VILNIUS PEDAGOGICAL UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH PHILOLOGY

DOVILĖ MASLIANIKIENĖ

REFERENCE AND ITS LINGUISTIC REALIZATION

MA Paper

Academic Advisor: prof. Dr. Hab. Laimutis Valeika

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By Dovilė Maslianikienė

I declare that this study is my own and does not contain any unacknowledged work from any source.

(Signature)
(Date)

Academic Advisor: Prof. Dr. Hab. Laimutis Valeika

(Signature)
(Date)
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to describe the typical patterns of reference in a linguistic and non-linguistic context. The main objectives of the paper were to examine the previous research on reference, describe the patterns of reference and systemize reference items in the two types of context - linguistic and non-linguistic. The novel by D.H. Lawrence ‘Women in Love’ was selected as a corpus for the analysis of reference patterns. The methods chosen were descriptive – inductive and quantitative analysis. The research demonstrated that the majority of reference patterns in the analyzed novel constituted the referential use of noun phrases. It was also noticed that 3rd person singular and plural pronouns were the most frequent items used to identify the entities in a linguistic context. In a non-linguistic context reference was realized by deixis – person, place and time. In the analyzed corpus there were no instances of noun phrases used pragmatically.
INTRODUCTION

Language has been and will remain the most important means of communication. People use language to talk about the world. Words enable people to describe a potentially very large number of things in the world. To quote Saeed (1997: 23), 'all languages allow speakers to describe or model aspects of what they perceive'. We pick out, for instance, individuals or locations in the following sentences *I saw Michael Jackson on television last night* or *We’ve just flown back from Paris* by using proper names such as *Michel Jackson* and *Paris*. In semantics the process of picking out or identifying with words is called referring or denoting (Saeed, 1997: 23) and it is one of the central aspects of language use. Reference is the manifestation of denotation. In other words, reference is the denotation of an entity in a context – linguistic and non-linguistic.

Speakers use various linguistic forms that are generally called referring expressions to refer to people, places, things, and ideas and say things about them and in order for communication to be successful, the listener must know what the speaker is referring to. At the same time, however, human beings have limited time, energy, and patience, and generally desire to make their communicative interchanges as economical as possible. One way to make communication more efficient is to use a shorter, less specific form of reference, such as a pronoun, when the referent is accessible to the listener. This tension between communication and efficiency is reflected in Grice’s maxim of quantity: ‘Make your contribution as informative as is required (…) [but not] more informative than is required’ (Leech, 1983: 8 cit. Grice, 1975), which clearly reflects the tendency for the amount of information given to be appropriate.


As has already been mentioned, various linguistic expressions are used to say things about the world. When I say *Russell was a great philosopher*, I am referring to Russell, a real person in a real world by using a proper name. When I point at something and say *That is a chicken*, my deictic term *that* which is a demonstrative pronoun is intended to refer to the thing that I am pointing at. The task of semantic/pragmatic theory is to explain how linguistic expressions say things about the world and have truth values based on their relation to the world. Reference knowledge deals with knowledge
about the world, which means that it is extra-linguistic in character. In addition to our
linguistic knowledge we need extra knowledge about the objects existing in the world
around us. The more knowledge we have about the entities, activities, events, processes
and actions around us, the better we understand the sense of words in the right way.
(Finch, 1999: 153) Semantics and pragmatics are areas of study both concerned with
meanings, only semantics is the study of conventional, linguistic meaning and
pragmatics is the study of how people use this linguistic knowledge in a situation.
Pragmatics studies how addressees have to combine semantic knowledge with other
types of knowledge and make inferences in order to interpret an intended speaker’s
meaning.

According to Leech (1983: 5-6), pragmatics is the study of meaning related to
speech situation and the meaning in pragmatics is defined relative to a speaker or user
of the language, whereas meaning in semantics is defined as a property of expressions
in a given language, separated from particular situations, speakers or addressees. Thus,
pragmatics deals with the disparity between what we intend to communicate and what
we actually say. It is bridged by what the speaker implies and what the addressee infers
on the basis of shared knowledge, shared assumptions and the context of the utterance.
(Poole, 1999: 34) Besides, reference is a central topic in philosophy of language, and
has been the major focus of discussion about how language relates to the world. Leech
(1983: 11) uses the term referential pragmatics which deals with the assignment of
reference to referential expressions in a given utterance which include indexal elements
such as personal pronouns and the tense of the verb.

Most of the researchers (Lyons, 1977; Halliday and Hasan 1976; Poole, 1999,
35), who studied reference, have observed that pronouns are used most often when the
referent is represented in a prominent way in the minds of the discourse participants, but
more fully specified forms are needed when the representation of the referent is less
prominent. You can refer to somebody by using a personal pronoun if you can point to
this particular person and you can also refer to somebody by using a personal pronoun if
that person has already been referred to more explicitly earlier in the discourse. In
contrast, when there might be some doubt about the referent or the referent is unknown
to the addressee, the speaker needs to use a longer, more specific form of reference such
as a name or a description.

Reference is generally viewed from two different perspectives: the speaker’s and
the addressee’s. The speaker has an individual, entity in mind and wants the addressee
to have that same individual, entity in mind. Then, the speaker names the entity and
finally the addressee recognizes that entity, i.e. he/she relates the name to the entity. [http://www.indiana.edu/~hlw/Meaning/reference.html]

The study of reference also focuses on how speakers establish various types of linkage between their utterances and elements in a non-linguistic context (e.g. objects, persons etc.). One central question is the functioning of deictic elements, sometimes called shifters (i.e. lexical items such as I, you, here, there, tomorrow etc.) whose referential meaning shifts with every new speaker or occasion of use. Personal pronouns I and you refer directly to participants in the utterance context. They only differ in their person, that is, which utterance participant they refer to. The first person is used to refer to the speaker, and the second person is used to refer to the addressee. Personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns and possessive pronouns are deictic items that have very little referential force without the support of the situation. The most elaborate study on personal and demonstrative reference types and their importance to text cohesion was provided by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37 – 76). Other linguists, like Lyons (1977: 305 – 312) and Yule (1996: 130), also attributed personal and demonstrative adjectives to highly deictic items.

The research questions.
In the present study I am going to readdress the following questions:
1. How do words refer or what is the mechanism of reference?
2. Do all words refer? Can we differentiate between referential and non-referential use of referring expressions or is there only referential one?
3. What linguistic items belong to the expressions of the referring sort?

The significance of the research.
The research problem has professional significance as it extends existing knowledge and tests the theory. Besides, the present study contributes to systematic and detailed analysis of reference patterns. The practical importance of the work is determined by the fact that the findings of the study can be applied in teaching reference patterns.

The purpose of the research.
The main purpose of the present paper is to describe reference in linguistic and non-linguistic context.

The objectives of the research.
1. To examine scientific literature on reference describing how the phenomenon of reference is treated by different authors
2. To describe and systemize the devices of reference used in a linguistic and non-linguistic context based on the analysis of the novel by D.H. Lawrence ‘Women in Love’.

3. To determine the frequency of the occurrence of reference devices used in a non-linguistic context.

**The research methods.**

1. The analysis of reference devices was carried out by the **descriptive - inductive method**. The examples of different referring expressions selected from the novel ‘Women in Love’ by D.H. Lawrence were analyzed and relevant conclusions were made. Some examples were drawn from the scientific literature examining the concept of reference.

2. The material was subjected to **quantitative analysis** in the present research. The frequency of the occurrence of the reference devices used in a non-linguistic context was counted.

**The scope of the research.**

The present research is restricted to the reference of noun phrases selected from Lawrence’s novel ‘Women in Love’. It analyses the peculiarities of reference in two types of context – linguistic and non-linguistic. The present work also aims at revealing the frequency of deictic expressions used in a non-linguistic context. As far as linguistic context is concerned, the aim of the present research is to systemize the referring expressions used in the novel.
1. REFERENCE AS THE IDENTIFICATION OF AN ENTITY IN THE CONTEXT

1.1 Reference in a linguistic context

Language is the most elaborate semiotic system that has been developed by humans for their social needs of communication. Linguistic communication is not achieved by individual units of language such as sounds, words or sentences but rather realized through distinct units of expression – texts. Discourse analysis as a study of language in use has been the focus of interest to various linguists for about five decades. A number of linguists (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Breugrande and Dressler, 1981; Toolan, 1988; Cook, 1994) have attempted to define what a text is and what the characteristic features a text displays that distinguish it from a collection of unrelated sentences.

In linguistics the notion of a text is used to refer to ‘any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length that forms a unified whole’. A text is defined as ‘a unit of language in use’ which is not defined by its size and can also be contrasted with a clause or a sentence in the respect that it is not a grammatical unit (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 1). Cook (1994: 24) by ‘a text means the linguistic forms in a stretch of language, and those interpretations of them which do not vary with context’. According to the scholar, text depends on its receiver, and therefore variable. Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 3) view a text from the communicative perspective, defining it as ‘a communicative occurrence’ which conforms to seven ‘standards of textuality: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality.’ If a text fails to satisfy one of the requirements it is not considered to be communicative. Toolan (1988: 23) draws a comparison between a text and a house:

Texts are made up of sentences as houses are made up of bricks, posts, beams, and so on. (…) You do not build the house simply by bringing bricks, beams, etc. together, you have to fasten or bond them together in a variety of ways.

Using the above comparison, Toolan (1988: 3) emphasizes that a text is ‘an integrated structure’ in which sentences are tied together and cross – linked with the help of various fastening devices.

Halliday (1976: 1 – 4) provides a detailed study of many aspects of a text. He asserts that texture is the particular property that a text possesses and this distinguishes it from something that is not a text. If we consider a passage consisting of more than
one sentence to be a text, this passage will display particular linguistic features that contribute to its total unity and give it texture. Thus, texture can be regarded as the ability of a text of any length to form a unified whole that is achieved via the establishment of logical relations among sequences of sentences. A collection of unrelated sentences cannot be normally regarded as constituting a text. The most important concept concerning texture is the cohesive relation called a tie that semantically links two members together. It is a term used for a single occurrence of cohesion, a term to refer to a pair of cohesively related items. Any segment of the text can be characterized by the number and kinds of ties which it possesses. The concept of a tie gives a possibility to analyze a text in terms of its cohesive properties and define its patterns of texture. (Halliday and Hasan, 1989: 73)

Studies in text linguistics (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; 1989; Toolan 1988; Lyons, 1996) have also concentrated on linguistic features that contribute to textual unity. According to Lyons (1996: 263) cohesion and coherence are related and distinguishable properties of a text. These two features of the text are mutually dependent and are subject to text materials, which means that operations are performed within the text. Most of the scholars point out that cohesion is manifested at a structural level and coherence is mostly maintained at a semantic level. According to Lyons (1996: 263), the distinction between cohesion and coherence concerns the difference between form and content. The former type of ‘connectedness’ concerns the ways in which the surface elements are linked, the latter aims to find out the configurations of concepts. The term ‘cohesion’ was used by Halliday and later employed by other linguists such as Hasan, Cymes, Toolan, Harweg, Palek, Hobbs and Webber. Cohesion is a semantic concept that ‘refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text’. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse depends on that of another. One element presupposes the other, in such a way that it cannot be successfully deciphered except by recourse to it. When this takes place, we establish a relation of cohesion and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed by integrating them into a text. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 4). Cohesion also deals with the ways in which the sentences of a text are grammatically and lexically linked. One sentence forms a tie with another sentence and the interpretation of a sentence depends on some item occurring in the previous sentence. (Jackson, 1990: 252)

Toolan (1988: 23 – 24) focuses only on the ways in which links exist between or across sentences. Such links as Kim collapsed into the chair because she was exhausted
constitute an instance of sentence grammar but not textual grammar that can be called cohesion. As described by Toolan (1988: 24) the following two sentences *Kim collapsed into the chair. She was exhausted* illustrate an *intersentential link* between *Kim* and *she*. The term intersentential is used to refer to a link between or across sentences, and not within frames of the same sentence and therefore considered to be cohesive since it ‘turns the sequence of two sentences into a miniature text.’ Cohesive linguistic devices connect sentences and thus contribute to the textual unity. The least intricate type of cohesion constitutes the use of pronouns, such as *she* in the second sentence:

**Mary** was surprised that the day had stayed fine. **She** was cooking lasagne. (Toolan, 1988: 24)

In the above mentioned example there is a single tie between *Mary* and *she* which links the two sentences into a text. Long sequences of pronouns referring to a few individuals or things are often traced in narratives and are called cohesive chains. (Toolan, 1988: 24)

The expression of cohesion lies partly in grammar and partly in the vocabulary. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 6) differentiate between the types of lexical and grammatical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion involves reference, identification, ellipsis and conjunction and lexical cohesion includes repetition and collocation. (Jackson, 1997: 253) According to Toolan (1988: 25), reference cohesion is known as the major kind of cohesion which can also be termed as co-reference or cross-reference cohesion because it deals with cases where a grammatical word in one sentence is associated with a word in a succeeding sentence. Pronouns and comparative adjectives are the most characteristic examples of reference cohesion. Consider the following example:

**Bill and Bob** are running for President. I’m going to vote for **Bob**. Do you why? Simply because he’s older. (Toolan, 1988: 25)

The personal pronoun *he* refers back to *Bob* in the previous sentence. The comparative adjective *older* is connected back to the general mention of both *Bill* and *Bob*.

A particular kind of a tie which occurs between sentences is that of reference. The studies in the area of reference were carried out by a number of various linguists (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; 1989; Lyons, 1977; 1996; Toolan, 1988; Ivanova; Burlakova; Pocepcov 1981; Yule 1996; Pipalova; 1998, Kempson; 1995; Saeed, 1997; Kearns 2000; Huddleston and Plum, 2002; Finegan, 2004) with the emphasis on its different aspects and showed it as a complex phenomenon. Lyons (1977) focuses on the distinction of the terms reference and denotation, provides a detailed classification of

1.2 The concept of reference

Scientific literature provides various definitions of the notion of reference. Lyons (1997: 74) defines reference as the relation that exists between ‘linguistic expressions and what they stand for in the world (or the universe of discourse) on particular occasions of utterance’. Yule (1996: 17) treats reference as ‘an act in which a speaker, or writer, uses linguistic forms to enable a listener, or reader, to identify something’. According to Crystal (2004: 391) reference is a term used in grammatical analysis to state a relationship of identity between grammatical units, e.g. a pronoun refers to a noun or a noun phrase. To quote Pipalova (1998: 197) ‘reference is a relation between a naming unit in an utterance and the referent, i.e. the communicated entity of extralinguistic and linguistic reality which the referring linguistic unit stands for.’ Reference is graded in nature and forms a scale from non–referential uses proper and slightly referential ones. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 31) treat reference as a particular kind of cohesion that is characterized by the specific nature of the information that has to be retrieved. This information is considered to be the referential meaning which is defined as the identity of the particular class of things that is being referred to.

