

A Syntactic Study of the Overlap between Substitution and Reference

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ABSTRACT

The current study deals with the overlap between substitution and reference as grammatical phenomena in English. It aims at studying and discussing some of the syntactic problems that may arise due to the similarity of elements used to express the purpose of each. Besides, the study aims to produce a comprehensive study of these two notions and their subdivisions in order to be acquainted with the means employed in each one. Finally, it also proposes the positions in which the overlap may come to view.

It is hypothesized that there is an apparent overlap between substitution and reference, yet; they must be realized differently. The study arrived at the following conclusions :(1) There is an apparent interference between substitution and reference. (2) Substitution is prior and more comprehensive and reference is part of it. (3) The context of situation is important in the interpretation of substitution and reference.

1- Introduction

Generally speaking, language is defined as the best means of communication. In turn, communication means the transmission of information from the speaker/writer to the listener/reader. The information may be written or spoken, anyway it should appear as a unified whole. In English, substitution and reference represent the two main grammatical means of relating items within a text. In this respect, substitution and reference are regarded as means of information system in language (i.e. information to be retrieved elsewhere from the surrounding environment to give a text its soul by linking the sentences by means of relations). Little studies have tackled such subjects. They should be given a special attention from linguists, grammarians, teachers, learners and students as well.

This study deals with the overlap between substitution and reference in English. It is an attempt to study and discuss some of the syntactic problems that may arise due to the overlap between these two concepts. Thus, the wrong use of substitution and reference devices in a text (oral or written) misguides the readers or hearers. Furthermore, some writers

who use these devices may not choose the appropriate one. Besides, students are always complaining of problems of arranging their ideas beside each other and organizing their writing composition in a proper structure. This may be due to their unfamiliarity of these devices, the overlap among them and finally their multiple functions. In addition, one may not be aware of the importance of situational factors (which are out of our concern in the present study).

The current study aims at defining substitution and reference and the relevant notions that clarify the study and its boundaries. It also aims at studying them with their subdivisions comprehensively. Besides, it aims to shed light on the overlap between substitution and reference, since there is a great interference between these two notions. The study will end with the conclusions arrived at according to the theoretical sections.

It is hypothesized that there is an immense clash between substitution and reference. They interfere, yet; they must be realized differently, one should not mix them as one entity. He has to infer each one according to the data provided in the neighbouring situation.

2- Definitions of Substitution and Reference

The two terms have a great deal in English; they are used heavily in written and spoken sentences. Both substitution and reference contribute in understanding the elements of sentences by means of recoverability. In fact, they are quite different but they overlap in practice to the extent that no real boundaries can be recognized to determine the different

forms of each one. In the next lines, we shall deal with the definitions proposed by linguists and grammarians to draw a clear-cut for each.

Substitution is regarded as a process by which we can replace a linguistic item by another within a larger unit (Hartmann and Stork, 1972:225). Halliday and Hassan agree that "substitution is the replacement of one item by another"(1976:88). They also consider it as a process within a text. On the other hand, Quirk etal (1985:863) say that "substitution is a relation between pro-form and antecedent whereby the pro-form can be understood to have 'replaced' a repeated occurrence of the antecedent".

Crystal (1991:335) also describes substitution as a process or result of replacing one item by another at a particular place in a structure. He also believes that" a word which refers back to a previously occurring element of structure (such as the pronoun 'he' in ' The man came in'. He was cross) may be called a substitute word" (ibid). There are many definitions to the notion of substitution; we have mentioned those of famous linguists and grammarians.

On the other hand, reference is represented by the relationship between a referent (a concrete entity or an abstract concept). It also carries the symbol that is used to identify this relationship (Hartmann and Stork, 1972:193). Another important definition is that of Halliday and Hassan in which reference is regarded as "a property at which items are not interpreted semantically in their own right but they make reference to something else for their interpretation". They also maintain that reference is the nature of information that is signalled for retrieval from elsewhere inside or outside the text (1976:31).

Widdowson (1996:130) manifests that reference is "the use of language to express a proposition, i.e. to talk about things in context". Yule agrees with Widdowson and defines reference as" an act by which a speaker (or writer) uses a language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something". But he connects his definition with an important process that is "inference" which means any additional information employed by the listener/reader to join the parts of reference because words carry a range of reference. Things may refer to people and vice versa (1996b:130-1).

