CHAPTER-TWO

THE ENGLISH NOUN PHRASE
2.1. CATEGORIES OF ENGLISH MODIFIERS.

The structures of Noun Phrase in English may be said to consist of three elements: pre-head modifier, head-word and post-head modifier.

The modifiers in English are defined positionally relative to the head. The head is that item of a Noun Phrase which can on its own form a simple Noun Phrase. All the items occurring before the head in a Noun Phrase are called Pre-head modifiers, and those following them are termed as 'post-head modifiers'.

The Pre-head modifiers in English Noun Phrase can be grouped as follows:

(i) Determiners,
(ii) Quantifiers,
(iii) Epithets,
(iv) Nominals or Classifiers,
(v) Referentials.

2.1.1. Determiners -

Nouns are frequently introduced by determiners. Articles, demonstratives, possessives and the wh-words what, which are grouped under the term determiners (only when they precede nouns). In a Noun Phrase like,
' the man '
or
' every man '

man is a noun and the and every are determiners which determine man to be a noun. Thus the determiner is essentially the word the or a substitute for it at the beginning of the Noun Phrase.

There are four broad classes of determiners with respect to their co-occurrence with the noun classes, viz,

(i) Generic
(ii) Specific
(iii) Inclusive
(iv) Non inclusive

(1) Generic (Articles)

The generic articles is used in three ways in 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, not as an individual. For example,

(1) The dog is a faithful animal.
(2) A boy is a boy after all.
If one says,

(3) A lion and two tigers are sleeping in the cage.

the reference is specific, since we have in mind specific specimens of the class "tiger". If, on the other hand, we say

(4) Tigers are dangerous animals.

the reference is generic, since we are thinking of the class "tiger" without special reference to specific tigers.

Likewise, when one says,

(5) A table is a useful article of furniture.

it is not just one table that is referred to, although a particular instance may serve as a basis for the generic statement. But when one says,

(6) A table stands in the corner of the room.

the reference is to one, and only one, particular instance.

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 like

(7) The child is father to the man.

It represents a movement of approach toward the universal, away from the singular and particular.
Thus, generic reference is used to denote what is normal or typical for members of a class.

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

If one starts to talk about a room he may immediately refer to it as the room. This is the most obvious anaphoric use of the definite article, but it is but a short step then to mention the door, the floor, the ceiling, the walls, the furniture, the windows etc. All these become anaphoric from the basic reference to a room.

In non-numerical generic sense the article the is not used with common nouns in an English Noun Phrase, whereas it is used with the common noun in non-numerical, anaphoric sense.

The indefinite article is an approach to the singular and particular. The principal function of the indefinite article is to denote that one has to do with a single specimen of the class of persons, animals or things indicated by the noun. Sometimes the function of the indefinite article is rather to assign a person, animal or thing to a special class or kind. These functions are called the specific or individual use or the generic use. The difference
between these two functions becomes more apparent
when one converts instances of each into the plural
as in the following examples:

(8a) There is a table over in the corner.
(8b) There are some tables over in the corner.
(9a) A bus stopped close to me.
(9b) Some buses stopped close to me.
(10a) He was reading a paper.
(10b) He was reading some papers.

The indefinite article is used as a classifier
but it can also represent a single entity, individual
or generic. Of such a type in Modern English is
proper nouns belonging in common to more than one
person:

"Mr. Jones",
"Mr. Smith"

Normally, these nouns are used without any article.
When one adds an article and says,

(11) A Mr. Jones called this morning

the article means a certain Mr. Jones. If, however,
one makes a generic use of the same as in:

(12) "A Mr. Jones would be a useful
addition to any enterprise."

he may obtain a more abstract notion in the signified
than that to be found in:

(13) "A Mr. Jones called this morning",
but the reference is still singular, still limited
to a certain Mr. Jones, and certainly does not include every Mr. Jones; it means "a Man like Mr. Jones".

It is possible to add the definite article to such a noun and say:

(14) "The Mr. Jones called again to-day".

Here the value of the definite article is very close to a demonstrative and could be quite simply replaced by that. Further, any generic use of the definite article seems to be out of question:

(15) The Mr. Jones is a useful addition to any enterprise.

When combined with an indefinite article a proper noun may develop, briefly or permanently, a wider extensivity:

(16) He is not a Mozart (i.e. an exceptional musician)

(17) He is the Shakespeare of the twentieth century theatre (i.e., its greatest dramatist)

But one may also find, in a usage that one might classify as personification, proper nouns where a famous name is identified with another person or type of person:

(18) "Every great man now-a-days has his disciples, and it is always Judas that writes the biography."

(Oscar Wilde)
There is a different sense here from the usage with the article. Unless this different sense is understood (it is similar to a nickname) this could be construed as an inconsistency in the use of the article which it is not; it is merely a stylistic trick of name calling.

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 or used. 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:

(19) Shakespeare died in 1616
(20) The young Shakespeare
(21) The old Shakespeare
(22) The Shakespeare of the sonnets

The bare unqualified noun (article zero) calls into play all the potential values together. In these cases where such an actual signify is sought for, the noun with article zero will be therefore satisfactory, but in cases where a more restricted sense is required, the articles or other definers will be used.

There is in fact a threshold between definite and indefinite usages on the one hand and zero usage on the other. When there is little difference between the universal and singular senses in the noun, both are satisfactorily expressed with zero article.
In English the noun without article does not represent a mere idea, a total abstraction. It may represent, in fact, a concrete reality, but a 'reality' without clarifying exterior form. 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 class word is merely the mass word defined and given form by the use of the article. It is obvious that the Oak expresses a concept that is numerical and has form — that of a tree — and is a concept that can be multiplied to form a plural. Oak is non-numerical, is formless — it represents simply matter or material (in this case 'wood') and although syntactically it may take a singular agreement, it is not a singular that can be multiplied to form a plural, but rather a pre-singular or pre-numerical.

To combine an article with a noun is to give form to the signified of the noun. Without the article the significate remains vague, formless.

A noun like letter is normally used with an article (both definite and indefinite):

(23) A letter is a means of communication.
(24) A letter arrived this morning.
(25) I opened the letter.
(26) The letter is a genuine literary form but that one can also produce, a completely formless
abstraction by the use of article zero:

(27) Letter was the one means of communication he had.

So it is that abstract nouns, normally continue, expressing what is a continuum, in the generic use take no article:

(28) "Beauty is Truth, Truth Beauty"

In similar fashion one talks of generosity, goodness, stupidity, age, handiness, greed and the like:

(ii) Specific:

Specific determiners may be divided into two classes:

(a) Possessive, (b) Demonstrative

(a) Possessive

(a) Interrogative — (1) Pronomial: 'whose'

(29) Whose theory is that?

(2) Non-Pronomial: 'which'

(30) Which Pandit's theory is that?

(a²) Non-Interrogative:

(1) Pronomial or Possessive

Pronoun: my, his, her

your, our, their, its, one's etc.

(31) That is my theory.
(2) Non-Pronomial or Genitival:
".....'-s " Like Mamun's, Halliday's, Pinky's.

(32) That is Chomsky's theory.

An important aspect of the possessive lies in the different shapes of the "Possessive markers".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun / Pronoun</th>
<th>Possessives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chomsky</td>
<td>Chomsky's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it</td>
<td>its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>my</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mamun</td>
<td>Mamun's</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Demonstrative

(b¹) Interrogative

(1) Individualised - 'which'
   (33) which boy

(2) Non-individualised - 'what'
   (34) what book

(b²) Non-Interrogative

(1) near - 'these', 'this'
   (35) 'these men'
   (36) 'this shop'
(2) non-near = ' those', 'that'

(37) ' those men'
(38) ' that man'

(b) Neutralized reference = ' the'

(iii) Inclusive

(a) Positive
(b) Negative

(a) Positive:
(a) Singular
(1) individualized = ' each'
(39) Each man may try twice.
(2) non-individualized = ' every'
(40) He has read every book in the school.
Every can also co-occur with possessives, as in
(41) his every word ( = each of his word ).

(a²) Non-Singular
(1) dual : ' both'
(42) both boys
(2) non-dual : ' all'
(43) all boys

'Both' and 'all' in English generally occur as pre-determiners. For example:
(44) All the toys cannot be sold to one customer.

(45) Both the girls are dancers.

(b) Negative

(b₁) Direct –

(1) Dual – 'neither'

(46) Neither girl is beautiful ( = neither of the two girls).

(2) Non-dual – 'no'

(47) No girl is beautiful (among them).

(b₂) Indirect –

(1) Dual – 'either' (not.... either)

(48) Either book ∨ Either of the books

You can have either

(2) Non-dual – 'any'

('not..... any' as in

(49)'I don't have any books to read'.

(iv) Non-Inclusive:

(a) Selective, (b) Non-selective

(a) Selective

(a₁) Open – (1) dual – 'either'

(50) Either book will do.

(2) non-dual – 'any'

(51)'Any book will do'
(a) Restricted -

(1) Singular - 'one'

(52) 'one day an old Man came to my house'

(2) Non-Singular - 'some'

(53) Some books are more interesting than others.

(b) Non-Selective

(1) Singular - 'a'

(54) He is a fool .

(2) Non-Singular - 'some'

(55) I want some more books .

2.1.2 : Quantifiers

In addition to determiners, there is a large number of other closed system items that occur before the head of the Noun Phrase. Items which must follow determiners but precede adjectives in the pre-modification structure are quantifiers.

Quantifiers may be :

(i) Numerals ,

(ii) Enumeratives ,

(iii) Emphatics .

Numerals are numbers, both (a) Ordinals and (b) Cardinals .
Ordinals indicate the order of an item in a series. Words like first, second, third, fourth belong to this category. In addition to the ordinals which have a one for one relation with the cardinals (fourth ~ four, twentieth ~ twenty). We also consider here items like next, last, (an) other, additional, which resemble them grammatically and semantically. Thus it is further classified into two groups; viz.; (i) Rating, (ii) Approx.

(i) Rating — first, second, third, fourth, next, last, other, etc.

(ii) Approx — approximately, nearly, almost, etc.

'Another' has two functions. It can be the unstressed form of one other or it can have the same meaning as second with indefinite article:

(56) I don't like this house; I'd prefer another one.

(57) Another blue car
     A second two volumes of poetry.

Words like one, two, three, one hundred, one thousand, two million belong to the group of Cardinals.

There are really two cardinal series in English:

(i) Indeterminate, (ii) Determinate.
(i) Indeterminate = a, two, three, four etc.
(ii) Determinate = one, two, three etc.

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

(58) I would like a / one large cigar.

In consequence, although the definite article may precede any cardinal, the indefinite cannot.