The traditional semantic view on reference is one in which the relationship of reference is taken to hold between expressions in a text and entities in the world and that
of co-reference between expressions in different parts of the text. In the traditional approach, the term reference is used together with sense. ‘The meaning of a lexical item is partially determined by its sense, i.e., the component properties are also determined by its reference, i.e., the set of objects in the world to which the expression can be correctly applied’ (Brown and Yule, 1983: 204) If we consider such an example *That man is a rector*. *That man* is used as a referring expression whose referent is a specific man - rector. There exist co-reference relations between *that man* and *a rector*. Two members in a sentence are linked through a particular kind of meaning relation. This particular semantic relation between the two members is treated as the identity of reference. In the following example *I had a little nut tree* / *Nothing would it bear the personal pronoun it and a noun phrase a little nut tree* have the same situational referent. This relationship of situational identity of reference is known as co-referentiality and is usually realized by the items of reference, such as personal pronouns *he, she, it*, etc., demonstratives or the use of the definite article *the*. (Halliday and Hasan, 1989: 73 – 4)

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 32 – 33) make a distinction between textual and situational reference and use the terms exophoric and endophoric reference respectively. Situational reference is considered to be the prior form of reference and evolved earlier than textual reference that is reference to another item within the text. It follows that reference in a linguistic context is only secondary or derived from a reference in a non-linguistic context. Accordingly, reference items may be exophoric or endophoric, the latter being divided into anaphoric or cataphoric ones. An exophoric item does not name anything but rather signals that the reference must be made to the context of situation. Thus, in the case of situational reference, it is not possible to identify the thing referred to without the outer world or the context of the situation. If we consider a fragment from the conversation such as *That must have cost a lot of money* we do not know whether *that* is endophoric or exophoric. This referential item could be treated as exophoric if the participants of the conversation were looking at some expensive item in a visually shared environment. The same item could be treated as ‘endophoric’ if it preceded or succeeded a sentence with additional items to refer to. It follows that only endophoric reference is truly cohesive. It links and integrates one passage with another in such a way that the two together form part of the same text. The only linking function that exophoric reference possesses is that it links the language and the context of situation. These two instances demonstrate that a reference item is not by itself either exophoric or endophoric but it simply has a property of reference. However, particular items or
classes of items have a tendency to be used in one way or another. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 37)

From the semantic point of view words are used to refer to people and things in the world. Lyons (1977: 177) and Yule (1996: 17) maintain that words themselves do not refer to anything. It is the speaker who uses words to refer to or pick out entities in the world by using some appropriate expression. Those linguistic forms that the speaker uses to refer to people, things, or objects can be defined as referring expressions (Yule, 1996: 17). According to Lyons (1977: 177) when a speaker produces a sentence Napoleon is a Corsican to make a statement, he refers to a particular individual (Napoleon) by means of the referring expression Napoleon. If the speaker’s reference is successful, the addressee will be able to identify correctly from the referring expression the individual in question: the referent. If we analyze the following example John saw a hare in the garden. He looked at it for a long time we can say that the first sentence contains three so-called referring expressions, namely John, a hare and the garden. These are used to identify or to talk about a person called John, an animal identified as a hare, and a place described as a garden. The person, the animal and the garden in question are said to be the referents of the expressions John, a hare, and the garden, respectively. We can say that the speaker uses the referring expressions to refer to the entities and the relation between a referring expression and its referent is called reference.

In the second sentence, in the example above, we find the personal pronouns he and it. In order to interpret these correctly we must understand that he refers to the same person as the proper noun John in the first sentence, and that it refers to the same animal as the phrase a hare in the first sentence.

As has already been illustrated, sentences can contain one or more referring expressions. If the sentence contains only one referring expression it can be combined with a predicative expression as in Napoleon is Corsican. In the sentence Alfred killed Bill both Alfred and Bill are referring expressions, their referents being the individuals identifiable by names as Alfred and Bill (Lyons, 1977: 177). Referent is a term used in philosophical linguistics and semantics. Saeed (1997: 27) defines the referent as the entity referred to and he also employs this term for a thing picked out by uttering the expression in a particular context (e.g. the referent of a toad in the sentence I’ve just stepped on a toad would be the unfortunate animal on the bottom of my shoe). We can refer to the same individual, thing or idea in different ways. Historically, there was only
one person called George Washington, the first president of the United States. He can be referred in a text in many ways, such as:

- The president
- Mr Washington
- He, or even
- my friend

Even though there are many ways to talk about him, there is only one referent in the referential realm. The same individual is referred to by a name (Anwar E1 Sadat) and by a definite description (the president of Egypt) in examples (1) and (2):

(1) Then in 1981 Anwar E1 Sadat was assassinated. (Saeed, 1997: 31)
(2) Then in 1981 the president of Egypt was assassinated. (Saeed, 1997: 31)

You can also refer to a woman who lives next door to you by various descriptions like my neighbour, Pat’s mother, Michalel’s wife, the Head of science at St. Helen’s school (Saeed, 1997: 31). Lawrence in his novel ‘Women in Love’ refers to his characters Ursula and Gudrun Brangwen in several ways, such as: the two girls, the sisters, the two sisters and the Brangwen sisters.

Words and word phrases are said to stand in the relationship of cross-reference when they refer to the same entity, i.e. have the same referent. Cross-reference is a term used by Bloomfield that refers to ‘the agreement of a pronoun or verb with an optional noun phrase in which its referent is supplied’, for instance, My brother was wearing a coat, so he didn’t get wet. It is said that the pronoun he cross-refer to a definite noun phrase my brother (Mathews, 1997: 300). Cross-reference is a kind of ‘linear cohesion’ which deals with various linguistic means that indicate that ‘the same thing is being referred to or mentioned in different parts of the text’. (Leech and Short, 1981: 244). Cross-reference helps to avoid repetition of the same words and content. Leech and Svartvik (1994: 184) emphasize the importance of cross-reference by distinguishing the two ways in which cross-reference contributes to linking text sentences.

1. it shortens the message
2. it makes the connections of meaning more easy to understand

There are different ways in the English language to cross-refer and in this way avoid unnecessary repetition. Generally the personal pronouns he, she, it, they, etc. cross-refer to noun phrases and agree with them in number and gender. These examples selected from Leech and Svartvik (1994: 185) illustrate the use of cross-reference:

(1) Millions of flies were on their way towards us.
(2) Bill gave an inward groan. He felt that the situation was getting beyond him.

The personal pronouns their, he and him cross – refer to the noun phrases millions of flies and Bill.

1st and 2nd pronouns occasionally replace coordinate noun phrases in the following instances:

1) You and I ought to get together sometime to share our ideas.

2) My wife and I are going to Argentina. We hope to stay with some friends.

The addressee’s ability to identify intended referents depends not only on his understanding of the referring expression but also on the linguistic material that is defined as co-text which accompanies the referring expression. According to Lyons (1996: 271) co-text is all the relevant textual information surrounding text, which is useful or necessary in interpreting it. The co-text limits the range of possible interpretations which we may have for a certain referring expression. In the following example Brazil wins World Cup contains a referring expression Brazil and the second part of the sentence wins World Cup forms part of the co-text. The number of interpretations that we have for the word Brazil is clearly limited. Every referring expression provides a range of reference (referential range), that is a number of possible referents of the referring expression. Although the referential range of referring expressions is fixed by their meaning in the language, their actual reference depends upon various contextual factors (Lyons, 1996: 294). The expression the cheese sandwich is used in both sentences but is accompanied by the different co-text which allows us to interpret each sentence in a different way:

1) The cheese sandwich is made with white bread. (Yule, 1996:21)

2) The cheese sandwich is left without paying. (Yule, 1996: 21)

In example (1) the definite noun phrase the cheese sandwich refers to a meal while the same referring expression in example (2) is used to refer to the client in a restaurant or bar. In these examples the non-linguistic context, which is the physical environment limits the range of possible interpretations of the same referring expression (Yule, 1996: 21).

According to Thomas (1995: 9), ‘assigning reference’ to words deals with a particular ability to identify in context who or what is being referred to and is of crucial importance in understanding an utterance. For instance, the majority of members of the literate community will understand the following notice: Danger! Do not touch! as expressing a warning. However, the notice will fully perform its warning function if it
clarifies for its reader what is being referred to – what must not be touched. Deictic expressions belong to those expressions that acquire part of their meaning in their context of utterance. **Place deictics** such as *here, there, this, that* become meaningful when you have knowledge of where the speaker is standing or what the speaker is indicating. The same applies to **time deictics** such as *yesterday, tomorrow, now*. In order to assign reference to these items you have to know when these words were uttered. Other kinds of deictic items such as **person deictics** and **discourse deictics** also derive their meaning from their context of utterance (Thomas, 1995: 9 – 10).

It has already been mentioned that the speaker uses the words to refer to entities in the world. Referred entities do not necessarily exist in the physical world and have identifiable physical referents. Lyons (1996: 299) and Yule (1996: 18 - 19) differentiate between the two types of entities: existing and non – existing ones. Existing entities are entities existing in the real world and non – existing entities exist only in the imaginary or conceptual world, i. e. the world of ideas. Lyons (1996: 299) emphasizes that there is close connection of reference with existence and we cannot successfully refer to something that does not exist. However, the scholar maintains that people can refer successfully to ‘imaginary, fictional and hypothetical entities’ and in doing so people ‘presuppose that they exist in an imaginary, fictional or hypothetical world’.

Reference has a particular aim that is the speaker refers to entities so that the addressee may identify them. Thus, we can say that reference is viewed from two perspectives: the speaker’s and listener’s (addressee’s). If the addressee is able to identify the entity the speaker’s reference to the entity is successful and vice versa. If we say *The singer is coming* our reference is not successful because the listener does not know what *singer* we are talking about. To make our reference successful, we need to provide the addressee with more information concerning the referent *singer*. For instance, *Last summer the singer gave a remarkable performance. Since that time no singer has visited the higher school*. The additional information that is supplied in the second sentence can help the addressee to identify the referent.

Successful reference depends on the ability of the hearer to identify the current linguistic message, the speaker’s intended referent on the basis of the referring expression used. Identification of the speaker’s intended referent is of key importance in any consideration of the interpretation of referring expressions in discourse. Whatever the form of the referring expression, its referential function depends on the speaker’s intention on the particular occasion of use.
Pipalova (1998: 194 – 195) claims that from the speaker’s perspective three conditions should be fulfilled to achieve the successful reference:

1. linguistic competence;
2. cognitive (and pragmatic) ability;
3. pragmatic (and cognitive) willingness.

As regards linguistic competence, if the speaker does not choose an appropriate linguistic naming unit, depending on proximity, the deviations may range from near misses to complete misunderstandings. The reference act is carried out under the aspects which have a relative hierarchy. The relative hierarchy is a result of the interplay of extension and intention of the particular linguistic unit. Thus, a single entity can be referred to under a number of relatively hierarchized aspects. For example, fruit, apple, the golden delicious apple, the red golden delicious apple etc. In the Donnellan’s example Smith’s murderer though we have one piece of information about the referent namely that he is a murderer, we might refer to him under quite a number of aspects e.g. the person who had killed poor Smith, Smith’s assailant, the sadist etc.

As for cognitive (and pragmatic) ability, if the speaker does not have enough factual knowledge about the referent, he may not be able to refer properly. The more specific and informative unit the speaker chooses the more risky his position is because he might be accused of being mistaken. And on the other hand, if the speaker chooses a safer position, he takes the risk of being less informative.

As regards pragmatic (and cognitive) willingness, we suppose that the speaker is willing to communicate the total amount of knowledge he has. However, this is not always true. The speaker might try purposefully and intentionally to conceal some items of information from us. This happens because the speaker finds a less informative label less risky. He may not be sure whether he has evidence enough to be more specific.

From the hearer’s point of view, the success with reference can only be achieved if the speaker fulfills all the three conditions and the hearer himself has an ability to decode the speaker’s message properly as well as possess sufficient knowledge of the cognitive and pragmatic sphere (Pipalova, 1998: 197). Thus, for the successful reference to occur, we must also recognize the role of inference. Because there is no direct relation between entities and words, the listener’s task is to infer correctly which entity the speaker intends to identify by using a particular referring expression. It is a condition of successful reference that the speaker should select a referring expression which, when it is employed in accordance with the rules of the language system, will
enable the addressee in the context in which the utterance is made to pick out the actual referent from the class of potential referents (Lyons, 1977: 180).

1.3 Types of referring expressions

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37) and Toolan (1988: 26) provide the classification of referring expressions based on the notion of cohesion. Halliday (1976: 37) differentiates between three types of reference: personal, demonstrative, and comparative. These three types are identified without regard to the ‘endophoric’ or ‘exophoric’ distinction. Personal reference is expressed by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of person. Demonstrative reference is reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity and incorporates demonstrative pronouns (this / these, that/ those), adverbs (here / there, now / then) and the definite article the. Comparative reference is indirect reference which is expressed by means of identity or similarity and includes such referential items as adjectives and adverbs. Grammatically, all reference items except the demonstrative adverbs and some comparative adverbs function within the nominal group (noun phrase). The category of personals includes the three classes of personal pronouns and possessive pronouns. The members of this category belong to different classes with diverse structural roles and represent a single system that of person.

Toolan (1988: 26) singles out the following kinds of reference cohesion: personal pronouns, regular and possessive demonstratives (this, that, these, those, here, there, then), the secondary mention of the definite article, and comparative constructions such as the same, similar, such, different, other, more, less, ordinal numbers, as + adjective, and comparative and superlative adjectives and adverbs. Yule (1996:17) classifies referring expressions into proper nouns (for example, Shakespeare, Napoleon, Hawaii), indefinite noun phrases (for example, a man, a woman, a beautiful place etc.), definite noun phrases (e.g. the man, the woman, the author, the singer etc.) and pronouns (e.g. he, her, it and them).

Lyons (1996: 296) distinguishes proper names, noun – headed noun phrases and pronouns. Noun – headed noun – phrases are further divided into several subclasses: definite descriptions, indefinite descriptions and quantified noun – phrases (e.g. all men, every girl etc.)

Donnellan (1966) made a distinction between referring and non – referring use of definite descriptions and asserted that definite descriptions cannot be analyzed when
they are removed from the context because we can mean different things by the same sentence used in different situations. Donnellan’s famous example, *Smith’s murderer is insane* offers two clear-cut interpretations. If we suppose that Smith is found brutally murdered and the speaker has no idea who his murderer is the definite description *Smith’s murderer* is used non-referentially to say something about whoever murdered Smith. If the speaker uses the definite description *Smith’s murderer* to refer to some specific individual, for instance, John who is accused of Smith’s murder and the speaker believes that he is guilty, we can claim that the definite description Smith’s murderer is being used referentially, merely to pick out a specific person and say something about him. [http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/reference/]

Since Donnellan’s differentiation between referential and non-referential uses of definite descriptions, linguists have been divided according to this issue. Some linguists, including Lyons (1977: 1985-1986), Levinson (1983: 60 – 61) and Yule (1996: 18 - 19), supported Donnellan’s view, while others have claimed that such a distinction does not exist.

