CHAPTER FOUR

The Word Order in Sinhala

4.0. Preliminaries

Languages in the world are classified according to their most typical syntactic structures. Greenberg (1963: 73-113) while considering the characteristics of different languages, divides them into three principal order types:

Type 1. VSO (Verb, subject and object)
Type 2. SVO (Subject, verb and object)
Type 3. SOV (Subject, object and verb)

Sinhala provides evidence for being classified as type 3. Indo –Aryan and Dravidian have the same order type.

a. guruʋəɾəyə  potə  liyəɾəʋa

The teacher-S the book-O writes-V-

The teacher writes the book

“The basic word order in Sinhala remains as SOV, but this order may vary depending upon the context and the focus” (Gair 2003:788).

Thus, a simple SOV sentence like a can undergo changes as in the sentences 1(b, c, d)

b. kumaɾə  potə  kiyəɾəʋa

Kuma:ra –S the book-O reads-V-

Kumara reads the book
The following utterance is less dominant in Sinhala.

e. kiyəənaəa pọtə kuməra

reads-V-Pres the book-O Kumara –S

Kumara reads the book

This chapter deals with the word order in Sinhala at the phrase level clause level and the sentence level.

4.1. The Word Order at the Phrase Level

A phrase which is called in Sinhala /padəkæti/ is a group of words which form a grammatical unit. The essential phrase structure in Sinhala could be depicted in the following way.
In the above representation of the NP, the H is an obligatory element. The Det /saməharə /some functions as the premodifier of the H. The relationship between the constituent within the NP determines the word order in it. The same is applicable to the other phrases such as the adjectival phrase, the verb phrase, the adverbial phrase and the postpositional phrase as well.

4.1.1. The Noun Phrase

The functioning unit in Sinhala that is equivalent to the English noun is known as the /naːmapada/. The following table shows the inflection of the stem /minis/ in cases.
### Table: 4.1.
**Inflection of a stem**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem /minis/ (Animate)</th>
<th>Definite- Singular</th>
<th>Indefinite-Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nominative</strong></td>
<td>miniha</td>
<td>minihek</td>
<td>minissu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(the man)</td>
<td>( a man)</td>
<td>(men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accusative</strong></td>
<td>miniha</td>
<td>miniheku</td>
<td>minissun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(the man)</td>
<td>(a man)</td>
<td>(men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dative</strong></td>
<td>minihaʈə</td>
<td>minihekuʈə</td>
<td>minissunʈə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to the man)</td>
<td>(to a man)</td>
<td>(to men)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Genitive</strong></td>
<td>minihage</td>
<td>minihekuge</td>
<td>minissunge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(the man’s)</td>
<td>(a man’s)</td>
<td>(men’s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Instrumental**       | minihagen          | minihekuge          | minissunge
| (from the man)         | (from a man)       | (from men)          |        |

Source: Prepared by the researcher

Weerakoon notes:

The characteristics of the Sinhala N are that in its definite form is not marked. Only the indefinite singular noun is marked (1982: 16).

To show the indefiniteness of nouns, the suffixes /ek, ak/ are used with animate nouns and /ak/ with inanimate nouns. /minihek/ (Masculine Gender) /gaḥəniyak/ (Feminine Gender) /gahak/ (Neuter Gender).

“The smallest unit within which the noun operates is the “noun phrase” (Weerakoon 1982:2).

The basic structure of a noun phrase is as follows. The items which can occur before and /or after the head noun can have the following orders.
4.1.1.1. The Modifiers in the Noun Phrase

They are of two types: premodifiers and post modifiers.

- **Premodifiers**

Premodifiers normally occur before the H in an NP. They are as follows:

- **Noun**

According to Kariyakarawana (1998:27) being a head –final language, the complements and modifiers of which appear to the left of their heads. The right headness and the left branching nature are evident in Sinhala as follows.

A noun can function as a premodifier in an NP.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
(M(s)) & H & (M(s)) \\
\mid & \mid & \mid \\
N & N & Adj \\
\mid & \mid & \mid \\
Det & Pron & Ee \\
\mid & \mid & \mid \\
Adj & Nu & Podet (CN) \\
\mid & \mid & \mid \\
Intf & & \\
\mid & \mid & \\
Claf & & \\
\end{array}
\]

a. **oyerə gedara vistara**

his - PreM home- PreM details-H

his home details

b. **game:** **minissu**

village-Gen-PreM people-H

village people
• **Determiners**

They can be classified as:

  i. Predeterminers: /okkomə /All/e:vage:/such

Central determiners: The demonstratives like: /me:/ this /arə/ that are used as Cdet. Gair (1966: 44) classifies the demonstrative particles as first proximal: /me:/ (proximity to the speaker), second proximal: /oyə/ (Proximity to the hearer), Distal: /arə/ (Away from both speaker and hearer), and anaphoric: /e:/ (Reference to something preceding in the discourse). The interrogative determiners /monə/ what, /ka:ge/ or /moka:ge/ whose, the Wh determiners with particle /hari/ ( /kavuru hari/ whoever /mokak hari/ whichever are also used as Cdet.

  ii. Postdeterminers are numbers. Numbers are cardinal and ordinal:

**Cardinals:**

/eka/ekak/ekkenek/ek/ekiyak/one/dekə/dekak/dennek/denna/ two
/tunə/ tunak/ tundenek/ tunden: / three

**Ordinals:**

/paləveni/ first /deveni/second /tunveni/ third

• **The Word Order of Predeterminers in an NP**

The Predets like /okkomə /All/e:vage:/such precede the H.

```
a. okkomə    minissu
    |       |     |       |
    | all  | –Predet | men-H |
    | all men | (people) |
```
b. $\text{eːvage;}$ puduməyak

\[\text{such} \quad \text{Predet} \quad \text{surprise} \quad \text{H}\]

such a surprise

The frequent word order of these NPs is predet+H. But / okkomə /All and /eːvage: / such can occur after the head.

a. minissu okkomə

\[\text{men} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{all} \quad \text{Predet}\]

all men (people)

b. puduməyak $\text{eːvage;}$

\[\text{surprise} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{such} \quad \text{Predet}\]

such a surprise

- **The Word Order of Central Determiners (Cdet) in an NP**

Noun phrases with demonstratives as Cdet also appear in Sinhala in varying forms as follows.

a. $\text{me;}$ ləməya

\[\text{this} \quad \text{Cdet} \quad \text{child} \quad \text{H}\]

this child
/me:/ this when it functions as a demonstrative adjective, occurs before the noun and any adjective just as in English.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{b. } & \text{ me: buddhimə} \quad \text{laməya} \\
& \text{this-PreM intelligent-PreM boy-H} \\
\text{this intelligent boy}
\end{align*}
\]

However, because stative verbs are not indispensable in Sinhala to give a complete meaning, /me:/ can also mean This is. In such a context /me:/ can occur in different positions as in example c.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{c. } & \text{ buddhimə} \quad \text{laməya} \quad \text{me:} \\
& \text{intelligent- PreM child-H this -Cdet} \\
\text{this is the intelligent child}
\end{align*}
\]

The Cdet /əra:/ that and /e:/ that are also used as premodifiers in a noun phrase. Gair notes:

In fact the distinction between /əra:/ and /e:/ is somewhat blurred in current use, and both may generally be used in either the near neither you nor me (1966: 44).

As Weerakoon observes (1982:24) the deictics /e:/ and /əra:/ are used for anaphoric reference.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{d. } & \text{ arə} \quad \text{laməya} \\
& \text{that- Cdet child-H} \\
\text{that child}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{e. } & \text{ e: laməya} \\
& \text{}
\end{align*}
\]
Fernando notes:


a. kɔvi  ɭaməya

which - Cdet  child-H

which child

b. kəʋəda  ɭaməyek

certain -Cdet  child-H

a certain child

Following are also various kinds of noun phrases with Cdet as modifiers.

