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THE DEVELOPMENT OF DEFINITENESS IN GERMANIC AND ROMANCE LANGUAGES

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I confirm that this thesis is my own work, using solely the sources and literature properly quoted and acknowledged as works cited.

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Poděkování

Děkuji Mgr. Janě Kozubíkové Šandové, Ph.D. za odborné vedení bakalářské práce, podnětné rady a za trpělivost. Dále bych chtěla poděkovat Maria del Mar Sierra Rodríguez, která mi při mém zahraničním pobytu byla také velmi nápomocná při hledání zdrojů. V neposlední řadě patří velké díky mým přátelům a rodině, kteří mě nenechali padnout a pomohli mi v nejtěžších chvílích, a také mně, že jsem vytrvala, nezlomila nad sebou hůl, a dokončila tuto práci.

Anotace

Tato bakalářská práce se bude zaměřovat na vývoj a význam kategorie určenosti ve vybraných germánských a románských jazycích. V úvodu práce vysvětlím, zda má tento koncept stejné nebo odlišné pojetí ve vybraných jazykových větvích a porovnám pravidla používání členů ve zkoumaných jazycích. V další části práce shrnu nejdůležitější poznatky o vývoji členů v indoevropských jazycích. Poté budu zkoumat kategorii členu jako takovou, její původ a detailněji se zaměřím na to, jak se vyvíjel určitý člen a jeho funkce ve staré a střední angličtině. Tento vývoj pak porovnám s jinými germánskými a románskými jazyky. S ústředním tématem této bakalářské práce úzce souvisí koncept gramatikalizace určitého členu z ukazovacích zájmen. Této problematice se budu věnovat prakticky analýzou autentických textů napsaných vybranými germánskými a románskými jazyky. Práce bude napsána v anglickém jazyce.

Klíčová slova: románské jazyky, germánské jazyky, vývoj, člen určitosti, gramatikalizace

Abstract

This bachelor thesis will focus on the development and meaning of the category of determinacy in selected Germanic and Romance languages. In the introduction of the thesis, I shall explain whether this concept has the same or different conception in the selected languages and compare the rules of using the articles in the languages under study. In the next part of the thesis, I will summarise the most important findings about the development of articles in IndoEuropean languages. Then, I shall examine the article category as such, its origins, and I look in more detail at how the definite article and its functions evolved in Old and Middle English. Also, compare this development with other Germanic and Romance languages. Closely related to the central theme of this thesis is the concept of grammaticalization of the definite article from demonstrative pronouns. I am going to address this issue practically by analysing authentic texts written by selected Germanic and Romance languages. The thesis will be written in English.

Keywords: Romance languages, Germanic languages, development, definiteness, grammaticalization

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1. Introduction

Language is an intrinsic part of human communication on earth. It connects us in many ways and has become part of our everyday way of communicating. There are many different languages and dialects, yet we still manage to communicate with each other on a daily basis. Although every language has different phonology, lexicon, or syntax, there is one thing mutual, definiteness.

The main focus of this bachelor's thesis is to examine how languages from different Indo-European branches developed their determinants, articles and demonstratives trough different periods of time, how the usage has changed and if the difference between two large groups, in our case German and Romance languages, had the same or a completely different evolution.

The reason why I have choose this topic was because the history and evolution of languages, and their properties, are fascinating to me, because I have always wondered, and found interest in, how the languages acquired their form, what was the whole process of it, and also to what extend they were similar in the beginning and what has caused their differentiation from one another through the centuries. It is quite interesting to examine the changes step by step and to think about it as a self-evolving 'organism'. Another reason why I have choose this topic was for the dissimilarity between the articles in the English language and the German language, though they are from the same branch.

This bachelor's thesis is divided into 5 chapters; we are going to examine how the IndoEuropean language family are divided, and what kind of languages belong into each individual branch, Germanic and Romance branches are going to be examined into further detail. Then we are going to focus on the morphological use in modern language, what kind of demonstratives they consist of, and how we use them in daily communication.

Afterwards, the term ‘Definiteness’ is going to be examined, and how it is perceived by selected languages, in our case; English, German, Spanish, and Italian. The history and background of these languages are required for us to understand the changes, so it is also going to be part of this work. This examination will be supported by authentic texts, mostly from literature, to compare individual time periods with the provided changes. And finally, I would like to pay attention to the process of Grammaticalization, since it was one of the main factors that established and fixed the usage of determiners in morphology of languages.

2 Indo-European and Non-Indo-European languages

2.1. Introduction to the languages

Languages play a major role in forming our perspective on the world, and the IndoEuropean language family is the most important to us. This language family is extremely diversified, spanning multiple geographical areas, and having a profound impact on numerous cultural domains. We will focus on the ancestry and branches of Indo-European languages along with how they have influenced each other through the ages.

In the book, Algeo highlights the fact that when we look at the languages more carefully, we notice that even though each of them vary in many aspects, there are still numerous similarities, which point to the fact that they have the same base of development from one language, the Proto-Indo-European - which indicates that Europe and part of India were the cradle of the development. Although there were more locations suggested as the centre of the development, we cannot tell for sure due to the lack of evidence. However, to provide a more clarified division of the languages, they were classified by a new linguistic, typological classification, into four groups, isolating, agglutinative, incorporative, and inflective, which should help to understand and compare them more precisely. There was also a need to demonstrate the historical progress of the languages. The genetic classification met our needs in the way of explaining how they are connected in the sense of origin, how did they sound, and how the structure was built (2014: 50-53).

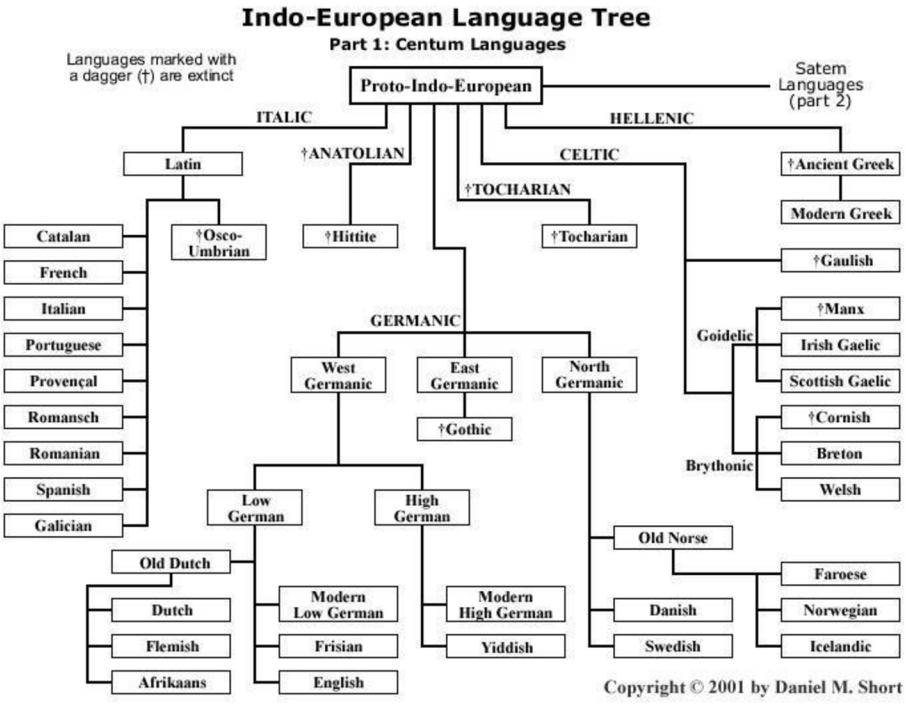
2.2. Subdivision of languages

2.2.1. Indo-European Languages

Algeo (2014: 55-58) splits the Indo-European languages into seven main branches, Indo-Iranian, Armenian, Albanian, Balto-Slavic, Celtic, Germanic, and Italic. We can also find Hellenic, Tocharian, and Anatolian, but these are not that widespread. For the

Germanic and Italic languages, I am going to create one separate chapter because of their importance to our work and the need to take a closer look at them. However, below the text, we have a diagram showing how these branches are divided and in what relation they are to each other. Now, I would like to take a brief look at some of the individual language branches.

Table 1. Indo-European Language Tree (*English Time).*



Among the earliest for which we have historical documents of is the Indo-Iranian group with Vedic hymns written in Sanskrit. With the Indo-Iranian group there are connected languages such as Bengali, Hindi, Uru, and the Indian dialect Romany, well known under the term; 'Gipsy'. Multiple languages were established by the Indo-Europeans who lived on the Iranian Plateau, for example; Old Persian. It is essential to mention that Armenian and Albanian are examples of different cases. Originally, these two subgroups were supposed to be a part of the Indo-Iranian group due to the vast amount of loanwords from

Persian, Arabic, Syrian, or Greek. With this mix of languages, it is hard to tell from what part of the Indo-European family branch they have evolved (2014: 55-58).

The next in line, would be the Balto-Slavic branch, which, according to Albert C. Baugh and his colleague Thomas Cable (2005: 27) is divided, as the name implies, into Baltic and Slavic languages, which share more similarities than we might have expected. The Baltic languages, consist of Prussian, German has supplanted Prussian as the language of today because of its extinction, and Latvian and Lithuanian. It was somehow implicated that a few of the features of Sanskrit are still visible in the Lithuanian, but not in other languages of the family. Almost as identical with their parallels are considered the Slavic languages, which are currently grouped into three categories: Slavic West, South, and East.

It must be mentioned, that the West and the East still cover contiguous areas, but the South Slavs, in the Balkan peninsula, are now separated from the rest by a belt of non-Slavic people, the Hungarian and the Romanians (Baugh & Cable 2005: 27).

Russian, Belorussian, Ukrainian are taken as the East Slavic branch, and with the amount of approximately 234 million native speakers they create the greatest group. However, Ukraine was forced to distinguish between its language, that of Russia, which created misunderstanding in the spoken sphere. On the other hand, the western part of the Slavic branch consists of Polish, Czech, Slovak, and Sorbian, with average number of only 56 million speakers. The last important part of this language branch, is the South Slavic, where we find, Slovene, Bulgarian, modern Macedonian, and Serbo-Croatian. Compared to some of the other branches, the Slavic languages are a more homogeneous group, and therefore in many ways, they maintain a rather antique character and have drifted less from the common type than those of the Germanic branch (2005: 27-28).

2.2.2. Non-Indo-European languages

It is essential to mention that not all languages that have been discovered belong to any of the categories, states above Algeo (2014: 53-54). These types of languages are divided into two groups, Semitic and Hamitic. Semitic group of languages includes Akkadian, Hebrew, Aramaic, and Ethiopic. On the contrary, in the Hamitic group, we find , Egyptian, the Berber dialects of North Africa, the Cushitic dialects, and Chadic. However, the languages spoken in central and southern Africa, including the enormous region of south Sahara, are not related to Hamitic and create their own group of languages; Nilo-Saharan, Niger-Kordofanian, and Khoisan. On the other side of the planet, on the Asian continent, these languages belong to the Dravidian or Sino-Tibetan with Chinese, Cantonese, or Mandarian. Languages of the Indian or Pacific Ocean, also called Austronesian languages, consist of Malay, Maori, and many other Polynesian languages. The last but not least important group is the Ural-Altaic group, which is made of the Finno-Urgic languages like Finnish, Estonian, Lappis, and Hungarian. Altaic, on the other hand, is formed by Turkish, and the varieties of Turkestan, Azerbaijan, Manchu, and Mongolian.

2.3. Germanic languages

Because this thesis is going to be focused primarily on the Germanic and Romance languages, I would like to take a closer look at these two branches.

