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**İngilizce'de Belirlilik ve Belirsizlik Kategorisinin Pragmatikliği**

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**YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ**

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**ISPARTA-2016**



**T.C.  
SULEYMAN DEMİREL UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES  
DEPARTMENT OF WESTERN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE**

**Pragmatics of the Category of Definiteness and Indefiniteness in English**

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**MASTER'S THESIS**

**SUPERVISOR  
Prof. Dr. Hüseyinaga RZAYEV**

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SÜLEYMAN DEMİREL ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
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<p>Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliği hükümleri uyarınca yapılan Yüksek Lisans Tez Savunma Sınavında Jürimiz 06/05/2016 tarihinde toplanmış ve yukarıda adı geçen öğrencinin Yüksek Lisans tezi için;</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> OY BİRLİĞİ <input type="checkbox"/> OY ÇOKLUĞU<sup>2</sup></p> <p>ile aşağıdaki kararı almıştır.</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda aday başarılı bulunmuş ve tez <b>KABUL</b> edilmiştir. <input type="checkbox"/> Yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda tezin <b>DÜZELTİLMESİ</b><sup>3</sup> kararlaştırılmıştır. <input type="checkbox"/> Yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda aday başarısız bulunmuş ve tezinin <b>REDDEDİLMESİ</b><sup>4</sup> kararlaştırılmıştır.</p>		
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## **YEMİN METNİ**

Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak sunduğum “Pragmatics of the Category of Definiteness and Indefiniteness in English/ İngilizce’de Belirlilik ve Belirsizlik Kategorisinin Pragmatiği” adlı çalışmanın, tezin proje safhasından sonuçlanmasına kadar ki bütün süreçlerde bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurulmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin Bibliyografya’da gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve onurumla beyan ederim.

**Asma Asaad Thamer**  
**06/05/2016**

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## ÖZET

### İngilizce’de Belirlilik ve Belirsizlik Kategorisinin Pragmatiği

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Bu çalışma, İngilizce metinlerdeki bilgi akışını “belirlilik ve belirsizlik” kategorisi bakımından ele almaktadır. Bu kategori birden fazla araştırmacının dikkatini çekmiş ve araştırmacılar bu kategoriyi farklı isim tamlamalarını kullanarak belirli isim tamlamaları şeklinde tanımlamışlardır. “Teklik”, “önvarsayım”, “gönderimsellik”, “benzerlik” ve fonksiyonel belirlilik gibi olasılıkları toplamak ve bunları kullanmak söylem modallarındaki diğer unsurları ayırt etmemize imkan sağlamaktadır. Belirlilik iki yönde kendini gösterir: dilbilgisel kesinlik ve anlamsal kesinlik şeklinde. Diğer taraftan “tanınırlık”, belli bir ölçüde dildeki belirlilik ve belirsizlik anlamlarına, türlerine ve erişilebilirliğine ışık tutmaktadır. İngilizce ’de “belirlilik” ve “belirsizlik” arasında yatan diğer bir fark ise belirli ve belirsiz isim tamlamalarının kullanımından ortaya çıkan yeni bilgi miktarının değişimidir.

#### **Anahtar Kelimeler:**

belirlilik/belirsizlik, teklik, önvarsayım, gönderimsellik, yakınlık, niteleyici sözcükler, tema

## **ABSTRACT**

### **Pragmatics of the Category of Definiteness and Indefiniteness in English**

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The paper studies the contribution of the categorical “definiteness/ indefiniteness” in terms of the information flow in English texts. This category has received rather more attention, and more than one researcher has characterized the category of definite NPs by enumerating NP types. Gathering “uniqueness”, “presuppositionality”, “referentiality”, “familiarity” and other possibilities under the functional definiteness enables us to individuate the referent in question from all others within the discourse modal. The fact that definiteness moves in two directions (i.e., grammatical definiteness and semantic definiteness), on the one hand, and “knownness” is a matter of degree, on the other hand, sheds light on the accessibility extent of the meanings of different types and devices of definiteness and indefiniteness in language. The other important distinction between “definiteness” and “indefiniteness” lies in identification of the variation in the amount of new information imparted by the use of definite and indefinite NPs.

#### **Keywords:**

definiteness/ indefiniteness, uniqueness, presuppositionality, referentiality, familiarity, determiners, theme, and rheme.

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## **Abbreviations**

Accu.	accusative
CD	communicative dynamism
Dat.	dative
Fem.	feminine
FSP	functional sentence perspective
Gen.	genitive
Masc.	masculine
ME	middle English
NE	new English
Neut.	neutral
Nom.	nominative
NP	noun phrase
NPs	noun phrases
OE	old English
Pl.	plural
PLC	Prague linguistic circle
Sg.	singular

## Introduction

### 1) Aims and Goals:

1. How it enables us to communicate to understand each other appropriately.
2. Communication is purposive. Any sentence serves a definite purpose in terms of how we deliver necessary information.
3. Information structure of a sentence consists of two polar parts that is i.e. known information and new information.
4. Known information is otherwise called information which is familiar or definite while new information is unknown or indefinite. In this context much depends on the category of definiteness.
5. In accord with the view of the Prague linguistic circle (PLC), language units play different roles in realizing thematic (known information) and rhematic (new information) sections. In this sense, the identification of the role of the category of definiteness and language units serving to express it is of great importance in communication.

### 2) The Scope:

The concern of this thesis is to examine the definiteness denoting devices in English language and their role in functional sentence perspective. The main issue to deal with is how we can express definiteness and indefiniteness by using articles and other determiners and their role in the process of communication. According to Huddleston (2002: 386), articles are “the special subcategory of determinatives that provide the most basic expression of definiteness and indefiniteness”. The definite article ‘*the*’ is a means of showing definiteness while indefinite article *a(n)* is a means of expressing indefiniteness, but this is not only the case; there are many ways of denoting definiteness and indefiniteness by other means as we will see through this study. The category of definiteness and indefiniteness plays an important role in the process of communication. The definite article ‘*the*’ displays a term as something already known to the listener or reader, this knownness of information is due to the situation or context in which the definite article occurs or to the general knowledge of the listener or reader while the indefinite article *a(n)* presents an item as something new to the listener or reader.

The origin of articles (the other definiteness/ indefiniteness denoting devices as well) refers to the early periods of the history of the English language; old, middle, and new English. Each of period had some characteristics that differentiated it from the other periods. The most notable one is that the Old English period (OE) is characterized by being the period of full endings, the Middle English period (ME) is characterized by being the period of weakened endings, and the New English period (NE) is characterized by being the period of loss endings. Actually the division of these three periods is connected with two factors:

1. The external factors: it means that some very essential events took place in the history of the people (e.g. in 499- anglo- saxons came to the continent; the mid. 11<sup>th</sup> century- Norman- French conquest; 14<sup>th</sup> c. – English gained independence).
2. The internal factors: the period of full, weakened, and lost endings. With stress gaining prominence, the endings got weakened (Middle English) and finally lost (Early new English); the development of “*a(n)*” from the “*ān*” (one) in unstressed position; loss of the category of case, etc.

### **3. Data Collection:**

The data of this study is text of yixing city that has been taken from Graham Lock’s book ‘Functional Grammar’ in addition to many examples analysed from many sources; books and articles.

### **4. Methodology:**

It assumes:

- (a) Language, as a means of communication, delivers different types of information.
- (b) The departure point of communication is usually “known” or “definite” while its purposive dimension deals with the “unknown” or “indefinite” information.
- (c) The information channels are mainly a “Given- Before- New” and “New- Before- Given” patterns.
- (d) The paper explores critical analysis and the elements of the presuppositional procedure.
- (e) FSP (functional sentence perspective) is applied in terms of the (a) communicative dynamism, and (b) the contribution of the intra- and intersentential relations to the expression of thematic and rhematic sections.

## **5. Importance:**

The importance of the category of (in) definiteness of English comes from their role as a functional category directly participating in and contributing to the purposive aspect of communication. The definite article 'the' and the other definiteness devices assume to be known by the hearer or reader; they create cohesion in the text while the indefiniteness expressing devices serve to denote the so called new information. The interrelationship of "definite" - "indefinite" types of information can "maneuver" to make the information patterns more dynamic and transformable to each other.

## **6. Structuration:**

This thesis consists of three chapters. Each chapter deals with some concerns. In chapter one a historical evolution of the article systems and other determiners are dealt with. It is concerned with how the category of definiteness and indefiniteness was expressed. From the morphological point of view, OE had a very rich system of inflection, while stress played no role, no weaken of unstressed syllable took place but in the ME, stress gained its importance and as a result stressed syllables were pronounced stronger while unstressed syllables were pronounced weaker. This chapter will deal with the history of the article and the system of nouns, pronouns and numerals.

The second chapter is concerned with a detailed classification of the article system and other determiners in modern English in terms of the category of definiteness and indefiniteness. As well as how the category was interpreted in other sciences (e.g. philosophy and logic) are also among the major concerns of this chapter. All these matters help to cover the material and provide information from different opinions from different sources.

In the third chapter, the category is dealt with in accord with the conception of Prague linguistics circle, restricting itself to the functional sentence perspective and communicative dynamism. First, general information about the theory of FSP is introduced and then with regard to this theory, a demarcation line between thematic and rhematic section is specified. How sentences move in the process of information; what new (indefinite) in sentence one becomes known (definite) in sentence two or what indefinite in sentence two becomes definite in sentence three, i.e. thematization of the

rheme or thematization of the theme. The final stage of the thesis consists of the pedagogical implications, perspectives of the problem and the reference literature of the research.

#### **6. Implicatives:**

The pedagogical implications of the study is to ensure greater integration of the category of definiteness and indefiniteness into English of language and literature in the curriculum for enhanced and improved teaching and learning. Central to this, the teaching methodologies will utilize the findings of the study to develop process-based language teaching approach in order to promote greater literary understanding and foster more effective language development, especially on the part of learners of English as a foreign or an additional language.

#### **7. Perspectives:**

The perspective point of the study is to explore definite and indefinite arguments in language studies and to explain how richer these arguments are in stimulating language creativity, formations and logically reasonable reformations in both spoken and written literary English in a wide range of contexts. In addition to this, the study is to redefine various forms of definite and indefinite features and their interpretation within large scope of their interrelationship in language and literature.

## Chapter One

### Historical Evolution of the Category of Definiteness and Indefiniteness:

#### 1. 1. Category of definiteness and indefiniteness:

Definiteness is the semantic characteristic of noun phrases (NPs) which distinguish between referents (definite NPs) that can be identified and referents (indefinite NPs) that can not be identified. In English, for instance, one feature of definite noun phrase is precluding asking ‘which one?’. There are many ways in which one can express definiteness or indefiniteness. For example, definiteness in English is usually realized by determiners. Specific determiners such as “the, this, every, and both” make the noun phrase definite while other determiners like “a(n), either, many, any, and some” make the noun phrase indefinite (Huddleston, 2002).

Without referring to a class of words known as determiners, it is nearly impossible to discuss the noun phrase since usually noun occurs with one or more from this class of words. Determiners consist of articles and quantifiers, which consist of a small number of grammatical items that serve one specific function to make a noun phrase either definite or indefinite. The class of determiners is called closed set because it is difficult to add any new words to it. <https://www.tesol-direct.com/tesol-resources/english-grammar-guide/definite-and-indefinite-articles/>.

The definiteness is expressed by two main properties which are uniqueness and familiarity. These properties describe the main occurrences of definite descriptions. Noun phrases which begin with *the* as in ‘the queen of England’ which are as well called “definite description” particularly in philosophical literature happen to be examples of definite noun phrases in English while those beginning with *a(n)* like (an elephant) usually called “indefinite description” are indefinite NPs in English. One tradition which distinguishes *the* from *a(n)* is uniqueness. This tradition comes from philosophical literature from the classic work of Bertrand Russell ‘on denoting phrases (1905)’. Uniqueness means the existence of only one entity that meets the descriptive content of the NP. Existential sentences became a standard in distinguishing definites from indefinites and led to expanding the category of definiteness and indefiniteness to contain other NP forms (Abbott, 2006: 392).

A. I met an owner of El Azteco.

B. I met the owner of El Azteco.

In the first sentence when we use (*an*), it means that there is at least one owner whom I met but in the second sentence when we use *the*, it means there is only one owner of El Azteco whom I met.

Russell (1905), in his analysis, mentioned that both definite and indefinite descriptions are quantificational expressions e.g. (every apple) but this idea has been argued by some people who assume that they are referential. The uniqueness appears to accord with our intuitions and it is corroborated by the fact that if we stress the definite article, it expresses the sense of uniqueness. For example:

- Did you meet *an* owner of El Azteco or *the* owner?

This example seems to inquire if there is only one owner or more than one.

The idea of uniqueness can be enlarged to include plural NP by using the idea of exhaustiveness as has been argued by Hawkins (1978) who means that the indication of definiteness comprises everything that can meet the descriptive content of the NP, so that an NP like '*the owners of El Azteco*' would be the same as '*all the owners of El Aztec*'.

Russell's analysis has been argued by many scientists, for instance Strawson (1905) states that sentences which contain definite descriptions are not used to express the uniqueness and existence of an entity; those definite descriptions are referential NPs and the uniqueness of a referent is "*presupposed*". If the presupposition fails as has been argued by Strawson, the statement as a whole is neither true nor false. For example, in a sentence like 'I met the owner of El Azteco' if it is a government installation and no one owns El Azteco, the addressee will not say 'that's false' but would correct the mistaken presupposition.

Another problem for Russell's analysis that has been argued by (Abbott, 2006: 393) is the fact that in many cases the definite description of NP is inadequate to choose a unique referent from the world; an example of this kind of incomplete description is:

- Please put this on the table.

This example is understood despite the fact that there are many tables in the world. There are two approaches to deal with this problem. One of them is a syntactic solution which proposes additional descriptive material to the NP as in:

- The table next to the armchair in the living room of the house at 76 Maple Ave.

The other credible approach is that “the uniqueness encoded in definite description should be understood relative to a context of utterance, which would only include those items in the surroundings of the discourse participants and those items mentioned in the course of the conversation or understood to be relevant to its topic” (ibid: 393).

The meaning of definiteness can also be clarified in the traditional interpretation of Paul Christophersen. According to him, what differentiates definite from indefinite description is whether the addressee is familiar with the referent of the NP or not. Christophersen comments “Now the speaker must always be supposed to know which individual he is thinking of; the interesting thing is that the *the*-form supposes that the hearer knows it too” (Christophersen, 1939: 28). If we return to the previous example of ‘please put this on the table’ it would be understood that the speaker presumes the addressee knows or is familiar with which table he means.

The familiarity approach was resuscitated through the work of Irene Heim (1982). Heim, just like Strawson, argued that definite and indefinite descriptions are referential but not quantificational:-

- Ahmed saw *a play* last week. *The play* was not enjoyable.

In this example, *a play* introduces a new entity into the context of discourse. Then, that entity is indicated with a definite (the play). We can use the pronoun ‘it’ instead of ‘the play’: ‘Ahmed saw *a play* last week. *It* was not enjoyable’. According to Heim (1982) definite descriptions and pronouns are ruled by a “familiarity condition” which means that the use of a definite is allowed only if the existence of the related to the entity has been founded in the particular discourse while indefinite descriptions are ruled by “novelty condition” which means the referent of indefinite description has been introduced for the first time into the discourse.

Abbott (2006: 394) mentioned that the familiarity theory is very reasonable for many uses of definite description but there are cases in which the descriptive content of the noun phrase, no matter what the context, is adequate to take or decide a unique referent as in:



- Mary asked the oldest student in the class to explain everything.

Here we do not need to presuppose that the referent has been mentioned before or that the addressee is familiar with the referent of the NP and the indefinite article is not allowed to be used as in:

- \*Mary asked an oldest student in the class to explain everything.

There are cases in which the descriptive content of the NP may determine a unique referent in context, even when that content is insufficient to determine a unique referent relative to the world. In these cases the definite article may also be used even if the addressee is not supposed to know who or what is being talked about as in:

- Sue is mad because *the realtor who sold her house* overcharged his fee.

For Abbott, the followers of the familiarity theory appeal to the idea of ‘accommodation’. The content of this idea is that if the addressees are able to figure out the intended meaning, they will accept a definite description (ibid: 394).

The term of indefiniteness might have diverse meanings as random, uncertain, indeterminate, vague, indistinct, and undefined. The indefiniteness means randomness when it is not practiced in advance. Randomness has a characteristic of a context being missed or information being insufficient that it based on a personal lack of information or ignorance. Sometimes indefiniteness means uncertainty when it relates to the predictions of the future like prognoses. The indeterminacy can exist, for example, when there is something that is not fixed by laws so that its goal is unclear. Indefiniteness means vagueness if language expression can not express the exact intended meaning as ‘this room is warm’; warm can not express the exact temperature of the room; therefore it is still vague. Another meaning of indefiniteness is indistinctness. For instance, in dreams, our fantasies are merged into an indefinite combination. This indistinctness is due to our inability to express every small detail differences. Finally, indefiniteness means undefined concept when it can not be differentiated from other (Pirner, 2015: 4).

## **1. 2. The Article System and other determiners:-**

In any research topic there must be an understanding of its past and the conditions that lead to the manner of its present state. In the development of English, it is possible to see three periods and within each period we can find some characteristics; resulting in essential development. The first period lasted from “450 to 1150 and is known as Old English (OE). It is also described as the period of ‘full inflections’ because the endings of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and pronouns were not weakened and displayed full inflections. The second period lasted from “1150 to 1500 and is known as Middle English (ME). The inflections, in this period, start to be reduced so that it is also known as a period of “weakened or leveled inflections”. The third period lasted from “1500- onwards” and is known as New English (NE). The inflections disappeared during this period so that it is recognized as being the period of “lost inflections” (Baugh and Thomas, 2002: 46). In the following pages, we provide a brief description of each period in accord with the declension of the article system, noun, and pronoun in order to describe the evolution that happened to the category of definiteness and indefiniteness:-

### 1. 2. 1. Old English (450- 1050):-

In English, the determination of the history of ‘definiteness’ category needs a complex syntactic study. It involves its expansion through some markers like the definite article, its loss through other means as pronoun inflection, and the change in the allocation of ‘this and that’. There is no evidence of ‘definiteness’ as a syntactic category if we compare the syntax of Proto-Indo-European but the category is introduced in the history of pre-English. The syntactic modification of definiteness involves surface markers during the history of English and from the late of Proto-Germanic to the present (Lehmann, 1962: 188). The definite article in OE is full of inflections as has been demonstrated by Singh (2005: 83) in the following diagram:-

Cases	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
sg. Nominative	sē, se	sēo	ƿæt
sg. accusative	ƿone	ƿā	ƿæt
sg. dative	ƿæm	ƿære	ƿæm
sg. genitive	ƿæs	ƿære	ƿæs
Pl. nominative and accusative	ƿā	ƿā	ƿā
Pl. dative	ƿæm	ƿæm	ƿæm
Pl. genitive	ƿāra	ƿāra	ƿāra

*Table 1: Forms of the definite article ‘the’ in Old English*

The OE definite article displays agreement with the case, number, and gender of the noun that it modifies. Through similarity with the more common forms, the OE speakers change the form of nominative singular ‘sē’ into ‘ðē’ till finally produce the modern form ‘the’ (ibid: 83). It is known that originally the definite article derived from root element represented as (*P*) that refers in most its forms to the demonstrative ‘this and that’. The demonstrative forms like *ƿes*, *ƿeos*, *ƿis* = “this” (NE) can be used as a means of expressing ‘pointing = deictic’ and forms like *sē*, *sēo*, *ƿæt* = “that” (NE) can be seen either as a pointer or as an element of identifying a specific noun out of the general class as in its use in the relative clause ‘eall sio gioguþ ðe nu.....’= ‘all that youth which now...’. The singling out can also be seen in construction as ‘sē+ proper nouns’ to specify a particular person or to express ‘aforementioned’ as in ‘hie wæron Hioþwiges suna, sē Hloþwig was ƿæs aldan Carles sunu, sē Carl was Pippenes sunu = “and they were Hlothwig’s sons, that Hlothwig was of that old Charles (Charlemagne) son, that Charles was Pepin’s son” (NE). In this example, a particular Hlothwig and

Charles are specified by *sē* and the second mentioning of *sē* expresses ‘aforementioned’. Actually, *sē* can be seen in other cases, for instance to indicate something ‘culturally known’ as in ‘seo sunne= the/that sun’. The definite article arises out of such uses of those ‘*sē*, *sēo*, and *Þæt*’ (Traugott, 1972: 87).