Levinson (1983: 60-61) following Donnellan distinguished between attributive and referential use of definite descriptions, i.e. noun phrases in English preceded by the definite article *the*. Consider the following examples:

(1) **The man drinking champagne** is Lord Godolphin. (Levinson, 1983: 60)

(2) **The man who can lift this stone** is stronger than an ox. (Levinson, 1983: 60)

Example (1) illustrates referential use of the definite description in spite of the fact that this description might be wrong, i.e. we can assume that the man is drinking lemonade. Example (2) illustrates the attributive use since the speaker does not have a particular individual in mind and the sentence can be paraphrased as ‘whoever can lift this stone is stronger than an ox’. Levinson calls the referential use of definite descriptions **speaker reference** since it deals with ‘the speaker’s intention and the addressee’s successful location of the intended referent that matter’.

Such linguists as Yule (1996: 18-19), Huddleston and Plum (2002: 399), Finegan (2004: 268) assert that the distinction between referring and non-refering use of linguistic expressions, i.e. noun phrases, depends on the property of a linguistic expression to refer to particular entities. If a linguistic expression fails to refer to a particular entity it is considered to be non-referential. Other linguists, including Saeed (1997: 26 - 27) and Kearns (2000), take the view that the distinction between referential and non-referential uses of linguistic expressions coincides with the distinction of
referential types. Nominals, especially proper names, are treated as paradigmatic referring expressions that display direct correspondence between words and objects.

Saeed (1997: 26 – 27) focuses on referential possibilities of nominals, which include noun names and noun phrases, examines some major differences in the ways that words may be used to refer and distinguishes between referring and non-referring linguistic expressions. Non-referring expressions are meaningful expressions but they are not used to refer (e.g. so, very, maybe, if, not, all, and). Such words contribute to the meaning of sentences in which they occur but they do not themselves identify entities in the world. In contrast to non-referring expressions, referring expressions are used to identify entities. Nouns display clear properties of referring expressions. (e.g. *cat* in the sentence *That cat looks vicious*).

Saeed (1997: 26 – 27) claims that differences between referring expressions can be spotted when they are used across a range of different utterances. Some expressions have the same referent across a range of utterances (e.g. *the Eiffel Tower* or *the Pacific Ocean*). In other referring expressions the referent is dependant on context which means that in order to identify referents we have to know who is speaking to whom. (e.g. *I wrote to you, She put it in my office*). According to the scholar (1997: 26 – 27), expressions like *The Pacific Ocean* are said to have constant reference, while the expressions like *I, you, she* etc. are said to have variable reference.

Pipalova (1998: 196) maintains that distinction between referential and non-referential uses is too complex a matter to be reduced to a dichotomy model. Thus, she considers it to be much appropriate to speak about the degree of referentiality which is a result of a combination of several factors: syntactic, morphological, lexical aspects and the aspect of referential type. Some nouns are used for identification and are called identifiers and other only relate or associate referents with some functions or posts and thus are called characterizers. Thus, identifiers have higher referential capacity than characterizers. The morphological criterion of reference helps to single out different synonymic forms of generic expressions which are ordered according to the degree of referentiality in the following way: *cats, a cat, the cat*, with the last one being the least referential. (Pipalova, 1998: 196)

Huddleston and Plum (2002: 399) affirm that a linguistic expression is referential if a speaker uses it on a given occasion to pick out some ‘independently distinguishable entity or set of entities, in the real (or in some fictional world)’. In the following example *Mary washed her car* the subject of the noun phrase *Mary* is expressed via a proper name and is one of the major kinds of referring expressions. The
proper name *Mary* is used to pick out a particular individual *Mary*, an entity that possesses more specific properties than her name (for instance, her appearance, where she lives, etc.).

Finegan (2004: 268) focuses on referential possibilities of noun phrases. A noun phrase is considered to be referential when it refers to a particular entity. If a noun phrase fails to refer to anyone in particular it is treated as non–referential. Examples (1) and (2) illustrate referential and non–referential uses of a noun phrase *an Italian with blue eyes* respectively:

1. Kate wants to marry **an Italian with blue eyes**, but she hasn’t met one yet. (Finnegan, 2004: 201)

2. Kate wants to marry **an Italian with blue eyes**: his name is Mario. (Finnegan, 2004: 201)

Removed from the context, the sentence *Kate wants to marry an Italian with blue eyes* is ambiguous because there is no indication in the sentence whether the speaker refers to a particular Italian or not.

Yule (1996:18) differentiates between referential and attributive uses of indefinite noun phrases by giving three different examples:

1. There’s **a man** waiting for you.
2. He wants to marry **a woman** with lots of money.
3. We’d love to find **a nine–foot–tall basketball player**.

In example (1) we speak about a physically present specific entity using an indefinite description *a man* which illustrates the referential use of the expression. In example (2) we use an indefinite description to describe an entity that is assumed to exist only in a conceptual world. We can say that he may have met or known such a woman but all he knows that such a woman exists. The expression *a woman with lots of money* can be paraphrased *any existing woman with lots of money*. Thus, an indefinite noun phrase *a woman* illustrates an attributive use of the expression *a woman*. The expression *a nine–foot–tall basketball player* illustrates an entity that does not exist in the physical world and is thus considered to be non–referential use of the referring expression.

The author of the current paper favours the view of the scholars, who do not distinguish between referential and non–referential use of noun phrases.
2. REALIZATION OF REFERENCE IN A LINGUISTIC CONTEXT

As already noted, reference constitutes two categories: non – particular (non – definite) and particular (definite). Non – particular reference is primary while particular reference is secondary, i.e. the speaker first introduces an entity into discourse then he/she can present it as shared information in the succeeding discourse. The pattern is generally found in linguistic context, or verbal situations, where the reader has no possibility to see the entities. However, in non – linguistic contexts, or non – verbal situations, the addressee is in a position to see the entity: the speaker and the addressee are in the same physical environment. Such being the case, the need of primary introduction of an entity does not generally arise – the entity can be identified by the speaker by bypassing the first stage of identification, i.e. instead of using the pattern *a book – the book* the speaker can use the pattern *this book or the book*. It will be obvious that identification of an entity in a non – linguistic context is more simple: the speaker can bypass the first pattern and make use of the second pattern only.

2.1 Anaphoric and cataphoric reference. Introductory observations

Generally reference items function within a text in two different ways. They can be anaphoric or cataphoric. Anaphora is defined as the kind of relationship when a grammatical substitute, e.g. a pronoun is used to refer to a preceding word or phrase. Cataphora indicates the use of a grammatical form, e.g. pronoun, to refer to a following word or group of words. Both types of reference items are used in texts to maintain reference. Contemporary grammarians Huddleston; Plum (2002) and Crystal (2004) term anaphoric and cataphoric relations as retrospective and anticipatory anaphora. In case of retrospective anaphora, the anaphora follows the antecedent. For instance, ‘When *the headmaster* saw the damage, *he* called in the police’. Retrospective anaphora is much more common, however, there are cases when the anaphor comes first in the sentence. In such a case we deal with anticipatory anaphor. For instance, ‘When *he* saw the damage, *the headmaster* called the police’. Anticipatory anaphora is rare and permitted under quite restricted conditions.
2.1.1 Anaphoric reference /Anaphora

Yule (1996: 136) defines anaphoric reference as ‘subsequent reference within a text and illustrated via pronouns’. According to Mathews (1996: 19) anaphora is ‘the relation between a pronoun and another element, in the same or in earlier sentence that supplies its referent’. ‘Anaphora is the relation between an anaphor and an antecedent, where the interpretation of the anaphor is determined via that of the antecedent’.

In the following example Where is my book? It’s on the table we have a particular relationship between book and it. The second referring expression it is an example of anaphora and the definite noun phrase my book is called the antecedent. When some entity is introduced in the initial sentence, speakers usually use various expressions to maintain reference. Consider the following examples:

(1) In the film, a man and a woman were trying to wash a cat. The man was holding the cat while the woman poured water on it. He said something to her and they started laughing. (Yule, 1996: 22)

(2) A boy was holding a frog in a jar. When the boy went to sleep at night, the frog escaped from the jar. When the boy woke up in the morning, he noticed that the frog was gone was very sad.

Examples (1) and (2) show that in the English language the initial reference is often indefinite (a man, a woman, a cat, a boy, a frog, a jar). The definite noun phrases (the man, the woman, the cat, the boy, the frog, the jar) and the pronouns (it, her, they, he) are examples of subsequent reference to already introduced referents and are defined as anaphoric reference or anaphora. The following sentences display prototypical examples of simple anaphora:

(3) John left. He said he was ill.

In the above example John is an antecedent and he is the anaphoric pronoun.

(4) A well-dressed man was speaking; he had a foreign accent.

Example (4) shows that an indefinite noun phrase a well-dressed man is the antecedent and he is the anaphoric pronoun. Consider one more example:

(5) We’d been listening to Paul: that guy certainly knows how to stir things up. (Huddleston and Plum, 2002: 1454)

Example (5) implies that Paul is an antecedent and that guy is anaphora. That serves as an anaphoric marker indicating that the interpretation of the NP is to be obtained from an antecedent. Consider one more example:

(7) The idea was preposterous, but no one dared say so. (Huddleston and Plum, 2002: 1454)
In example (7) there is an anaphoric link between so and the first clause, with so being thereby interpreted as that idea was preposterous. In the above examples anaphoric reference identifies exactly the same entity as denoted by the antecedent and thus constitute unproblematic cases of anaphora.

In most (but not all) kinds of anaphora it is possible for the antecedent to be in a separate sentence from the anaphor. For these reasons there will be more than one potential antecedent for given anaphor, leading to ambiguity. Consider:

8) I’ve just been talking to Max. I understand that Ed has told Frank that the Commission’s report has exonerated him completely. (Huddleston and Plum, 2002: 1455)

Sentence (8) implies that any of Max, Ed and Frank could serve as antecedent for him here. A thoughtful writer would tend to avoid such examples, at least in careful style, unless it was clear from the context which was the intended antecedent.

In the examples that have been analyzed so far an anaphor and its antecedent had a single anaphoric link. However, very often we find a sequence of such links which form an anaphoric chain. For instance, ‘My daughter tells me that her car has been giving her a lot of troubles recently. She thinks she may have to start cycling to work’. In this example my daughter is the antecedent of the first her which is a genitive pronoun and this in turn an antecedent to the second her which is an accusative pronoun. Anaphoric pronouns are anaphorically linked to the antecedent. The simplest relation between anaphorically linked NPs is that of co-reference. For example, The drummer was late because he had overslept again. He is anaphoric to the drummer and by virtue of that relation refers to the same person as the latter phrase: we say then that antecedent and anaphor are co-referential.

The analysis of anaphoric reference in D.H. Lawrence’s novel ‘Women in Love’ has focused on the relationship between the anaphors and antecedents in the selected examples from the text. An attempt has been made to examine the least complicated patterns of anaphoric reference such as the reference of a single pronoun to its antecedent within the frames of one sentence or in the immediately following sentence as well as longer sequences of anaphoric pronouns referring to the same antecedent. In the research the following patterns of the analyzed anaphoric pronoun reference were distinguished based on the structural position of the referring elements:

1) single anaphoric reference where a lexical item refers to its antecedent within the same sentence.

2) chain anaphoric reference which exhibits a link between several lexical elements and a single occurrence of a referring noun phrase.
Consider the following examples:

1. Man is a mistake, he must go. (Lawrence 109)
2. The room was large, it was thickly carpeted. (Lawrence 100)
3. The night had fallen, it was dark. (Lawrence 212)
4. The wedding must not be a fiasco, it must not. (Lawrence 13)
5. Gudrun reached out the sketch – book, Gerald stretched from the boat to take it. (Lawrence 102)

In the above mentioned examples there is a referential anaphoric link between pronouns and their antecedents in the frames of one sentence. In example (1) the personal pronoun he refers to the preceding noun man, the personal pronoun it refers to the definite noun phrases the room, the night, the wedding and the sketch – book in examples (2), (3), (4) and (5). Consider more examples:

6. Fraulein departed into the house, Hermione took up her embroidery, the little Contessa took up the book, Miss Bradley was weaving a basket of fine grass, and there they were on the lawn (…). (Lawrence 70)

Example (6) shows that the personal pronoun they is used to refer to the definite noun phrases Fraulein, Hermione, Contessa and Miss Bradley expressed via the proper names in the same sentence.

7. In the morning Gerald woke late. He had slept heavily. (Lawrence 64)
8. A nurse in white entered, half hovering in the doorway like a shadow. She was very good looking (Lawrence 282)
9. Ursula was stitching a piece of brightly – coloured embroidery, and Gudrun was drawing upon a board (…). They were mostly silent (…). (Lawrence 4)

In the above mentioned examples the personal pronouns he, she and they refer anaphorically to their antecedents Gerald, a nurse, the sketch – book, Gudrun and Ursula in the immediately preceding sentence. The type of antecedents used in the sentences are expressed via proper names with reference to particular people Gerald, Ursula, Gudrun and definite (the sketch – book) and indefinite (a nurse) noun phrases.

10. Gerald Crich came, fair, good – looking, healthy, with a great reserve of energy. He was erect and complete (…) (Lawrence 17)
11. The carts that came could not pass through. They had to wait, the driver calling and shouting, till the dense crowd would make a way. (Lawrence 99)

In the above examples the anaphoric pronouns he and they are co – referential with their antecedents expressed via the proper name Gerald Crich and the definite noun phrase the carts in the immediately preceding sentence.

The following sentences deal with anaphoric reference realized in longer stretches of text forming an anaphoric chain. As has already been mentioned, chain reference
exhibits a sequence of links between several lexical referents and a single occurrence of a referring noun. Consider more examples:

(12) Ursula set off to Willey Green, towards the mill. She came to Willey Water. It was almost full again, after its period of emptiness. Then she turned off through the woods. (Lawrence 212)

Example (12) shows that the personal pronoun she in the second and fourth sentences refers back to its antecedent Ursula which is a definite noun phrase expressed via proper name and the personal pronouns it and its in the second sentence refer back to their antecedent Willey Water in the second sentence respectively.

(13) (...) wedding guests were mounting up the steps (...). They were all gay and excited because the sun was shining.

Gudrun watched them closely (...) She saw each one as a complete figure (...) She loved to recognize their various characteristics, to place them in their true light, give them their own surroundings, settle them for ever as they passed before her (...) (Lawrence 9)

In example (13) the personal pronoun they in the second sentence refers back to the noun phrase wedding guests, objective pronoun them, possessive pronoun their in the succeeding sentences refer back to the noun phrase wedding guests and personal pronoun she and possessive pronoun her refer back to the proper name Gudrun as their antecedent.

(14) There came the mother, Mrs Crich, with her eldest son Gerald. She was a queer unkempt figure, in spite of the attempts that had obviously been made to bring her into line for the day. Her face was pale, yellowish (...) she leaned forward (...) her features were strongly marked, handsome (......) Her colorless hair was untidy, wisps floating down on to her sac coat of dark blue silk, from under her silk hat. She looked like a woman with monomania (...) (Lawrence 9)

Example (14) illustrates that each anaphor realized by personal pronoun she and possessive pronoun her refers to the same person (the mother, Mrs Crich) as its antecedent, so all the above underlined noun phrases have the same referent.