As stated, in the book of Baugh and Cable (2005: 28–29), the form of Germanic languages we know today, descended from the Proto-Germanic languages and these languages are divided, into three subgroups: West Germanic, East Germanic and North Germanic. As the ancestor of the East Germanic language branch is considered Gothic. Ulfilas, who was a missionary spreading Christianity on the shore of the Black Sea in the 3rd century, is regarded as responsible for our understanding of Gothic with his translation

of the Gospels and other books of the New Testament, where the first known record of a Germanic language is made, that is available for us. There was a time in our history when the Goths made a significant impact on European history with the conquest of Italy and Spain. However, Latin quickly replaced their language in these places, and it does not appear to have survived for a long time anywhere else neither. Next in line, would be the

North Germanic languages that appeared in Scandinavia, especially in the Faroe Islands, Denmark, and Iceland. Our earliest records of the language are also preserved in the thirdcentury runic inscriptions. It is convenient to refer to the common Scandinavian language as Old Norse in its early form. As the languages before, Scandinavian languages are also divided into subgroups, the eastern group with Swedish and Danish on one side, and a western group with Norwegian, the Faroese, and Icelandic. The Norwegian language was no longer used for literature in the fourteenth century, and today one of Norway's written languages is Danish, which contains Norwegian motifs. However, around about the year 874 AD, the Norwegian settlers landed in Iceland, where they swiftly collected a corpus of heroic literature that was unparalleled among the Germanic people. The last group that can be found among the Germanic language branch is in the West, consisting of High and Low German. As a result, in the past, we identified Old Saxon, Old Low Franconian, Old Frisian, and Old English as Low German. The foundation of contemporary Low German, or Plattdeutsch, is Old Saxon. Each of the old languages described a few lines before giving the basis for languages such as Dutch and dialects of Belgium. In the table below, we can see similarities in the Germanic languages.

Table 2. Germanic languages (Maiden, Martin et al. 2020: 69).

English	Dutch	German	Icelandic	Norwegian	Swedish	Danish
hand	*hand*	*Hand*	*hönd*	*hånd*	*hand*	*hånd*
finger	*vinger*	*Finger*	*fingur*	*finger*	*finger*	*finger*
nail	*nagel*	*Nagel*	*nagli*	*negl*	*nagel*	*negl*
leg	*been*	*Bein*	*fótur*	*bein*	*ben*	*ben*
knee	*knie*	*Knie*	*hné*	*kne*	*knä*	*knæ*
foot	*voet*	*Fuß*	*fótur*	*fot*	*fot*	*fod*
tooth	*tand*	*Zahn*	*tönn*	*tann*	*tand*	*tand*
eye	*oog*	*Auge*	*auga*	*øye*	*öga*	*øje*

From the table we can easily deduce that the vocabulary in each of the languages had very similar lexemes and were, and until this day still are, conveniently recognisable from other language branch. If we look closely on each row of the table, it is very interesting to note how the languages correspond to the mutual evolution and how the language contact made them look very similar.

2.4. Romance/ Italic languages

The Italic branch originates from Italy, which most people associate with ancient Rome, and Latin, the language of Rome, explain Baugh and Cable (2005) in their work. It is also necessary to consider the fact that Latin was not the only language spoken in this region in the past, despite its major role in the historical era. It is necessary to contemplate the fact that in the earlier period there also appeared less known Indo-European languages such as Etruscan, Venetic, Messapian, or Illyrian. Although Latin remained the principal language of that area, for example; Umbrian and Oscan were also spoken by people living in particular parts of that area. The largest and most comprehensive of the Romanic languages are Portuguese, Italian, Spanish, and French. It became separated into several dialects, Norman, Picard, Burgundian, and Ile-deFrance, during the Middle Ages. With the arrival of the Capetian dynasty, the Ile-de-France dialect of Paris gained acceptance as a literary and official language across the whole country at that time, but Standard French has been

derived from the Paris dialect since the thirteenth century. The language of France varied significantly from the north, the langue d'oïl, to the south, langue d'oc. The language of the troubadours, who wrote original literature in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, has now given way to French in terms of social and political standing. On the contrary, Spanish, and Portuguese have remained close to each other due to their close proximity and the comparable environments in which they have evolved. Due to this fact, a Spaniard can read Portuguese with ease, despite certain vocabulary and pronunciation variances, as well as significant variations in spoken language sounds. Since it is nothing more than the Latin language, which has been spoken on Rome's streets since the city was founded, Italian has had the longest continuous history in its original location of any Romance language. Not by just the six Romance languages, but also by their variations, the inhabitants communicate in smaller areas between each other, for example, Catalan in the northeast with similar characteristics to Provençal and Spanish, and Calician in the northwest, which is close to both Spanish and Portuguese. We cannot omit the Rhaeto-Romanic group appearing in Switzerland and its surroundings where people use Romansch and its dialects, in which aspects of Germanic influence. As it might not seem, these languages risen from Latin are not founded from the languages used by the classical authors of the period of time because it was more likely a literary language with a complex, although fabricated, grammar. The Vulgar Latin, whose name was derived from the word *vurgus*, the common people, was less advanced in terms of inflection, syntax, and vocabulary, which on the contrary was more diverse.

> In Classical Latin the word for horse was *equus*, but the colloquial word was caballus. It is from the colloquial word that French cheval, Provençal *caval*, Spanish *caballo*, Italian *cavallo*, etc., are derived. (Baugh & Cable 2005: 26)

There are several reasons why this Vulgar Latin evolved differently in the various regions of Europe where it was first introduced. As the first resolution given by Gustav

Gröber, Vulgar Latin naturally evolved and shifted its form. As a result of the formation of Roman regions at various points in history, the manners of communication brought into the places would be roughly the same as the language used in ordinary conversation. Separation and the impact of the local inhabitants' languages as they embraced the new language would exacerbate these differences.

> The Belgae and the Celts in Gaul, described by Caesar, differed from the Iberians in Spain. Each of these peoples undoubtedly modified Latin in accordance with the grammars of their own languages, as normally happens when languages come into contact. (Baugh & Cable 2005: 26)

Table 3. Romance languages (Maiden, Martin et al. 2020: 69).

Portuguese	Spanish	Catalan	French	Italian	Romanian	
mão	*mano*	*má*	*main*	*mano*	*mână*	hand
dedo	*dedo*	*dit*	*doigt*	*dito*	*deget*	finger
unha	*uña*	*ungla*	*ongle*	*unghia*	*unghie*	nail
perna	*pierna*	*cama*	*jambe*	*gamba*	*picior*	leg
joelho	*rodilla*	*genoll*	*genou*	*ginocchio*	*genunchi*	knee
pé	*pie*	*peu*	*pied*	*piede*	*picior*	foot
dente	*diente*	*dent*	*dent*	*dente*	*dinte*	tooth
olho	*ojo*	*ull*	*œil*	*occhio*	*ochi*	eye

As with the previous table of German languages, even here we can see the very clear similarities between individual Romance languages. It is natural, that the lexicon from individual languages will differ due to dialect and different minor changes that occurred trough time in specific occurrence. For example, the word ‘foot’. When we look at it closely, we can see that in Spanish, French, and Italian the words start with ‘pie- ‘. On the contrary, Portuguese, Catalan with ‘pe- ‘and Romania as the only one with ‘pi- ‘.

2.5. The Comparative Method

Campbell states, that most of the linguistics focus on the languages and their reconstruction, the comparative method is a useful tool not just for retrieving the history of languages, but also for the classification and studies of distant genetic connections. Establishing the sound system through phonology is typically the first step in the reconstruction process, which subsequently leads to the reconstruction of the protolanguage's grammar and lexicon. If the reconstruction proves to be successful, it validates the underlying assumption that the languages are linked (1998: 108-109). The main reason for this could be possibly that reconstructing phonology helps also reconstruct the rest of the linguistic features, as morphology or syntax, since these are closely connected.

"The comparative method relies on certain characteristics of language and language change in order to work" (2003: 184) highlights Rankin in the chapter about comparative method, which also implies that the arbitrary nature of the correspondence between phonological shape and meaning (also called non-iconicity) is, undoubtedly regarded as a significant component. Sound modification is usually governed by rules and can occur freely in cases when the language indication is arbitrary. Normal change may be hindered or omitted in situations where iconicity, like onomatopoeia or sound symbolism, is prevalent. It is also essential to mention the regularity of sound changes, because with the help of phonetics and the understanding of sound change typology, we can work backwards from the more recent times, to earlier stages.

Recognition of regularity and of the role it plays in reconstruction has been considered both a strength and a weakness of Neogrammarian linguistics. It has most often been considered a strength because, of course, without ultimate regularity there can be no phonological reconstruction (Robert L. Rankin 2003: 185).

The majority of linguists hold that articulation change begins as a regular, unconscious, purely phonetic process that is geographically and/or socially confined. It subsequently expands through a variety of techniques, such as borrowings from social dialects and while learning a language and its rules. It is likely that different language families have different levels of ultimate regularity resulting from or are not related to dialect borrowing (Robert L. Rankin 2003: 185).

As a practical matter, comparative linguistics generally involves compilation and analysis of the reflexes of sound changes that occurred, diffused, and regularized long ago. Within comparative Indo-European linguistics the problem of variability within sets of reflexes has not been acute (Robert L. Rankin 2003: 185).

3. Definiteness, Determiners and Demonstratives

The first thing that needs to be clarified is what the term 'definiteness' is in practice.

In many languages, a noun phrase may contain an element which seems to have as its sole or principal role to indicate the definiteness or indefiniteness of the noun phrase. This element may be a lexical item like the definite and indefinite articles of English (the, a), or an affix of some kind like the Arabic definite prefix-al and indefinite suffix-n. Noun phrases that contain *the* and *a*, along with their semantic equivalents or near-equivalents in other languages, can be considered the fundamental manifestations of definite and indefinite noun phrases. This is because the article, which is essential to the semantic function of expressing this category, determines whether a noun phrase is definite or indefinite. Most linguistics considers definiteness to be something that is used to emphasise the fact that something is superior to other things (Lyons 199:1).

If I say I bought a car this morning, I am not referring to just any car; the car I bought is a particular one and is distinguished in my mind from all others. Yet a car is indefinite (Lyons 1999: 1).

Of course, it is not mandatory for languages to have articles; for example, Slavic languages do not dispose with any kind of articles on the contrary with Germanic or Romance ones, although Lyons stands by his opinion that it may be argued that the characteristic is reflected in all languages in some way because demonstratives and personal pronouns, which are perhaps intrinsically definite, are present in all languages. The vast majority of languages that are considered definite today are found in Western Europe and the Mediterranean region (as well as other parts of the world where these languages have been colonised in recent centuries, such as English, Spanish, and

Portuguese (1).

It is also necessary to distinguish determiners in Germanic and Romance languages, because most of the articles were created as a result of grammaticalization of some of the determiners or were used in the same way as the determiners.

3.1. English

In English, the word class that precedes nouns is called the determiner. The determiner can be considered a definite/indefinite article, pronouns (possessive, demonstrative), numbers, and possessive nouns along with a number of other widely used terms (Kolln, Funk 2016: 130).

When talking about articles, there are only three in English: definite *the,* and indefinite *a*, *an*. In the case of the definite article; *the*, it can indicate all noun classes that, when a definite meaning is required, can accept determiners. In addition, it is mainly used to indicate already known information in the context. However, in the case of the indefinite; *a*, it can only be used with countable nouns and is connected to new information, that has not yet been mentioned. We can demonstrate this in the following short examples:

I read **a** good book last weekend. I bought **the** book for only a quarter at **a** garage sale. **The** sale was just down the block.

As is demonstrated, we can see that those nouns ‘referents got more specific and particular at their second mention’ (Kolln & Funk 96;130; 131).

However, demonstratives in English are primarily used to indicate and point to something in a present moment.

The definiteness in English language also contains two referential demonstratives *this* and *that.* ‘*This* and *these* refer to something near the speaker. *That* and *those* refer to something further away. *This* and *that* are singular. *These* and *those* are plural’ (Eastwood 2005: 216).

These, that, those, and *this* can be pronouns or determiners. They appear before a noun as determiners, sometimes known as "demonstrative adjectives." If the meaning is still clear without the noun, we can omit it.

Determiner: What about **this** jug?

Pronoun: What about **this**? (Eastwood 2005: 216)

The basic meaning of *this/these* is ‘the thing(s) near the speaker‘, and of *that/those* ‘the thing(s) further away’, both in space and time.

Near: **this** book (**here**) **this** time (**now**)

Far: **that** book (**there**) **that** time (**then**) (Eastwood 2005: 217)

3.2. German

In German, pronouns and demonstratives are used in the text to denote the speakers, the listeners, and objects in the world that are being represented. They are also used to point forward or backward. As in the English language, the speaker uses the demonstrative 'dieser' to point to something or someone that is closer to him in terms of location or time, which corresponds to the term *this/that.* On the other hand, with the expression 'jeder' we refer to something more distant.