The indefinite 'a' does behave like a quantifier the way it patterns:

(59 a) A boy came to see me.
(59 b) Two boys came to see me.
(60 a) There is a boy in the room.
(60 b) There are two boys in the room.

Thus it seems quite plausible that Indef. a is the Indeterminate counterpart of Determinate one. Just as a represents indefinite singular cardinal (i.e., one), some represents indefinite plural cardinals (i.e., two, three, etc.)

The category Enumerative is posited to account for constructions like A glass of water, A pound of rice etc. The noun (or nouns through multiple embeddings) occurring with enumeratives in the NP has to have the syntactic feature (+measure....) such as glass, cup, gallon, pound, litre, bag etc. Nouns in the lexicon may have to be marked for the enumeratives with which they could (or, if more general, could not)
occur so as to prevent strings like

(61) A gallon of rice

Longer group enumeratives are provided for through multiple embeddings as in

(62) Several trays of cups of tea.
(63) Members of the executive committee of the golf club of the University of Simla.

Here the whole string (no matter how long it is) is an enumerative quantifier.

Constructions like crowds of four some of (golfers) belong to the same general category, i.e., enumerative quantifiers. Nouns like crowd and four some etc. cannot imply 'measure' as can pound, litre, gallon etc. They have more of a 'collection' meaning. Thus the rule for feature marking may be modified as

$$\text{Enumerative} \rightarrow \{\pm \text{measure}\} \{\pm \text{collection}\}$$

Further, in the examples a glass of water, a pound of rice, a is not a separate constituent; it is part of the enumerative. If the embedded NP is an enumerative (which is the only kind allowed to be embedded), then it automatically takes zero article. Constructions like
(64) Several trays of cups of tea, 
or
(65) The crowds of bunches of four some of golfers, 
do not permit a the following of; whereas we find such use in constructions like

(66) Members of the executive committee of the golf club of the University of Simla.

The determiner of the last NP is free to have any determiner what so ever, and not just 'the', thus we can get

(67) Several trays of cups of coffee
(68) The several cups of coffee
(69) Trays of cups of coffee etc.

Emphatics can be of three types:

Emphatics$_{1}$

Emphatics$_{2}$

Emphatics$_{3}$

Emphatics$_{1}$ : few, little, several, many

Emphatics$_{2}$ : mere, sheer, utter, real

Emphatics$_{3}$ : just, quite, almost

(70) The little food that there was in the house was stale.
(71) The several houses along the road were all closed.

In the above examples we find items like 'little', 'several' (or few, many, etc.) occurring after the indefinite constrictions, but we also find them (more frequently) occurring without a the (indefinite constrictions) in which case they behave like any other indefinite determiner. Thus,

(72) Few people will believe you.
(73) Little money was left after the election.
(74) Many people came for dinner.
(75) Many hours were spent over this project.
(76) Several men tried to convince him.

along with -

(77) The few books that I have are ....
(78) The little money that was left after the election was ....
(79) The many hours spent over this project are ....
(80) The several suggestions made by the committee all relate to ....

However, the second set is different from the first in that it obligatorily requires a sentence complement without which it will be:

(77 a) The few books are ....
(78 a) The little money was ....
(79 a) The many hours are ....
Hence, these items can occur only in cataphoric constructions.

Such elements, though they can occur predicatively are different from adjectives and indefinite determiners, because unlike adjectives, they cannot be recursively embedded in any one construction. It is also precisely for this reason that pre-nominal adjectives are best treated embedded structure.

Secondly, such elements though they have got a special privilege of occurrence (i.e., in the post-nominal position) like that of indefinite determiners are different from indefinite determiners and this can be well marked from the difference of behaviour noted in the two sets of sentences above. Semantic and syntactic considerations also help in this context. Let us analyse the difference in the meaning of few and little in the following examples:

(81 a) Few people would believe you.
(81 b) The few people who believe you.
(82 a) Little money was left after the election.
(82 b) The little money that was left after the election.

Here in (81 a) and (81 b) few and little have very clearly negative force, something like 'almost none' or 'hardly any', etc., whereas 'few' and 'little' of (82 a) and (82 b) have no such
negative force. They only signify " people or mor.
very small in quantity " . From these points of vie.
the post -the , few , and little should not be considere
a special sub-class of indefinite determiners. Words
like many , several , only also belong to this group,
because they have the same semantic and syntactic
properties. They cannot be followed or preceded by
any other sub-class of Quantifiers.

For example :-

(83) * The two several books
(84) * The several two books

etc.

Particularly, the cardinal quantifier one ; like few
and little , characteristically , does not occur in
the post -the position without an obligatory sentence
complement ( or its transform). Thus ,

(85) The one thing that I hate most is ...
(86) The one thing is ... 

The item only , which is both emphatic
and quantitative in nature , also takes an obligatory
sentence complement ( or its transform ) :

(87) The only thing that I hate is ...
(88) The only boy in the room was John.
(89) The only boy was John .

They can also be preceded by ordinals and
intensifiers in which case they take zero article. Thus
constructions like

(90) the first few ....
(91) very few ....
(92) very little ....
(93) very many ....

are possible .

In definite constructions, they occur characteristically in a cataphoric one as in

(94) My one hope
(95) My only hope
(96) My several projects

which apparently seem to occur without a sentence complement but, in fact, include a sentence transform which appears in the surface structure as the possessive derived from an embedded relative clause .
Constructions like very few, very little, etc. though occurring without a the are still not indefinite determiners. They are parallel to the cases of two, three or approximately two, approximately three occurring without a preceding the.

Semantically also very few and very little are different from the indefinite determiners few and little.

For example

\[(98 \text{ a}) \quad \text{I had little hope of his success.}\]
\[(98 \text{ b}) \quad \text{I had very little hope of his success.}\]
\[(99 \text{ a}) \quad \text{Few men can perform such a feat.}\]
\[(99 \text{ b}) \quad \text{Very few men can perform such a feat.}\]

Sentences\[98\text{ a} \text{ and } 2\text{a} \text{ contain indefinite determiners and they mean 'virtually no hope' or 'virtually no one', whereas } 98\text{ b} \text{ and } 2\text{b}, \text{ on the other hand, do not have such a negative meaning.}\]

\[\text{many, a (few) and several co-occur only with plural count nouns:}\]
\[(100) \quad \text{The few words he spoke were well chosen.}\]

\[\text{much and (a) little co-occur only with non-count nouns:}\]
\[(101) \quad \text{There hasn't been much good weather recently.}\]

\[\text{Several is rarely (and much virtually never) preceded by a determiner, and in the case of few and}\]
little there is a positive/negative contrast according as the indefinite article is or is not used:

(102) He took a few biscuits (=several), few biscuits (=not many), a little butter (=some), little butter (=not much).

In the first and third instances a belongs to the quantifier.

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

For example

(103 a) The utter hopelessness of his success disgusts me.
(103 b) *The utter hopelessness disgusts me.
(104 a) The mere idea that she could stoop so low revolts one.
(104 b) ?? The mere idea revolts me.
(105 a) The sheer pleasure of watching them dance is electrifying.
(105 b) The sheer pleasure is electrifying.

These quantifiers do not occur with other quantifiers but are rather mutually exclusive with them.

For example

(106 a) A mere boy stood there.
(106 b) *Two mere boys stood there.
(107 a) This can be presumed only by an utter fool.

(107 b) *This can be presumed only by some utter fools.

(108 a) He is a perfect fool.

(108 b) *They are two perfect fools.

Emphatics - just, even, only, particularly, also, at least - can precede both definite and indefinite articles. These modifiers are adverbial in nature though they belong to the Noun Phrase itself. Thus

(109) Even a child.

(110) Particularly a woman.

(111) Just the American tourists.

(112) Even the doctors.

(113) Particularly the linguists.

They can also occur in definite constructions before predeterminers. For example:

(114) Even all the riches of the world.

(115) Particularly both the doors need repair.

(116) Just all the dogs were killed.

Some items like 'just' in sentences like

(117) Just three teachers came.

(118) Just all the group was here.

are ambiguous in feature specification.

They can be analysed as
In the first case, the sentences can be paraphrased as

"Just three teachers and no one else"

whereas in the second, they can be paraphrased as

"teachers just three in number"

or "just all the group (down to the smallest number)".

This difference may also be marked in the stress patterns. In the context of an \{+ Approx\} just, the predeterminer (or the numeral) seems characteristically marked by a heavier than ordinary stress:

"Just three teachers" (only three in number).

The \{+ Limit\} just does not cause such a change in the degree of stress.

There is also a large open class of quantifiers which are phrasal and some of them can co-occur equally with non-count and plural count nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The room contained</th>
<th>plenty of</th>
<th>students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a lot of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lots of</td>
<td>furniture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These (especially lots of) are chiefly used informally. Plenty of is statistically neutral in the sense sufficient. Others are restricted to occurring with non-count nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The room contained</th>
<th>a great deal</th>
<th>a large quantity of money</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>good</td>
<td>small amount</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

or to plural count nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The room contained</th>
<th>a great number of students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>large good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To sum up: it is usual to find the indefinite article and a quantifying adjective, the latter being obligatory in standard English with deal.

The phrasal quantifiers also provide a means of imposing countability on non-count nouns as the following partitive expressions illustrate.

General partitives:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>two pieces</th>
<th>of</th>
<th>news</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a bit</td>
<td></td>
<td>information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an item</td>
<td></td>
<td>furniture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Typical partitives:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>slice of cake</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>roast of meat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>few leaves of bread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bowl of soap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bottle of wine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measures:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>pint of beer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>spoonful of medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pound of butter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.3 Epithets

The epithets are of three types:

(i) Adjectives
(ii) Participal Modifiers
(iii) Adverbials

Adjectives — good, bad, new, beautiful, etc.

These adjectives, in English, are derived from the relativized sentence of the structure NP + Copula + Adj. For example:

(119) The painting which is beautiful ⇒ the beautiful painting

(120) His argument which is main ⇒ his main argument .
These adjectives pre-modify the nouns by appearing between the determiner and the head in the Noun Phrase.

A premodifying adjective, especially when it is the first item after the determiner can itself be premodified in the same way as can in predicate position. For example:

(121) "His really quite unbelievably delightful cottage.

Some intensifiers tend however to be avoided with premodifying adjective. For example:

(122) "His so beautiful cottage" seems a little affected. With indefinite determiners so would be replaced by such:

(123) "Such a beautiful cottage".

Or else so plus adjective would be placed before the det:

(124) "So beautiful a cottage"

Participal modifiers in English are derived from relativized verbs of the form V-ing or V-en. While used with these participal modifiers, the verb form remains unaffected in English.

