between the clauses. It is described as an 'elevated comma', and called the "sentence adjunct" by Krahn (2014, p. 103; p. 193) in as much as it unites two sentences into a single larger one, as in:

75. Lisa was upset; Jane had a nervous breakdown. (two complete sentences combined by a semicolon)

76. Lisa was upset, and Jane had a nervous breakdown. (Two complete sentences combined by and)

In the light of this, Krahn (ibid, 170) advocates that the semicolon together with the colon (See 3 below) operates at a "quasi-textual level": occurring between two independent clauses, whereas the other punctemes function on "local structural levels" i.e. setting apart words, phrases, and clauses in the horizontal axis. They are basically described as textual shortcuts imbedded in a grammatical string. Broadly, it offers a semantic modification to an existing structure adding some information to the basic structure.

However, according to Trask (1997, p.42), the use of the semicolon indicates that the writer thinks that the two independent sentences joined by a semicolon are more closely related than the average two consecutive sentences to be separated by a full stop. It is noteworthy that the semicolon in [75] could be replaced by a full stop; yet the semicolon shows a more vivid relation between the two smaller sentences, as illustrated below:

75a. Lisa was upset. Jane had a nervous breakdown. (Two simple successive sentences)

In addition, a semicolon is called for when a conjunctive adverb such as however, therefore, thus, hence, indeed, accordingly, besides, that is, namely, or for example join two closely related independent clauses.

77. John was just being helpful; that is, he was trying to be helpful. (Casagrande, 2014, p 68-69)

Semicolons are also used to separate items in a complex recursive structure particularly when the items have internal punctuation, as in:

78. The company has retail locations in Charlottesville, Virginia; Shreveport, Louisiana; and New Heaven, Connecticut. (ibid)

By comparison, in Kurdish, although, theoretically, it has been cited in all the sources about the topic (Nigraftar (2005); Khoshnaw (2016); and Hashmi (2020) Sewaili (2003)), in practice, it has no place in the Kurdish language. After surveying a number of books (Ra'uf (2019); Sameer (2009); Qarachatany (2008)); and newspaper articles (Kudistani Nwe (2020); Honya (2018), No. 79), no instance of a semicolon has been observed. Consequently, it can be argued that, practically, the semicolon is not rendered in Kurdish: its citation in the sources due to the fact the Kurdish sources are mostly translated from other languages and they force Kurdish into a foreign-based framework. In effect, the punctuation system in Kurdish is not yet well-developed to incorporate all the symbols.

However, it has been noticed that Kurdish opts for the comma to provide an existing clause or sentence with a semantic modification or addition, as is illustrated in:

79. sibay pénci: a:za:ra, ya:di: řːapaři:na maznakay sa:l:i: (1991)a. [Tomorrow is March 5th. It is the anniversary of the Great Uprising (1991).] (Slewa, 2019, p. 59) The second clause is an addition to the first and the sentences are semantically closely related; hence, they are not separated by a period. In effect, it can be postulated that the comma functions also as a semicolon in Kurdish.

c. The Colon (:)

As noted above, the colon, similar to the semicolon, seems to operate on a more organizational level compared to the other symbols which have an intrasentential role. Although the colon is not as common as a comma, it has valuable functions. I t contributes to the establishment of "order", "clarity", and "rhythm" of a written text. The colon has a number of functions. Principally, the colon is used to illustrate or explicate a prior sentence; that is the elements that follow the colon are explanations of what precedes it. It precedes a definition, an example, a restatement, or a summary; thus, it illustrates, interprets, or amplifies the point the writer was leading up to in the first clause. In other words, the colon is used to move from an introductory statement to a main idea or from a premise to a conclusion. This symbol can be interpreted as something standing for *namely*, *that is, or here's what I mean by that* (Spector 2017, p.56-57). Thus, it modifies the canonical sentence in a qualified way (Krahn 2014, p. 170), as it is exemplified below:

80. Refrigerator temperature is critical: if it is not cold enough, food will spoil. (Casagrande, 2014, p. 63)

Another use of the colon, as reported by Casagrande (ibid, p. 65), involves its use to introduce lists [81], quotations [82] and dialogues [83].