Near: **Diese** irdische Welt

Far: **Jene** himmlische Welt (Wöllstein 2016: 286)

However, there is less of a sense for the contrastive effect of *dieser* and *jeder*; instead, adverbs like *hier*, *da*, and *dort* are used with *der/die/das* or even neutralised *dieser.* (Wöllstein 2016: 286)

Derjenige syntactically combines the adjectival element *jenige*, which is a derivative of *jener*, with the words *der, die*, and *das*. Most likely, the contraction was inspired by phonetics. *Der, die,* and *das* are the individual inflections for each part, whereas *jenige* is the weak adjective (Wöllstein 2016: 288).

Derejenige mit dem roten Hemds ist mein Bruder. s

Derejenige Schüler, das getan hat, soll sich melden.

Diejenige, die das getan hat, kenne ich. (Wöllstein 2016: 288)

In comparison with other Germanic language, as is English, German has three definite articles, *der, die das,* A noun or the expression formed with it is described as sufficiently identified or determined by the definite article. It indicates that the speech (or text) has already introduced the subject or object of the noun, so the pertinent verbal meaning is picked up by the combination of the article and the noun. The noun denotes something or someone that is well known to most people or to a particular set of people. In the chart below, we can see that the definite article in written standard language takes different forms according to the type of a concrete noun.

Table 4. German Definite Articles (Quizlet).

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
Nominative	der	die	das	die
Accusative	den	die	das	die
Dative	dem	der	dem	den
Genitive	des	der	des	der

The indefinite article and its use are restricted to singular nouns possessing the semantic feature. More specifically, there is a difference between restricted and free use. Generally, the use of a definite article, indefinite article, or no article at all depends on the context. This is known as using the article freely. The option is mostly missing when there is bound use, such as in fixed phrases, based on the presence or absence of the definite article (Wöllstein 2016: 291 – 293).

For example, in free use, when talking about some glass (*ein Glas*), we automatically think about a nonspecific glass; however, '*das Glas*' automatically refers to a particular glass, which was already mentioned by the speaker and, therefore, is known both by the listener and the speaker.

In contrast, in the bound use, there are fixed phrases. Let us look at '*Lust haben*' (to feel like, to be in the mood for) or '*Glück haben*' (to be lucky). There is no possibility of adding an article since those are phrases that are used as they are, without taking into account the context.

In the chart below, we can see what the indefinite articles and its declensions according to the German language are:

Table 5 German Indefinite Articles (Quizlet).

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
Nominative	ein	eine	ein	viele
Accusative	einen	eine	ein	viele
Dative	einem	einer	einem	vielen
Genitive	eines	einer	eines	vieler

Unless another article makes sense in relation to the text, we use the indefinite article, which indicates that the given information is a brand new one. Another thing is that, for example, in the sentence, *Familie Müller hat *_ schwarze Katze.* In this case, it is obligatory to use the indefinite article because of the connection to the noun. The singular is the only usage of the indefinite article. A plural noun retains its absence of an article if there is no appropriate special article word (Wöllstein 2016: 331-332).

From both of the tables it is shown that in comparison with English, the declension of demonstratives (we cannot say articles, because articles in the earlier stages of those languages practically did not exist, but we are going to talk about this more in next chapter) was used even nowadays, but in the English language did not survive.

In the following examples, the place where article words would normally appear is underlined. Some grammatical conventions speak of a zero article in such configurations.

Singular: *Dort steht eine Palme. Familie Müller besitzt_Katze. Mir fehlt ein Ersatzteil.*

Plural: *Dort stehen _ Palmen- Familie Müller besitzt _ Katzen. Mir Fehlen _ Ersatzteile.*

(Wöllstein 2016: 332)

When indicating membership in a socially established and recognised group, the predicative nominative frequently lacks the indefinite article. For example, nationalities, religions, status, etc. The indefinite article cannot be omitted if nouns are given an attribute that is not a necessary component of the corresponding affix. For example, *Sie ist eine bekannte Schauspielerin.* (2016: 332 – 333)

3.3. Italian

Demonstrative pronouns in Italian can be used to indicate a place in time or space or to allude to ideas that have already been spoken, as was mentioned in the previous two languages. These are characteristic of their ability to take the place of the adjective. The demonstrative adjectives that correspond to the demonstrative pronouns are: *questo, codesto/ cotesto, quello, stesso, medesimo* (Moretti 2005: 162).

Questo in Italian indicates that object is close to or near the speaker.

Questo vestito è elegante. **This** dress is elegant.

Although *quello* is typically used in its place, the term "*codesto*" is no longer in use and refers to entities or objects that are close to the listener:

Consegna **codesto** regalo che porti con te. Deliver **that** gift that you are carrying.

Quello denotes entities or objects that are distant from both the speaker and the listener.
Quello scolaro è studioso. **That** student is studious.

Identity is indicated by *medesimo* and *stesso*:

Prenderemo lo **stesso** treno. We will take **the same** train.

Soggiorniamo nel **medesimo** albergo. We are staying in **the same** hotel.

(Filippo 2023)

The article and the noun are closely related and together they make up the nominal group. In his work, Dardano et al. (1983: 92-97) suggest that the noun can only exist without the article in specific situations (such as when it is a proper name), but the article is always followed by a noun. The article delineates the boundaries of the term, specifying whether

it should be interpreted in a definitive or non-definite manner. From the chart of the Italian articles, we can simply deduce that the singular and plural forms diverse in definite and indefinite articles, since there is no plural for of the indefinite one. The article in the singular can indicate both definiteness and indefiniteness in different ways.

Table 6. Italian articles (Mango).

DEFINITIVE ARTICLES	MASCULINE	FEMININE	INDEFINITIVE ARTICLES	MASCULINE	FEMININE
SINGULAR	IL, LO (L')	LA (L')	SINGULAR	UN, UNO	UNA(UN')
PLURAL	I, GLI	LE	PLURAL		

The article uses distinct forms only in the plural to denote definiteness; it has the same form as in both the singular and plural and specifies gender and number in both cases.The article that makes a definitive statement denotes something that is presumed to be known beforehand. The determinative article is used more frequently to express the abstract or to denote a category, type, or species; it serves as a demonstrative adjective or demonstrative pronoun in certain situations. The forms 'il' depend on whether the noun of the masculine gender noun starts with consonant, but there is an exception with words starting *s* (which is followed by another consonant), *z, x, i, the groups pn and ps*. The next masculine forms Lo ('l), gli is based on masculine nouns that start with impure s, as in *lo sbaglio*, *z*, as in *lo zaino*, with *x*, as in *lo xilofono*, and with groups *pn* and *ps* as in *lo pneumatico*. And, as the last one, the *La (l'), le* form, the feminine nouns starting with a consonant and a semiconsonant /j/ serve as the foundation for the form *la*. Before the vowel, it changes its form into l'. The indefinite article, on the other hand, refers to

general, unclear object that is thought to be unknown at this time; on the contrary to the definite article, its purpose is to bring up an identity that has not been brought up before in the conversation. Then, a term's meaning can be strengthened by the indefinite article, gaining consecutive value. It can also be used to convey adoration or a superlative sense in spoken language. As was mentioned before, there are three terms in the indefinite article. The forms *un* and *uno* have the same paradigm as the masculine forms *il* and *lo (l').* The article *un* is used when it occurs before the vowel (except when it occurs before I and the semi-semiotic consonant /j/) as we saw with the article *la*. As was said before, there is no available plural form, so the Italian uses the partitive forms *dei, degli,* delle, or indefinite adjective (*qualche, alcuni, alcune*) to denotate the plural. Even in the Italian language, we can come across the absence of the articles. Apart from proper nouns, geographical nouns, and possessive adjectives, there are other instances in which the article is omitted. Most of these are unique expressions that come in a wide range of forms; when using most adverbial phrases, in phrases that serve as qualifying adverbs, or in proverbial phrases.

3.4. Spanish

Demonstratives are pronouns, determiners or adverbs that express the special or temporal situation of someone or something in relation to that of the speaker or listener (Real Academia Española y Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española 2009: 1269).

Demonstrative adverbs lack morphological properties, so their characteristics set them apart from demonstrative pronouns and determiners. In Spanish language, depending on gender and number, there are demonstratives:

Masculine singular: *este, ese, aquel*	Masculine plural: *estos, esos, aqellos*
Feminine singular: *esta, esa,aquella*	Feminine plural: *estas,esas, aquellas'*
Neutra singular: *esto, eso, aquello*	

As in the previous languages, we can distinguish demonstratives according to their unique or temporal separation they signify. For example, their degrees indicate how far the speaker or listener is from the speaker.

Determiners: *este/esta/estos/estas*; *ese/esa/esos/esas*; *aquel/ aquella/ aquellos/ aquellas; tal /tales; tanto/tanta/tantos/tantas*

Pronouns: *esto,eso, aqello; tal; tanto*

Adverbs: *aquí, ahí, allí, acá, allá; así; ahora, entonces; ayer, hoy, mañana; tanto*

Nevertheless, these series are still understood in at least two ways. The demonstratives *este* (and variations in their number and gender) and *aquí* indicate nearness to the speaker; *ese* (and all of its variants in gender in number) and *ahí* indicate nearness to the listener, and *aquel* and *allí* (also with the rest of their variations) cover the express remoteness from both (Real Academia Española y Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española 2009: 1269-1279).

While certain Latin pronominal forms are generally employed, their semantic content is removed, leaving only grammatical meanings, so they can become pure determinant forms. We distinguish *determinado / denifite* articles (el, la, lo, los, las) and *indeterminado/* indefinite articles (un, una, unos, unas). According to Marín et al., they are not the best choices since they present an inaccurate impression of them. When dividing the two types of articles, it is crucial to oppose a precursor to a recogniser. The core of the issue is that the form un in Spanish can have numerical, indefinite, and article values. If these three values were expressed using distinct signifiers, *one, some* and *a,* as in English, there would be any issues. For example, in the sentence *Me he comprado unos zapatos*. 'In this case, *unos* is not meant to indicate number, since *one*, when numeral, is singular by axiom. (Marín, Francisco Marcos 2007: 130-132).

To show the issue in more detail, we can present it in comparison with a language from the Germanic branch, English in a practical example; The Spanish sentence *Tengo un perro* could be possibly translated into English as 'I have one dog', 'I have a dog', or 'I have some dog'. Therefore, it is morphologically ambiguous sentence and we need context to distinguish the proper meaning.

As we mentioned before, even here we can distinguish articles according to their gender and number:

Table 7. Spanish articles.

DEFINITIVE ARTICLE	Masculine	Feminine	Neutral	INDEFINITE ARTICLE	Masculine	Feminine
SINGULAR	EL	LA (el)	LO	SINGULAR	UN	UNA (un)
PLURAL	LOS	LAS		PLURAL	UNOS	UNAS

As we can see, Marín (2007) shows that the definitive article has the form of 'el' for the singular masculine gender. But there is the case of feminine, where there are two allomorphs. On the one hand, we have the article 'la' that is used for every occasion, and on the other hand the article 'el' that is used for the nouns starting with *á* or *há*. The only form for the masculine singular, *un*, has a similar effect, but it is also feminine before feminine words, also starting with *á* or *há.* The examples of this phenomenon could be traditional 'la casa' (the house), 'el águila' (the eagle), and 'el hacha' (the axe). Also, the explanation of this lies in the function of phonology in the language.

As is represented in the table, the article form of the neutral is *lo.* Although Spanish nouns no longer have the neutral gender that Latin did, some traces of this gender can still be found in the article and in certain pronouns: *ellos, esto, eso aquello, algo* (Marín, Francisco Marcos 2007: 130-132).

4. Development of Articles in different languages

After the brief introduction of definiteness and demonstratives in the selected languages, it is time to dive deeper into the process of their creation and usage trough and across different time periods. Since we have already covered the present forms of the demonstratives, our main focus is going to be on the processes of evolution in earlier periods.

4.1. Germanic languages

According to Baugh & Cable (2005), throughout its 1,500-year history in England, English has undergone constant change. But within this evolution, three major eras can be distinguished, Old English, Middle English and Modern English. The history of the dialects spoken by the Germanic tribes who arrived in England gave rise to the English language that is spoken today. Being part of the Indo-European language family indicates that it has common traits with all Germanic languages. For instance, in a way, we see how some consonants were shifting beneath Grimm's Law. The adjective has both a "strong" and a "weak" declension and a particular kind of verb conjugation (45-46).

