

## The Correspondence Between Determiners and Pronouns

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### Abstract

There is a close connection or relationship between determiners and pronouns. This correspondence is due to certain similarities. The two sets deal mainly with noun phrases. Besides, some forms, such as demonstratives: this, that, these and those, can be used unchanged as determiners and pronouns. Moreover, there is a clear morphological parallel between determiners and pronouns, for example with the possessive forms: my – mine, our – ours, etc. As a result, confusion may be made in recognizing whether a determiner or pronoun is used in written texts.

### الخلاصة

هنالك علاقة أو اتصال وثيق بين المحددات والضمائر وتعود هذه المطابقة الى تشابه معين. تتعامل المجموعتين بصورة رئيسة مع العبارات الأسمية ، فضلا عن ذلك ، يمكن استخدام بعض الأشكال كأسماء الإشارة : هذا / هذه ، ذلك / تلك ، هؤلاء / أولئك ، بصورة ثابتة كمحددات وضمائر. وبالإضافة الى ذلك يوجد تماثل تصريفي بين المحددات والضمائر ، مثلا مع ضمائر التملك : لي ، لنا ، ... الخ. ونتيجة لذلك، يمكن أن يحدث خلط في التعرف عند استخدام المحدد أو الضمير في النصوص المكتوبة.

### 1.Introduction

Determiners have the function of identifying a particular subset of things or people that is being referred to. They always modify nouns, but when they stand on their own, they function as pronouns which always replace nouns. There are close correspondences between determiners and pronouns. These principal correspondences can obviously be seen between the definite article and personal pronouns; possessive determiners and possessive pronouns; demonstrative determiners and demonstrative pronouns and finally between quantifying determiners and indefinite pronouns. Each set is defined and explained with examples in order to make a clear distinction with its parallel. Some sentences are taken from a scientific text then analyzed to clarify the difference between each two corresponding sets.

### 2.Determiners

A determiner is a noun modifier that expresses the reference of a noun or noun phrase. According to Crystal (2003: 134), determiners are a class of wide range of semantic contrasts, such as quantity or number as well as the articles which are the main subset of determiners.

Stageberg (1981: 173) states that a determiner always precedes the noun and serves as a signal that a noun is soon to follow; therefore the absence of a determiner will sometimes produce ambiguity. Alexander (1988:55) assures that determiners affect the meaning of the noun and make it clear, for example, which particular things are being referred to or how much of a substance are being talked about.

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:312) classify determiners into two groups: non specific like : a (n) ,one , no, each , etc. and specific like : the ,those , his ,her ,whose , the + noun's , etc. The characteristic moves from non – specific to specific, that is, non – specific determiners are used to introduce the discourse referent of the thing, and specific determiners are used to track this referent in the text.

## 2.1.The definite article

The term definite article is a subclass of determiners and it always precedes a noun. Bolinger (1975: 85) states that the word (**the**) is separately coded in the brain as a sign of ‘definiteness ‘and can be uttered separately, even though it requires something to follow. Thus Alexander (1988: 61-2) points out that there are two basic facts to be borne in mind :

1. **The** normally has a definite reference (the person or thing referred to is assumed to be known to the speaker or reader )

2. **The** can combine with singular countable, plural countable, and uncountable nouns (which are always singular) Swan (1995: 57 -8) illustrates the fact of definiteness by the following examples:

-Did you lock **the car**? (The speaker and the listener know which car is meant)

-She's got a boy. **The boy's** fourteen. (The speaker and the listener know which boy is meant because it is mentioned before)

-Could you close **the door**? (It is clear from the situation only one door is open)

As a result, **the** is a specific, determinative deictic of a peculiar kind: it means ‘the subset in question is identifiable: but this will not tell how to be identified – the information is somewhere around where it can be recovered. **The train**, for example, means simply ‘you know which train ‘. Hence **the** is usually accompanied by some other element which supplies the information required; for example, **the long train** means ‘you know which train: you can tell it by its length ‘ (Halliday and Matthiessen (2004 : 314 ).

