The indefinite article – Indefinite? – Article?

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Abstract
Perlmutter (1970) argued that the indefinite article is categorically different from the definite article and proposed that it is a clitic version of the numeral "one". But there are, as Perlmutter himself pointed out, instances of "a" as well as of "one" that don't seem to have the semantics of the numeral. Hence a divorce of "a" (and of "one") from "numeral"-hood is called for. Furthermore, there are instances of what looks like the indefinite article (e.g., German "ein" or its Dutch, etc. counterpart) which occur in contexts from which the indefinite article is supposed to be excluded: with plural nouns, with non-count nouns, in definite noun phrases, etc. This state of affairs was addressed by Bennis et al. (1998), and others since, by reference to a so-called 'spurious article,' homophonous with the traditional indefinite article "een/ein".

The goal of the present paper is twofold: First of all, I argue that German "ein" is not always an `indefinite article,' and, pursuing the idea that there is only one "ein", it is hence never an `indefinite article.' Secondly, I explore some consequences for the structural representation of certain function words which contain "ein" as one of their components, in particular "kein" as well as its English counterpart "no". The discussion promotes a strongly non-lexicalist view, advocating a syntactic derivation of function words, including movement.
The indefinite article – Indefinite? – Article?

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1 Introduction

Perlmutter (1970) argued that the indefinite article is categorically different from the definite article and proposed that it is a clitic version of the numeral one (cf. also Roehrs 2009). But there are, as Perlmutter himself pointed out, instances of a (and of one) from numeral-hood is called for (cf. Kayne 2009). Furthermore, there are instances of what looks like the indefinite article (e.g., German ein or its Dutch, etc. counterpart) which occur in contexts from which the indefinite article is supposed to be excluded: with plural nouns, with non-count nouns, in definite noun phrases, etc. This state of affairs was addressed by Bennis et al. (1998), and others since, by reference to a so-called ‘spurious article,’ homophonous with the traditional indefinite article een/ein.

The goal of the present paper is twofold: First of all, I argue that German ein is not always an ‘indefinite article,’ and, pursuing the idea that there is only one ein, it is hence never an ‘indefinite article.’ Secondly, I explore some consequences for the structural representation of certain function words which contain ein as one of their components, in particular kein as well as its English counterpart no. The discussion promotes a strongly non-lexicalist view, advocating a syntactic derivation of function words, including movement (cf. Leu 2008a, 2010).

2 Zooming in on the “indefinite article”

The traditional term indefinite article is useful for a number of purposes (lexicography, language teaching, etc.). But from the perspective of theoretical linguistics, it stands in the way of a better understanding of the nature of, e.g., German ein.

2.1 einem: ein+em

Consider (1).

(1) mit einem Trick
    with a.DAT trick

German

Most linguists would agree that einem in (1) is the German indefinite article. It is, however, also immediately clear that this is an imprecision. It entails, for instance, that em of einem in (1) is part of the indefinite article. However, arguably the same em occurs in definite contexts (2a,b) and in adjectival contexts (2c), i.e., in the absence of an indefinite article. And finally, the indefinite article sometimes occurs without the em (2d).

(2) a. mit d-em Trick
    with the-DAT trick
    ⇒ -em occurs in definite contexts.

b. mit ihm
    with him.DAT
    ⇒ -em occurs in definite contexts.

c. mit rot-em Wein
    with red-DAT wine
    ⇒ -em suffices to non-articles (e.g., adjectives).

d. Ein Trick genügt,
    A trick suffices
    ⇒ sometimes the “indef. art.” occurs without -em.

Hence we can conclude that -em is not part of the “indefinite article.” In fact this em is a dative case marker.

* Aspects of this work were inspired by R. Kayne’s spring 2011 NYU lectures in morphosyntax. For helpful discussion I’m particularly grateful to Oana Săvescu and Raffaella Zanuttini.
2.2 ein: [...]+ein

Many linguists would presumably agree with the idea that *em* is not literally part of the indefinite article in (1), and will point out that what s/he meant is really *ein*, as e.g., in (3a). It is further also widely agreed upon that the indefinite article has certain properties: It marks the containing noun phrase as indefinite (3a), and distributionally speaking it is incompatible with plural nouns (3b) and with non-count nouns (3c).

\[(3)\]

The indefinite article is...