According to Murcia and Freeman (1999:297) reference represents "referential forms point to people or objects in the real world or to other forms called "antecedents" and include the various types of personal pronouns, the demonstratives, and a number of other referring forms". All the aforementioned definitions are similar with little difference in connecting this concept with the necessities that ensure the complete understanding of the referent.

3- Types of Substitution

This study has not come to list the types of substitution and reference but it is of importance to be acquainted with the sub-divisions of each in order to get a full idea of the phenomena that occur and surround the use of them and to see how they behave in sentences. The focal point of substitution depends on the different forms that may replace one form. Of course, the message that is carried by these forms is important and has meaning. In this way, the reader/listener himself can observe the extent of manipulation and changes that may accompany each one and even the overlap that may arise due to the dual use of

one factor. There are three main types of substitution: (a) nominal, (b) verbal and (c) clausal. In what follows, we are going to discuss each type in brief.

(a) Nominal Substitution: the familiar forms are: "one/ones and the same", the latter is always accompanied by "the" that distinguishes it from "same" that is used alone as reference. See the examples below:

- 1- Do you like that black **car**? No, I prefer the white **one**.
- 2- Give me **references**. You can take these **ones**.
- 3- We shall buy **three expensive white cars**. He will do **the same**.

In sentences (1) and (2), one/ones assume only the noun head while in (3), the same accepts the entire nominal group including any modifying elements. The case in which we use "same" alone (without "the") as reference has different interpretation where "same" refers to the preceding noun or nominal group, as in the following example:

- 4- She will have **a bottle of milk**. I shall have **same**. (share the same bottle with her)

There are other words that can be used as nominal substitutes in the noun phrase, they are: the indefinite pronouns such as: **none, some, any, few, many, more, little, much, several, enough, each, either, neither, all, both, half** (see, Quirk et al, 1985:865, 870). Let us consider the following examples:

- 1- Suha didn't bring **fresh flowers**, but I brought **some**.
- 2- I have little **books** in my library. Sami has **many**.
- 3- Jack buys ten **cars** a week. **Each** has full options.

4- Dr. Richard teaches **students of class B**. All failed in end year exam.

5- **Ali and Zeki** came late to the station. **Both** missed the train.

On the other hand, the demonstrative pronouns "that...etc" may be employed to substitute noun phrases. They can stand for the whole nominal group and any modifying categories (ibid: 865, 872). Notice the examples below:

6- Chomsky composed two famous **books**; **that** (the book) in 1957 and **that** (the book) in 1965.

7- **The writings** of As-Syaab in his older ages are more mature than **those** (the writings) he wrote in his early life.

Some grammarians impose the view that we should use "one/ones" with demonstrative pronouns to substitute noun phrases (see Biber et al, 1999:348). Consider the following examples:

8- That **cell-phone** is not good. I like **this one**.

Sentence (8) may seem hazy i.e. one may say that it is a reference and not a substitute. The case is not where "this one" refers to another cell-phone, but if we used "it" instead of "this one", it will be a reference where "it" refers to the same cell-phone.

Possessive pronouns may also be utilized as replacing forms to nouns and noun phrases (for more details, see Stageberg, 1981: 129f and 180; Aziz, 1998:84 and Biber et al, 1999:340). Let's see the following:

9- This is my **bag**. The other is **hers**.

10- His **shouts** were acceptable, but **theirs** were horrible.

(b) Verbal Substitution: *the main player in this type is "do" and its forms (does, did, done, doing). Here, we are concerned with the substitute do rather than the other uses of it i.e. as a lexical verb, auxiliary one...etc. It performs the same function of the main verb in the original sentence and it situates in the final position of the new construction. All the aforementioned forms of "do" may appear alone or with some constructions such as: **do too, do so, do it and do that.** See the instances below:*

- 11- Zeki **writes** short stories, and his brother **does (too)**.
- 12- The man **laughed** in the meeting, and the visitors **did too**.
- 13- Sportsmen **practise** everyday, and we **do (so)**.
- 14- The teacher has **to share** the lecture with the students, and he is **doing so** next time.
- 15- Every body hasn't flourished **in playing** the trick, Ahmad will try **to do so**.

In the sentences above 11-15, we see that the substitute "do" and its combinations occur in the final position. It is also clear that this substitute may perform two processes in one time i.e. substitution and ellipsis as in examples 11, 12, 14 and 15 i.e. the pro-form "do" carries the meaning of the constituents that follow the replaced verb. Gramley and Patzold propose the same view adding that pro-form "do" may not be used if another auxiliary is present (1992:176). See the following example:

- 16- Have you **seen** Ali? Yes, I **have**; or: Yes, I **have done**.