### 2.1.1.Reference patterns of definite noun phrases

**The** is used for specifying the noun by the context. The knowledge could be based on the preceding text. In other words when something that has been mentioned is referred to again. Thus a noun is specified by means of back – reference and this called **anaphoric reference** which is defined by Crystal (2003: 24) as one of what way of marking the identity between what is being expressed and what has already been expressed (where the words refer backward) :

-He found her blue Ford Escort in the car park. **The vehicle** was locked and **the lights** were off.

The above example is analyzed by Biber , et al (1999: 264 ) stating that once a car has been introduced , it is possible to refer to things connected with cars as contextually given (e.g. the steering wheel , the lights ). In other words, the use of definite article depends partly upon the preceding text and partly upon general pragmatic knowledge. The example also shows how a subsequent reference to the

same entity may take the form of a semantically related word with definite reference (the vehicle ).

Reference may also be established through something following later in the text, and is called cataphoric reference which is defined by Crystal (2003 : 65 ) as one way of marking the identity between what is being expressed and what is about to be expressed (where the words refer forward ) :

**-The patterns of industrial development in the United States** are too varied to be categorized easily.

The use of the definite article may also be a reflection of the shared situational context of the speaker and hearer. The following example of such **situational reference**:

-I think there's somebody at the door now.

In the above example, situational reference relies on the immediate speech situation.

## 2.2. Possessive determiners

Possessive determiners are called by Quirk ,et al (1975 : 105 ) “ the attributives “ (my , your , his , etc. ) which are syntactically determiners. Possessive determiners are used with reference to parts of the body and personal belongings, as well as in several other expressions:

-He stood at the door with **his** hat in his hand.

-Mary has broken **her** leg.

-Don't lose **your** balance!

-They have changed **their** minds again!

Biber , etal (1999 : 270 – 71 ) explain that possessive determiners specify a noun phrase by relating it to the speaker / writer (my , our ),the addressee (your ) or other entities mentioned in the text or given in the speech situation (his , her , its , their ).

Possessive determiners make noun phrase definite, in other words definite articles are usually dropped when possessives are used. Possessives can be combined with countable as well as uncountable nouns and occasionally also with proper nouns.

Extra emphasis can be given to the idea of possession by the addition of **own** to all possessive adjectives. Alexander (1988: 81) points out that the resulting combinations can function as possessive adjectives:

-I'd love to have **my own room**.

Halliday and Mathiessen (2004: 314) state that the possessive pronouns refer to person as defined from the standpoint of the speaker.

### 2.2.1. Specifying genitives

Genitive phrases consisting of a noun phrase and a genitive suffix are closely related to the possessive determiners. Swan and Walter (1997: 62) emphasize that the possessives usually replace articles before nouns:

- **The** car or **Sue's** car, but not Sue's the car or the Sue's car.

As a determiner, the most important function of the genitive phrase is to specify the reference of the noun phrase of which it is a part. Biber , et al (1999 : 294 ) state that the genitive phrase most typically is a definite noun phrase with specific reference , which also gives specific reference to the superordinate noun phrase . When the genitive phrase is paraphrased by postmodifying prepositional phrase, the head of the noun phrase takes the definite article:

- The girl's** face

- The** face of **the girl**

Quirk , et al (1975 : 94 -6 ) refer to the - S Genitive for the infection and to the of - Genitive for the prepositional form . The degree of similarity and overlap has led grammarians to regard the two constructions as variant forms of the genitive. - S genitive is favoured by the classes that are highest on the gender scale, persons and animals with personal gender characteristics.

### 2.3. Demonstrative determiners

The demonstrative determiners **this** / **these** and **that** / **those** are closely related in meaning to the definite article. However , Biber , et al , (1999: 272 ) state that in addition to marking an entity as known , they specify the number of referent and whether the referent is near or distant in relation to the speaker. Therefore, Alaxander (1988 : 85 ) points out that **this** and **these** indicate 'Nearness', which may be physical by referring to something being actually held or close , or to something that is present in a situation . In the following examples, **this** and **these** can be associated with **here**:

- The picture I am referring to is **this one here**.
- The photographs I meant are **these ones here**.