- **a.** *Ein* Hund hat mich angebellt.  
  a dog has me at.barked
- **b.** (*Eine*) Hunde haben mich angebellt.  
  (a) dogs have me at.barked
- **c.** (*Ein) Wissen ist (*eine) Macht.  
  (a) knowledge is (a) power

But given these properties we can, with the same kind of argument as above in section 2.1, question whether *ein* is really the “indefinite article.” Consider examples (4), which show that sometimes *ein* occurs in definite contexts (4a), that sometimes *ein* occurs with plural nouns (4b), and that sometimes *ein* occurs with non-count nouns (4c).\(^1\)

\[(4)\]

*ein* occurs...

- **a.** *Dein* Bier wird warm.  
  your beer gets warm
- **b.** *Meine* Freunde sind schon da.  
  my friends are already here
- **c.** *Ich* brauche *kein* Wasser.  
  I need no water

Hence we can conclude that *ein* is not the indefinite article. But if so, then what is the ‘indefinite article’? - And what is *ein*? - The rest of the paper is devoted to addressing these two questions.

3 What is the “indefinite article”?

The proposal in this section is that the indefinite article does not exist.\(^2\) What exists is a set of zero-operators which constitute a subset of operators that occur to the left of *ein*. Consider the examples in (5).\(^3\)

\[(5)\]

- **a.** *m-ein* Buch ‘my book’  
  ‘my book’
- **b.** *k-ein* Buch ‘no book’
  ‘no book’
- **c.** *d-ein* Buch ‘your book’  
  ‘your book’
- **s-ein Buch ‘his/her book’
- **c.** *welch ein Buch* ‘what a book’  
  ‘what a book’
- **d.** *was für ein Buch* ‘what kind of book’  
  ‘what kind of book’
- **c.** *welch ein Buch* ‘what a book’  
  ‘what a book’
- **d.** *was für ein Buch* ‘what kind of book’  
  ‘what kind of book’

The element *ein* can be preceded by a person element, as in (5a), which has referential properties and is associated with possessor semantics. Or it can be preceded by an element that is associated with negative quantification (5b). Or it can be preceded by a wh-element, as in (5c,d), which is associated with illocutionary force as well as quantificational properties, and which syntactically is clearly a phrasal constituent. Let us refer to the set of things that precede *ein* in each of the above examples as operators.

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\(^1\)Bennis et al. (1998) discuss occurrences in Dutch of a “spurious” article, i.e., an indefinite article occurring with mass nouns, plurals, and proper names in certain environments (cf. Haegeman 2007, Leu 2010, Roehrs 2009).

\(^2\)The idea that there is no “indefinite article” has been proposed previously, cf. Vater 1982 and subsequent work, which treats German *ein* as a Q head, distinct from the category of the definite article.

\(^3\)Cf. also Roehrs (in progress) for discussion of morphologically complex words involving *ein*. 
The noun phrases in (5) enter into distinct quantificational / referential / (person-)deictic relations with the containing clause and the context of utterance. Notice that it is the constituent preceding *ein* that determines most of the semantic properties of the noun phrase. Assuming that it is correct to attribute to the noun phrase in (6a) certain semantic aspects in the realm of quantification and/or referentiality not shared with all the examples in (5), it (almost) follows from compositionality that the right analysis of (6a) features a zero-operator, as represented in (6b).

\[ (6) \quad \text{a. ein Buch} \]
\[ \text{b. \text{[OP}^{IA}\text{]} + ein Buch} \]

We may ask how \text{OP}^{IA} is integrated in the noun phrase, or, more narrowly, what the relation between *ein* and \text{OP}^{IA} is. I will try and answer one aspect of that question, by looking at other occurrences of *ein*. In a number of (related) cases, it has been argued that the relevant derivations involve movement of a constituent to the left of *ein*. I will briefly mention a few earlier proposals and relevant considerations and suggest treating \text{OP}^{IA} analogously.