Besides, the substitute "do" and its forms can appear transitive as in examples 11, 14 and 15 or intransitive as in

instances 12 and 13. It is worth to say that "**too**" is similar to "**so**" in its function i.e. it can be optional as in 11 and 13 and replace the complements that follow transitive verbs as in: 11, 14 and 15 or intransitive ones as in: 12 and 13. Moreover, there are two constructions viz "**do it** and **do that**", both the two constructions refer to verb+object. Consider the following examples:

17- A: The boy **eats an apple**.

B: Yes, he is always **{doing it}** or **{doing that}** or **{do so}**.

(c) **Clausal Substitution:** the manipulation of this type comprises **that-clauses**. In fact, that-clauses are treated as substitution only. We use "**So**" to replace that-clauses expressing reported speech and beliefs (Leech and Svartvik, 1994:189). Note the following examples:

18- **The team is going to play next week. All the trainers say so.**

(...say that the team is going to play next week).

19- **It is bad, screaming, playing and eating in the classroom. The teacher said so.** (the teacher said that it is bad screaming, ...)

We use "so" to replace a whole clause especially with the verbs of saying such as: say and tell. Other group of verbs may be used in different states i.e. positive and negative forms as: hope, believe, seem, think, suppose ...etc. (Quirk et al, 1985:880f). let's consider the following:

20- Will **they arrive early**? I hope so.

21- Has **she failed in the exam**? They don't think so.

There are two means of making negative forms of clausal substitutes. These two means include the two main forms of clausal substitution (Eastwood, 1994:48). These are the following:

-Negative verb+ so:

*22- Did **she post the letter**? I don't think **so**.*

- Positive verb+ not:

*23- Has **his son killed the victim**? I hope **not**.*

*The same view can be seen in Gramley and Patzold's explanation in which we employ "so" as a pro-form for that-clauses and for complements which follow the predicator. They suggest alternative negative forms such as: " **neither, nor and not...either** (1992:176). Let's see the following instances:*

*24- **Huda isn't selfish and neither/nor Ahmad**.*

*25- **Mary isn't lazy and Jack isn't either**.*

The Oxford Learner's Grammar adds "too" for the purpose of substituting for a clause with the meaning that what is true of one thing must be true of another (2005:39). Regard the following examples:

*26- **Your eyes are tearing**. You are **too**.*

*27- **I like reading**. I do **too** or **so**.*

We can also use "Be" as an ordinary verb with "too" replacing an adjective as in 28. Also in informal English, we may say "me too" in positive or "me neither" in negative as in examples 28 and 29 respectively:

*28- **I am late**. I am **too** or **so** or **me too** (me too is informal use).*

29- *I haven't a car. I haven't either or me neither.*

We may find "so" in different constructions and for different functions i.e. with "do" substituting for a verbal clause as in examples 13, 14, 15 above and the similar. It is used to replace an adjective as in example 28 above or an adjective phrase as in 30 below. Finally, it is used to restore a noun phrase performing the function of complement a possibility which was mentioned by Halliday and Hassan (1976:138) (Quirk et al, 1985:879) as in example 31 below:

30- *If he is a missing, it is the fault of the army who has incurred him so.*

31- *Ahmad's method in life is not yet clear in prominence, but it will no doubt become so.*

On the other hand, "not" may be employed to substitute for clauses in the negative case or to denote a negative situation, but with the aid of some verbs as: guess, expect, hope...etc. It replaces the whole clause using "not" (Biber et al, 1999:751). See example 23 and the ones below:

32- *It is going to rain. I expect not. (I expect that it is not going...).*

33- *The enemy will attack the village at night. I hope not. (I hope that the enemy will not attack the village at night).*

The last point to be mentioned here is that "so and not" are used in "conditional clauses" as substitute for the antecedent clause. So and not must follow "if" in this case (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:134 and Aziz, 1998:82). Consider the following examples:

34- *Have they done their work? If so, give them their wages, if not, let them leave the site.*

To conclude the above, the means of substitution are employed according to the types of substitution i.e. nominal, verbal and clausal. Sometimes one or more of these means such as "so" overlap to cover all the types. On the other hand, they (means) may go beyond substitution to cover "reference" as well such as: "that".