Old English (OE) pertains to a language that uses inflectional affixes to express relationships. Synthetic language is a term used to describe OE, which means that grammatical function and relations of words in the sentence are indicated by the inflectional endings. It uses grammatical endings and prefixes, sound interchanges, and suppletory forms in the building of grammatical forms. In OE, the parts of speech are called ‘*nomina or nominal parts of speech*’ which include: ‘nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and numerals’. They include five nominal grammatical categories: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison, and the category of definiteness and indefiniteness. The noun in OE has two grammatical categories; number and case. The case involves: nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative while the number includes singular and plural members (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 92-93). The case and number of the noun can be demonstrated by the following diagram that has been taken from (Baugh, 1957: 65):-

Singular	Plural
Nom. stān	Stān-as
Gen. stān-es	Stān-a
Dat. stān-e	Stān-um
Accu. stān	Stān-as

*Table 2: Case and Number of Nouns in Old English*

Each case of nouns denotes specific function, for example, the nominative case is the active agent that is used with verbs to indicate activity ‘*Þæt flōd wēox Þā and ābær upp Þone arc (OE) ~ that flood increased then and bore up the arc (NE)*’ or as the recipient of an action or state like ‘*wear Þā ælc Þinȝ cwices ādrenct (OE) ~ was then everything alived drowned (NE)*’. The genitive case works as attributes to other nouns. It can be either subjective or objective genitives. The subjective is connected with the possessive meaning and the meaning of origin, for instance, ‘*hiora scipu (OE) ~ their ships (NE)*’ while the objective meaning is connected with the partative meaning like

‘sum hund scipa (OE) ~ a hundred of ships (NE)’. The dative case is used with prepositions as in ‘from Ðæm here (OE) ~ from the army (NE)’ or as an instrument to show the means or manner of an act like ‘hit hazolade stānum (OE) ~ it hailed with stones (NE)’ or is used as indirect object like ‘Ðā sende sê cyning tō Ðæm here and him cýþan hêt (OE) ~ then sent the king to the army and ordered him to inform them (NE)’. Finally, the accusative case, is used as a direct object to refer to the recipient or the result of an action as in ‘sê wulf nimþ and tōdlæþ Ðā scêap (OE) ~ the wolf takes and scatters the sheep (NE)’ or as an adverb of time like ‘Ðā sæton hie Ðone winter at Cwatbrycz (OE) ~ then stayed they that winter at Cwatbridge (NE)’ (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 94-95).

The prominent characteristic of OE nouns is their detailed system of declension which is a type of morphological classification. Historically, the system of declension of OE is based on number of differences: the suffix of a stem, the gender, the phonetic structure, and the phonetic changes that occur in the final syllable. The stem-suffix composes of vocalic stems, for instance (*a-*, *i-*, *ō*, *u-* stems), consonantal stems, for instance (*n-* stems), and of sound sequences, for instance, (*-ja-* or *-nd-* stems). Other nouns do not have stems that can form suffixes so that they are called ‘zero-suffix’ or ‘root-suffix’ and because their roots end with consonant, they are grouped with consonantal stems, for instance, ‘*bōc* OE’ = ‘book NE’. The division of morphological classification of nouns in OE according to stem is demonstrated in the table below as has been shown by (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 95).

Vocalic Stem or Strong Declension				Consonantal Stem		
α-stems and their variants	ō- stems	i- stems	u- stems	n-stems weak declension	Root stems	Other minor stems: r-, s-, nd-
jα- stems wα- stems	jō- stems wo- stems					

Table 3: Morphological classification of nouns in Old English according to stem.

The original vowel or consonant stems of OE noun declensions have disappeared by ninth and tenth centuries. For instance, the proto-Germanic ‘-a stem’ like ‘*skipa*’ becomes ‘*scip* in OE’ but the same inflectional sample continues to be used.

To describe OE nouns, it is useful to make use of the distinctions between the historic vocalic ‘strong’ and consonantal ‘weak’ stems as a suitable way to distinguish between different declensions. The ‘-a stem’ of vocalic stems seems to be used as a default; most OE nouns seem to fall into this stem and its inflection sample expands to all nouns. According to gender, the ‘-a stem’ can be either neuter or masculine, the ‘-u stem’ is the same as ‘-a stem’, and the ‘-o stem’ applies to feminine nouns. On the other hand, consonantal stems can convey masculine, feminine, or neuter gender (Singh, 2005: 80). Pyles and Algeo (1982: 113) state that ‘-a stem’ is the only living declension that are used in Modern English because the possessive (’s) is descended from the genitive singular *-es* of ‘-a stem’ and the plural (s) are descended from the plural *-as* of ‘-a stem’ also.

The gender is also another reason for the various declensions in nouns. The genders in OE are masculine, feminine, and neuter. In OE, gender is not constantly correlating with primarily a semantic division. The system of OE noun is a grammatical system inherited from Proto-Indio European (PIE) language. It means that “the gender assignments of nouns did not necessarily coincide with what we might call ‘natural’ gender, and thus had relevance only within the language system itself; and, second, that all modifiers and referents of the noun showed grammatical agreement with its gender” (Singh, 2005:79), for instance OE ‘*wif*’ linguistically is neuter so that we must refer to it as *hit*= ‘it’ (NE) not *hēo*= ‘she’ (NE). According to other opinions, (Hogg and David, 2006: 53) gender is not a ‘sex’ but it is a system of classification in which each noun must relate to a category that portends its agreement behaviour, for instance, *stān*= stone is masculine so that as its agreement pronoun it takes *hē*, *cild*= child is neuter so that it takes *hit*=it while Platzer (2001) states that connections occur between natural and grammatical gender when OE users in their pronoun reference shifted to natural gender, for instance, in Ælfric’s *Catholic Homilies* the reference of ‘*æinne wifman*’= ‘a woman’ is ‘*hēo*’= ‘she’ but not ‘*hit*’ therefore Platzer concludes that this correlation and turning over the grammatical accordance with pronoun reference mean that the natural gender is not negligible in the late OE period. According to the gender of pronoun, it has two gender subclassification; grammatical and natural ones. In order to differentiate between them we can say that if the pronominalized noun is far from the identifying noun, then it is a natural gender (Traught, 1972: 88).

The pronouns in OE have the same classes as in NE, which are personal, demonstrative, indefinite, and interrogative. The grammatical categories of pronouns are similar to those of nouns and adjectives. The personal pronouns have three persons, first person 'ic = I', second person 'þū = you', and third person 'hē, hēo, hit = he, she, it'. The first and second person consist of three numbers; singular, dual, and plural while the third person having only two numbers (singular and plural) distinguished three genders. The pronouns of the third person have been created from demonstrative pronouns, with many likenesses from them. The nouns always had four cases while personal pronouns start to miss some of their case differences. For instance, the dative forms of the first and second pronouns start to be used in place of accusative; 'ūsic and ēowic' are substituted by the dative 'ūs and ēow'. The genitive cases of personal pronoun have two uses, an object and an attribute or a determiner of a noun like possessive pronouns, for instance, 'sunu mīn= my sun NE'. Concerning the grammatical qualities of personal pronouns, they are not identical. The first and second pronoun forms are declined as adjectives in order to show agreement with the modifying noun, e.g. mīn, ūre while others declined as nouns; they remain not inflected and not matched with the noun they modify (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 102). Personal pronouns have a complete system of inflection due to the need of specific reference when used. OE pronoun displays this inclination by having the distinction of number; between the singular, plural, and dual number, and other distinction of genders, persons, and cases (Baugh and Thomas, 2002: 53).

Demonstrative pronouns are of two types in OE, 'this and that'. The demonstrative pronoun 'that' differentiates between three genders masculine 'sē', neuter 'þæt', and feminine 'sēo' in the Sg. case, but it has one form for all gender when it is in the PL. case 'þā' and the same thing can be said about the demonstrative pronoun 'this'. It differentiates between three genders; masculine 'þes', neuter 'þis', and feminine 'þēos' in the Sg. case, but it has one form for all genders when it is in the PL. case 'þas'. Demonstrative pronouns help to differentiate between numbers and genders, for example with number that is singular 'zesēn þæt word OE= let us see *that event* NE' while with plural 'manize cōmen tō byczenne þā þing OE= many came to buy *those things* NE' and the differentiating between genders can be seen in 'on þām lande OE= on *that land* NE' and 'tō þære heorde OE= to *that herd* NE'. The demonstrative

pronouns decline into five cases: Nom., Gen., Dat., Acc., and instr. (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 104). The origin of definite article comes from the demonstrative ‘sē, sēo, ðæt = that’ while the emphatic ‘Þēs, Þēos, Þis = this’ are used for common demonstrative. The pronominal function represented in the frequent use of it as relative pronoun ‘that, who, which’ or as a personal pronoun ‘he, she, it’ (Baugh and Thomas, 2002: 53). The demonstrative pronouns are used for indicating definiteness. By means of pointing to the thing that I want to express, I make it more definite, for instance, ‘this pen, this book’, etc. I show it to the addressee, by this showing ‘pointing’ or by using the deictic element, I express definiteness.

The possessive case reflects obviousness when there is a kind of agreement between the determiners and the nouns they modify. For instance, ‘Þæs monnes hand= the man’s hand’, here it is clear that the determiner ‘Þæs’ modify the possessor ‘monnes’ in which both of the determiner and the possessor are in the genitive case, but in NE ‘the man’s hand’, it is unclear whether the determiner *the* modifies *man* or *hand* (Traught, 1972: 87). The genitive forms of the personal pronoun are the possessive pronoun in OE, for instance, mīn, ūre, þīn, ēower, and his (Frey, 1966: 46). The possessive case also expresses definiteness, for instance, ‘my father’s book or the girl’s car’; in the first instance, it is expressed by the possessive pronoun *my* which refers to me, nobody else and by means of the genitive *s’* while in the second case, it is expressed by the definite article ‘the’ and by the possessive- genitive *s’* which are means of showing definiteness.

The indefinite pronouns of OE are so numerous which reflect the force of the initial stage of the language, the development that happened in the compound system. Indefinite pronouns in OE are either simple or compound ones. For instance, ‘ān = one NE’ and its derivative ‘ǣnig = any NE’, ‘nān = none NE’ is composed of ān + the negative particle *ne*, and ‘nānþing = nothing NE’ is composed of nān+ the noun þing, etc. (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 104). Indefinite pronoun is also one of the means that are used to express indefiniteness, for instance if we say ‘each student must prepare for the exam’, we do not determine or say exactly who are those who must study or prepare for the exam, whether they are girls or boys, etc.



### 1. 2. 2. Middle English (1050- 1500):-

The Middle English period is characterized by a lot of important changes that took place. Some of these changes happened as a continuation of propensity that starts in OE period or as a result of Norman Conquest. The changes affect the grammar and vocabulary systems of English. In grammar, those changes reduce the inflected system of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and pronouns while the changes that took place in vocabulary involve losing some of OE words and adding others from French and Latin (Baugh and Thomas, 2002: 146).

The great reduction in the inflectional system that inherited from Old English is the characteristic of the Middle English period; therefore ME is known as the period of 'weakened inflections'. This was caused by many reasons; one of them is the mixing between OE and Old Norse. They have different sets of inflections which make their people unaware about which endings to use, as a result they tend to depend on other grammatical devices when these were put to hand. The existence of these devices contributes to the decay of the inflectional system and accordingly these devices motivated through this decay. Another reason is phonological one; the distinctive of the inflectional system of OE has been destroyed by the loss and weakening of unstressed syllable at the ends of words. Consequently, the final word OE '-a, -u and -e' become -e and '-an, -on, -un and -um' become -en in ME. Furthermore, the final -e itself is left out from some of these endings about 1400c; therefore the inflectional system has been affected by these changes. Many endings become so simple due to the identical inflection or declension that it has, for instance, the declension of nouns in -es and -en as in the case of the declension of OE nominative plural in -as '*stānas*' = 'stones NE' and the genitive singular in -es '*stānes*', both of them become -es in ME. The same thing can be applied with the declension of OE in -an to become -en (Barber, Joan, and Philip, 1993: 167).

The procedure of distinction's loss happened in adjectives and demonstratives. The definite article of OE shows three genders which are: masculine 'sē', feminine 'sēo', and neuter 'Þæt'. It is declined through all four cases. In late OE, the form Þe = 'the' emerges as replacement of 'sē' and 'sēo'. All other forms disappear during the late ME course and 'the' used instead of them as the only form of the definite article while 'that' which is declined from the definite article in its nominative and accusative

singular neuter form resembles demonstrative with its distinct meaning. In OE, the definite article played a great role in designing the distinction of case and number. The indeclinable definite article represents a major change in language structure at the end of ME, the natural gender replaces the grammatical gender i.e. we make reference of female as 'she', male as 'he', and inanimate objects as 'it' though there is some exception when we treat ship as 'she' or a human baby as 'it' (ibid: 170).

The indefinite article developed from the OE numeral ( $\bar{a}n$ ) and indefinite pronoun (*sum*). These two words are used in function close to those of the modern indefinite article.  $\hat{A}n$  is used in a colloquial situation while *sum* is used literally till it stopped this kind of use. In early ME, the indefinite pronoun ( $\bar{a}n$ ) loses its inflection. In 13<sup>th</sup> c. the uninflected *oon/one* with their reduction forms *a(n)* existed in all regions. In early ME, the development of articles is related to many internal linguistic factors. One of them is connected with the declension of adjectives especially the loss of the distinction that happened between strong and weak forms. Their weak forms have a demonstrative meaning similar to the modern definite article while strong forms resemble those of indefinite ones that conveyed into numeral ( $\bar{a}n$ ) and indefinite pronoun. The ' $\bar{a}n$  and  $\beta\ae t$ ' will be the only means of expressing definiteness and indefiniteness when the weak and strong forms coincided or when nouns are used without adjectives; therefore the declension of adjectives hastens their movement into articles. Another reason of internal linguistic factors is the change in the function of word order. The word order undertakes a grammatical function after the loss of inflections. It displays a grammatical relation between words of the sentence and accordingly the communicative function passes to the articles which result in regularity of their use. Accordingly, the evolution of the article is associated with changes in morphology and syntax (Van Gelderen, 2006: 43).

The increasing diversity of the noun forms in the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> c. assists to approach changes and intense inclination to simplify and rearrange the declensions. The variations of grammatical forms is twice in height in the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> c. than in 10<sup>th</sup> c. There is direct descendant of the forms of OE with weakened endings of phonetics i.e. 'historical forms' with many corresponding forms that are taken over from more influential classes of morphology. The differences between the forms within the paradigm existing between declensions are erased by the new variants of the

grammatical forms. Rastorguyeva states that “it was possible to mark a form more precisely by using a variant with a fuller ending, but when some of the variants went out of use and the non-distinctive, levelled variants prevailed many forms fell together. Thus after passing through the “variation stage” many formal oppositions were lost” (1983: 223).

The dissolution that happened to the system of OE declension lasts more than 300 years which results in dialectal differences. It begins in the north and spreads to the south of England. The regression of inflectional endings starts in 10<sup>th</sup> c and lasts till the 11<sup>th</sup> c. in the Northern dialect while in the Midlands the decay lasts till 12<sup>th</sup> c. The Southern dialects continue till the end of 13<sup>th</sup> c. The nature of changes that happened to these regional dialects is not equal. For instance, the Southern dialects reposition the noun declension according to the stem and gender distinctions. They use only four markers -es, -en, -e, the root vowel exchange + the zero inflection or the bare stem. Masculine and neutral nouns have strong and weak declension. In the nominative and accusative plurals, nouns end in -es in contrast with neutral nouns that have many variants e.g. fishes (Masc.), land, lande, landes (Neut.). In Northern and Midland dialects, the system of declension is very simple. They follow OE by taking the ending -e(s) of OE masculine in the genitive singular and -e(s) in all cases when it is plural (Baugh and Thomas, 2002: 96).

The existence of gender as a classifying quality disappears from the noun declension. In the late OE and the Middle English (ME), nouns are classed into types of declension in accord with gender instead of stems so that the partition of gender is important in the decay of OE declension system. Semantically, gender is linked with the distinction of sex so that the formal grouping into gender replaced by being semantically divided into animate and inanimate nouns, and animate nouns further subdivided into males and females. Gender is of lexical category in the time of Chaucer. If the nouns denote human beings, they are referred to as ‘he’ or ‘she’. For instance, ‘she wolde wepe, if that she saw a mous, caught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde= she would weep, if she saw a mouse caught in a trap, if it was dead or it bled (NE)’. The pronoun *she* refers to a woman while we find *it* instead of *mous* (Van Gelderen, 2006: 87).

The number of cases is reduced in ME into two cases in comparison with it in OE that is four cases. In OE the forms of Nom. and Acc. cases are the same when they are plural and they synchronized also in some classes when they are singular so that they vanish together in Pl. and Sg. numbers. The Dat. is marked by –e in the southern dialects but after a short time the forms without endings circulate all areas so that the three cases (Nom., Acc., and Dat.) fell together; as a result they are named a ‘common case’ in present-day English. Only the genitive case is continued to be split up from other cases. In the 14c., all singulars Gen. cases ends with –es, with some exception in the instances of (some proper names, names of relationship that ends in –r) while in the pl. Gen. case it does not end with specific marker. It has similar ending – (e)s as the common case but this similarity has expanded to it either from the Gen. sg. or from the common case pl. The formal differences between cases in the pl. is lost except with some nouns that end in weak plural form –en or that have a vowel interchange in which it takes the –e(s) of the Gen. case e.g. ‘oxen-oxenes, men-mennes’. In the 17<sup>th</sup> c. and 18<sup>th</sup> c. the apostrophe is used as a sign of Gen. case for instance, man’s, children’s (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 226).

The gradual reduction of the case-system from OE till NE:-

OE	Early ME	late ME and NE
Nominative	Common	Common
Accusative	Dative	Genitive
Dative	Genitive	
Genitive		

The use of Gen. case is limited, though it exists as a distinct form. In contrast with OE Gen. it can not function as an object but it is used as an attribute for modification of a noun with prepositional phrases ‘of’. The use of Gen. with the preposition *of* is related to OE period, from 10<sup>th</sup> c. but this use instead of the inflectional Gen. increases during 13<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup> c. The Gen. with *of* phrase is used with inanimate nouns while the inflectional Gen. is used with animate ones. For instance, ‘ful worthy was he in his *lordes* were ME= he was very worthy in *his lord’s campaigns* NE’ and ‘he had maad ful many a *marriage of yonge wommen* ME= he made many *marriages of young women* NE’. Other opinions or theories regarding the choice of which Gen. is suitable are in accord with position or word order not only the form. The Gen. of

animate or personal nouns occur before the governing nouns while the Gen. that happens with non-personal or inanimate nouns occurs after it as has been demonstrated in the previous examples (ibid: 226).

The genitive singular of ME nouns is marked by using the -es inflection (*a*-stem declension of OE). In this case, it can not be distinguished in writing and speech from the plural -es inflection, for instance, *eorles* can be either 'earls' or 'earl's' but when it happened in the context we can know to which one it belongs. This form of genitive inflection continues to be used in ME with the omitting of 'e' and putting an apostrophe instead of it before the 's' in spelling. There are some nouns in ME that do not have this genitive marking, for instance, those endings in -er, indicating family relationship, like 'fader= father NE', those nouns that were feminine in OE like '*his lady grace*', and proper names like *God hert* (Burrow and Turville-Petre, 1996: 24).

The grammatical category of number is the most constant among the nominal categories. Through all of the historical periods, the noun keeps the formal distinction of singular and plural numbers. The formal differentiation of number strengthens through the spread of uniform markers of pl. to different morphological classes of noun. The -es ending is the dominant marker as a sign of pl. in late ME and it spreads to more nouns in the early of NE. The -es endings of pl. or the Gen. case experience many changes phonetically, for instance, the loss of the unstressed vowels in final syllable or the voicing of fricatives as in dishes [diʃəs]>[diʃɪz] and bookes [bo:kəs]>[bu:ks]>[buks]. Those pl. endings in -en also lose previous enrichment as those nouns used in NE 'oxen, chidren, and brethern'. It must be mentioned that not all irregular pl. are instances from OE, some of them are taken from other languages as a borrowed word as 'data, nuclei' (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 229).