### 3.1 Wh - *ein*

One case in which wh-elements have been argued to have the effect of moving a noun modifier to the left of the indefinite article is that of English degree fronting (Bresnan 1973, Hendrick 1990, Troseth 2004, Leu 2008a).

\[ (7) \quad \text{a. a \{pretty big\} car} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{b. \{how big\} (of) a \text{[how big]} \text{book...?} \}
\]

Following the lead of English degree fronting, a similar partial derivation is also supported (to varying degrees of obviousness) for the occurrences of \text{OP} \text{ein} \text{NP} in (5).

A first plausibly very similar case is that of Germanic \text{was für} (Leu 2008b, cf. also Vangsnes 2008a,b).

\[ (8) \quad \text{a. was für \text{an Buch} \quad \text{German}} \]
\[ \text{b. \text{[XP was für] \text{[an [Buch txP ] ]}}} \]

\text{Was für is a basically adjectival modifier with a wh-element. The \text{was für} constituent can occur to the left of *ein*, or it can occur to the right of (the counterpart of) *ein* (for details see Leu 2008a: chapter 5), suggesting that when occurring to the left of *ein* it moved there.}

The case of \text{welch ein} seems very similar to that of \text{was für} (Leu 2008a: chapter 6). Bennis et al. (1998) and Corver (2004) suggest an analysis in which the wh-element comes to precede \text{n} by means of leftward movement.

\[ (9) \quad \text{a. wat \text{n boeken} \quad \text{Dutch}} \]
\[ \text{b. \text{[DP wat] [D' \{X \text{[n]} \text{X'} \text{[X'} tx \text{tj} \text{]} \} ]}}} \]

Notice in this example that the \text{n} precedes a plural noun (cf. also Haegeman 2007 on West Flemish \text{wek}).

### 3.2 Possessive \text{m-ein}

In a similar vein, Den Dikken (1998) and Corver (2004) propose that the possessive determiner (the Dutch cognate of German) \text{mein} be analyzed as involving movement of the possessor to the left of \text{n}. Notice that the two components that make up \text{mijn} (‘my’) do not form a constituent on this view.

\[ (10) \quad \text{a. mijn boeken} \quad \text{Dutch} \]
\[ \text{b. my books} \]

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\footnote{The IA superscript to the operator \text{OP} is a notational means to distinguish the null operator from the overt elements that precede *ein* in (5), and which form a natural class with \text{OP}^{IA} in the currently relevant respects.}
The idea that at some point in the derivation the possessor moves to the left is supported for instance by the fact about Hungarian that the possesee nominal supports agreement morphology, agreeing with the possessor (Szabolcsi 1994). Assuming no upward probing, the possessor must originate in a position lower than the agreement head (or in its Spec).

### 3.3 k-ein

Finally, we are left with the negative determiner kein ('no'). Recalling the above argument from English degree fronting, note that such degree fronting can be triggered not only by a wh-element but also by a negative element (Troseth 2004), as in (11).

\[(11) \quad \begin{array}{ll}
a. \quad \text{a [very good] student} & \Rightarrow \\
b. \quad \text{[*(not) very good] (of) a } t_{\text{notverygood}} \text{ student}
\end{array}\]

Hence NEG can also trigger noun phrase internal movement in such cases. Let me propose, by analogy to the above cases, that kein involves movement of a constituent containing k to the left of ein (Leu 2008a).

\[(12) \quad [xAP \text{ NEG } k-] \text{ eine } t_j \text{ Bücher }
(13)\]

### 3.4 ein and the indefinite article

I mentioned earlier that in a number of cases, e.g., (9), n (i.e., ein) can occur with mass nouns, plurals, and even proper names, and often doesn’t seem to contribute indefiniteness. Bennis et al. (1998) conclude that in such cases it is not the indefinite article, but a what they call spurious article.

Let us agree with this conclusion. But let us note that this results in a case of homonymy between the “spurious” ein and the “real article” ein. Furthermore, not only do the two articles sound the same, but they also exhibit identical inflectional properties, both with regard to their own inflection and with regard to the inflection “triggered” on a following adjective. Hence settling for accidental homonymy would mean declaring defeat. The proposal in (6), on the other hand, offers an immediate and simple remedy to the accidental quality of this homonymism, at the expense of the postulate of a (possibly single-membered) set of silent operators.