81. There are faithful friends: an old wife, an old dog, and ready money.
82. Carlyle got straight to the point: "You are fired"' he said.
83. Claudia: I see you brought the new girlfriend. Larry: She's nobody, really. (Spector, 2017, p. 64)

It can also separate a title from a subtitle, as in:

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Additionally, the colon is also used in numeric terms such as ratios (2:1), times (9:30), time elapsed (his finish time was 1:58:22) or in legal citations (Fayetteville Municipal Code 3: 282).

It is worthy to note that Krahn (2014, p. 194) characterizes the four later uses of the colon "mechanical" uses of the colon as they do not illustrate a prior point or statement.

As far as the Kurdish language is concerned, apart from legal citations, all the mechanical uses of the colon are rendered [85], [86], [87], [88] and the colon is not found in the general schema of moving from general to specific points (Nigraftar, 2005, p. 26). Jaf (2011, p. 12) admits that the colon is found before list, a quotation, or to introduce examples. However, According to Xoshnaw (2016), the colon is not part of the Kurdish punctuation system, for no entry has been allotted to it in his long list of punctuation symbols.

85. agar ba řasti: atawé kéšt da:bazéni:, awa: dabét la sé št kami:kaytawa: qa:wal:ti:, na:ni: ni:wařo u na:ni: éwa:ra.

[If you really want to lose weight, you should decrease three things: breakfast, lunch, and dinner.]

86. a:zad witi: ((min hargi:z wil:a:ty xom céna:helm)).

[Azad said: "I will never leave my country.]

87. fřokaka damjmér 2:30 d.n. hal:sa:.

[The plane took off at 2:30 p.m.]

88. ša:ri: hawlér la čandi:n gařak pékdét lawa:na: a:za:di:, i:ska:n, seta:qa:n, ku:ra:n, tayra:wa…htd.

[Erbil consists of several quarters: Azady, Iskan, Setaqan, Kuran, Tayrawa…etc.]

d. Dashes (─   ─)

Quirk et al. (1985, p.1629) aver that dashes, similar to commas and parentheses, form a set of correlative punctuation symbols mainly employed to make an interpolation discernible. More specifically, dashes indicate that a sentence, a sentence partial or an important thought is embedded into another.

Accordingly, dashes call attention to an emphasized sentence interrupter as in.

89. Some —but not all— of the work was easy. (Meyers, 2009, p. 3312-113)

A dash often substitutes a comma, but suggests a sharper separation (Quirk et al., p. 1612). In addition to that, it helps create a forceful snappy ending. Dashes can signal that the writer is about to state something unexpected, funny, ironic, or otherwise worthy of attention, thus having a dramatic effect. They can be replaced by bracketing commas and parentheses as well. Shaw advocated that dashes are the most versatile puncteme in that they can stand for any of several different punctuation symbols, functioning just as they do, though with more force or emphasis (qt. in Spector, 2017: 163). They are, however, more common in informal writing, as illustrated below:

90. The other man— David Johnson— refuses to make a statement.

91. At that time, the students — goodness knows why for what reason —reversed their earlier, more moderate decision. (Quirk et al., (ibid); Spector, (ibid: 165).

As for dashes in Kurdish, a single dash is used to introduce speakers in a dialogue. This feature is particularly common, as Jaf (2011) notes, in stories:

92. - ahmad: či:t wit?

[Ahmad: What have you said?] - a:za:d: na:nakat bixo. [Azad: Have your food.]

In addition, Xoshnaw (2016, p. 142) designates that a dash adds an illustration or a comment to preceding statement:

93. péwi:sta harem giringi: zya:tr ba karku:k bida:t— awsa: karku:k zya:tr ma:na:y kurdista:ni la xo dagrét.

[Kurdistan Regoinal Government should pay more attention to Kirkuk; then, Kirkuk will achieve a Kurdish hallmark.]

