1. Introduction
2. Modes of referring

(U1) All languages, at all times, have names.

(U2) To do what proper names are used for is something that can only be done through language. (Not, e.g., by pointing.)

What we are dealing with, at heart or at any rate at first, are two modes of linguistic referring (to keep addressing out of it for the moment, crucial though this use will become later). To restate the first universal accordingly:

(U1’) All speech communities distinguish two modes of linguistic referring, reference-by-naming and reference-by-describing.
3. Nameworthiness

(U3) Everything that can be conceived of as a particular, and only what can be conceived of as a particular, can be referred-to-by-naming.

Here is an informal classified listing (drawn from my reading of onomastic literature) of what would certainly have to be included among the “particulars” that are potentially available for the referential mode of naming.
LIVING THINGS  (bionyms)  

WHO

• persons (anthroponyms)
  • given names (first, middle)
  • patronyms, teknonyms, necronyms
  • married names, maiden names
  • family names, clan names, section names
  • surnames (by-names), nicknames, hypocoristic name forms
• groups of persons: families, clans, sections, peoples (socionyms, ethnonyms)
• institutions: companies, schools, political parties, ...
• deities (theonyms)
• animals: pets, domesticated animals, racehorses, ... (zoonyms)
• plants (phytonyms)
ARTEFACTS (abionyms, ergonyms) (with) WHAT

• vehicles: cars, ships, aircraft, ...
• tools
• products, brands (trademarks)
• works of art, monuments
• intellectual products: periodical publications, books, ... (Are titles names?)
• languages, letters, numbers (?), concepts (termini technici)
• subjects of learning, religions, ideologies
PLACES (toponyms)                     WHERE

• celestial bodies (kosmonyms, astronyms)
• continents, countries, states, regions
• oceans, seas (hydronyms)
• lakes, ponds (hydronyms)
• rivers and other waterways (hydronyms)
• islands
• elevations: mountain ranges, mountains, hills (oronyms)
• countryside: fields, forests, parks, valleys, ... (agronyms, Flurnamen)
• towns, villages (oikonyms, Siedlungsnamen)
• houses, buildings, homesteads, shops, ...  
• venues: theatres, restaurants, stadiums, churches, stations, ...
• routes: paths, streets, roads, places, bridges, canals, ... (hodonyms, dromonyms)
• landmarks

TIMES (chrononyms)                           WHEN
• parts of the day
• days of the week
• weeks
• months
• seasons
• years
• epochs
• holidays, festive periods (heortonyms)
STATES
• illnesses
• virtues, vices

ATMOSPHERIC CONDITIONS
• winds, hurricanes, low/high (pressure areas)

EVENTS (symbantonyms)
• natural events (phenonymys)
• man-made (praxonymys)
(U4) Nameworthiness preferences:
close to > distant from ego;
time-stable > time-unstable;
culturally salient > non-salient

...
(i) there is a circle or group of language users among whom there is frequent need or occasion to make identifying reference to a certain (kind of) particular;
(ii) there is interest in the continuing identity of the particular from occasion to occasion of reference;
(iii) there is no short description or title of that particular which is always available and natural within the circle as a constant means of identifying reference to that particular (an embryonic name).

That is, reference-by-naming, through permanent referential labels, will be the preferred option among the modes of referring if there is a perceived need in a speech community, or initially a perhaps rather small local subcommunity, for fixed and stable reference across a variety of contexts.
Presumably this need can be perceived as more or less pressing, because there would seem to be variation as to name-indulgence and name-avoidance — to state it very grossly (P for particularity):

(P1) Some languages, or rather speech (sub-)communities, practise reference-by-naming more extensively than others, who in turn are more given to referring-by-describing.
These preferences may be general or relative to particular categories of particulars (people, places, ...).
Some corollaries:

(P2) The density of naming-references, and inversely proportional of describing-references, may be higher or lower in conversations or texts.