(1)a. ʂaməhara  minissu

some -Cdet  people-H

some people

b. minissu  ʂaməharak

people-H  some -Cdet

some people
(2).  **onæma** bAllek

| any-Cdet | dog-H |
| any        | dog  |

(3).  **hæmæ** bAllama

| every-Cdet | dog-H |
| every      | dog  |

(4).  **ekæ ekæ** bAllæ

| each-Cdet | dog-H |
| each      | dog  |

(5)a.  bAllo  **okkoma**

| dog-Pl-H | all -Cdet |
| all      | dogs      |

b.  **okkoma** bAllo

| all -Cdet | dog-pl-H |
| all dogs   |

Although the word order pattern is fixed in the noun phrases in Sinhala, it may indicate variations due to the need of putting emphasis by the speaker. According to Gair (1970:54) in order to give a prominent place
to a certain form of the noun phrase, the speaker may transform one part and put it at another place which is quite contrary to the normal pattern of the language. This process is known as focus transformation.

Accordingly, this process may take place when the speaker intends to give more emphasis to one part of the phrase than the other. Examples (1) a and b and (5) a and b show the flexible word order in noun phrases while (2), (3) and (4) show the fixed word order in them.

Sometimes, when the word order changes in Sinhala, there is a change in the inflection being used.

\[
\text{saməharə} \rightarrow \text{saməharak}
\]

\[
\text{a. saməharə minissu} \\
\text{some-Cdet people-H} \\
\text{some people}
\]

\[
\text{b. minissu saməharak} \\
\text{people-H some-Cdet} \\
\text{some people}
\]

- **Postdeterminers(Podet)**

The ordinals in Sinhala as Podet follow the Cdet and occur as PreM.

\[
\text{a. me: paləveni žaməya} \\
\text{this-Cdet first-Podet-PreM H} \\
\text{this first child}
\]
b. samhara deveni gae:nu

some -Cdet second -Podet-PreM wife-Pl

some second wives

The cardinals /eka/ekak/ekkenek/ekak/ekiyak/ one/deka/dekak/dennek /denna/two/tuna/ tunak/ tundenek/ tundena: three occurs as postmodifiers in noun phrases.

The cardinals /eka/ekak/ one /deka/dekak/ two /tuna/ tunak/ three etc are used as PoM with inanimate nouns.

me: gas deka

these-Cdet tree-H two- Podet

these two trees

The cardinals /ekkenek/ekek/ one and /dennek/denna/ two are used as PoM with animate nouns.

a. minissu ekkenek

man-Pl -H one-PoM

one man

b. kollo ekek

lad-Pl-H one-PoM

one lad
The cardinal numbers /ekkenek/ekek/ denotes the singular meaning. But they occur as PoM of plural nouns as in a and b.

According to Gair (1970:28-30) being an inflectional language most nouns in Sinhala inflect for definiteness and number nouns show inflection for four cases. The numerals in Sinhala agree with the noun in gender and carries case and definiteness inflection for the phrase.

Gunasekara notes:

The adjective both is expressed in Sinhala by the synonyms /denna/ or /dedena/ with animate nouns and in the case of inanimate nouns the word /deka/ is used with the emphasizing particle /mə/ affixed (1962: 141).
a. **pirimi** dennama

\[
\text{men-}N \quad \text{two-PoM}
\]

two men

b. gas **dekəmə**

\[
\text{trees-} N \quad \text{two-PoM}
\]

the two trees

The occurrence of these adjectives as PreM leads to the change of the meaning of the whole phrases.

c. **dennama** pirimi

\[
\text{two-PreM} \quad \text{men-}H
\]

two men

d. **dekəmə** gas

\[
\text{two-PreM} \quad \text{trees-} H
\]

the two trees

Since the focus will lay on the numeral modifiers /dennama/ and /dekəmə/, they imply the meaning that two are men not women, as well as two are trees respectively. According to Hawkins (1983:13) “doubling”, the situation in which one and the same modifier category
(e.g. the adjectives) can occur both before and after its head in a given language. But as in the examples c, d in spoken Sinhala the “doubling” (changing of the position of the adjectives) is not frequently possible without changing the meaning. It should be noted that these examples show that the word order in a phrase and the meaning of it is inseparably interrelated.

The closed –class quantifiers /go ak/ man/cvídha/ several occur only with plural count and noncount nouns: /go ak minissu/ many people /cvídha minissu/ several people /go ak værə/ many mistakes /tikak/ a little occur only with non count nouns: /tikak salli/ a little money/go ak salli/ much money.

- The Word Order of an Adj in an NP as a Modifier

Nouns have the privilege of occurrence as the head in attributive construction in noun phrases with adjectives and interrogative demonstratives preceding nouns as well as the subject of a verbal predicatör. According to Greenberg (1966:78), in languages with postpositions the adjectives precede nominal. Sinhala follows this pattern.

- Adj as a premodifier(PreM)

| a. narəkə | miniha |
| bad -PreM | man - H |
| bad | man |

| b. alu | gedərə |
| new -PreM | house - H |
c. **narəkə vəɛə**

*bad-PreM  work-H*

the bad work

d. **meː poτə**

*this -PreM  book-H*

this book

In the noun phrase /alut gedərə/, the common word order of PreM+ H can be changed as H+PreM making it a sentence as /gedərə alut/ as is possible in spoken Sinhala but the focus will lay on the adjective /alut/. It is clear that some phrases with an unmarked word order have deviant order. However, the occurrence of /vəɛə narəkə/ can be seen in /vəɛə narəkə minissu/ Men with bad activity. In this case, the entire phrase /vəɛə narəkə/ occurs as a modifier of /minissu/ men.

The quantifying adjectives of Sinhala like /madi/ not enough /və[i]/ too much occur as PreM.

The quantifying adjective /və[i]/ occurs as PreM.

**və[i]  poτ**

*too many -PreM  books-H*

too many books
Classifiers:

Classifiers such as color, are normally used in the initial position of the NP as PreM as in a but words of measuring like /græ:m/kilo:/ occur normally at the end position as PoM as in b.

a.  

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{ratu} & \text{pa:td} & \text{mal}\text{\textalpha} \\
\text{red} & \text{-PreM} & \text{color-Q-PreM} & \text{flower-H} \\
\end{array}
\]

the red color flower

In this phrase the noun /mal\textalpha/ functions as the head of the phrase changing the word order as /mal\textalpha ratu pa:td/ makes the meaning somewhat odd.

b.  

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{si:ni} & \text{græ:m} & \text{si:ya}\text{k} \\
\text{suger-H} & \text{gram} & \text{hundred-PoM} \\
\end{array}
\]

hundred grams of sugar

However, since the H /si:ni/ can be transferred to the end of the sentence, the deviant word order would be as:

b.  

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{græ:m} & \text{si:ya}\text{k} & \text{si:ni} \\
\text{gram-PreM} & \text{hundreds-PreM} & \text{suger-H} \\
\end{array}
\]

hundred grams of sugar

The proper nouns functioning as the head of the noun phrases can have modifiers as in the following phrase.

The NP as in c implies that Nimal is from the Southern Part and the focus will lie on the head Nimal. In case of changing the order as shown
in d the meaning remains unchanged though the focus will be on the modifier /dakune/.

\[
c. \text{dakune} \quad \text{nimal} \\
\text{Southern- PreM} \quad \text{Nimal-H}
\]

Nimal is from the Southern Part

\[
d. \text{nimal} \quad \text{dakune} \\
\text{Nimal-H} \quad \text{Southern- PoM}
\]

Nimal is from the Southern Part

- An Adj can occur as PreM with Cdet

\[
a. \text{me:} \quad \text{ratu} \quad \text{malə} \\
\text{this-Cdet} \quad \text{red- PreM} \quad \text{flower- H}
\]

this red flower

- More than one Adj can occur as PreMs

\[
b. \text{me:} \quad \text{koṭə} \quad \text{ratu} \quad \text{kamisayə} \\
\text{this-Cdet} \quad \text{short-PreM} \quad \text{red-PreM} \quad \text{shirt-H}
\]

this red short shirt

- An Intf, Adj and also Claf occur as premodifying elements

\[
a. \text{me:} \quad \text{hari} \quad \text{narəkə} \quad \text{miniha}
\]
**The Word Order in a Genitive as a Modifier**

This construction can have two possible orders: one in which the genitive precedes the noun and functions as the PreM, the other in which the genitive follows the noun as a PoM determining the word order as PreM+H and H+PoM respectively as follows:

- **a.** `lamāvage`  `potə`
  
  child’s-PreM   book-H

  child’s book

- **b.** `potə`  `lamāvage`
  
  book-H   child’s-PoM

  child’s book

In Sinhala, group genitive is also possible as a way of multi determination.