The pronouns of ME resemble those of OE antecedents. They keep on preserving the distinctions of case, number, gender, and person. The main thing that differs from OE is the loss of OE dual forms and the declining of dative and accusative third person singular forms like 'hine and him'. The pronoun forms differ in accord with the variations of dialects. In the southern dialects, the third person accusative and dative distinction of OE are maintained longer than other dialects till they follow others by adopting one form of object pronoun. The variants in ME period are the *th*-third person

plural forms of the Scandinavian which substitute the Anglo-Saxon *h-* pronouns (Singh, 2005: 119).

In early ME, most of the inflected forms of OE demonstrative pronouns are lost. Only a small number of them are retained. The pronouns that descended from them are ‘that and this’; *that* works as the sg. of all genders and cases. The plural of early ME is ‘thise/thes(e), tho/thos(e)= this/these, that/those NE’. The development of OE demonstrative pronouns also leads to the forming of the definite article; the changes in form and meaning lead to this evolution. The pronouns of OE text like *sē, sēo, þæt* are constantly used with weakened meaning as a determiner of a noun. For instance, ‘*hēr Offa Miercna cyning hēt Æbelbryhte þæt hēafod of slēan*= this year Offa, king of Mercia, ordered the head of Athelbriht to be cut off NE’, then in the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> c. this use has been of wide spread (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 235).

The case, number, and gender inflectional paradigms of OE nouns have been erased when inflectional reduction to (*-e and schwa*) takes place by the end of twelfth century. The plural dative *-um*, the case of inflectional endings with a final nasal, seems to be lost before the vowel transform to schwa. The plural and genitive of nouns are marked by using inflections that belong to patterns of OE declensions. The plurals of OE are formed either by *-es* (a- stem declension, from *-as* OE) as in ‘*stān~ stānas*’ or by *-en* (n- stem declension, from *-an* OE) as in ‘*hunta ~ huntan*’. The use of these inflections takes place in accord with the dialectal divisions; the *-en* plural is used in southern dialects while the *-es* plural is used in the northern dialects (Singh, 2005: 119).

### 1. 2. 3. New English (1500- to the present day English):-

The indefinite article of modern English *a(n)* comes from the unstressed form of OE *ān* = 'one'. Because of the absence of stress, the vowel was shortened in OE, and then the final -n is lost before consonants in ME to become *a(n)*. The article (*a*) occurs before consonant 'a father' and an before vowel 'an uncle' (Barber, Joan, and Philip, 1993: 176). In the 18c, there is a pattern to be used in NPs. This pattern requires anyone to choose either definite or indefinite system and to use only one item from the system of determination. With determiners like 'the and some', the choice is very simple because they express definiteness but in the case of possessive pronouns like 'my friend', in one sense it expresses definiteness but in other sense it expresses indefiniteness by saying 'a friend of mine'. The indefinite article has the same rules during (1570) in form as present day English but there is a little difference because of the relative rareness in which an initial *h* is sounded, e.g. an hair, an happy end while now we say the hair, the happy end. The function of indefinite article is more stable than the definite one in previous periods. It is not used after 'many' e.g. 'many one' but it can be used before it, e.g. 'a many' (Strang, 1970: 137).

The definite article is omitted before vowels in formal and informal style. Since the beginning of the recorded English, the function of the definite article has grown stably in scope and clarity. In (1570-1770), there is a sort of hesitation in some cases of usage. The definite article is used before the names of languages and subjects but not regularly, e.g. (the) French, (the) physics but today we use the definite article constantly before diseases, e.g. the toothache, the plague. In (1600), the names of rivers are used without article (ibid: 137).

The structure of NP does not change since ME. Concerning the ordering of elements, its rule return to the evidence of earlier record, for example, the prop-word 'one'; it functions after the article. The term 'prop-word' is associated with the use of *one* as a replacement of a noun as in 'two green balloons and a red one'; here *one* replaces *balloons* not only to avoid repetition but also to fill the place instead of balloons. The uses of *one* has undergone changes, it is since 1800 that the use of non-numeral *one* followed the determiner as in 'the *one* preferred'. The plural *ones* is used to split the numeral use from the prop-use of *one* as in 'all the *ones* in fat grey envelops'. Another use of *one* is its correspondence with 'that and those', for instance, 'the *ones*

*that concern me*'. A *one*, concerning its use, is disparaging, related to the mid of 19c. In colloquial speech, we can find 'this/that one' or 'those/ones' but not 'these ones' in which now in modern or new English its use is much more as a context of selection than a context of identification. In the same century, *one* is used after possessive pronoun as in 'while he attacked his pile, she began on *her one*' while recently it has been used after genitive noun as in 'her parasol is finer than her *sister's one*' (Traught, 1972: 88).

The pronouns of early modern English that are used more than others are the second person singular and plural pronouns: *thou/thee* and *ye/you*. The subject *ye* and the object *you* fall together in pronunciation which result in the random use of any of these pronouns in any function by the beginning of early modern English. But by 16 c., *ye* has been stopped from use. The other development that happened in this period is that the difference between *thou/thee* and *ye/you* becomes more connected with social dynamics of interaction than with number. After that, the pronouns '*ye/you*' used for addressing social superiors while '*thou/thee*' used for addressing social inferiors. Furthermore, the equals of lower class exchange reciprocal *thou/thee* and the equals of the upper class exchange *ye/you*. Gradually, this distinction between pronouns uses makes *thou/thee* used to indicate intimacy or informality while *ye/you* used to indicate formality. The use of *thou* has declined by the end of 17c. and becomes restricted to use of archaic dialect and quotations of bible (Brown and Gilman, 1960: 256).

The Modern English personal pronoun till now maintains the distinctions of OE case, number, and gender. For instance, the subject and object pronoun as 'I and me', singular and plural forms, and the gender: of third person masculine, feminine and neuter 'he, she, it'. The distinctions that lost from OE are the singular and plural forms of second person which are represented by *You* in Modern English, the dual pronoun that used to refer to two people '*wit= we NE*', and the third person of *H* forms for nominative *hī = 'they'*, for accusative *hī = 'them'*, for dative *him, heom = 'them'*, and for genitive *hira, heora= 'their(s)'* that are substituted by the forms of Old Norse *Pai, Peim, Peir(e)* – the progenitor of *they, them, their* (Singh, 2005: 85).



The personal pronoun differentiates between singular and plural, for instance ‘singular I versus plural we’ and ‘he vs. they’ etc... but the pronoun *it* is neutralized i.e. used with both singular and plural instances. The pronoun *you* in Modern English somehow differs in use from that of OE. The semantics of *you* is ambiguous; it can mean singular and plural but grammatically, we treat it as if it is plural even if it is meant something singular, for instance, ‘you (Ali) are to go but not \* you (Ali) is to go’. In OE, the treatment of it differs; the neutralization does not happen. For instance, ‘þu=thou’ occurs with singular while ‘ge=you’ occurs with plural (Traugott, 1972: 88).

At the beginning of (1570), the indefinite pronouns changed. It has the function as pronominal and adjective. *Many and many one* function as pronouns but ‘many one’ becomes ‘many a one’ in the late of (1770) in accord with the development of the pro- word ‘one’. At the beginning of (1570), one means someone, but when the pro-use increased, the use of *someone* dwindles. At the end of this period, the meaning of ‘some’ used literary to mean ‘a certain person’ but now it is used to mean ‘certain people’. The indefinite pronoun ‘me’ continued to be used till the late of the (ME) to mean ‘one, they, people’ as in ‘cloþes þar me casteþ yn’ = ‘clothes that people throw in’. In earlier period, the indefinite pronoun ‘me’ has a different phonological shape ‘man’ but later in (ME) it manifests as ‘me’ that is similar with the weak form of the indirect weak form of first person singular pronoun, this collision is responsible for its loss (Strang, 1970: 199).

Görlach stated that possessive pronouns ‘*my/mine* and *thy/thine*’ are determined phonologically, i.e. *my/thy* are used before nouns that begin with a consonant (my book) and *mine/thine* are used before those begin with vowels (thine apple) but during early modern English period, their use become grammatical ones. For instance, *my* and *thy* functions as possessive pronouns when used attributively as in ‘*that is my car*’ and *mine/thine* functions as possessive pronouns when used nominally as in ‘*that’s mine*’ (1991: 86).

In 16 c, the function of the genitive (*his*) is the same as the genitive (*it’s*) of present English (PE). People feel so unstable about non-personal *his* because grammatical gender is absent from the language as now and because the ± personal contrast is regular in this part of grammar (Strang, 1970: 141). The possessive inflection

of genitive singular that goes down from (*a-* stem of OE) continued to be used in Early Modern English when it is attached to Singular nouns by adding '*s or 's*' to it. In the 16 c., the use of this apostrophe was optional but it is sequentially enlarged in usage in the 18 c. when it was fully accepted. The possession of plural nouns is marked only by putting an apostrophe to the plural nouns as in '*the dogs' dishes*'. The genitive 'his' and 'of' phrase are also used in early Modern English, for instance, '*Moses his meekness and the sins of the father*' (Görlach, 1991: 81).

In the 16<sup>th</sup> c., the term 'self' appears in use in combination with possessive pronouns of attributive use to indicate reflexivity as in '*myself, yourself, herself....*' or to express objective pronouns as in '*himself, themselves*'. It is obvious that 'self' is marked for number which means "this is now the only part of the standard pronoun system where a singular~plural distinction holds for the second person pronoun (as in *yourself~yourselves*)" (Singh, 2005: 159). The difference between reinforcing and reflexive reading is that the reflexive meaning can be indicated by the repetition of personal pronouns after the verb as in 'ete we and fede us= let us eat and feed ourselves' (Barbara 1970: 198). The reflexive pronoun is used in emphatic and intensive purpose in early modern English while the ordinary pronoun is used in the normal cases, for instance 'ile hide me' = 'I will hide myself NE' (Barber, Joan, and Philip, 1993: 197).

In previous centuries, there are changes made on the sign of plurality. The words that end with (-n) plurals have changed in 1600 to (-s) as a sign of plurality, for instance, '*eyen, hosen, shoon* to be eyes, houses, shoos' but there are some words that remain with (-n) endings as a sign of plurality like 'children, oxen, brethren'. Among words that have (-n) ending which is used now as a singular is 'chicken' which is the old plural of *chick*. This result in the development of a regular new plural; *chick* serves only to be more special form than the old one (Strang, 1970: 136).

## Chapter Two

### The Devices of the Category of Definiteness and Indefiniteness in Modern English:

#### 2. 1. The Definite and Indefinite Noun Phrases:

Definiteness is the category which differentiates between definite noun phrase as *the house* and an indefinite noun phrase as *a house*. '*The*' is the definite article and *a(n)* is the indefinite one. The problem is what makes a noun phrase definite or indefinite because not all noun phrases occur with articles. Many researchers assume definiteness to be a semantic or pragmatic category; whether an element of meaning is made by the lexical components of the definite article '*the*' or that they resemble other grammatical categories as tense, person, or number which are expressed by a separate word but not an inflection. The first view is connected with 'familiarity hypothesis' and those who work in pragmatics while the second view is connected with 'uniqueness hypothesis' and those who work in semantics (Lyons, 1999: 125).

The former hypothesis is due to the familiarity of the referent to the communicants because it has already been mentioned. For example, if we have:

- Ali has purchased *a* house.
- *The* house was built over a century ago.

we know that the house has been mentioned before as 'a house' and now it is known to the addressee and this is the anaphoric use of *the* ; therefore it is familiar and is referred to as a definite noun phrase. The idea of familiarity appears to be suitable to a number of other usages; the referent is known to the addressee in some situational usages. For example, 'if a woman tells her husband that it is his turn to clean the bedroom', he will suppose that she means their bedroom that forms part of their living situation and not of others. The familiarity can also be due to general knowledge; if one mentions 'the Pope', the addressee will know which entity the pope refers to even if he does not know him personally. The associative or bridging cross reference can be seen as a link between the general knowledge and anaphoric uses. This is done when the reference is connected with something known to the addressee and already mentioned. For instance, it is possible to talk about the seats, the driver, and the fare when a ride in a taxi has been mentioned (ibid: 126).

Lyons (1999) states that familiarity which is required for definiteness is essential to the addressee but not the speaker even when an indefinite noun phrase is used. For example:

- When you go shopping get me *a* toothbrush.

The indefinite noun phrase (a toothbrush) does not mean that it denotes indefiniteness. It means a toothbrush, something different from other things. A toothbrush is familiar to me and I know what it is. According to Rzyev (unpublished paper: 17), this is a gradable approach in which all notions are gradable from the point of the degree of definiteness and indefiniteness. For example, 'a toothbrush'; its first grade is definiteness in the sense that it is one of the things which are named 'toothbrush' used for brushing the teeth and it differs from pens, knives, books, etc, in this sense these differences make definiteness. In the second grade, it can denote indefiniteness if I say for instance 'give me a toothbrush' I don't know which one but if it is known to me I should say 'would you please give me the toothbrush'.

The familiarity principle is not always helpful to know the referent of the definite noun phrase so the addressee may work with the principle of inferencing or identifiability to know it. For instance, in the context of a village, if the speaker tells the addressee who is newer to the village that he will meet him outside the chemist's shop at three. At first, he may find difficulty as a newer to the village but when he supposes that at the end he will find it, the definite reference will be successful. Sometimes definiteness indicates that there is just one referent of the noun phrase; according to the last example, the reference of the chemist's shop works not because the addressee decides to find it but due to the fact that there is only one such a shop in the village. Both uniqueness and identifiability work here in this example because there is only one such a shop; the addressee is able to identify it (Lyons, 1999: 127). I can argue that how can we call a NP definite if it is not familiar to us. Familiarity is an important principle in making a definite NP.

When definite and indefinite terms are used with noun phrases, one can treat them in two different ways as a formal category (a) from the syntactic features of definiteness and indefiniteness and (b) when a definite NP is favored to indefinite one or when indefinite NP is preferred to a definite one; in this case we will be concerned with semantico – pragmatic category. An NP which is marked formally as definite can be

anticipated to have semantico – pragmatic meaning which differentiates between definite and indefinite NP. There are many cases of discrepancy between formal and semantic definiteness. As claimed by Declerck (1986: 25) that “some types of nonreferential NP that are formally definite yield an indefinite interpretation” as in ‘students are behaving wrongly but some are good’. Van Langendonck (1971) claimed that “generic indefinites function semantically as definite” as in ‘a book is made of paper’ and Prince (1981) claimed that “informal English uses *this* with the indefinite meaning of a (an)”. For example, if we say *what do you mean by this?* or *I don’t like this*, ‘*This*’ does not mean something definite, it depends on the situational use. It can take place only on those cases in which the listener is not aware of what the speaker is talking about. *This* does not function as a demonstrative (cited from Declerck, 1986: 25). “*Claiming hasn’t been proved by any explanation or examples*”.

Traditionally, the term ‘noun phrase’ has been used to describe any phrase which consists of a noun as its head and is able to function as subject or object in a sentence. The structure of noun phrases has become a controversial issue because some linguists assert that noun phrases are headed by nouns while other linguists maintain that the head of the noun phrase must be ‘the determiner’ as in the definite article *the* in ‘the butter on the table’ so noun phrases should be called ‘determiner phrases’ according to those theorist (Payne, 1999: 258). The idea that noun is the dominant element is not always true, for example, if I say ‘I have come here for fulfilling my master’s degree thesis’, the preposition ‘for’ requires the following nouns to be used in a definite case form, so that the preposition or the determiner or the conjunction is the dominant or the basic element but not the noun.

Declerck states that the noun phrase that occurs in a copular sentence can be either predicational or specificational. The predicational one serves to denote quality or characteristic but not pick out a referent; in this case nonreferential is an equivalent of predicational and can be either indefinite or definite respectively as in the examples below even if it is not referential:

- John is a good man.
- John is the acme of courtesy.

On the other hand, specificational sentence occurs when the NP of the copular sentence as the subject specifies a value representing a variable in the predicate nominal. The specification of such a sentence makes the variable possible to be identified; it means to pick out the person or thing to be more definite, for instance:

- The winner is Fred Smith.
- The only man that can help you is the president himself.

In the first example, the variable is the head of the sentence ‘the one who is- the winner’ while the value is identified as ‘Fred smith’, the same thing can be said of the second example. The distinction between referential and nonreferential definiteness is that in referential NPs the use of definite NP suggests that the object referred to is uniquely defined by the speaker on the basis of definite description and contextual or situational knowledge in the referential or attributive sense while indefinite NP does not suggest this. Secondly, NPs that are definite imply inclusive interpretation while indefinite NPs imply exclusive interpretation (1986: 27), as in:

- Please call in the children. Its time for supper. (inclusive interpretation)
- Please call in some children. (exclusive interpretation)

Kuno states that in nonreferential copular sentences, the predicate denotes a property, not a referent. Definite NP denotes a property that is ‘uniquely determined’ and the complete set of object of the property while indefinite NP does not. For example:

- John is a good player.
- John and Bill are the good players.

In the first example, the indefinite property NP does not imply a complete set of good players because it can denote other players therefore the referent of the subject is not uniquely determined while in the second example, the property of NP denotes the complete set therefore the property determines John and Bill uniquely (1970: 356).

## 2. 2. The Articles:

In English, the definite article ‘the’ is a definite determiner which makes the noun phrase definite; indefiniteness is indicated by the indefinite article “a(n)” but there are many indefinites which are used without article and this led to the supposition that ‘many, these, several’ are indefinite determiners. Unlike other determiners, both definite and indefinite articles are unstressed, which expresses their lack of semantic content (Lyons, 1999: 130).

The definite and indefinite articles (the, a, an) as determiners always occur before a noun phrase. Other forms of determiners are deictic (this, that, these, those), possessive forms of noun or pronoun (John’s, my, her, his) and others like some, any, every. Therefore, the determiner can be defined as “any word or construction which is a constituent in an NP and which determines that a noun must follow” (Lapalombara, 1976: 182).

- *The* boy, *a* boy, *an* apple in a dish
- *This* idiotic, overly strong dog who won’t stop licking me

The above idea is somehow not always true. The X-bar theory gives preference to heading the phrase not by nouns but by adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, or prepositions etc. For example, the preposition requires not only a noun to follow but also a verb as in ‘in order to go...’. The determiners can be found if I say for example; ‘*the*’ and we want to mention a proper name like ‘Moscow’; it determines that I should use a common but not a proper noun, but this is not true for all cases. In the meaning of “typical” or “like”, the indefinite article *a(n)* can require even a proper noun which is not typical for ordinary cases. For example:

- An Ataturk is needed in present day Turkey to solve the severe economic and political problems in the society.

(An Ataturk ) means “a person of Ataturk type” and as a general assumption it can hardly be justified, but only in specific cases the determiners can acquire meanings such as “typical” or “a like” (Rzayev, unpublished paper: 16).

We use *a* when the word following it begins with a consonant (e.g. a baby, a car, a devoted wife); and *an* when the following word begins with a vowel sound (e.g. an army, an interesting book, an ugly face). Consequently, there are cases in which we use

*an* but not *a* although the following word begins with a consonant due to the fact that the consonant that begins a word is silent and not pronounced like (an honest). The other case in which we use *a* but not *an* although the following word begins with a vowel due to the fact that this vowel is pronounced as a consonant like (a one-side), the ‘o’ is pronounced as /w/ and (a eucharist), the ‘eu’ is pronounced as /you/ (Clark, 1958: 9).

The definite article indicates that the noun it matches with has been fully recognized in some way. If for example someone says *the boy* we know what boy he means. The identification might have been made in previous sentence as in:

- We saw a boy and a dog. The boy was whistling.

The identification can be known not just from the previous sentence but from the modification of the noun as in:

- The dog that was carrying the stick.....

But sometimes the uses of the definite article have no logical model, for example there is no reason why in an example like ‘Ahmed is in the office’ *office* happens to be used with *the* while ‘Ahmed is in school’ *school* with *no article* (Robert, 1967: 27). I can argue that in the case of ‘the office’, *the* is used when Ahmed goes to the office as a guest but not as a clerk or officer while in the second case ‘school’ is used without ‘the’ because Ahmed is a student at school not a visitor or guest; therefore if the building is used for the purpose it holds behind, no article used with it.

Traught states that the main function of definite and indefinite articles is to beckon what supposition the speaker is making about what knowledge is familiar or unknown to him and the listener (1972: 41). For instance, if I say:

- Do you want *a* ticket?
- What ticket?

