The differences between the modifiers of English and Oriya Noun Phrases, as it has been noted, are within the framework of an overall similarity between them in the inventory of categories, their order of occurrence, concord with the head and mutual exclusiveness. The difficulty experienced by Oriya learners of English against this background of general similarity between the two languages is accounted for by the differences in delicate structure details. There are different orders of ability shown in the control of a foreign language. Some relate to higher level rules, others relate to lower level rules. A person who can speak a language well enough to be understood and is still often ungrammatical is a person who controls the higher level rules but is not yet aware of the lower level rules which include all the subtle restrictions relating to concord, agreement etc. The different degrees of "foreignism" are, thus, related to the control of different orders of rules which imply different orders of difficulty.

Though value judgements like 'simple' and 'complex' with respect to languages may be theoretically unmotivated, a comparative study may reflect on such implications in terms of rules that are required to characterize the categorical structures including subcategorization. The more the variety of restrictions
on these rules the more complicated the structure will be. In this latter case, the so-called 'simplicity' or 'complexity' of the target language is directly related to the level of difficulty experienced by the learners of the source language. It is not difficult to see that a language which either preposes or post poses modifiers in relation to the head is simpler than a language which sometimes obligatorily preposes and sometimes obligatorily post poses the modifiers under a variety of conditions. From this point of view the Noun Phrase structure in Oriya is 'simple' as compared to the Noun Phrase structure in English. The complexities of the English Noun Phrase in comparison with the Oriya Noun Phrase can be seen in the following respects in so far as they are peculiar to English with no equivalents in Oriya:

(i) The generic article is used in three ways in the English Noun Phrase,

(a) Definite — 'the'
(b) Indefinite — 'a' / 'an'
(c) Zero article.

The generic use of the and a refers to a member of a class or a representative of the class. For example,

(1) The dog is a faithful animal.
(2) A boy is a boy after all.

The indefinite article is not followed by plurals, but the definite article may be followed by singular and plural alike. This is the article
that we use when making generic statements, such as,

(3) The child is father to the man.

The definite article in English is the sign of an anaphoric withdrawal from the singular and particular towards the universal and general. The definite, on the other hand, is frequently used for the presentation of a particular instance.

When the speaker wishes to use a noun to express in discourse a signified equal in scope to the potential referent it is obvious that no article will be needed. This is, in fact, the almost universal usage with the proper noun, except in those cases where a restriction in the full sense is intended:

(4) Shakespeare died in 1616.

(5) The Shakespeare of the sonnets.

The Zero article calls into play all the potential values together. In those cases where an actual significate is sought for, the noun with Zero article will be satisfactory, but in cases where a more restricted sense is required, articles or other definers will be used.

In English the noun without article does not represent a more idea. It may represent a concrete reality. When an article is added, the concept is given form and becomes a thing-word or class-word. To sum up, class-words take the article and mass-words do not. A noun like letter is normally used with an article (both def. and indef.) as in,

(6) A letter arrived this morning.

(7) I opened the letter.
but that one can also produce a completely formless abstraction by the use of article Zero:

(8) Letter is a means of communication.

English has two kinds of a (Indef., and Non-def.), and three kinds of the (anaphoric, cataphoric and exophoric).

One may observe a frequent effect provided by the contrast between the use of the article and the Zero article. The article introduces a unit reference, which gives an exterior, numerical view and, therefore, has overtones of quantity. The Zero presentation, on the other hand, gives an internal, non-numerical view which has overtones of quality. For example,

(9) What a difference suggests quantity, whereas

(10) What difference suggests quality

In case of a proper noun as head there is a subtle relation between the head and the modifier when the bare unqualified noun (Zero article + noun) calls into play all the potential values together. For example,

(11) Shakespeare died in 1616.

But in cases where a more restricted sense is required, the article or other determiners will be used, as in

(12) The Shakespeare of the sonnets.

In these cases the article a cannot be used. Only in the satirical sense or sarcastically we will say,
(13) He is a Shakespeare.

Here the use is a metaphorical or stylistic trick.

(ii) The ordinals in English like first, second, third, fourth have one-for-one relation with cardinals like one, two, three, four. In addition to the Ordinals, there are items like next, last, another, additional which resemble Cardinals grammatically and semantically. It is interesting to note the use of another, which has two functions. It can be the unstressed form of one other as in ,

(14) I do not like this house, I prefer another. Or it can have the same meaning as second with indefinite article, as in ,

(15) Another blue car.
A second

These are really two Cardinal series in English: (a) Indeterminate (a, two, three, four etc.),
(b) Determinate (one, two, three etc.).

One may be regarded as a stressed form of the indefinite article as in ,

(16) I would like a/one large cigar. In consequence, although the definite article may precede any cardinal, the indefinite cannot.

The indefinite a behaves like a quantifier as in ,

(17) There is a boy in the room.
(18) There are two boys in the room.

Thus it seems quite plausible that indefinite a is the indeterminate counterpart of one.