- **taːttage**  `loku _mallige`  `puta:`

  father’s-PreM   younger brother’s-PreM   son-H

  father’s younger brother’s son

**The Word Order of a Participle Verb as a Modifier**
• The participle forms as a PreM
The present and past participle verbs can occur as PreMs in NPs with a very rigid word order.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a.  nidənə</th>
<th>laməya</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sleeping</td>
<td>child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PreM</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

the sleeping child

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>b.  paːta kələ</th>
<th>pintu:rayə</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>colored</td>
<td>picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PreM</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

colored picture

• Emphatic elements:
In noun phrases in Sinhala, the post position /mə/ emphasizes the noun with a very rigid word order as shown below.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a.  oya: ma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your own</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

you yourself

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>b. oya:ge ma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>your own</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

your own

4.1.1.2. The Extended Noun Phrase
As compared with the structure of the simple NPs, the structure of the extended NPs is more complex. The possible structures are as follows.

i. The H with a Pop as PreM

ii. The H with more than one PreM

iii. The H with a clause as PreM

iv. The compound H with PreM

i. The H with a Pop as PreM

a. me:se u[]a potə

\[\text{table on-PreM the book -H}\]

the book on the table

b. gaha yafə bo:le

\[\text{tree under-PreM ball-H}\]

The ball under the tree

ii. The H with more than one PreM

When more elements are combined in a noun phrase while the head functions as the main entity, the modifiers precede it. In other words, Sinhala is a head final language that the noun follows its complements and heads the noun phrase.

a. minihage loku poto: ekak

\[\text{man-G-PreM largePreM- photo one-H}\]

the man’s large photograph

The word order cannot be changed in this phrase since there is hardly any utterance in spoken Sinhala as /photo: ekak minihage loku/. If the
word order changes, as in b, it could bring about both meaning as *The photograph of the big man* and *The big man’s photograph*.

b. loku    minihage *potoː ekak*

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>large-PreM</td>
<td>man-preM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-photo</td>
<td>one-H</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

the big man’s photograph

Some noun phrases with the head in locative case also have a fixed word order.

a. u̞ə    ænde

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>upper-PreM</td>
<td>bed-Loc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

on the upper bed

In a long noun phrase like b change of word order is not possible as in c.

b. u̞ə    loku    ænde:

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>upper-PreM</td>
<td>big-PreM</td>
<td>bed -H</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

on the big upper bed

*c. ænde:    loku    u̞ə

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bed –Loc</td>
<td>big-PoM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>upper-PoM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

on the big upper bed

iii. *The H with a Clause as PreM*
In an extended noun phrase in Sinhala, the clause occurs as a PreM.

\[
\text{a. barə nindəkə inə ķaməyə } \\
\text{deep-PreM sleep-PreM keeping-PreM child-H } \\
\text{Cl}
\]

the child who is in a deep sleep

\[
\text{b. barə kətaːnəkə inə təttai pu təi } \\
\text{deep-PreM talk-PreM keep-PreM father and son -CH } \\
\text{Cl}
\]

father and son who are in a serious talk

In a construction of this kind, the deviant form of word order is not possible in spoken Sinhala.

**iv. The Compound H with PreM**

\[
\text{a. ita: āvəŋkə ammayi tə: təyi } \\
\text{very _PreM honest-PreM father and mother-CH } \\
\text{very honest father and mother}
\]

\[
\text{b. hari usə gə:nyi minihayi } \\
\text{very-PreM tall- PreM woman and man-CH } \\
\text{very tall man and woman}
\]
An apposition occurs as PreM as well as PoM.

a. *pere:ra* , *mage*: *ya:luva*

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>perera- <em>H</em></td>
<td>my-PoM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friend-PoM</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Perera, my friend*

b. *mage*: *ya:luva* , *pere:ra*

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>my-PreM</td>
<td>friend -PreM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perera- <em>H</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*my friend ,Perera*

However, in example b, the PreM / mage: *ya:luva* my friend is emphasized.

4.1.2. The Adjectival Phrase

Adjectives which modify nouns are normally placed before a noun in the structure of a noun phrase both in spoken and written Sinhala.

According to Hawkins (1983:2) languages tend to place these kind of modifying elements either consistently before or consistently after modified elements or heads. This is called the basic word order.

According to Renolds (1980:136) adjectives in colloquial Sinhala are not a “recognizable formal class” and that adjectives are the stem of form of nouns. Heenadeerage notes:

Some forms cannot be morphologically distinguished as to whether they should be classified as nouns or adjectives (or even post positions); in other words some lexical items may be used as nouns and adjectives without the need of a derivational suffix (2002:153).
The word /hayiyə/ (strength/strong) for example occurs as a noun as well as an adjective.

\[
\begin{align*}
a. \text{ kambe} & \quad \text{ hayiva} \\
\text{ rope-Loc-PreM} & \quad \text{ strength-N} \\
\text{ the strength of the rope}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
b. \text{ hayiva} & \quad \text{ kambe} \\
\text{ strong-Adj} & \quad \text{ rope-N} \\
\text{ the strong rope}
\end{align*}
\]

According to Heenadeerage (2002: 154) it is apparent that distinguishing adjectives from nouns is difficult as they occur in the same order of predicate provided that sometimes meaning depends on syntactic features of the language.

\[
\begin{align*}
a. \text{ usə} & \quad \text{ gaha} \\
\text{ tall-Adj} & \quad \text{ tree-N} \\
\text{ the tall tree}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
b. \text{ gaha} & \quad \text{ usavi} \\
\text{ tree-N} & \quad \text{ tall-Adj} \\
\text{ the tree is tall}
\end{align*}
\]
According to Heenadeerage (2002: 154) the assertion marker /yi/ in example b is not a morphological marker that can distinguish adjectival form from nominal forms.

According to Gair (1970:39) the distribution of assertion marker /yi/ is restricted, and it can only be suffixed to vowel-ending adjectival forms.

Weerakoon (1982: 280) highlights the close affinity between a verb and an adjective in Sinhala.

### Verbs | Adjectives
---|---
lassənayi | lassana -beautiful
honḍayi | honḍa -good

Weerakoon notes:

The verbs are distinguished by the presence of the morpheme /yi/, this semantically empty morpheme merely marks the end of a sentence i.e. it indicates that theses verbs have a fixed position at the end of the sentence (1982: 29).

The basic structure of an adjectival phrase in Sinhala and the order of items which can occur before and/ or after the H can be identified as follows.

\[(M(s)) \text{ H } (M(s))\]

- The H in an Adjp can be:

1. an Adj like /ama:ru/ difficult /narəkə/ bad

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{ṭikak} & \text{ama:ru} \\
\mid & \\
\text{a little } & \text{difficult } \\
\text{-PreM} & \text{- } H \\
\text{a little difficult}
\end{array}
\]
2. a noun

\[ \text{a.mə:sə} \quad \text{tunak} \quad \text{vəysə} \]

\[ \text{months-PreM} \quad \text{three-PreM} \quad \text{old-}H \]

three months old

3. a participle

\[ \text{dʊrə} \quad \text{gamɲ} \quad \text{dʊyə} \]

\[ \text{long-PreM} \quad \text{journey-PreM} \quad \text{running-}H \]

long journey running

- The PreM of an Adjp can be:

1. A determiner

\[ \text{a. tərəmak} \quad \text{paʃəsu} \]

\[ \text{rather-} \quad \text{PreM} \quad \text{comfortable-} \quad \text{H} \]

rather comfortable

2. a numeral

\[ \text{a. visi} \quad \text{avəruŋu} \]

\[ \text{twenty-PreM} \quad \text{years-} \quad \text{H} \]

twenty years
3. an intensifier

\[ \text{a.h\text{Ari}} \quad \text{hondə} \]
\[ \text{very -PreM} \quad \text{good - \text{H}} \]
\[ \text{very good} \]

\[ \text{b.itə:} \quad \text{l\text{Assəna}} \]
\[ \text{so -PreM} \quad \text{H-beautiful} \]
\[ \text{so beautiful} \]

\[ \text{c.h\text{Arima}} \quad \text{ama:ru} \]
\[ \text{extremely-PreM} \quad \text{difficult - \text{H}} \]
\[ \text{extremely difficult} \]

- **The PoM in an Adjp can be:**

1. An adjective

\[ \text{vətə} \quad \text{pahala} \]
\[ \text{garden - \text{H}} \quad \text{below - PoM} \]
\[ \text{below the garden} \]

- **The function of an Adjp**

An Adjp can function:

1. attributively as a PreM of an N in an NP
very-PreM  tough-PreM  tacher-H
very tough teacher

very-PreM  famous-PreM  person-H
very famous person

No movement is possible within these phrases since there is a fixed word order but at the clause level it can be changed determining the word order flexible.