Participal modifiers are of two types:

(i) Present participles and
(ii) Past participles.

The 'ing' participal modifiers like running (e.g., 'running water'), burning (e.g.,
burning house), glowing (e.g., glowing stick) etc., belong to this category. With regard to the derivation of these Present Participal modifiers, there are some restrictions in case of English, which can be analysed with reference to two sub-categories of the English verb: 'transitive' Vs. 'intransitive' and 'stative' Vs 'dynamic'.

Present Participal modifiers generally occur with intransitive verbs. Transitive verbs usually disallow such uses. For example:

(125) running water
(126) sleeping dog
(127) burning stick
(128) * eating man (man who is eating)
(129) * reading book (book which he is reading)

Some may argue that English may have Present Participal modifiers with both transitive and intransitive verbs as in:

(130) talking dool
(131) sleeping pills

But such modifiers are not strictly participal ones. They are rather nominals.

The -en participal modifiers like wounded, torn, married, fallen, burnt, etc., can occur in English with both transitive and intransitive verbs. For example:

(132) wounded soldier
In all such cases, however, the -en form of the verb must be in the 'stative' use. Dynamic verbs do not allow -en participial modifiers. For example:

(138) *eaten rice
(139) *slept dog

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

(140) The immigrant who has arrived
with

(141) *The arrived immigrant

The vanished treasure ("the treasure which has vanished") and A retired teacher ( "a teacher who has retired") are exceptional, but exceptions are somewhat more general when an active participle is adverbially modified:

(142) 'The newly-arrived immigrant'
(143) 'Our recently-departed friend'

Here belong also born and some uses of hidden, married, troubled, darkened etc., but in premodification they must either have 'permanent' reference or be adverbially modified:
Past participial modifiers may be directly denominal and not participles at all: 

(147) ' the vaulted roof ' ,
(148) ' a fluted pillar ' ,
(149) ' a wooded hill-side ' .

But constraints occur ( perhaps merely by semantic redundancy ), such as there is no

(150) * ' a powered engine ' ,
(151) * ' a haired girl ' ,
(152) * ' a legged man ' ,

though we have

(153) ' a diesel-powered engine ' ,
(154) ' a red-haired girl ' ,
(155) ' a long-legged man ' .

Adverbials like monthly , yearly etc., are used as pre-head modifiers in an English Noun Phrase as in

(156) monthly magazine ,
(157) yearly income .

Some adverbs signifying place or time also pre-modify the head-word in a Noun Phrase, such as

(158) ' the above photo ' ,
(159) ' the upstairs neighbour ' ,
2.4.4. Nominals or Classifiers —

Sometimes a noun or a sentence functions as an adjective and pre-modifiers the 'head' in a Noun Phrase. In this function, though the attributive nouns resemble adjectives they are basically nominal in character. These elements in a Noun Phrase are also called Classifiers. The examples are,

(163) Arts College
(164) Store building
(165) Cement factory
(166) Ambassador car
(167) Wood carving
(168) Country cottage
(169) Stone wall
(170) Love poem
(171) Concrete floor
(172) City council.

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

(163 a) College of Arts
(164 a) building (made) of stone
(165 a) factory of cement
(166 a) car (named) of Ambassador.
(167 a) carving, wood
(168 a) cottage in the country
(169 a) wall of stone
(170 a) poem about love
(171 a) floor (made) of concrete
(172 a) council of the city

But 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. Similarly, the construction 'Ambassador Car' may be a compound noun when it does not necessarily mean a car for Ambassador.

In the following examples:

(173) A come-hither look
(174) All these forget-me not flowers
(175) The buy-now pay-later scheme
(176) The pop-down-for-the-weekend cottage
(177) The hire-purchase system

The sentences come-hither, forget-me-not, buy-now pay-later, pop-down-for-the-weekend and hire-purchase are the classifiers which modify their respective heads in the above Noun Phrases. These cannot be used as qualifiers. Thus:

(173 a) A look come-hither
(174 a) * All these flowers forget-me-not
(175 a) * The scheme buy-now-pay-later
The classifiers or the nominal modifiers in English may be categorised as below:
(i) Noun, (2) Proper Name, (3) Geśundive.

Accordingly, the construction of Noun Phrase is
(i) Noun + Head, as in

(178) Stone house
(179) Cement factory
(180) Ambassador car
(181) Rajdoot motor-cycle
(182) May Day
(183) Mother India

(ii) Proper Name + Head, as in

(184) India House
(185) Cuttack Hotel
(186) Natraj Studio
(187) India Gate
(188) Utkal Automobiles

and

(iii) Geśundive + Head, as in

(189) Writing pad
(190) Drawing book
(191) Dining table
(192) Drinking water
(193) Sleeping pills
(194) Talking dolls.
All these nominal modifiers listed above can also go with the head in the form of a compound noun. For example:

(195) Stone-building
(196) Film-star
(197) Shop-keeper

etc.

In Noun premodification, plural nouns usually became singular, even those that otherwise have no singular form:

(198) "The trouser leg" (The leg of the trousers).

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

(199) "The table in the corner",

will readily yield

(199 a) "The corner table",

one cannot do the same with

(200) The girl in the corner
(200 a) *The corner girl

Of course, this is a question of semantic relation. Premodification confers relative permanence which befits the assignment to a corner of a table or even a waitress but not a girl as such.
2.1.5. Referentials

The following items may be called Referentials:

Other, similar, remaining, additional, identical, same, etc.

The referentials in English perform the function of anaphoric cohesion, by implicit reference (to the factor 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.
remaining = remaining with reference to the items removed.
additional = additional to the items referred to.
identical = identical with the ones referred to.
same = same as the ones referred to.

In a Noun Phrase, the occurrence of same excludes the occurrence of other.

2.1.6. Non-head modifiers

In addition to the above mentioned five main categories of modifiers, there are some which do not modify the head, and yet are modifiers. These are of two types:

(a) Pre-determiners
(b) Sub-modifiers or Intensifiers.
Some words occur before the determiners and therefore can be called pre-determiners. These are pre-head modifiers. Both, half and all in English are pre-determiners.

(201) Both the girls are dancers.

(202) All the toys cannot be sold to one customer.

(203) Half the boys supported him.

Pre-determiners are analysed as Aggregative, Multiplicative and Fractional. They all refer to some quantity elements. The Aggregatives all, both and half have generally been referred to as Pre-determiners. They can occur only before articles or demonstratives, but since they are themselves quantifiers, they do not occur with the following quantitative determiners:

Every, either, neither, each, some, any, no, enough.

All, both and half have of-constructions, which are optional with nouns and obligatory with personal pronouns:

(204) all (of) the meat - all of it.
(205) both (of) the students - both of them.
(206) half (of) the time - half of it.

With a quantifier following, the of-construction is preferred:

(207) all of the many boys.

The pre-determiner both is not plural proper
but dual, i.e. they can refer only to two. But compared with the numeral two, both is emphatic:

(208) Both (the) students were excellent.
(209) The two

There is no special structural significance to placing Aggregative before Def., which, of course, cannot be said about half.

Some of, many of, one of, most of, two of etc. are also some of the items which are frequently included with Pre-determiners. Some such constructions are:

(210) Some of the boys.
(211) Many of the boys.
(212) One of the boys.
(213) Two of the ten boys.
(214) Most of the boys.

Sometimes the pre-determiners can still be preceded by a determiner + of, as in:

(215) Half of all the students voted for him.

The multiplicatives include double, twice, three four ..., times etc., which occur with non-count and plural count nouns, and with singular count nouns denoting number, amount etc. Some examples are given below:

(216) double their salaries.
(217) twice his strength.
(218) three times this amount.
Three/four ...., etc. times as well as once can co-occur with the determiners a, every, each, and (less commonly) per to form distributive expressions with a temporal noun as head.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>once</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>day</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>twice</td>
<td>every</td>
<td>week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>each</td>
<td>month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>four</td>
<td>times</td>
<td>per</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td>per</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fractionals as one third, two-fifths, three-quarters, are used with non-count and with singular and plural count nouns. They can also be followed by determiners, and have the alternative of-construction. For example:

(219) He did it in one-third (of) the time it took me.

With reference to the pre-determiners there are two kinds of "of-phrases" in English, e.g., Enumerative and Partitive Phrases. Partitive of-phrases characteristically require a the in every embedding; thus:

(220) "Youngest member of the smallest Rotary club of the largest Rotary District of the World".

(221) "Several of the seven of the nine of the eighteen houses" etc.
Enumerative of-phrases, on the other hand, characteristically avoid a the, thus:

(222) "Trays of cups of tea".

The sub-modifiers in English form a category of words which generally occur before and modify the epithets (adjectives). They are also called intensifiers. Words like rather, very, pretty, more, (er), most (-est), quite, so, much, as, too, how, etc. belong to this category.

Some examples are:

(223) approximately five miles.
(224) very beautiful girl.
(225) so nice a present.
(226) extremely good movie.
(227) rather bad news.

In English, the sub-modifiers are placed either pre-nominally or post-nominally according to restrictions specific to the language.

For example:

(228) a boy so good.
(229) so good a boy.

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

(230) Nearly everybody came to our party.
(231) Over two hundred deaths were reported.
(232) I paid more than ten rupees for it.

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

(233) They will stay about a week.

With Ordinals and superlatives, a definite article is obligatory:

(234) She gave me almost the largest piece of cake.

A few intensifiers (quite, rather) may pre-modify Noun Phrases, and the pre-determiner such and exclamatory that. The Noun Phrase is normally indefinite, and the intensifiers precede any determiners. Rather requires the head to be a singular count noun and gradable. For example:

(235) He told such a funny story.
(236) He told such funny stories.
(237) I have never heard such wickedness.
(238) It was rather a mess.
(239) He was quite some player.
(240) What a (big) fool he is!

So and interrogative and exclamatory how also precede the indefinite article, but they require the Noun Phrase to contain a gradable adjective and the head of the Noun Phrase to be a singular countable noun. In this process the adjective precedes the article:
(241) I didn't realize he was so big a fool.

(242) How tall a man is he?

(243) How tall a man he is!

In superficially similar noun phrases *may be intensifying the adjective*, in which case it *may precede or follow the determiner*:

(244) It is rather a table.

(245) It is rather a big table.

(246) It is a rather big table.

*Kind of* and *sort of* usually follow the determiner:

(247) He gave a sort of laugh.

Other of phrases *precede a determiner*:

(248) I had bit of a shock.

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

(249) 'extremely well'

'extremely' suggests a greater degree than 'rather' in

(250) 'rather well'.