We can say that it is not just the morphological or syntactic feature that is connecting these two languages. It is also their mutual history, invasions, and both-side influence in cultural behaviourism. But what we are more interested in ,is the definite article and how it was used in its period of time.

According to Fulk “no definite deictic implication of relative distance from the speaker or hearer is reconstructible” (Fulk 2018: 193). It appears to have signified *this*, *that*, and *the* in several ways, including possible reflexive interpretations. We can see the Proto-Indo-European paradigm of demonstrative pronouns in the tables below:

Table 8. The inherited demonstrative pronouns in Germanic (Fulk 2018: 194).

The PIE demonstrative ‘this, that, the’ is reflected in Gmc. as follows (with a few alternative forms remarked below):

		singular					plural			
		nom.	**acc.**	**dat.**	**instr.**	**gen.**	**nom.**	**acc.**	**dat.**	**gen.**
Go.	**m.**	sa	þana	þamma		þis	þái	þans	þáim	þizē
	n.	þata	þata	þamma	þē	þis	þō	þō	þáim	þizē
	f.	sō	þō	þizái		þizōs	þōs	þōs	þáim	þizō
OIcel.	**m.**	sá	þann	þeim		þess	þeir	þá	þeim	þeir(r)a
	n.	þat	þat	þí, því	þí, því	þess	þau	þau	þeim	þeir(r)a
	f.	sú	þá	þeir(r)i		þeirar	þær	þær	þeim	þeir(r)a
OE	**m.**	sē̆	þone	þǣm	þȳ, þē	þæs	þā	þā	þǣm	þāra
	n.	þæt	þæt	þǣm	þȳ, þē	þæs	þā	þā	þǣm	þāra
	f.	sēo	þā	þǣre		þǣre	þā	þā	þǣm	þāra
OS	**m.**	thē̆	thena	themu	thiu	thes	thea	thea	thē̆m	thero
	n.	that	that	themu	thiu	thes	thiu	thiu	thē̆m	thero
	f.	thiu	thia	theru		thera	thea	thea	thē̆m	thero
OHG	**m.**	der	den	demu		des	dē	dē	dēm	dero
	n.	daz	daz	demu	diu	des	diu	diu	dēm	dero
	f.	diu	dea	deru		dera	deo	deo	dēm	dero

		singular					plural			
		nom.	**acc.**	**dat.**	**instr.**	**gen.**	**nom.**	**acc.**	**dat.**	**gen.**
OIcel.	**m.**	sjá	þenna	þessum		þessa	þessir	þessa	þessum	þessa
	n.	þetta	þetta	þvísa, þessu		þessa	þessi	þessi	þessum	þessa
	f.	sjá	þessa	þessi		þessar	þessar	þessar	þessum	þessa
OE	**m.**	þē̆s	þisne	þissum	þȳs	þisses	þās	þās	þissum	þissa
	n.	þis	þis	þissum	þȳs	þisses	þās	þās	þissum	þissa
	f.	þē̆os	þās	þisse		þisse	þās	þās	þissum	þissa
OS	**m.**	*these	thesan	thesumu		theses	these	these	thesum	thesaro
	n.	thit(t)	thit(t)	thesumu	thius	theses	thius	thius	thesum	thesaro
	f.	thius	thesa	thesaru		thesara	thesa	thesa	thesum	thesero
OHG	**m.**	dese, -ēr	desan	desemu		desses	dese	dese	desēm	desero
	n.	diz	diz	desemu	desiu	desses	desiu	desiu	desēm	desero
	f.	desiu	desa	deseru		desera	deso	deso	desēm	desero

From the table it is clear that we can see many similarities between different Old-Germanic languages. In the table we are provided with the proto-forms of determiners, and

it is very easy for us to see the pattern of creating different forms. We can also notice that in the table there are identical forms of plural dative, and in most forms of genitive, in majority of the language, which just clarify the unity of Germanic languages.

4.1.1. Old and Middle English

In the Old English grammar, we would not find the same definite and indefinite article as we know in the present language. Instead of that, they used the demonstrative pronouns shown in the table below:

Table 9. Demonstrative pronouns in Old English (Quirk, Randolph., and C. L. Wrenn. 1960: 39).

	(*a*) *se* 'the, that'			(*b*) *þes* 'this'		
	masc.	*neut.*	*fem.*	*masc.*	*neut.*	*fem.*
sg.n.	se	þæt	sēō	þes	þis	þēōs
a.	þone	þæt	þā	þisne	þis	þās
g.	þæs	þæs	þǣre	þisses	þisses	þisse
d.	þǣm	þǣm	þǣre	þissum	þissum	þisse
i.	þȳ	þȳ	þǣre	þȳs	þȳs	þisse
		common			*common*	
pl.n.a.		þā			þās	
g.		þāra			þissa	
d.i.		þǣm			þissum	

As we can see, the forms *se*, *þæt* and *séo* were used as 'that', and *þes, þis*, and *þéos* to indicate the 'this' pronoun, as stated by Quirk and Wrenn (1960). It is possible to characterise the two demonstratives as having a deictic and specifying function. The pronoun *se* displays and distinguishes what we are already anticipating, whereas the second one *þes,* which is not as productive as we would suppose, identifies a particular component within a sequence, where the entire sequence may already have been identified. We can demonstrate on one line appearing in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle:

on þysum geare for se micla here. þe we gefyrn ymbe spræcon 'in this year (this one, of a chronicled series of equally specific years) that (or the) large enemy force (i.e. not simply a force of unidentified enemies not previously encountered, but the particular one) of which we spoke earlier went …. (Quirk Randolph & Wrenn, C. L. 1960: 69-70).

The translation of *se* in this instance is *that* or *the*, we also need to bear in mind that just at the end of the Old English period, *se* was just a representation of inflexional variation of, *þæt*, in distribution that is complimentary to it rather than antagonistic to it, as it is shown in the Modern English with *the* and *that.* There is a necessity to mention that even though we have just two examples of demonstrative words in Old English, there is a slight similarity between them in the present English since they are equivalent, because practically the entire range of operations carried out currently, either in accordance or independently, by these two. Also, there are additional situations where *þes* and *se*, as 'near' and 'far' deictics, respectively, are in partial contrast:

þis leoht we habbaþ wið nytenu gemæne, ac þæt leoht we sceolan secan þæt we motan habban mid englum gemæne

This light we have in common with beasts, but that light must we seek which we may have in common with angels

Even though the definite article was something unusual in Old English, its opposite variant, indefinite article, was even more unusual. In most cases, the 'an' form was in most of the cases considered as a numeral, and if not, it was very similar to the indefinite word 'sum', which also bore strong non-definiteness, which was very close to the 'certain' meaning in Modern English. Here are some examples of 'an' usage for demonstration:

Þæt wæs god cyning There was a good king

sume worde het, þæt ic his ærest ðe est gesægde

Commanded in a specific message, that I should first tell you the quality of it'.

Zero, served as an expression for the indefinite article, just as plurals do in Modern English:

On frymðe waes word and þæt word waes mid Gode and þæt word waes God In the beginning, there was word, and the word was with God and the word was God'.

The two demonstratives *se* and *þes* had also deictic and contrastive deictic function as in Modern English.

An ðaera waes - 'one of these was…'
ðaes ofereode: þisses swa maeg

Things passed over so far as *that* was concerned: so, it may be with *this* (Quirk Randolph & Wrenn, C. L., 1960: 69-72).

With Mossé's opinion, the demonstrative-article in Old English was a grammatical word with three grammatical genders and a complete flexion in the singular. All Middle English dialects demonstrated a tendency towards simplification. Initially, the nominative singular forms, masculine *se* and feminine *seo*, were removed. Instead, the new form *þe*, which had a tendency to emerge as the article's common, was standardised form from an early age, even in the South and East Midwest. The word *þat* which was previously the article's grammatical neuter, began to serve as the singular demonstrative for all grammatical genders (1952: 60-61).

To represent Old English definiteness and articles, I would like to examine the most famous, and oldest, writing in English history – Beowulf. The demonstrative pronouns are going to be highlighted in bold.

þa wæs, on burgum Beowulf Scyldinga, leof leodcyning, longe þrage folcum gefræge (fæder ellor hwearf, aldor of earde), oþþæt him eft onwoc heah Healfdene; heold þenden lifde. gamol ond guðreouw, glæde Scyldingas. ðæm feower bearn forðgerimed in worold wocun, weoroda ræswan, Heorogar ond Hroðgar ond Halga til; hyrde ic **þæt** wæs Onelan cwen, Heaðoscilfingas healsgebedda. **þa** wæs Hroðgare heresped gyfen, wiges weorðmynd, **þæt** him his winemagas georne hyrdon, oðþæt **seo** geogoðgeweox, magodriht micel. Him on mod bearn, **þæt** healreced hatan wolde, medoærn micel, men

gewyrcean þonne yldo bearn æfre gefrunon ond þær on innan eall gedælan , geongum ond ealdum, swylc him god sealde, buton folcscare ond feorum gumena (Beowulf, lines 53-73).

This short extract above from Beowulf clarifies what we mentioned before, that the demonstrative *seo* (and its forms *ða* and *þæt*) is more productive than the demonstrative *þes/this*. Additionally, since Beowulf was already mentioned earlier in the whole text, it means that the demonstrative *ða* is going to be used to distinguish already mentioned people (since it is the plural form). However, there was no proper form of the indefinite article, nor definite, in this era, and as a conclusion we can only seek for the numeral ān, which was the predecessor. But still, the usage of the numeral *ān* was not as frequent as in the Present Day English. That is why we see mostly 'this' and 'that' forms.

> Even though the weak adjective is frequently linked to the definite article, it usually does not require it. Certain texts, written during the transitional period between Old and Middle English, do not always have the definite article following the strong adjective. (Mustanoja 1960:233).

Although this is an unlikely source from a semantic and grammatical standpoint, as Lass mentions in his book (1992), Old English did have a relative particle *þe* as an ancestor of article *the* appearing in the later Middle and Early Modern English. This form of the definite article came from the 13th century, when the digraph *ae* disappeared and was replaced by <a> or <e> when short and when long by <ea> or <ee>, so the form *þe* and *þat* were created. The east and north experience loss of inflection first, with the south and west typically continuing to be more conservative. Inflected article forms can still be found in texts from the south and west as late as the thirteenth century, but, after 1150, there is hardly any evidence of anything other than number concord. However, by the fourteenth century, the plural *þe/ the* was declining and the invariable *the* was normal for all singular gender/case categories. The article, together with adjective, and the deictic this/these vs. that/those system have a similar history. They carry many similarities to the article, despite

their roots in an Old English system that was more adjective- or determiner-like than pronominal. The meaning of *þes* was taken more in deictic sense rather than specifying one. This inclination become stronger in Middle English since Old English did not distinguish between 'speaker-centred vs non-speaker-centred contrast'. We can see the '*this* vs *that*' scheme. By the thirteenth century, most case-marked forms had disappeared, but conservative texts that maintain gender have more comprehensive paradigms (Roger Lass 1992: 112-13).

Table 10. demonstratives in Middle English (The Cambridge History of the English Language, Vol. 2 (Blake 1992: 113).

	Singular			Plural
	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	(all genders)
Nominative	þēs	þis	þeōs	þās
Genitive	þiss-es	þiss-es	þiss-e	þiss-a
Dative	þiss-um	þiss-um	þiss-e	þiss-um
Accusative	þiss-ne	þis	þās	þās

*Acrene Wisse (*southwest midlands, thirteenth century) has *þes kimg, þis scheld* 'schield', *þeos leafdiI* 'lady', acc. *Þisne swikedom* 'treachery'. A little later, *þis* (neut.nom./ acc. sg.) is generalised in the north for singular, *þes* in the south, later replaced by *þis* as well. From these, a new plural type *þes-e / þis-e* (with -e presumably from the adjective plural: see below) was formed. In early texts *þos/ þas*, was used for plural; after the thirteenth century it was generally replaced by *þes-e*, and *þis-e* disappears during the fifteenth century. After the twelfth century the old neuter nominative/accusative singular article *þa*t begins to emerge with a clear distal sense (opposed to *þis*). Loss of gender facilitates its detachment from the article paradigm, so that it becomes free to take on its new function as one pole of a deictic opposition (Roger Lass 1992: 114).