4- Types of Reference

This notion focuses on the semantic content of the device used in a text and the syntactic function that it performs in the sentence as well. It entails only one form to substitute for another that appears in the preceding text in contrary to substitution which affords more than one form as in the above examples. Reference includes endophora (looking within the text) which is our concern here and exophora (looking outside the text "situational") which is out of our concern in this study but both of them call us to retrieve information from elsewhere. In turn, endophora is classified into anaphora (to previous text) and cataphora (to subsequent text). There are many means used to express reference in English, they are: definite article, pronouns...etc. Each class of the above means includes minor subdivisions.

*(a) **Definite article:** it is used to specify the preceding persons, nouns and things. It is a contractive form of the demonstrative pronouns. In this way, the reader/hearer will be able to recognize the intended referent in the environment either by noting the same word repeated with 'the' or by the context of situation of that utterance..*

The use of the definite article is to point a particular referent that must be familiar to both speaker and hearer (Widdowson, 1996:62). On the other hand, Alexander agrees with the above view and adds that it (the) is used to make grammatical back-reference or anaphoric as in 35 below. It has another sort of reference by means of " the + clause or phrase" to specify something already known to the speaker and hearer including limited context of situation as in 36, 37 and 38 respectively (1988:62-5).(For similar opinions see, Quirk et al, 1973:72 and Yule,1996 a:22). See the examples below:

- 35- *I have bought a **car**. **The car** is new and has full options.*
36- ***The newspaper you are always reading** is no more available.*
37- ***The pictures on the facebook** are hers.*
38- *Who is there? It is **the police**.*

There is also a cataphoric reference that can be made using 'the' although anaphoric is the most familiar. That type is used to express the idea of uniqueness by means of restrictive clauses or 'of-phrase' (Quirk et al, 1985:268). (For similar views see, Biber et al, 1999: 264; Leech and Svartvik, 1994:52; Aziz, 1998:79 and Eastwood, 1994:201). See the following examples:

- 39- *The kabob **of Iraq** is famous among the other countries.*
40- *The birds **flying in the sky** are mine.*

For Chaplen, the definite article is a limiting word i.e. the noun that comes after it is defined and this is similar to this/that. A noun is definite when preceded by "the" i.e. the listener and reader will be able to recognize which noun is meant in the context (1970:68).(For a similar view, see ,Aziz,1989:94-5).

*(b) **Pronouns:** pronouns represent the vast majority of reference due to their manipulation in the different registers of English language. They are classified under person, number, gender and case. There are many kinds of pronouns, but the current study is concerned with those contribute to reference i.e. personal pronouns...etc, and accept only one form as a referent. The notions of anaphora and cataphora can be recognized clearly here. We shall give a brief and clear account to each one in the next few lines.*

***1- Personal pronouns:** they occupy an important position in English sentences and texts for their wide usage. No sentence and text can escape without using a pronoun of the aforementioned kinds. They can be divided into:*

*(a) **Subject Pronouns:** not all subject pronouns can be used as referring to a previous or subsequent mentioned people, animals and things, but only those of third person can do so i.e. he, she, it and they. First and second person pronouns are clear from the context. Third person pronouns can be both anaphoric and cataphoric in sentence as in 41 and 42 respectively:*

*41- **Sue** went home, **she** wanted to sleep early. (anaphoric)*

*42- **He** is the best. **Mohammad** is my teacher. (cataphoric)*

*43- **The children** are running. **They** are jumping too. (anaphoric)*

The pronoun 'it' has a special case for its multiple uses i.e. it can refer to a thing, a quality, an event, a place, animal or even to people as well (Alexander, 1988:74). For more

details see (Eastwood, 1994:235f and Yule, 1996 a: 22f).The following examples show them respectively:

44- **This car** is expensive. **It** cost me 10,000 \$.

45- **Friendship** must be enhanced. **It** reflects both treasure and comfort.

46- Suha likes **walking**. **It** relieves blood circulation.

47- Have you seen **Baghdad**? **It** is the capital of Iraq.

48- Who is **there**? **It** is the **wireman**.

49- **This cat** is cute. **It** has green eyes.

(b) Object Pronouns: we can use the object pronouns of third person, i.e. him, her, it and them to refer to already or subsequent mentioned nouns and things which are known to both speaker and listener. Third person pronouns are used to achieve anaphoric and cataphoric reference, on the contrary, first and second person pronouns refer to definite individuals identified in the speech situation. They can be employed in the same way as subject pronouns with little difference. See the instances below:

50- Zeki saw **Ahmad**. He gave **him** a letter.

51- Have you eaten **porridge**? No, I haven't tasted **it**.

52- You have to catch your **friends**, if you do not. You will miss **them**.