On the other hand, **that** and **those** indicate 'Distance' which may be also physical by referring to something that is close in the situation. **That** and **those** can be associated with **there**:

- The picture I am referring to is **that one there**.
- The photographs I meant are **those ones there**.

The reference of noun phrases with demonstrative determiners may be established on the basis of either the situation or the preceding or following text , i.e. the situational , anaphoric , and cataphoric references .

Situational reference can be used with the choice of demonstrative determiner reflecting the speaker's perception of distance. This is clearly illustrated by Biber , et al (1999 : 273 ) in the following examples :

- This** cake's lovely. (Referring to the cake that the speaker is eating)
- Finish **that** cake if you want it. (Referring to the cake that the addressee is eating)

Swan (1995: 96) explains anaphoric reference by referring back to the preceding text

**This** and **that** are emphatic; they seem to suggest an interesting new fact has been mentioned.

So she decided to paint her house pink. **This** / **that** really upset the neighbors, as you can imagine.

Cataphoric reference may be established through something following the demonstrative determiner, Biber , et al (ibid) and Swan (ibid) support this idea through these examples :

. The unit of heat was defined as **that** quantity which would raise the temperature of unit mass of water.

. Now what do you think about **this**? I thought I'd get a job in Spain for six months.

## 2.4. Quantifiers

Some determiners specify nouns in terms of quantity and are therefore called quantifiers. Quantifiers are defined by Crystal (2003:383) as a class of items expressing contrasts in quantity occurring with restricted distribution in the noun phrase.

Quantifiers combine with both indefinite and definite noun phrases. In the later case Biber , etal : (1999: 273) state that they are generally followed by **of** :

all money	all (of ) the money
some money	some of the money
much money	much of the money
all girls	all ( of ) the girls
some girls	some of the girls
many girls	many of the girls

Some quantifiers co – occur with countable nouns; some with uncountable and some with both kinds. Alexander (1988:88) classifies these combinations as follow:

### 1. Quantifiers combining with countable nouns answer **How many**?

**-How many** eggs are there in the fridge? -There are **a few**.

### 2. Quantifiers combining with countable nouns answer **how much**?

**-How much** milk is there in the fridge? -There is **a little**

### 3. Quantifiers combining with uncountable or with countable answer **How many**? or **How much** ?:

-How many eggs are there in the fridge? -There are **plenty**.

-How much milk is there in the fridge? -There is **plenty**.

Stageberg (1981 : 168 ) explains that a few quantifiers have the same form as adjectives – for instance , **pretty good** , **mighty fine** and **full well** .In the quantifier position , however , these do not take – **er** and **est** , so they are considered to be uninflected quantifiers that are homophones of adjectives .

Quantifiers can be divided into five main groups:

#### 2.4.1. Inclusive

It is also called distributives and it includes: **all**, **both**, **each** and **every**. Biber ,et al (1999: 275) show the difference between **all** and **both** . **All** refers to the whole of a group or a mass; it combines with both countable and uncountable nouns:

-I'm just fascinated by **all those things**.

While **both** refers to two people, things, etc. The reference is to specific items. **Both** means 'not only one; but also the other ':

-**Both** amendments were defeated.

The other two inclusives: **every** and **each** are identified by Alexander (1988: 101).They refer to particular people or things and they can point to more than two. **Each** is more individual and suggests 'one by one ' or ' separately '. It is used to refer to a definite and usually limited number:

-**Each child** in the school was questioned.

On the other hand, **every child** is less individual and is used in much the same way as **all children** to refer to a large indefinite number:

-**Every child** enjoys Christmas. (= All children enjoy Christmas.)

Moreover, **every** can modified by **almost**, **nearly** and **practically** and can be followed by **single**, while **each** can not be modified:

-**Almost every** building was damaged in the earthquake.

-I answer **every single** letter I receive.