I can say that this type of question is called ‘display question’ in the sense that I ‘the questioner’ know the answer but the questionee does not know the answer; in this sense familiarity goes with the one who asks; therefore my answer is ‘what ticket?’. ‘What’ shows that I am completely unaware, I completely do not know what you are speaking about because if I knew my answer would be ‘which ticket?’, ‘which’ is a suitable answer to question like ‘Do you want *the* ticket?’, ‘Which’ denotes a choice of



something 'known'. The 'display question' also functions as if we change our roles, as if the questioner becomes the questionee and the questionee becomes the questioner. If I say:

- Do you want a ticket to "Dracula", Prince of Denmark?
- \*what ticket?

No such supposition will apply to such a sentence and the answer like 'what ticket?' will be unsuitable. Here 'a ticket' is specified by being a thing that allows someone to attend some activities; from this view point 'a ticket' does not mean something indefinite, it means one and definiteness. This is a gradable approach from the point of view of being known or not. Any Phenomenon may denote definiteness or indefiniteness that may be emerged from the context.

'The' supposes the noun has been referred to before or what is named "given, known material". Known material can be "culturally known" or "socially known" for instance, *the* moon, *the* president. On the other hand, in many cases, *a(n)* indicates that the noun has not been referred to before "new information". This is why the following sentence must refer to two girls not only one.

- A girl is reading. A girl is crying.

If the girl is the same one being referred to, we must say:

- A girl is reading. The girl is crying.

But in cases like this one, the personal pronoun 'she' is preferred to be used instead of 'the' to indicate the "mentioned before" idea (Traught, 1972: 41).

Biber et al. (1999) mention that the reference of examples like these mentioned above is anaphoric reference which is based on the preceding text but sometimes the definite article signals the indirect anaphoric reference in which the connection is inferred rather than signaled by repetition, for example:

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

In this example, once a car has been mentioned, we can refer to things that are connected with a car as if they are contextually given, e.g. 'the vehicle, the light'. It means the use of definite article depends upon the previous text and pragmatic knowledge (264).

Di Pietro states that the definite article is an element which is found in the surface structure in the grammar of English and other languages. In some languages, the determiner works as a suitable device to identify other elements of surface grammar like number, gender, and case inflection. In English, indefiniteness yields a(n) or zero article (in connection with plural) while definiteness gives 'the'. The use of an adjective with a noun of profession demands the production of an indefinite article:

- He is a good professor.

But with the addition of number inflection, there is no production of an indefinite article (1971: 94), for instance:

- They are professors *or* they are good professors.

Long (1961) states that the origin of the definite article '*the*' is the unstressed demonstrative *that*. It functions as less powerful equivalent of *this* and *that*. For example:

- How do you like *the* book?
- How do you like *this* book?

I can argue that the pointing element is stronger with '*the*' than with the demonstrative '*this*' because demonstrativeness, pointing to something means that you point to something restricted, you can not make a step neither to the right nor to the left, but *the* is free from such kind of restriction. There is similar directing of concentration but with less dependence on conspicuousness than selection of the means of pointing. For example, if I address someone saying 'this girl', then all other girls are left aside, but if I say 'the girl', it can involve much more information; *the girl that I saw yesterday, the girl that is sitting face to face with me etc.* It is dependent on context but its scope is wider than that of demonstrative. In a characteristic manner, *the* shows that identification completely depends on the obviousness of situation or context. The other function of 'the' is as '*a classifier*' for example:

- The lion is a dangerous animal.
- The lion is lying under the bush over there.

In the first example, '*the lion*', we do not mean 'the lion I saw yesterday', but we mean the whole class. In this sense, depending on the context, '*the*' is much wider than its other wider meaning when I compare it with *this*. In the second example, *the* already has narrowed. Therefore; *the* can express both narrower and wider meaning.

The indefinite article according to Biber et al. is used in order to narrow down the reference of the noun following it to a single member of a class or to introduce a new specific entity in discourse, then the following references are used in the form of definite NP or personal pronoun, e.g. ‘A cat was the victim of a cruel attack when *she* was shot in the nick by a pallet’. Sometimes the indefinite article is used in the context in order not to refer to any specific individuals, e.g. ‘I m looking for *a* millionaire’ or to classify an entity, e.g. ‘my husband is an engineer’ or can be used generically in order to declare what is standard of any member of a class, e.g. ‘*a* doctor is not better than his patient’ (1999: 260).

The use of definite article in contrast to its ordinary patterning in modern English can be done by marking representative singulars which are frequent as in ‘*The* American husband is willing to help with the dishes’ while representative plurals are much less frequent as in ‘Warm salt water is good for *the nerves*’ (Long, 1961: 294).

Originally the indefinite article *a(n)* developed from the old English *ān* which originally was involved in identification of number. If we say ‘I want an A in the course’, the singular number is unemphasized but if we say ‘I want one A in the course’ the use of numeral donates number principle importance and an example like ‘he comes twice a week’ here the *a* historically means (the preposition *on* but not one); though there are cases in which the indefinite article is more connected semantically to one as in ‘I will be back in a day or two’ (Roberts, 1967: 28; Long, 1961: 299). Sometimes the indefinite article *a(n)* has the same meaning as ‘any’ for example ‘An island is *a* piece of land entirely surrounded by water’ (Onions, 1971:144). As I have mentioned the indefinite article historically derived from or is identical with “one”.

one  
 ān/  
 \     a (an)

“ān” in its continuity existence, it went into these two lines. In its stressed form, it developed into ‘one’, but in its unstressed form, it developed into a(n). So its indefiniteness comes from its unstressed version.

To identify simply by putting in a category is a feature use of the indefinite article *a(n)*. Singular forms of pluralizers should have determiners in most constructions in which ‘*a*’ is the smallest determiner. *A* indicates that what is recognized by it has not been mentioned before in the context but after the first mentioning continues to be important. Sometimes the identification of *a(n)* is just momentary consequence as in ‘I got a cup of coffee at nine then worked till eleven’ or to introduce additional classification as in ‘Harris is a sensitive, imaginative person. *A* is a full determinative in its syntax, though it identifies in terms of membership in a category as in the example of Harris. *A new car* is fully determined as *that new car* but the determinative pronoun like *such*, *many*, and *what* requires the indefinite *a* to follow it as in ‘I hadn’t realized what a long trip we would have’ (Long, 1961: 299).

The cardinality term expresses amount or quantity like *numerals* or words like *many*; for example, (one man) and (many houses) are not precise, not exact, so that words as (one) and (many) are described as indefinite determiners. This analysis seems incorrect because if we say (the one man and the many houses), it turns out to be definite due to the presence of the definite article “the”. So the presence or absence of a sign of definiteness is what makes the noun phrase definite or indefinite. If this seems to be true; “*a*” is a sign of singular count noun phrase, a type of a weak form of ‘*one*’, and not a sign of indefiniteness (Lyons, 1999: 130).

The treatment of grammarians of the words *a(n)* and *the* was at first uncertain and varied as they found no clear precedent in Latin and as few of them took notice of Greek. The grammarians classify articles into four types:

1. As signs of cases, the articles may be linked strongly with words like *of*, *by*, *with*, and *to*.
2. As linked with substantives but differ from the signs of cases.
3. They can be inserted with another part of speech.
4. They may be dealt with as a part of speech, i.e. they can be taken separately as an independent part of speech (Michael, 1970: 350).

The first classification is concerned with treating the articles as ‘sign of cases’ by those grammarians who wish English had cases just like Latin. Articles can be found with words like (of, by, with, and to) because if we say for example, ‘the color of the

flower” is used with a definite article. The cases of English are distinguished from Latin by the signs being put before the noun not at the end of it. The sign of the genitive was *of*, of the dative was *tō*, the nominative missed such signs so they treat the article as a sign of cases on the ground that it preceded the noun (ibid: 350). The declension of book will be as follows:

1. Nom. *bōc* → a book
2. Gen. *bōc - es* → of a book
3. Dat. *boc - e* → to a book
4. Acc. *bōc* → the book

Entick (1728) includes *a (n)* among ‘signs of cases’ when he describes declining a noun by case as “repeating the noun with its article” (2). Here, Entick equals articles with signs of cases (Cited from Michael, 1970: 351).

The second classification of articles by Michael (1970: 352) is regarded as “link or attachment to substantives”, as clarifying feature of the substantive which could be preceded by an article. In an attempt to elucidate the status of the article, it is natural to use the opposite relationship. This attempt is done through:

1. Calling the article as ‘sign of a substantive’ to distinguish it from the sign of cases.
2. Calling the article an accident of the substantive.
3. Describing the article according to its function when it attaches a substantive not in terms of what the article is.

The third classification is “being within another part of speech”. The articles are contained within one of the four parts of speech which are the adjective, pronoun, preposition and particle. The mainly usual classification is within the adjectives. W. Turner (1710) was the only grammarian to treat “*an*” as an adjective and “*the*” as pronoun (ibid: 354).

The fourth classification is “being a primary part of speech”. Some grammarians assumed that the article is a ninth part of speech but they had some hesitant therefore they discuss it among the pronouns as has been stated by Jonson (1640) (ibid: 355).

Many linguists embrace unstressed “*some*” in the article system, for example Quirk et al. describe “*some*” as “the light quantitative article” (1972: 150), after that Quirk et al. include it amid the uses of the zero article because it is occasionally the equivalent plural and noncount of *a(n)* (1985: 274). On the same way Yotsukura (1970:53) talks about unstressed *some* as an article when he gives an example that:

- “There are some boys there” is the equivalent plural of “There is a boy there”.

The zero article is used with plurals and uncountable nouns; it means to happen with nouns without an overt determination. For example, ‘remember to buy salt’. There are cases in which the zero form of the indefinite article comes to be found as an alternation with the unstressed *some*:

- Would you like (some) milk?

The difference here between using *some* or not is that when adding (some), the focus will be on the quantity of milk but when we do not add (some), the focus will be on the category as a whole (Quirk et al., 1985: 275-76). Duškova asserts this case by saying “instances which allow the choice between *some* and zero support the assumption that the indefinite article has a zero form, occurring in complementary distribution with *a(n)*, and in alternation with *some*” (2000: 38). Vachek also states that when we want to make indefiniteness more emphatic, we replace indefinite article by *one* or *some* for instance (he looked at her as if she were *some* monster). There is a difference between *some* and *any*; while *some* expresses indefiniteness, *any* denotes arbitrary generality. For instance, ‘you should read *some* thrilling book, then you will forget all your troubles, you see, *any* good detective story will do’ (1975: 53). The other difference between *some* and *any* is that *some* is usually used in affirmative sentences like ‘there is *some* chalk on the board’ but *any* is used in negative as in ‘there is not *any* chalk on the board’ and interrogative sentences ‘is there *any* chalk on the board?’ (Hornby, 1966: 81).

In contrast to the opinion of Hornby, Rzayev states that we can use both ‘*some*’ and ‘*any*’ in interrogative clause. For instance, when the teacher asks one of his students to go and check whether there is an empty room or not. The teacher can ask by using two interrogative clauses:

- Is there *anyone* in the class?
- Is there *someone* in the class?

In the first examples, the teacher asks and does not know whether the class is empty or not so he asks by using *anyone*, but when the teacher sees the reaction of the student by sudden opening and shutting the door, this gives him a clue that there is somebody in the class so he asks by using *someone* as in the second example. We use *someone* when the questioner is sure but not to a full extent that there is somebody in the class, so he will get a positive answer but when he uses *anyone*, he can get any of the possible answer (unpublished paper: 25).

I can say that “Some” is of dual nature; some as “indefinite numeral” and as “indefinite pronoun”. *Some* can express indefiniteness when it functions as indefinite pronoun. *Some* also shows indefiniteness from the point of numeral system but requires the noun to be in a plural case, but from the point of being an indefinite pronoun, *some* expresses ‘oneness’ as in “some peter is waiting for you outside”, here *some* in the sense a person whom I don’t know.

The zero article can express definite meaning as has been demonstrated in (Quirk et al., 1985: 276-81) in cases like:

1. The zero article with a singular count noun as complement: if the predicative NP expresses a unique role, in this case the zero article is in alternation with the definite article:
  - Maureen is (the) captain of the team.
2. The zero article with the meaning of transport:
  - Travel/leave/come/go by bicycle- bus- car. In contrast with:
  - Take the bicycle; be on the bus etc...
3. Means of communication:
  - Communicate by radio, telephone. In contrast with :
  - Talk on the radio, Ali is on the telephone.
4. Times of day and night:
  - At dawn/ daybreak, at sunrise/sunset. In contrast with:
  - Watch the dawn, we admired the sunset.

5. Seasons:
  - In (the) winter/summer.
6. Meals:
  - Stay for/have breakfast, tea, lunch.
7. Illnesses:
  - Anemia, influenza.....In contrast with:
  - (the) flu, (the) measles.
8. Parallel structures:
  - arm in arm, face to face, day by day ...
9. Fixed phrases including preposition:
  - at home, by hand, on foot.
10. Vocatives:
  - Teacher- Teacher- Teacher.
11. Block language which is found in labels, notices, newspaper headlines, etc...
  - *Fire kills teenager after hoax.*

Sometimes the absence of a determiner with proper names can not be easily recognized whether it refers to zero or no article for instance:

- I like cheese.
- I like Iraq.

Yotsukura distinguishes between them by using the definite article in the first example of 'the zero article' to be 'I like the cheese' to mean a particular type of cheese while in the second case 'no article', it can not be used to be '\*I like the Iraq'(1970: 68). Chesterman differentiates between the zero and null article according to the type of reference denoted by the overt absence of a determiner by mentioning that the nouns with zero articles are indefinite whereas nouns with null article are definite (1991: 45). But Vachek says that there are some set phrases in which the article is not used though it may seem to be required for example, *London University* in which there is no article used here because the purpose behind using it is not to mention it as a building but the purpose it serves, for instance, if a person goes to university as researcher, he will say 'I will go to university' without using '*the*', but if someone goes as a visitor, he will say 'I will go to *the* university', and the same claim has been made by Hornby when he said that "the absence of the indefinite article before such nouns points to the idea of



purpose” (1966: 117). But according to (Rzayev, unpublished paper: 7), *London University* without using ‘*the*’ denotes locality; gives information that this university is located in London, but when we say ‘the Suleyman Demirel University’, *the* is used here to denote the name of the university. Vachek states that there are also abstract nouns which can be used without article because they are used as proper names for example, ‘father’, ‘mother’ when they are used by their family members’ or ‘teacher’ when it is used by his class members’(1975: 53).

### 2. 3. Determiners:

Determiners are one of the classes of function words which are used to specify the noun (Biber et al., 1999: 258). Some of them occur with countable nouns while others with uncountable nouns. Determiners are of many types, some of them functions as pronouns like (my, our, their, your, her, his, and its), as adjectives (few, many, little, much) or as nouns (this, that, and johns). The determiners (the, a(n), my, our, your, their) always function as determiners while other words sometimes as determiners or as nominals. In order to distinguish between these two functions, we substitute the word by (the) as in:

- This (the) meat is tainted.

While if (the) can not replace the word as in ‘this # (the) is not true’, it means that *this* is not a determiner (Christophersen and Sandved, 1969: 69). So any word that comes into view in a place of premodification of nominal segment and is not a determiner, it is an adjective in that position (Darbyshire, 1967: 110).

Determiners are divided into three groups in accord with their position in the noun phrase; the first group is ‘Central Determiners’ which include *articles* as (a(n) and the), *demonstratives* (this/these, that/those), *possessives* (his, your, my), and *quantifier* (each, every, no, any, some). The second group is ‘Post-Determiners’ which are used after central determiner. They include *numbers* as (first, second, two....) e.g. ‘He lives on the second floor’; and *quantifiers* as (many, several) e.g. ‘his several attempts to fix the door finally worked out’. The final group, as ‘Pre-Modifiers’ mainly includes *quantity* expressions that are used before central determiners as (all, both, half, double, once, three, four... times) e.g. ‘Both my two daughters visit us four times a year’

(Salim, 2006:168). In all these three groups, definiteness and indefiniteness can be expressed in accord with the meaning they denote.

Determiners are not one of the word classes used in traditional grammar. Some pupil may think of determiners as adjective, as a separate word class but infact, they are not because they do not have the distribution that the adjectives have. Firstly, any determiner occurs at the beginning of the noun phrase and can precede adjectives e.g. the (white) paper but not \*white the paper. Secondly, there is generally only one determiner in each noun phrase whilst long strings of adjectives can occur in any language as an open class e.g. which old, flea-ridden, skinny.....white cat? but \*which this cat. Thirdly, the two word classes are different morphologically; we can say old ~ older but not all ~ aller. Finally, determiners are a closed class while adjectives are an open class (Tallerman, 1998: 38).

The adjectives are divided into limiting and descriptive adjectives. The limiting adjectives distinguish between the two subdivisions which are *determiners* and *numeratives* which in turn have many subdivisions. If we have a noun expression like (*this house, a big house*), the determiner *this* and *a(n)* are used as identificational character of specimens. The determiners are divided into two classes, *definite* and *indefinite*. One characteristic of definite determiner is that they can be preceded by the numerative *all* while indefinite determiner can not as in (*all the water* and *\*all some water*). The definite determiner is any possessive adjective (*my house, John's book*) and a word like "the, this (these), that (those)", etc. The identifying determiners can be clarified through possession (*Johns' book*), spatial relation to the speaker (*my house*), description (*the house I saw*), situational characteristics (*the sky*), the supposition of earlier mention of speech (*I saw a man but the man did not see me*). The indefinite determiners, on the other hand are *a(n), any, each, every, either, neither, no, one, some, which, what, what a, etc.* These are called '*unidentified specimens*' (Bloomfield, 1933: 203).

Here are some of the items which are used as determiners:

### 2. 3. 1. Proper Names:

A noun is a term used for naming a person or thing. Nouns are of five different types: - proper, common, collective, material, and abstract. What is concerned here with is definiteness and indefiniteness of proper and common nouns. Proper nouns are used to denote one person or a thing to be distinguished from others. For instance: Ali (a person), Hamlet (a book), Paris (a city), France (a country), all these instances denote definiteness. The term (proper) is from Latin (*proprius*) which means (one's own); therefore a proper name means one's own individual name. Common nouns, on the other hand, do not denote one person or thing in particular but they are common to every person or thing of the same kind. For example, (man) does not refer to a particular man such as Ali but it can be used for every man. The name common is from Latin (*communis*) which means a name that is shared by several different people who possess some common characteristics through the name given to any or all of them. Sometimes a proper noun can be used as a common noun when it indicates some class of person or things or some rank or office. For instance, Czar as 'the Czar of Russia' or Newton as 'the Newton of the age' (Nesfield, 1961: 9).

According to Bloomfield (1933) the difference between proper and common nouns is that proper nouns occur only with singular and does not take any determiner and they are always *definite* as in John. The class meaning of proper nouns are "species of object containing only one specimen" while common nouns occur to be definite and indefinite and the class meaning of them is that they are "species of objects occurring in more than one specimen". They demand a determiner for the definite category in the plural number 'the houses' but not for the indefinite 'houses' in which it corresponds to the singular form of 'a house' (205).

The types of noun expression that requires a determiner are said to be *categoric*. The entire class of noun expression may be said to be a definite and indefinite categories though sometimes it does not have a determiner as in 'John' as (definite). On the other hand, some languages like Modern Greek, the definite article '*the*' are used with proper names but in other languages they are not, they are semantically definite. The common hypothesis is that proper names are inherently definite and do not need the article. The uniqueness criterion seems to be applied on proper names though there are

many people named with the same name for example 'Ali' but we will regard it in the relevant domain of discourse as if there is only one (Lyons, 1999: 129).

It has been argued by Carlson (1980) that generics are a kind of proper names because they are semantically definite but not grammatically while Lyons (1999) argued that proper names are a kind of generics because none of them require definite article to occur. A different analysis taken by Longopardi (1994) claims that proper names have undergone movement in the noun phrase from the noun position to an empty determiner position; therefore they act as determiners in this position and this is the reason behind their definiteness.