He is a very famous one

But there is a restriction in changing the word order as:

He is a very famous one

* c. kenek  prəsiddhə  eya:  goəːk

* eya:  goəːk  prəsiddhə  kenek

He is a very famous one

2. predicatively

In case of using an Adj predicatively the copula /yi/ which denotes the sense of a verb should be suffixed to the Adj.

a. guruʋərəya bohomə saɾəyi
   teacher-H very-PoM tough-PoM
   The teacher is very tough

b. me: gaha hari usayi
   this-PreM tree-H very-PoM tall- PoM
   This tree is very tall

Another characteristic of Sinhala that is typical of verb-final languages is that in comparative constructions, the order is standard of comparison (St) followed by the marker of comparison (M) followed by the adjective.

a. sunil nimalʋə caːa: usayi
   Sunil-N Nimal -N than-M tall-Adj
   Sunil is taller than Nimal
The standard is a noun phrase to which something is being compared, in a. the noun phrase /sunil/, and the adjective is /usa+yi/ tall (Adj+ copula) with the marker superlative case is /vaːːaː/ than combining with the standard and indicating that the standard is being compared with the other noun/nimal/. The marker is realized in different languages in various ways, by affixes or by separate words. In Sinhala, the marker /vaːːaː/ than is considered as a postposition.

However, it is apparent that distinguishing adjectives from nouns is difficult as they occur in the same order of predicate providing that sometimes meaning depends on semantic features of the language. It can be concluded that the rigidity of the word order in adjectival phrases depends on the semantic variations.

4.1.3. The Verb Phrase

This section will begin with the categorization of verb in Sinhala. Gair (1970: 5) has classified verbs in Colloquial Sinhala into three categories as Active, Passive, Causative. Volative verbs are referred to as active verbs while involative verbs are referred to as passive verbs.

The verbs with causative infixes /va/ are called causative verbs. The following table demonstrates the three categories of verbs in Colloquial Sinhala.
### Table: 4.2.

**Three Categories of Verb in Sinhala**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volative verbs</th>
<th>Causative verbs</th>
<th>Involative verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Active verb)</td>
<td>(Passive verb)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>kapayi</strong> (cut)</td>
<td><strong>kapə̄rayi</strong> (get cut)</td>
<td><strong>kæpeyɪ/kæpenəva</strong> (being cut)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>liyayi</strong> (write)</td>
<td><strong>liyə̄rayi</strong> (get write)</td>
<td><strong>liyə̄veyi/liyə̄veva</strong> (being written)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>kə̄rəyi</strong> (do)</td>
<td><strong>kə̄rəcayi</strong> (get done)</td>
<td><strong>keryi/kerenəva</strong> (being done)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Gair 1970: 5)

On the basis of case marking in this involative constructions, Gunasingha (1985:50) argues that the colloquial Sinhala is an ergative type language.

According to Wickramasingha (1973:34) a verb phrase of a sentence must contain at least one verbal form; this is in contrast with the requirement that a nominal must appear in a noun phrase.

Therefore, the following diagram shows the constituents of a verb phrase.

```
S
 NP       VP
  lamə̄ya  ducə̄nəva
  the child runs
```

The verb *ducə̄nəva* *run* in this sentence does not take an object and it is known as an intransitive verb. The verbal form at this point consists of a stem and a suffix, in which case the suffix represents mainly the tense.
aspect of the corresponding verb. It should be noted that in Sinhala, the verb stem is followed by tense markers obligatorily and modals such as /puluʋaŋ, hækɨi / can etc.

a. mama ya+ naʋa -/yanəva/

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I–S</th>
<th>Stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

I go

b. maʈə yanna puluʋaŋ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I–Dat</th>
<th>go-Inf</th>
<th>can-Auxv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

I can go

The verbs like /æti/ have, /bæː/ impossible /næː/ not cannot inflect for neither case nor tense but are used in verb phrase.

a. vaeŋə kəranə geti

work do have-V

might have worked

b. vaeŋə kəranə bæː:

work do cannot-V

cannot work

In verb phrases, these verbs follow the infinitive form of the main verb. However, the word order of these verbs is free. (Example b and c)
In Sinhala, some verbs can function as main verbs as well as auxiliaries. For example, the verb /yanəva/-go can occur as a main verb as well as an auxiliary verb.

a. [amɔya] [gamətə] [yanəva]  
   the child-S village -O go -V  
   the child goes to the village

b. [amɔya] [yanəva] [gamətə]  
   the child-S go -V to the village -O  
   the child goes to the village

c. [yanəva] [amɔya] [gamətə]  
   go -V the child -S to the village -O  
   the child goes to the village

However, in case of using the verb /yanəva/ go as an auxiliary verb it creates word order restrictions as illustrated below.
The fixed word order of the verb phrase / vættena yanəva / -going to fall is Inf+Aux.

The other important construction in which there is rigidity in word order is called benefactive construction which involves a complex verb formation. A verb phrase of this kind involves a complex verb formation in which /denəva/ -give is added to the past participle form of the verb.

**a.** bedənəva -devide  ➞  beda: denəva - divide and give for someone

**b.** uyənəva -cook  ➞  uya: denəva - cook for someone

**c.** liyənəva -write  ➞  liya: denəva -write for someone- write a deed

Perfect participle forms of verbs are also used in Sinhala with a very rigid word order.

**kapə kapa:**  ➞  innəva

**cutting - Pres part**  ➞  **keep-Pres**

keep cutting

In case of emphasizing the main verb of this phrase, the word order of the phrase can be changed as:
innəva  kapə kapa:

keep-Pres  cutting
keep  cutting

According to Gair (1970: 46) the phrasal verb which is a composite form with a verb occurs as a final element and has a privilege of occurrence like those of single stem verb.

The word order of phrasal verbs in Sinhala is fixed since there is no permission for moving element in the phrase.

a. pat  kəranəva

appoint- Vol.Pres
appoint

b. pat  kərenəva

been appoint- InVol.Pres
been appointed

c. te:rum  gənnənəva

understand- Vol.Pres
understand

d. patan  gənnəva

begin- Vol.Pres
begin
e. *hamba venəva*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>meet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

f. *ninda yanəva*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sleeping</th>
<th>Vol.Pres</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sleeping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gunasekara notes:
The verb stems most commonly used as the second part of compounds are /karə/ -to do and /venə/ to be – a few other stems are also used (1965: 67).

a. *matak kərayi*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>remind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>remind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. *hamba venəva*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>meet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to De Silva (1976: 114) the compound verb and phrasal verb of Sinhala comprise various elements i.e. finite verbs, participle verbs, quasi verbs, negative verbs etc.
The rigidity in the word order and the head final nature of Sinhala is evident at the phrase level.

4.1.4. The Adverbial Phrase

The adverb named as /kriya:vise:sana/ in Sinhala is a constituent which modifies a verb.

The basic structure of an adverb phrase in Sinhala and the order of items which can occur before the H as PreM can be as follows.

\[(M(s)) \text{________________________ } H\]

The particles /naṭo/ vidiyaṭa/va -like, as are suffixed to adjectives and nouns to form the head of the adverbial phrases.

So, a head of an adverbial phrase can be:
i. an adverb

\[
\text{a. hari} \quad \text{ikmənəʈə} \\
\text{very-PreM quickly-H} \\
\text{very quickly}
\]

\[
\text{b. hongə} \quad \text{gæləpenəvidiyətə} \\
\text{very-PreM suitable way-H} \\
\text{very suitable way}
\]

ii. a noun

\[
\text{a. oĉĉəra} \quad \text{dura} \\
\text{so-PreM far away-H} \\
\text{so far away}
\]

\[
\text{b. i:ye} \quad \text{ræ:} \\
\text{yesterday -PreM night -H} \\
\text{Yesterday night}
\]

- The PreM of an Advp can be:

i. An intensifier

\[
\text{a. ita:} \quad \text{pirisiduvə} \\
\text{very -PrM clearly H} \\
\text{very clearly}
\]
b. hari ikmanəta

so -PreM quickly -H

so quickly

“In Sinhala the adverb is generally placed before the word which it modifies” (Gunasekara 1962: 300).

a. ka isarəva va ekaranaya
diligently -Advp work-V

work diligently

“The verb modifiers in SOV languages are placed after verbs” (Lehamann 1973: 47-66).