53- Before **she** saw **him**, **Muna** had sent **Ali** a postcard (cataphoric objective and subjective reference).

In some situations, we may find both cataphoric subjective and objective reference in one text as in 53 above. Sometimes, the object of the first clause becomes the subject of the second one and the subject of the first one becomes the object of the second clause as in the following instance:

54- *Sara gave Zeki a doll and he gave her a picture.*

(c) **Possessive pronouns:** they can be either determiners or pronouns. They are treated as possessive determiners (his, her, its, my, our, your, and their) when followed by a noun (his car) or also called possessive adjective in traditional grammar or pronominal possessive according to structural grammar. They are used as possessive pronouns (his, hers, mine, ours, yours, and theirs) when they stand in their own. The latter is our concern in this paper; they can replace an entire possessive noun or noun phrase as in the following examples:

55- *Would you take **my car**? No, I would take **mine**.*

56- ***Her camera** is pink. **Mine** is blue.*

57- *Do you prefer **her words**? No, I prefer **yours**.*

We should not forget that possessive pronouns stand for nouns or noun phrases. They can come as subjects and objects as in 56 and 57 above. Also, we can say that they behave the same as reflexive and demonstrative pronouns which we will see in the next few lines. It is worth to mention here that "his" has one form for both determiner and pronominal function. Besides, "its" is never used as a pronoun in its own unless attached to a noun or preceded by "of" as in 58 below:

58- *Have you brought your **lap-top**? Yes, but I have lost **its bag/ the bag of it**.*

To conclude the above, all pronouns (first, second, and third person) can be used for reference purposes except "its". We can note that both substitution and reference utilize possessive pronouns for their purposes. There is a slight

difference that makes one judges whether substitution or reference i.e. in the later the same thing must be referred to (exactly the same thing or its parts). But with substitution replacement is not necessarily the same.

*(d) **Reflexive Pronouns:** they are a special group of pronouns for some are made up of the object form of personal pronouns as: himself (third person masculine singular) and themselves (third person plural). The other forms are made of the possessive determiner + self (herself, itself, myself, yourself, ourselves, and yourselves) including all persons, numerals, and gender. In fact, the main goal of reflexive pronouns is to emphasize the subject in the sentence. But they are used to express reference when replacing a noun or noun phrase functioning as object that have the same referent as the subject of the sentence, the following examples illustrate the matter:*

59- **Bob** hurt **himself**. (Bob hurt Bob)

60- **The boys** looked after **themselves**.

61- **I** am encouraging **myself** for the game.

62- **Lora** loves **herself**. (Lora loves Lora)

The antecedents for reflexive pronouns must be always in the same sentence or clause to make an apparent picture of reference (Murcia and Freeman, 1999:303).

*(e) **Reciprocal Pronouns:** there are only two forms of these pronouns (each other and one another). Using them in personal reference imposes the use of plural subject or conjoining it. They replace nouns or noun phrases objects that point back to the subject in the same sentence. See the following examples:*

63- **Romeo and Juliet** loved **each other**.

64- **The teachers** in the department helped **one another**.

In this way, they are similar to reflexive pronouns though there is an apparent difference in their meaning. Both appear in the same sentence and substitute for noun or noun phrase objects that refer backward to the subject to express a mutual relationship between the subject and the object.' Each other' is used when the subject is two persons while 'one another' is used when the subject is more than two entities.

2- Demonstrative Pronouns: *they are similar to possessives in that, if they are followed by a noun they will be determiners and if they come alone they will be pronouns. As pronouns or determiners, demonstratives reference appears according to distance (that and those), nearness (this and these), and number. For Alexander, distance refers to something not close to you while nearness points at something close to you. The former shows the meaning of place and, therefore; relates to "there" and the latter to "here". Moreover, they carry the indication of time as well (now and then) (1988:85) (for a similar view, see Eastwood, 1994:217). Consider the following instances:*

65- I know **those girls**. (there)

66- Which **house** would you like to choose? I would choose **this**. (here)

67- I want to visit him **this moment**.(now)

68- She didn't read **in the university**. **Those days**, she was ill.(then)

When demonstratives come alone, they are regarded as pronouns and can substitute for noun or noun phrases subjects and objects. Note examples 65 and 66 respectively:

69- **These** are **the cars** I told you about.

70- She bought **this present**. I bought **this**.