2.1.7. **Multiple Premodification**

More than one pre-modifier may be related to a single head, with no grammatical limit on the number.
His book + His last book + His brilliant book + His 
(....) book $\Rightarrow$ His last brilliant (....) book .

Modification may apply to more than one head :

The new table $\Rightarrow$ The new table and 

The new chairs $\Rightarrow$ chairs.

In a Noun Phrase pre-modification is possible with modified adjectives as in :

(251) "His really quite unbelievably delightful cottage",

and with modified genitives as in :

(252) "These nasty women's clothing ".

The noun premodifier can be itself premodified by either an adjective or a noun and , if the latter, this can in turn be similarly premodified :

(253) The office furniture
(254) The small office furniture
(255) The tax office furniture
(256) The property tax office furniture
(257) The house property tax office furniture

2.1.8 Post-head Modifiers

Rank-shifted clauses and prepositional phrases which often come after 'head ' as qualifiers, are termed as post-head modifiers. They are either full or shortened reflexive or defining relative clauses and can never occur before the 'head '. The following are common occurrence in English.
(258) The man you saw was my friend

(259) The bird in the cage belongs to Sita

(260) The one who is a Professor is standing in the corner

(261) The boy standing there can be foolish

Thus we find the post-modification, that comprises all the items placed after the head in a Noun Phrase, consists of notably

(1) Relative clauses

(262) "The girl who stood in the corner"

(ii) Non-finite clauses

(263) "The girl standing in the corner"

(iii) Prepositional Phrases

(264) "The girl in the corner"

The relative clause or the relativized sentence is the modifier of a Noun Phrase in the matrix sentence. In English, it contains a wh-pronominal (or a that ) replacement for a deep-structure Noun Phrase which is in same sense identical with the head Noun Phrase. For example:

(265) The girl - the girl's dolls are broken -

⇒ The girl whose dolls are broken.

In the process of post-modification it is obligatory in English to delete the relativized Noun Phrase and the relativized Noun Phrase itself gets replaced by an appropriate form of the wh-pronominal.
Thus,

(266) The boy - the boy is standing alone - is my brother.

\[ \Rightarrow \text{The boy who is standing alone is my brother.} \]

In the relative clause the personal pronoun agrees with the head of the Noun Phrase. Here are some Noun Phrases modified by relative adjectival clauses:

(267) (I met) the man whom your mother knows.

(268) the man your mother knows.

(269) the man who knows your mother.

(270) I saw the trees which you told me about.

(271) I saw the tree that you told me about.

(272) We visited the island where they grew pepper.

(273) I remember the day when you came to our house for the first time.

Thus we find, the identical Noun Phrase in the embedded sentence is replaced by the appropriate relative pronoun (who/whom, which/that, where, when). The distinction between who and whom is based on the function
of the Noun Phrase being replaced - who for the subject
Noun Phrase, and whom for Noun Phrase after the verb
(except be), which and that are used for most
nonhuman and all inanimate nouns, who and whom for
human and some non-human animate nouns. Where is used
for Noun Phrases that indicate place. When is used
for Noun Phrases that indicate time.

All the Non-finite clause types also
serve as post-modifiers in the English Noun Phrase.

(274) The man writing the obituary is my
friend.

(275) A tile falling from the roof shattered
into fragments at his feet.

(276) At the station you will see a man
carrying a large umbrella.

(277) The man writing on the board when
you came in ....

In all these above examples the '-ing'
participle clauses post modify the nouns in the Noun
Phrases. These examples also show a correspondence between
restrictive relative and non-finite clauses. But not
all '-ing' forms in non finite post modifiers correspond
to progressive forms in relative clauses. Stative verbs,
which cannot have the progressive in the finite verb
phrase, can appear in participal form:
(278) He is talking to a girl resembling Mamun ("who resembles Mamun" not who is resembling Mamun).

(279) It was a mixture containing of oil and

venegar (that consisted....)

In all instances, the antecedent head corresponds to the detected subject of the non-finite verb clause; there is no non-finite post modifier, therefore, corresponding directly to the relative clause.

"The obituary that the man is writing will be published tomorrow" without recourse to the passive, being written by the man.

With the -ed participle clauses as post modifiers in the Noun Phrase the antecedent head is identical with the deleted subject of the -ed clause. But in this construction, the participle concerned is as firmly linked with the passive voice as that in the -ing construction is linked with the active. Hence, with intransitive verbs, there is no -ed post modifier corresponding exactly to a relative clause:

(280 a) The train which has arrived at platform one is from York.

(280 b) The train arrived at platform one is from York.

Under certain conditions, both present and
past participal phrases may be moved to a position in front of the noun phrases they modify. For example the sentence

\[(281) \text{The children, carrying their toys, came into the room.}\]

can have another form as,

\[(281\ a) \text{Carrying their toys, the children came into the room.}\]

So also the past participle phrase modifier in

\[(282) \text{The children attracted by the voices, came into the room.}\]

can be moved to sentence initial position:

\[(282\ a) \text{Attracted by their voices, the children came into the room.}\]

If the participal phrase consists of only the main verb (with the -ing or -en attached), we treat the participal phrase as though it were an adjective and move it to a position in front of the noun. Thus, for example, the modifier reassuring in the noun phrase \text{a reassuring statement} comes from an embedded sentence containing reassure as a main verb preceded by a progressive: \text{a statement is reassuring}.

An infinitival clause may act as a post modifier of the Noun Phrase:

\[(283) \text{The next train to arrive was from York has precisely the same meaning as the relative clause}\]
which arrived. But the subject of an infinitive clause need not be the antecedent. It may be introduced for. Thus

(284 a) The man for Bebi to consult is Bijoy.

(284 b) The man to consult is Bijoy.

The infinitive clause may also omit an entire adjunct phrase, as in

(285) The time to arrive is 8 Pm.

(286) A good place to stay is the Ashok Nivas.

Where a fairly common alternative is to introduce the relative pronoun and retain the infinitival clause:

(285 a) .... time at which to arrive ....

(286 a) .... place at which to stay ....

Non-restrictive post modification can also be achieved with non-finite clauses:

(287) The apple tree, swaying gently in the breeze, had a good crop of fruit ('which was swaying ....')

(288) The substance, discovered almost by accident, has revolutionized medicine ('which was discovered...')

(289) This scholar, to be seen daily in the British Museum, has devoted his life to the history of science
The above non-finite clauses can be moved to sentence initial position without change of meaning.  

A Noun Phrase may be modified by appositive clauses.

Appositives are used either as premodifiers or postmodifiers. In the first case, the appositive may generally be preceded by a definite determiner (pre-modifier):

(290) that famous critic Paul Jones
(291) the number three
(292) my good friend Raj.

In the post modification it is preceded by a the, as in

(293) Paul Jones the critic.

It may also occur without a determiner. For example:

(294) Critic Paul Jones
(295) Professor Tripathy

Appositive post modification is commonly done by means of infinitival clauses. A restrictive example is:

(296) The appeal to join the movement was well received. (that people should join the movement)

A corresponding non-restrictive example:

(297) This last appeal, to come and visit him, was never delivered.
There are cases of non-finite post modification where no corresponding finite apposition exists:

(298) Any attempt to leave early is against regulations

(*... that one should leave early..)

(299) He lost the ability to use his hands.

However, in all these examples, the construction obliges us to infer the subject of the infinitival clause from the context. But a subject may be explicitly introduced by a prepositional device:

(300) The appeal for Ram to join....

(301) Any attempt by Ram to leave...

In the post modification by appositive clause, the appositive clause is generally introduced with a 'that'. The head of the Noun Phrase must be a factive abstract noun such as 'fact' itself, proposition, reply, remark, answer and the like. For example:

(302) The belief that no one is infallible is well founded.

(303) A message that he would be late arrived by special delivery.

In all these examples of post modification by the appositive clauses a definite article before the head noun is obligatory. Plural heads are also rare with appositive post modification and are regarded as
unacceptable, for example, with belief, fact, possibility.

A prepositional phrase is by far the commonest type of post modification in English. The full range of prepositions is involved in the post modification of Noun Phrase:

(304) The man with a red beard
(305) The road to Burla
(306) A tree by a stream
(307) The houses beyond the church
(308) Two years before the war
(309) A man from the electricity board
(310) This book on language
(311) The girl in the room

including the complex prepositions:

(312) Action in case of fire
(313) Passengers on board the ship

and including those having participial form:

(314) "A delay pending further inquiry."

In the example

(315) "the girl in the room"

"the girl in the room" is a Noun Phrase which consists of

The girl : Noun Phrase
In the : Prepositional Phrase
room

Again, the prepositional phrase "in the room"
consists of

In : prepositional phrase

and

the room : Noun Phrase

Thus, this is also a case of an Noun Phrase within an Noun Phrase. Other examples of Noun Phrase within an Noun Phrase are

(316) The bridge across the river

(317) The man on the bridge across the river near the village

Prepositional Phrases may be non-appositive or appositive, and in either function they can be restrictive or non-restrictive:

(318 a) This book on grammar (non-appositive, restrictive)

(318 b) This book, on grammar, (non-appositive, non-restrictive)

(319 a) The issue of student grants (appositive, rest)

(319 b) The issue, of student grants (appositive, non-restrictive)

The second example in each case is of course rare.

Non-restrictive appositives would more usually be without a preposition, as in

(319 c) The issue, student grants.
Some relatively minor types of post modifiers are

(i) adverbials
and (ii) the post-posed adjectives.

In adverbial post-modifier the subject and an important adjunct are dropped from the Noun Phrase. For example:

(320) The road back was dense with traffic.

{the road which leads back (to Cole Bazar)}

Similarly,

(321) 'The way (which leads) in (to the auditorium)'

(322) 'The people (who are sitting) behind'

Thus we find that adverbials of place or time post-modify Noun Phrases:

Place:

(323) the way ahead
(324) the neighbour upstairs
(325) the sentence below

Time:

(326) the meeting yesterday
(327) the day before

The post-posed adjectives as post-head modifiers are of two types.

In the first type, the indefinite pronouns such as anybody, some one, something can be followed but not preceded by adjectival modifiers. Thus,

(328 a) Something strange happened last night.
(328 b) * Strange something ....

The pronouns concerned are any - , some - , no - series plus one or two others ( what else , who next , etc.). But we are not free to post—pose with indefinites all modifying items that can be prepared with ordinary noun heads : Thus ,

(329 a) A party official is waiting

(329 b) * Somebody party is waiting

Even adjectives need generally to be permanent and hence eligible equally for attributive and predicative use, Thus ,

(330) Somebody timid
(331) * Somebody afraid

The second type consists chiefly of noun plus adjective phrases. For example :

(332) ' blood royal '
(333) ' heir apparent '

Besides this, there is a similar but much more general phenomenon, when a head is non-restrictively modified by a coordinated string of adjectives, it is common to post—pose them :

(334) A man, timid and hesitant, approached the officials.