(U5) The frequency of use of naming-expressions will be inversely proportional to the use of other kinds of expressions (especially pronouns) for purposes of reference-tracking in conversations and texts.

(P3) The fund of expressions used for reference-by-naming (in general or for particular categories of particulars) may be small and finite or large and productively extendable.
name transfers:

(U6) a. Whenever lake and town names are related, lake names are always synchronically derivative of town names, never vice versa.
b. Whenever names of a god and a planet are related, the planet name will be derivative of the god name.

(P2) a. Whenever person and place names are related, either can be derivative of the other.
Naming-expressions are frequently bipartite, consisting of a simple name in construction with a classifier word or affix, descriptively identifying the category of particular named. For example, English has such classifiers for towns, rivers, and lakes; but there is an asymmetry insofar as the town and river classifiers are omissible, while the lake classifier isn’t:

*London Town, (the) River Thames, Lake Windermere;*

*Where is London, (the) Thames, *Windermere?*

(U7) a. If reference-by-naming can be morphologically simple (without classifier) for lakes, then it can also be morphologically simple for rivers and towns.

...
Another asymmetry

(U8) If reference-by-naming can be without an overt definite marker for events, states, times, then also for places; if for places (if for large, diffuse places, then also for small, circumscribed places), then also for persons (if for female names, then also for male names).

(U9) If any other kin terms are used like proper names, then those denoting ascending relations, and in particular parental ones, such as ‘father’ and ‘mother’, are used like proper names too.
4. Grammatical uses of naming-expressions
four basic kinds of uses for naming-expressions:

(i) **BAPTISM**

to bestow a name on a name-bearer

(‘I hereby name you/give you the name NAME’; probably to be seen as an appositive construction even when the head ‘name’ is verb-incorporated)

(like other ascriptive predications?)

(ii) **IDENTIFICATION** (together with BAPTISM to be subsumed under NOMINATION)

to provide information of a name-bearer’s name

(‘X is named NAME’/’I name X NAME’, as opposed to ‘X is DESCRIPTION’/

’I consider/call/... X DESCRIPTION’)

(like other ascriptive predications?)
(iii) ADDRESS (or VOCATIVE)
outside a clause, to address (or call, warn, get attention...) a name-bearer
(‘NAME, [statement/question/command/...’)
(like 2nd person pronoun; kin terms, titles, and other terms of address;
sentential words like ‘yes/no/perhaps’; interjections)

(iv) REFERENCE
within a clause, to refer to a referent who happens to be a name-bearer
(‘[... PREDICATE ... NAME ... clause]’
(like noun/determiner phrases and also adpositional phrases containing an
NP/DP)
(U10) In all languages, naming-expressions are used for all four purposes, BAPTISM, IDENTIFICATION, ADDRESS, and REFERENCE.

(P3) Languages can differ in which grammatical uses of naming-expressions are basic and which derivative. In particular, ADDRESS can be basic relative to REFERENCE; or NOMINATION can be basic relative to the others; or REFERENCE can be basic relative to the others.

(U11) Names universally lack definiteness when used in addressing [and also in nomination? — FP].
5. Grammatical forms of naming-expressions

(U12) Wherever a mode of referring-by-naming, or also addressing-by-naming and nominating, is distinguished from a mode of referring-by-describing (which appears to be the case universally), there will be grammatical or lexical differences reflecting this distinction.
(P4) Naming-expressions can differ randomly from language to language.

(U13/P4’) In all languages, the external grammar of naming-expressions is that of noun or determiner phrases; while the internal grammars of naming-expressions may vary randomly.
(U14) In all languages, naming-expressions are nouns in every relevant grammatical respect.