Quirk *et al* assert the meaning of anaphoric and cataphoric reference of demonstratives as in 65 and 66 respectively. They also add what is called "situational reference" which depends on the extralinguistic situation that enables to interpret the part of discourse correctly (1985:372). This is similar to possessives when they stand in their own as pronouns. See both in the following examples:

71- I like **this**. (holding and talking about new cell-phone)

72- This is **mine**. (carrying a pen in his hand)

As pronouns, demonstratives are used to point at things and not people as in 66, 69 and 70 above. If we want to refer to people, we should mention the entity of the person after the pronoun as in 65 above. In addition, demonstrative pronouns after "what" refer to things and after "who" refer to people (Alexander, 1988: 85). See 73 and 74 below:

73- **What** is **this**?

74- **Who** is **that** (man)?

Demonstrative pronouns are widely used in conversation where the context of situation gives them their accurate reference where we can understand their place, time, gender and number.

3- Relative Pronouns: they represent another source of the sources of references in English. In this position, pronouns are called relativizers and refer to the same person or thing

as the head noun. Relative pronouns perform only anaphoric reference to their antecedents (Biber et al, 1999:608).

There are five relative pronouns which point back to an earlier noun phrase "who and whom" used for personal subjects and objects respectively. See the following examples:

75- **They are the boys who** killed the cat. (subject)

76- **She is the girl whom** I saw in the garden. (object)

The second group is "which and that" which are utilized for non-personal subjects and objects respectively. Note the instances below:

77- **These are the phones which** admit Bluetooth connection. (subject)

78- **This is the house that** we bought last week. (object)

We may see the relative pronoun "that" in different contexts, it means that we can use it for personal and non-personal subjective and objective cases. We can replace the relative pronouns in 75, 76 and 77 with "that" and get acceptable sentences (Leech and Svartvik, 1994:367-9) (for further details, see Quirk et al, 1985:365-8).

On the other hand, the possessive relative pronoun "whose" can be employed clearly in the personal and non-personal subjective case as in 79 and 80 below. It is not used in the personal and non-personal objective case but we use the construction "of-which" to fulfill this purpose (Alexander, 1988:17), as in 81 and 82 below:

79- **The student whose book** is missing.

80- **The table whose leg** is broken.

81- *The story of **which** the end was chopped.*

82- *The man of **which** the fingers are cut.*

4- Interrogative Pronouns: they are similar to relative pronouns in form but they come at the beginning of a sentence and consequently they perform cataphoric reference most of the time since the referent comes after the pronoun.

Interrogative pronouns used for reference are five " who, whom, whose, what, and which". They are also dedicated to personal and non-personal reference i.e." who, whom, and whose" are personal while "what" is non-personal. But the pronoun "which" is used for both personal and non-personal (Quirk etal, 1973:106). (For more details, see Leech and Svartvik, 1994:279-282). Consider the following instances:

83- **Who** is your best singer?

84- **Whose** watch is this?

85- **What** is your favourite game?

86- **Which** is your teacher/car?

5- The Definite Pronoun "such": this pronoun may replace a noun phrase. It is used to point back (anaphoric reference) a previous noun phrase most of its time. In this case, this pronoun seems to be identical to the demonstrative pronouns (Quirk etal, 1985:375f). The following examples illustrate the matter:

87- I bought a **Cadillac**. **Such/this** is a fantastic car.

88- **Diabetes** is very bad. **Such** is a chronic disease.

89- I want to study **Anthrax**. We need **such**.

(c) **Comparison:** the most common elements of comparison are adjectives and adverbs. They express the patterns of similarity and difference of people and things. We can use

their inflected forms" big-bigger-biggest" or periphrastic ones" more-most" (Quirk et al, 1973:305).

Some of the forms that express similarity are "such, so, likewise, in the same way, the same, similar, as and equal". Some of these may have a special treatment to show reference i.e. some need to look for in the previous text to find the referent (Murcia and Freeman, 1999:300). Note the following examples:

90- My car is **so** fast as Ali's.

91- Zeki is a **careful** man. Rami is **similar** to him.

92- John drove **quickly**. Jack should do **likewise**.

93- The teacher must give me an **equal** chance.

The forms of difference however are "other, another, different" and sometimes we use "not" with some of the forms of similarity to change them into the opposite meaning (difference) (ibid) (for further details, see Halliday and Hassan, 1976:76). Let's see the following instances:

94- My home is **bigger** than yours.

95- She wants to get a **better** mark.

96- I didn't find **my** book, so I bought **another**.

(d) **Definite Adverbs of Time, Place and Manner:** the adverbs of time "then, now and that" point back to adverbs in the preceding text (Quirk et al, 1973:296). Regard the following examples:

97- Ali went home **yesterday** and Muna went home **then** too.