Even a restrictively modifying adjective can be post—posed if it is itself modified ( by an adjunct, not by the intensifier very ) ;
2.1.9 Multiple and Discontinuous post-modification.

A head may have more than one post-modifiers. Thus,

(337) The girl in the corner (and)
talking to John.

One modifier may also be applicable to more
than one head. Thus,

(338) 'The girl and boy in the corner'
(The girl in the corner
and The boy in the corner).

The head of a modifying phrase may itself be
modified. Thus,

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

Thus, this Noun Phrase is a combination of
five Noun Phrases, e.g.,

The girl in the corner + The boy in the
corner + The corner nearest the door + The
girl talking to John + the boy talking
to John.

Frequently, careful ordering of constituents
in a Noun Phrase is essential to communicate all (and
only) one's intention. To take an obvious example, the
following pair differ in meaning and are not mere
stylistic variants:

(340) The man in black talking to the girl.
(341) The man talking to the girl in
One of the chief reasons for preferring the of-phrase
to the s genitive is to avoid discontinuity; thus,

(342) The ears of the man in the deckchair
and not
(343) The man's ears in the deckchair.

Even with simple examples and the most careful
ordering, we may find clarity and acceptability different
to attain in multiple modification. Beginning with

(344) He liked the smiles of delight on
all the faces

a noun phrase based on this sentence and having smiles
as its head may be ambiguous:

(345) The smiles of delight on all the
faces that he liked
(was it the smiles or the faces that he liked?)

It is not uncommon for the Noun Phrase to be
interrupted by other items of clause structure. In the
example,

(346) You'll meet a man tomorrow carrying
a heavy parcel.

The Noun Phrase is interrupted by the time-
adjunct 'to-morrow' which results in discontinuous
modification. Similarly,

(347) I had a nice glass of fruit juice but
in an ugly glass
(348) A big awkward sort of cartoon.

In some cases of discontinuous modification the prepositional phrases do not directly relate to the head, but to the premodifying adjective.

(349) 'Comparable facilities to ours'.

(facilities comparable to ours)

(350) 'Different production figures from these given earlier'.

(figures different from these)

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:

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

(352) The woman is by the door, who sold me the tickets and told me the play doesn't begin till three.

2.2 ORDER OF OCCURRENCE

In English the order of occurrence of the various items is very important and it is more or less fixed. In highly inflectional languages like Sanskrit or Oriya it is possible to chain the items of an occurrence in more ways than one, but in English the syntagmatic choices are very limited indeed. It is, therefore necessary
to know the order in which the various categories of modifiers occur in an English Noun Phrase.

The order of occurrence of the various categories of modifiers in English is

Det + Num + Ref + Epi + Nom + Head

For example:

(1) All / the / ten / other / similar / fine / old /

Det  Num  Ref  Epi

aging / grey / stone / House

Nom  Head

However, if there is a sub-modifier like 'so' and 'too', then the order changes, as in

(2) So beautiful a girl - ( s/m + epi + det+head )
(3) Too strange a thing - ( s/m + epi + det+head )

But the sentences may also be written as

(2 a) a so beautiful girl ( det+s/m+epi+ head )
(3 a) a too strange thing ( det +s/m+epi+head )

This change of order changes the focus or emphasis on the sub-modifiers. Since these are sometimes considered 'ungrammatical' by some grammarians such uses are restricted.

But all sub-modifiers do not change the order of the modifiers.
(4) A very strong iron pillar = (det+s/m+epi+nom+head)
(5) A pretty good thing = (det+s/m+epi+head)

Except for the instances mentioned above
all pre-determiners are the first item in a Noun Phrase, followed by determiners.

In a Noun Phrase, determiners can be followed by ordinals. For example:

(6) The first man

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{NP} \\
\text{Det} \quad \text{Ord} \quad \text{N} \\
\text{art} \\
\text{The} \quad \text{first} \quad \text{man}
\end{array}
\]

(7) His last move

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{NP} \\
\text{det} \quad \text{ord} \quad \text{N} \\
\text{poss} \\
\text{his} \quad \text{last} \quad \text{move}
\end{array}
\]

Again the ordinals can be followed by a modifier. It is not necessary for a noun phrase to have an ordinal. If there is no ordinal, the quantifier follows the determiner, e.g.
His first ten loves

Many books

The determiners/quantifier may be followed, in the structure of a Noun Phrase, by an adjectival phrase, for example,

A very nice movie

Many beautifully painted pictures
It is also possible to have more than one adjectival phrase in an NP, e.g.:

(12) The tired old man

The category quantifier seems to occur in various positions. Both cardinals and ordinals can co-occur in the same Noun Phrase, and their order depends upon the meaning of utterance.

For example:

(15) The first four roses of my garden

Their own alternation, within the set, is a function of singularity and plurality, which is what distinguishes 'one' from other numerals within the cardinal set. Thus, we find the constituent "Rating" can occur before almost any cardinal except 'one':

(16 a) The first three boys
(16 b)* The first one boy
(17 a ) The last three boys
(17 b )* The last one boy
(18 a) All three boys
(18 b) * All one boy
(19 a) The first three roses of my garden
(19 b) * The first one rose of my garden

Cardinals can occur without an article, e.g.,

(20) Two boys,

after an article,

(21) 'The two boys' (who visited us),

before an article:

(22) Two of the boys, etc.

All ordinals co-occur only with count nouns and usually precede any cardinal in the Noun Phrase:

(23) "The first three planes were American".

The general ordinals, however, may be used freely before or after cardinals, according to the meaning required:

(24) His | next two |
   | two next |
   books were novels.

   Apart from one, which can co-occur only with singular count-nouns, all cardinal numerals (two, three) co-occur only with plural count nouns:

(25) He has one sister and three brothers.
(26) The two blue cars belong to me.
In English Numerals (both cardinals and ordinals) normally occur before epithet which in turn occurs before head-word:

(27) The (det) third (num) beautiful (epi) girl (head).
(28) The (det) three (num) beautiful (epi) girls (head).
(29) All (det₁) the (det₂) three (num) beautiful (epi) girls (head).
(30) Three (num) beautiful (epi) girls (head).

All the above examples also show that in English numerals can occur before head-word and also before epithet.

Both cardinal and ordinal numerals can function pronomially or as premodifiers, except that nought occurs chiefly as the name of the numerals, being replaced by the determiner no or the pronoun none in general use. With hundred, thousand, million, the indefinite article often replaces one. Pronominally, the ordinals are preceded by an article:

(31) To day is the fourth of July.

The element Enumerative is always preceded by the zero article. For example:

(32) "Several trays of cups of tea".

The definite article (the zero) does not occur with Enumeratives, only the zero
occurs with Enumeratives as in the context of other Quantifiers (except some Emphatics).

Items of Emphatics can be preceded by the constituent 'Rating' and like any other Quantifier, take the form of the article. For example:

(33) the first few
(34) very few
(35) very little

Emphatics, like few, little, many, several, only, cannot be followed or preceded by any other sub-class of Quantifiers. For example:

(36) *The two several books
(37) *The several two books etc.

These can also occur only in cataphoric constructions after the in definite constructions. For example:

(38) The little food that was in the house was
(39) The several houses along the road were
(40) The few books that I have are
(41) The many hours spent over the project are

Items like mere, utter, sheer and real which belong to the group of Emphatics do not occur
with other Quantifiers.*
For example:

(42a) A mere boy
(42b) Two mere boys

Emphatics occupy a pre-article position:

(43) Just the size
(44) Even the size
(45) Quite the size
(46) Just a boy
(47) Quite a man

They also exclude other Quantifiers in a Noun Phrase. For Example:

(48a) Quite a man
(48b) Quite two men

In their occurrence with the, all Emphatics Obligatorily require a cataphoric construction with a sentence complement.

(49) Just
   Even
   Quite
   the size I want

The cardinal quantifier one and the
item only which is both emphatic and quantitative in nature take an obligatory sentence complement (or its transform) while occurring in the post-the position,

(50a) The one thing that I hate most is
(50b) The one thing is
(51 a) The only thing that I hate is ....
(51 b)  The only thing is ....
(52 a) The only boy in the room was John.
(52 b)  The only boy was John.

Emphatics always precede articles a and the. Thus we get,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emphatic</th>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Even</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particularly</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>Child</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In definite constructions they occur before Predeterminers.

(54) Even all the riches of the World ....
(55) Particularly both the boys.
(56) Just the physicians ....

As to the phrasal quantifiers, some can co-occur equally with non-count and plural count nouns:

(57) The room contained plenty of students.
     a lot of furniture.
     lots of

Some phrasal quantifiers like a great deal of, a good deal of, a large quantity of, a small amount of, occur only with non-count nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrasal Quantifier</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>great deal</td>
<td>of money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good deal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>large quantity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>small amount</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and with plural count nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a</th>
<th>great</th>
<th>number of</th>
<th>students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>large</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There can be more than one epithet in an English Noun Phrase. Such as,

(60) The unavoidable evening appointment
     \( (\text{det+ adj + adv + head}) \).
(61) The wounded British soldier
     \( (\text{det + past <fi part + adj + head}) \).
(62) The green dressing gown
     \( (\text{det + adj + pr.part + head}) \).

Here the general order of occurrence can be said to be

\[ \text{Past.part + adj + pr.part/Gerund.} \]

In English epithets can occur only after the determiners. For example,

(63a) the beautiful girl
(63b) the beautiful the girl

Again these epithets occur immediately before the 'head'. Thus,

(64a) the first five beautiful girls
(64b) the beautiful first five girls

Epithets have the potentiality of functioning as complements, and in this sense adjectival complements are post-head modifiers. Such as

(65) The (se) houses are old.
(66) The (se) houses which are old....
(67) These old houses
(68) The (se) are the ones which are old.
(69) The (se) houses are mine.
(70) The (se) houses which are mine....
(71) These (my) houses.
(72) These houses are the ones which are mine.

'Old' being an adjective can function both as a 'Post-head' + 'be' complement and a 'Pre-head' modifier. 'mine' ( = my one(s) ) being a nominalized form of 'my' cannot function as pre-head modifier and 'my' being a determiner of this/these type cannot co-occur with them.

There can be more than one adj. in the same Noun Phrase, and their order of occurrence is not rigid. There is no definite rule. However, they generally occur in the following order.

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

For example:
(73) A valuable old long brown belt.
(74) An attractive triangular green stamp.
(75) Several large red roses.
(76) A small round pink face.