(15) Gerald was of fair, sun – tanned type (...) But about him also was the strange, guarded look (...) as if he didn’t belong to the same creation as the people around him. Gudrun lighted on him at once. There was something northern about him that magnetized her. In his clear northern flesh and his fair hair was a glisten like sunshine (...) And he looked so new, unbroached (...) Perhaps he was thirty years old, perhaps more. His gleaming beauty, maleness (...) did not blind her to the significant, sinister stillness in his bearing (...) (Lawrence 10)

In example (15) the referent which is expressed via the proper name Gerald is introduced in the first sentence. The personal pronoun he, possessive pronoun his and objective pronoun him in the succeeding sentences are used to refer to their antecedent Gerald and possessive pronoun her refers to its antecedent Gudrun expressed via the proper name.
The chief bridesmaids had arrived. Ursula watched them come up the steps. One of them she knew, a tall, slow, reluctant woman (…). (Lawrence 10)

In example (16) the objective pronoun them is anaphoric to the preceding definite noun phrase the chief bridesmaids and the personal pronoun she refers to its antecedent Ursula in the preceding sentence.

Ursula turned towards the bride and the people, and (…) gave an inarticulate cry. She wanted to warn them that he was coming. But her cry was inarticulate and inaudible, and she flushed, between her desire and her wincing confusion. (Lawrence 14)

Example (17) shows that the personal pronoun she, and possessive pronoun her refer to a preceding definite noun phrase Ursula and objective pronoun them refers back to the definite noun phrases the bride and the people.

Birkin was as thin as Mr Crich, pale and ill – looking. His figure was narrow but nicely made. He went with a slight trail of one foot (…) Although he was dressed correctly for his part, yet there was an innate incongruity (…) His nature was clever and separate, he did not fit at all in the conventional occasion. (Lawrence 15)

In example (18) the personal pronoun he and the possessive pronoun his in the following stretch of discourse are used to refer to the definite noun phrase Birkin expressed via the proper name in the initial sentence.

Ursula was left thinking about Birkin. He piqued her, attracted her, and annoyed her. She wanted to know him more. She had spoken with him once or twice (…) She thought he seemed to acknowledge some kinship between her and him (…) And something kept her from him, as well as attracted her to him. There was a certain hostility, a hidden ultimate reserve in him (…)

Yet she wanted to know him (Lawrence 15)

In example (19) there are two referents in the first sentence realized by the proper names Ursula and Birkin. The personal pronoun he and objective pronoun him in the second sentence as well as in the following stretch of discourse refer to their antecedent expressed via the proper noun Birkin. The personal pronoun she and possessive pronoun her in the succeeding sentences are used to refer to the definite noun phrase expressed via a proper name Ursula.

Hermione Roddice was thinking only of Birkin. He stood near her. She seemed to gravitate (…) towards him. She wanted to stand touching him. She could hardly be sure he was near her, if she did not touch him. Yet she stood subjected through the wedding service. (Lawrence 16)

In the above example the initial reference is expressed via proper nouns Hermione Roddice and Birkin. The subsequent reference of the entities is realized by personal and objective pronouns he/ him and she/her.

The bride was quite demure on the arm of the bridegroom, who stared up into the sky before him, shutting and opening his eyes unconsciously, as if he were neither here nor there. He looked
rather comical (…), when rather emotionally he was violated by his exposure to a crowd. He looked a typical naval officer, manly, and up to his duty. (Lawrence 16)

Example (21) shows that the personal pronoun he, the objective pronoun him and the possessive pronoun his are co-referential with their antecedent the bridegroom expressed via the definite noun phrase in the initial sentence.

2.1.2 Cataphoric reference

Crystal (2004: 65) defines cataphora as ‘a linguistic unit referring forward to another unit’. Cataphoric reference marks ‘the identity between what is being expressed and what is about to be expressed’: for example, the use of him to refer to John in the following example: Near him, John saw a snake. Consider the following examples:

(1) I turned the corner and almost stepped on it. There was a large snake in the middle of the path. (Yule, 1996: 23)

In example (1), the pronoun it is used first and it is difficult to interpret until the full noun phrase a large snake is presented in the next line. Consider more examples:

(2) If you need one, there is a towel in the top drawer.
(3) Since he had forgotten about the meeting, John didn't come.
(4) He who hesitates is lost. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 56)

In the above examples we deal with cataphoric personal reference where one and he refer forward to an indefinite noun phrase a towel, the definite noun phrase John and a defining relative clause who hesitates.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 56), personal pronouns perform cataphoric structural functions. Third person pronouns other than it may refer cataphorically to a defining relative clause as in the example (4). This usage is archaic and is found in proverbs and archaisms. All third person pronouns occur cataphorically as ‘substitute themes’ in clauses in which the referent is delayed to the end (e.g. They’re good these preaches). Lastly, it is very frequently used in this way where the subject of the clause is nominalization (e.g. It’s true that he works very hard.)

The following examples illustrate the use of cataphoric reference in Lawrence’s ‘Women in Love’. It has been observed that the most common instances of cataphoric reference use display the use of the personal pronouns he, she, it which refer forward to a noun phrase as their antecedent in the frames of one sentence. Consider the following examples:

(5) As she went upstairs, Ursula was aware of the house, of her home round about her. And she loathed it, the sordid, too – familiar place! (Lawrence 6)
In example (5) the personal pronoun she refers forward to the definite noun phrase expressed by the proper name Ursula in the same sentence. The personal pronoun it in the succeeding sentence refers forward to the definite noun phrase the sordid, too familiar place.

(6) But really imagine it: imagine any man one knows, imagine him to come home to one every evening, and saying ‘Hello’, and giving one a kiss – ‘(Lawrence 4) Example (6) shows that the personal pronoun it refers forward to a noun phrase any man.

(7) Only this blotted out her mind, pressed out her very breathing, his silent, stooping back, the back of his head. (Lawrence 89)

In example (7) the demonstrative pronoun this refers forward to the definite noun phrase his silent, stooping back, the back of his head which is expressed via the definite noun phrase.

(8) In spite of herself, Ursula felt herself recoiling from Hermione. (Lawrence 121)

(9) She could not bear it that the bride should arrive, and no groom. (Lawrence 13)

(10) At length it was over, the meal. (Lawrence 24)

(11) She saw his back, the movement of his white loins. But not that – it was the whiteness he seemed to enclose as he bent forwards, rowing. (Lawrence 101)

(12) Imagine it, two boys playing together – (…) (Lawrence 39)

The above examples contain the pronouns which are used to refer forward to their antecedents within the same sentence. The reflexive pronoun herself in example (8) is used to refer to its antecedent expressed via the proper name Ursula, the personal pronoun it in example (9) refers to the following sentence that the bride should arrive and no groom. Similarly, the demonstrative pronoun that in sentence (11) refers forward to the sentence it was the whiteness in the same sentence. The personal pronoun it in example (10) refers to the definite noun phrase the meal. Example (12) shows that the personal pronoun it refers forward to the succeeding sentence two boys playing together.

2.2 Reference by indefinite noun phrases

In a linguistic context, the speaker (the writer), in identifying an entity for the reader, is guided by the principle of shared information. If the entity being identified does not present shared information, it is realized as an indefinite noun phrase. An
**indefinite noun phrase** is defined as either an indefinite pronoun or a noun phrase introduced by the indefinite article *a* (e.g. *a man, such a man*). As already indicated, indefinite noun phrases can refer to generic (non-specific) and non–generic (specific) entities. Consider:

A dog is a domestic animal. (a dog refers to a typical representative of the dog class)

A dog is under the table. (a dog refers to a specific individual of the dog class)

According to Kearns (2000: 120) and Lyons (1977: 187-189), indefinite noun phrases can be used with specific and non–specific reference. For instance, the sentence *Every evening at six o’clock a heron flies over the chalet* contains an indefinite noun-phrase *a heron* which is used to refer to a specific though unidentified individual and this interpretation is supported by the following sentence *It nests in the grounds of the chateau*. Thus, we can say that the indefinite noun–phrase in the above mentioned example is being used with indefinite, but specific reference. Lyons (1977: 188 – 189) offers two possible interpretations of the same sentence. If we can paraphrase this sentence *a particular heron*, this indefinite noun phrase is considered to be used with specific reference. There is the other interpretation of the sentence which can be offered. If we assume that the speaker is not referring to a specific individual this sentence can be paraphrased *some heron or other*. Thus, under the latter interpretation, the indefinite noun phrase is used non–specifically. Consider more examples:

(1) Mary wants to buy a Norton – she is negotiating with the owner. (Kearns, 2000: 120)

(2) Mary wants to buy a Norton – she will look for one at the Biker Meet. (Kearns, 2000:120)

In sentence (1) an indefinite noun phrase *a Norton* is used with specific reference because *a Norton* refers to a particular or specific bike which Mary wants to buy. However, in sentence (2) an indefinite noun phrase is used with non–specific reference because Mary has no particular bike in mind. Another example illustrating the usage of indefinite noun phrases used with specific or non–specific reference would be *John wants to marry a Frenchwoman*. This sentence can be interpreted in two ways. If we understand that John wants to marry a woman who is French, then an indefinite description *a Frenchwoman* is said to be used with specific reference. If we apply the other interpretation which says John wants to have a French wife, an indefinite description is said to have nonspecific reference. (Kearns, 2000: 120)

(3) George didn’t see a car coming round the bend – it nearly hit him. (indefinite description with specific reference) Kearns (2000:121)
George didn’t see a car coming round the bend – but he wasn’t really watching the road, so he’s not sure whether any cars passed or not. (indefinite description with non-specific reference) (Kearns, 2000: 121)

The following examples that have been selected for the research illustrate the use of the indefinite noun phrases with reference to things or objects. Since all the indefinite noun phrases in the following examples are used to refer to particular people, things or objects, they illustrate the referential use of indefinite noun phrases. Consider the following examples of indefinite noun phrases:

1. There was a great rustling of skirts, swift glimpses of smartly-dressed women, a child danced through the hall and back again, a maidservant came and went hurriedly. (Lawrence 17)

   In the above examples the indefinite noun phrases a child, a maidservant and a servant are used to refer to particular people in the novel. However, the author does not refer to these particular people in the succeeding discourse by using other reference devices such as pronouns or the definite noun phrases.

2. A servant came, and soon reappeared with armfuls of silk robes (…) (Lawrence 76)

   Example (3) shows that the personal pronoun it in the second and third sentences refers backwards to an indefinite noun phrase a carriage. Consider one more example:

3. There was a carriage. It was running. It had just come into sight. (Lawrence 13)

   Example (3) shows that the personal pronoun it in the second and third sentences refers backwards to an indefinite noun phrase a carriage. Consider one more example:

4. At Birkin’s table there was a girl with dark, soft, fluffy hair cut short in the artist fashion, hanging level and full almost like the Egyptian princess’s. She was small and delicately made, with warm colouring and large, dark hostile eyes. (Lawrence 51)

   Sentence (4) implies that the personal pronoun she in the second sentence refers to an indefinite noun phrase a girl in the initial sentence.

   Consider more examples:

5. One of them she knew, a tall, slow, reluctant woman with a weight of fair hair and a pale, long face. This was Hermione Roddice, a friend of the Criches (…..) She wore a dress of silky, frail velvet… (Lawrence 10)

   In example (5) one of the characters of the novel is introduced into discourse by an indefinite noun phrase a tall, slow, reluctant woman and is referred to by the proper name Hermione Roddice in the succeeding sentence.

6. They arrived at a large block of buildings, went up in a lift, and presently a door was being opened for them by a Hindu. Gerald looked in surprise, wondering if he were a gentleman (…) But no, he was the man – servant. (Lawrence 102)

   Example (6) shows that an indefinite noun phrase a Hindu is used with specific reference because it refers to a particular man identified in the succeeding stretch of discourse by the personal pronoun he and the definite noun phrase the man – servant.
(7) Whilst the two girls waited, Gerald Crich trotted up on a red Arab mare. He rode well and softly, pleased with the delicate quivering of the creature between his knees. And he was very picturesque (..) sitting soft and close on the slender red mare (…) (Lawrence 93)

Sentence (7) shows that the initial reference is realized by an indefinite noun phrase a red Arab mare. The subsequent reference to the same entity is realized by the definite description the slender red mare.

(8) There were present a young Italian woman (…), a young, athletic – looking Miss Bradley, a learned, dry Baronet of fifty (…) there was Rupert Birkin, and then a woman secretary, a Fraulein Marz, young and slim and pretty. (Lawrence 70)

Sentence (8) shows that the author of the novel introduces the new characters into discourse via the indefinite noun phrases a young Italian woman, a young, athletic – looking Miss Bradley, a learned, dry Baronet of fifty and a woman secretary.

(9) Breadalby was a Georgian house (...) In front, it looked over a lawn, over a few trees, down to a string of fishponds (…) (Lawrence 68)

In the above example the personal pronoun it refers to the indefinite noun phrase a Georgian house.

(10) ‘I was hoping now for a man to come along,’ Gudrun said, suddenly catching her underlip between her teeth, and making a strange grimace, half sly smiling, half anguish. (4)

In the above example the indefinite noun phrase a man is used with non – specific reference and because one of the characters in the novel Gudrun does not have a particular man in mind.

2.3 Reference by definite noun phrases

Define noun phrase refers to ‘a specific person or set of persons that can be identified in context by someone spoken to’. (Mathews, 1997: 89) According to Kearns (2000: 93) definite NPs pick out definite or particular objects that the hearer can identify. Definite NPs include names, possessive NPs such as John’s jacket, demonstrative NPs such as that boulder, those tablets, and referring pronouns. However, generally, discussion of definite descriptions focuses on NPs preceded by the definite article the. Kearns (2000: 93) differentiates between singular (e.g. the earth, the moon, the president of Venezuela, the pie Clive had for breakfast) and plural definite descriptions (e.g. the days of our lives, the books on that shelf, the leaders of fashion). According to Saeed (1997: 28 – 29), definite noun phrases operate like names to pick out an individual (e.g. I spoke to the woman about the noise) and they can also form definite descriptions where the referent is whoever or whatever fits the description (e.g. She has a crush on the captain of the hockey team).
2.3.1 Proper nouns

Proper nouns when used in a linguistic or non-linguistic situation, denote shared information. Hence, the identification of such entities poses no problem for the addressee.

Many linguists (Leech and Svartvik, 1994; Huddleston and Plum, 2002; Saeed, 1997; Kempson, 1997; Kearns 2000, Lyons 1996) define proper nouns as paradigmatic referring expressions that refer to particular entities existing in the world. These semantic studies of proper names show that there is exact correspondence between proper names and objects that they identify.