But in Sinhala the verb modifiers occur before and after the verb as in a and b.

b. va ekaranaya ka isarəva

work-V diligently -Advp

work diligently

The Function of an Advp

The adverbial phrases have various functions as described below.

Adverb phrases in Sinhala function as adjunct, conjunct, or disjunct. An adjunct is a basic structure of the clause or the sentence in which it occurs, and modifies the verb (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics 1985).
Perera admitted everything frankly

The underlined constituent in the above example functions as an adjunct and tells us about the manner of the action.

“There is a semantic function in adjuncts which can be classified as follows” (Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia).

- Temporal:
Temporal adjuncts establish when, for how long or how often a state or action happened or existed.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a.eya:} & \quad \text{iye} & \quad \text{ude} & \quad \text{a:v}\alpha \\
\text{he/she-S} & \quad \text{yesterday} & \quad \text{morning-Advp} & \quad \text{come-Past-V}
\end{align*}
\]

He arrived yesterday morning

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{b.eya:} & \quad \text{giyə avorugde} & \quad \text{singhələ} & \quad \text{igenagta} \\
\text{she-S} & \quad \text{last year-Advp} & \quad \text{Sinhala-O} & \quad \text{studied -V}
\end{align*}
\]

She studied Sinhala last year

In example a and b noun phrases /iye ude:/ Yesterday morning and /giyə avorugde/ last year function as disjunct (Temporal).

- Locative:
Locative adjuncts establish where, to where or from where a state or action happened or existed.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{malli} & \quad \text{puṭuve} & \quad \text{va:j i uma:}
\end{align*}
\]
Younger brother-S on the table-AdvP sat-V
Younger brother sat on the table

- Modicative:
  Modicative adjuncts establish how the action happens or the state existed, or modifying its scope.

  kella amaruven divuwa (manner)
  the lass-S with difficulty-AdvP ran-V
  The lass ran with difficulty

- Instrumental:
  Instrumental adjuncts establish the instrument of the action or state.

  guruvaraya pænen akuru liyanwa
  the teacher-S with the pen letters-AdvP writes-V
  The teacher writes letters with the pen

The word /pænen-with the pen functions as an adjunct (instrumental).
According to Roberts conjunct is not a part of the basic structure of the sentence. They show how what is said in the sentence containing the conjunct connects with what is said in another sentence or sentences. Conjunct adverbials are very loosely associated with the reset of the sentence (1986: 106).

This is applicable to understand the function of an adverb as conjunct in Sinhala.

kohomunat, ada desagune: honga næ

161
However, today the weather is not good

Roberts notes:
  when conjunct is present, the sentence sounds rather odd out of context. This is because conjunct is used to indicate what kind of relation holds between the sentence and its linguistic context (1986: 106).

The conjuncts have no function in respect of any element within the sentence that they modify. They serve to link sentences into a coherent discourse.

Disjunct is adverb which shows the speaker’s attitude to or evaluation of what is said in the rest of the sentence.

In a sentence the adverbials intervenes between the subject and the rest of the sentence.

```
minihə ikmanəta vaəə kəranəva
the man-S quickly-Adv works- do-V
```

The man quickly works

However, at the sentence level, the adverbial phrases in Sinhala have flexible word order.

```
a. minihə ikmanəta vaəə kəranəva
the man-S quickly-Adv works- do-V
```

The man quickly works

```
b. ikmanəta minihə vaəə kəranəva
```

162
quickly-Adv the man-S works do-V
The man quickly works

c. miniha vəɔ kəranəva ikmanata

the man-S works do-V quickly-Adv
The man quickly works

The adverbial phrases are similar to adjectival phrases in their structure, except that they have an adverb, instead of an adjective, as their head. In Sinhala, as in Adjp, the word order within the Advp is very rigid whereas at the sentence level, it is flexible.

4.1.5. The Postpositional Phrase

A word or morpheme which follows a noun or noun phrase and indicates location, direction and possession etc is called a postposition. For example in Japanese: Tokyo-kara

“Tokyo” “from”

“From Tokyo”


Dissanayaka notes:
English words such as ‘in’, ‘at’, ‘for’, ‘by’ are called ‘prepositions’, since they occur in a position preceding a noun. Sinhala does not have prepositions, but their function is performed by the set of words known as post positions, since they occur after nouns (2004: 136).

The unmarked word order in Postpositional phrase is N+Pop.
According to Heenadeerage (2002: 157) most lexical items that can be considered as post position in Sinhala are also nouns. There are two types of post positions in Sinhala: the first type of which is a group of nouns that themselves inflect for cases and assign cases to their complement. This type is sometimes referred to as ‘substantive post position’.

a. [aməya] [gæna]  
*the child-N about-Pop*

about the child

b. [avərədu tənak] [fisse]  
*years three-NP for-Pop*

for three years

c. [game:] [i-Cola]  
*village-N from-Pop*

from the village
child-N  near-Pop

to near the child.

The postposition /ɛkka/ with the negative postposition /nætuʋa/ follows nouns in Sinhala.

a. oyat  ekko
          
          you  with

          with you

b. væ INTEGER  nætuʋa
          
          work  without

          without work

According to Gair (1970: 33) there are substantive postpositions occurring with preceding substantives, whose case they govern, to form substantive postpositional phrases. They may themselves inflect for cases in this position. Examples are /laŋga/ near /kittuʋa/ vicinity /pahala/ below /ihala/ above.

a. ṭaṭṭa  laŋga
          
          father-N  near-Pop

          near father

b. ṭaṭṭa  laŋga
father-N  (to) near-Pop

to near father

c. vatta  pahalin

garden-N  below-Pop

below the garden

d. galvālin  ihālo

rocks-N  above-Pop

above the rocks

- The Function of Post positions

In Sinhala the post position /kiyāla/ follows both nouns and verbs as exemplified in the following phrases respectively.

a. nimal  kiyāla  kenek

Nimal-N  Pop  a person-N

a person called Nimal

b. eya: yanāya  kiyāla  giya

he/she  go-V  Pop  go-Past-V

He went saying that he will go

The Pop can modify:
• a verb

\[
\text{a.eya: pa:ra adda:ra inna:va} \\
\text{he/she-S the road beside-Pop is-V} \\
\text{He/she is beside the road}
\]

• A noun

\[
a. \text{pa:ra adda:ra geda:ra} \\
\text{road beside-Pop house-N} \\
a \text{house beside the road}
\]

\[
b. \text{vatta paha:la gaha} \\
\text{garden-N below-Pop tree-N} \\
\text{the tree below the garden}
\]

It is obvious that the word order of the Pop in Sinhala is very rigid.

4.2. Word Order at the Clause Level

A clause can be defined as:

“A clause is a group of words which forms a grammatical unit and which contains a subject and a finite verb” (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics 1985).

\[
a. \text{parakku nisa: mamo ikma: kla:} \\
\text{167}
\]
Because I was late I was in a hurry

This is a sentence with independent and dependent clauses.

**Independent Clause**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mamə ikmaŋ kła:</th>
<th>Dependent Clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I in a hurry is-Past</td>
<td>paraku nisa:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was in a hurry</td>
<td>late because</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>because I was late</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear that the word order within these clauses in both languages is rigid while the order of clauses in sentences is free. In the dependent clause in Sinhala the subject ellipsis may occur.