Nigraftar (2005, p. 31), on the other hand, points out that dashes mark deviations from the basic sentence through inserting intervening material in specific positions:

94. ha:wpolaka:nm— chro, na:zda:r, ša:da:n— bo pišu:y nawroz la ma:l:ma:n bu:n u ka:téki: xošma:n ba sar bird.

[My classmates — Chro, Nazdar, Shadan— were my guest at home on Newroz vacation and we had a great time.]

It is worthwhile to note that when two punctemes clash or overlap in the same location, in both Languages, the absorption rule comes into play; the one that better serves to protect the canonical sentence will be prioritized and retained. To explain this point, Krahn (2014, p. 171) provides the following example whereby the right dash coincides a comma but the comma

absorbs the dash in order to preserve the canonical sentence; the dash is associated with the relative clause digression and not the sentence:

95. The house, which is dark—because nobody is home, should be shut.

95a. *The house, which is dark—because nobody is home—, should be shut.

Similarly, the absorption rule is at play in Kurdish:

96. pédačét, la:wi: safar bika:t— harčanda zor dl:nya: ni:m.

[It seems that Lawi wants to travel- although I am not sure.]

96a. *pédačét, la:wi: safar bika:t— harčanda zor dl:nya: ni:m —.

[It seems that Lawi wants to travel- although I am not sure.] Dashes usually come in pairs, but the right dash has been absorbed by the period to close off the sentence.

e. Parentheses (   ), Brackets [   ], and Braces {   }

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1612) aver that the function of parentheses and other types of bracketing is to designate a "sharp interruption in the structure within which they are inserted". They mark, as Meyers (2009, p. 3130) beholds, designate a "deemphasized sentence interrupter", as exemplified below:

97. The wallaby (a small or medium-sized kangaroo) is found only in Australia and Newszland. (ibid)

According to Krahn (2014, p. 179), the small subset including parentheses, brackets and braces form a hierarchy, each of which represents more distance from the basic sentence. Parentheses denote that the words enclosed provide additional information, illustration, or asides and are not essential parts of the basic sentence; they can be omitted without affecting the grammaticality and acceptability of the sentence, as exemplified below:

98. What has been closed down is the LEB (Large Electron Position Collider) accelerator. (Seely, 2009, p. 23)

99. He finally answered (after taking five minutes to think) that he did not understand the question. (Straus, 2008, p. 62)

Garner (2016, p.367) considers two other uses of parentheses: to introduce shorthand or a familiar name:

100. The Russians tracked the U-2 with their radar and made a number of attempts to knock it down with their surface-to-air missiles (SAMs), but the flight was a success.

They also, as Garner (ibid) postulates, demarcate attribution in formal and academic writing as found in the present study and any other academic studies.

Square brackets are not so common. Spector (2017, p.224) notes that they are used to add words for clarity as in:

101. But… [Kary] Perry may be our most purely American reigning celebrity.

In scholarly written texts, brackets are put around emendations when a mistake is detected. Moreover, the bracketed word [sic] is observed indicating that the editor has quoted an error and he is aware of it. See the example below:

102. He wrote, "We're having a wonderful time. Wish you were her [sic]." (ibid)

Large braces, although they are not so common, mark a number of alternative choices in scientific fields like linguistics, physics etc., as exemplified below:

103. The use of {disel-powered} is being investigated. electrically-powered

With regard to the Kurdish language, parentheses enclose foreign synonyms of particular terms to achieve clarity [104], as in some cases the foreign word is more common. It also denotes appositives [105] and attribution [106].

104. a:gra di:wa:r komputarakat dapa:rézét. [firewall protects your computer.]

105. pi:ramérd (h:aci: tofi:q) nusar u ša:?i:réki: hal:kawtu: bu:. [Piramerd (Haji Tofiq) was an outstanding writer and poet.]