(U15) Naming-expressions can only differ from common nouns (i) in definiteness marking (+definite remaining overtly unmarked for all or some naming-expressions, owing to their inherent definiteness) resistance to co-occurring with determiners (definiteness-inducing co-constituents of nouns) and (ii) in their non-participating in number oppositions (owing to their uniqueness of reference) and in their affinity to the category of the associative (‘and others of the relevantly same kind’).
• special proprial articles (Fijian, Maori, and other Polynesian languages, Philippine languages, Scandinavian Germanic, Catalan) (Moravcsik 1969: 91-94);
• evanescent definite articles as in English (which disappear when naming-expressions are used as an attribute (Anderson 2004: 450, Coates 2006: 367):
  *The Ohio State University – an Ohio State University undergraduate,*
  *The Channel – Channel shipping,*
  *The Cheviot – a Cheviot sheep.*
• Often naming-expressions have special addressing and calling forms (vocatives, hypocoristic shortening plus extension).

• Occasionally there is special phonology for naming-expressions:
  
  • Greek: \( \kappa\alpha\rho\pi\acute{s} \) ‘fruit’, but \( \kappa\acute{\alpha}\rho\pi\sigma\) person name (Kurylowicz 1960/1966: 365; explanation: recessive stress of vocative generalised for names);
  
  • similarly Israeli Hebrew (Rosen 1977: 76-80, after Shisha-Halevy 1989: 34):
    
    - \( yaf\acute{a} \) ‘pretty’ \( Y\acute{a}fa \) female person name
    - \( yon\acute{a} \) ‘dove’ \( Y\acute{o}na \) female/male person name
    
    also used to mark endearment, intimacy:
    
    - \( yald\acute{a} \) ‘girl’ \( y\acute{a}lda \) ‘my little girl’
    - \( bub\acute{a} \) ‘doll’ \( b\acute{u}ba \) ‘dolly, girlie’
• Tariana (Aikhenvald 2003: 16, 71): personal sacred names are similar to kinship nouns in having vocative forms derived via subtraction of the final syllable (possibly a suffix) and stress shift (stress in Tariana is supposedly pitch accent; generally can be on final, penultimate, or antepenultimate syllables):

\[
\begin{align*}
Túiri & \rightarrow Tuí! \\
Bálida & \rightarrow Bál! 
\end{align*}
\]

Portuguese names also distinguish reference forms from vocative forms; and they are often abbreviated:

\[
\begin{align*}
Olívia & \quad Olí \text{ VOC } Ólí \text{ REF} \\
Leonárdo & \quad Leoná \text{ VOC } Leó \text{ REF} 
\end{align*}
\]
• Kambera (Klamer 1998: 34):

names which are based on morphologically complex words are preferably a Foot/Foot⁺ (uneven quantity-sensitive trochee); in most cases they lose their “prefix”, but not their final consonant.

- \textit{ka.lipar(u)} ‘be lame’ \textit{Liparu} name
- \textit{ka.ndunu} ‘star’ \textit{Ndunu}
- \textit{la.hona} ‘red onion’ \textit{Hona}

• There is often special orthography (capitalisation, name determinatives) for naming-expressions.

• Kinyarwanda: names lose the pre-prefix (Kimenyi 1978, apud Kuhn & Serzisko 1982: 291):

\textit{u-mu-huungu} ‘boy’ $\rightarrow$ \textit{Muhuungu}
• Zulu: only names have retained a pre-prefix (Koopman 1979, apud Kuhn & Serzisko 1982: 291):

  *in-tombi* ‘girl’ → *uNtombi* (< *u-iN-tombi* )

• Often the gender or class of naming-expressions is not lexically determined, but referentially (for some or in principle all person names, also others).

• There may be special gender/sex markers limited to, and used with all, person names;

  e.g. Tzeltal *s*-*mal* ‘Maria’
  Jeh *Y-Tok* (male), *A-Ròk* (female)
  Tukang Besi *La NAME*, *Wa-NAME* (male, female) (Donohue 1999: 315-316)
• Only naming-expressions be found to participate in formal oppositions for formality/politeness (e.g., title in close apposition with name); cf. Italian famous people, esp. females, family name with article: *La Callas*; English place names and titles of literary works: *the ‘Beowulf’, the Chesapeake Bay* (Stewart 1950: 199-200).