The last difference is that the particle 'not' can be used in front of **every**, but not in front of **each**:

-**Not every** house on the island has electricity.

#### 2.4.2. Large Quantity

Determiners like **many**, **much**, **a great deal of**, **a large number of**, **a large amount of**, **a lot of**, **lots of** and **plenty of** specify a large quantity. According to

Biber , et al (1999: 275-76) , **many** is used with plural countable nouns , and **much** with uncountable nouns . They are typically used in negative contexts

-There weren't **many** people there.

-The girl wasn't paying **much** attention.

**A lot of**, **lots of** and **plenty of** combine with both uncountable and plural countable. This group is compared by Swan (1995:326) to **much** and **many**. Both groups have similar meanings, but the grammar is not quite the same .In the case of **a lot of**, **lots of** and **plenty of**, **of** is used after them even before nouns with no determiners:

-There's not **a lot of** meat left. (Not there's not **a lot** meat left.)

-There's not **much** meat left. (Not there's not **much of** meat left.)

-**Plenty of** shops open on Sunday mornings. (Not **plenty** shops open on ....)

-**Many** shops open on Sunday mornings. (Not **many** of shops open on ....)

The last three determiners i.e. **a lot of** , **lots of** and **plenty of** are rather informal and used in causal speech .As a result , in a more formal style , it is preferable to use **much** , **many** , **a large amount of** , **a great deal of** , **a large number of** (which is used before plurals ):

-I've thrown out **a large amount of** old clothing.

-**A large number of** problems still have to be solved.

### 2.4.3. Moderate Quantity

The most frequently used indefinite quantity words in the language is **some** which has, according to Swan (1995:521) , a 'weak ' pronunciation {s(ə)m} before (adjective) +noun:

-Some / s (ə) m / new clothes -some / s (ə) m / tea

It usually specifies a moderate quantity and is used with both uncountable and plural countable nouns, as illustrated by Biber ,et al (1999: 276) :

-Insurance shares produced **some** excitement.

-**Some** performance curves will now be presented.

**Some** may also occur with singular countable nouns and strongly stressed either to express approval or admiration like:

-That is **some** horse! (I.e. quite a horse)

Or, as Swan (ibid) states, to refer to an unknown person or thing:

-**Some** idiot has taken the bath plug.

-There must be **some** job I could do.

Both Biber , etal (ibid ) and Swan (1995: 548) agree that **some** is also used as an approximating adverb before numerals to suggest that the number is a high or impressive one :

-We have exported **some four thousand** tons of bootlaces this year.

-Moreover, **some** can be used in other important conditions, and these are clearly explained by Alexander (1988:92-3):

1. in the affirmative:

-There are **some eggs** in the fridge. (i.e. an unstated number)

-There is **some milk** in the fridge. (i.e. an unstated quantity)

2. In questions when the answer is expected to be 'yes ':

-Have you got **some** paper – clips in that box?

3. In offers, requests, invitations, and suggestions when the answer is expected to be 'yes ' or implied agreement:

-Would you like **some** (more) coffee?

-May I have **some** (more) coffee?

As it has been seen above, **some** is generally used when it is not important to state exactly how great or how small the quantity is.

#### 2.4.4. Small Quantity

Determiners specifying a small quantity are (a) **few** with plural countable nouns ; and (a) **little** with uncountable nouns .Quirk,et al (1975:66) and Swan (1995:315) point out that there is a positive / negative contrast between **little** and **few** as the indefinite article is or is not used . Without articles, **little** and **few** usually have rather negative meanings. They may suggest "not as much / many as one would like, 'not as much / many as expected ", and similar ideas:

He took	{	few biscuits.	(Not many)
		little butter.	(Not much)

A **little** and a **few** are more positive: their meaning is more similar to 'some '.They can often suggest ideas like 'better than nothing 'or 'more than expected':

-Would you like a **little** soup?

-We've got a **few** potatoes and some steak.

In everyday speech and conversational style ,Alexander (1988:96-7) states that it is preferable to use negative meaning rather than the positive ones :



- Mona hasn't **had many opportunities** to practice her English.