98- Stacy arrives on **Thursday**. **That** will suit me to discuss the problem.

Adverbs of place are "here and there", they perform anaphoric reference in the text (Biber et al, 1999:72). Consider the following example:

99- *Mary is in **Baghdad**. Sara is **there** too.*

The adverbs of manner are "in that way, like that, thus and so" (Quirk et al, 1985:76). Note the following example:

100- *Lucy always reads **carefully**. **In that way** she will pass her exams.*

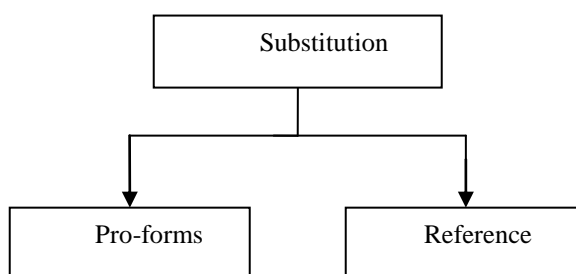
5- Discussing the Overlap between Substitution and Reference

A comprehensive study of substitution and reference helps to recognize the factors of each one that achieve their purposes. In the light of these elements, one will be able to see the points of overlap that bring these two concepts together.

Before indulging the discussion of this overlap and mentioning the similar factors that are used in both substitution and reference, we would like to know which one (substitution or reference) is prior to the other. This leads us to understand why there is an overlap between them. In my perspective, substitution is prior to reference. I am going to support my view by means of two ways: firstly, making an analogy with the famous grammatical terms: tense and aspect (i.e. the overlap between them). Secondly, opinions of linguists and grammarians will be useful in this occasion.

In the study of tense and aspect, we can note that tense is prior and comprehensive. Moreover, aspect is part of it though we study each one of them in isolation and use it for different purposes. In most cases tense and aspect overlap and one may not easily identify whether this is a tense or an aspect where there are: simple, perfective, progressive, and perfective progressive aspect. Simply, aspect shows how the speaker views and sees an event. In addition, it expresses the manner of action i.e. long, short, continuous and incomplete.

In the same way, substitution is prior because reference uses the terms of substitution as in the case of aspect which uses the forms of tense. For instance: we say this pronoun substitutes for, replaces and so on. The other important case is that substitution is more comprehensive because it includes the most important parts of speech such as: nouns, verbs, and clauses while reference depends heavily on pronouns that are part of nouns. Substitution is used to replace a whole sentence, clause, and phrase while reference replaces one antecedent or subsequent item. Still the domination is for the concept of substitution. The following diagram illustrates the matter:



Dig.: The Relation between Substitution and Reference

We may mention also that both substitution and reference are grammatical categories. On this basis, they belong to the same background and this is another reason to make them overlap. Reference is more context-dependent than substitution and its forms are called relaters i.e. there is only one form to substitute for in the surrounding text. On the other hand, substitution may admit more than one item to replace another as in: boy, the boy, the kid, the lad, the teenager. This is what we call lexical substitution i.e. the possibility of using different lexical items to avoid repetition of an item in a text.

Adopting the view that language is "form and not substance", this criterion will be used in our discussion. Reference focuses on content while substitution focuses on form especially "lexical substitution". Lyons (1968:59) believes that "language is form not substance". According to this idea, we may say that substitution is the essential criterion in grouping the words into constituents.

Brown and Yule (1983:202f) see that it is important to associate changes of the state of the referent and carry them through discourse because their reappearance with new details attached to them makes us in need of finding a model which gathers these entities as the discourse progresses. They also maintain that some examples would be hazy if we use reference with them as in 101 below and substitution viz lexical substitution would be more preferable in such cases as in 102 below:

*101- **The liquid** is necessary for cooking. **It** must be used as in the recipe.*

Such examples would be vague to grasp by readers/hearers, in this case, the following instance is more conceivable:

*102- **The liquid** is necessary for cooking. **Water** must be used as in the recipe.*

Talking about form and content, Aitchison in her classification shows that syntax is prior to semantics. So form is essential and placed before meaning (1999:8). But it does not mean that we should ignore the importance of meaning in language. Syntax and semantics are regarded the "bread and butter" of linguistics.

Radford (2004:33) offers another important opinion. He regards substitution as a syntactic test which can be used to decide the category that a particular word belongs to (noun, verb, adjective...etc). This technique supports our conceptualization and is really regarded as a great method that makes substitution dominant. On the other hand, reference can not be used for the same purpose above.