• Case alignment and case marking:
  often different subject-object marking for personal names vs nouns; zero or separate locative case marking for place names, or basic forms of place names are fossilised locative case forms; place names lacking a nom case.

• Kambera (Klamer 1998: 122-128): the locative preposition *lai* governs only personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, personal names, and nominal deictic elements; in opposition to locative *la*, which governs non-pronominals.
Yiddish: personal names are case-marked for accusative, showing a separate pattern from both common nouns (only accompanying adjective gets acc) and special nouns (both noun and adj are acc-marked):

- *ikh hob gezehen a melamed* teacher
- *ikh hob gezehen a melamed an alt-n*
- *ikh hob gezehen a reb-n* rabbi
- *ikh hob gezehen a reb-n an alt-n*
- *ikh hob gezehen shmuel-n* Samuel
- *ikh hob gezehen shmuel gold-n* Samuel Gold
- *ikh hob gezehen shmuel (gold) dem alt-n*
- *ikh hob gezehen shmuel (gold) dem reb-n*
- *ikh hob gezehen shmuel (gold) dem melamed*
• Contemporary German: only person names (also other names without article?) can appear as preposed genitives, inducing definiteness, and take marker -s (or =s) regardless of gender (otherwise limited to feminine):
  Albert(‘)s Hut, Albertine(‘)s Hut – der Hut Alberts/Albertines
  *des Vaters Hut, *der Mutter(*s) Hut – der Hut des Vaters/der Mutter
  *des Rheins Quelle, *der Donau(*s) Quelle – die Quelle des Rhein(s)/der Donau(*s)
  ?Berlins Einwohner, ?Deutschlands Kapitulation – die Einwohner Berlins, ...

• Contemporary German: there are affixes specialising in deriving attributive forms from person and place names, and these derivatives are ambivalent between being adjectives (as is the case for corresponding derivatives from non-names) and being nouns; for example:
Münchner Bier; Kant-sche Philosophie (vs. kant(-ian)-ische Philosophie, äffisch/*äff-sch, heim-isch/*heim-sch).

- Classical Arabic: demonstrative follows naming-expression, but precedes common noun.
- Privileged occurrence of naming-expressions in special name-bestowing or name-identifying constructions (‘I hereby name X NAME’, ‘X is named NAME’).
(U16) In all languages, naming-expressions are determiner words, at least at some level of syntactic representation.
More recently, Longobardi (1994, 2005) has a possibly dual representation for names in Italian: they are (underlyingly, lexically) N’s and can (superficially, syntactically) become determiners:

• proper names as (underlyingly always) N (=common noun),
• also superficially remaining N (as for kind-reference), in which case D (for rigid designation) needs to be filled otherwise, by an expletive Det:

  *Il Gianni mi ha telefonato*
  *Il mio Gianni ha finalmente telefonato*
  *La sola Padova ...*
  *Il prossimo lunedì ...*
  *La mia casa ...*
or superficially N is moved to D (for object-reference), itself doing the rigid designating:

Gianni mi ha telefonato
Gianni mio ha finalmente telefonato
*Il Gianni mio ...

Padova sola ...
*Sola Padova ...
Lunedì prossimo ...
*Prossimo lunedì ...
Casa mia ...
*Mia casa ...
(U17) In all languages, naming-expressions are (like) personal pronouns in every relevant grammatical respect.

From a typological angle, the overall conclusion would seem to be that the U in (U14), (U16), and (U17) is unjustified and had better been replaced by a P: it appears to be an option for particular languages to cast name-expressions grammatically as either nouns, determiners, or personal pronouns.
(U18) While free to partake of the grammars of common nouns, determiners, and personal pronouns, naming-expressions cannot partake of the grammar of anything else.

However, there is evidence that as a universal this position is too restrictive. There are more possibilities for naming-expressions to share grammar.
(P5) Naming-expressions, in particular for places, must be free to partake of the (internal as well as external) grammar of adverbs.