-He hasn't **much hope** of winning this race.

It is noteworthy to mention that the quantifier (a) **little** must be distinguished from the homonymous adjective as Quirk, et al (ibid) show in the following example:

-A **little** bird was singing.

### 2.4.5. Arbitrary /negative member or amount

**Any** refers to an arbitrary member of a group i.e. unspecified person or thing or amount of a mass. It combines with both countable and uncountable nouns. Alexander (1988:94) points out that **any** can occur in affirmative statements, when is used in this way it is stressed and can mean:

1. Usual: This isn't **any cake**. (It's special)
2. The minimum /maximum: He'll need **any help** he can get.
3. I don't care which: Give me a plate. **Any plate** / one will do.

**Either** is considered by Biber, et al (1999: 276) to have a similar meaning, but it is used with groups of two and combines only with singular count nouns. Both **any** and **either** are typically used in negative or interrogative context

-There aren't **any** women

-Got **any** money

-There were no applications for bail for **either** defendant.

-**Either** or both chromosomes may divide.

According to Swan (1995:178) **either** means 'one or the other ' and sometimes can mean **each**, especially in the expressions on **either side** and at **either end**:

-There are roses on **either side** of the door

**No** has negative general reference, Alexander (1988: 93) and Swan (1995:371) emphasize the fact that **no** which is slightly formal can be used instead of **not a** or **not any** when a negative idea is made to be more emphatic:

-There were **no** letters for you this morning, I'm afraid.

**Neither** has also negative reference but to two entities, and it is used before a singular noun. For Swan (1995: 358), **either** means 'not one and not the other'

-'Can you come on Monday or Tuesday? 'I'm afraid **neither** day is possible'

## 3. Pronouns

A pronoun is a generic word that takes the place of a noun in a sentence and functions in the sentence exactly as the noun it replaces. Finkelstein (2006: 23) states that most pronouns must have a specific word or group of words to which they clearly refer.

This referent is called the "pronoun's antecedent", usually occurs before the pronoun. By context or position, it should be obvious to the reader exactly which word or words serve as the antecedent.

Accordingly, pronouns are used instead of full noun phrases in two situations:

1. When the entities when referred to are identifiable through the speech situation or the surrounding text;
2. When the reference is unknown or general.

Pronoun can be viewed as economy devices. Rather than giving a detailed specification, they serve as pointers, requiring the listener or reader to find the exact meaning in the surrounding (usually preceding) text or in the speech situation. Biber , et al (1999: 70)

### 3.1. Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns are used when it is not necessary to use or repeat more exact noun phrases. They are, according to Biber , et al (1999: 328 ) , function words which make it possible to refer succinctly to the speaker / writer , the addressee, and identifiable things or persons other than the speaker / writer and the addressee . The personal pronoun represents the world according to the speaker, in the context of speech exchange. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004 : 325 ) show that the basic distinction is into speech roles ( I , you ) and other roles ( he , she , it , they ) ; there is also the generalized pronoun ( one ) These categories are set out in Figure (1):