Proper noun is a noun which is the name of a specific individual or of a set of individuals distinguished only by their having that name. (P.H. Mathews, 1997: 300)

Proper nouns (or proper names) pick out or refer to entities (or sets of entities) in some possible world about which statements are being made (Lyons, 1996: 295). They have ‘unique’ reference which means that they refer to particular entities that are unique in the situation, and usually have no article in English. (Leech, Svartvik; 1994: 357) For example, ‘Janet’, ‘Jupiter’, ‘Germany’ and ‘Mount Everest’ are counted as proper nouns. In these examples, ‘Janet’ refers to a particular woman, ‘Jupiter’ refers to a particular planet, ‘Germany’ refers to a particular country and ‘Mount Everest’ refers to a particular mountain. In traditional grammar proper nouns are contrasted with common nouns. Crystal (1995: 208) distinguishes three main ways in which proper nouns are different from common nouns:

- Proper nouns can stand alone as a clause element (e.g. I live in London), whereas only certain nouns can (e.g. Chess is fun)
- Proper nouns are not usually used in the plural, whereas most common nouns are (eggs, pens etc.)
- Proper nouns are not usually used with determiners, whereas common nouns are (a book, the music, some bread)

According to Saeed (1997: 27) names are ‘the simplest case of nominals which have reference’. They are labels for people, places, etc. and often seem to have little other meaning.’ Saeed (1997:27) also stresses the importance of context in the use of names: names are definite because they carry speaker’s assumptions that his audience can identify the referent. If someone says to you ‘He looks just like Eddie Murphy’ the speaker is assuming that you can identify the American comedian.
Kempson (1997: 12-13) asserts that the naming relation between a word and its object is most transparent with proper names, the paradigm case of naming. There is a one-to-one correspondence between a proper name and object: for instance, the name *The Parthenon* refers to the object the Parthenon in Athens. She calls the relationship between word and object the relationship of reference.

The reference of names is simple and direct. The semantic value of a name is simply the object it refers to, and accordingly the proposition expressed by a sentence containing a name contains that object as a component: such propositions are said to be object-dependent (Kearns, 2000: 93)

Proper nouns are used as specific descriptions when they refer to specific, unique things or objects (e.g. *Mount Everest, Europe, France*). In many languages the category of proper names is distinguished formally from other expressions in certain ways. In English we do not precede proper nouns with the definite article ‘the’, unless more than one individual has the name and we are trying to make it clear which one we are talking about and are written with an initial capital letter. Grammarians Иванова, Бурлакова, Почепцов (1981: 120) assert that the use of the indefinite article with proper names when normally the indefinite article is not used shows that the speaker’s knowledge about the properties of the object is limited (e.g. a Mr. Eyre (C. Bronte). The use of the definite article with proper names is used to display temporary or other limitation (the Fieta of many years ago (P. Abrahams).

Lyons (1996: 295) points out that from the semantic point of view, proper nouns are rather special because in languages such as English they have no descriptive content. For example, ‘Napoleon’ is arbitrarily associated with indefinitely many entities (persons, animals, ships, etc.) which in principle have nothing in common. It is true, however, that one of these entities is salient in the cultures in which English is used (e.g. France). This means that for most speakers of English the name ‘Napoleon’ will usually be taken to refer to this salient entity. It also means that there will be other associations and connotations connected with the name ‘Napoleon’. However, it does not mean that the name ‘Napoleon’ as such has any descriptive content or sense.

As has already been mentioned, most of the proper names are used to refer to specific people or locations and denote shared information. Consider the following examples of referential expressions expressed via proper names which were selected from D.H. Lawrence’s book ‘Women in Love’. 
Ursula and Gudrun Brangwen sat one morning in the window – bay of their father’s house in Beldover (...) Ursula was stitching a piece of brightly coloured embroidery, and Gudrun was drawing upon a board (…..) (Lawrence 3)

(2) She had just come back from London, where she had spent several years working at an art school. (Lawrence 4)

(3) She was a class mistress herself, in Willey Green Grammar School, as she had been for some years. (Lawrence 4)

(4) Gudrun, new from her life in Chelsea and Sussex, shrank cruelly from this amorphous ugliness of a small colliery town in the Midlands. (Lawrence 6)

(5) They drew away from the colliery region, over the curve of the hill, into the poorer country of the other side, towards Willy Green. (Lawrence 8)

(6) They had passed Bedford. (Lawrence 49)

The above sentences show that the proper nouns Ursula and Gudrun Brangwen are used to refer to particular people while Beldover, London, Willey Green, Bedford, Midlands, Chelsea and Sussex refer to particular locations. Beldover and Bedford refer to a particular town, London refers to a particular city, The Midlands, Chelsea and Sussex point out to locations in England and Willey Green Grammar School is a name of a particular school. Consider more examples:

(7) The daughter of the chief mine – owner of the district, Thomas Crich, was getting married to a naval officer. (Lawrence 8)

Sentence (7) shows that the proper name Thomas Crich is used to refer to a particular person introduced earlier into discourse by the definite noun phrase the daughter of the chief mine – owner of the district.

(8) This was Hermione Roddice, a friend of the Criches. (Lawrence 10)

(9) She carved for Rupert Birkin. (Lawrence 12)

(10) Gerald Crich came, fair, good – looking, healthy, with a great reserve of energy. (Lawrence 12)

(11) The Brangwens went home to Beldover, the wedding party gathered at Shortlands, the Criches home. (Lawrence 17)

In the above sentences Hermione Roddice, Rupert Birkin, Gerald Crich are proper names used to refer to people. The Criches and the Brangwens are proper nouns preceded by the definite article to refer to the whole family of Criches and Brangwens.

(12) The elderly manservant, Crowther, appeared in the doorway (…) (Lawrence 20)

‘He has no pain, but he feels tired, replied Winifred, the girl with the hair down her back (Lawrence 21)

(13) ‘Mother called Diana, a handsome girl (…) (Lawrence 21)

(14) (…) Laura was at the top of the churchyard steps (…) She saw Lupton bolting towards her. (Lawrence 25)

(15) Miss Darrington had a small liqueur glass. (Lawrence 51)
(16) (….) round the bushes came the tall form of Alexander Roddice, striding romantically like a Meredith hero who remembers Disraeli. He was cordial with everybody, he was at once a host (…) (Lawrence 71)


‘Fathers and Sons, by Turgenev (…)’ (Lawrence 72)

In the above examples the proper names Crowther, Winifred, Laura, Diana, Lupton, Birkin are used to refer to particular people. Crowther refers to a particular manservant, Winifred and Diana refer to particular girls, Birkin is a surname used to refer to a particular man. Miss Darrington refers to a particular woman. Disareli refers to a particular political leader. Alexander Roddice refers to a particular man. The proper name Turgenev is used to refer to a Russian writer.

(18) He had rooms in Nottingham(…) But often he was in London or in Oxford. (Lawrence 42)

(19) ‘I think Gerald is right - right – race is essential element in nationality, in Europe at least,’ he said. (Lawrence 22)

(20) ‘Where will she go?’

‘London, Paris, Rome (…) I always expect her to sheer off to Damascus or San Francisco (…)’ (Lawrence 79)

Examples (18), (19) and (20) show that Nottingham, London, Oxford, Paris, Rome, Damascus, San Francisco are proper names used to refer to particular cities. The proper name Europe is used to refer to a particular continent.

(21) ‘Here are two leaders – ‘he held out his Daily Telegraph, ‘full of the ordinary newspaper cant (…)’ (Lawrence: 43)

In sentence (21) the proper name Daily Telegraph is used to refer to a particular newspaper.

(22) ‘I promised to meet Halliday at Pompadour.

Where is it? asked Gerald.

‘Piccadilly Circus’ (Lawrence 49)

Sentence (22) shows that the proper name Halliday is a name used to refer to a particular man and Piccadilly Circus is used to refer to a particular location.

2.3.2 The definite article

Particular entities are also realized through the use of the definite article. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 32), the definite article is ‘the item that in English carries the meaning of specific identity or definiteness in its pure form’. According to Valeika and Buitkiene (2003: 58), the article as a noun marker ‘speeds up the process of identification, and consequently, it speeds up the process of the comprehension of the text’. The sentence as a unit of information is made of two parts:
the *New* and the *Given*. To quote Valeika and Buitkiene (2003: 59), ‘by given information is meant information shared by both the speaker and the addressee: it may be recoverable from the context or familiar to them due to the shared environment’. Besides the context, *Givenness* and *Newness* can be expressed by the definite and indefinite article, respectively. Consider the following examples:

(1) A *man* and a *woman* were sitting on a *park bench*. The *man* was about forty years old. The *woman* was somewhat younger. The *bench* had recently been painted (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2003: 59)

(2) An *old man* came down the road leading a *donkey*. The *donkey* carried a *load* of produce for market, and now and then the *old man* adjusted the *load* more securely. (Kearns, 2000: 96)

In examples (1) and (2) the indefinite article *a* signals a novel referent, used for the first mention of something, as in *a man, a woman, a park bench* and *an old man, a donkey, a load*. The definite article *the* signals a familiar referent, so *the man* refers forward to *a man* and so on.

If *Givenness* is established through the secondary mention of an entity as illustrated by examples (1) and (2), the article plays a secondary role. However, the definite article is primary when *Givenness* is established through the shared knowledge of the environment of the world between the utterance participants as in the example:

A: Where did you find the cat?

R: In the car. (Valeika and Buitkiene, 2003: 59)

Tables 1 and 2 summarize the regular use of the articles in referring noun phrases with different combinations of *type of noun* (countable, uncountable), *reference* (specific, generic), *information value* (given, new), and *number* (singular, plural). The unstressed *some*, which in some contexts has to be, or can be, used instead of the zero article, is not to be regarded as an article, but as an indefinite determiner. It is used to focus on the *number/quantity* of the referent(s), whereas the zero article is used to focus on the *type* of referent.
### Table 1. The Regular Use of the Articles in Referring Noun Phrases with Countable Nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific reference</th>
<th>New information</th>
<th>Given information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I read <strong>a book</strong></td>
<td>and <strong>some journals</strong> on the train.</td>
<td>The book was boring but <strong>the journals</strong> were interesting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The train drove past <strong>Ø villages</strong>, <strong>Ø fields</strong> and <strong>Ø clumps of trees</strong>.</td>
<td></td>
<td>The villages looked dirty, but <strong>the fields</strong> and <strong>the trees</strong> were covered with white snow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A <strong>lion</strong> is a dangerous beast. (distributive generic reference)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The lion</strong> is a dangerous beast. (collective generic reference)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. The Regular Use of the Articles in Referring Noun Phrases with Uncountable Nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific reference</th>
<th>New information</th>
<th>Given information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I bought <strong>some wine</strong> and <strong>some clothes</strong> yesterday.</td>
<td></td>
<td>The wine was expensive, but <strong>the clothes</strong> were cheap.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There's <strong>some/Ø beer</strong> in the fridge.</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>The beer</strong> should be cold by now.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John likes <strong>Ø wine.</strong>/<strong>Ø Wine</strong> is expensive here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ø Clothes</strong> are cheap there.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nouns proceeded by the definite article constitute the so-called definite descriptions. Lyons (1977: 179) defines definite descriptions as expressions which identify a referent, not only by naming it, but also providing the hearer or reader with a sufficiently detailed description of it in the particular context of utterance, to distinguish
it from all other individuals in the universe of discourse, for instance, the man, the tall man over there, John’s father.

Studies in the area of definite descriptions (Lyons, 1977; 1996; Saeed 1997; Kearns 2000) show that they are obviously context–dependent linguistic phenomenon. When speakers use a definite description, they point out by means of the referential part of the expression that they are performing an act of reference and in doing so they assure the addressee that the descriptive part of the expression will include all the necessary information to identify the referent. All such expressions are divided into two components. One of them is descriptive (e.g. the word man in the man) and the other is purely referential (e.g. the definite article in the phrase the man) (Lyons, 1996: 297).

The descriptive content of the definite description is influenced by the two factors: the circumstances and the speaker’s assumptions. The descriptive content of the definite description will be more or less detailed according to the circumstances and the manner of description will depend upon the speaker’s assumption that the hearer possesses quite specific information about the referent. For example, in some circumstances the speaker feels the necessity to include an adjective or a relative clause within a noun phrase, whose function is to single out one particular member of a class of individuals. The clause who was here yesterday can be incorporated in the noun phrase the man who was here yesterday. In the above mentioned example the speaker definitely assumes that the hearer knew that a man had been at the place referred to by here on the previous day. In many cases the use of a common noun preceded by the definite article will be sufficient and no further description will be needed, even though the referent has not been previously mentioned, because the speaker can assume in the given situation or universe of discourse, that the hearer will know which of potential referents satisfying the description he is referring to. For example, if I say to my wife and children, The cat has not been here all day in a context in which there has been no previous mention of any cat, I can be sure that the reference will be successful. (Lyons, 1977: 181)

According to Lyons (1996: 298) the two logically separable components of definite descriptions involve two different types of presupposition: existential and sortal (or categorical). For example, when the expressions the man, the woman are used in an ordinary context they can be attributed to the existential presupposition that the referent exists and the sortal presupposition that it is of a particular sort or category: the category of persons. In the classical example The present king of France is bald the proposition expressed by the sentence is not a single proposition but consists of three
propositions: (a) that there is a king of France; (b) that there is no more than one king of France and (c) that there is nothing which has the property of being king of France and which does not also have the property of being bald. Since the first proposition – the existential one is false, the conjunction of which it is a component is false. When the sentence *The present king of France is bald* is uttered to make a statement we violate the existential presupposition because there is no king of France at the present moment.

Consider the following examples selected from the novel ‘Women in Love’:

(1) There was a long pause, whilst Ursula stitched and Gudrun went on with her sketch. The sisters were women, Ursula twenty six, and Gudrun twenty – five. (Lawrence 4)

In the above sentence, the definite noun phrase *the sisters* refers back to the definite noun phrases expressed via the proper names *Ursula* and *Gudrun*.

(2) There was a boat with a gaudy Japanese parasol, and a man in white, rowing. The woman was Hermione, and the man was Gerald. (Lawrence 101)

Sentence (2) implies that the initial reference is indefinite and is realized by the indefinite noun phrases *a gaudy Japanese parasol* and *a man*. In the succeeding sentence we come across the definite noun phrases *the woman* and *the man* which refer forward to the indefinite noun phrases *a gaudy Japanese parasol* and *a man*.

(3) Meanwhile the men stood in calm little groups, chatting, smoking (…) But they could not really talk (…). They waited, uneasy, suspended, rather bored. (Lawrence 17)

Sentence (3) shows that the personal pronoun *they* is used to refer to the definite noun phrase *the men* in the initial sentence.

(4) The food was very good (…). Gudrun (…) gave it her full approval. (Lawrence 70)

Similarly, in the above example the personal pronoun *it* refers back to the definite noun phrase *the food*.

(5) The two girls drifted swiftly along. In front of them, at the corner of the lake (…) was a mossy – house under a walnut tree (…)

Suddenly, from the boat – house, a white figure ran out (…). It launched in a white arc through the air, there was a bursting of water, and among the smooth ripples a swimmer was making out to space (…)

(…) The sisters stood watching the swimmer move further into the grey, moist, full space of water (…) (Lawrence 37)

Example (5) shows that the definite noun phrases *the girls* and *the two sisters* are used to identify the same familiar referent. The indefinite article in the noun phrases *a white figure* and *a swimmer* signal a novel referent. The definite article *the* signals the already familiar referent in the noun phrase *the swimmer*. Thus, *the swimmer* refers forward to the indefinite noun phrases *a white figure* and *a swimmer*.