Evidence: Place names in Bagvalal and other Nakh-Daghestanian languages, which lack a nominative case (Daniel 1999, 2000).

As to internal and external grammar: *Under the table is dark, isn’t there?* *In the new town is windy, isn’t there?* — (internally) prepositional phrases in (externally) argument positions. Imagine *In New Town* now acquires reference-by-naming status.
Naming-expressions, in particular for people, must be free to partake of the grammar of interjections.

Evidence comes from Jingulu (Pensalfini no date) (cf. affective kin terms in Warlpiri; Laughren 1998): personal names, in contradistinction to common nouns, place names, subsection names, and nominalised verbs, are like interjections (‘yes’, attention getters, fossilised imperatives, exclamations of pain or alarm) insofar as they:

- cannot bear affixes;
- cannot occur as part of clauses, but are separated prosodically, like quotations;
- do not participate in the gender system (masc, fem, vegetable, neuter);
- are phonotactically deviant (consonant clusters, stress).
(U19) When naming-expressions deviate phonologically from nouns (or perhaps other word or phrase classes they are otherwise similar to), this special phonology will be (like) that of forms for addressing (vocatives).
Naming-expressions, for many kinds of particulars, must be free to partake of the grammar of clauses/sentences, subject to the adaptability of such clauses/sentence to the use as arguments of predicates.

- “circumstance names” in Yoruba and Ambo (bestowed because of life events; Oduyoye 1972, Saarelma-Maunumaa 2003):
  Yoruba Olátòkunbò ‘honour has come from abroad’ (bestowed on a child born when her parents were out of Nigeria), Babátúndé ‘father has come back’;
  Ambo Ndathigwapo ‘I was deserted’.
Turkic toponyms such as Át-bátn ‘das Pferd sinkt ein’.
Basque toponyms such as Kurutzeadana (‘Là où se trouve la croix’) or Ebridakarrena (‘[Le champ] que porte la pluie’).
Not that dissimilar are epithet names in Indo-European:
Sanskrit Devadatta, Greek Theodoros ‘given by god’;
Ancient Greek ἩΠποκράτης ‘horse controller’ (= ‘he (who) controls horses’);
Slavic Vladimir ‘governs the world’;
Czech family name Nejezchleba ‘Don’t eat bread!’
German Münster ‘place (which) has a monastery’;
English Tailor ‘he (who) is a tailor’, not to mention Shakespeare, Makepeace, Golightly, Lovejoy, Dolittle.
(P8) Naming-expressions may belong to a word or phrase class ‘name’, distinct from all other kinds of expressions and not co-members with non-naming words of any more comprehensive word/phrase class.
6. Diachrony of naming

From what sources and by what means are proper names created?

- from expressions for referring-by-describing, in particular ones containing common nouns, perhaps amplified by modifiers, via “by-name” stage (Coates), such as Icelandic patronymics, or an “embryonic name” stage (Strawson):

  *(the) united nations > The United Nations*

  *(the) new Amsterdam > New Amsterdam*
• direct name-coinages, through acts of nomination (baptism), with corresponding syntax extraclausal or appositive.

Relevant evidence:
“Autonyms” (=unique personal names) among the Temiar (Malaysia, Central Aslian, Mon-Khmer): formed from the phoneme inventory of the language, apparently randomly, but in line with the phonotactic constraints of the language, with the only constraint being that these name words are distinct from existing words (Benjamin 1968).
Jingulu interjectional names.
Brand names.
Conversely, of course, naming-expressions can also be reanalysed as expressions for referring-by-describing (common nouns and probably other).

English *Boycott* name ( > *boycott* common noun?) > *to boycott* verb
German *Weck* name > (*ein*)-*wecken* verb ‘to bottle, preserve’

As always, the idea is that forms and constructions are what they have become, and what they could become, being subject to general constraints on reanalyses. Given different sources, and different mechanisms of reanalysis, naming-expressions will have different — slightly or radically different — grammars.
Names in The Universals Archive

No. 1321 (Hockett 1963: 21)
Every language has proper names.