But as we now from Present Day Englis, there is no sign of the English runic thorn. So, the transition happened. Old English runic <þ> thorn "was retained in many Middle English written varieties replaced by <th> as the ME period progresses. It is found rarely in the Ellesmere text, and there largely only in some determiners (such as þe, þat THE, THAT)" (Simon Horobin & J.J. Smith 2002: 46–47). After this spelling change, there was no further modification of the definite article *the* and demonstrative *that* and the form stayed as we know it today.

In Old English, we can find *an* and *sum* as the representatives of indefinite article. The reason for this particular use of the article *an* is that it first appeared in an individualising function, to select a specific entity from a group of similar ones. Furthermore, there are instances in which the terms *an* and *sum* are used in a generalising or generic way. Nonetheless, even if they are occasionally employed in this position, *an* and *sum* are, however, extremely uncommon when put before a predicate noun. *Sum*, especially at the conclusion of the period, seems to take on a more literary quality, although *an* appears to be preferred from the start in spoken language and colloquial style. Later in the Old English, *an* starts to replace *sum* (Tauno F Mustanoja 1960: 260).

The usage of the demonstratives is slightly connected to the use of adjectives, since the strong or weak declensions specified the appearance of determiners. The weak forms were already in connection with the noun phrase accompanied by the determiner/ pronoun which gave us more information about the noun, like case or gender. With the Middle English development, the strong and weak forms diminished alongside with gender, case, and articles. The final outcome was a straightforward opposition between forms with and without -e, which was typical of most of Middle English at least through the fourteenth

century. Later, the "definiteness" and "number" parameters affected the zero/-e distinction. Determiners were typically used before the definite form in -e.

> Endingless forms occurred in singular predicate adjectives (it was old), after indefinite determiners (*a good wyf, many a fals flatour*), and in other positions without determiner (*as hoot he was as...*) (Roger Lass 1992: 116).

To represent the changes in Middle English, we need to examine two texts, because there were changes in the beginning and in the end of this period. To represent these changes from Old English to Early Middle English I choose a text King Horn (1107), which was the oldest Middle English romances still in existence. It narrates the tale of how pirates killed the Suddene monarch and kidnapped his son Horn. Again, the demonstratives will be highlighted bold.

Rymenild ros of benche, **þe**

béér a forte shenche:

After mete in sale

Boþe wyn ant ale **An** horn

hue ber **an** honed,

For **þat** wes lawe of londe.

Hue dronc of þe béére To

knyht ant skyere.

Horn set at grounde,

Him þohte he wes ybounde.

He seide, 'Quene so hende,

To me hydeward þou wende;

Þou shenh vs wiþ **þe** vurste:

Þe beggares bueþ afurste.' (King Horn lines 1185-1200)

As was mentioned, in the text we can see the common, and repeated form of 'Þe' instead of the form 'Þaet', which was the cause of lost inflection and changed digraph, therefore

transformation from ae to e spelling and we have one form of demonstrative for every gender. We can also notice that the demonstratives are showing precisely before noun; *þe* béér (*the* beer), *an* horn hue ber *an* honed (*a* horn she bore in hand), etc. With this, the deictic sense is more ambiguous and the use of article is more frequent with not pointing at distance, more like to make nouns more specific.. And finally, there is the presence of the indefinite article; *an* is used as indefinite.

Additionally, I would like to present a very short part of *Canterbury tales, (*published around *1400),* where spelling helped the change from Old English thorn (Þ) to *th* into present modern day English. So, we have the final forms of *that, this,* and *the*. Even the vocabulary seems easier to read and distinguish, what is verb, noun, number, and syntax is rather more fixed than we had it with *Béowulf.*

That ech of yow, to shorte with oure weye,

In **this** viage shal telle tales tweye

To Caunterbury-ward, I mene it so,

And homward he shal tellen othere two,

Of aventures **that** whilom han bifalle. (Chaucer, lines 791-795)

4.1.2. Old High German and Middle High German

The development of the definite articles in Old High German and Middle High German does not differ very much from each other. In the table below we can see the comparison of the two time periods:

Table 11. Declension of MHG *der, diu, daz (*Jones, Howard, and Martin H. Jones 2019: 99)

	Masculine		Neuter		Feminine	
	OHG	MHG	OHG	MHG	OHG	MHG
Sg						
Nom	*der*	**der**	*daz*	**daz**	*diu*	**diu**
Acc	*den*	**den**	*daz*	**daz**	*dia*	**die**
Gen	*des*	**des**	*des*	**des**	*dera*	**der(e)**
Dat	*demo*	**dem(e)**	*demo*	**dem(e)**	*deru*	**der(e)**
Instr	*diu*	-	*diu*	**diu**	-	-
Pl						
Nom	*dê*	**die**	*diu*	**diu**	*dio*	**die**
Acc	*dê*	**die**	*diu*	**diu**	*dio*	**die**
Gen	←		*dero*	**der(e)**	→	
Dat	←		*dêm*	**den**	→	

As we can see, the proto forms of definite article were *der, die, daz*. They functioned as both demonstrative determiner and pronoun. There is the example provided by H. Jones and M. H. Jones, that the sentence *Der guote man* could be translated as '*the good man'* or '*that good man*'. There are many factors that influence the function of *der*, for example the position of stress and the context (2019: 99).

If a man is being pointed out, and *der* is stressed, it is probably demonstrative; but if *der* merely refers to a man previously mentioned, and is unstressed, it is probably the definite article. In many instances, however, both readings are possible. As a demonstrative *der, diu, daz* can serve as a determiner, e.g. *der* man ist guot, where *der* 'that' qualifies (or 'determines') man, or as a pronoun, e.g. *der* ist guot, where *der* 'that one, that man' stands in place of a noun. (H. Jones & M. H. Jones 2019: 99).

When we compare it with the first Germanic language, English, the proto forms were simpler and therefore not as concrete as it is with German, even though we are just at the beginning of the evolution in morphology, phonology, and syntax. In English, we had the

basic forms, and it was not that easy to present the meaning. However, Old High German is helping itself by putting stress to differentiate what is the purpose of the usage of *der, diu,* or *daz*. Nevertheless, English proto forms of articles were not as complicated as it is with German articles. Also, Old English has just four cases. OHG has extra instrumental in singular.

When we see it from the perspective of modern German, we can see familiar cases. If the articles *der, die, das* in modern German are stressed, they are considered to act as demonstratives, and if they are unstressed, they act as articles (H. Jones & M. H. Jones 2019: 100).

The only difference in written NHG is in the genitive singular and plural and dative plural forms: when the demonstrative is used as a pronoun *these* are *dessen* (gen masc/neut sg), *derer* (gen fem sg), *deren/derer* (gen pl), and *denen* (dat pl), while the corresponding forms of the demonstrative used as a determiner, and of the article, are *des, der, der*, and *den*, respectively. MHG does not have similar special forms of the demonstrative pronoun (H. Jones & M. H. Jones 2019: 99).

The Phonology of language had a significant influence on the evolution of the usage of *der, diu,* and *daz* forms, and the distinction between OHG and MHG, specifically the vowel weakening. The most noticeable phonological difference is the emergence of umlaut and the disappearance of vowel differences in unstressed syllables. This process started to be effective during the Middle High German period, however its final loss of morphological distinctions occurred in between these two periods (H. Jones & M. H. Jones 2019: 42).

Again, we have the connection of morphology and phonology, which is giving use the 'instruction' of the usage. Firstly, it was stress that helped us to tell the difference between potential definite and indefinite article. Now, the vowels are completely changing their form because of umlaut. However, the development of most MHG forms can be explained by the weakening or loss of unstressed vowels and the change of m > n. The development of OHG

nominative/accusative masculine plural dê > MHG *die* reflects OHG diphthongization. The OHG instrumental form *diu* is found only in the neuter in MHG, mainly in prepositional adverb phrases such as von *diu* (H. Jones & M. H. Jones 2019: 99).

Finally, the transition from Middle High German to New High German shows the urge of using the form *die* instead of *diu* in the nominative feminine singular and the nominative/ accusative neuter plural. Consequently, no formal distinctions of gender exist between the nominative and accusative feminine singular, and none exist at all in the plural (H. Jones & M. H. Jones 2019: 100).

The indefinite article in German, and particularly in all of the Germanic languages, is very rare, if not impossible, to find in the early time language. The true development occurred in the later medieval times, in comparison with the Romance language, where the change appeared basically from the beginning. As it was with English, even the German indefinite article came from the numeral 'ein':

Table 12. Declension of the numeral one (Braune, Wilhem 1967 *Althochdeutsche Grammatik*: 231*).*

Sg.N.	1. ein		ein	ein
	2. einēr		einaʒ	einiu; ein(i)u etc.

However, in general, the initial homophony makes it challenging to determine when the indefinite article function first appeared. For example, in Old High German instances from a relatively early date, the form preceding the noun could be perceived as an indefinite article, although it is not required to do so, as we can see in this example:

a. Einan kuning uueiz ih
a king know I
(OHG, Ludwigslied 1)

But, if it was an article back then, we can be sure that it wasn't required for indefinite count nouns like it is in the present language (Wayde Harbert 2007: 139-140):

b. gab her imo...frōnisc githigini, stuol hier in Vrankōn...
gave he to-him lordly retinue, throne here in Franconia
(OHG, Ludwigslied 5–6)

Even the demonstratives in the German language had evolved from the proto forms in Old High German. In this case, it would be *dieser, disiu,* and *diz*, which we can see in the table below compared to the Middle German ones:

Table 13. Declension of MHG *dieser, disiu, diz (*Jones, Howard, and Martin H. Jones 2019: 101)

	Masculine		Neuter		Feminine	
	OHG	MHG	OHG	MHG	OHG	MHG
Sg						
Nom	*desêr*	**diser/dirre**	*diz*	**diz/ditz(e)**	*desiu*	**disiu**
Acc	*desan*	**disen**	*diz*	**diz/ditz(e)**	*desa*	**dise**
Gen	*desse(s)*	**dises**	*desse(s)*	**dises**	*desera*	**diser(e)/dirre**
Dat	*desemu*	**disem(e)**	*desemu*	**disem(e)**	*deseru*	**diser(e)/dirre**
Pl						
Nom	*dese*	**dise**	*desiu*	**disiu**	*deso*	**dise**
Acc	*dese*	**dise**	*desiu*	**disiu**	*deso*	**dise**
Gen	←		*desero*	**diser(e)/dirre**	→	
Dat	←		*desêm*	**disen**	→	

All of the three demonstratives functioned as the forms of '*this*' and '*this one*'.

In the nominative/ accusative neuter singular form *ditz(e), ‹tz›* stands for the affricative [ts], while in the form *diz*, ‹z› can stand for either the affricative [ts] or the fricative [s] (H. Jones & M. H. Jones 2019: 101).

We can assume, that the ancestors of *der, diu, daz*, and the indeclinable Gmc demonstrative particle merged resulting in this demonstrative particle **sa/ si (> se).* The inflected forms of *der, diu*, and *daz* were first combined with this particle; for instance, the OHG genitive masculine/neuter singular form *desse* can be examined as *des-se*. This explains the alternate form of the OHG genitive masculine/neuter singular *desse(s)*, although during OHG the inflection transferred to the end of the word and the beginning of the word was left, in most forms, as invariable *des-*. However, the forms diverge in Middle High German. We will find here the form *dis-*, instead of *de-s* (H. Jones & M. H. Jones 2019: 101).

The *i* may have been generalised from the nominative/accusative neuter singular diz/ditz(e), in which; i is an archaic feature (whose origin is obscure). The MHG forms ending *-rre* in the genitive/dative feminine singular and in the genitive plural reflect assimilation and syncope in OHG, e.g. genitive plural *desero* > *derero* > *derro*' was followed by the weakening of o > e in MHG. It is likely that the nominative masculine singular then changed by analogy with these forms. (H. Jones & M. H. Jones 2019: 101).

Something similar can be seen in the case of Middle English, where we also have the proto forms *Þēs*, *Þiss-es*, or *Þiss-um,* which can help us understand the similarities between these two languages.

Now I would like to present two texts to show the usage of demonstratives as it was. The first extract is from a heroic poem called *Muspilli, which* is about a portrays a Germanic vision of the Final Judgement as a war for souls between heavenly and infernal powers, culminating in the destruction of the world.