There are two approaches of the renaissance grammarians concerning the proper nouns. One of them is the logical approach who defines proper nouns as "the name of a unique object" while the material approach defines it as "the name of a person, place or thing". The logical approach is the central approach of the tradition. The material approach comes from the quality of naming which has got nothing with logic. We give names to things or objects in order to put an emphasis on this thing in the same way that our names are given to us. When a man names his car 'daisy', two processes are being performed; the logical one of expressing uniqueness and the psychological one of personalizing. Here he personalizes it and gives it a name to separate it from other cars. If a man says 'shall we take the car?' in this way he expresses as if he has only one car to separate it from other cars whether a taxi or neighbors' car. In the 'the car', 'the' as if forms logically proper names (Michael, 1970: 85).

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) also demonstrated the use of the definite or indefinite article with proper names. The use of indefinite article means 'a certain' as in "A Mr. Johnson wants to speak to you" while the use of the definite article with proper names indicates a heavy stress and a superlative quality as in "Are you *the* Mr. Johnson (= the famous)? In all of what have been mentioned above about proper names whether they are used with articles or not, they can denote and express definiteness.

### 2. 3. 2. Pronouns:

Pronouns are substitutes of full noun phrases which serve in two situations; firstly, when entities referred to are able to be identified through the context or the surrounding situation; secondly, when the referent is general or unknown. They function as economic tools rather than give a detailed description of what they are talking about. Pronouns have many classes, one of the wider use are personal pronouns (Biber et al., 1999: 70). The personal pronouns are a special class of nouns that are used to make distinction of person, for instance, I (first person singular), you (second person singular and plurals), he/she/it (third person singular, and they (third person plural) in English (Payne, 1999: 259). Personal pronouns like I, she, they, etc. act just like definite noun phrases by providing definiteness to the context so that they are named as definite pronouns. Pronouns like (my, our, your, her, his, its, their....) are sometimes used as determiners and morphologically classed as pronouns but they can have other three forms; they can be used as subjective, objective, and the second genitive (I, me, mine, etc); these three forms are used as nominals. They resemble proper names in the sense that they can be used without a determiner and make a definite reference. Pronouns are the only forms that occupy the position of subject exclusively while the second genitive occurs in the subject and object position. The pronouns do not have a lexical meaning of their own and do not form an open class (Christophersen and Sandved, 1969: 68).

Some linguists claim that the class of determiners contains pronouns like ‘we or you’. The evidence that pronouns are not nouns is that pronouns do not occur with determiner for example we can not say \*the she. Though, pronouns can substitute determiners which propose that they may be in the same word class. For example:

- *We linguists* aren’t stupid = *these* linguists aren’t stupid.
- I’ll give *you boys* three hours to finish the job = I’ll give *those* boys.....

Other analysis assumes that pronouns are nouns which undergo movement within the noun phrase from the noun position to the determiner position. Other analysis deals with pronouns as determiners, distinct from other determiners by having no accompanying noun. The determiner rather than the noun is widely accepted as a core element of the noun phrase. Following this opinion, the pronouns (he, she, it, they) are pronominals equivalent of the article ‘*the*’ but not accompanied by a noun. If this

sounds odd, we shall put into consideration the fact that determiners like (this, two, all, much, several, each) can occur either as a pronoun or as a pre-nominal determiner. Both 'the and he' are uncommon to appear only pronominally so that the solution to this strangeness is to treat these items as determiners completing each others (Lyons, 1999: 129).

For Tallerman (1998), the characteristic of those determiners (we, us, you) is that they can happen without a noun following them as in 'We aren't stupid' and 'I'll give *you* three hours to finish the job'. The article a(n) can not occur alone but there are other determiners which could occur without being followed by a noun as in 'those are good'; for these reasons some linguists claim that noun phrases are really 'determiner phrases' (38). The same opinion (but in a bit different way) is taken by Postal (1966) who states that common nouns can occur with the first and second person plural. Pronouns like 'we students' and 'you students'; in this case it will be analyzed as the first and second person determiners and not as personal pronouns.

Some indefinite pronouns can be followed by adjectives that qualify them: *something, anything, nothing, somebody, someone, anybody, anyone, nobody, and no one* e.g. (Show me something new. That's nothing unusual). The indefinite pronouns can also be used with "to-infinitive" as adjunct which also may be modified by an adjective, for instance: can't you find *something useful to do*? (Hornby, 1954: 173). For other linguists, indefinite pronouns used with singular and personal reference, take the possessive *s'* form e.g. (no one's fault and somebody's car) (Cook, 1983: 99).

In every language we find substitutes in which referential meanings are the basis of the meanings of the latter. In English, pronouns are the largest group of substitutes. Pronouns display a number of combined class-meanings. For example, *somebody, someone* have the class-meanings of substantives, personal, and singular; *he* has the class meanings of substitutes, personal, singular, and males; *they* have the class-meanings of substantives and plurals. Secondly, pronouns may include an element of meaning which shows us specific objects in the class. So pronouns like *he, she, it, they* suggest not just the kind or species that has been mentioned but also the special object recognized by this species. For example, "policeman", "officer Smith", and "the one at this corner" so that they express definiteness (Bloomfield, 1933: 146). Another thing to

be noticed is that pronouns sometimes are used to have another function to make ‘that person or thing’ more emphatic and more definite. This case occurs at the end of the sentence or after the noun or the related personal pronoun as in the following examples: (Salim, 2006: 234).

- I saw him *myself*.
- The *president himself* welcomed us.
- The *house itself* is small.

The reference of pronoun sometimes makes an ambiguous reference. Traditional school grammars classify pronouns to ‘*personal pronouns*’ such as: he, she, it, I, we, and they; ‘*relative pronouns*’ such as: who, whom, whose, which, and that; ‘*demonstrative pronouns*’ such as: this, that, these, and those; ‘*Interrogative pronouns*’ such as: who, which, and that; ‘*Indefinite pronouns*’ such as: each, some, any, anybody, either, and neither; ‘*Intensive pronouns*’ such as: myself, yourself, himself, themselves, and ourselves; ‘*reflexive pronouns*’ such as: myself, yourself, himself, themselves, and ourselves; ‘*reciprocal pronouns*’ such as: each other and one another. Those grammarians recognize the demonstrative pronouns as articles *a(n)* and *the* followed by omitted nouns for example, *these* are my books, and I like *that*. (Lapalombara, 1976: 24-25).

Each of these subdivisions have some semantic properties, for example, the personal pronouns can be further described as being referring to first (+I) or second (+II) or third (+III) persons; whether it is singular or plural (Plural±); whether it is nominative (+Nom) or accusative (+Accus) or possessive (+Poss). The demonstrative pronoun has the feature of being pronoun (+pro), plural or singular (±plural) and near or far (±Near). A determiner has the feature of being used with common or proper nouns (±Common); when it is common it can be either definite or indefinite (±def), if it is definite then it must be either demonstrative or not (±Dem), if it is demonstrative then it can be plural or singular (±plural) and near or far (±Near) (ibid: 340).

There are a list of forms such as (My, Mine, Her, Hers, etc.) which made much difficulty among grammarians. Michael (1970) classifies these forms into:

1. As being possessive pronouns.
2. As being possessive case of personal pronouns.

3. As being pronoun adjectives, sometimes treated as adjectives and other times among the pronouns.
4. As being possessive adjectives.

More than half of the grammarians adopted the first way of classification as possessive pronouns. Some of those grammarians call *my* as a possessive pronoun but others call *mine* as a possessive case of personal pronoun. The classification of personal pronoun was more common before 1740 and later 1775. Lowth (1762) was the first grammarian to say that *mine* is the possessive case of *I* while *my* is a pronominal adjective. Joshua Story (1778) also followed Lowth by saying that *mine* is possessive case while *my* is a possessive pronoun. Salmon (1798) argues that in substantive or pronoun English has no possessive case and that is a corruption of the German adjectives ‘- es’ which equals ‘the’, from this view point possessive pronouns (*my*, *mine*, *her*, *hers*) were pronouns but their function reflects that they are adjectives. The oscillation between these two truths caused the variety of classification (Cited from Michael, 1970: 333-335).

Few grammarians treated (*my*, *mine*, *her*, *hers*) which is symbolized as MM as adjectives and their adjectival function has been recognized through putting them within pronouns or pronominal adjectives. Pronoun adjectives include all pronouns which are not pronoun substantives. In addition to MM the most usual forms which are treated as pronoun adjectives (PA) are (*this*, *that*, *who*). Lwiss adds (*which* and *what*) in 1674; Turner adds (*some*, *same*, *own*) in 1710; Wells adds (*all*, *very*, *much*, *each*, *no*, and *enough*) in 1760; Crocker adds (*either*, *one*, *none*) in 1772 (*ibid*: 338).

Michael (1970: 339) has mentioned opinions from some representative grammarians which may result in restoring the possessives to their original obscurity: Aickin (1693) enumerates (*my*, *mine*, *this*, and *that*) as ‘possessives’ and classifies pronouns as ‘personal, demonstrative, and relative’. Brown (1700) mentions that pronouns descending from substantives are adjectives. Wood (1777) argues that although many grammarians call MM as pronoun adjectives (PA), they can not be so because if they are really adjectives they must declare either the quality of their substantive or they must restrict its extent. He adds that adjectives are not compatible in number with their substantive, for example in ‘*my books*’ *my* is singular while *books* is



plural so that *my* can not be an adjective. Marshall (1790) argued that the possessive pronouns *my, thy,.....* are neither completely possessives as *mine, thine....* nor absolutely pronouns because they need the substantive they refer to. They are more suitable to be called pronominal adjectives.

### 2. 3. 3. Demonstratives:

Demonstratives function as indicating the position of the intended referent or referents of the noun phrase in accord with the context of utterance. English demonstratives are ‘this/that’ and ‘these/those’ that occur with common nouns and have a distinction due to the grammatical number as in ‘this book’ and ‘these books’ (Payne, 1999: 261).

The definite article historically derived from demonstratives. The noun phrase *this house* and *that problem* are definite due to their effect of definiteness in a context. Since the use of demonstratives implies a contrast between the intended referent and some other possible referent, their definiteness can not be taken into account through inclusiveness approach; therefore the relevant criterion is identifiability since drawing attention to the referent is the same of what happened by demonstratives makes it identifiable. In English, demonstratives can not occur at the same time with articles as some other languages do and while some languages do not have articles in their system, all seems to have demonstratives (Lyons, 1999: 128).

Concerning (this and that) TT, the classification of it is uncertain, for example, the grammarians are uncertain whether they should call it pronoun or adjectives. The most frequent classification is to call TT as demonstrative pronouns while the minority of grammarians calls it as adjectives. The treatment of grammarians to TT is the same as their treatment of *mine* for instance those grammarians who prefer TT to be adjectives say that in their autonomous use, a substantive is always comprehended, (I did *that*; I have brought *mine*) but the other grammarians who prefer pronouns say that they are absolute. The function of TT as adjectival is more stressed than those of (my and mine) MM because there is no formal difference which differentiates the use of *this* and *that* as conjoint and absolute from those which distinguish *mine* from *my*. Those grammarians are aware of the dual role of TT and assume that TT is one part of speech for instance, as cited in (Michael, 1970: 341); Buchanan (1762) first sorts TT as

demonstrative pronouns then says that they are not pronouns but adjectives and finally concludes that they are more fittingly articles than any thing else while other writers have made a point that TT can be both ‘demonstrative and relative’ but the more successful one is Bell (1769) who links these two categories by using an idiom ‘absolute’ for pronouns which indicate the relationship and reference between the noun and the pronoun as (this, these, that, those, which, who, what). Todd claimed that determiners are followed by nouns e.g. ‘who is *that* man?’ while pronouns are not e.g. ‘what is *that*?’ (1985: 26).

### **2. 3. 4. Possessive Noun Phrases:**

Possession is always expressed by using the possessive adjectives or pronouns e.g. (my and mine; our and ours; his and his; her and hers; its and its, your and yours; their and theirs) such as ‘that book is mine. That is my book’. Nouns can be used in the genitive case as in ‘That hat is john’s. That is john’s hat.’ or can be modified by prepositional phrase as in ‘the legs of the table’; in this case the possessive adjectives, pronouns, the genitive, and the prepositional phrase are used to denote possession (Hornby, 1954: 158). So while demonstrative modifier involves definiteness in the noun phrase ‘this big house’, this can not be the same with possessive modifier unless when the possessive takes place in the position of definite determiners rather than others which makes the noun phrase definite ‘the child’s toy’ (Lyons, 1999: 129).

When a noun to which the definite article properly belongs is qualified by a genitive, the definite article is suppressed in this case. For instance, ‘a king’s daughter’= ‘the daughter of a king’ and ‘the boat’s length’= ‘the length of the boat’ (Onions, 1971: 143). In general, English noun phrases with a possessive modifier are obviously definite and replaced with term beginning with *the*. There are cases in which noun phrases with possessive modification do not act as definites e.g. in predicative sentences like ‘Peter was Anne’s student’, in this case; there is no implied meaning that Anne had only one student (Lyons, 1999: 129).

NPs consisting of possessive determiner like ‘my book’ or genitive of definite NP or a name like ‘the president’s car’ or ‘John’s car’ are regarded as definite NPs syntactically and semantically because ‘John’s car’ for example can be paraphrased to mean the same as ‘the car that belongs to john and not a car that belongs to john’.

Secondly, in existential sentences, definite NPs are excluded so that they can not occur in it as has been demonstrated by Declerck (1986: 32) in the following sentences:

(a car of johns')

- There is \*(the car of john) in the street.  
\*(John's car)

When possessive or genitive NP is used predicationally, they may or may not have uniqueness which is a representative of a definite property. For example:

- Wait a moment. That's my book.

'My book' can allow definite or indefinite interpretation; as 'a book of mine', from the view point of 'mine', it is definite, but from the point of 'one of my books', I do not name it, it is indefinite but still it's belonging to me, makes it definite. The nonreferential NP is definite if the property is determined uniquely and it is indefinite if it is not determined uniquely. Declerck states that there are also cases in which possessive or genitive NP allows indefinite interpretation if it is used as 'object complement' as in:

- I consider John my enemy.

Though this sentence is formally definite, it also allows indefinite interpretation to mean that John has more than one enemy. This indefinite interpretation can disappear if the possessive or genitive NP is modified as in 'this is my leatherbound book', the reason behind the exclusion of indefinite interpretation (the existence of leatherbound) enforces a specificational reading (1986: 33).

The genitive meanings are of many types which best can be represented by sentential or phrasal analogues as demonstrated by (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973: 95) in the following types:

- a) Possessive genitive:

My sons' wife = my son has a wife.

- b) Subjective genitive:

The boys' application = the boy applied.

- c) Objective genitive:

The family's support = someone supports the family/ the family supports someone.

d) Genitive of origin:

The girls' story = the girl told a story.

e) Descriptive genitive:

A women's college = a college for women.

f) Genitive of measure and partitive genitive:

Ten days' absence or an absence of ten days= the absence lasted ten days.

g) Appositive genitive:

The city of York = York is a city.

The choice of use between the '-s or -of' genitive might be more simple if we relate the noun of genitive to the class of gender. The classes of higher gender scale of animate nouns prefer to use the -s genitive whereas the choice of -of genitive is preferable with expressions of measure, partitive, and appositive. There are also cases in which both the '-s and -of' genitive can be combined together with the requirement of the noun of the genitive -s to be personal and definite as in 'An opera of my friend's' (ibid: 99).

### 3. 3. 5. Numerals:

Numerals are from Latin *numerus* with the meaning number. They differ from the indefinite number or quantity as (much, many, great) in expressing number exactly or definitely for instance, ten men, a million dollars. The numerals function as adjectives, nouns and adverbs as has been demonstrated by (Krapp, 1908: 221):

- The *third* trial was successful.(adjective's numerals)
- We can take only *ten* with us. (noun's numerals)
- He tried *twice* to reach the float. (adverb's numerals)

Numerals are classified into cardinals and ordinals. Cardinal numerals denote number of the person or things being talked about:

- There are *twenty* boys in the class.
- *Five* houses on the street are empty.

Ordinal numerals on the other hand denote the position or place of a person or a thing in a sequence:

- Ask the *third* boy in the class' or 'this is the *twentieth* day of January'.

Cardinal and ordinal numerals can be used as a noun as in 'there are *twenty* in the class' or 'Ask the *third* from the end'. In these cases, the numerals have the characteristic of both pronouns and adjectives. They are like pronouns by naming the persons or objects without naming them; and like adjectives by limiting in some way the person or object that is indicated by the numerals (ibid: 222).

In English, it is important to distinguish between semantic and grammatical number. For instance, collective nouns as 'family' occur with singular forms of noun phrase modifiers like the singular demonstrative 'this; and 'that' e. g. (this family and that family) and the singular indefinite article 'a' e.g. (a family); therefore they are grammatically singular. Nevertheless, the grammatical singular form of 'family' can be regarded semantically as relating to a set that consists of its individual members as has been demonstrated in the plural verb agreement of 'all the family are coming to the wedding'. But there are some words like 'scissors' which is plural grammatically but non count in the sense to be counted; in such cases we must add the count noun 'pair' to the numeral e.g. 'one pair of scissors' (Payne, 1999: 259).

The numeral 'one' can also be used before proper names to mean 'a certain' but this use is somehow traditional and formal one as in:

- I remember *one* Charlie Brown at school.

The indefinite *one* means 'people in general'. The use of *one* is formal in repetition of co-referentiality while the informal use of it is 'you' as in 'one can not be too careful, can *you* or can *one*?' (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973: 112).

The phenomenon of number involves several cases in which it indicates; one of them is plurality, it means that the category of number consists of more than 'one' and in most situations it reveals a definite number, e. g. three persons. Plurality may also indicate an indefinite number, e.g. 'some people' which means an indefinite number of people. A particular case is duality or dual number when this form is used for things that happened in pairs like two eyes, two hands. Another category of number is binarity. It occurs with things composed of two parts like scissors, trousers. Moreover, there is generic plurality. For example, people are mortal; "people" here means "a mankind". There is also inclusive and exclusive plurality. Inclusive plurality means that the person addressed is included as in 'we want to do this and that', the subject 'we' here means you and I while exclusive plurality means that the person addressed is not included, in the previous example 'we' means my absent follows and I. Finally, we have the category of mass, e. g. (water, air, time, bread). The extreme possible cases are plurality and mass in which the difference between the two cases is due to the fact that mass nouns can be measured while plural nouns are countable. When we want to ask about countable nouns we say how many? And the answer is either many or few whereas when we want to ask about measurable nouns we say how much? and the answer is either much or little. This is why mass nouns are symbolized as uncountable nouns in English grammar therefore they are not used with an indefinite article (Vachek, 1975: 47).

The difference between singular and plural is mainly morphological though other items like determiners, numerals, and verbs are also helpful in this distinction. So (a, one, every, much, this, and that) work with singulars while numerals more than one, many, these, those work with plurals only. In other cases when a noun is used as a central noun without determiners as in (sheep grazed in the fields), the zero determiner or its absence makes the whole utterance of the sentence identifiable. The distinction

between singular and plural also is established according not to a single principle or standard but to resemblances of family. The lack of constant criterion makes the number not clear for example, (the sheep ate up every scrap of grass) unless it is understood from the context (Strang, 1968: 102).

### 3. 3. 6. Quantifiers:

Quantifiers are one of determiners which are used to specify the amount or number of the entities referred to. Quantifiers include: every, each, all, many, a lot of, lots of, plenty of, double, some, (a) few, several, couple, enough, either, neither, no, any, both, half, etc... They occur with definite and indefinite NPs but when they occur with NPs, they are followed by *of*, e.g. 'some of the money'. They usually occur in position as a predeterminer, e.g. *double* the size, *all* those other guys. Just like both determiners and pronouns which overlap in form, quantifiers can also be used as determiners, pronouns, and adverbs (Ioup, 1977: 236), for example:

- I have *a little* money in my room. (determiner)
- Is that *all* I have got? (pronoun)
- It was *a little* hard for him to understand. (adverb)

Quantifiers are of many types as has been demonstrated by (Biber et al., 1999: 275-76). It can be divided into the following groups:

#### A. Inclusive:

It means the reference of quantifier is to the whole group or a mass. The quantifier of inclusive group occurs with both countable and uncountable nouns, for example:

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

#### B. Large Quantity:

The use of this group of quantifier specifies a large quantity like *many*, *much*, *a great deal of*, *lots of*, and *a lot of*. For example:

- There were *lots of* people going through the tills.

#### C. Moderate or small quantity:

This quantifier is used to specify a moderate quantity which is used with both countable and uncountable nouns. For example:

- Give me *some* water.