**a. paraku nisa:**

| Ō ikmaŋ kła: | | |
|--------------|------------------|
| late because-Dc | Ō hurry-Pres-Ic |
| Because I was late | hurried |

**b. Ō ikmaŋ kła:**

| paraku nisa: | | |
|--------------|------------------|
| Ō hurry-Past-Ic late because-Dc |
| Hurried because I was late |

According to Greenberg (1963:78) in languages with postpositions, the genitives, adjectives and relative clause precede nominal. Sinhala
follows this pattern. But in Spoken Sinhala the word order in clauses of this kind is flexible since they can reverse the order as in a and b.

\[ a. \text{sudu kamisəyak ændəgət kena:} \quad \text{mage: ya:luva} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c} & \text{white} & \text{shirt} & \text{wearing} & \text{person} \\ \hline \text{Dc} & \text{Ic} \\ \end{array} \]

The person who is wearing a white shirt is my friend

\[ b. \text{mage: ya:luva} \quad \text{sudu kamisəyak ændəgət kena:} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c} & \text{my} & \text{friend -H} & \text{white} & \text{shirt} & \text{wearing} & \text{person} \\ \hline \text{Ic} & \text{Dc} \\ \end{array} \]

The person who is wearing a white shirt is my friend

/sudu kamisəyak ændəgət kena:/ is the dependent clause and /mage: ya:luva/ is the modified noun. However, according to Henadeerage (2002: 268) sometimes the grammatical functions cannot be identified on the basis of case marking.

\[ a. \text{lanka:ʋə indiya:ʋə pæʁəqduʋa} \]

Lanka- Ø India- Ø defeat. Past

Sri Lanka defeated India

\[ b. \text{indiya:ʋə lanka:ʋə pæʁəqduʋa} \]

India- Ø Lanka- Ø defeat. Past

India defeated Sri Lanka

( Henadeerage 1995: 42).

- Major Clause Types in Sinhala
The major clause types which are dominant in Sinhala and their unmarked and marked word order variations are discussed below.

**Type  -  Examples**

The basic structure of **Type 1**: is SV.

**Type 1: SV** - ḍud̪ə ṭurud̪ə uḍa:venəva

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the new year- S</td>
<td>dawns- V-Pres</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The new year dawns

The structure of **Type 1** has the following word order variation.

i. **VS** - uḍa:venəva ḍud̪ə

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dawns- V-Pres</td>
<td>the new year- S</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The New Year dawns

**Type 2: SOV** - eye: maṭə uḍa:kanəkanəva

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he/she-S</td>
<td>me-O</td>
<td>help- V-Pres</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He/She helps me

The **Type 2** has marked word orders as VSO, SVO and OVS below which are frequently used in Sinhala.

i. **VSO** - uḍa:kanəkanəva eye: maṭə
help-V-Pres  he/sh-S  me-O
He/She helps me

ii. SVO - eya: udavu karanava  mata
                     he/she-S  help-V-Pres  me-O
He/She helps me

iii. OVS - mata  udavu karanava  eya:
                       me-O  help-V-Pres  he/she-O
He/She helps me

Type 3: SCV  mage: mitraya  guruvareyek

                         my  friend-S  teacher-C  V
My friend is a teacher

The following variation of the constituent order of Type 3 is largely used in spoken Sinhala.

i. CVS  guruvareyek  mage: mitraya

                      teacher-C  V  my  friend-S
My friend is a teacher

Type 4: SAV  mama  gedora  innava
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I -S} & \quad \text{at home-A} \quad \text{stay-V-Pres} \\
\text{I} & \quad \text{stay} \quad \text{home}
\end{align*}
\]

The following variations of **Type 4** are mostly used in Sinhala.

i. ASV - \text{GED} \text{G} \text{AR} \text{A} \text{MAM} \text{A} \text{INN} \text{A} \text{VA} \\
\text{at home-A} \quad \text{I -S} \quad \text{stay-V -Pres} \\
\text{I} \quad \text{stay} \quad \text{home}

ii. VSA - \text{INN} \text{A} \text{VA} \text{MAM} \text{A} \text{G} \text{E} \text{D} \text{R} \text{A} \\
\text{stay -V-pres} \quad \text{I -S} \quad \text{at home-A} \\
\text{I} \quad \text{stay} \quad \text{home}

iii. SVA \text{MAM} \text{A} \text{INN} \text{A} \text{VA} \text{G} \text{E} \text{D} \text{R} \text{A} \\
\text{I -S} \quad \text{stay-V-Pres} \quad \text{at home-A} \\
\text{I} \quad \text{stay} \quad \text{home}

iv. AVS \text{GED} \text{R} \text{A} \text{INN} \text{A} \text{VA} \text{MAM} \text{A} \\
\text{at home-A} \quad \text{stay-V-Pres} \quad \text{I -S} \\
\text{I} \quad \text{stay} \quad \text{home}

**Type 5: SOOV-** \text{MAM} \text{A} \text{MAGE} \text{PUTA} \text{J} \text{A} \text{POTAK} \text{DUNNA}
I -S my to son -IO a book-DO give-V-Past

I gave my son a book

The following variations are also predominantly used in spoken Sinhala.

i. SDOIOV- mamã potak mage: putaːʋə dunna

I -S a book-DO my to son -IO give-V-Past

I gave a book to my son

ii. SVDOIO- mamã dunna potak mage: putaːʋə

I -S give-V-Past a book-DO my to son -IO

I gave a book to my son

iii. SVIODO - mamã dunna mage: putaːʋə potak

I -S give-V-Past my to son -IO a book-DO

I gave my son a book

iv. VSIODO - dunna mamã mage: putaːʋə potak

give-V-Past I -S my to son -IO a book-DO

I gave my son a book

v. VSDOIO- dunna mamã potak mage: putaːʋə

give-V-Past I -S a book-DO my to son -IO

I gave a book to my son

vi. IODOSV - mage: putaːʋə potak mamã dunna

I gave a book to my son
my to son -IO a book-DO I -S give-V-Past
I gave a book to my son

The following variation is less dominant in Sinhala.

vii. DOIOSV-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>potak</th>
<th>mage:</th>
<th>puta:</th>
<th>mamo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

a book-DO my to son -IO I -S give-V-Past
I gave a book to my son

The clause Type 6 in Sinhala has the following word order.

Type 6: SOCV -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mamo</th>
<th>mage:</th>
<th>puta:</th>
<th>dostar-kenek karanava</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

I-S my son-O a doctor -C will make-V
I will make my son a doctor

The following variations of Type 6 are largely used in spoken Sinhala.

i. CVSO -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dostar-kenek karanava</th>
<th>mamo</th>
<th>mage:</th>
<th>puta:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

a doctor-C will make-V I-S my son -O
I will make my son a doctor
ii. OCVS-  
\textit{mage: puta: dostar-kenek karanava mmaə}

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
my & son-O & a doctor-C & will make-V & I-S \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

I will make my son a doctor

Type 7: SOAV- pere:ra hæmədeyakma \textit{arankarama} piligatta

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
Perera -S & everything-O & frankly-A & admit-V-Past \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

Perera admitted everything frankly

The following variations are predominantly used in spoken Sinhala.

i. OSAV- hæmədeyakma pere:ra \textit{arankarama} piligatta

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
everything-O & Perera -S & frankly-A & admit-V-Past \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

Perera admitted everything frankly

ii. ASOV - \textit{arankarama} pere:ra hæmədeyakma piligatta

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
frankly-A & Perera -S & everything-O & admit-V-Past \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

Perera admitted everything frankly

iii. AOSV - \textit{arankarama} hæmədeyakma pere:ra piligatta

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
frankly-A & everything-O & Perera -S & admit-V-Past \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

Perera admitted everything frankly
iv. AOVS - *avəŋkɔwɔmɔ* haemɔdeyɔkɔmɔ piligaṭtə pere:ra

\[ \text{frankly-A} \quad \text{everything-O} \quad \text{admit-V-Past} \quad \text{Perera -S} \]

Perera admitted everything frankly

v. OAVS - haemɔdeyɔkɔmɔ *avəŋkɔwɔmɔ* piligaṭtə pere:ra

\[ \text{everything-O} \ \text{frankly-A} \quad \text{admit-V-Past} \quad \text{Perera -S} \]

Perera admitted everything frankly

According to Gair (1970:55) orders is thus for the most part an independent variable involving a number of unspecific optional transformation.