(6) The father stepped out into the air of the morning, like a shadow. He waited at the door of the carriage patiently, self – obliterated. (Lawrence 13)
Example (6) implies that the definite noun phrase the father is used to refer to a particular man in a visually shared situation.

(7) The sisters were crossing a black path (...) Near at hand came the long rows of dwellings, approaching curved up the hill - slope, in straight lines along the brow of the hill. The path on which the sisters walked was black, trodden – in by the feet of the recurrent colliers. … Now the two girls were going (...) between some rows of dwellings, of the poorer sort. (Lawrence 7)

Example (7) shows that the definite noun phrases the sisters and the two girls are used to refer to particular people who are in the same temporal spatial situation. The referents identified via the definite noun phrases share common knowledge of the environment that surrounds them. The definite noun phrases the long rows of dwellings, the hill slope, the feet of the recurrent colliers and the path denote particular objects.

The clause on which the sisters walked is incorporated into the definite noun phrase the path and thus singles out one particular object of a class of other objects.

(8) Yellow celandines showed out from the hedge – bottoms, and in the cottage gardens of Willey Green…. And little flowers were coming white on the grey alyssum that hung over the stone walls. (Lawrence 8)

(9) There, in the lowest bend of the road, low under the trees, stood a little group of expectant people, waiting to see the wedding. (Lawrence 8)

(10) ‘What price the stockings!’ said a voice at the back of Gudrun. A sudden fierce anger swept over the girl, violent and murderous. She would have liked them all annihilated (……) so that the world was left clear for her. How she hated walking up the churchyard path, along the red carpet, continuing in motion, in their sight. (Lawrence 8)

Example (10) shows that a particular person denoted by the definite noun phrase the girl was first introduced into discourse by the proper name Gudrun. The definite noun phrases the hedge – bottoms, the cottage gardens of Willey Green and the grey alyssum in example (8) and the churchyard park and the red carpet in example (10) are used to pick out particular objects in the shared environment. The definite noun phrase the stockings refers to a particular item of clothing that a character is wearing. Similar to example (8), a clause that hung over the stone walls is incorporated into the definite noun phrase the grey alyssum to single out one particular entity of a class of other entities. Consider more examples where the definite noun phrases are used to denote particular entities:

(11) ‘I won’t go into the church’, she said suddenly, with such final decision that Ursula immediately halted, turned round and branched off up a small side path which led to the little private gate of the Grammar school, whose grounds adjourned those of the church.

In example (11) the definite noun phrase the church is used to refer to a particular building which the speaker sees.
(12) Just inside the gate of the school shrubbery, outside the churchyard, Ursula sat down (….) on the low stone wall under the laurel bushes, to rest. Behind her, the large red building of the school rose up (….), the windows all open for the holiday. Over the shrubs (….) were the pale roofs and tower of the old church. The sisters were hidden by foliage. (Lawrence 9)

Example (12) shows that particular people identified via the proper name Ursula and the definite noun phrase the sisters are in the same environment. The definite noun phrases the gate of the school shrubbery, the churchyard, the low stone wall under the laurel bushes, the large red building of the school denote particular entities in the familiar environment.

(13) A school day was drawing to a close. In the classroom the last lesson was in progress, peaceful and still. It was elementary botany. The desks were littered with catkins, hazel and willow, which the children had been sketching. But the sky had come overdark, as the end of the afternoon approached: there was scarcely light to draw any more. Ursula stood in front of the class, leading the children by questions to understand the structure and the meaning of the catkins. (Lawrence 27)

(14) A heavy, copper – coloured beam of light came in at the west window, gliding the outlines of the children’s heads with red gold, and falling on the wall opposite in a rich, ruddy illumination. (Lawrence 27)

(15) This day had gone by like so many more, in an activity that was like a trance. At the end was a little haste, to finish what was in hand. She was pressing the children with questions, so that they should know all they were to know, by the time the gong went. She stood in shadow in front of the class, with catkins in her hand, and she leaned towards the children (…) (Lawrence 27)

In the above examples one of the characters in the novel expressed via the proper name Ursula is in a particular place which is identified in the text as the classroom. Other definite noun phrases such as the desks, the children, the structure and the meaning of catkins, the outlines of the children’s heads, the wall and the gong denote particular entities in the classroom.

2.3.4 The Pronouns

Studies in the pronominal reference (Halliday and Hasan (1976; 1989), Huddleston and Plum (2002: 1453 – 1460) show that pronouns occupy a significant position in the system of textual reference and are termed ‘reference items’ which means that they help to create texture by linking sentences together. Most of the linguists (Poole, 1999; Lyons 1996; Thomas, 1995) attribute pronouns to highly deictic items which means that their interpretation depends essentially on the context.

Traditionally pronouns are considered to be noun substitutes. Pronoun is a term used in the grammatical classification of words, referring to the closed set of items which can be used to substitute for a noun phrase (or single noun). (Crystal, 2004: 376).
However, most subclasses of pronouns not only stand for an antecedent noun or noun-phrase but also perform **indexical** or **deictic** function. **Deixis** is the way in which the reference of certain elements in a sentence is determined in relation to a specific speaker and addressee and a specific time and place of utterance (Mathews, 1997: 89 – 90). The term deixis means *showing* or *pointing* in Greek and *index* is a Latin word for the pointing – finger. This means that the speaker identifies the referent by means of some bodily gesture. Lyons (1996: 303) defines deixis as ‘a particular kind of reference which depends crucially upon the time and place of utterance and upon the speaker’s and the addressee’s roles in the utterance – act itself’. Deixis is reference by means of an expression whose interpretation is relative to the (usually) extralinguistic context of utterance, such as who is speaking, the time or place of speaking, the gestures of the speaker, or the current location in the discourse [http://faculty.uca.edu/~lburley/deixis.htm]. Thomas (1995: 9 – 10) maintains that deictic expressions obtain part of their meaning only in their context of utterance. It becomes difficult to attribute reference to deictic expressions when they are removed from their original context of utterance, especially to the third person pronouns (*he, she, it, they*) because they have an infinite number of possible referents.

Poole (1999: 36) supports Thomas and says that a deictic item has a very little referential force when they are removed from the context. He attributes possessive adjectives (*his/her*), demonstratives (*this/that*) and personal pronouns to highly deictic items. Thus, any expression which has the same logical properties as bodily gesture is considered to deictic. Personal pronouns (*I, you, we, etc.*) and demonstrative pronouns (*this /that, these/those*) in their relevant uses have clear deictic properties in terms of this etymological definition. For example, instead of saying *That’s beautiful* one could point to a particular thing and say *Beautiful*. (Lyons, 1996: 304) The demonstrative pronoun individuates by pointing: *this man* means the man near the speaker who is a deictic center, or the reference point of the act of communication. To put it in other words, the demonstrative pronoun does not need prior or prospective mention of the entity. Consider the following example:

A house is burning.

Which house?

This house (Valeika and Buitkiene, 2003: 61)

Demonstrative reference is defined as a form of verbal pointing. The speaker identifies the referent by locating it on the scale of proximity. Demonstratives *this / that*, *these / those* imply proximity from the point of view of the speaker: this and these mean...
near the speaker and that and these remote from the speaker. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 57) Any expression used to point to a person (me, you, him, them) is an example of person deixis. Words used to point to a location (here, there) are examples of place deixis and those used to point to the time (now, then, tonight, last week) are examples of time deixis. All these deictic expressions are interpreted in terms of what the person, place or time the speaker has in mind. There is a broad distinction between what is marked as close to the speaker (this, here, now) and what is marked as distant from the speaker (that, there, then) (Yule, 1996: 130)

The major class of pronouns is personal pronouns, which play a great role in creating cohesion and texture. They may have situational, anaphoric and cataphoric reference. There is a distinction to be made between the first and second person, and the third person. Only the third person is inherently cohesive, in that a third person pronoun typically refers anaphorically to a preceding item in the text. The first and second person pronoun forms do not normally refer to the text at all; According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 49), the first and the second person forms essentially refer to the situation, whereas those of the third person essentially refer to an entity presented in the text.

Consider the following examples selected from Lawrence’s novel to illustrate the reference expressed by personal pronouns:

(1) The two girls drifted swiftly along. In front of them, at the corner of the lake, near the road, was a mossy boat - house (...) (Lawrence 37)

Example (1) shows that the objective pronoun them refers back the definite noun phrase the two girls.

(2) Suddenly, from the boat house, a white figure ran out (...) it launched in a white arc through the air (...) (Lawrence 37)

Example (2) implies that the personal pronoun it refers back to an indefinite noun phrase a white figure.

(3) Gerald suddenly turned, and was swimming away swiftly (...) he was alone now (...) in the middle of the waters, which he had all to himself. He exulted in his isolation in the new element (...) he was happy, thrusting with his legs and all his body, without bond or connection anywhere, just himself in the watery world. (Lawrence 38)

Example (3) shows that the occurrences of sequences of personal pronouns he, possessive pronoun his and reflexive pronoun himself refer to the same antecedent Gerald. In this particular case we deal with an anaphoric chain where the first personal pronoun he refers to the second he, then the second he refers to the reflexive pronoun himself which in turn refers to personal pronoun he etc.
The two sisters went on, up the road. They were passing between the trees just below Shortlands. They looked up at the long, low house, dim and glamorous in the wet morning, its cedar trees slanting before the windows. Gudrun seemed to be studying it closely. (Lawrence 38)

Example (4) contains instances of the personal pronoun *they* which refers to a definite noun phrase *the two sisters* in the initial sentence.

(5) They went forward and saw Laura Crich and Hermione Roddice in the field on the other side of the hedge, and Laura Crich struggling with the gate, to get out. Ursula at once hurried up and helped to lift the gate.

‘Thanks so much’, said Laura (…) It isn’t right on the hinges.

‘No,’ said Ursula. ‘And they’re so heavy.’

‘How do you do,’ sang Hermione, from out of the field, the moment she could make her voice heard. (Lawrence 40)

Example (5) shows that the personal pronoun *it* refers to a definite noun phrase *the gate* in the preceding sentences. The personal pronouns *they* and *she* refer back to the definite noun phrases *the hinges and Hermione*, respectively.

(6) At Birkin’s table was a girl with dark, soft, fluffy hair (…) She was small and delicately made (…) There was a delicacy, almost a beauty in all her form (…) that made a little spark leap instantly alight in Gerald’s eyes.

Birkin (…) introduced her as Miss Darrington. She gave her hand with a sudden, unwilling movement, looking all the while at Gerald (…) A glow came over him as he sat down. (Lawrence 51)

The above example implies that personal pronoun *she* and the possessive pronoun *her* refer back to an indefinite noun phrase *a girl* used with specific reference in an initial sentence. The objective pronoun *him* and the personal pronoun *he* refer to the definite noun phrase expressed via the proper name *Gerald.*

(7) The girl looked at Gerald with steady, calm curiosity. He laughed, hearing himself described. He felt proud too, full of male strength. His blue, keen eyes were lit up with laughter, his ruddy face, with its sharp fair hair, was full of satisfaction. He piqued her.

‘How long are you staying?’ she asked him.

‘A day or two,’ he replied.

Still she stared into his face with that slow full gaze which was so curious and so exciting to him. He was acutely and delightfully conscious of himself, of his own attractiveness. He felt full of strength, able to give off a sort of electric power. And he was aware of her dark, hot – looking yes upon him. She had beautiful eyes (…..) And on them there seemed to float a film of disintegration (…) She wore no hat in the heated café, her loose, simple jumper was strung on a string round her neck. But it was made of rich peach-coloured crepe – de – chine that hung heavily and softly from her young throat and her slender wrists. Her appearance was simple and complete, really beautiful, because of her regularity of form, her soft dark hair falling full (…) on either side of her head, her straight, small, softened features (…) her slender neck and the simple, rich – coloured smock hanging on her slender shoulders. She was very still, almost null, in her manner (…) (Lawrence: 53)
The above long stretch of the text presents the extensive use of personal pronouns to maintain reference. In this particular example the pronouns refer to their antecedents expressed via the definite noun phrases *the girl* and *Gerald*. The stretches of personal pronouns *he*, possessive pronouns *his*, objective pronoun *him* and reflexive pronouns *himself* refer back to the definite noun phrase expressed via the proper name *Gerald* and personal pronouns *she*, possessive pronouns *her* refer back to the definite noun phrase *the girl*. The possessive pronoun *its* refers back to the definite noun phrase *his ruddy face* in the frames of the same sentence. The objective pronoun *them* refers back to the definite non phrase *her dark, hot – looking eyes*. The personal pronoun *it* refers to the definite noun phrase *her loose, simple jumper*.

(8) Hermione rose and slowly pulled the gold – embroidered band that hung by the mantel, clinging to it for a moment then releasing it suddenly. Like a priestess she looked (…) (Lawrence 76)

Example (8) shows that the personal pronoun *she* in the second sentence refers back to the definite noun phrase expressed via a proper name *Hermione* in the initial sentence while the personal pronoun *it* refers backwards to the definite noun phrase *the gold – embroidered band* in the same sentence.

(9) The daffodils were pretty, but who could see *them*? (Lawrence 73)
(10) The mines were there, *they* were old. (Lawrence 193)

Examples (9) and (10) imply that the objective pronoun *them* and the personal pronoun *they* refer to the definite noun phrases *the daffodils* and *the mines* in the same sentence.

(11) There was Gerald, an amused look on his face; *the game* pleased him. There was Gudrun, watching with steady, large, hostile eyes; *the game* fascinated *her*, and she loathed it. (Lawrence 84)

The possessive pronoun *his* and the objective pronoun *him* are used to refer to the definite noun phrase expressed by the proper name Gerald in the frames of one sentence. The personal pronoun *she* and possessive pronoun *her* refer to their antecedent Gudrun which is a proper name and the objective pronoun *it* refers to a definite noun phrase *the game* within the frames of one sentence.

(12) The leaves and the primroses and the trees, *they* were really lovely and cool and desirable, *they* really came into the blood and were added on to him. (Lawrence 91)

The personal pronoun *they* refers back to the definite noun phrases *the leaves, the primroses and the trees* in the same sentence.

The research focused on the instances of both singular and plural forms of demonstrative pronouns, i.e. this – these, that – those. The following examples of demonstrative reference were selected for the research which exhibited numerous instances of the referential item *this*. The following examples illustrate the use of the
demonstrative pronouns *this, these and those* functioning as modifiers of the noun phrase and pointing back to the definite or indefinite noun phrases within the frames of the same sentence or in the preceding segment of the text:

(1) The desire had already transmuted into this new and greater desire, for a perfect intervening mechanism between man and Matter (…) (Lawrence 198)

(2) The men were satisfied to belong to the great and wonderful machine (…..) They were exalted by belonging to this great and superhuman system (…) (Lawrence: 200)

(3) Down the railway ran the trains (…) each one bearing in big white letters the initials: ‘C.B.&Co.’