On the other hand, small quantity like *few*, *a few*, *several* specify small quantity and they occur with countable nouns while ‘*little* and *a little*’ occur with uncountable nouns. The difference in meaning between ‘*few* and *a few*’ and ‘*little* and *a little*’ is that ‘*a few* and *a little*’ have the same meaning as *some* while ‘*few* and *little*’ propose the quantity to be less expected, for example:

- There were *a few* people sitting at the tables in the back.
- Though it was not late there were *few* people around.

D. *Arbitrary and negative meaning member or amount:*

The quantifiers that refer to arbitrary amount of mass or arbitrary member of a group are ‘*any* and *either*’ but *either* is more specific than *any* because it is used with a group of two. Both ‘*any* and *either*’ are used with negative and interrogative statements, for example:

- There aren’t *any* women.
- There were no applications for bail for *either* defendant.

The quantifiers that occur with negative reference are ‘*no* and *neither*’; ‘*no*’ occurs generally while ‘*neither*’ occurs when the reference is between two entities, for example:

- *No* method is available.
- *Neither* method is entirely satisfactory.

Some quantifiers can be preceded by a determiner as in ‘*the few* words he spoke were well chosen’ while ‘*several*’ is rarely preceded by a determiner as in ‘he took *little* butter’ but ‘*much*’ is never preceded by it as in ‘there hasn’t been *much* good weather recently’. The use of indefinite article (*a*) with ‘*few*’ and ‘*little*’ can effect on the meaning whether it will be positive or negative. When we use the indefinite article, it shows positive meaning while it shows negative meaning when we do not use it as in ‘he took *few* biscuits= *several* while he took *a few* biscuits= *not many*’ and ‘he took *a little* butter=*some* while he took *little* butter= *not much*’ (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973: 66).

All these groups of quantifiers make the statement referred to either definite or indefinite in accord with the meaning of the quantifier that is used.



#### 2. 4. Definiteness in Other Sciences (Philosophy and logic):

Semantics, is regarded to be the study of meaning in language while in logic it is regarded to be the study of references in language. There are two kinds of theories of reference, description theory and historical chain theory. Description theory is meant to describe the referent of an expression uniquely enough to be identified. For example, the first person to set foot on the moon refers to Neil Armstrong because the description fits him uniquely. But when we come to other referring expressions like pronouns, proper names and others, the description theory can not describe these referents uniquely unless this theory will deal with speaker reference but not linguistic reference (Akmajian, Demers, and Harnish, 1979: 228).

On historical chain theory, an expression refers to its referent due to the fact that there is a specific historical relation between an expression and some initial christening and dubbing of the object with that name. For example, when the speaker mentions the name *Charles de Gaulle*, in this case this name refers to a person christened by that name, on the condition that there is a chain of uses connecting the original christening with the current speaker's reference. In contrast with the description theory, this theory provides no definite description to the referent but it suggests that referential uses passed from generation to generation. So the historical chain theory works best with proper names of persons, places, and things which can be extended to pronouns (ibid: 247).

There is a difference between general and singular terms which result in the fact that common nouns, verbs, adjectives, and phrases which include them are general terms describing things or events in general. For instance, *red* describes any red things and the verb *kick* refers to the act of kicking in general. Singular terms such as proper names, deictics are used to describe something definite and to refer to single or collection of things. For instance, *she* is used to refer to a definite or specified female and when we say Paris, we use it to refer to a certain city. Deictic terms, unlike names, that used for names and unlike the definite description which refer to referent through describing. The "deictics" comes from Greek used for pointing to referents due to the context of utterance. Deictic terms are divided into two types: indexicals and demonstratives. Indexical terms are used for literal uses which refer to something due to its relation to the actual physical NP, for example, I, now, here (Cattell, 1969: 34).

The term ‘definiteness’ is always used in the sense of definite reference in the linguistic and philosophical literature of the meaning of definiteness and indefiniteness with noun phrases. For example, Russell (1905) who examined the definite article, does not pay attention to nonreferential NPs and also Searle (1969), sees that definiteness can be investigated in relation with its function in the speech act of the reference. Christopherson (1939) sees the condition for the use of the definite article in familiarity with the referent. According to Hawkins (1978), the use of definite and indefinite NPs is concerned with several speech acts the most important of which is to introduce a referent to the hearer. There are cases in which it is considered to be nonreferential, for example, when a definite NP is *attributive* or when an indefinite NP is *nonspecific*; but Declerck (1986) argued that these cases are referential in a weak sense. Although these cases are not referential in the same sense of selecting a particular person or object, they are still establishing what is called “discourse referent” because they can simulate the referring expression in the sentence that follows them. For example, ‘I need a doctor. He must be no older than 60’ (Cited from Declerck, 1986: 26).

The definite article is used to express conceptual definiteness in the sense that the thing that it refers to is usually used as a concept not as a context, for example, ‘the dog is much trustier than the cat’; here the use of *the* is due to conceptual lexical reasons not contextual. The use of article here is a generic use referring to whole species (Vachek, 1975: 52). Conceptual clarity as claimed by (Portner, 2006) itself does not require definiteness but some restriction or definition of the concept is being required therefore abstract nouns in English are used without article for example, ‘Time is money, Knowledge is power’.

In formal logic, the uniqueness approach has a long history. The uniqueness hypothesis can not work with plural definites as ‘the books’ and mass definites as ‘the water’. *The books* imply that there are many books not just one to indicate uniqueness and uniqueness can not denote the singularity of water. What is applicable to these cases is totality or as what is introduced as ‘inclusiveness’ e.g. ‘pass me the books’ to mean all the books or ‘throw out the water’ to indicate that the speaker wants all the water to be thrown out. The term inclusiveness means that the referent of *the* that refers to the whole mass or entity fulfills the description. Hawkins argued that the uniqueness of singular definiteness can be incorporated into inclusiveness “it follows from the

inclusiveness requirement of *the* together with the singularity of the noun phrase that the referent must satisfy the description uniquely” (1978: 127).

The article status of *a(n)* is incompatible except with singular countable nouns its function denoting one member of a set. When *a(n)* determines a plural nouns as in (a barracks of a house), the noun here denotes a conceptual singular. This is considered to be a correspondence between the article and numeral while its function of denoting ‘one set of a more than one’ is considered to be one of the uses of the indefinite article. In generic use, the opposing between singular and plural is neutralized and the indefinite article refers to the whole class while in nongeneric use, the meaning ‘one of a set’ combines with nonunique reference which is the first mention of an entity. For example:

- They were received by *an* official (nonunique referent).
- They were received by *the* mayor (unique referent).

The first mention of an entity may override the situational uniqueness in an example like:

- I have sent him *a* letter.

Here, the relation between sender and sendee may involve just one single letter. The supremacy of first mention is as a result of the fact that the determiner is firm with the concept of uniqueness and the definite article would display the referent as being mentioned before. If we replace the indefinite article by the definite (I have sent him *the* letter), it will indicate anaphoric reference. The interaction between the semantic and functional sentence of the articles is very clear in this example (Duškova, 2000: 34).

The definite article can denote uniqueness or it can be denoted without any article, for example, ‘tiger’ is a unique referent in the sense we know the class of it. The definite article is not only used with unique object, it can also be used with definite object that is definite from the text, from life experience, etc. The indefinite determiner *a(n)*, on the other hand, is used with body parts that has more than one parts, the following example are taken from (Quirk et al., 1985: 273):

- He’s broken *a* leg.
- \*Roger has hurt *a* nose.

In the first case, the indefinite article can be used because everyone has two legs, but in the second example it can not be used because there is only one nose that every

person has. Roger can not have two noses in this case. So it would be better to say 'Roger has hurt *his* nose'. If we have an example like:

- \*Fred lost *a* head during the war.

The same thing can be said about such an example by saying that it does not mean that Fred has more than a head but it means he is responsible for some men during the war in which he loses one of them. Chesterman (1991: 22-23) explains this example by referring to Hawkins' opposition of "inclusiveness and exclusiveness" that if we use *the* we are referring to the totality of this shared set which satisfies the referent but if we use an indefinite article we will refer to the subset not all. There are exceptions to the Hawkins' condition of indefinite exclusiveness for example:

- I have *a* head.

It can not mean to be I have a head of a set of more than one but according to the explanation of Hawkins by referring to the meaning of the verb involved, when we have 'set-existential' verbs, the condition of exclusiveness for the indefinite article does not hold (1978: 221). According to Duškova, the role of the indefinite article which we use with unique referents as body parts depends not only on the semantics of the indefinite of being 'one of a set' but also on the semantic structure and functional sentence perspectives of the whole sentence (2000: 37).

When the indefinite article happened to be used before a nominal, in this case it refers to unspecified number of a class of individuals:

- On my way to work this morning I met *an* old friend.

The implication of this sentence here is that 'an old friend' refers to a particular member of a class of old friends but when we say:

- A dog is more useful than a cat.

The individual of (a dog) is seen as a representative of the whole class of dogs not to one particular member of the class. This use is named as 'generic use' but if we can also say:

- The dog is a useful animal.

The reference of *the* dog is the same as *a* dog in denoting the whole class (Christophersen and Sandved, 1969: 178). The same thing can be said with the generic sense of the following sentences when they are used with a count noun whether there is definite/ indefinite article or not:

- The tiger is a dangerous animal.
- A tiger is a dangerous animal.
- Tigers are dangerous animals.

But in the case of non-count nouns, we can find the use of zero article as in:

- Music can be soothing.

The use of singular or plural, definite or indefinite can be used without any change in the generic sense of the sentence (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973: 68).

Generalizations about genus or class instead of individuals can be made in different ways:

1. Plural of noun without article as in ‘Elephants have long memories’.
2. Indefinite article + singular of nouns as in ‘An elephant has a long memory’.
3. Definite article + singular of nouns as in ‘The elephant has a long memory’.

All these three cases denote the same meaning of “all elephants or elephants in general have long memories”. But the third example can also be used to denote specific reference by referring to particular elephant. On the other hand, specific reference can be made even if the noun has not been mentioned before because it has specific reference or meaning to the speaker as in ‘I must go to the store’ (Cook, 1983: 73).

The English indefinite determiner *a(n)* has a particular generic use as in ‘What this country needs is a good 5-cent cigar’. It appears that whatever semantic treatment one chooses of generic, the same thing should be dealt with generic uses of the bare plural ‘Good 5-cent cigars are hard to come by these days’. One way of dealing with generics is by treating generic indefinites and generic bare plurals as ‘names’ of members of a specific class of generic entities. The supposition is that there is some entity which is the generic ‘a good 5-cent cigar and good 5-cent cigar’ where 5-cent cigar refers to that entity (Van Eijck, 1999: 140).

There are some logical complications concerning generic use. If a natural class formed by ‘good 5-cent cigars’ what will be done with less than 5- cents or bad 5-cents? These might also be forming natural class but in this case there will be more generic individuals than regular individuals if every subset of regular individuals is a corresponding natural class with an associated generic individual. Another problem is:- how do generic individuals refer to regular individuals? Firstly, they can involve

specific characteristics with regular individuals. The characteristic of the generic ‘good 5-cent cigars’ must have being good and costing only 5-cent. We can not disregard the relation of ‘exemplification’ between regular individuals and generic individuals because natural language allows anaphoric linking between their uses of noun phrases:

- They must sell a good 5-cent cigar in the USA, for the president himself is smoking them.

The pronoun *them* relates to individual cigar but it is linked to a generic use of a good 5-cent cigar in the sentence itself. This expresses only the surface of the semantics of generic expression (ibid: 141).

Denoting phrase is a phrase by virtue of which its form has three cases to denote as has been demonstrated by (Russell, 1905: 300): Firstly, a phrase may or may not denote anything as in ‘the present king of France’. Secondly, a phrase can denote one particular object as in ‘the present king of England’. Thirdly, a phrase may denote more than one meaning as in ‘a man’. The explanation of such denoting phrase is an issue of sizable difficulties. It is very difficult to find a theory that is not vulnerable of formal rebuttal. The subject of denoting is very essential in logic and in theory of knowledge. For example, ‘the centre of mass of the solar system’ denotes some definite points which; though we have no acquaintance with denotes some objects unambiguously. According to Russell (1905), *everything*, *nothing*, and *something* are not supposed to have any meaning when they are isolated but the meaning is allocated to every proposition in which they take place. For example, ‘I met a man’, if this is true, I met some definite man but that is not what I assert. According to the theory of Russell:

- “I met X, and X is human is not always false”

If we define the class of men as the class of objects which have the predicate human, we can say:

- ‘C (a man)’ means “ ‘C (X) and X is human’ is not always false”.

This gives meaning to every proposition in whose verbal expression ‘a man’ occurs but leaves ‘a man’ by destitute of meaning.

Russell (1905: 302) has made an explanation for phrases that contain ‘*the*’ as for example ‘the father of Charles 11 was executed’, this sentence implied that there was a father of Charles 11 and he was executed. When ‘*the*’ is used strictly, it involves

uniqueness; we talk about 'the son of X' though X has several sons but it would be better to say 'a son of X'. So when we say 'X was the father of Charles 11' we not only state that X had a specific relation with Charles but to indicate that nobody else has this relation. This relation can be expressed 'X begat Charles11' without involving any assumption of uniqueness or denoting phrase. In order to get the corresponding 'X was the father of Charles11', we must add:

- 'If Y is other than X, Y did not begat Charles 11'
- Or 'If Y begat charles11, Y is identical with X'
- Then 'X is the father of Charles11' becomes 'X begat Charles 11;
- And 'If Y begat Charles 11, Y is identical with x' is always true of Y.

The analysis of 'the father of Charles 11 was executed' is as the following:

- "It is not always false of X that X begat Charles11 and that X was executed and that 'if Y begat Charles 11, Y is identical with X' is always true of Y".

What it means is: 'Charles 11 had one father and no more'. The evidence of this theory obtained from the difficulties appear inevitable if we consider that the phrase represents a real constituent of the proposition whose verbal expression allows such an interpretation. The theory which admits such constituent is that of Meinong. This theory considers a grammatically correct phrase as representing an object. For example, 'the present king of England' is assumed to be a genuine object. It is admitted that such object does not exist. But still they are supposed to be objects. This is a difficult view; but the main opposition is that such an object without a doubt is apt to violate the law of contradiction. For example, it is maintained that the existent present king of France exists and also does not exist and this can not be credible and any other theory can avoid it (ibid: 303).

The Law of contradiction is objected by Frege's theory. In denoting phrase, he differentiates two elements which are meaning and denotation. For example, 'the centre of mass of the solar system at the beginning of the twentieth century' is complex in meaning. But its denotation which is a specific point is simple. So the solar system and the twentieth century are the constituents of meaning but the denotation has no constituent at all. One benefit from this distinction is to show why it is important to assert identity. If for example one says 'Scott is the author of Waverly', with a difference of meaning, he asserts the identity of denotation (ibid: 303).

There are two approaches of the Renaissance grammarians concerning the proper nouns. One of them is the logical approach which defines proper nouns as “the name of a unique object” while the material approach defines it as “the name of a person, place or thing”. The logical approach is the central approach of the tradition. The material approach comes from the quality of naming which has nothing with logic. We give names to things or objects in order to emphasise on this thing in the same way that our names are given to us. When a man names his car ‘daisy’, two process are being performed; the logical one of expressing uniqueness and the psychological one of personalizing. Here he personalizes it and gives it a name to separate it from other cars. If a man says ‘shall we take the car?’ in this way he expresses as if he has only one car and to separate it from other cars whether a taxi or neighbors’ car. The word ‘the car’ forms logically proper names (Michael, 1970: 85).



## Chapter Three

### Contribution of the category of definiteness to the organization of information:

#### 3. 1. Functional Sentence Perspective:

The Prague school or the Prague linguistic circle is a powerful group of linguists and academic critics who published a new loom in linguistics. The growth period of the school is between 1926 and the beginning of Second World War. It is regarded the opening period when Prague represents hope and democracy for scholars and artists in the centre of Europe. The leader of Prague school was Vilem Mathesius. The interest of Prague school is the fundamental departure of the traditional structure from Ferdinand de Saussure. They propose that the method of studying speech's sound function can be used synchronically and diachronically. The research program of the school is concerned with the function of elements of language; although the meeting between linguists of the circle stopped or became rare, it is the main force of present day functionalism in linguistics (Fried, 1972).

The foundation of this school was laid by a group of scholars from different countries who met in Prague in 1920s, then the circle is increased its activity by establishing discussions and lectures regularly. They joined the lecture by Henrik Becker entitled as *Der europaische Sprachgeist* on October 1926, which in fact was the first official meeting held by the Prague linguistic circle, after that, the first open presentation were held in Prague in 1929 at the First International Congress of Slavists through which a volume *Travaux du Cercle Linguistique de Prague* was launched; they also published a magazine known as *Word and Art of the Word* in 1935. In addition to linguistics, the circle is concerned with aesthetic, literary theory, and ethnography. The death of the circle comes with the occupation of Czechoslovakia (Toman, 1995).

The Prague linguistic circle was the first managerial of *Prague School*. The best description of the circle was done by Vilem Mathesius in a lecture given at the celebratory session of the Circle on the first decade of its survival. From this session, we know that the meeting of the circle member was held at the Prague University Department of English in which Mathesius was its boss with also Five Prague members participating in it; those were Vilem Mathesius, Bohuslav Havranek, Bohumil Trnka, Roman Jakobson, and Jan Rypka; with only foreign member, Dr. Henrik Becker from Leipzig among them, they decided to have regular meetings (Vachek, 2002: 5).

The basic characteristic of Prague school theory of functional sentence perspective (FSP) is communicative dynamism (CD); its main function is the division of information as denoted by all of the meaningful elements. Each linguistic element adopts some position and according to this position shows an extent of communicative dynamism. This distribution of sentence elements denotes the perspective of the sentence. Firbas (1992) states that the headword and its attribute in the frame of a NP is a distributional domain of communicative dynamism. He also adds that a NP like ‘a girl’ gives a distributional subdiscipline. For example, the conceptual component of the noun performs the transition proper function and acts as rhematic proper, if context-independent while if a determiner is present, it is thematic (94).

The term of FSP has been demonstrated by Adam (2009: 17) by explaining what each part denotes:

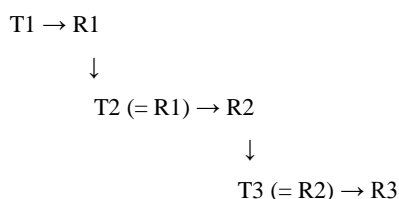
1. Functional: is a term that is linked with the communicative role of a word in a sentence, “function of an element within the system of language at the very act of communication”.
2. Sentence: the clause or sentence is mainly the focus of interest which is seen as “a field of semantic and syntactic relations”.
3. Perspective: the sentence is considered as a dynamic event that has two perspectives oriented towards or a way from the subject.

The meaning of the sentence is appraised in accord with the contribution of communication it provides the interlocutors with. For instance, Lambrecht (1994) states that a sentence is mainly a message that consists of two sections which matches with the organization of sentence into subject and predicate. He differentiates among the psychological structure of ideas or concepts, the grammatical structure of the sentence, and the informational structure of the message. After that he makes a movement in the interest from psychology to communication and introduces two terms as *theme* and *rheme*. Rheme is borrowed from the grammatical tradition of Greek, which is related to the verb, in contrast to theme which is related to the subject or the name that the sentence denotes.

Mathesius (1929) also used the same terms of theme and rheme for describing word order in Czech and other languages. The Prague School incorporated the difference between theme and rheme into the grammatical system. The most distinguishing characteristic of the Prague structuralists was the functional approach, in which language is a means of communication and its information structure is essential for both the process of communication and the system of language. Firbas (1964) claims that information structure is a whole scale of *communicative dynamism* rather than a dichotomy. Daneš (1970) enlarged the sentences' thematic relation to be one of a text. In term of structured position and dynamic logic, Peregrin (1995) examines a formalization of the topic-focus articulation. Halliday is the person who is responsible for introducing Praguian's theme and rheme into the structuralist American linguistics (Cited from Huesinger, 2002: 285).