### 4.2.1. The Nominal Clause

A nominal clause is a dependent clause that can be used in the same way as a noun or pronoun. In the Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, a noun clause is defined as:

A noun clause which functions like a noun or a noun phrase; that is which may occur as subject, object, in apposition, or as prepositional complement (1985).

\[ \text{mamɔ kɔlɔ deya} \quad \text{harimɔ} \quad \text{baya:nɔkɔyi} \]

\[ I \quad \text{did} \quad \text{what} \quad \text{very} \quad \text{dangerous} \]

\[ Nc \]

What I did is very dangerous

The nominal clause frequently occurs at the end of the sentence.
The types of nominal clauses:

There are five main types of nominal clauses namely:

i. The interrogative sub clause

ii. The nominal relative clause

iii. The nominal to-to-infinitive clause

iv. The participle clause

v. The nominal equational clause

b. The Syntactic Function

i. The interrogative sub clause

The interrogative sub clauses are introduced by Wh-interrogative words, including /kohoməɗa/ how.

- Wh interrogative subclause as:
- a subject:

\[
\text{eya: } \text{vibha:ge } \text{pa:svenne } \text{kohoməɗa } \text{kiyənəekə } \text{pa:dam } \text{kiri:ma}
\]

\[
\text{he/she examination pass } \text{how } \text{learning by heart}
\]

\[
\text{Isc- } \text{S}
\]

\[
\text{mata } \text{ti:ranayvenəva}
\]

\[
\text{on } \text{depend}
\]

How he/she passes the examination depends on learning by heart
The constituent order of the interrogative subclause can be changed as:

\[
\text{pa:dam kiri:ma mata ti:ranayvenawa eya: vibha:ge}
\]

learnig by heart on depend he/she examination

\[
p:a:svenne kohomadə kiyənəkə
\]

pass how

Isc- S

How he/she passes the examination depends on learning by heart

- **an object:**

\[
mama danne næ eya:ge vibha:ge kohomadə kiyələ
\]

I know do not his/her examination how Pop

I do not know how his/her examination is.

Yes-no interrogative subclauses are formed with /da/ or/naeddə/- whether:

\[
a. eya:tə e:kə kərandə puluvanda bəridə kiyəla mama danne næ
\]

he/she-Dat it do whether can or cannot Pop I don’t know

I don’t know whether he can do it or not
ii. The Nominal Relative Clause

The Nominal Relative Clause is a type of clause which has a nominal function.

a. ʼapta o:na mokakda vibhaːgayə paːsonnayi

we-Dat want what examination pass-Fu

Nrc

What we need is to pass the examination.

The change of constituent order in the nominal clause is frequent in Sinhala.

b. mokakda ʼapta o:na vibhaːgayə paːsonnayi

what we-Dat want examination pass-Fu

Nrc

What we need is to pass the examination.

iii. The Nominal ʈə or ʈə( to)- Infinitive Clause

- a complement of an adjective

mamə satuṭu davasa puraːma vaeːɔkəranə

I happy the day through out to work

Infc

I am happy to work through out the day.
iv. The Participle Clause (Partc)

The participle clause can function as:

- a subject

\[
\text{akuru lići:ma ama:ruyi} \\
\text{letter writing is difficult} \\
\text{Partc}
\]

Writing letters is difficult

The participle clause occurs at the end of the sentence and the adjective with particle /yi/ as in the /ama:ruyi/ is there by emphasized.

\[
\text{ama:ruyi akuru lići:ma} \\
\text{difficult is letter writing} \\
\text{Partc}
\]

Writing letters is difficult

v. The Nominal Equational Clause

The equational clause is defined as:

“Equational clause is a clause in which the subject and the complement refer to the same person or thing” (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics 1985).

The spoken Sinhala produces example for the nominal equational construction as follows.
Mr Gunasiri is the head teacher of our school (Gair and Paolillo 1988: 40).

Mr Gunasiri is the head teacher of our school

- **Equational type with indefinite NP predicate**

  c. gunəsiri mahaṭṭəya ape: isko:le guruvərəyek
  
  Mr Gunasiri is a teacher of our school

  In equational type sentence, the word order can be changed as:

  - **d. ape: isko:le guruvərəyek gunəsiri maha ṭəya**
  
  Mr Gunasiri is a teacher of our school

  “Definite equational clauses have nominative case which is unmarked for both arguments” (Heenadeerage 2002:161).

There are two differences with regard to the nominal equational clauses. According to Heenadeerage (2002:161) firstly, unlike indefinite nominal predicate clauses in example (c) definite predicate clauses as in example (a) can change their word order and either of the two NPs can function as the predicator.

But according to the data in the present study, the word order of both indefinite nominal predicate clause (INPC) and the definite nominal predicate clause can be changed as exemplified below.

```
animl   ape: gedərə isəsərə i kəənə vəəa kəənə kenek(INPC)
```
Heenadeerage notes:

The nominal equational clauses with indefinite predicates are restricted to certain constructions, and focus markers can only occur following the predicate, unlike in equational clauses with definite predicates (2002:218).

a. pere:ra ya:luvek tamayi

Gune.Nom friend.Ind FocM

Perera is indeed a friend

b*. pere:ra tamayi ya:luvek
Perera is indeed a friend

The sentence b is not acceptable since in an indefinite nominal equational clause, the order of focus marker /tamayi/ is inflexible.

The predicator in equational clauses is determined by the word order: the first NP is the argument and the second is the predicate. On the other hand in equational clauses with indefinite noun phrases will always be the predicate making the word order as NP: Subject+ NP: Predicate.

Secondly, two types of equational clauses function differently with regard to focusing. Focus will lay on either of the two NPs in definite predicator clauses but only the indefinite predicator can be found in the second type.

4.2.2. The Adjectival Clause

A clause which functions as an adjective is called an adjectival clause. In Sinhala it is named as /naːmo viːʃeːsənaːchiː aturu væki/.

According to Greenberg (1963:78) in languages with postpositions, the genitives, adjectives and relative clause precede nominal. Sinhala follows this pattern making the word order within the clause very rigid.

\[
\text{a. sudu kamisəyak ændəɡat miniha gedəɾə giya}
\]

\[
\text{white shirt has worn man_N home go-Past}
\]

The man who has worn a white shirt went home

/sudu kamisəyak ændəɡat/ who has worn a white shirt is the relative clause functions as an adjectival clause and /miniha the man is the modified noun. The change of the word order in some relative clauses functioning as adjectival clauses in a sentence, changes the meaning.

\[
a. seːnə iːye giya gama
\]
The village to which Sena went yesterday.

In some clauses, the word order is sometimes rigid in Sinhalese as in a.

The relative clause a is grammatical but not that b.

Thus, the left branching and the head final nature of Sinhala are visible in phrases.

4.2.3. The Adverbial Clause

An adverbial clause is defined as:

“A clause which functions as an adverb is called adverbial clause” (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics 1985).  

184
In Sinhala, the clause is named as /kriya: vife:sənova:ći: ãturu væki/. the constituent order of an adverbial clause in Sinhala can be identified as follows.

a. maṭə mahansi hinda mamo nida:gaṭṭa
   I-Ds tired-Adj because-Pop I-S sleep-Past
   Advc

Because I was tired, I slept

The word order within the Adverbial clause can be changed as:

b. mamo nida:gaṭṭa mahansi hinda maṭə
   I-S sleep-Past tired-Adj because-Pop I-Ds
   Advc

I slept because I was tired

The function of the adverbial clauses as adjunct can be classified as follows. The function of adverbial clauses in both languages embody in the following classification.

- Causal:
  Causal adjuncts establish the reason for or purpose, of an action or state.

a. inimagə kaːa: vætna eːka parəna hinda
   The ladder collapsed-Mc it old because
   Advc

The ladder collapsed because it was old (Reason)
In the adverbial clause like /le:k parənə hindəl because it was old/ the subject is usually dropped and it is used as /parənə hindəl because it was old/.

b. eya: eliyəʈ giya       pa:ŋ tikak ganna

          she-S out go-Past-Mc    bred some to take
          Advc

She went out to buy some bread (Purpose)

The word order within the adverbial clause as in a and the order of them in a sentence is also flexible as exemplified in b. However, the word order in a is less dominant in Sinhala.

a. ganna pa:ŋ tikak giya eya: eliyəʈ

          to take bred some      go-Past she-S out -Mc
          Advc

To buy some bread she went out

b. pa:ŋ tikak ganna eya: eliyəʈ giya

          bred some to take      she out go-Past -Mc
          Advc

To buy some bread she went out

• Concessive:

“The concessive adjuncts establish the contrary circumstances”
(Wikipedia-The Free Encyclopedia).

a. eya: eliyəʈ giya vaessə tibunat
He went out although it was raining

Although it was raining he went out

It is evident in these examples that the word order of clauses functioning as causal and concessive is free.