106. na:zda:n ba minda:l: la řu:y parwardayi:awa zya:n ba minda:l: dagayanét. (qaračata:ni:) [Spoiling a child is harmful from an educational point of view. (Qarachatany)] (Hashmi, 2020)

Furthermore, parentheses are adopted to set off names of authors, figures, book tittles or any other words that have some importance in a given text. They add prominence of a given word (Jaf, 2011). Consider the following examples:

107. ni:ša:naka:n da:baš dabina sar sé cor: (ma:di:, aql:i:, zma:ni) [Signs are classified into three types: material, mental and verbal.]

108. dra:ma:y (gardalu:l) čiřbi:nartri:n dra:ma:y sardami: xoy bu:. ['Gardalul' was the most popular series of its time.] (Dizayee, 2013, p.643)

Additionally, the feature encompasses dates denoting the outset as well as the end of an era, system, government or life span of a figure, as is exemplified below:

109. dawl:ati: h:asnawi: (941-1014) pa:ra w puli:ši: halkandwa. [Hasnawi: government had its own currency and stamp.]

110. mam cala:l (1934-2017) sarkrdayaki: béwéna bu:a [Mam Jalal was a unique leader.] (Hashmi, 2020)

As for brackets and braces, views fall into different categories. Some sources (Nigrafter, 2005), Kurdish academy (2009); Jaf (2011); Xoshnaw (2016)) either do not characterize them or assign them different roles. For instance, Jaf (2011) does not incorporate them in his list of punctuation symbols; Kurdish academy (2009) refers only to square brackets as uncommon punctuation features without providing any clarifications; it disregards braces. On the other hand, Nigrafter (2005) and Xoshnaw (2016) give different accounts of each: Nigraftar (2005) who excludes square brackets beholds that braces circumscribe additions or elucidations to a given quotation [111], while Xoshnaw (2016) proposes that square brackets, but not braces, which he terms them 'large brackets', encompass clarifications added by a translator in order to achieve clarity and accurateness [112]:

111. dastnusaka "mi"rza: sa?i:d" na:wék la ma:ngi: oktobary sa:l:i: 1902, ba "moza xa:nay bari:ta:nya" y froštu:a {law sardama:nada:, héšta: ktébxa:nay bari:ta:nya: péknaha:tbu: w baši: ktébaka:ni:ši: har ban a:wi: "moza xa:nay bari:ta:nya" nasra:bu:} (Nigraftar, 2005, p.34)

[The manuscript was sold to British Museum by an unknown man called Mirza Sa'ed{at that time, the British library was not established yet and the book section was known by the British museum}]

112. aristo dal:ét ba:štri:n jiya:n, jiya:ni: fikr u řošinbi:ri:ya…pégayštin u tawa:wi: w kama:li:ya wak kama:li: xwa:and [šiti:a:wa:š bu:ni: ni:ya, čunka kama:liI w tawa:wi: tanha: la xuda:da: bu:ni: haya]

[Aristotle said: the best life is the life of thinking and education…the maturity and perfectness as the perfection of God [something which does not exist in practice, because perfection and integrity exist only in God.]]

f.   Ellipsis Points (…)

The term *ellipsis*, ellipsis points, applies to the three-dot punctuation feature that is primarily employed where words have been left out in a quotation. It is recommended not to employ this puncteme neither at the beginning nor at the end of a quote.

113. " I considered myself . . . lucky to be still alive."

A distinction is sometimes made between 'ellipsis points' and 'suspension points' which indicates interruption. In this case it has a stuttering effect, as it is evident in the following examples respectively:

114. It is not that he finds her unattractive; it is just, well. . .

115. You… you…you monster! (Casagrande, 2014, p. 88-90)

Krahn (2014, p. 189), on the other hand, argues that ellipsis is the sole puncteme that seems to have a single

function: it demonstrates "purposely omitted" elements in a borrowed quotation. He ignores the suspension points.

Similar to English, ellipsis markers, in Kurdish, stand for deleted words in a quotation. Upon closer inspection, it is observed that ellipsis points are employed even at the beginning or the end of a quote. Moreover, according to Jaf (2011), the dots may be either two or three.