(iii) The English Enumerative accounts for constructions
like A glass of water, A pound of rice etc. The noun (or nouns through multiple embeddings) occurring with enumeratives in the Noun Phrase has to have the syntactic feature [+ measure .......] such as glass, cup, gallon, pound etc. Longer group - enumeratives are provided for through multiple embeddings as in:

(19) Several trays of cups of tea.

(iv) Emphatics in English can be of three types:

Emphatics₁: few, little, several, many

Emphatics₂: mere, sheer, utter, real

Emphatics₃: just, quite, almost.

Items like little, several, few etc. occur after the in definite constructions as in:

(20) The several houses along the road were all closed,

but these items are also found occurring without the in indefinite constructions and in such cases they behave like any other indefinite determiner, such as:

(21) Many people came for dinner.

Further, when these items follow the as in:

(22) The few books that I have are ....... and they obligatorily require a sentence complement without which it will be:

(23) The few books are ....... 

These items can also be preceded by Ordinals and intensifiers in which case they take zero article as in:

(24) The first few .......

(25) Very few ...........
Though these items occur predicatively they are different from adjectives. Unlike adjectives they cannot be recur, embedded in any one construction.

Words like mere, utter, sheer etc. in their occurrence with the obligatorily require a cataphoric construction with a sentence complement and in this respect also they are different from adjectives.

Items like just, even, only etc. can precede both definite and indefinite article. These modifiers are adverbial in nature though they belong to the Noun Phrase itself, as in:

(26) Just the American tourists.

They can also occur in definite constructions before Pre-determiners, as in:

(27) Just all the dogs were killed.

The adjectives in English which are derived from the relativized sentence, pre-modify the nouns by appearing between the determiner and the head in the Noun Phrase. A pre-modifying adjective, especially when it is the first item after the determiner, can itself be premodified in the same way as it can in the predicate position. For example:

(28) His really quite unbelievably delightful cottage.

Some intensifiers tend however to be avoided with pre-modifying adjective, as in:

(29) His so beautiful cottage.

With indefinite determiners so would be replaced by such, as in:

(30) Such a beautiful cottage.
English also has a multiplicity of restrictions on the position of the participial modifiers. The -ing participial modifiers generally occur in English with intransitive verbs and transitive verbs usually disallow such modifiers. Though past participial modifiers can occur with both transitive and intransitive verbs, in all such cases, however, the -en form of the verb must be in the stative use as dynamic verbs disallow -en participial modifiers, such as,

* (31) eaten rice.

The past participial modifiers can be active or passive, but the active is rarely used in premodification. Contrast

(32) The guest who has arrived

with

* (33) The arrived guest

But when an active participle is adverbially modified it becomes acceptable, for example,

(34) The newly - arrived guest.

Adverbial like monthly, yearly etc. are used as pre-head modifiers in the English Noun Phrase. Some adverbs signifying place or time also pre-modify the head-word in a Noun Phrase, as in,

(35) the above photo.

(vi) Sometimes a noun or a sentence pre-modifies the head in the English Noun Phrase. In this function though the attributive nouns resemble adjectives they are basically
nominal in character, as in

(36) Arts College.

(37) Ambassador car.

These examples may be expressed with a reduced explicitness in relation to accompanying prepositional post-modifiers, as in,

(38) College of Arts.

(39) Car of Ambassador.

Sometimes we may call a College 'Arts College' which is not necessarily a college meant for arts. In this sense arts does not function as a modifier of College. Rather, Arts College functions as a compound noun. In a construction like

(40) 'All these forget-me-not flowers'.

forget-me-not is the classifier which modifies the head and cannot be used as a qualifier.

In Noun Premodification, plural nouns usually become singular, even those that otherwise have no singular form, as in,

(41) The trousers leg ( = The leg of the trousers).

A notable constraint against making post-modifying phrases into pre-modifying nouns is the relative impermanence of the modification in question. Thus while

(42) The table in the corner will readily yield

(43) 'The corner table',

one cannot do the same with
(44) The girl in the corner.

* (45) The corner girl.

(vii) Referentials like other, similar, remaining perform the function of anaphoric cohesion, by implicit reference to the facts or things or persons recoverable from the text or context. These items are called referentials because of their being in a way elliptically equivalent to:

Other = other than the ones referred to
Similar = similar to the ones referred to

etc.

(viii) The sub-modifiers like rather, very, quite, so are placed either pre-nominally or post-nominally according to restrictions specific to the English language, as in:

(46) a boy so good
(47) so good a boy

Intensifying adverbs can pre-modify indefinite pronouns, predeterminers and cardinal numerals, as in:

(48) Nearly every body came to our party.

(49) I paid more than ten rupees.

The indefinite article can be intensified when it is equivalent to the unstressed cardinal one, as in:

(50) They will stay about a week.

A few intensifiers (quite, rather) may pre-modify Noun Phrases. The Noun Phrase is normally indefinite, and the intensifiers precede any determiner, for example:

(51) It was rather a mess.