..sin tac piqueme, ***daz*** *er touuan scal. uuanta sar so sih*

diu *sela in* ***den*** *sind arhevit enti si* ***den*** *lihhamun likkan*

lazzit, so quimit ***ein*** *heri fona himilzungalon,* ***daz***
andar fona pehhe: dar pagant siu umpi. Sorgen mac
diu *sela, unzi* ***diu*** *suona arget, za uuederemo herie si*
gihalot uuerde. uuanta ipu sia ***daz*** *Satanazses kisindi*
kiuuinnit, ***daz*** *leitit sia sar dar iru leid uuirdit, in fuir*
enti in finstri: ***daz*** *ist rehto uirinlih ding. Upi sia auar*
kihalont ***die****,* ***die*** *dar fona himile quemant, enti si dero*
engilo eigan uuirdit, ***die*** *pringent sia sar uf in himilo*
rihi:

. . .

uue ***demo*** *in uinstri scal sino uirina stuen,*
prinnan in pehhe: ***daz*** *ist rehto paluuic dink,* ***daz***
der *man haret ze gote enti imo hilfa ni quimit.*

. . .

denne augit er dio masun, dio er in deru menniski anfenc, duruh
desse *mancunnes minna f[ardoleta]...*
(Das Hildebrandslied, lines 1-14; 25-28; 103-104)

From the beginning we could say that this is purely an Old High German poem because of the neuter singular *daz* (nominative), and *demo* (dative), masculine singular *der* (nominative), *den* (accusative), but we have also the plural of masculine (or feminine, depends on the context) *die*, which occurs mainly in the later era known as The Middle High German. *Desse* would be the representative of the genitive of masculine of *this*. Also, the usage is accompanied with adjectives to help the reader identify the demonstratives. For the examination we can roughly translate the sentence '*duruh* ***desse*** *mancunnes minna f[ardoleta]...*' word by word as 'speak this people/men my f[ardoleta].

We can assume that there were no strict rules as it was with the English demonstratives, only in the stress. Also, in comparison with Old English 'indefinite article' we can see that Old High German was ahead of the English language with the use of the indefinite article.

In this case, the usage of demonstratives is used in the same way as the ones that we know from modern form of German language, to clarify and make the noun, that is discussed, more specific. To make it this way, demonstratives pronouns and adjectives are connected through the agreement in gender, number, and in case. Main role in this concrete text is to introduce clauses and refer to already mentioned concepts.

The second text, *The Nibelungenlied*, also known as The Song of the Nibelungs, is one of the well-known epics in the Middle High German literature. It narrates the fictitious lore of the Nibelungs, a Germanic folk of warriors and monarchs. It consists of two parts: the first part narrates Siegfried's adventurous life, in which he slays a dragon called Fafnir and then marries Kriemhild while the second part of the song entails the unhappy aftermath of Siegfried's killing and Kriemhild's need to avenge him.

E⟨z wuohs⟩ in Burgonden **ein** vil edel magedîn,

daz in allen landen niht schœners mohte sîn,

Kriemhilt geheizen; si wart **ein** schœne wîp. dar

umbe muosen degene vil verliesen **den** lîp.

Ir pflâgen drîe kunege edel und rîch, Gunther unde Gêrnôt, **di** recken lobelich, und

Gîselher **der** junge, ein ûzerwelter degen. **diu** frouwe was ir swester, di fürsten

hetens in ir pflegen. Di herren wâren milte, von arde hôhe erborn, mit kraft

unmâzen küene, di recken ûzerkorn, dâ zen Burgonden, sô was ir lant genant. si

frumten starkiu wunder sît in Etzelen lant.

When we compare it with the previous text, we can see that in Middle High German there is this appearance of the descended forms of articles previously mentioned having slightly different uses. For example, in this text, the demonstrative *daz* has no essential change, but it also, with the demonstrative *diu*, starts to influence the noun more directly. We can also see the clear agreement both with the demonstrative and element that they are modifying. In general, there are small differences in declension between Old High German and Middle High German. We also need to bear in mind that during Middle Hight German there are many occurrences (as it is with English) of dialect that may have an impact on the form of demonstratives.

4.2. Romance languages

For this brand of languages, it is important to mention that the very beginning of Romance languages comes from the Italic branch of the Indo-European family, Indo-Iranic, Celtic, Slavonic, Albanian, Germanic, Armenian, Italic, Hellenic and Baltic. From these nine, the Italic branch is the crucial for the development, because of the Latin, as the main spoken language. Latin did not just expand from Rome and spread throughout the Italian peninsula; it also reached neighbouring and eventually far-off regions of the Mediterranean region and its hinterland. Latin developed into the variety of related dialects known as the Romance language family (some of which attained the rank of standard languages) as a result of differing development in different regions of this territory (Ralph Penny 2009: 2-3).

In the beginning, there were six main classical demonstrative pronouns, *is, hic, idem, ipse, iste,* and *ille*. Because of their stronger usage in Vulgar Latin, an because *is* and *hic* were ineffective adjective-pronouns, there remained as the main part of pronouns.

According to Pei, and other Roman grammarians, the article in Latin was not necessary. We can find evidence in Vulgar Latin documents from fourth century that there were not many cases of usage of *ille* and *ipse* in the position of demonstrative. In the seventh and eight centuries the distinction was more noticeable and the doubts about their use as an article is no longer questioned. There is also the fact that in this period of time the use of *ille* and *ipse* as articles was limited to being concrete and abstract in comparison with the opposite, abstract and generic nouns, which were not accompanied by the article. We can demonstrate the Latin demonstratives in example:

Et illas cappas et illos sarciles et ilia calceamenta de illos teloneos superius nominates quod exinde superat, et de illo calciatico quod ille episcopus^annis singulis ad ilium clerum reddere consuevit, et de eorum eleemosyna quod ad ipsum clerum specialiter Deus dederit sint comparata. Ipsa autem vestimenta, illas cappas et sarciles ad transitum sancti Martini accipient.

Roughly translated as:

And **those** capes, and **those** bags, and **those** shoes of the toll collectors are previously mentioned because of their excellence, and from **that** shoemaker whom **the** bishop used to give to **the** clergy every year, and from their alms which God specifically gave to **that** clergy, let them be prepared. Moreover, **those** clothes, **those** capes and bags will be received for **the** passage of Saint Martin (Pei 1954: 81-82).

The change in language from Latin to Romance involved significant readjustments to the pronoun category. It continued to perform its intended functions, which included determining the noun and making deictic references to linguistic or situational context (the latter not with all pronouns), also maintained its fundamental classes with only the creation of the 'article' as a new form of determiner. Notable modifications occurred in each of the

category's groups, personal, demonstrative, etc., including the addition and removal of elements, rearrangements of structural components, and modifications to the structure itself. However, the outcome was a system that was comparable to the Latin one, to such an extent that the categories "neuter" and "case," which were lost in the remainder of the nominal system, are retained by certain pronouns (Rafael Cano Aguilar 147).

4.2.1. From Latin to Spanish

The emergence of crucial grammatical elements that have remained in modern Spanish may be traced by looking at Latin pronouns, which provides insight into the complex relationships between these two Romance languages.

There were many demonstrative pronouns in Latin, for example *Hic, haec, hos,* which indicated the position close to the speaker, whereas *iste, ista, and istud* signalised the position near to the listener. The demonstratives *ille, illa, and illud* were used to make reference to something distant and, secondarily, to someone or something that was wellknown. On the other hand, *is, ea,* and *id* were noted for their anaphoric purpose. Not every form of classical Latin survived in vulgar Latin. Maybe as a result of their deficiency of phonetic content in *hic, haec, hoc,* and also in *is, ea*, and *id*. It should be mentioned that *ipse* completely no longer functions as a Latin signal of identity (Lathrop 51 - 52).

The anaphoric *is* and the two forms of 'identity' *idem* along with *ipse* (which we can see in the table below), vanished as a result of its phonic weakness. The majority of Romance languages are based on the binary system. Since their creation, the principles and applications of the Castilian demonstratives, continuators of their Latin counterparts, have remained constant. But as a result of demonstratives' extensive usage in Late Latin, they are so common that their deictic or anaphoric meaning appears to be obscured (Aguilar 1988: 156).

In the case of Old Spanish, its definite article was created from the Latin third-person demonstrative and demonstratives in general were followed by nouns and adjectives in a case of full inflection, as we can see in the table below:

Table 14. Development of demonstrative and related pronouns (Penny 2009: 143).

	anaphoric	personal	demon-strative 1	demon-strative 2	demon-strative 3	emphasis	identity
CL	IS	ILLE	HIC	ISTE	ILLE	IPSE	IDEM
spoken Latin	ILLE	ILLE	ISTE	IPSE	*ACCU ILLE	*MEDIPSISSIMUS	
Spanish	*el (que)*	*él*	*este*	*ese*	*aquel*	*mismo*	

In this next table, there is the summarization of all demonstratives in Latin:

Table 15. Demonstrative pronouns in Latin (Lingographics).

singulāris nōm.	**is**	**ea**	**id**	sg. nōm.	**hic**	**haec**	**hoc**	sg. nōm.	**ipse**	**ipsa**	**ipsum**
gen.	◁ eius ▷			gen.	◁ huius ▷			gen.	◁ ipsīus ▷		
dat.	◁ eī (ei) ▷			dat.	◁ huic ▷			dat.	◁ ipsī ▷		
akk.	eum	eam	id	akk.	hunc	hanc	hoc	akk.	ipsum	ipsa	ipsum
abl.	eō	eā	eō	abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc	abl.	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō
plūrālis nōm.	**īi/eī/ī**	**eae**	**ea**	pl. nōm.	**hī**	**hae**	**haec**	pl. nōm.	**ipsī**	**ipsae**	**ipsa**
gen.	eōrum	eārum	eōrum	gen.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum	gen.	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
dat.	◁ eīs/iīs/īs ▷			dat.	◁ hīs ▷			dat.	◁ ipsīs ▷		
akk.	eōs	eās	ea	akk.	hōs	hās	haec	akk.	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
abl.	◁ eīs/iīs/īs ▷			abl.	◁ hīs ▷			abl.	◁ ipsīs ▷		
singulāris nōm.	**ille**	**illa**	**illud**	sg. nōm.	**iste**	**ista**	**istud**	sg. nōm.	**īdem**	**eadem**	**idem**
gen.	◁ illīus ▷			gen.	◁ istīus ▷			gen.	◁ eiusdem ▷		
dat.	◁ illī ▷			dat.	◁ istī ▷			dat.	◁ eidem (eīdem) ▷		
akk.	illium	illia	illud	akk.	istum	istam	istud	akk.	eundem	eandem	idem
abl.	illō	illā	illō	abl.	istō	istā	istō	abl.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem
plūrālis nōm.	**illī**	**illae**	**illa**	pl. nōm.	**istī**	**istae**	**ista**	pl. nōm.	**īdem/eīdem/ īidem**	**eaedem**	**eadem**
gen.	illōrum	illārum	illōrum	gen.	istōrum	istārum	istōrum	gen.	eōrundem	eārundem	eōrundem
dat.	◁ illīs ▷			dat.	◁ istīs ▷			dat.	◁ eīsdem/iīsdem/īsdem ▷		
akk.	illōs	illās	illa	akk.	istōs	istās	ista	akk.	eōsdem	eāsdem	eadem
abl.	◁ illīs ▷			abl.	◁ istīs ▷			abl.	◁ eīsdem/iīsdem/īsdem ▷		

The Classical Latin forms concerned, *hic*, *iste* and *ille*, constituted a three-place system, in which each demonstrative was related to one of the three grammatical persons. *Hic* was

thus applied to referents near to or concerned with the speaker, *iste* to referents near to or concerned with the person spoken to, while *ille* was used in the case of referents near to or associated with neither the speaker nor the person addressed (Penny 2009: 143).