> **116.**" …wéjar u bi:sar u nusar u xwénar la ha:ri:ka:riIyaki: bardada:mda:n la gal:yakdi:da:"

[… The speaker, the hearer, the writer and the reader are a process of constat cooperation.]

> **117.** " la komali: řošnbi:ri: émada:, ha:wzma:ni: ya:n "da:ylog" baw wa:ta:ya ni:ya ka řoja:wa:i:yaka:n léy agan. "da:ylog" ni"ya:zi: ba paywandi: daruni: w mawda:y téruani"na saba:rat baw šita:nay ka déna bar ba:s, la k:a:tékda: ka boču:na daruni:yaka:ni: éma zor ca:r da:wari:yaka:n la gal: dama:rgi:ri:da: tékal: dakan u řaxna grtin la yak, ba šařu dujmini: lékadanawa…"

[In our enlightened society, the "dialogue does not mean what the eastern scholars understood. "Dialogue" involves psychological relations and point of view on the topics under discussion. However, our psychological opinions mostly confuse judgement with severity, and consider criticism as hatred and quarrel…] (Nigraftar, 2005, p. 17)

In addition, the suspension points in Kurdish indicate that a statement has been suspended because it seems it has no end or the deletions are known from the context. Thus, it signals an incomplete sentence:

> **118.** a:za:d na:ni: xwa:rd u ři:ši: ta:ši: u xoy goři: u… [Azad ate his meal, shaved, dressed up…] (Xoshnaw, 2016, p.147)

4. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

4.1 Static Punctuation

In line with hypothesis (1), punctuation in the vertical axis substantiates a number of similarities and differences which will be discussed in the following subsections.

4.1.1 Phonological Punctuation

As far as phonological punctuation is concerned, the results show that:

1. Capitalization is deployed to phonologically modify proper names and other nouns used as proper names such as the names of races, religions, sacred names titles preceding names places), languages, courses, organizations, works of literature, months of the year, the days of the week, the planets, and major words in titles in the English language whereas graphemes are not case sensitive in the Kurdish writing system, and, hence, do not admit such phonological modification. This authenticates hypotheses (1) and (3).

2. In both languages' quotations, though subject to controversy in Kurdish, have a separating function in that they mark off direct quotations or elements assigned particular prominence. This validates hypothesis (1). However, in Kurdish, notwithstanding English, small double brackets, a feature not rendered in English, and parentheses are employed to achieve a similar end. This again validates hypotheses (1) and (3).

3. Of the three attention- drawing graphical devices, italics, underlying and bold evident in English- though not reported in any Kurdish source- only bold is observed in Kurdish confirming hypotheses (1), (3) and (4). In line with hypothesis (2), parentheses in Kurdish, function as an attention drawing tool.

4. Font size and type alteration is rendered in both languages supporting hypotheses (1) and (4)

5. Font colour change which is observed both in the English as well as the Kurdish data, can be added to the category of phonological punctuation as it, similar to other graphical means, aims to spotlight certain elements verifying hypothesis (4).

6. Both English and Kurdish permit cumulation of graphical devices. In other words, such devices may pile up or come together. For instance, items can be emboldened and coloured, or capitalized and coloured at the same time. These can be accompanied by a change in the font type or size.

4.1.2 Morphological Punctuation

The following results can be reported:

1. The space as a zero puncteme is a universal punctuation feature evident in English as well as Kurdish (hypothesis 1). However very few sources have listed the space as a puncteme in English; as for Kurdish, no source has to date incorporated the space in the Kurdish punctuation system (hypothesis 4).

2. The hyphen is also evident in both; nonetheless, the use of the hyphen to indicate parts of a word is not noticed in Kurdish (hypotheses 1 and 2).

3. The period marks abbreviated forms of words in both languages modifying them as morphological units (hypothesis 1).

4. The period has a separating function in email and website addresses modifying each item as an independent morphological unit (hypothesis 1).

5. As for the apostrophe, it is not included the Kurdish punctuation system since it is not manifested in Kurdish (hypotheses 1 and 3).