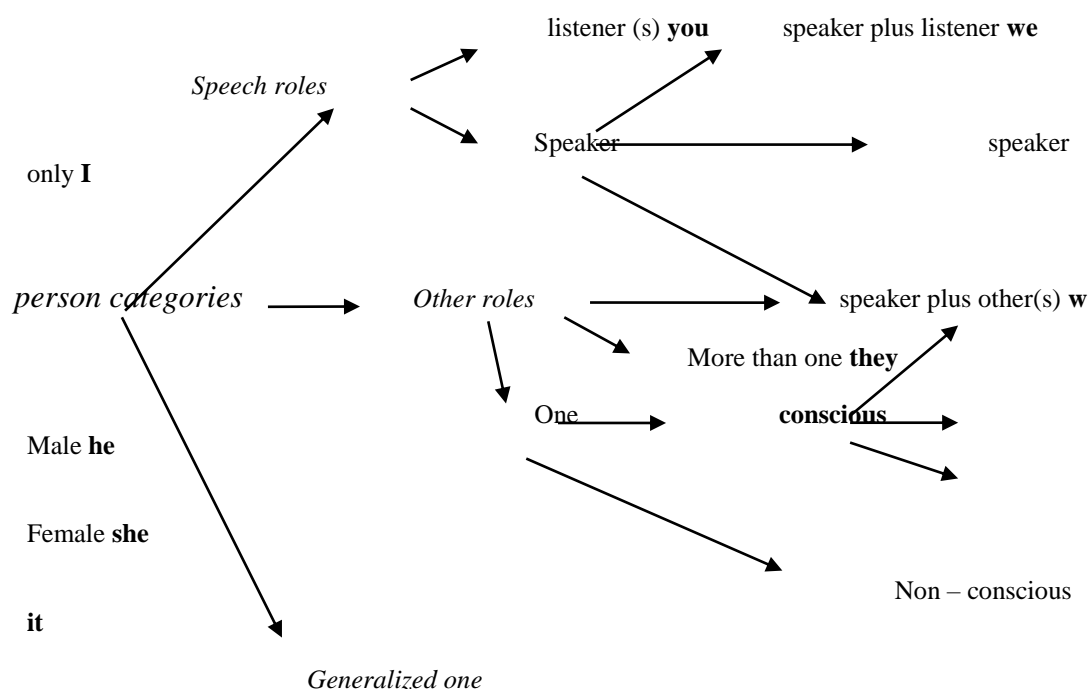


Fig. ( 1 ) : The English person categories

Alexander (1988: 73) provides some notes on the form of personal pronouns:

1. Though these words are called personal pronouns, they do not refer only to people. For example:

**-Your breakfast** is ready. **It** is on the table.

They are called so because they refer to grammatical ‘persons’ (1st, 2nd, 3rd) and can be grouped like this:

1<sup>st</sup> person: I, we

2<sup>nd</sup> person: you

3<sup>rd</sup> person: he, she, it, one, they

2. Most European languages have two forms of **you**, an informal one for family, close friends, children, etc. and one for strangers, superiors, etc. In English, we do not make this distinction:

The one word **you**, is used for everybody. There aren’t different singular and plural forms of **you** (except for yourself, yourselves).

3. The singular subject pronouns he, **she**, and **it** have the same plural form: **they**; and the singular object pronouns **him**, **her** and **it** have the same plural form **them**.

4. The choice of pronoun depends on the noun that is being replaced. Pronouns (except for you) agree with the nouns they replace in **number** (showing us whether they are referring to singular or plural). Some agree in **gender** (showing us whether they are referring to masculine, feminine or neuter):

-**John** is here. He (replacing John) can’t stay long.

-**The windows** are dirty. I must wash **them** (replacing windows).

-If you see **Joanna** please give **her** (replacing Joanna) this message.

5. We do not normally use a noun and a pronoun together:

-My friend invited me to dinner. (Not My friend, he .....)

-I parked my car outside (Not my car, I parked it .....)

### 3.1.1. Nominative and accusative case

For most pronouns, there is a distinction between nominative (I, he, she, we, they) and accusative (me, him, her, us, them) case. Biber, et al (1999 : 328) assure that the distribution of the two forms is generally straight forward : the nominative is used in subject position, while the accusative is used in object position and as the complement of propositions.

The distinction is also explained by Alexander (1988: 73 – 6) who states that the subject pronouns nearly always come before a verb in statements. They are used when the person or thing referred to can be identified by both speaker and hearer:

-John didn’t find us in so **he** left a message

Object pronouns on the other hand, replace nouns in object positions. They can be:

1. Direct object:

Have you met **Marilyn**? I've never met **her**.

2. Indirect object:

-if you see Jim, give **him** my regards.

3. Objects of Prepositions:

-I really feel sorry **for them**.

But there are some exceptions to the rules for using subject and object pronouns. Object pronouns are normally used in everyday speech:

-Who is it? It's **me**.