Parker and Riley (2005:67) consider pro-form substitution as a proof for the internal structure of phrases. It can replace a phrase that forms a constituent. They assert that reference can be accomplished by the use of items while substitution by pro-forms. In turn, the items used with reference are regarded as parts of pro-forms (ibid: 263).

I agree with Crystal who considers reference as a branch of substitution and this is clear in the example which he presented in his dictionary (1991:335). Moreover, Stageberg in his classification to pronouns exposes possessive pronouns

under the name of "substitutional pronouns" not "referencing pronouns" (1981:129, 180).

Thus, the following demonstrate the points in which substitution and reference overlap:

- 1- Possessive pronouns.*
- 2- Demonstrative pronouns.*
- 3- Some indefinite pronouns such as wh-pronouns.*
- 4- "So" used in substitution and reference.*
- 5- "Same" used in substitution and reference.*
- 6- "One" replacing nominal substitution and in reference substituted for he/she/you and they as in 103 below:*

*103- **One** should be humble and not deceive **oneself**.*

One may ask how we can distinguish between substitution and reference in such situations. Simply, as writers/speakers we can employ the item in the way we want it to be (substitution or reference). But as readers/listeners, the judgement on such cases has a great relation with the reader/listener himself and has its bases on some other factors. He should have a good background and must be educated. In addition, he should be mature enough and of fair mental status. Besides, persons familiar with one another may share a great deal of information which are well recognized and signaled due to familiarity to one another. Moreover, the other key solution is the physical environment which has a great influence on how expressions to be interpreted. Furthermore, society has an impact on how utterances to be employed in the speech situation and the choice of register as well.

Conclusions:

The present study has arrived at a number of conclusions for both substitution and reference, they are as follows:

- 1- The context of situation is important and plays a vital role for both substitution and reference.*
- 2- The pro-form "do" also carries the tense of the verb phrase that it substitutes for i.e. past and present.*
- 3- Both substitution and reference are employed to avoid repetition and redundancy and for economy and rhetorical purposes as well.*
- 4- Both substitution and reference do not have meanings of their own. But, we can infer their meanings from the previous or subsequent text.*
- 5- Substitution is form related while reference is substance made.*
- 6- There is an apparent overlap between substitution and reference namely in possessive and demonstrative pronouns.*

7- *Substitution is prior to reference and is clearer than it because the former is more comprehensive and includes most parts of speech.*

8- *In some situations, it is preferable to use lexical substitution not reference because the former provides better understanding via its items.*

9- *The elements of reference themselves may interact such as the definite article, demonstratives, reflexives and reciprocal pronouns.*

10- *Reference appears to be part of substitution.*

11- *Reference sometimes does not refer to the accurate person especially in English proverbs.*

12- *When substitution and reference interact, we may distinguish between them by investigating the surrounding area and replacing them with different items i.e. substitution accepts more than one form while reference does not and refers exactly to the same referent.*

13- *Substitution accepts to change the part of speech in some responses while reference sticks to its referent.*

14- *There is a clear difference between reference and determination because one may see them similar. Determination means "specification" and uses numeral and quantifiers...etc to achieve the goal.*

15- *The main points that substitution and reference overlap in are: possessives, demonstratives, so, the same, same, some indefinite pronouns and one as a pronoun.*

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التداخل بين التعويض والإشارة: دراسة نحوية

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الخلاصة

تتناول هذه الدراسة التداخل بين التعويض والإشارة بوصفهما ظاهرتين نحويتين. وتهدف إلى دراسة ومناقشة بعض المشكلات النحوية التي تظهر بسبب التشابه ما بين العناصر المستعملة للتعبير عن غرض كل منهما. وهي تهدف أيضا إلى تقديم دراسة شاملة لهذين المفهومين وتفرعاتهما من أجل الإلمام بالعوامل والوسائل المستعملة في كل منهما. وتعرض الدراسة المواطن التي يمكن أن يحصل فيها هذا التداخل.

وقد تم الافتراض بأن هناك تداخلا واضحا بين التعويض والإشارة. وعلى هذا فيجب أن يفهم بصورة مختلفة. وقد تم التوصل إلى النتائج الآتية: (١) هناك تداخلا واضحا بين التعويض والإشارة. (٢) التعويض هو الأساس وان الإشارة هي جزء منه. (٣) إن لسياق الكلام دور مهم في تفسير وسائل التعويض والإشارة.