An adjective normally follows an article, but in cases where it is sub-modified by a restricted list of adverbial elements like so, that etc., it
precedes the article. Consider the following examples:

(77a) A nice boy.
(77b) A very nice boy.
(78a) A nice boy.
(78b) A so nice boy.
(78c) So nice a boy.
(79a) A too old car.
(79b) Too old a car.

Similarly, we have constructions like the following used mostly for stylistic purposes in restricted situations.

(80) That pretty a girl.
(81) This large an amount.
(82) As sincere a man (as ...)
(83) So sincere a man (as ...)
(84) However nice the offer.

Most adjectives in English can be preceded by intensifiers like very:

(85) "Very happy children".

Most adjectives are preceded by the modifiers more or most and take comparative and superlative forms:

(86) A more intelligent boy.
(87) The most beautiful painting.

The inflectional superlative may be premodified by very:

(88) "the very best"

If very premodified the superlative, a determiner is not obligatory, as in
(89) She puts on her very best dress.
Comparatives and superlatives can also be post modified by intensifying phrases, the most common of which is 'by far', e.g.,:

(90) "He is funnier/funniest by far".

In case the adjective is part of an adjectival phrase, English does not allow it to be placed in the prenominal position. The entire phrase, on the other hand, is moved to the post nominal position.

(91a) A boy more intelligent than Ram.
(91b) A more intelligent than Ram boy.

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

(92) A man, timid and hesitant.

When a restrictively modifying adjective is itself modified by an adjunct it occurs after the head in a Noun Phrase:

(93) A man always timid (det.+head+adjunct + adj.)

The most important class of items before a noun modifier is the adjective of provenance or style:

(94) a Russian trade delegation
(95) Gothic church literature

and preceding this type is the participle:
(96) a carved Gothic doorway

(97) some interlocking Chinese designs.

Preceding the participle, we have adjectives of colour:

(98) a black dividing line

(99) a green carved idol.

These are preceded by adjectives of age, together with the premodifiers and postmodifiers that these and other freely gradable adjectives may have:

(100) an old blue car

(101) a very young physics student

(102) a really very elderly trained nurse

(103) a large enough lecture hall.

Next comes the large class that we may call general, except that between 'general' and colour (and usually all other modifiers to the right) comes the diminutive use of little, thus:

(104)  

| gracious    | old blue ornament |
| typical     |                  |
| beautiful   |                  |
| peculiar    |                  |
| handsome    |                  |
| hideous     |                  |
| splendid    |                  |
| little      |                  |

and not

(104a) *An old little blue ornament

The following figure illustrates the relative positions of epithets in premodification.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Determiners</th>
<th>general</th>
<th>age</th>
<th>colour</th>
<th>participle</th>
<th>proveance</th>
<th>noun</th>
<th>denotinal</th>
<th>head</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td>hectic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>soci-al</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td>extra-vagant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lon-don</td>
<td>soci-al</td>
<td>life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td>crum-bling</td>
<td></td>
<td>church</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tower</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td>grey</td>
<td>crum-bling</td>
<td>Goth-ic</td>
<td>chur-</td>
<td></td>
<td>tower</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some</td>
<td>intricate</td>
<td>old</td>
<td>inter-locking</td>
<td>Chi-nese</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>des-igns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>small</td>
<td>green</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ja-de</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>his</td>
<td>heavy</td>
<td>new</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mor-pon</td>
<td>bil-ities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are many qualifications to the foregoing: the general adjectives, for example, are not placed randomly but comprise several subclasses. We would prefer a small round table to "a round small table"; a fierce shaggy dog to a shaggy fierce-dog; a tall angry man to an angry tall man; a brief hostile glance to a hostile brief glance. Evaluative or subjective adjectives frequently precede those that are relatively objective or measurable; size often precedes shape; within size, height often precedes girth. 'General' adjectives are themselves preceded by semantically weak items like nice, by non-predicable items like mere, by quantifiers, numerals and determiners.
The denominal adjectives can be preceded by a wide range of premodifying items:

(105) the extravagant pleasant only social life
      London

(106) a serious city political problem mere United States

Present Participal modifiers generally occur with intransitive verbs:

(107) running water
(108) sleeping dog

Past Participal modifiers can occur in English with both transitive and intransitive verbs:

(109) burnt house
(110) fallen angel

But Past Participal modifiers cannot occur with 'dynamic' verbs:

(111) * eaten rice
(112) * slept dog

Adverbials generally precede adjectives in an English Noun Phrase as in:

(113) 'a really beautiful face'

But the adverb enough post modifies adjectives, as in

(114) 'high enough'

Adverbials may also precede another adverbial in a Noun Phrase, as in
82

(115) "I have seen so very many letters like that one.".

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

(116) "cleverly enough".

The adverbial 'half' (as in 'half wine', 'half water') which occurs in emphatic negation can precede enough:

(117) He hasn’t half nearly enough money.

Next, closest to the head is the Noun modifier. When two nouns premodify, one, which corresponds to the head as object to verb will follow one relating to material or agency:

(118) a detergent cardboard cartoon
     ↓
     a cardboard detergent cartoon

(119) my cigarette gas lighter
     ↓
     "my gas cigarette lighter";
     * "my cigarette gas lighter"

The pre-determiners (all, both, half) can occur only before articles or demonstratives. But they do not co-occur with the quantitative determiners every, either, neither, each, some, any, no, enough.

All as an Aggregative though characteristically occupies the pre-article position, as in
is not really restricted to that position and occurs in several different positions in a sentence.

(122) All the men were hats
(123) The men all were hats
(124) All the men are involved
(125) The men all are involved
(126) The men are all involved

But, though we have

(127) Half the men were hats

we do not have

(128) The men half were hats

or

(129) The men half are involved

or

(130) The men are half involved.

Again All can go with all the cardinals except one and two. For example:

(131) all the three boys
(132) all the four boys
(133)* all the two boys
(134)* all the one boy

With a quantifier following, the of-construction is used with the pre-determiners in a Noun Phrase:
The Pre-determiners can also be used pronominally.

(135) all of the many boys.

All and both (but not half) can occur after the head, either immediately or either the predication:

(136) All/both/half passed their examinations.

(137) The students passed their examinations.

(138) The students were all hungry

(139) They may have all finished

The fractionals one-third, two-fifths, three-quarters etc. can also be followed by determiners, and have the alternative of -construction.

(140) He did it in "one-third" (of) the time it took me.

With personal pronouns, Aggregative obligatorily follows the constituent Definite.

(141) They (i.e. Def + Demon + Pron) all were hats

(142) They both were hats

(143) They are both involved

Therefore, there is no special structural significance to placing Aggregative before Definite. But this rule cannot be applied in the case of Half.
Sometimes the pre-determiners can still be preceded by a determiner + of ;

(144) Half of all the students voted for him.

Some Pre-determiners like double, twice, three/four - times precede the possessive pronouns and demonstratives as in

(145) double their salaries (Pre-det+P/P+head)
(146) twice his strength (Pre-det+P/P+head)
(147) three times this amount (P/d+Demon+head)

These can also co-occur with the determiners a, every, each and per.

The predeterminers one-third, two-fifth, three-fifth, three-quarters etc. are followed by determiners and sometimes they can also take the of-construction.

For example:

(148) "one-third (of) the time".

They also require a the in every embedding in a Noun Phrase.

(149) "Youngest Professor of the biggest University of the World".

The Sub-modifiers of English generally precede epithets.

(150) very beautiful girl
(151) rather bad news

etc.
They can also precede indefinite pronouns, pre-determiners and cardinal numerals, indefinite article.

(152) Nearly everybody came to our party

(S/m+Indef. pronoun)

(153) Over two hundred deaths were reported

(S/m+noun^C-head)

(154) I paid more than ten rupees for it.

(155) about a week (S/m+indef. article+head).

Some intensifiers (quite, rather) also occur before noun phrases and the pre-determiners 'such' and exclamatory 'what'. In this process the intensifiers can precede any determiners.

(156) such a funny story

(157) such funny movies

(158) such wickedness

(159) rather a mess

(160) what a (big) fool

(161) quite some player

The sub-modifier rather may precede or follow the determiner in a Noun Phrase.

(162)* It is rather a table

(163) It is rather a big table

(164) It is a rather big table

The sub-modifiers kind of, and sort of usually follow the determiner:

(165) "a sort of laugh".
Whereas other of- phrases precede a determiner:

(165) "bit of a shock".

When it is equivalent to the unstressed cardinal one the indefinite article may be preceded by an intensifier, as in

(167) "They will stay about a week".

With ordinals and superlatives, a definite determiner is obligatory:

(168) "She gave me almost the largest piece of cake".

Post-determiners like many, more, most, few, fewer, fewest come after the regular determiners the or a. For example:

(169) the many extremely pretty pictures
(170) the same extremely pretty pictures
(171) those other extremely pretty pictures
(172) a certain extremely pretty pictures

We do not ordinarily move these post-determiners from their position right after the determiners at the beginning of a Noun Phrase. We don't say

(173)* the extremely pretty same pictures
(174)* or* an extremely pretty certain picture.

Pre-positional phrases, non-finite clauses and Relative clauses usually come after the head in an
English Noun Phrase.

(175) the girl in the corner (Head+ P\.Phr.)

(176) the girl standing in the corner (Head+ n/f clauses)

(177) the girl who stood in the corner (Head+ R. C)

In a Noun Phrase consisting of Relative clauses the head is immediately followed by a relative pronoun like who, whom, which, that, where, when etc.

(178) "The boy who was lightened ran off (R+C)

The head of the Noun Phrase that consists of the post-modifier Non-finite clause is immediately followed by the -ing participal modifier. For example,

(179) The girl standing in the corner (Head+ n/f clause)

The participal phrases usually follow and post-modify the head of a Noun phrase. But sometimes they can also precede the head. For example:

(180a) "The children, carrying their toys", came into room

(180b) Carrying their toys, the children came into the room

In non-restrictive modification the modifier non-finite clause may follow or precede the head in an English Noun Phrase.
(181a) The substance, discovered almost by accident, ....
(181b) Discovered almost by accident, the substance ....
(182a) This scholar, to be seen daily in the British museum, ....
(182b) To be seen daily in the British museum, this scholar ....

In a Noun Phrase that includes the modifier prepositional phrases, the full range of prepositions is involved. These phrases post modify the head of the Noun Phrase. In Non-restrictive appositive function the prepositional phrases may be without a preposition as in

(183) The issue, student grants; whereas in its other functions the prepositional phrases require a preposition. Thus we have

(184) The issue of student grants
(app, rest.)

(185) The issue, of student grants
(app, non-rest.)