4.1.3 Semantic Punctuation

1. Initial capitals mark an area of divergence between English and Kurdish in that in English, but not in Kurdish, sentence initial letters are capitalized. This validates hypothesis (1) and (3).

The area that shows least variation is terminal punctuation whereby some features namely the period, the question mark and the exclamation point show the end of a sentence or utterance. In line with hypothesis (1), the following similarities have been noticed:

a. The period demarcates the end of a statement, command or indirect question.

b. The question mark shows that a given sentence is a question which could be either interrogative or declarative in form.

c. The question mark may indicate doubt.

d. The exclamation point characterizes immense feelings, emphasis, or surprise.

e. The exclamation point may occur after an exclamatory word or an interjection and the sentence ends with a period.

2. Multiple question marks and/or exclamation marks are noticed in informal writing, though in professional genres, they are not recommended.

Meanwhile the following two differences – reinforcing hypotheses (1) and (2) – can be reported:

a. In Kurdish, polite requests, though interrogative in form, end with a period rather than a question mark.

b. A question mark designates criticism in Kurdish.

4.2 Dynamic Punctuation (Syntactic Punctuation)

As far as dynamic syntactic punctuation in the dynamic axis is concerned a number of similarities and differences have been located:

1. In both languages syntactic punctemes assist preventing unintended modification and preserve the canonical word order. Thus, on the one hand, the comma helps protect the abstract canonical sentence by designating interpolations (intervening material); on the other hand, it separates recursive elements, abandoning inappropriate modification (hypothesis 1).

2. The comma splice i.e. combining two independent clauses, is impossible in English; notwithstanding, commas can combine main clauses in Kurdish. In this vein, the comma occurs in positions where the period and semicolon take place in English (hypotheses 1 and 2).

3. The semicolon links syntactically independent but semantically related clauses in English. It modifies the canonical sentence by adding another sentence providing a semantic modification. It substantiates an intersentential relation and hence has a cohesive effect. At an intrasentential level, nevertheless, it sets apart items in a complex list in particular when the items have internal punctuation. In a sharp contrast to English, though theoretically the semicolon is reported in the Kurdish sources; yet, in practice, it is not manifested. Accordingly, the semicolon is not evident in Kurdish, confirming hypotheses (10 and (3).

4. The colon represents a transition from general to specific, from a premise to a conclusion in English. This function is not valid in Kurdish (hypotheses 1and 2). However, both English and Kurdish are similar in utilizing the colon to introduce quotations, lists, and dialogues. It is also used in numeric terms (ratios, time, and time elapsed), again verifying hypothesis (1).

5. Dashes designate an interpolation, and thus preserve the canonical word order in the two languages under study. A difference occurs as Kurdish employs single dashes to introduce speakers in dialogues which is described as a mechanical use by Krahn (2014), authenticating hypotheses (1), (2) and (3)

6. In English, parentheses denote that the words enclosed:

a) provide additional information, illustration, or asides and are not essential parts of the basic sentence, and

b) demarcate a shorthand, a familiar name, a date, or attribution in academic discourse.

By comparison, Kurdish parentheses circumscribe foreign names, appositives, dates, or attribution (hypotheses 1 and 2). Moreover, parentheses encompass items that are assigned importance; hence parentheses can be counted as an attention grasping device in Kurdish the later use is not discernible in English (hypotheses 1 and 2).

7. As for square brackets and braces, they are not so common neither in English nor in Kurdish. Braces show a number of alternative choices in English; square brackets encompass items added for clarity or, in scholarly writing, emendations when a mistake is detected. In contrast, they are controversial in Kurdish: some scholars do not catalogue braces and square brackets (hypothesis 3). Moreover, those who itemize them give different accounts; thus, braces enclose statements added to a quotation by an author to clarify or annotate a word or statement, and for others, square brackets demonstrate elucidations or comments added by a translator (hypotheses 1 and 2).