### 3.5 Conclusion

I conclude that what traditional grammatical descriptions call the indefinite article is really a conglomerate of components of a partial derivation in which ein is merged and a (phonetically zero) operator moves to the left of it.

\[(14) \quad \text{Proposal: } [\text{OPIA [ein ... t Buch]}]\]

In other words, I propose that ein is never the indefinite article.

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5The idea that kein ('no') is (at least) bi-morphemic seems standardly accepted (Zeijlstra 2004, Penka and Zeijlstra 2005, Roehrs in progress, cf. also Klima 1964). In fact, its Old High German ancestor nihein seems to derive from (at least) three components, being composed of ni+uh+ numeral ein, i.e., ‘not + and/also + one’ (Pfeifer 2003).

6In Leu 2008c, I disagreed with it for reasons that are obviated by the present proposal.

7Indefinite noun phrases have a number of possible readings (Diesing 1992, Ilhsane 2008). It is conceivable that these should be distinguished (in part) in terms of different operators. The question of why they are non-overt in what looks like a systematic fashion would become increasingly salient.
4 What is ein?

Assuming the preceding discussion to be on the right track, we know what ein isn’t, namely an indefinite article. But we still don’t know what ein is.

The goals of this (somewhat programmatic) section hence are (A) to find a unifying theme that characterizes all the occurrences of ein in (5), and (B) to explore certain immediate structural/derivational consequences.8

4.1 ein and numerals

In one of its occurrences, ein is traditionally called a numeral. The idea that the indefinite article ein and the numeral ein are related is widely acknowledged (Perlmutter 1970, Kayne 2009, Roehrs in progress; among others) and should be taken seriously.

Let us consider Kayne’s (2009) proposal that the numeral one is really the indefinite article adjacent to a silent SINGLE.

(15)  a. a single book
    b. one SINGLE book

This proposal immediately unifies the two uses of ein distinguishing them in terms of the context of occurrence. The unification aspect is appealing and I want to retain it.

Kayne (2009) further discusses other numerals and proposes that they occur in the specifier of the indefinite article, in which case the indefinite article remains unpronounced. I will directly adopt the essence of this proposal, in combination with Kayne’s (2005b) proposal that (certain) quantity expressions (e.g., many and few) are accompanied by a (silent) nominal NUMBER. Specifically, I adopt the idea that the numeral interpretation derives from association with such a (silent) nominal NUMBER. Thus we arrive at the idea that the numeral use of ein has the representation in (16).

(16) numeral |1|: ein Buch ⇒ SINGLE ein NUMBER Buch

The intuition behind the proposal leans on the observation that ein is related to in (as is certainly the case in locative expressions).9 Similarly, the intuition is easily accessible in my corresponding proposal for numerals higher than one (in English):

(17) numerals > |1|: four books ⇒ four IN NUMBER books

4.2 M-ein and French possessives

In section 3.2 we encountered the idea that possessive determiners like mein (‘my’) consist of two elements: a possessor and a functional element that relates the possessor and the possessee.

(18) [DP [PP Φ mii] [PP [D [X ‘n]i] [X′ boeken [X′ tj tj ]]]]

In the case of German mein that relating element is ein. Possibly this should be related to French (19b,c), suggesting a correspondence between German (eijn) and French de/à (cf. Kayne 1994, Den Dikken 1998, Corver 2004, Leu 2008a).

(19) a. m-ein Buch b. le livre de Jean c. un ami à moi
    my-ein book the book of John a friend of me

8Den Dikken (2006) foreshadows aspects of the present proposal by generating spurious een as the relator of a small clause, on a par with Dutch/German als, English as and the like, i.e., prepositional elements.

9To the extent that this parallelism is not accidental, we will consider that the locative aspect of the occurrences of ein in einbrechen (‘break in’), hinein (‘in’ etc. are not so much reflexes of inherent semantic properties of ein, but should rather be ascribed to a component analogous to NUMBER in (16) and (17), but with the relevant semantics, e.g., a silent nominal PLACE (cf. Kayne 2007).
4.3 K-ein and French and English negatives

Finally, let me address kein. I noted, in section 3.3, that kein consists of (at least) two constituents k- and -ein, and that the position of k- to the left of ein is the result of syntactic movement.