No. 9 (Greenberg 1963, #23)
IF in apposition the proper noun usually precedes the common noun, THEN the head noun precedes the attributive noun.
IF in apposition the common noun usually precedes the proper noun, THEN, with much better than chance frequency, the attributive noun precedes the head noun.
Slavic languages are mentioned in the Russian translation of Greenberg 1963 as counterexamples to part 2. In Old English (Germanic, IE), proper nouns precede their appositive common nouns in close-knit apposition (e.g., Ælfred cyning "Alfred king"); when the common noun is accompanied by a determiner and/or modifier, however, the order can be reversed: "the good king Alfred" or "Alfred the good king"); genitives can precede or follow their heads (or also be split up: "with God's help the almighty's"), but a good case can be made for pre-head position of genitives being more common/basic. The eventual reversal of the order in apposition has been claimed to have been inspired by a single, culturally salient Latin model borrowed into Old English: Dominus Christ ‘Lord Christ’. Conceivably, left to its own devices, English might thus have continued to infringe on this universal.
See also #10 -- to be DELETED. Greenberg's Note 19: Languages with common noun – proper noun are Greek, Guarani, Italian, Malay, Serbian, Swahili, Thai, Welsh, Zapotec. Those with proper noun – common noun are Basque, Burmese, Burushaski, Finnish, Japanese, Norwegian, Nubian, and Turkish.

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Concerning the counterexample status of Old English, perhaps the universal shouldn't really be assumed to apply to such personal name constructions in the first place. They consist of a term of address (title or kin term) as the common part and a personal name as the proper part (e.g., *King Alfred, Captain Ahab, Master Copperfield, Father Christmas, Uncle Joe*); they are NOT diachronically derivative of constructions consisting of head noun and an attributive nominal. The universal
might have to be limited to name constructions which ARE diachronically derivative, such as for places and times, as copiously exemplified in English (New York State, Calton Hill, Cramond Island, Wivenhoe Park, London Town, Tower Bridge, George Square, David Hume Tower, Scotland Yard, Edinburgh University, etc.). Assuming that attributive genitives used to be pre-head in earlier English (as 's genitives still are), and assuming further that the actual source of these appositive name constructions were attributive constructions, with the attributive marker dropped (Hudson's Bay > Hudson Bay, Humboldt's Current > Humboldt Current, Princes' Street > Princes Street), one would expect the ordering to remain the same. The correlation that Greenberg states as an achronic universal would thus be of a diachronic nature: as one construction (attribution) is reanalysed as another construction (close apposition), the ordering of the parts of these constructions
remains unaltered. (Greenberg does reckon with some sort of a diachronic connection: constructions of the type of 'City X' are said to be possibly "assimilated" to genitive constructions, 'the city of X', "and may therefore be expected to show a similar order". My claim here is that they are diachronically derived from genitive constructions, and for this reason alone -- without any achronic universal demanding such harmony, but from simple inertia -- may be expected to show a similar order.) Among place names, those with River (River Thames), Lake (Lake Windermere), Loch (Loch Ness), Cape (Cape Horn), and Mount (Mount Everest) deviate from the otherwise unexceptional Proper–Common pattern in Modern English. They retain the ordering in the source languages of these borrowed common nouns, namely French (perhaps Latin) and Gaelic.
No. 10

IF in apposition the common noun usually precedes the proper noun, THEN, with much better than chance frequency, the attributive noun precedes its head noun.
No. 392 (Moravcsik 1994a: 38)
When there is the category of associative plural, it will only be used with singular
definite nouns, such as proper names, titles, and names of relatives.

No. 1548 (D. Payne 1990: 13, after Keenan)
IF word order is verb-initial, THEN the existence of several articles (definite,
 indefinite, specific, plural, proper noun) is much more common than if word order is
verb-final.
No. 977 (Maøczak 1960 etc.)