8. Broadly, ellipsis points manifest intentional deletions from a direct quotation in the two languages. However, judicious examination calls attention to the following differences:

a) Ellipsis points may comprise three dots in English whereas two or three dots realize them in Kurdish (hypothesis 2 and 3).

b) In English, it is not recommended to have the three-dot puncteme at the beginning or at the end of a

quote, while the slot is not important in Kurdish: it can occur anywhere (hypotheses 1 and 2).

c) A distinction, in English, is made between 'ellipsis points' and 'suspension points' standing for interruption. In Kurdish, on the other hand, though the distinction has not been terminologically categorized, suspension points are rendered denoting that a statement which has been suspended because it has no end or the deletions are obvious from the context, authenticating hypotheses (1) and (4).

5. CONCLUSIONS

The results support the following conclusions:

1. The study has verified the primary hypotheses stated at the outset of the paper.
2. The adopted model (Krahn, 2014), although primarily developed and applied to the English language, forms a genuine framework for the explication of the punctuation system in Kurdish as well.
3. Based on the adopted model, the study introduces a new taxonomy of punctuation symbols and tabulates punctuation into static and dynamic punctuation with the static punctuation involving phonological, morphological, semantic punctuation in the vertical axis and the dynamic punctuation encompassing syntactic punctuation in the horizontal axis. This is, in particular, true for the Kurdish language as it is the first time that Krahn's (2014) paradigm for punctuation has been applied to the Kurdish language.
4. Broadly in both English and Kurdish, punctuation is crucial in structuring and understanding written texts. Punctemes modify linguistic items on phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic levels.
5. Punctuation is a highly developed system of symbols and graphical features. Yet the English language presents more complexity particularly with regard to the phonological and morphological punctuation in the static axis, and the syntactic punctuation in the dynamic axis. The punctuation system in Kurdish is not yet well developed to incorporate all the punctuation symbols.
6. Granted that punctemes are multifunctional, multiple class membership occurs in both languages. In this vein, the period in both languages comes under the categories of morphological and semantic punctuation as well; parentheses in Kurdish highlight an element and mark quotations in the static dimension, and enclose appositives and subsidiary elements in the dynamic axis.
7. Font colour change can be added to the category of phonological punctuation under graphical devices in as much as it has been observed in the English and the Kurdish data as an attention grasping feature.
8. The space is considered as an important punctuation feature in both languages; nonetheless, few sources admit space as a punctueme in English. As for Kurdish, no study has, to date, designated space as a punctuation feature.
9. In both languages, in the static dimension, attention drawing devices may pile up. Thus, an element may be emboldened and coloured, emboldened and capitalized or/ and typed in a bigger font size at the same time to grasp the attention of the reader. However, the absorption rule is at play in the dynamic angle to cope with punctuation conflicts where features clash in the same location. Thus, the puncteme that is less likely to have been there to protect the canonical sentence will be adsorbed and the other will be retained to make the basic structure visible.
10. In the static dimension, phonological, morphological and semantic punctuation mark a gap between the two languages as capitalization (under both phonological and semantic categories), hyphens, and apostrophes are not rendered in CK. The attention-drawing devices are only marginally deployed in Kurdish: underlining and italics are not evident, while bold face is restricted to titles or other spotlighted material. Similarly, in the dynamic axis, the semicolon is not rendered in Kurdish. By contrast, small double brackets and single dashes are not rendered in English.
11. Quotations instantiate an area of divergence between the two languages. Namely quotations either signal a direct quotation or draw attention for some language items in English. By contrast, in addition to quotation marks, small double brackets are also employed to enclose a quotation in Kurdish. Furthermore, small double brackets, which are not rendered in English, are employed to stress particular linguistic items.
12. Parentheses in English are in a sharp contrast with parentheses in Kurdish, for they function as an attention calling device in the static dimension in Kurdish in that highlighted, emphasized material is put between either parentheses or small double brackets, whereas, in English, parentheses are restricted to the dynamic axis only.
13. The category that shows least variation is terminal punctuation whereby terminal punctuation symbols namely the period, the question mark and the exclamation point show, with some minor differences, the end of a sentence or utterance.
14. Dynamic syntactic punctuation in both languages aims to protect the integrity of the abstract canonical SVO pattern in English and SOV one in Kurdish respectively, and prevent improper modification.
15. In both languages, the comma and dashes signify interpolations or disturbances to the natural flow of

the canonical sentence discarding improper modifications; they support the kernel or basic sentence. Closer consideration reveals that a single dash in Kurdish has a mechanical use, too; it introduces speakers in dialogues.