The two aspects of structure of information which are the expansion of the theme-rheme construction to texts and the internal and contextual aspect of the sentence are best described by Daneš (1970: 134) as 'utterance organization' and 'utterance perspectives'. In the first aspect, the utterance of communication seems to be as a statement about something, which is something that one's talking about 'theme or topic' and what one's talking about that thing or topic is 'rheme or comment'. In the second aspect, by connecting it with the context, as a rule, we distinguish two parts; one of them involves old information which is already given or known by the listener or reader functioning as 'beginning point', while the other aspect carries new information which regards the 'center of utterance. Since one can expand the topic of a sentence to the discourse, so that these two aspects are dependent. Daneš declares three procedures through which topics can be linked together in a discourse:

1. Linear sequence as in the diagram below.
2. Sequence with constant theme.
3. The clarification of a separate theme.



Despite the fact that the information structure is placed in the syntax-semantics interface by the Praguean approach, an independent level for information structure and sentences' meaning partition had been premised by Halliday. Actually, he is the first who bases an independent notion of it. He presupposes two structural faces of information structure; the informational division of the utterance, and the interior arrangement of each units' information. The first aspect is *thematic structure* (Theme–Rheme) while the second one is *givenness*. The linear ordering of the informational units is arranged by the thematic structure, which resembles the Praguean opinion of *theme–rheme* or *topic–focus* that arranged in accord with the principle of aboutness. Halliday presumes that the theme always comes before the rheme. As a result, theme–rheme are intimately associated with word order, *theme* is used for a name for the first noun or noun group in the sentence, theme is used for the following: “The theme is what is being talked about, the point of departure for the clause as a message; and the speaker has within certain limits the option of selecting any element in the clause as thematic.” (1967: 212).

The idea that theme always comes first before the rheme is a unidirectional approach, but (Rzayev, unpublished paper: 8) argues that theme not in all cases comes first. Sentence consists of three layers; grammatical formation, semantic structure, and communicative organization. Semantic structure can be equal to how we think. From the point of thinking, unidirectional movement can be regarded appropriate, in the sense it moves from known to unknown, from left to right, from beginning to end, but from the point of grammatical structure and from the point of importance of information, this law is violated in many cases so it becomes non-linear movement. For instance, when ideal rules are violated in a sentence like ‘nobody dared to go to the mountains’, *nobody* is the new information while the rest of the sentence is the old information, so sentence initial position does not obey the unidirectional principle to start sentence initial position with known information. Rzayev also argues that the so called “linear” (i.e., “given-before-old”) and “non-linear” (i.e., “new-before or without-new”) patterns of information flow are not alternatives. On the contrary, both of them are universal, interchangeable and efficient patterns serving to satisfy varying intensity of communication.

The second aspect is concerned with the interior structure of informational unit in which its element is noticed with regard to their discourse anchor as has been demonstrated by Halliday (1967: 202): “At the same time the information unit is the point of origin for further options regarding the status of its components: for the selection of point of information focus which indicates what new information is being contributed”. He attributes the term of *information focus* to the core of instructiveness of an information unit. This information focus involves a new material that is not mentioned earlier in the discourse while the remaining information may be known due to the shared knowledge of the participants in the discourse.

As qtd. from Huesinger (2002: 289), Chafe (1976) talks about “statuses” of nouns and how the discourse is structured. He supposes that the discourse is arranged in accord with the beliefs of the speaker that he holds about the beliefs of the hearer instead of the semantic content of the linguistic expression. With the metaphor of “information packaging”, Chafe (1976: 28) explains his beliefs:

I have been using the term *packaging* to refer to the kind of phenomena at issue here, with the idea that they have to do primarily with how the message is sent and only secondarily with the message itself, just as the packaging of toothpaste can affect sales in partial independence of the quality of the toothpaste inside.

Our starting point, then, is that the packaging phenomena relevant to nouns include the following: a. the noun may be either *given* or *new*; b. it may be a *focus of contrast*; (c) it may be *definite* or *indefinite*.; (d) it may be the *subject* of its sentence;(e) it may be the *topic* of its sentence; and (f) it may represent the individual whose *point of view* the speaker is taking, or with whom the speaker empathizes.

The idea of Chafes’ packaging is also adopted by Prince (1981: 208) who mentions that in accord with the speakers’ assumption about their conversers or participants in the conversation; they tailor sentences in different ways:

Information in a discourse does not correspond simply to an unstructured set of proposition; rather, speakers seem to form their utterances so as to structure the information they are attempting to convey, usually or perhaps always in

accordance with their beliefs about the hearer: what s/he is thought to know, what s/he is expected to be thinking about.

The information structure also has been dealt with by Chomsky (1971: 199). He explains it in the context of his differentiation between deep and surface structure. The meaning of a sentence is determined by the deep structure. The intonational contrasts that affect the surface structure also display systematic meaning contrast so that the pattern or model is endangered. The concern of Chomsky is in the contrast between terms like presupposition-focus or given-new. *Focus* is 'the phrase that contains the center of intonation' while *Presupposition* is 'the part of the sentence that is carried freely by the negation or the speech act in the sentence'. Chomsky illustrates this by the following example:

- A. Does John write poetry in his *study*?
- B. Is it in his *study* that John writes poetry?
- C. John doesn't write poetry in his *study*.
- D. It isn't in his *study* that John writes poetry
- E. No, John writes poetry in the *garden*.
- F. The place where John writes poetry is in the garden.

As it can be seen, sentence 'F' is just like an answer to all sentences from A through D, in which all of them presuppose that John writes somewhere. The deep structure is expressed in sentence F in which the embedded sentence is the presupposition while the focus is 'in the garden' which is part of the predicate. Chomsky presupposes that focus is intonationally marked.

In each sentence, paragraph or whatever amount of information that is presented, there is a specific phenomenon to be talked about in which it is the communicative purpose that located in the first sentence of any paragraph and the development of communication will be about this phenomenon through which it is perspectived. The rest of sentences attributes a characteristic or quality to the phenomenon. The growth of the communication is perspectived with respect to this quality or its specification. This quality covers an action whether it is concrete or abstract, perpetual or temporary (Firbas, 1992: 5).

The clause, for example, must be clarified as a message. The structure of it which donates a quality of being a message is clarified as '*thematic structure*' by Halliday (1985: 38). The type of this structure consists of two parts, '*Theme and Rheme*'. Accordingly, these two parts, united together, comprise the message. For example:

- The hurricane Sandy strengthens into a strong category two hurricanes.

This sentence is about 'hurricane Sandy', which is the theme of the clause. Then, additional information added on 'hurricane Sandy' which is "strengthens into a strong category two hurricane". The development of the theme is called '*Rheme*'. Halliday (1985: 39) defined the theme as the first element in the clause. It is the point of commencement for the message which characterizes the rest of the clause. Therefore; the meaning of the clause relies on its '*theme*'.

Themes are of two types: marked and unmarked. Marked themes are described as the occurrence of items in an opining position in the sentence in which it does usually not occur in that position by default. Therefore, themes jointed with complement, adjunct, and predicator are defined as '*fronted themes*' by being placed in an initial position as in 'fish I like'. The other types of marked theme are '*predicated*' and '*identified*' themes. Predicated themes are composed of 'it+ verb (be) + nominal or adverbial as has been demonstrated by Manca (2012: 77), for example:

- It was John who called her yesterday night.

The 'predicated theme' functions to show contrast. It can also express definiteness i.e., to make a thing referred to more definite and specific. The meaning of this predicated theme 'It was John' is to emphasize that it is john specifically not anyone else'. The theme of this structure is 'John' while the pronoun 'it' that occurs in the beginning of the sentence expresses 'an empty subject'.

The other functions of 'predicated themes' is connected with analyzing a clause or a sentence as 'an information unit'. As qtd. from (Manca, 2012: 80), Halliday's opinion of an information unit is:

The information unit is what its name implies: a unit of information. Information, as this term is being used here, is a process of interaction between what is already known or predictable and what is new or unpredictable. (...) It is

the interplay of new and not new that generates information in the linguistic sense.

The construction of this information unit is arranged in accord with the news and given parts. The new part habitually occurs at the end of the information unit which parallels to the 'Rheme' while the given or known part occurs at the beginning which parallels to the 'Theme' and represents information which is previously known by the reader or the hearer. Though terms like (theme ~ given) and (rheme ~ new) are semantically interrelated, they are not equal. 'Theme' is considered the starting point of the speaker or the writer while 'Given' is considered as the common ground between both of the speaker and the listener. In the same way, 'rheme' represents what is said about the 'theme' by the speaker or the writer while 'new' represents what is not known by the reader or the listener. Therefore; what is new or given relies on the shared knowledge between the participants of the linguistic event and the situation of context (ibid: 81).

On the other hand, as stated by Manca (2012: 81), 'identified theme' has a structure of *wh-* in contrast with 'predicated themes' which have a structure of *it + be*, it is also placed in an initial position. For example:

- What the duke gave to my aunt was that teapot.

The structure in the above sentence despite having interrogative marker "*wh-* in initial position", is best to be accounted within the premise of 'given' vs. 'new' information in which 'what the duke gave to my aunt' prepositionally encode 'givenness' whereas 'that teapot' is new information. The 'that' relative pronoun functionally encodes semantic of 'specification' which entails 'exclusiveness'.

According to Prague school treatment of FSP, they define 'theme' as the element carrying a low degree of communicative dynamism (CD) while rheme has been defined as the element which carries a high degree of communicative dynamism (CD) (Duškova 2002: 260). Communicative dynamism (CD) is defined as "the relative extent to which a linguistic element contributes towards the further development of the communication" (Firbas, 1992:8). The Praguean approach regards Topic- Focus articulation as "the universal basis of semantic structuring of sentence" (Peregrin, 2002: 264). The main idea of this articulation must participate in the dynamism of discourse. In an ideal case of linguistic utterance there is something new that is said about



something old. There is a subject which is the topic or what the sentence is about and there is a predicate which is a focus or that is attributed to the subject. When he utters a sentence, the speaker presupposes that there is a common ground that is shared by interlocutors of discourse, and then he will exhibit something which becomes the starting point of the discourse and continues to add newness to it. If we have an instance like:

- JOHN walks.

The topic is about the definite proper name 'john' which is the subject which expresses what the sentence is about and the predicate states something about the subject which is in this case the focus of the sentence. This example illustrates that John walks not any one else but if the stress is on walks to be 'John WALKS' to mean that john walks and didn't do something else.

Peregrin (2002) differentiates between 'topic' and 'focus' by saying that *topic* is a 'semantic subject' and its role is the specification of the entity that the sentence is about, while *focus* is 'semantic predicate' and its role is to display the description of the focus (263). For example:

- The pen writes well.

The *topic* of this sentence is 'the pen' which is what the sentence is about. The *focus*, on the other hand, is 'writes well'; writes well is a description for the pen which is the sentence topic. This focus reveals a characterization of the topic or 'the pen' and adds a specification to it.

### 3. 2 Definiteness and Thematization:

Thematization in linguistics is “the mental act or process of selecting particular topics as themes in discourse or words as themes in sentences” (<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/thematization>). Theme is defined in many ways by many writers, Lock (1996: 222), for instance defines it as the point of departure in a sentence which supplies a frame to interpret the rest of the message. For example:

- Michelangelo finished the statue of David in 1504.

‘Michelangelo’ is the theme while the rest of the clause is the rheme. The theme here is definite because it is made by proper name that expresses definiteness. Theme can be either marked or unmarked. In this example, it is unmarked because the theme is the subject while if theme occurs in position other than the subject, it will be marked theme as in:

- In 1504 Michelangelo finished the statue of David.

The theme ‘In 1504’ is marked because it precedes the ‘subject’. In a technical sense, any component that has been moved from its traditionally established basic position (also causing definite changes in accommodation of the other members of a sentence or clause) is called a *marked member*. According to Rzayev (unpublished paper: 24), the component which has got some extra feature is called ‘marked member’. We know for example that the initial position of any sentence is the position of the subject, but when we change this position by putting it in the second or third place; the prominence of the subject (i.e., its topichood, thematically/rhematically roles) also suffers changes. For instance:

- In came *the soldier* → (*marked subject*).

(instead of)

- *The soldier* came in.

The position already modified by the language as a rule is a marked position. The initial position of the sentence has been marked as the subject position. But when it changes its position, something changes in its meaning, i.e., the new position adds something to it; so that there appears something extra in the new position which can not be found in the first position; therefore because of that extra imposed on the new position, the subject is called ‘marked subject’ or ‘marked theme’ etc. but the first one is unmarked. The same thing can be said when we use the noun ‘book’ and ‘books’. Book can be found in its singular form but there is something extra in the second member ‘s’

which brings plurality to the ‘marked member’. It is marked or strong member because there is something more in it. Markedness can be found on all levels of language (syntactic, semantic, morphology, and phonology). For instance, the phonemes are not pronounced in all cases the same. /p/, /t/ and /k/ in initial position are aspirated but when we use them in middle or final position, they are non-aspirated (ibid: 13).

Here is the text taken from Graham Lock’s book “Functional English Grammar” that will be analyzed in accord with the floating of theme and rheme portions of information in terms of definiteness and indefiniteness:

<sup>1</sup> Yixing || is a small town in Jiangnan to the south of the Yangzi River.<sup>2</sup> The town || is set in beautiful surroundings.<sup>3</sup> A branch of the Yangzi || winds its way peacefully through its centre <sup>4</sup>and in spring, the green hills which ring the town || are covered with colourful flowers.

<sup>5</sup> The story takes place || in the middle of the third century A.D. during the early years of the Jin dynasty.<sup>6</sup> For many years the people of Yixing || had lived peaceful and happy lives.<sup>7</sup> They worked hard || to earn an honest living. <sup>8</sup> Some || fished in the waters of the river <sup>9</sup> whilst others || farmed the fertile lands along the banks.

<sup>10</sup> However, the days of peace || were now no more.<sup>11</sup> People lived || in daily fear of three evils.

<sup>12</sup> The first evil || was a man-eating tiger which lived in the mountains to the south of Yixing.<sup>13</sup> It attacked || wood- cutters and travellers through the mountains.<sup>14</sup> Soon || nobody dared to go into the mountains.<sup>15</sup> The few wood-cutters who did do so in order to earn their living || never returned. <sup>16</sup> At night the door of every house || was shut tight <sup>17</sup> and the small children || were too frightened even to cry.

<sup>18</sup> At about the same time || a huge sea-serpent over twenty feet long appeared at the bridge across the river.<sup>19</sup> This || was Yixing’s second evil.<sup>20</sup> With a quick movement of its tail, the sea-serpent || would overturn fishing boats and swallow alive everyone on board.<sup>21</sup> Fishermen || soon stopped fishing in the river and <sup>22</sup> people living on opposite sides of the river || lost contact with one another.<sup>23</sup> This second evil || was even worse than the first.

<sup>24</sup> The third evil || was a man named Zhou Chu.<sup>25</sup> He || was unusually strong and<sup>26</sup> he used his strength || to bully the ordinary people of Yixing so that <sup>27</sup> they came to regard him || as the greatest of the three evils.

<sup>28</sup>. The beautiful town of Yixing || had become a frightening place to live in.<sup>29</sup>. No one || knew when one of the three evils might attack him.

The text starts with the name of a town which is “Yixing”. Yixing is a proper name which has the property of being definite to the thing that is associated with. The author describes the exact position of the town to make the listener or reader imagine the place of it and to make it more specified and definite. Then, the writer starts to give new information about the city. Yixing is the topic or theme of the text and the rest of the first sentence is the focus or the rheme. Topic is defined as “the first presentation of a D-Topic” (Dik, 1989: 267); it means the first initiating of an entity into discourse. On the other hand, the rheme is information about the topic and the focal elements are “those pieces of information which are the most important or salient with respect to the modifications which the speaker wants to effect in the pragmatic information of the addressee” (Dik, 1989: 266), the pragmatic information meaning “the full body of knowledge, beliefs, assumptions, opinions and feelings available to an individual at any point in the interaction” (ibid: 9).

The second sentence which starts with ‘the town’ is definite here because it has been used with the definite article ‘the’ due to its being mentioned for the second time. It functions here as a given topic. The givenness information in the text is of scalar feature; it can be pronominalized as a *contextually given* by means of deictic or anaphoric pronouns, a *situationally given* by means of only deictic pronouns, and a *generally given* in which the entities which we refer to it require the full description (Mackenzie and Keizer, 1991: 184). Here, the writer makes the referent obvious by using the definite article.

The third sentence describes ‘a branch of the Yangzi’. It has been mentioned for the first time so that the indefinite article ‘a’ has also been used and also to add new information about Yangzi which is the rheme of the sentence. Then, ‘in spring, the green hills which ring the town’ is the ‘theme’ and the rest of the clause ‘are covered with colourful flowers’ is the ‘rheme’. Although there are two clauses in this instance, we can identify the demarcation line between thematic and rhematic section only in the first clause, while in the object clause, no division will take place because of its being an

embedded clause which can not be divided into the constituents without damaging the requirements of all the three levels.

The fifth sentence, 'the story' has been used with the definite article because the reader or listener already has background information about the topic or the theme of the discourse. The people of Yixing is also used with the definite article because here the writer is referring to the people of a specific town; being specified means that it is definite. After that, the writer uses the anaphoric reference of the pronoun 'they' which refers to 'the people of Yixing'. The means of keeping the given topic in the following discourse are "anaphoric reference, syntactic parallelism, switch reference and obviation" (Mackenzie and Keizer, 1991: 187). The following sentence begins with 'some' that is used with unspecified number or amount.

The days of peace, is specific and definite because it has been modified by being peaceful. After that, "people" has not been used with any determiner or definite article because here the writer means 'the people of Yixing' in general. Then, daily fear of three evils is the rheme of the sentence which supplies the rest of the text with the new information.

A man eating-tiger is the rheme of the sentence it occurs in. It is indefinite here because the writer does not specify or gives identity or the proper name to the man to make him more definite, but though in accord with the gradable approach in which an item can be definite and indefinite at the same time, I can argue that 'a man eating-tiger' is also definite in some sense because an animal is found in a specific town which is 'Yixing'. In the following sentence, we find the pronoun 'it' which refers to 'a man eating-tiger', thus writer treats the tiger as a source of his hatred.

'Soon', the marked adverb is used here to show the dynamics of the events taking place in a definite sequence. It is marked because the constituents occurring in the position other than the subject will be a marked theme. Nobody dared.....is the rheme which is indefinite because it refers to unspecified number of people but in the following sentence, it has been specified by referring to "few wood-cutters who did not return alive". *At night* is used for a specific period of time to make it more definite; it also functions as a background information; as a definite element because without

mentioning a definite time nothing can exist or happen therefore these cases are definite cases functioning as a thematic part but if it is used at the end of the sentence, we use it in this case when we want to emphasize the time when it took place; in these cases they serve to express actualized information. The information in such cases though definite, becomes more effective and gets emphasized. The door of every house.... has been used definitely because it has been modified by referring to every house; the same thing can be said about the small children.

A huge sea-serpent (though it has been described as being a huge one with twenty feet long) is used with the indefinite article 'a' because it has been used for the first time to the reader but in the following sentences it will be mentioned with the definite article and become thematization of the rheme and in this case the reader already will have background information about it. *This*, is definite because it refers to a more definite and specific thing. "Fishermen" is the theme and the rest of the sentence is the rheme. This second evil..... is a thematization of the rheme which refers to the sea-serpent and becomes definite.

The third evil.....is the theme and the rest of the sentence is rheme which is definite in this case because it is used by means of proper name 'Zhou Chu'. He, refers to 'Zhou Chu' which also is thematization of the rheme. The beautiful town of the last paragraph is the theme and it is definite while the rest of the sentence is the rheme. "No one" is unspecific and indefinite as the rheme while 'when one of .....' is the theme organized on the basis of "new- before- given" pattern.

### 3. 3. Indefiniteness and the Rheme:

Indefiniteness is a means of denoting new and contextually independent information, but as indefiniteness is bound to semantic structure, any sentence realized on the quality scale or presentation scale, can obtain the communicative dynamism through the interaction of all factors of functional sentence perspective (FSP) which are semantic structure, linear modification, and contextual boundness (Duškova, 2000: 47).

The role of functional sentence perspectives (FSP), particularly of *some* is dealt with by Sahlin (1979) in connection with contextual dependence or independence. *Some* with countable singular, and *nonselective some* with plurals and uncountable singular, in the following example are context dependent:-

- Some of them could have done it.
- Some people think so.

Both of these examples express definiteness, in the sense ‘some of them =some part of the people’ and ‘some people = not all the people’.