When there are analogical changes in their inflectional paradigms, the stems and affixes of common nouns are more likely to be replaced than stems and affixes of proper/personal names.
No. 1661 (Dahl & Koptjevskaja-Tamm forthc.)
IF any other kin terms are used like proper names, THEN those denoting ascending relations, and in particular parental ones, such as ‘father’ and ‘mother’, are used like proper names too.

For example, in the English-speaking world, one would address one's father as 'father' but one's siblings or children rather by their names. According to Dahl & Koptjevskaja-Tamm, a system which is inverse to the English one is not attested. This suggests a universal partial ordering of kin terms ('hierarchy' being too strong), based on closeness to what Dahl & Koptjevskaja-Tamm propose to call the PARENTAL PROTOTYPE. Parental terms were singled out already in Greenberg's work on markedness relations.
Maltese

In spite of the relevant noun phrases being definite, the definite article is not used with a subset of nouns. This subset of nouns that may be considered inherently definite includes proper names of (a) persons, (b) some countries (mostly ones situated on islands of the same name), (c) (some) islands, (d) some bays, (e) some towns, (f) some villages, and (g) months, but it does not include proper names of (h) other countries (and islands?), (i) other bays, (j) other towns, (k) other villages, (l) mountains, (m) roads, (n) seas, (o) week days, (p) holidays, (q) seasons, (r) languages, and (s) academic subjects, as well as (t) proper names of persons accompanied by a title, all of which require the definite article. With some proper names of (non-island) countries the definite article is optional (h’).

PERSONS
(a) (*il-)Manwel, (*il-)Mifsud, (*l-)Albert (*il-)Borg, (*is-)San =wann
---
COUNTRIES
(b) Malta, =appun, Franza, Spanja
(h) ir-Russja, l-Ingilterra, il-=apan, l-Indja, l-Afrika
(h') (l-)Olanda, (l-)Ixrael, Spanja/l-Ispanja

ISLANDS
(c) Ghawdex, Kemmuna, Filfla, Sqallija ‘Sicily’, Rodi ‘Rhodes’

---

BAYS
(d) Marsaxlokk, (San Pawl il-Bahar)
(i) l-Ghadira

TOWNS
(e) Valletta, Victoria, Marsalforn, Napli, Ruma, =erusalem, Londra
(j) ir-Rabat [=Victoria], il-Mosta, l-Imdina

VILLAGES
(f) Sannat, (Bormla < Bur Mula ‘meadow of the lord’)
(k) l-Gharb, ix-?ejtun

MONTHS
(g) Jannar

MOUNTAINS

ROADS
(m) is-Salini (no article in Triq l-Indipendenza ‘Independence Street’ etc. because of construct state)

SEAS
(n) il-Mediterran

WEEKDAYS
---
(o) is-Sibt ‘Saturday’

HOLIDAYS
---
(p) il-Milied ‘Christmas’, il-imgħa l-Kbira ‘Good Friday’

SEASONS
---
(q) ix-xitwa ‘winter’, ir-rebbiegha ‘spring’ (no initial capitals), ir-Randan ‘lent’

LANGUAGES
---
(r) l-Inglix, il-Malti
SUBJECTS OF LEARNING
---
(s) il-0ografija, l-istorja, il-Latin

TITLE AND NAME
---
(t) il-Kardinal Newman, ir-Re =or0 Sebgha ‘King George VII’
When a proper name that does not take a definite article is accompanied by a restrictive relative clause or restrictive attributive adjective, it does take the definite article.

il-Manwel li naf jien  DEF-Manwel who I.know I

In spite of the relevant noun phrases being definite, the definite article is not used with vocative nouns, vocative being expressed by the particles *ja* or *o*.

ja/o (*ir-)*Russja!  oh (*DEF-)*Russia!
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[Very X-centric, as usual; here X = German.]


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