(52) He was quite some player.
In superficially similar noun phrases rat may be intensifying the adjective, in which case it may precede or follow the determiner:

* (53) It is rather a table
(54) It is rather a big table
(55) It is a rather big table

However, different intensifiers are used to suggest the degree of intensification. For example, in

(56) extremely well
extremely suggests a greater degree than rather in

(57) rather well

(ix) Non-finite relative clauses and prepositional/adverbial phrases which post modify the head as qualifiers in English have certain peculiarities. The Non-finite clause may be an infinitival clause, as in,

(58) The next train to arrive was from Bombay.
The above sentence has the same meaning as the relative clause which arrived. But the subject of an infinitival clause need not be the antecedent. It may be introduced by a for, as in,

(59) The man for Bebi to consult is Bijoy.
In adverbial post-modifier the subject and an important adjunct are dropped from the Noun Phrase, as in,

(60) The road back was dense with traffic.
We also find that adverbials of place or time can postmodify Noun Phrases:
(61) the way ahead.
(62) the day before.

One type of post-posed adjectives as post head modifiers can have the indefinite pronouns such as anybody, some one, some thing which precede but do not follow the adjectival modifier:

(63) Some thing strange happened.
* (64) Strange some thing happened.

The second type, however, consists only of noun plus adjective, as in:

(65) blood royal.

(x) A head may have more than one post modifier. Thus,

(66) The girl in the corner talking to John.

One modifier may also be applicable to more than one head, as in:

(67) The girl and boy in the corner.

The head of a modifying phrase may itself be modified, as in:

(68) The girl and boy in the corner nearest the door talking to John.

One of the chief reasons for preferring the of phrase to the genitive is to avoid discontinuity; thus,

(69) The ears of the man in the deckchair and not

* (70) The man's ears in the deckchair.
Even with simple examples and the most careful ordering one may find clarity and acceptability difficult to attain in multiple modification.

Most discontinuities, however, are brought about by interpolating a parenthesis or the finite verb of the sentence (where the Noun Phrase is subject) between the head and the post-modifier:

(71) The story is told that he was once a writer.

(xi) The order of items in the English Noun Phrase, as has been observed, is more or less fixed. However, the order may undergo changes, if there is a sub-modifier like so and too, as in

(72) So beautiful a girl (s/m +epi+det+head)
(73) Too strange a thing (s/m +epi+det+head)

The Cardinal Quantifier one and the item only which is both emphatic and quantitative in nature take an obligatory sentence complement while occurring in the post the position.

(74) The one thing that I hate most is ....
(75) The only thing that I hate most is ....

It is also possible to have more than one adjectival phrase in an NP, as in

(76) The tired old man (Det+adj+adj+head).

However, the adjectives in an NP generally occur in the following order:

Quality + size/length/shape etc., + colour

as in ,
(77) A valuable old long brown belt.

An adjective normally follows an article, but in cases where it is sub-modified by a restricted list of adverbial elements like so, or that it precedes the article, as in,

(78) So nice a boy.

(79) That pretty a girl.

When the head is non-restrictively modified by a co-ordinated string of adjectives, the adjectives follow the head in a Noun Phrase, as in

(80) A man, timid and hesitant , .....

When a restrictively modifying adjective is itself modified by an adjunct, it occurs after the head, as in

(81) A man always timid.

Adverbials generally precede adjectives in the English Noun Phrase, but the adverb enough post modifies adjectives as in ,

(82) high enough.

Adverbials may also precede another adverbial in a Noun Phrase as in

(83) So very many books.

In these cases also the only post modifier is enough as in

(84) Cleverly enough .

In non-restrictive modification the modifier non-finite clause may follow or precede the head in an English Noun Phrase, as in

(85) The substance, discovered almost by accident , ....
(86) Discovered almost by accident, the substance .......

In a Noun Phrase, the prepositional phrases post modify the head, but in non-restrictive appositive function the prepositional phrase may be without a preposition as in

(87) The issue, student grants

Sometimes the Noun Phrase in English is interrupted by other items which results in the discontinuous modification. For example,

(88) A nice glass of beer but in an ugly glass.

In some cases of discontinuous modification, though the prepositional phrases follow the head they do not directly relate to the head, rather they relate to the adjectives which precede the head. Thus,

(89) Different production figures from those given earlier.

These 'complexities' of English may be viewed as the source of difficulty for the Oriya learners of the English language. Though teachers of English generally speak of an Oriya interference in English while explaining the errors of the learners, it is better described that these errors are caused by internal restrictions in English language. These delicate structural details do not receive the necessary emphasis in the teaching of English grammar to the Oriya learners. The learners, as a result, generalize from the higher level rules which they have practiced over and again without the necessary awareness of the lower level
rules of *English Noun Phrase* construction. Hence, a good pedagogical grammar of *English* for Oriya learners should have adequate place for these delicate details of the *English noun phrase*.