Introducing givenness as a normal characteristic of the theme, because it constructs a usual opening point for the sentence, Sahlin (1979) indicates that NPs with *some* are unusual in the subject position except that of the selective use, e.g. ‘some of’ which is associated with definiteness, “Moreover, nonselective *some*, whether article or quantifier, is usually found with types of VPs held to favour new information in the subject, notably those indicating ‘appearance or existence on the scene’” (46). This can be illustrated by an example as:

- When *some question* arises in the medical field concerning cancer, for instance, we do not....

According to the presentation scale of Firbas, the subject or contextually independent event is presented on the scene through a verb of appearance. The word order (theme ~ transition ~ rheme) has been replaced in this example by (rheme ~ transition ~ theme), though the grammatical word order acts in accord with communicative dynamism (CD) of (Firbas, 1992: 10). The functional sentence perspective of the sentence is revealed by contextual and semantic factors and in speaking, by intonation factor.

New information, on the other hand, is found in the subject position while it must appear at the end, as in:

- We found *some owls* had built a nest in the chimney.

According to the quality scale of Firbas (1992), the communication of this sentence concentrates on verbal complementation which is not a verb of appearance or existence. This example is being used out of context; if we imagine this example to be used within a context; we can interpret the FSP of this example as denoted by indefinite determiners to have thematic subject ‘some owls’ and rhematic object ‘a nest’ in which both of them are contextually independent.

Duškova (2000) states that the structure of FSP is affected by the interaction of all factors of FSP: semantic, contextual and modification of linearity involving intonation in speech. In writing, the FSP is determined by other factors; though given and new items are inclined to act as theme and rheme respectively, they are not so; sometimes they act as thematic in new case and rhematic in given case. The theme is defined as the least dynamic element while the rheme as the most dynamic element. The last factor is that we can find both given and new items in both theme and rheme position (47).

Chafe states that every paragraph, sentence or even a word is said to perform a particular job with the reason behind its use. The sentence consists of semantic units arranged together to perform a complex pattern. When speaker states a sentence, he presupposes the listener or the hearer to have already background information of what he is talking about, this old information may be mutual due to the same environment in which both the speaker and hearer are interacting at or we can say that this common or shared environment is created linguistically while other information he is communicating with is new for the listener. This information is introduced for the first time to him. For example:

- The box is empty.
- The box was empty.

From the meaning of the first sentence, we can say that both the speaker and the hearer are confronted by the box. The sentence presupposes this framework and the additional information is that the box is ‘empty’, the fact that is learned by looking into



the box. The second sentence, due to the past tense, is narrating about some past events so that the common conceptual frame has been shaped linguistically. When mentioned earlier, it presented new information but now it became an old information, being part of the form of concepts in the mind of both speaker and hearer, the only new information being communicated is ‘was empty’ (1970:211).

The presentation of old and new information resembles the presentation of definite and indefinite item respectively. When the sentence contains old information, this already presupposes known information to the hearer and makes him be certain about what the conversation is dealing with, in contrast to the new information that is unknown and may be indefinite to him, for example:

- A box is empty.

The indefinite article in the sentence ‘*a*’ makes the listener or hearer unsure what exact box the speaker is referring to.

Chafe (1970) states that the differentiation between old and new information is considered as the principle of what is called theme and rheme or topic and comment. The surface structure of subject for example or what is called the “least marked” usually conveys the old information of the sentence. This old information means that the hearer is familiar with the concept that is presented and this makes the concept definite because familiarity is consistent with definiteness. If we return to the previous example of ‘a box is empty’, here the new information of ‘*a box*’ placed first of the surface structure and treated as if it were old information. I can argue that it is not necessarily old information usually placed in the sentence- initial position. The first part can also show newness.

Sometimes the structure of a sentence is short of a focus, at least to a definite extent that the connection between the nominal components representing the theme and the rheme is pragmatically given, as in:

- I have a head.
- There is a head on my body.

In both of these sentences, the meaning is clear and does not need the definite article ‘\*I have the head’; it is very normal for every one of us to have a head so that they are pragmatically given or known by the speaker and hearer. The irretrievable

information of the rheme is due to the trivial nature of the content that is expressed which can also be applied to a sentence like:

- He has a shrewd head on his shoulders.

The modification of the head ‘shrewd’ represents the new information while ‘head’ is the rheme. This modification or new information as irretrievable component in the focus part represents the usual formation of a given theme and the new elements in the rheme. This combination of a new and given item in the rheme as in ‘shrewd head’ is most common in use (Duškova, 1985).

The suitability of the use of indefinite determination with body parts intensifies if it is used with a unique feature, for example:

- He is growing *a* beard.

Here, we use the indefinite article ‘a’ but not the definite one ‘the’ to be ‘\*he is growing the beard’ because beard is usually worn by some men, not all men have beard. This sentence bears information unable to be retrieved in the focus even if there is no modification. The indefinite article which is used with unique object can be attributed to the specific meaning of the verb *grow* in that it permits to be in class with the verbs of ‘set–existential’ to bring into existence the unit or object indicated through its complement as in ‘he has a beard’, the verb *has* in this sentence, also serves to express another function not just being in a parallel with verbs of ‘set–existential’ but to show the possessive relation between the thing possessed and the possessor in order to avoid the redundancy of using the ordinary possessive format, i.e. the choice of the determiner of the thing possessed can be done in accord with the functional sentence perspective or the type of reference; the choice of the indefinite article is made not just in accord with its semantics of being ‘one of a set of more than one’ but it can also be used to denote generic or nongeneric reference (Duškova, 2000: 37) as in:-

- A dog is a mammal = all dogs are mammals.
- There is a watchdog there = concrete meaning

The first sentence can not be used as a concrete noun, it is of generic sense, it denotes a definite group and accordingly in ‘a dog’, the meaning of ‘a’ should get adapted to its meaning. This is called ‘componential analysis. The indefinite article ‘a’ does not denote the meaning of singularity but plurality ‘all dogs’. In the second example ‘there is’; shows already ‘oneness or singular’; since “there” as a local

adverbial has a concrete meaning and concrete meanings do not allow the noun with the indefinite article to denote a generic sense; therefore “a” in the second sentence expresses a concrete meaning (i.e., one). The first example expresses generic use or reference, a dog is among animals that are mammal while the second example is nongeneric reference because it denotes “one” (dog) of many watchdogs.

### **3. 4. Interplay of the Category with the Semantic Factors:**

As the theory of functional sentence perspective (FSP) concerns with text linguistics, we should say that text linguistics has played an essential role in the progression of discourse analysis. It displays texts as elements linked together in explainable relationships, provided by cohesion in the surface structure, on the one hand, and the coherence of the text which is concerned with the deep semantic relations between its elements on the other hand. Text linguistics deals with the material of the text from different perspectives; one of them is the communicative approach (Adam, 2009: 57).

The information processing theory or the theory of functional sentence perspective of Prague Circle is closely related to the field of texts linguistics. It investigates the relation between the pieces of information and the structures of theme and rheme. This theory is regarded as one of the important devices in processing of information and discourse analysis. What makes FSP specific within the sphere of text linguistics is the interaction of all factors of FSP along with degrees of CD. The beginning of functional explanations starts with the FSP analysis of essential distributional field. According to Firbas (1992: 15), the basic distributional field is a communicative unit “a sentence, a clause, a semiclause and even a nominal phrase serve as distributional fields of CD in the act of communication, and their syntactic constituents (e.g. subject, predicative verb...) serve as communicative units”. It is probable to categorize the degrees of CD that is conveyed by the communicative units, through the interplay of FSP factors (ibid: 59).

The sphere of FSP has also been applied to paragraphs or chapters not only on the domain of clauses or its distributional field. Two major kinds of chains of related semantic items are found within the FSP analysis of a distributional paragraph or chapter; on the one hand, the co-referential chains and the dynamic-semantic chains on

the other hand. Firbas (1992: 27) states that the co-referential chains are strings of a single communicative unit that have the same referents, the chain or string often begins in the rhematic domain and moves towards the transition till it finds itself in the thematic domain. If the concept stays context-dependent, in the thematic domain, the process may go on a long with a number of distributional spheres. According to Firbas co-referential are “linguistic elements naming or indicating the same extralinguistic phenomenon, in other words having the same referent” (1992: 32).

On the other hand, the dynamic-semantic path does not depend on only the interrelation of layers as the co-referential chain does but on the relation founded within one of the paths in an exclusive manner. The principle of uniformity or homogeneity of the rhematic proper layer in terms of the function of the dynamic-semantic paths is described by Firbas (1992: 77). The paths or tracks are created by the (thematic, transitional, and rhematic) components of the text. Since rhematic elements convey the highest degrees of communicative dynamism, they are regarded as the fundamental in FSP analyses of a text together with the thematic and transitional elements in establishing dynamic-semantic tracks.

As a rule, each utterance “oral or written” expresses the transition in thoughts from something which is already known to something that is unknown by the readers or listeners. The background of the addressee concerning the topic of speech should be taking into account when creating the utterance. In accord with this, the known part is made the starting point by the speaker and the second part is concerned with presenting information about the first part. The theme comes before the rheme, and Mathesius called this organization ‘an objective order’, in which the sequence of information proceeds from known to unknown which makes the comprehension easier, but when the rheme precedes the theme, in this case the sequence is called ‘a subjective order’ in which through this sequence the sentence will acquire more importance. The real context and specific speech situation are the bases of the division of theme and rheme (Wauconda, 2012), for example:

- Ali has got the book from a college.
- Ali has got a book from the college.

Both of these sentences involve the same material but they differ in the actual information that they present. In the first case, the focus is on ‘the book’ and not ‘a college’ and this has been demonstrated by the definite article *the* while in the second example, the focus is on the place which Ali took the book from. I can argue that using the definite article ‘the’ in ‘the book’ of the first sentence denotes ‘givenness’ or ‘familiarity’ and this familiarity usually functions as the ‘given or known’ information; therefore what is important is ‘from a college’ just in the opposite opinion of Wauconda. These two sentences contain an identical syntactic and lexical content but they differ only in the form of articles they contain. This distinction also determines a different functional perspective of them. In the first case, the definite article ‘the book’ showed that this object is already known to the hearer while in the second case, the indefinite article ‘a book’ is a sign of new information. If the sentence contains only new or unknown information, it will be impossible to divide the utterance into theme and rheme. This is a quality of a phrase-beginner when introducing the interlocutors with the essence of the event, for example, ‘there lived an old man and his wife.....’ (ibid: 2012).

In language, every utterance is used to express certain meaning. This meaning can be known if we know the three types of meaning that can express the utterance. FSP embraces all three aspects of meaning. According to Lock (1996: 9-10), these types are:

1. Experiential meaning: that deals with the way that we express our actions, situations, and beliefs, and the people engaged in these situations for instance, and the related time, place, and manner of its occurrence. For example:

- Ahmed arrived at five o’clock.

This sentence is about a person who performs an action that is expressed by past tense at a certain time at (5 o’clock). It also involves a proper name ‘Ahmed’ which makes the sentence definite and (5 o’clock) also from the point of the system of o’clock times is definite but according to (Rzayev, unpublished paper: 23) from the point of discourse motivatedness, it has acquired the discourse prominence exceeding that of the other parts of the sentence. Ahmed arrives is ‘the theme’ and at five o clock is the rheme ‘new information’. What is important to us is the least division.

2. Interpersonal meaning: concerned with the way in which people react upon one another during using language, for instance asking and giving information, offering something to others, and our judgment upon things like desirability, likelihood, and necessity. For instance:

- Did Ahmed arrive at five o'clock?
- Ahmed might have arrived at five o'clock.

These sentences are in the form of a question and an answer with the same experiential meaning of a person 'Ahmed' who performs an action at a certain time, i.e. 5 o'clock. While in the previous example of experiential meaning, the event had taken place, here we are uncertain whether it took place or not due to involving 'might' in the answer of the question which means the likelihood of the event being taken place.

3. Textual meaning: that deals with the way in which through the context, the stretch of language is arranged. Textual meaning has a great importance for the coherence of the text. For example:

- He arrived at five o'clock.
- It was Ahmed who arrived at five o'clock.

In the first example, the existence of the pronoun 'he' makes the sentence indefinite, we do not know who 'he' refers to so that the listener needs to know something about previous context to know the referent of 'he'. In the second example, the focus is on 'Ahmed', again there must be reference to the previous context to see why the focus is on Ahmed and not on someone else.

There are many words that involve semantic categories, among them are adverbs. Biber et al. (1999) state three types of adverbs which are circumstance, stance, and linking adverbs. The adverbs that concern us are the circumstantial adverbs which can express definite or indefinite time, place or manner. They provide information about the time and how frequently something occurs but do not mention exactly or definitely how, for instance, *adverbs of frequency* like 'rarely', 'never', 'often', and 'always'; *adverbs of place* like 'here', 'there', etc; *adverbs of manner* like 'slowly':

- It is rainy here.
- Ali always comes to school early.
- She is walking slowly.

The adverb of the first example 'here' can not denote definiteness unless we know the exact place in which an utterance took place. In the second example, the adverb 'always' though it replies how often Ali comes to school but it expresses indefiniteness because it does not tell exactly how. The third example describes the action and how it is performed.

If we have an example like 'the door is *almost* open':-

'Almost' with its own meaning already, wherever I use it, I can not divide its meaning. It's an already 'Stylistic expressive means', but when I make more emphatic for definite purpose, that will become a 'Stylistic device'. It makes our use of language more emphatic, correct, effective, and more balanced. Stylistics is everywhere; for example, when I use 'a known sentence', it is informative style, i.e. information delivering style. Without style, without function, and without purpose no available element of language can exist. It serves a definite purpose. The same thing can refer to pronouns. Pronouns do not have meaning unless we have knowledge of the previous context to clarify whom the pronoun refers to. As a stylistic device, on the other hand, we can make the pronoun emphatic, for instance 'It is me'. It is called the 'it cleft'; using the historical present instead of past simple, stylistically I make this example prominent to serve different purposes (Rzayev: unpublished paper:19).

The linguistic meaning of person, pronoun, possessive, etc. become known either through linguistic context or through extra linguistic context, for example:

- What is your name?
- Asmaa.

In this example, the reference of the question is demonstrated through going forward but when it goes backward, it is anaphoric reference. This reference provides definiteness and becoming definite, it loses its prominent or importance; therefore it is moved to the section of knownness, or known information. For example:

- I saw an American girl in the street. She is an SDU student.

Here, 'an American girl' is the new information while in the consequent sentence 'she' which refers to 'an American girl' becomes a known information (ibid: 22).

In definite cases, the propositional meaning of the sentence corresponds to the truthfulness of its components to deliver definite information. This truthfulness comes under the head of speech act theory; the maxim of quality, in the sense that we express that kind of information which we believe is true, but in indefinite cases, it seems to be not enough. We must find out whether its potential meaning is enough or not; if it is not enough we have to address additional factors and in this sense we go outside language to the objective reality. This turning to the objective reality is connected with a lot of factors which differ from situation to situation; therefore pragmatics is nothing but an imposed function on semantics (Rzayev: unpublished paper: 5).

Huesinger (2002: 292) states that the arrangement of information of the sentence does not only interrelate with linguistic levels; it also performs a fundamental role in the aspect of meaning. For instance, its importance is in the coherence and the production of discourse, in the selection of anaphoric elements, in the understanding of the suitable speech act, etc. The information structure is more important with sentences that contain focus-sensitive particles as *too*, *only*, *also* or with adverb of quantification as *sometimes*, *always*, *often* etc. therefore; informational organization is of semantic import due to its effect on the text. On the bases of analysis of focus-sensitive particles, the semantic theories of information structure are built. Their importance for the meaning of sentence relies on the information structure of the sentence, which consists of focus plus the so-called ‘backward-looking’ complement of the focus. This complement is recognized as *presupposition* or *shared knowledge* or *background* which is usually used. For example:

- Ali talks to *Ahmed*.

The focus of the sentence is on Ahmed which brings out a presupposition that Ali talks to someone. But if we have a sentence like:

- Ali *only* talked to Ahmed.

The background of the sentence corresponds to mean that there is nobody but Ahmed that Ali talked to. The semantics of focus is illustrated by a proper name denoted by Ahmed and also with complex NPs and its association as in:

- Ali only talked to [Ahmeds’ sister] NP.
- Ali only talked to [the first American astronaut in space] NP.

The focus sensitive operator, in a formal analysis quantifies over alternatives to the focused expression *Ahmed sisters’* or over nationalities to mean ‘Ali talked to the



astronaut of American nationality but not other nationality'. The adverb of quantification of the following sentence means that Ali in most opportunities invites someone to movies who is Ahmed.

- Ali *usually* invites Ahmed to the movies.

In this sentence, the adverb of quantification behaves as an operator with two arguments; the set of times during which Ali invites someone and the set of time when he invites Ahmed. The focus "Ahmed" points out how to form the suitable domains for the quantifier and the operator does not count over the focus (ibid: 293).

The null article is an article that is usually used with singular count common nouns especially with idiomatic items such as:

- Hand in hand, Face to face, etc...

These nouns 'hand' and 'face' can be used to denote a particular hand or face but a part from being parallel structure, they acquire another function of being treated as an adverbial. Quirk et al. (1985) state that "phrases with the noun repeated typically have an adverbial function ... It can be argued that the nouns have no article because they have largely lost their independent nominal status" (280).

Duškova (2000: 41) states that the interchanging between *null* and *the* can also express another function not only a temporal adverbial but it can express a unique reference where the denotation is deictic, for example:

- (The) winter is coming.

The null article with temporal nouns can be used as a subject as in:

- When *day* breaks.
- *Dusk* was falling

Or it can be used as an adverbial with preposition, for instance:

- At dawn, at day break, by night, etc...

On the other hand, while temporal nouns are used as a subject, it is used as the object when 'the' is used with it, for instance:

- We admired the sunset.
- Watch the dawn.

Concerning the adverbial function, the choice of the preposition can determine whether to use 'the' or 'null' article, for example:

- At/by night ~ during the night or through the night.

The alternation between *null* and *the* of adverbial nouns of this kind also satisfy the reference of a specific time of day and night so that it fulfils a definite reference. If we have a sentence like the following one:

- Before morning came; evening approached; dusk was falling.

This sentence is compatible to be referred to as *nongeneric zero article* representing the contextual independence of the head noun; in this state, the subject with the semantic structure of the sentence represents a new event through the use of verb of appearance or existence on the scene signaling the rheme (ibid: 41).

## **Conclusion**

1. The subject of this thesis was laid out to investigate the category of definiteness and indefiniteness in English. Definiteness as has been demonstrated by Huddleston (2002) is a semantic characteristic of the NPs which differentiate between the referent whether it is definite or indefinite one. This category helps to make communication more understandable. Communication is purposive, i.e. every sentence sets out to deliver a definite purpose and necessary information, therefore this information must be used in a correct way. As the concerned subject is the category of (in) definiteness; the definite article and other devices expressing them must serve to contribute to correctness of information flow within English text.

2. The historical evolution of the article system relates to an earlier periods, from OE to present day English being influenced by external and internal factors. The external factors are connected with events that took place in the history of people while the internal factors affect language structure in term of full, weakened, and lost endings. From the point of increasing the role of definite article and other ways of expressing (in) definiteness nothing gets lost. It has become more complex integrating with some other device. These devices are the article system and other determiners in modern English as has been demonstrated in chapter two; therefore as language structure changes, those roles are redivided.

3. Many properties work under the functional (in) definiteness in order to identify the referent and distinguished it from others within the discourse modal. These properties are uniqueness, presuppositionality, referentiality and familiarity. There are two paths concerning definiteness; grammatical - semantic ones and the degree of knownness - newness. These two paths make the extent of meanings of the devices of (in) definiteness accessible.

4. The information structure of any sentence is composed of two constituents, known and new information. This knownness expresses definiteness and familiarity to the listener or reader and it is regarded as a departure point while newness displaying indefiniteness to the listener or reader is regarded as the purposive dimension so that much dependence of context will be on the category of definiteness and indefiniteness. According to the (PLC) and their theory of FSP, the known information is called

'theme' while new information is called 'rheme'. This theory is implemented at this study by using the communicative dynamism to express the degree of importance of language units. The interrelationship of (in) definite kinds of information results in making the patterns of information more dynamic. As language units are of great importance in the process of communication, the identification of the role of (in) definiteness is of great importance for making teaching learning English more easily and effectively.



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