(20) a. keine Bücher  
   b. [ NEG k-] eine t_1 Bücher
   no books

I also noted that k may not be the actual carrier of negativity, but that it is associated with an (often) silent negative morpheme n. This is, of course, well motivated within a Germanic (and more widely an Indo-European) context. Let us, therefore, start with a look at a number of occurrences of negative n in English and German.

(21) a. n-ot  c. n-icht  d. n-o  
   b. n'-t  
   n-ein

It is clear that in the examples in (21) n is a negative morpheme, and presumably the same negative morpheme across all the examples in (21). A next step involves addressing the constituent structure of the remaining parts of the words in (21). In English, an element o is isolable, as well as a t. The presence/absence of these elements is syntactically constrained (e.g., n’t is restricted to finite contexts, contrary to not).

The recognition of the morpheme status of n and o must be extended to the examples in (22a-b’). Let us agree that the o in (22a) is the same as the one in (22a’), and that the o in (22a’) is (morphosyntactically) the same as that in (22b). In all three cases, a negative constituent, n, precedes o and a nominal constituent follows it. (On not see below.)

(22) a. n-o book  c. n-o'clock  
   b. n-o-body  d. n-o  
   b'. n-o-t  c'. barrel o-monkeys

English also has (22c,c’), where, similarly, a quantificational constituent precedes o and a nominal constituent follows it. These latter instances of o are usually taken to be variants of the preposition of (or perhaps on). Phonologically they are distinct, varying within the same range as the range delimited by (22a) and (22b), impressionistically speaking. Given these parallels, I propose that the o in (22a,a’,b) is a variant of of.10,11

This proposal puts the potential parallelism in (23) between French and English immediately within reach.

(23) English:  
   proposal:  
   French:  
   n o books  
   pas de livres

We note that in French the actual negative component, n is not immediately present, but in a removed position, reminiscent of German kein, to which the parallelism extends straightforwardly, given the preceding discussion.

(24) English:  
   French:  
   German:  
   n o books  
   pas de livres  
   k eine t_1 Bücher

The morphematic analysis of n-o must also extend to the fragment negation no. In other words, n in No! (and similarly in German Nein!) is a negative constituent moving to the left of -o (German -ein), presumably out of an elided clause (Holmberg 2004).

10Note that French object pas un NP versus pas de NP seems to correspond to German ein- NP . . . nicht versus kein NP.

Baunaz (2008: p.174,370ff.) notes that in French pas un NP is the subject counterpart of object pas de NP.

11The idea of decomposing not as n-o-t was inspired by R. Kayne’s spring 2011 seminar at NYU. Barrel o’monkeys was pointed out to me by Sarah Nakamaru.
Finally, the scope of the above discussion must include not. More precisely, on the set of assumptions entertained in this paper, not is derived in the syntax, in a way that involves movement of $n$ to the left of $o$. This leaves the the question of the status of $t$ in $n$-$o$-$t$. Considering the facts in (22) and French (24), let me suggest that -$t$ is a nominal constituent, akin to it.\footnote{Jon Brennan and Jim Wood independently suggested to me that $t$ in not may be nominal (cf. it), which, as noted, seems plausible, cf. French pas, point etc.}

(26) \texttt{not: n o t \hspace{1em} \text{derived by movement of: n o t} \hspace{1em} t}
\hspace{1em} \underline{\text{NEG OF IT}}

This opens up the possibility that negation always originates within a nominal category. If so, we will ultimately want to understand why that should be so.

5 Conclusion

In conclusion, I have argued that the semantic contribution of the “indefinite article,” e.g., in German ein Buch, should likely be attributed to a silent operator $\text{OP}^{IA}$:

(27) $\text{OP}^{IA}$ ein Buch

This essentially implies that ein is always “spurious” qua indefinite article, in all its occurrences. In addressing the question of the status/category of ein I have propose that an analysis of ein should take into account certain parallels with prepositions such as in, of, de, and reduced variants thereof. Spinning the thread a little further I have arrived at the view that negative function words are syntactically complex and that negation may always originate within a nominal projection.

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