**Me** also occurs very informally in cleft sentences:

-Don't blame Harry. It was **me** who opened the letter.

While formal usage would require subject pronouns:

**-It was I who** ..... (Or: I was the one who .....)

In a more formal style, Swan (1995: 435) prefers to use subject form + verb where possible:

-Who said that? 'He **did** ' (but not 'He ' )

According to Alexander (ibid), object pronouns are normally used in statements like the following when **as** and **than** function as prepositions:

-She's as old **as me**.

-You're taller **than her**.

However, subject pronouns are used if **as** or **than** function as conjunctions;

i.e. when they are followed by a clause: -She's as old **as I am**.

-You're taller **than she is**.

### 3.2. Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns (mine , his , hers , ours , yours , theirs )which are called, according to Stageberg (1981 : 181 ) , as substitutional possessives .They occur as substitutes for nouns. The form **its** is rarely used.

Possessive pronouns are never used in formal of nouns, Alexander (1988: 81) point out that they are stressed in speech and refer equally to persons and things, singular or plural:

-These are my children. These children are **mine**.

Moreover, possessive pronouns are typically used where the head noun is recoverable from the preceding context:

-The **house** will be **hers** when they are properly divorced.

Or, the head noun may be recoverable from the following context:

-**Theirs** was an unenviable **job**.

But this is rare, stylistically marked construction type. In special cases, possessive pronouns are used when no head noun can be recovered from the context, but it can be predicted from the situation:

-That's not **ours** to wash darling.

The meaning of **ours** here is rough 'our task' . Biber , et al (1999 : 340 -41 ) .

Sometimes the possessive pronoun occurs in a post modifying of – phrase:

-I found **a pattern of hers**, jacket in white, in that bag.

-How's that **brother of yours**?

Swan (1995: 443 ) and Biber , et al (ibid ) agree that this construction has a special advantage that makes it possible for a noun to be specified with both a determiner (e.g. an indefinite article or a quantifier ) and a possessive marker , whereas this combination is not possible with possessive determiners :

-A friend of yours (Not a your friend)

It is possible to form an indefinite plural like **friends of mine** (while **my friends** is definite).The possessive pronoun is a combination between genitive functions (nouns with – s genitive) with pronominal functions. In the latter respect, Quirk , et al (1975 : 105 ) state that the co – referential item they replace may be in the same clause ( as with reflexives ) or a neighboring one (as with the personal pronouns ) :

-**John** has cut **his** finger; apparently was a broken glass on **his** desk.

### 3.3. Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns (this / these, that / those) are used in place of a noun or noun phrase. Swan (1995: 593) points out that they normally refer to thing or may have noun – personal reference:

-**This** costs more than **that**.

But demonstrative pronouns can also be used to identify people or may have personal reference:

-Hallow. **This** is Elisabeth. Is **that** Ruth?

-**These** are the Smiths.

This kind of the demonstratives specifies whether the referent is near or distant in relation to the addressee. According to Alexander (1988: 85) , 'nearness' may be physical . **This** which refers to singular forms and **these** which refers to plural

forms, may refer to something close or present in a situation and **these** can be associated with **here**:

-The photographs I meant are **these here**.

Similarly, 'distance' may be physical. **That** which refers to singular forms and **those** which refers to plural forms, can refer to something that is not close to the addressee, and they can be associated with **there**:

-The photographs I meant are **those there**.

Within a text, Biber , et al (1999 : 348 ) state that this may refer cataphorically to something later :

-Her story was **this**: she had a husband and child.

The reference of **that** may be made clear by a post modifying phrase or clause:

-The unit of energy is the same **as that** for work.

The two sets of demonstrative pronouns may also be associated with time. Swan (ibid) mentions that the first set can refer to situations or experiences which are going on or just about to start:

-Listen to **this**. You'll like it. (Not listen to that .....)

The second set can refer to experiences which have just finished, or which are more distant in the past:

-**That** was nice. What was it? (Not **this** was nice .....)

Moreover, the first set is sometimes used to show acceptance or interest, while the second one shows dislike or rejection:

-Now tell me about **this** new friend of yours.