(4) These white letters on all the wagons he had seen since his first childhood (…) (Lawrence: 192)

In the above examples the noun phrases *this new and greater desire, this great and superhuman system, these white letters* refer anaphorically to the definite noun phrases *the desire, the great and wonderful machine and the initials*. The last two examples the demonstratives *this and these* refer to definite noun phrases in the immediately preceding sentence while the demonstrative *this* refers to the definite noun phrase in the same sentence.

(5) There, in the lowest bend of the road, low under the trees, stood a little group of expectant people, waiting to see the wedding.

‘Let us go back’, said Gudrun (…) ‘There are all those people.’(Lawrence 8)

(6) He had a fight to fight with Matter, with the earth and the coal it enclosed. This was the sole idea, to turn the inanimate matter of the underground, and reduce it to his will. And for this fight with matter, one must have perfect instruments in perfect organization. (Lawrence 197)

(7) There had been some discussion, on the whole quite intellectual and artificial, about a new state, a new world of man. Supposing this old social state were broken and destroyed, then, out of the chaos, what then? (Lawrence: 87)

(8) Birkin (…) danced rapidly and with a real gaiety. And how Hermione hated him for this irresponsible gaiety. (Lawrence 78)

(9) Nothing else would do, nothing else would satisfy, except this coolness and subtlety of vegetation traveling into one’s blood. How Lawrence fortunate he was, that there was this lovely, subtle, responsive vegetation, waiting for him (…) (Lawrence 91)

(10) Ursula watched him as he talked. There seemed a certain impatient fury in him, all the while, and at the same time a great amusement in everything, and a final tolerance. And it was this tolerance she mistrusted (…) (Lawrence 109)

(11) The heavy gold glamour of approaching sunset lay over all the colliery district, and the ugliness overlaid with beauty was like a narcotic to the senses.

‘It has a foul kind of beauty, this place,’ said Gudrun (…) (Lawrence 97)

In the above examples the demonstrative pronoun *this* functioning as the modifier of the respective noun phrases *those people, this flight, this old social state, this irresponsible gaiety, this lovely, subtle, responsive vegetation, this tolerance* is used to
refer to indefinite noun phrases *a little group of expectant people, a fight, a real gaiety, vegetation, a final tolerance* in the initial sentence. The noun phrase *those people* in example (5) refers back not to the immediately preceding sentence but in the initial one. Example (11) shows that the demonstrative pronoun *this* points to the definite noun phrase *all the colliery district*.

The analyzed text produced evidence of the demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* referring to the forthcoming portion of the discourse. The following examples illustrate instances when the demonstrative reference items *this* and *that* are used to refer to a longer stretch of the text than a noun phrase. All these occurrences are considered to be anaphoric and refer back to the immediately preceding sentence drawing the reader’s attention to it. In most cases the demonstratives *this* and *that* performed the function of the subject in the sentence. Consider:

(12) *A strange transport took possession of her,* all her veins were in a paroxysm of violent sensation. ‘God God!’ she exclaimed to herself, ‘what is *this*?’ (Lawrence 10)

(13) It’s one of the things I want most to do – *to live from day to day without ever putting any sort of clothing whatever.* If I could do *that*, I should feel that I had lived. (Lawrence 65)

(14) *The food was good, that* was one thing. (Lawrence 70)

(15) Immediately Gudrun saw the famous sociologist as a flat bottle (…) *That* pleased her. (Lawrence: 72)

(16) And she won’t give herself away – *she’s always on the defensive. That’s* what I can’t stand about her type. (Lawrence 80)

In the above examples the demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* refer to a longer stretches of a text than a noun phrase that is to the whole idea expressed in the immediately preceding sentence.

(17) ‘Things would work very much better, Miss Art - Teacher Brangwen,’ said Gerald. ‘What things, Mr Colliery-Manager Crich? *The relation between you and me* (…)?’ Yes, for example,’ cried the Italian. ‘*That* which is between men and women!’ (Lawrence 87)

(18) ‘Have you got a tape measure, Mrs Salmon?’ he said, turning to the woman. ‘Yes sir, I think I can find one,’ replied the woman (…) ‘*This* is the only one I’ve got, if it will do.’ (Lawrence: 115)

(19) One of them she knew, a tall, slow, reluctant woman with a weight of fair hair and a pale, long face. *This* was Hermione Roddice (…) (Lawrence 10)

In the above stretch of the sentences the demonstrative pronoun *that* and *this* refer to the definite noun phrases *the relationship between you and me, a tape measure and a tall, slow, reluctant woman* illustrating the use of the elliptical noun in the noun phrases. In such a case the demonstrative pronouns perform the function of the head of the noun phrases. The elliptical nouns are presupposed from the preceding sentences. Consider more examples:
To lie down and roll in the sticky, cool young hyacinths, to lie on one’s belly and cover one’s back with handfuls of fine wet grass, soft as breath; and then to sting one’s thigh against the living dark bristles of the fir – boughs; and then to feel the light whip of the hazel on one’s shoulders, stinging and then to clasp the silvery birch – trunk against one’s breast, its smoothness, its hardness, its vital knots and ridges – this was good, this was all very good, very satisfying. (Lawrence 91)

Example (20) shows that the demonstrative pronoun this refers to the whole situation expressed in the forthcoming stretch of discourse.

(21) He had better send a note to Hermione: she might trouble about him, and he did not want the onus of this. (Lawrence 92)

(22) He liked to have Gudrun about, as a fellow – mind – but that was all. (Lawrence 100)

Examples (21) and (22) imply that the demonstrative pronouns this and that refer to the immediately preceding piece of discourse she might trouble about him and he liked to have Gudrun about in the frames of one sentence.

(23) ‘I’m so sorry, so awfully sorry. Can’t you get it, Gerald?’

This last was said in a note of anxious sneering that made Gerald’s veins tingle (…) (Lawrence 103)

(24) ‘But can’t I give you a new book? I wish you’d let me do that. (…)’ (Lawrence 103)

(25) She shrank from the little jungle of rank plants before her, evil smelling figwort and hemlock. (…)

‘I shall mow this down,’ he said (…) (Lawrence 105)

(26) ‘But mankind is a dead tree, covered with fine brilliant galls of people.’

Ursula could not help stiffening herself against this, it was too picturesque and final. (Lawrence 107)

(27) ‘Have you enough to live on?’ asked Ursula.

‘Yes – I’ve about four hundred a year. That makes it easy for me.

(28) It was a peculiarity of Hermione’s that at every moment she had one intimate and turned all the rest of those present into onlookers. This raised her into a state of triumph. (Lawrence 116)

(29) Then they moved across, through the hall, to the other front room, that was a little smaller than the first.

‘This is the study,’ said Hermione.’(Lawrence 116)

(30) ‘Why should a horse want to put itself in the human power?’ asked Ursula. ‘That is quite incomprehensible to me’(Lawrence 120)

(31) She was strictly hostile to him. But she was held to him by some bond, some deep principle. This at once irritated her and saved her. (Lawrence 122)

(32) ‘You mean you don’t love me?’

She suffered furiously, saying that. (Lawrence 123)

In the above examples the demonstrative pronouns refer to not to a single noun phrase but to the whole idea expressed in the immediately preceding sentence.
3. REALIZATION OF REFERENCE IN A NON – LINGUISTIC CONTEXT

3.1 Introductory observations

Yule (1996: 19 - 20) argues that reference is always clearly connected with the speaker’s goals (to identify something) and the speaker’s beliefs, that is, can the listener be expected to know that particular something and recognize the speaker’s intention in the use of the language. According to the scholar, this process works not only between one speaker and one listener; it works between all members of a community. That is, there is a convention that certain referring expressions will be used to identify certain entities on a regular basis. This convention may cause us to assume that referring expressions can only designate very specific entities. This assumption may lead us to think that a name or proper noun like Shakespeare can be used to identify one specific person and an expression such as the cheese sandwich can only be used to identify a specific thing. This belief is mistaken. A truly pragmatic view of reference allows us to see how a person can be identified via expression, the cheese sandwich, and a thing can be identified via the name, Shakespeare. Shakespeare is a famous playwright but in the context we can use the name to refer to other entities related to the referent Shakespeare. Consider the two examples where the proper name Shakespeare is used to refer to books written by Shakespeare:

(1) A: Can I borrow your Shakespeare?
   B: Yes, it’s over there on the table. (Yule, 1996: 20)

(2) Shakespeare takes up the whole bottom shelf. (Yule, 1996: 20)

Consider more examples were names of people were used to refer to things or objects:

(3) We’re going to see Shakespeare in London. (Yule, 1996: 20)

Sentence (3) shows that the proper name Shakespeare is used to refer to a play written by a famous playwright Shakespeare.

(4) I hated Shakespeare when I was at school. (Yule, 1996: 20) Shakespeare refers to poetry or plays written by Shakespeare

(5) Picasso’s on the far wall. (Yule, 1996: 20) Picasso refers to the painting by Picasso


(7) My Rolling Stones is missing. (Yule, 1996: 20)

Rolling Stones refers to a record / Cd by a musical group Rolling Stones.
Thus, we can use names of people to refer to things and vice versa names associated with things can be used to refer to people. For example, consider a situation in a restaurant where one waiter can ask the other:

(9) 
Waiter A: Where’s the fresh salad sitting?  
Waiter B: He’s sitting by the door. (Yule, 1996: 131)

(10) 
Waiter A: Where’s the cheese sandwich sitting?  
Waiter B: He is over there by the window. (Yule, 1996: 20)

The definite noun phrases the fresh salad and the cheese sandwich in the above examples are used to refer to a particular client dining in a restaurant. Consider more examples:

(11) The heart – attack mustn’t be moved. (Yule, 1996: 22)

The definite noun phrase the heart attack refers to a particular patient in hospital.

(13) A couple of rooms have complained about the heat. (Yule, 1996: 22)

The indefinite noun phrase a couple of rooms is used to refer to people staying at the hotel.

Yule (1996: 130 – 131) gives an example of one man who always went loud on his motorcycle in his neighbourhood and who was locally referred to as Mr. Kawasaki. Thus, we can say that a brand name for a motorcycle can obviously be used for a person.

In the novel analyzed, I did not come across noun phrases used pragmatically: the noun phrases used had conventional reference. The identification of the entities in non – linguistic context (dialogues) was effected either by the use of the anaphoric pattern or the use of deictic expressions. As can be expected, of the two types of reference, the latter was the more common.

3.2 The use of deictic expressions
As has already been mentioned, deictic expressions fall into four basic types: person, place, time and social.

3.2.1 Person Deixis
According to Yule (1996: 130) ‘any expression used to point to a person (me, you, him, them) is an example of person deixis.’ Person deixis refers to the participant role of a referent, such as the speaker, the addressee, and referents which are neither the speaker nor addressee. [http://faculty.uca.edu/~iiburley/deixis.htm]
Personal pronouns *I*, *you*, and *we* and *he*, *she*, *it* and *they* and alternative forms are used to mark person deixis. ‘When we use these pronouns, we orient our utterances with respect to ourselves, our interlocutors, and third parties’. (Finegan, 2004: 202)

Most contemporary linguists (Poole 1999: 36) support the view of Lyons and assert that the first and second person pronouns *I* and *you* are purely deictic, as they point directly to the speaker and the addressee.

Yule (1996: 10) and Finegan (2004: 202) argue that person deixis is based on a basic three-part division manifested by the pronouns for the first person (*I*), second person (*you*) and third person (*he, she, it*). In the English language the most basic distinction in personal deixis system is made between the speaker (*I*) and the addressee (*you*). Pronouns that refer to the speaker are called first person pronouns and pronouns that refer to the addressee (or to a group including the addressee) are called second person pronouns. The third person forms (*he, she, it*) refer to any entity different from the speaker and the person spoken to. Since the third – person distinction can be described in terms of the other two persons, it is considered to be less basic. (Finegan 2004: 202 - 203)

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 45) distinguish between the persons with respect to their roles in the communication process. They make a distinction between the roles of the speaker and addressee. ‘Addressee’ is described as a person designed by the speaker as the recipient of the communication who is contrasted with those who listen or happen to hear the speaker. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 46) maintain that within the speech roles, the English person system recognizes only speaker *I* and addressee *you*, making no distinction according to the number of addressees or according to the social hierarchy or the social distance between addressee and speaker. However, it also involves a third form, *we*, which represents the speaker together with some other person or persons, among whom the addressee(s) may or may not be included.

Halliday and Hasan (1976), Levinson (1983) and Yule (1996: 11) illustrate the peculiar use of the first person plural pronoun *we*. Yule (1996: 11) differentiates between exclusive and inclusive *we*. If *we* includes the speaker and the addressee, it is called inclusive *we* and if it includes the speaker plus others but excludes the addressee, it is called exclusive *we*. The inclusive – exclusive distinction is manifested by difference between saying *Let’s go* and *Let us go*. The first instance illustrates the inclusive use of *we*, but the second, the exclusive use. As described by Yule (1996: 11) third person pronouns are distal forms. When a third person form is used instead of a second one, we communicate distance and non – familiarity. Such a usage often has a
stylistic purpose and can be used for an ironic or humorous purpose, for instance, *Would his highness like some coffee* can be used by one person to address another who is being very lazy.

To conclude, person deixis marks the basic distinction between first and second person and is found in all languages. In contrast, third person forms are considered to less basic and are treated as distal forms which can be used for humorous or ironic purpose. The first person plural form *we* manifests itself in two distinct uses – exclusive and inclusive *we* and as such can cause ambiguities in understanding an utterance.

The corpus analysis was carried out to determine the relative frequency of the occurrence of deictic personal pronouns *I, you* and *we* in dialogues. As can be expected, the relative frequency of the occurrence of the first person singular pronoun *I* and the second person *you* was higher than the first person plural pronoun *we* in all its uses: inclusive, exclusive and generalized. The general frequency of pronouns *I, you* and *we* is illustrated in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. The Relative Frequency of the Pronouns I, You and We.](image)

As can be seen from the figure, the frequency of pronouns *I* and *you* in the novel did not vary greatly. The personal pronoun *I* accounted for 43% and *you* accounted for 47% of the occurrences. The personal pronoun *we* had the lowest frequency. It accounted only for 10% of the occurrences.

The focus of the present research was also to determine the frequency of the uses of personal pronoun *we*: inclusive, exclusive and generalized. It was noted that most examples in the novel illustrated the use of generalized *we*. It is due to the fact that the novel contains a lot of philosophical dialogues about race, humanity, love etc. The
frequency of the occurrence of the use of the personal pronoun *we* is presented in Figure 2.