Some indefinite pronouns like anybody, someone, something occur before the adjectives in a Noun Phrase. They can never be preceded by these post-posed adjectives:

(186a) Something strange.
(186b) Strange something.

Here again there is another restriction.
The modifying items which can precede the ordinary noun heads cannot follow the indefinites. Thus,

(187a) A party official
(187b) Somebody party

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

(188) 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,

(189) Comparable facilities to ours

(facilities comparable to us)

(190) Different production figures from those given earlier

(Production figures different from those given earlier.)

To sum up: the order of occurrence of the English modifiers in a Noun Phrase is Pre.det + det + ord. + card. + epi.+ class.+ Head.
2.3 CONCORD WITH THE HEAD

So far as internal relation in English Noun Phrase is concerned, concord is an important factor. Concord between head and the modifiers is necessary mainly in the matter of number. There are some modifiers which can go with both singular and plural heads, some only with singular and some only with plural. Besides this, concord is also an important feature in English for semantic and stylistic purposes.

Of the determiners article plays an important role in matters of concord in English.

In case of the attributive use of noun, an indefinite article is often used:

(1) He is a fool.
(2) My father was a teacher.
(3) He became a poet.

(But because of the adjectival force, always present in the predicative attribute, many languages avoid an article with the attributive usage.)

This article is used when the predicative noun is felt to classify the person concerned, that is, when it presents the notion of the specimen of a category. It is remarkable that resistance to this usage occurs when only one person may hold an office, position or rank mentioned in the predicate at one and the same time. Jespersen (1949:451-3) gives the following examples:
(4) I became a director. I became Managing Director.

(5) I became Lord Mayor and a baronet.

(6) I was surgeon successively in two Ships.

In these cases the sense of a specimen of the category is lost and there is one-to-one relationship between noun and signifiate similar to that found in a proper noun. Here the predicate noun refers to the title rather than to the person. Prince of Wales is a title, a Prince of Wales is a person; Bishop of Durham is a position, not a person, while a Bishop of Durham is a person, not a position. Here again we are confronted with the unit usage (or numerical sense) and continuation usage (or non-numerical sense). Unit usage requires the article, continue usage uses the bare noun. Sometimes the play between the two may be used for stylistic purposes:

(7) Mary was nineteen and virgin, but she was essentially woman.

(8) Now she was gypsy, pure gypsy.

(Jespersen (1949:455).

In such cases an article may also be used though the qualitative force of Zero reference is here remarkable.

The proper noun rarely requires or uses an article because it rarely presents less than its
total potential significate, for this the bare noun is sufficient. For a more limited representation an article will be necessary. In similar fashion, when the common noun is used to represent a formless continue entity (e.g., butter, generosity), it too does not require an article, the bare noun is sufficient. 

When, however, there are restrictions, limitations or constructions on the significate in view, as when the entity is seen with clear exterior form or is otherwise clarified from the vague, formless representation to be found at the limit of the extensivity of the representation that is satisfactorily presented by the bare noun, then an article will be called into play in order to achieve this more limited representation. This simple mechanism, as often happens, produces a variety of effects in discourse depending on the context and the noun affected. Jespersen (1949:432) cites the following examples:

1. He was ready to do anyone a kindness.
2. Sit down and have a drink.
3. She had a fire in the parlour.
4. Green vitriol is a salt.
5. Imagine a shyness more powerful than curiosity or desire ....

In some of these usages the article is requisite, in others it is a stylistic suggestion, sometimes the Zero form is the more unusual of the two:
There was absolute silence.

There was a short silence.

Kruisinga (1932:314) gives the following examples:

What a difference to one's well-being is made by the possession of a comb.

What difference I found between your words and mine.

We may observe here a frequent effect provided by the contrast between the use of the article and article Zero. 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. These overtones are normal effects of internal and external views, regardless of the subject matter. Compare the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External view</th>
<th>Internal view</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Container- Quantitative)</td>
<td>(Contents-Qualitative)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| a verse | verse |
| a night | night |

An internal view will reveal the contents, the principal aspect of which is type or quality; an external view will reveal the container, the principal aspect of which is size or quantity. We, therefore, tend to associate these aspects with these particular views.
As a result, it is natural to leave out the article with absolute silence and equally natural to add in the phrase a short silence. In the sentences

(18) "What a difference"
suggests quantity, whereas

(19) "What difference"
suggests quality, and these overtones fit in exactly with the intended sense of the rest of the two sentences.

In the two examples

(20) "The young Shakespeare" (Quantitative,
exterior view)

(21) "Young Shakespeare" (Qualitative,
interior view)

the first Noun Phrase "the young Shakespeare" which is an example of the use of definite article with proper nouns is in direct contrast with the "older Shakespeare". In the second Noun phrase, the force of the adjective falls upon the interior view of the noun signifyate and is an addition to the totality of the signifyate.

When there is a modifier with a singular proper noun, the definite article may be used to obtain a contrasting force in the modifier. In referring to a lady we may call her Miss Tripathy, but if there is a possibility of a confusion with another Miss Tripathy, then we may say:
(22) The Miss Tripathy who lives in Burla.
If the limiting adjunct does not need contrastive force, however, we may equally well say:
(23) Miss Tripathy who lives in Bolangir.
But if we refer to two people of the same name and use a plural:
(24) The Misses Tripathy,
the anaphoric article becomes necessary to prevent the reference from building into an unlimited plural:
(25) (All) Misses Tripathy.
A group of islands, limited in number, will require the definite article to prevent the suggestion of a common noun unlimited in number:
(26) The Cyclades
(27) The Philippines.
And the same may be said of all plural proper names of places:
(28) The Netherlands
(29) The Americans
(30) The United States
(31) The Himalayas
The article here is anaphoric and its purpose is to avoid ambiguity.

Some proper names of places take definite articles, while others do not. For example:
(33) Southern California.
The Southern Cross is a part of the firmament and this is the anaphoric usage of the article. "Southern California" is the name of a State (California) which
does not require an article; if a contrastive force were sought for the adjective, an article would be required; the adjective is therefore a part of the total name.

Some Proper names of people do not require an article

(34) Colonel Johnson
(35) Doctor Lawrence
(36) Professor Tripathy

Here the preceding common noun becomes a part of the total name and its distinctive force is lost.

But when the noun of rank, title, profession etc. has not become a part of the proper name, it is felt as a common noun, to which the proper noun is juxtaposed in apposition, and which requires, therefore, an article:

(37) The Virgin Mary
(38) The planet Mercury
(39) The apostle Saint Paul
(40) The executioner Samson

Unlike the indefinite article, the definite article may be used with plurals. It is noticeable, however, that the generic use in the plural takes zero article, by way of contrast with the generic use in the singular:

(41) The telephone is useful in business.
(42) Telephones are useful in business.

Grammarians have observed that a modifying adjective or adjectival phrase juxtaposed to the
noun may call into play the use of the article, and one might presume from this that an adjective forces the use of article. This is not the case; but it is the representation sought by the speaker that causes the use of article and rules cannot be deduced from the presence or absence of modifiers in the sentence.

From the point of view of representation it may be observed that the adjective has a different effect upon the noun significate, if this latter is modified by the use of an article from what it has if there is no article.

When there is no article with the common noun, the force of any modifier acts upon the qualitative view of the noun significate; when there is a definite article, the modifier affects the quantitative view of the significate:

Singular -

(43) Fresh fish is hard to obtain.
    (non-numerical, generic)

(44) The fresh fish we had yesterday ....
    (non-numerical, anaphoric)

(45) The fresh fish was a cod, the stale one was a halibut.
    (numerical)

Plural -

(46) Young horses are put out to graze.
    (generic)

(47) The young horses are put out to graze.
    (anaphoric)

With the exception of a/an and much, other
Determiners are used with plural nouns; for example:

(48) Many rugs
(49) A few elephants
(50) Several houses

Much is used only with the uncountable or mass nouns which take the same form in both singular and plural.

Zero article has got semantic relation with the head. In the 'generic' use zero article is used with the head in a Noun Phrase.

For example:

(51a) Some cigarettes are in the desk.
(51b) Cigarettes cause cancer.
(52a) The candy is delicious.
(52b) Candy is hard on your teeth.

These nouns with zero articles seem to be generalizations about the whole class of objects they refer to. The zero article, and the determiners some (unstressed), any (unstressed), and enough can occur only with plural count and non-count nouns.

In generic reference both concrete and abstract non-count nouns, and plural count nouns are used with the zero article.

(53) He likes wine, cream, music, literature, games, long walks, etc.

But sometimes in the generic sense zero article is used with the head:

(54) "Tigers are dangerous animals."
Here the reference is generic, because here we think of the class 'tiger' without special reference to specific tigers. The generic reference is used in an English Noun Phrase to denote what is normal or typical of members of a class.

However the definite article 'a' is used in both specific and generic instance:

(55) A table is there in the corner. Here the 'table' is just 'one table'. But in

(56) "A table is a useful article", it is not 'just one table', rather it is a generic statement about 'tables'.

In the case of 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. Thus, in those cases where such an actual significate is sought for, the noun with article zero is satisfactory:

(57) Shakespeare died in 1616. But in cases where a more restricted sense is required, the articles or other determiners will be used.

(58) The Shakespeare of the sonnets.

(59) The young Shakespeare ....

In these cases the article 'a' cannot be used. Only in the satirical sense or sarcastically we say

(60) A Shakespeare has come to our house.

The same may also be used with the Proper Noun in metaphors. Metaphorically we can say that
He is a Shakespeare.
Likewise we can also say,

He is the Shakespeare of the twentieth century theatre, (its greatest dramatist).

Here the usage is a stylistic trick.

In an English Noun Phrase there is semantic relation between an article and the head noun. The noun without article represents a concrete reality, a mass word. But the noun added to an article represents a class-word.

'the Oak' expresses a concept that is numerical and has a form, that of a tree. It can be multiplied to form a plural. But 'Oak' is non-numerical, formless, it represents simply material (in this case 'wood'). It cannot be multiplied to form a plural.

The article a is necessary in the usage that requires a representation of a single entity, individual or generic. Proper nouns naming in common more than one person: Mr. Jones, Mr. Smith etc., are normally used without any article. When we add an article and say:

A Mr. Jones came to our house,
the article means a certain Mr. Jones. We may also make a generic use of this same noun by using the same indefinite article 'a':

'A Mr. Jones would be a useful addition to any enterprise'.

In a similar fashion we may add the definite article to such a noun and say:
But any generic use with the definite article seems to be out of question.

(65) The Mr. Jones is a useful addition to any enterprise.

The article 'the' can be used with both singular and plural head nouns:

(66) the room,
(67) the rooms.