-I don't like **that** new friend of yours.

### 3.4. Indefinite pronouns

Most of those pronouns were originally noun phrases consisting of a quantifier and a noun with a general meaning. Biber ,et al (1999:351) divide indefinite pronouns into four main group, each derived from a quantifier:

1. The **every** group = everybody, everyone, everything
2. The **some** group = somebody, someone, something
3. The **any** group = anybody, anyone, anything
4. The **no** group = nobody, no one, nothing

These compounds refer to entities which the speaker/writer cannot or does not want to specify more exactly. In other words, Finkelstein (2006:32) states that they do not require an antecedent because each compound can substitute for a noun in a sentence without specifying a specific person, animal, place or thing:

If we conduct the experiment without controls, **nothing** will come of it. In this sentence, **nothing** does not have an antecedent but can still stand alone as a noun.

Alexander (1988: 86) provides some notes about the form and use of the indefinite pronouns starting by the form as following:

1. There is no noticeable difference in meaning and use between— one forms and — body forms. They refer to male(s) and female(s)
2. These compounds (except **no one**) are normally written as one words.
3. These compounds (except those formed with — thing) have a genitive form:  
-Grammar isn't **everyone's** idea of fun.

Concerning the use of the indefinite pronouns, **some** compounds are used in:

1. The affirmative: **I met someone** you know.
2. Questions expecting 'yes': **Was there something** you wanted?
3. Offers and requests: **Would you like something** to drink?

**Any** compounds are used:

1. In negative statement: **There isn't anyone** who can help you.
2. In questions when you are doubtful about the answer = **Is there anyone** here who's a doctor?
3. With **hardly**: I've had **hardly anything** to eat today.

**No** compounds are used when the verb is affirmative:

-There's **no one** here at the moment (= There isn't anyone .....)

#### 4. Text Analysis

In order to recognize the similarities and differences between pronouns and determiners, several sentences are chosen randomly from a scientific text which is entitled Electronics: Principles and Applications, by: Schuler A. Charles (1999)

Table (1): The overlap between pronouns and determiners

	Pronouns	determiners
1	<b>Everyone</b> who has heard music played from digital disk knows...	<b>Every</b> effort has been made to offer the best possible learning materials.
2	<b>Both</b> are defective.	<b>Both</b> the initial and on – going successes of this series are due .....
3	<b>This</b> seemed to be the most obvious way.	<b>This</b> approach helps the student to develop .....
4	As the signal voltage begins increasing for OV , <b>nothing</b> happens at first .	The DC waveform is <b>no</b> surprise .
5	<b>Something</b> closer to pure direct current is required.	<b>Some</b> power supplies convert the power – line frequency .....

#### 4.1. Discussion of findings

Table (1) shows that a distinction can be made clearly in sentences 1, 4 , and 5 between the one – word versions , i. e. **every** , **no** , and **some** and the compounds i.e. **everyone** ,**nothing** and **something** due to their different form and usage as pronouns or as determiners . Unlike **both** and **this** in sentences 2 and 3, which have the same form but different usage. In other words, **both** and **this** are used as pronouns where they replace nouns, whereas they precede the nouns, **success** and **approach** to function as determiners.

#### 5.Conclusion

Although pronouns and determiners are closely related, they overlap in form and are both connected with the specification of reference. Often there are alternative forms, using rather determiners plus a noun or a pronoun. For example, many quantifiers can be used both as determiners and as pronouns. Moreover, determiners are used to narrow down the reference of a noun, pronouns, on the other hand, are used instead of full noun phrases, especially, when there are identifiable entities through the speech situation or the surrounding text, and when the reference is unknown or general.

Pronoun can be viewed as economy devices. They serve as pointers rather than giving a detailed specification. Some pronouns that are used to point pot definite pronouns , places , or thing are known as demonstrative pronouns ( this/that and that/these), while some other do not refer to particular persons , places, or things and this is why they are known as indefinite pronouns (everyone, every thing , something , someone somebody , ....).



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