![Figure 2. The Relative Frequency of Inclusive, Exclusive and Generalized We.](image)

Consider the following examples from the novel:

1. ‘*You* wouldn’t consider a good offer?’ asked Gudrun.
   ‘I think I’ve rejected several,’ said Ursula. (Lawrence 3)

2. ‘Why did *you* come home, Prune?’ she asked.
   ‘Why did I come back, Ursula?’ she repeated. ‘I have asked myself a thousand times.’
   ‘And don’t *you* know?’
   ‘Yes, I think I do. I think my coming back home was just reculer pour mieux sauter. (Lawrence 5)

3. ‘Then why do *you* care about people at all?’ she asked, ‘if *you* don’t believe in love? Why do you bother about humanity?’
   ‘Why do I? Because I can’t get away from it.’ (Lawrence 110)

The above examples (1), (2) and (3), illustrate the use of purely deictic elements *you* and *I* which directly refer to the speech participants, i.e. the personal pronoun *I* refers to the speaker and the personal pronoun *you* refers to the addressee. The speaker and the addressee are in the same temporal spatial situation. As illustrated by the above examples, in the process of the conversation the role of the speaker is transferred from one participant to another. Thus, the deictic centre keeps changing all the time. Consider more examples illustrating the use of inclusive, exclusive and generalized *we*:

4. (…) *We* are such dreary liars. Our one idea is to lie to ourselves. *We* have an ideal of a perfect world, clean and straight and sufficient. So *we* cover the earth with foulness; life is a blotch of labour (…) (Lawrence 44)
(5) ‘And we’ve got to live for something, we’re not just cattle that can gaze and have done with it,’ said Gerald. (Lawrence 45)

(6) ‘If,’ said Hermione at last, ‘we could only realize, that in the spirit we are all one, all equal in the spirit, all brothers there – the rest wouldn’t matter (…) (Lawrence 87)

Examples (4), (5) and (6) illustrate the use of the generalized we. In the above examples we refers to the humanity or people in general, not to the speaker or the addressee or some other entity.

(7) We’ve come back,’ said Hermione. ’The daffodils are so beautiful.’ (Lawrence 74)

In the above example we is exclusive. By using the pronoun we the speaker made reference to herself and some other people not including the addressee.

(8) ‘We know each other well, you and I, already,’ he said (Lawrence 113)

(9) ‘You know,’ he said, ‘that I am having rooms here at the mill? Don’t you think we can have some good times?’

(10) ‘Are we going to stay here? asked Gudrun.

‘I was only resting a minute,’ said Ursula, getting up as if rebuked. (Lawrence: 9)

In contrast to example (7), examples (8), (9) and (10) present the inclusive use of the pronoun we which clearly refers to the speaker and the addressee. The pronouns you and I and proper names Gudrun and Ursula used help us determine the number of participants in the dialogue.

3.2.2 Place Deixis

According to Yule (1996: 130) expressions used to point to a location (here, there, yonder) belong to place deixis. Finegan (2004: 203) asserts that spatial deixis marks the orientation or position in space of the referent of a linguistic expression. The categories of words most frequently used to express spatial deixis are demonstratives (this, that) and adverbs (here, there). Expressions of place deixis are context dependent items and require contextual information about the place of utterance.

As described by Levinson (1983:79), place or space deixis specifies locations relative to anchorage points in the speech event. The importance of locational specifications can be understood from the fact that there seem to be two basic ways of referring to objects- by describing or naming them on the one hand, and by locating them on the other. Levinson (1983:79) attributes the adverbs here and there, and the demonstrative pronouns this and that the English language to pure place – deictic words. The adverbs here and there are contrasted on a proximal/ distal dimension that stretches away from the speaker’s location as in the following example ‘Bring that here and take this there.’ Though there usually means ‘distal from the speaker’s location at
the time of making utterance’, it can also mean ‘proximal top addressee at the time when the utterance is received’, as in the following example ‘How are things there?’

The demonstrative pronouns are clearly arranged in a proximal – distal dimension, where *this* can mean ‘the object in a pragmatically given area close to the speaker’s location at the time of utterance’, and *that* ‘the object beyond the pragmatically given area close to the speaker’s location at the time of utterance’. The above mentioned distinction becomes complicated when *that* shifts to *this* to show empathy and *this* shifts to *that* to show emotional distance. The demonstrative determiners combine with non – deictic terms for spatial organization to yield complex deictic descriptions of location.

In conclusion, according to Levinson (1983: 85) it is necessary to specify deictic locations with respect to the location of a participant at coding time, i.e. at the time of the production of utterance.

The present research showed that demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* differed in frequency. The demonstrative *that* which accounted for 27% was more prevalent than the demonstrative *this* which accounted for 18%. The difference in frequency between the adverbs *here* and *there* was not so high. The adverb *here* accounted for 25% of the occurrences and *there* accounted for 30% of the occurrences.

![Figure 3. The Relative Frequency of the Occurrence of Place Deictic expressions *this*, *that*, *here* and *there.*](image)

Let us consider the following examples from the novel:

(1) ‘Are we going to stay *here*?’ asked Gudrun.

‘I was only resting a minute,’ said Ursula, getting up as if rebuked. (Lawrence 37)

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In sentence (1) the adverb *here* represents the specific place of the speaker and the addressee at the moment of speaking.

(2) ‘Yes, but how good, how really fine, to swim out *there!*’ The sisters stood watching the swimmer move further into the grey, moist, full space of water (…) (Lawrence 37)

In sentence (2) the deictic adverb *there* points to the location away from the speaker and identifies a particular place, lake or river. We can also presuppose that the utterance was accompanied by gestural reference.

(3) ‘Brandy,’ she said, sipping her last drop and putting down her glass. The waiter disappeared’. ‘No,’ she said to Birkin. ‘He doesn’t know I’m back. He’ll be terrified when he sees me *here*.’

In example (3) the context helps understand the meaning of the adverb *here*. The word *waiter* presupposes that the speaker and the addressee were at the restaurant or café at the moment of speaking.

(4) ‘Is there anything we can eat *here*? Is there anything you would like?’ ‘Yes’, she said, ‘I should adore some oysters.’ (Lawrence 56)

In the above example we assume that the speaker and the addressee were in the same place, probably at some restaurant or café.

(5) ‘But there are only two rooms,’ said the Pussum, in a cold, hostile voice,’ now Rupert’s *here*.’

In sentence (5) the context helps infer that the adverb *here* refers to a flat consisting of only two rooms.

(6) ‘What do you think of that figure *there*? I want to know,’ Gerald asked.

In the following sentence the adverb *there* refers to the figure that was distant from the speaker and we can logically infer that the utterance was followed by the gestural pointing.

(7) ‘How did you come *here*? We saw Gudrun too.’

‘I came to look at the pond,’ said Ursula, ‘and I found Mr Birkin *there*’. (Lawrence 115)

In sentence (7) the deictic adverb *here* refers to the specific place where the speaker and the addressee were present at the moment of speaking. However, the context does not give us enough information to help us identify this particular location. The adverb *there* probably refers to the place by the pond where the speaker had been before the moment of speaking. Since the adverb *there* refers back to the phrase *at the pond* it is not purely deictic.

(8) ‘I was going on,’ said Ursula. ‘Mr Birkin wanted me to see the rooms. Isn’t it delightful to live *here*? It is perfect.’(Lawrence 115)

In sentence (8) the speaker uses the adverb *here* to refer to the particular location which might be a house or a flat.

The present research makes notice of the fact that the identification of deictic markers such as *this* and *that* is more confusing than the identification of *here* and *there.*
Certain difficulties arise due to the fact that the already mentioned deictic items are used to express both place and discourse deixis.

(9) ‘Who is that young man’?

‘I don’t know’, Birkin answered discreetly. (Lawrence 21)

In example (9) the demonstrative pronoun that refers to an entity (young man) relatively distant from the speaker at the moment of speaking. We might also presuppose that the speaker’s words were accompanied by some gesture.

(10) ‘This way, this way,’ sang her leisurely voice at intervals. (Lawrence 73)

In the above example the demonstrative this clearly refers to the entity (the way) that was physically located near the speaker. We can interpret that the speaker was indicating the direction using a gesture.

(11) ‘That’s what you have done,’ said Hermione looking searchingly at the plants on the shore, and comparing with Gudrun’s drawing. Gudrun looked round in the direction of Hermione’s long, pointing finger. That is it, isn’t it? repeated Hermione, needing confirmation. (Lawrence 102)

Example (11) shows that the speaker used the demonstrative that to refer to the addressee’s drawing. The speaker’s choice of the demonstrative that can be explained by the fact that the plants grew further from her, i.e. on the shore. The stretch of the text that follows the demonstrative that helps identify the entity. Besides, the following example leads to the idea that the speaker was pointing to the drawing at the moment of speaking.

(12) ‘This is the dining room,’ said Hermione. We’ll measure it this way, Rupert (…)

(Lawrence 116)

In this example the speaker uses the first demonstrative this to point to the dining room which is located near the speaker. The second demonstrative this is used by the speaker to demonstrate how to measure the room.

(13) ‘Ha- ha!’ Do you mind if I come over to this table?

In example (13) the speaker used the demonstrative pronoun this to point to the entity (table) located near the speaker.

(14) ‘I don’t want to give you things,’ she said teasingly. ‘But will you have this?’

Here the demonstrative this indicates a particular thing the speaker wanted to give the addressee. However, it is not possible to identify that particular thing in a given context.

It has already been mentioned that there are difficulties in distinguishing place and discourse deixis. Both demonstrative pronouns this and that can refer to the something that has been said earlier in the text. Consider the following examples:

(15) ‘There’s one thing, Lupton,’ said Gerald, turning suddenly to the bridegroom. ‘Laura won’t have brought such a fool in the family as Lottie did.’

‘Comfort yourself with that,’ laughed Birkin.
In example (15) *that* refers to the forthcoming stretch of discourse.

(16) ‘Oh but how perfectly splendid! It’s one of the things I want most to do – to live from day to day without ever putting on any sort of clothing whatever. If I could do *that*, I should feel I had lived.’

Similar to example (15), the speaker used the demonstrative pronoun *that* to refer to the previously produced piece of discourse.

### 3.2.3 Time Deixis

Yule (1996: 130) maintains that *time deixis* is ‘any expression used to point to a time’. The interpretation of expressions of time deixis, as well as other deictic expressions, depend on what time the speaker has in mind.

Lyons (1996: 312) says that in English temporal deictic reference can be realized grammatically (as tense) and lexically (in a wide range of adverbs). Very often tense becomes unnecessary in the sense that it becomes clear from the context whether the event occurred in the past, is occurring in the present or will occur in the future. According to the scholar (ibid.p.313), tense includes not only temporal reference, but also *deictic* temporal reference, i.e., it refers to a point or interval of time which is determined in relation to the moment of utterance. Thus, present tense, when used in its basic meaning, refers to the moment of utterance itself or to an interval which involves the moment of utterance. Lyons (ibid. p. 314) supports the view the most common dichotomy of tense distinction is *past* versus non – *past*. Other distinctions such as future versus non – future, proximate versus non – proximate or remote versus non – remote are less common distinctions of tense. As described by Lyons (ibid.p.314), the above mentioned tense systems include *absolute* and *relative* tenses.

According to Levinson (1983:73) time deixis refers to participant – role. It is crucial to differentiate the moment of utterance or coding time (CT) from the moment of reception or receiving time (RT). In the generally accepted situation of utterance RT can be assumed to coincide with CT.

The corpus analysis was carried out to study lexicalized temporal deictic references, such as adverbs *now* and *then*. It was noted that the adverb *now* was much more prevalent in the dialogues than the adverb *then*. 
Consider the following examples:

(1) ‘And now you will always see them,’ he said.

‘Now I shall always see them, she repeated. ‘Thank you so much for showing me. I think they’re so beautiful – little red flames – ‘

(2) ‘I find,’ he said, ‘that one needs some one really pure single activity – I should call love a single pure activity. But I don’t really love anybody – not now.

(3) ‘You would like to see rooms now, wouldn’t you! Yes. We will go up now, shall we?’ (Lawrence: 69)

In examples (1), (2) and (3) the time adverbial now expresses the time that coincided with the speaker’s time at the moment of producing the utterance.

(4) ‘Yes, it’s as nice little mare as you could set eyes on – beautiful little thing, beautiful. Now you couldn’t see his father treat any animal like that – not you. (…) (Lawrence 96)

(5) ‘I was hoping now for a man to come along,’ Gudrun said, suddenly catching her undertip between her teeth, and making a stange grimace (…) (Lawrence 4)

(6) ‘And why is it,’ she asked at length, ‘that there is no flowering, no dignity of human life now?’

In the above examples the meaning of the adverb now is extended and involves not only the time of the utterance but also refers to the present situation. Besides, in example (4) and (6) we might presuppose that the speaker signaled a change in the present situation using the adverb now.

The time adverbial then refers to the time opposite to the speaker’s time. However, the adverb then was less frequently used in the non – linguistic context (dialogue) than the adverb now. Consider the following examples where the adverb then is used to refer to the past time:

(7) ‘He was in the last war,’ said Birkin.

‘Were you really?’ said the girl.
“And then he explored the Amazon, said Birkin, ‘and now he is ruling over coal mines.’ (Lawrence 52 – 3)

In example (7) the adverb then refers to the time after the war and is contrasted with the present situation that is marked by the adverb now.

(8) ‘Money?’ said Birkin. ‘She’ll get what she wants from Halliday or from one of her acquaintances.’

‘But then,’ said Gerald, ‘I’d rather give her dues and settle the account.’ (Lawrence 81)

(9) ‘I don’t want Gudrun to be there, because I want him to say something more to me. So I shan’t tell Gudrun anything about it, and I shall go alone. Then I shall know. (Lawrence 122)

In example (9) and (10) the adverb then used by the speaker refers to the future.
CONCLUSIONS

The present study is an attempt to examine the typical patterns of reference in linguistic and non-linguistic context and provide an analysis of linguistic means used.

- It was observed that the analyzed reference patterns in the novel exhibited the referential use of noun phrases.
- It was noticed that the 3rd person singular pronouns such as he, she, it and the 3rd person plural pronoun they were the most frequent items used to identify the entities in a linguistic context.
- The patterns in the present study included instances of a single link of anaphoric pronoun referring to its antecedent as well as longer stretches of pronouns in a text forming an anaphoric chain and referring to the same antecedent.
- As far as anaphoric chains are concerned, the distance that existed between the first antecedent in a chain and the final anaphor varied in length. The selected examples showed that the distance could be quite large: it covered even through the whole paragraph.
- Cataphoric patterns of reference in the analyzed novel included the use of personal pronouns he, she and it referring forward to noun phrases in the frames of one sentence.
- The analyzed text did not produce evidence of pragmatic (non-conventional) reference of noun phrases – neither in a linguistic nor in a non-linguistic context.
- In a non-linguistic context, reference was mostly realized by deixis – person, place and time. The most common deictic expressions were those of person, place and time.
- Person, time and place deictic expressions used in the corpus differed in frequency:
  - The frequency of personal pronouns I and you did not demonstrate a significant difference. However, the personal pronoun we showed much lower frequency.
  - As far as place deixis is concerned, the demonstrative that was higher in frequency than the demonstrative this. The adverb there was more frequent than here.
  - Time deictic expressions now and then demonstrated the highest difference in frequency in non-linguistic context. The adverb now (74%) exhibited much higher frequency than then (26%).
SANTRAUKA


REFERENCES


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