16. The comma in Kurdish occurs in positions where the period or the semicolon occurs in English. It is, thus, widespread in Kurdish to combine main clauses or sentences with a comma. This is impossible in English.

17. The semicolon, which semantically links independent sentences, marks an addition to the canonical sentence and semantically modifies it. This is not rendered in Kurdish.

18. The mechanical uses of the colon i.e. its deployment to introduce quotations lists, dialogues, and also its use in numeric terms (ratios, time, and time elapsed) occur in both languages. However, the colon demarcating the general schema of moving from general to specific is non-existent in Kurdish.

19. Both braces and square brackets are not common in either language. In both languages, square brackets circumscribe elucidations added by a writer or translator to accomplish clarity or accuracy. Braces are not considered as a punctuation feature in Kurdish; however, it marks alternative choices in English.

20. Ellipsis points in both languages designate intentional deletions from a quotation. Nonetheless, differences occur as the three-dot puncteme can also be realised by two dots in Kurdish. Moreover, unlike English ellipsis points which are restricted to medial position, it can occur in any position: at the beginning, middle or end of a quote. As for suspension points, the languages are similar in their deployment to substantiate a suspended sentence.

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Appendix 1 Key to Kurdish Phonemic Symbols

1. Consonants

/p/ is a voiceless bilabial stop as in pi:r (old)
/b/ is a voiceless bilabial stop as in bawař (faith)
/t/ is a voiceless dental stop as in tré (grape)
/d/ is a voiced dental stop as in dast (hand)
/k/ is a voiceless velar stop as in kuř (boy)
/g/ is a voiced velar stop as in gawra (big)
/f/ is a voiceless labio-dental fricative as in farma:n (order)
/s/ is a voiceless alveo-dental fricative as in sa:t (moment)
/z/ is a voiced alveo-dental fricative as in ziw (silver)
/š/ is a voiceless alveo-palatal fricative as in šox (lady)
/j/ is a voiced alveo-palatal fricative as in jiyan (life)
/č/ is a voiceless alveo-palatal affricate as in ča:w (eye)
/c/ is a voiced alveo-palatal affricate as in casta (body)
/m/ is a voiceless bilabial nasal as in mi:wa:n (guest)
/n/ is a voiced alveolar nasal as in niya:z (intention)
/h/ is a voiceless pharyngeal fricative as in hast (feeling)
/h:/ is a voiced pharyngeal fricative as in h:awt (seven)
/l/ is a voiceless velarized lateral as in lanik (cradle)
/l:/ is a voiced dental lateral as in lél: (blurred or ambiguous)
/r/ is a voiced alveolar flap as in ta:ri:k (dark)
/ř/ is a voiced alveolar trill as in řa:w (hunting)
/x/ is a voiced velar fricative as in barix (lamb)
/x:/ is a voiced velar fricative as in x:amba:r (sad)
/q/ is a voiced uvular stop as in qawa (coffee)
/?/ is a voiceless pharengeal fricative as in sa?a:t (watch)
/y/ is a voiced palate-alveolar glide as in ya:r (lover)
/w/ is labiovelar glide as in wargéř (translator)

2. Vowels

/a/ low central unrounded, short vowel as in anda:m (member)
/a:/ low central unrounded, long vowel as in wa: (now)
/é/ mid very close front unrounded, long vowel as in méz (table)
/i/ high close front unrounded short vowel as in bizn (goat)
/ i:/ high close unrounded long vowel as in di:da (sight)
/u/ high open back rounded short vowel as in kurt (short)
/u:/ high close back rounded long vowel as in su:r (red)
/o/ mid open rounded short vowel as in dost (dost)