However, the system of *este, ese, aquel* does not correspond to the Latin one. The phonological weakening had an essential role of the usage of demonstratives, for example, with the loss of /h/ sound, the usage of *hic* and *is* was easy to interchange the demonstrative *ic* with anaphoric *ic*. However, both of these forms were replaced by the late *ille*. This change also caused the shift of *iste* from second person to first person demonstrative role, which caused the reduction to two-place system. This phenomenon is mostly seen in Old French. On the other hand, in the Spanish language, the three-place system remained because the *ipse*, which carried the emphatic function, was moved to second-person demonstrative role. The Spanish second-person demonstrative (ese) therefore descended from *ipse*. Moreover, the term "ille" became a definite article. When *ille* served as a demonstrative, it was supplemented with a variety of deictic (pointing) particles to prevent ambiguity. The Latin words *ecce ille*, *atque ille*, and *eccu ille* were frequent throughout the world; in Spain, the prefix ∗accu (∗accu ille > aquel) was used. Regarding the evolution of iste, ipse, and accu ille:

> nom. iste, acc. istum and dat./abl. isto would merge as ∗esto, while ∗eso and ∗aquello would be the predicted outcomes of the second- and third-person masculine singular demonstratives. The emergence of *este, ese, aquel* must be due to the need to distinguish the masculine singular forms from neuter *esto, eso, aquello* (< istud, ipsum, ∗accu illud). In Old Spanish, the masculine singular forms often lose their final /e/ (est, es) (Penny 2009: 145).

In medieval and Golden Age Spanish, the differentiating prefix *accu*. was frequently used with other demonstratives even though it was necessary only in the third person (Penny 2009: 143 – 145).

Here we can see some of the examples of the use of the demonstratives:

… damus a *aquela* nina … *aquel* ferrenal que iaze (Sahagún, 1222)

… we give to *that* girl … *that* infernal *one* which lies

… maldize *essa* hora en que nasçiste (*Santa María Egipcíaca)*
… curse *the* hour in which you were born

Este rey don Pedro fue..et coronol a *este* rey don Pedro *esse* Incocencio papa (*Primera Crón. Gral.)*

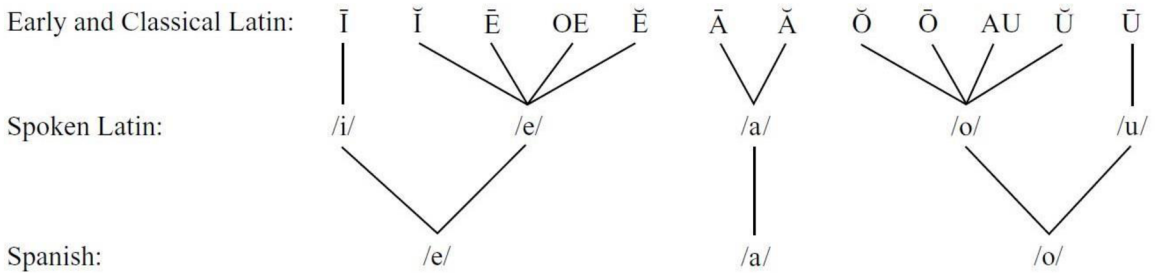
This king Don Pedro was... and he crowned *this* king Don Pedro that Innocent Pope (Aquilar 1988: 15).

With focus on the definite articles *el, la, lo*, which also descended from the Latin *Ĭlle, Ĭlla, Ĭllud*, there will ultimately be two distinct forms in the masculine and neuter, with no consensus regarding their origins. The most widely accepted theory maintains the previously noted gender difference by establishing an evolution from the nominative *Ĭlle* for the masculine *el*. Castilian reflects the use of *ell* or *el* in the earliest writings, in contrast to other peninsular Romance languages (Navarro, aragones, leons) that contain the masculine article *lo*. Additionally, there is a chance of a bicasual origin, in which *el* would originate from *Ĭlle* as a straight case and *lo* from an oblique case. Two variations of the accusative of Ĭlla (*Ĭllam)* are formed in the feminine article, *la* and *el*, these two, which are strictly associated with the masculine, and which can first be found before nouns starting with any vowel in medieval Castilian, for example *el espada*. Although later it is general only before a- and is finally fixed in the classical stage before a-tonic nouns (Elizondo Echenique, Maria Teresa & Alcalde Martínez, José Maria 2013: 182 – 184).

The notable increase in the use of demonstratives before nouns, especially *Ĭlle*, meant that in many cases their signalling function was reduced to simple determination. In such situations, it lost the accent: it allowed us to understand how the forms and content of the Romanic (and Spanish) article came about (Aguilar 1988: 157).

The case of the definite and the indefinite article is peculiar, since there are no records of them in Latin. Its speakers may have developed a need for these determiners due to the widespread bilingual use of Latin and Greek in Rome and the east, and they employed previously existent Latin particles to fill this requirement. As it was said before, the function of an article is to point to a particular thing or person not mentioned before by the speaker to the listeners. There is no wonder that the Latin used the numeral *UNUS* (one) to represent the indefinite article in the language. Because of the phonological change of the vowels, that we can see below:

Table 16. Phonological change in Spanish (Penny 2009: 145).



Masc. *unus* loses its final /o/, while fem. una > una, except that in Old Spanish, final /a/ was elided when the following word began with a vowel (un escoba, un onda) and not solely before word-initial /´a/, as happens in the modern language. The plurals unos, -as are not articles in any real sense, and are best considered together with other quantifiers (Penny 2009: 145).

Not every syntactic function was covered by the article in the same way. For this reason, it is the most widely used method (though not the only one) of turning constituents of other categories into nouns. When an article refers to a noun that has already been expressed or implied, it occasionally seems to maintain its pronominal significance.

… rey, *el* meior de toda Espanna" (PCid). *la* mayor, Lía, *la* menor, Rachel"

(*General EstoriaI)* (Aquilar 1988: 159).

To demonstrate the usage of Latin demonstratives, from which descended the Old English demonstratives, I would like to examine Latin text from *Augustini Confessiones*. The Confessions is an important philosophical-autobiographical work consisting of 13 books in which the author chronicles his painful search for understanding and path to Christianity. Demonstratives are going to be extracted from the 7th book and highlighted in bold.

quod quantum valeret ad ***illius*** *artis opinionem evertendam, ignorabat. is ergo vir secundum suas quas constellationes appellant videretur, ego autem, qui iam de* ***hac*** *re in Nebridii sententiam flecti coeperam, non quidem abnuerem conicere, ac dicere quod nutanti occurrebat; sed tamen subicerem, prope iam esse mihi persuasum ridicula* ***illa*** *esse et insania: tum* ***ille*** *mihi narravit, patrem suum fuisse librorum talium curiosissimum et habuisse amicum aeque* ***illa*** *simulque sectantem. qui pari studio et conlatione flagrabant in eas nugas igne cordis sui, ita ut mutorum quoque animalium, si quae domi parerent, observarent momenta nascentium atque ad ea caeli positionem notarent, unde* ***illius*** *quasi artis experimenta colligerent. itaque dicebat audisse se a patre suo, quod, cum eundem Firminum praegnans mater esset, etiam* ***illius*** *paterni amici famula quaedam pariter utero grandescebat. quod latere non potuit dominum, qui etiam canum suarum partus examinatissima diligentia nosse curabat; atque ita factum esse, ut cum* ***iste*** *coniugis,* ***ille*** *autem ancillae dies et horas minutioresque horarum articulos cautissima observatione numerarent, enixae essent ambae simul;* (O'Donnell 1992: 7th book)

The first thing that is needed to be mentioned, is the fact that, even though we mentioned the use of *unus* for implication of indefinite article, there is no mentioning of it in the text,

since these demonstratives are not yet in the phase of functioning as articles as we know it today and therefore there is no point in using them since they are not grammaticalised. However, we can see the various usage of the demonstratives *illa* (nominative singular), *haec* (nominative singular, *hic*), *iste* (nominative singular). It is not easy to indicate the gender since it depends on the context. When we translate one sentence containing one of these demonstratives:

etiam illius paterni amici famula quaedam pariter utero grandescebat also a

certain servant of that father's friend was growing in her womb as well

In this case, we are using the demonstrative *illius* to point out the significance and acknowledgement of his father's friend (certain). As we mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the nominative form of *illius* (*illa)* was primarily used to identify something far away, but in this case, it is used to make reference to something well known, therefore, it modifies the phrase 'certain friend'. In this period of Spanish language, the urge of using declension still remains and is used to indicate the relationship between the demonstrative and the element that is modifying.

As the second text to examine I would like to present an extract from *Cantar de mío Cid*, which was composed in the 12th century by anonymous author. This song is about Rodrigo Díaz, also known as El Cid, who was an exploring hero. We can also read about the battles in the Iberian Peninsula in this story.

Alli pienssan de aguiiar, alli sueltan ***las*** *riendas:*
A ***la*** *exida de Biuar ouieron* ***la*** *corneia diestra, E*
entrando a Burgos ouieron ***la*** *siniestra.*
Meçio Myo Çid los ombros e engrameo ***la*** *tiesta:*
Albricia Albar Ffanez ca echados somos de tierra.

Myo Çid Ruy Diaz por Burgos entraua.

En su conpanna LX pendones leuaua: exien ***lo*** *ver mugieres e uarones.*

Burgeses e burgesas por ***las*** *finiestras son puestos.*

Plorando de ***los*** *oios, tanto auyen el dolor* (Cantar de mío Cid, lines 11-19).

In comparison to Germanic languages, we can see an enormous jump from the ancient form to this Old Spanish, which does not vary from the modern form that we know nowadays. We can notice that even the syntax, that is, the articles are set to modify just and only nouns, is as precise as we are familiar with in the modern language.

As was mentioned by Penny about the loos of final /e/ and creation of *est* or *es*, we have as example this sentence from the same extract, which just confirmers the rule:

A ella e a sus fijas e a sus duennas siruades las ***est*** *anno. (*Cantar de mío Cid line 254*)*

Also, the phonological change from u > o is to be shown in the table mentioned earlier, the determiner *Ĭllud* acquired the form that we now today.

4.2.2. Italian articles and demonstratives

As it was with the Spanish language, we can find the origin of the Italian definite articles in Latin and its determiners. It is already evident that the old demonstrative pronoun *ille* (*illu*) is becoming less strong in relation to an article, more specifically, in the Bible's (vernacular) translation. Greek influences undoubtedly contributed to this change. For the masculine nouns, *lo* and *gli* is added before the *s*, *sc,* and *gn* impure (Rohlfs 1968:99).

It comes as no surprise that phonology once again plays an essential role in the morphological development. For example, in the language, the last vowel before words that start with a vowel is usually omitted, e.g. for the masculine *l'orso* 'the bear' and for the feminine *l'*orsa or *la* orsa. However, the feminine plural is now nearly always *le*, while the masculine plural is gone. Nevertheless, until the eighteenth century, plurals like *l'arti* 'the

art' were still used in literature. Similar to the adjective *bello*, which means "beautiful," and *quello*, which means *that*, the masculine definite article has developed a variety of forms that differ based on the phonological nature of the word that comes before it (Maiden 1995).

Before vowels the singular is l' and the plural gli (pronounced [λ]): l'orso gli orsi 'bear'. Before a heterogeneous set of phonological environments (namely [ts], [dz]; [s] + consonant; [ʃ]; [ks]; labial occlusive + obstruent; [n]; [j]), we have singular *lo* and plural *gli* ([λi]): *lo zio gli zii* 'uncle'; *lo spacco gli spacchi* 'split'; *lo scatto gli scatti* 'click'; *lo stato gli stati* 'state' (Maiden 1995).

Even in the current language, *lo* is not consistently found in front of the beginning z. As late as the seventeenth century, *il* was the most common form in this location. In modern usage, *il* frequently comes before these initial consonants (*lo* psicologo 'the psychologist'; *lo* pneumatico 'the tyre'; *lo* gnomo 'the gnome'; *lo* yacht; *lo* xilofono 'the xylophone') even though *lo* is the standard form (Maiden 1995).

The position in which *lo* is most firmly established is before [s] + consonant, and here a clear phonological motivation is available: lo is preferred because it furnishes a prosthetic vowel (Maiden 1995).

When referring to referents whose identities are presumed to be unknown to the addressee, the definite article is not used. This list includes partitive formulations that express unclear parts, quantities, or amounts of a larger whole. These forms are found in the earliest Italo-Romance literature without an article, a condition that is maintained in the plural form today (*vedo gatti* 'I see cats'; *mangia mele* 'he eats apples') (Maiden 1995).

By its own nature, the indefinite article's expansion is ambiguous and complex. According to Pei, the main function of *unus* was to signify *a* or *an* rather than pointing on the number 'one'. It is considered as very challenging to determinate the difference between these two meanings. In the Vulgar Latin, there are many instances that aims on the idea that the *unus* would not have been used as numeral. The definition of 'indefiniteness' may have served to support the article's expansion rather than its indefinite use (1954: 81).