Other determiners such as Possessives [my, our etc. and whose, which (ever), what (ever)] and indefinites like any (stressed), some (stressed), no can occur with both singular and plural heads and also with non-count noun heads. For example,

(69) Mamun's doll
    Mamun's dolls
    Mamun's furniture

(70) any boy
    any boys
    any furniture

(71) whose book
    whose books
    whose furniture
Some toy dog
Some toy dogs
Some experience

No girl
No girls
No light

The following determiners can occur with singular heads:

Little, each, that, this, every, either,

neither, etc.

For example:

little hope
little hopes

each person
each persons

every man
every men

either book
either books

neither girl
neither girls

However any and mere can go with both singular and plural heads in such sentences:

Are there any students in the class?
They are all mere children.
Again the above mentioned determiners except the demonstratives occur only with the count nouns whereas the singular demonstratives can occur with non-count nouns also.

For example:

(81) this | furniture (dem(sing)+ non-count head)
that

(82) a/an every each
* either furniture
neither these
those

Determiners like many, all, both, few, some, these, those, several can occur only with plural heads.

For example:

(83) All the linguists were hanged.
(84) Both the doors need repair.
(85) He has written some papers.
(86) Few men can do such work.
(87) Several people tried for this.
(88) Many hours were spent over this project.

Although such goes with plural heads, when it functions as a pre-determiner and is followed by 'a' the head becomes singular.

For example:

(89) Such beautiful girls'
but
(90) Such a beautiful girl.
If the determiner 'other' is preceded by 'the' then it goes with singular heads. Similarly if 'certain' is preceded by 'a' it too goes with singular heads.

For example:

(91) Other day.
    The other day.
(92) Certain events.
    A certain event.

The following determiners can go with singular heads if the 'head' is an abstract mass or material noun: all, enough, little, less, more etc.

For example:

(93) Little money was left after the work.
(94) I want some more water.
(95) I need enough courage.
(96) This jar contains less milk.

In some cases in respect of gender also English Noun Phrase maintains a concord between the modifier and the head. The demonstrative 'which' is used only with the individualised 'head' whereas 'what' is used with the non-individualised head in an interrogative sentence.

For example:

(97) Which Pandit's theory is this?

Of the numerals all the cardinals except one go with plural count noun heads. Whenever they occur as one of the modifiers, those modifiers which cannot go with plural heads are automatically excluded.
For example:

(98a) The four black cars.
(98b) *That four black cars.

One goes with singular heads, and cannot co-occur with those modifiers which go only with the plural ones.

For example:

(99) One sister
(100) All the three babies
(101) *All the one baby

Added to numbers from one upwards a half co-occurs with plural nouns:

(102) One and a half days.

The ordinals are singular, and when they occur with other modifiers which are not specifically plural, they go with singular heads.

For example:

(103) My first daughter
(104) His only daughter
(105) Her twenty-third birth-day
(106) The third beautiful girl

When occurring with other modifiers which are specifically plural, the ordinals too go with plural heads.

For example:

(107) The first two months.
(108) Many second daughters of English noblemen.
The Emphatics only can go with both singular and plural heads:

(109) My only hope.
(110) Only two boys.

The Emphatics many, a (few) and several co-occur only with plural count-nouns:

(111) The few words he spoke were well chosen.

Whereas much and a (little) co-occur only with non-count nouns:

(112) There hasn't been much good weather recently.

The quantifier enough is used with both count and non-count nouns:

(113) There are (not) enough chairs.
(114) There is (not) enough furniture.

Phrasal quantifiers generally occur with non-count nouns:

(115) a great deal of money
a good deal of
a large quality of
a large amount of

or to plural count nouns:

(116) a great number of students
a large number of
a good number of

But there are some which can co-occur equally with non-count and plural count nouns.
For example:

(117)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrasal quantifiers</th>
<th>Nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plenty of</td>
<td>students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a lot of</td>
<td>furniture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lots of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of course these phrasal quantifiers (especially lots of) are chiefly used informally and plenty of is stylistically neutral in the sense 'sufficient'.

All the epithets and nominal modifiers can go with both singular and plural heads. A few examples are given below:

(118a) fine painting (epi+head(sing))
(118b) fine paintings (epi+head(pl.))
(119a) wounded soldier (epi+head(sing))
(119b) wounded soldiers (epi+head(pl.))
(120a) stone wall (nom+head(sing))
(120b) stone walls (nom+head(pl.))
(121a) wood chair (nom+head(sing))
(121b) wood chairs (nom+head(pl.))

In noun premodification plural nouns usually become singular, even those that otherwise have no singular form.

(122) 'The trouser leg' (= The leg of the trouser)

Pre-determiners occur only with plural nouns.
For example:

(123) Both the toys
(124) Half the men
(125) All the toys

But when they take the of construction all and half can also occur with non-count nouns.

(126) all (of) the meat
(127) half (of) the time

Some pre-determiners like some of, many of, most of, one of, two of can occur only with plural nouns.

(128) Some of the boys
(129) Many of the boys
(130) One of the boys
(131) Two of the ten boys
(132) Most of the boys,

whereas some like double, twice, three/four...times etc. occur with non-count and plural count nouns and with singular count nouns denoting number, amount etc.

For example:

(133) double their salaries
(134) twice his strength
(135) three times this amount

Sometimes the pre-determiners three/four... etc. times as well as once co-occurring with the determiners a, every, each and less commonly, per can take a temporal noun as head:
Fractionals like one-third, two-fifths, three-quarters etc. can co-occur with non-count and with singular and plural count nouns.

The sub-modifiers or intensifiers can go with both singular and plural heads.

(137a) Very beautiful girl.
(137b) Very beautiful girls.

But when the sub-modifier so and interrogative and exclamatory intensifier how precede the indefinite article, they require the noun phrase to contain a gradable adjective and the head of the Noun Phrase to be a singular countable noun. Of course, in this process the adjective precedes the article:

(138) so big a fool.
(139) so nice a boy.

The sub-modifier rather, requires the head to be a singular count noun and gradable.

(140) It was rather a mess.

Relative clauses often serve as post-head modifiers in an English Noun Phrase. In these clauses the personal pronoun has to agree with the head of the noun phrase.

(141) I saw the man whom your mother knows.
(142) I met the man who knows your mother.
(143) I saw the tree which you told me about.
(144) I saw the tree that you told me about.
(145) We visited the place where they grow pepper.
(146) I remember the day when we met for the first time.

In the case of post posed adjectives in an English Noun Phrase the adjectives need generally to be 'permanent' and hence eligible equally for attributive and predicative use while used with the indefinite pronouns. Thus,

(147a) Somebody timid
(147b) Somebody afraid

Like wise, the past-participle modifiers in premodification must either have permanent reference or be adverbially modified:

(148) a married man.
(149) a newly-born child.

In some cases of discontinuous modification the prepositional phrases, though seem to have concord with the head, actually do not relate to the head, rather they relate to the premodifying adjectives. Thus,

(150) Comparable facilities to ours
     (= facilities comparable to ours).
(151) Different production figures from those given earlier (= production figures different from those given earlier).
The modifiers which are specifically singular (like each, every, that, this, either, neither) do not co-occur with those which are specifically plural (all, both, few, many, etc.). However, many can co-occur with a in such constructions as

1. **'Many a day'**
2. **'Many a person'**

Similarly, 'a' can co-occur with few in such constructions as

3. **'a few days'**
4. **All the boys**
5. **Both the girls**
6. **All those men**
7. **All of his money**
8. **Both of the eggs**
9. **Each of his sons**
10. **Half of my income**

In such constructions many a and a few can be treated as one item (determiner) the former being singular and the latter plural. The four categories of determiners, viz., articles, demonstratives, possessives/genitivals and other determiners are actually exclusive except all, both, each and half. These, with or without of can precede possessives/genitivals and other determiners; and when they do so, they function as pre-determiners.
In such cases the items concerned, with or without of, are considered as pre-determiners for the sake of economy and convenience.

Thus, all, both and half have of-constructions, which are optional with nouns and obligatory with personal pronouns:
(11) all(of) the meat
(12) both(of) the students
(13) half(of) the time

but,
(14) all of it
(15) both of them
(16) half of it

'All' is rare with concrete count nouns:
(17) I haven't used all the pencil, though it is less rare with contrastive stress:
(18) I haven't read all the book, where book is treated as a kind of divisible mass.

The normal construction would be
(19) all of the book or
(20) the whole book

Before certain temporal nouns, and especially in adjunct phrases, all is often used with the zero article:
(21) "I haven't seen him all day".

The inclusive, positive, singular non-individualised every can also co-occur with possessives, as in
(22) "His every word" (= each of his words).
Thus also we find each and every are mutually exclusive in the English Noun Phrase:

(23) "Each and every man may try twice".

Post-modification by an of-phrase usually requires the definite article with a head noun, which thus has limited generic (partitive) reference:

(24) He likes the wine the music of France
the lakes

Theoretically there is no restriction on the occurrence of other categories of modifiers in the English Noun Phrase. In fact, it is very common to have a number of them co-occurring in a single Noun Phrase, as indicated below:

(25) The two old crumbling stone pillars.

Of course some modifiers in English are mutually exclusive and thus they cannot occur at the same time. As for example, the occurrence of the referential 'same' in a Noun Phrase excludes the reference of 'other', e.g.,

(26) One same beautiful picture.

(27) * One same other beautiful picture.

The intensifier generally immediately precedes an adjective (and the adverb ending in 'ly') in a sentence.

(28) The very readable book.
(29) The book is very readable
    quite
    rather
    somewhat
    too
    so.

(30) He understands very quickly
    quite
    rather
    somewhat
    too
    so.

The intensifier very may also occur before
inflectional superlatives.

(31) 'the very best'.

But in that case it always takes a determiner.

(32) her very best dress.

Intensifying phrases like by far may also occur with
comparatives and superlatives as in

(33) funnier/funniest by far.

The Enumeratives can co-occur with the
zero article.
For example:

(34) Several trays of cups of tea.

Such constructions do not permit a the following of.

Emphatics co-occur with a the in a Noun
Phrase in definite constructions.
Thus,

(35) Few people will believe you.
(36) The few books that I have are ...

Quantifiers are mutually exclusive with one another regarding their occurrence in an English Noun Phrase.

For example:

(37a) The several books ....
(37b) The two several books ...(card. + Emph.)
(38a) A mere boy
(38b) Two mere boys

Possessives and some genitivals (signifying humans) are also mutually exclusive in the English Noun Phrase:

(39) * His Mohan's house
(40) * Mohan's his house
(41) His house
(42) Mohan's house
(43) His son's house
(44) His garden's apple .