In Romance languages, the indefinite article appears later than its definite equivalent. It can only be used with single elements and is typically omitted with negated referents, staying true to its original meaning as the numeral "one".

mangio mele	'I eat apples'
la mia lettera è rimasta senza risposta	'my letter did not get a reply'

It serves the same individuating purpose as the definite article, but it also suggests that the addressee lacks awareness, which the speaker may or may not also share and so contributes to bringing up a completely new information into the conversation (Maiden 1995).

The demonstratives of Italian language are on the same basis as the Spanish, and therefore Latin ones. The system is precisely the same, which is three-termed. Referents "external to the speech situation" were marked by the demonstrative adjective and pronoun *ille*. The other two phrases approximately translate to "first person" – *hic*, which is speakerfocused, and "second person" – *iste*, which is addressee focused. Relics of the ternary system can still be found in Italian, although the most common system is the binary one, which distinguishes between speaker-focused and nonspeaker-focused deixis. The demonstrative forms of Classical Latin have not, for the most part, been directly carried over into Italian in their demonstrative role (Maiden 1995).

The modern *questo* and *quello* are derived, respectively, from a combination of the ProtoRomance presentative particle *ˈ*ɛkko* (Italian *ecco*) < *CL ECCE*, with the forms *ˈ*estu* (< CL *ISTU(M)*) and *ˈ*ellu* (< CL *ILLU(M)*). Hence *esto* (found in the medieval language, and continued in the modern, non-literary sto) and modern *questo* < *ˈ*ɛkko ˈestu*, and *quello* < *ˈ*ɛkko ˈellu* (Maiden 1995).

The demonstration system has undergone significant structural and functional modification. *HIC* has been discarded, however, *ISTE* is still being continued using

firstperson, not second-person, references. A reflex of *ILLE* takes on the roles of *ISTE* and *ILLE* in the binary system (Maiden 1995).

From the semantic point of view of the demonstratives, we can examine the Latin *ille* from three different points of view. *Ille* originally distinguished the division between speaker and listener, as with all deictic phrases, it individuates, or picks out, a particular entity or group of entities, and it assumes "shared cognition" between the speaker and the addressee. *ille* continuants are already beginning to lose their correlation with the interlocutors' spatial distance in Proto-Romance. They start to be anaphoric, which means that they are used to highlight a word or noun phrase that has previously been mentioned in the discourse (Maiden 1995).

The function of individuating from among a set of entities is still reflected in the medieval language in that the definite article is not generally employed with referents which could not, by virtue of their being unique, abstract or generic, be 'singled out: e.g., *sole* 'sun'; *luna* 'moon'; *cielo* 'sky'; *terra* 'earth'; *pane* 'bread'; *ferro* 'iron'; *lana* 'wool'; *legno* 'wood'; *Franci*a 'France'; *amore* 'love'; *odio* 'hatred'; *giustizia* 'justice', etc (Maiden 1995).

As the representative of the Old Italian Language, I would like to use the text from *Canzoniere* written by *Francesco Petrarca*. As was mentioned in the beginning, and with the Spanish text, the evolution of Italian determiners was not as complex as with Germanic language. However, it differs with the Spanish language in many ways.

Era **il** giorno ch'al sol si scoloraro per **la**

pietà **del** suo factore i rai, Quando i' fui

preso, et non me ne guardai, ché i be'

vostr'occhi, donna, mi, legaro

...

però **al** mio parer non **li** fu honore

Ferir me de Saetta in **quello** stato,

A voi armata non mostrar pur **l**'arco

…

Che vendetta é di lui ch'a ció ne mena, **Lo**

qual in forza altrui presso a **l'**extremo

Riman legato con maggior catena.

…

Cosí lunfo **l**'amate rive andai

Che volendo parlar, cantava sempe

Mercé chiamando con estrania voce;

Né mai in sí dolci o in sí soave temper

Risonar sepi **gli** amorosi guai,

Che **'l** cor s'umilïasse aspro et feroce (Petrarca 1374: lines 1-4; 12-14; 12-13; 61-65)

In this text we can see the basic forms of Italian articles as we know them now. For example *il giorno* (the day, which is masculine in Italian language) and *la piet*à (the pity, which is feminine), contraction of *del* + *il* in *del suo*, and transformation of article, when the last vowel is lost before the word that start with vowel, as in *l'arco* in the last line.

Standard form of the words starting with the consonant is *lo*, which we can see in the case of *lo qual.* We have also this plural form of the masculine plural, *gli* before vowels, as is indicated in the sentence*: Risonar sepi **gli** amorosi guai* which could be translated as: echoed often the amorous woes, which indicates the presence of plural form of the woes.

Speaking about the forms of 'this' and 'that', they are of the same forms as we can find in the modern language. We previously said that form found in this text, *quello*, together with the other form, *questo*, were created from Classical Latin's *ecce*, *istum,* and *illu(m).*

However, the original Latin usage was primarily about distinguishing the listener and speaker, however, when we translate this part: *però al mio parer non li fu honore ferir me de saetta in quello stato* to a voi armata non mostrar pur l'arco (however, in my opinion, it was not honorable to strike me with a dart in *that* condition, to you, armed, not even showing the bow.") we can see that we are referring to already mentioned thing in the text rather than making a distinction between listener and speaker.

5. Grammaticalization

In this chapter, I would like to focus on the explanation of the grammaticalization process, which was important for all the languages to have and use the indefinite article.

According to Lyons, in diachronic studies, the word is mostly used to describe the process by which lexical elements are reduced to grammatical categories. This typically means that lexical objects undergo "semantic bleaching," which causes them to lose part of their meaning, and that the original meaning is replaced with a grammatical concept. This loss of meaning is usually accompanied by a loss of morphophonology, which makes the afflicted words to become grammatical forms such as affixes or inflections, or possibly free form non-lexical terms. There are instances where open-class elements merge to form a closed class, typically with phonological reduction in tow (1999: 275).

> Examples are: the creation in English of a closed class of modal auxiliaries (will, would, can, must etc.), usually unstressed and showing further reduced forms like 'll, 'd, from what were originally lexical verbs expressing modal concepts; the development in the Romance languages of a future tense paradigm with endings like Spanish -é and French -ai in the first person singular, derived from Latin habeo 'I have', via a stage at which the reflex of this verb was an auxiliary; the evolution in some languages of nouns used in counting (like English head in three head of cattle) into non-lexical classifiers, and perhaps further into gender morphemes (Lyons 1999: 275).

It is possible that the grammatical category or concept that is expressed by a grammaticalized form may be new to the language, or it may already exist in it with a

different exponent. The third alternative may be that the reduced item itself or another item may have already expressed an element of what the new grammatical form communicates lexically prior to its grammaticalization; this is the situation with the English modals previously discussed. In principle, grammatical categories can be thought of as the grammaticalization of semantic and pragmatic notions rather than being direct statements of them. The grammatical category that is generated is not restricted to conveying the concept once it takes on an entirely different meaning when it is represented linguistically. Nonetheless, it is likely that the initial idea will always be the archetypal value of the grammatical category, meaning that the category can still be seen as conveying that idea in its primary applications (199: 275 – 276).

There is also “a grammaticalization path” presented by Greensberg in the book written by Heine and Narrog (2014). According to him, one way to conceptualise the article's ongoing expansion into new contexts is as a progression from a more individuated state (Stage 0 Demonstrative) to a less individuated one (Stage III Noun Marker). Articles can be classified as semantical and morphosyntactic elements. Semantically speaking, articles encode specificity or definiteness, in the contrary, morphosyntactic perspective, pronouns and articles are not the same thing because articles are adnominal. They can occasionally have the status of affixes and occur in a fixed place relative to the noun expression (either to the right or to the left). They can therefore serve as noun phrase or noun markers. However, the demonstrative indicates that the speech situation or the immediate context of the utterance should be used to determine the referent's identity. It usually expresses a deictic meaning component, pointing out the referent's placement in relation to the speaker's distance or in terms of relationship with the first, second, and third persons. Anaphoric demonstratives that are adnominal would yield definitive articles.

Another point of view about grammaticalization had Lyons. He held the idea that the change from demonstrative to definite article occurred because of two reasons:

> in the exophoric use, when the referent is directly perceived in the physical surroundings, and in the anaphoric use, where the referent is straightforwardly recalled from the preceding discourse. Deictic information is redundant in these two contexts of use because the referent is immediately accessible (Bern Heine & Heiko Narrog 2014: 3).
>
> While it is true that the definite article's grammaticalization eventually results in a loss of the source's demonstrative significance, the pragmatic elements that initiate the grammaticalization process should receive more attention in order to comprehend the evolutionary pathway from distal demonstrative to definite article (2014: 4).

Generally speaking, what happened is that instead of 'that king' the language starts to use more generic and specific meaning 'the king', which does not use the deictic function to indicate distance between the listener and speaker. Instead of it, we are pointing at the unique entity provided by the speaker/ author. When we take the first sentence of Latin example:

quod quantum valeret ad ***illius*** *artis opinionem evertendam*

In modern Spanish: *Lo que valdría para derribar la opinión de esa arte.*

In modern Italian: *Ciò che varrebbe per rovesciare l'opinione di quell'arte.*

In the original Latin text, we can see that for both the opinions and art is used to point out the phrase as a whole, but because of the grammaticalization, the language is using two types of demonstratives, one to literally point on the art (which in this case is *esa* and abbreviation *quell*) and the other one, articles *la* and *l'* to indicate the uniqueness of the art. Even though we do not have the whole context, we can tell, as we have mentioned before, that since the language used demonstratives *illius*, author is talking about something that is near to him and therefore refers to the art with *illius*.

Within the Germanic language we can see grammaticalization later in Middle English, specifically in the King Horn text mentioned earlier in chapter about the evolution of

English demonstratives. When we take these sentences: '**þe** béér a forte shenche' and 'for þat wes lawe of londe' we can tell that the grammaticalization slowly started here since we are using two demonstratives to specifically point out the noun (þe 'béér), but not to indicate the distance from speaker. However, the second demonstrative (for þat wes lawe of londe) point on thing that was already mentioned and is referred backwards.

To represent the German language, we are going to examine a few lines from *Das Nibelungenlied:*

Disiu *selben mære ez reiten sîne liute der wille sînes kindes daz er werben wolde. gehôrte Sigmunt* (3. Âventiure, 48)

...

In ***disen*** *hôhen êren troumte Kriemhilde, wie si zuge einen valken, starc, schœn und wilde, den ir zwêne aren erkrummen. daz si daz muoste sehen, ir enkunde in* ***dirre*** *werlde leider nimmer geschehen* (1. Âventiure, 11).

In both of the text, we can find different forms of the demonstrative 'this' (both singular and plural forms). However, in the first example, translated as 'this same tales', the demonstrative *disen* (this) is in the form of feminine, which according to the tables, was moved from neuter to feminine. However, this usage is not grammaticalized for the demonstrative since the demonstrative keeps it form as pointing up the noun.

When we translate the first part of the second text, in this high honour, Kriemhild dreamt that she tamed a falcon …, the demonstrative is still used with lexical function, not the grammaticalized one.

However, is important to mention that the forms of *dieser, disiu,* or *diz*, is very hard to find in authentic text and the proto-forms of articles are more common.

6. Conclusion

The main purpose of this thesis was to discover how different or how similar evolution occurred in two main language branches in the Indo-European family. To examine their path and compare it to the language within and across language branches.

Firstly the Germanic branch, there was this assumption that the evolution is going to be the same, or similar, since they were under the same influence when speaking about the further development, and coexisted from the very beginning. In the case of definite articles, this assumption was wrong, since English and German had completely different descendants and process of creation. However, what these two languages agree on is the way indefinite and demonstrative 'this' and 'that' were formed and what was the correct form of the usage at the beginning and then after the grammaticalization.

The second one, the Romance branch, surprisingly fulfilled expectations that the development was the same both in Spanish and Italian. Their development of the definite articles and demonstratives is united by the Latin language, and it's forms of 'this' and 'that'. This gives us the impression that Romance languages are more connected and united than the Germanic ones.

We need to mention that these two branches have two things in common, even though they distinguish themselves in so many ways. The first one is the mutual creation of an indefinite article, which is from number one (*an, unus, ein*). The second one would be the grammaticalization of demonstratives, which gave them function and form, as we know it today.

In the question of *this/these* in all of the languages, we discovered that these forms were not as common, in the beginning of those languages, as were the proto-forms of articles.

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