The adjunct clauses introduced by the temporal complementizer /kalin/ before, /vela:vel kotə when, and /passe/ after, the word order is free since they can be adjoined on either side of the main clause.

**a. poli:sivə ennə kalin**  
*eya: magæ:ɾələ gihilla tibuna*

*the police come-Past Before he escape-Past part had -Mc*

Before the police came he had escaped

**b. eya: magæ:ɾələ gihilla tibuna**  
*poli:sivə ennə kalin*

*he escaped had-Mc the police come-Past before*

Before the police came he had escaped

**c. eya: nidimate: hiṭiya**  
*ta:ttə enəkọta*
He was asleep when father came.

It should be noted that these clauses can occur between embedding complementizer and the subject as follows.

However, the internal structure of these clauses is fairly straightforward and they are headed by the temporal complementizer which takes tense complement. Significant difference is that this kind of temporal complementizer in Sinhala particles like /kọṭa/ when/nam/ /of/ if and postposition like /nisa:/because/vela:ve/ when,while /kalin/ before /passe/ after /ụnt/ though,although occur at the end of the clause. On the other hand the noteworthy similarity is that all those complementizer, particles and postposition embody a very rigid order as follows.

After the police had left

However, the change of the order of noun clauses in sentences embodies different meaning whereas the order of adverbial clauses can be changed without changing the meaning.
4.3. The Word Order at the Sentence Level

4.3.1. The Compound Sentence

A compound sentence consists of at least two independent clauses; no dependent clauses.

He finally read the book, or so I thought

“The two independent clause are joined by a comma and the coordinating conjunction or (http://www.ucalgary.ca/).”

A compound sentence contains two independent clauses joined by a coordinator. The coordinators are as follows:/nunut/e:una:tsa/ but/tavomə /yet /me:dakwa:/ till.

a.

maŋo sinhəlo kata:kəranə pulucə e:una:tsə inqri:si kata:kəranə bæ

I-Dat Sinhala speak-Inf can but English speak-Inf cannot

I can speak Sinhala but cannot speak English

b. aiyia game: giya: tavomə a:ve næ

elder brother village-Loc go-Past yet come no

My elder brother went to the village and has n’t come yet

1 Accessed on 29th Sep 2007
In changing the order of clauses in the above sentence the conjunction /ə:/ but is normally omitted or change its order.

\[
\text{I-Dat English: } \text{Speak-Inf cannot Sinhala: Speak-Inf } \text{can}
\]

I can speak Sinhala but cannot speak English

However, the word order within the two clauses b is free since the following changes are acceptable.

\[
\text{b. Ayiya: giya: game: a:ve nā tawəmə}
\]

My elder brother went to the village and hasn’t come yet

However, the order of two clauses in the compound sentence is somewhat rigid since the following changes are not accepted in Spoken Sinhala.

\[
\text{a. a:ve nā tawəmə ayiya giya: game}
\]

My elder brother went to the village and hasn’t come yet

Gapping is predominantly operated in compound sentences in Sinhala.

According to Fernando (1973: 254) Gapping as formulated by J. R. Ross operates to delete indefinitely many occurrences of a repeated main verb in a conjoined structure.
“Gapping is the deletion of identical verbs except for one in conjoined sentences which defer at least two of their constituents” (Panhuis 1980: 229).

Ross formulated the following hypothesis.

The order in which “Gapping operates” depends on the order of elements at the time that the rule applies; if the identical elements are on left branches, Gapping operates forward; if they are on right branches it operates backward (1970: 251).

a. sunil baŋ kanaŋa perera paŋ kanaŋa

Sunil-S rice-O eat-V Perera-S bread-O eat-V

Sunil eats rice and Perera eats bread

This sentence can be gapped as:

b. sunil baŋ o perera paŋ kanaŋa

Sunil-S rice-O Perera-S bread-O eat-V

Sunil eats rice and Perera eats bread

When the verb in the first clause is gapped, the assertion marker /yü/ is added to the objects of the two clauses and the object takes the marked form like /batuyi/ (rice)

a. sunil batuyi o perera paŋuyi kanaŋa

Sunil-S rice-O o Perera-S bread-O eat-V

Sunil eats rice and Perera eats bread
4.3.2. The Complex Sentence

The complex sentence in Sinhala can be defined as a sentence which contains one or more dependent clauses in addition to its independent clause. According to Gunasekara (1962: 413) a sentence which consists of a principal sentence with one or more dependent or subordinate clauses is called a complex sentence.

A complex sentence may contain one main or independent clause and one or more subordinate or dependent clauses.

“A clause that is neither attributive to another form nor a constituent of another clause is independent” (Gair 1970: 48).

```
mahaṭṭaya balangōya yanəva
```

`Gentleman-S Balangoda-O go-Pres-Sin`

The gentleman goes to Balangoda

“A clause that is an attribute or a constituent of another clause is dependent” (Gair 1970: 48)

```
mahaṭṭaya balangōya yanəva kiala amma kunəva
```

`Gentleman-S Balangoda-O go-Pres-Sin kiala mother say-Past`

Mother said that the gentleman was going to Balangoda

This whole sentence can be considered a complex sentence.
I do not know that he/she has gone

An emphatic clause occurs as a Dc in a complex sentence.

My mother said that it is Balangoda that the gentleman was going to

According to Henadeerage (2002: 212) focusing in complex embedded clauses appears to have some effect on the reordering. The focus constituent is less restricted in terms of scrambling in clauses with the
matrix focus than in those with the embedded focus. The following variations are also dominantly used in Sinhala.

a. me: potə tamay gune kivə [ laməya дежəvə] kiyəla

b. gune me: potə tamay kivə [ laməya дежəvə] kiyəla

c. gune kivə me: potə tamay [ laməya дежəvə] kiyəla

d. gune ki və [ laməya дежəvə] kiyəla me: potə tamay

‘It is this book that Gune said that the child read’ (Henadeerage 2002: 213).

A complex sentence with one depended clause and two independent clauses are predominant in Spoken Sinhala.

a. vahidə  тə:тta gedəɾə hiˈtiya e:una:ɬa mama isko:le giya
   while it was raining father home.Loc stay-Past but I school go-Past
   Dc Ic Ic

   While it was raining, my father stayed at home  but I went to school

In changing the order of clauses in the above sentence the subordinator / e:una:ɬa but is normally omitted or change its order.

b. mama isko:le giya vahidi  e:una:ɬa тə:тta gedəɾə hiˈtiya
   I school go-Past while it was raining but father home.Loc stay-Past
   Ic Dc Ic

   While it was raining, my father stayed at home  but I went to school
4.3.2.1. The Cleft Sentences

Cleft is a special construction which enables the language users to highlight a particular constituent in a sentence.

Kariyakarawana notes:

The basic claim of the “cleft” analysis is that there is a unique position for focus. This indeed empirically born out by the fact that only one element for a sentence can be focused (1998: 97).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{miniha} & \quad \text{mæru\v{e}} & \quad \text{ballek} \\
\text{maniha-S} & \quad \text{kill-Past} & \quad \text{a dog-Foc}
\end{align*}
\]

It is the dog the man killed

The structure:

According to Henadeerage (2002: 204) one of the characteristics is of constituent focus is that the focus encoding involves morphologically marking the verb and the constituent to be focused. The co-occurrence of these two elements, the verb marking particle –e nd the focus marker on a constituent, is crucially important.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a.pere:ra} & \quad \text{tamavi} & \quad \text{liyuma} & \quad \text{liv\v{o}\v{e}} \\
\text{Perera -S} & \quad \text{FocM} & \quad \text{letter -O} & \quad \text{write-V-Past}
\end{align*}
\]

It is Perera who wrote the letter

In a cleft sentence the /yi/ copula is attached to the subject NP which is in focus position and the main verb in the clause appears in its special form like /liyanne/.
It is Perera who wrote the letter. In this kind of sentence the focus marker /tamay/ is omitted and the /yi/ copula is suffixed to the S. However, in some sentences the /yi/ copula is attached to the object.

It is the letter that Perera writes. It is clear that with the change of the focus marker, the change of the meaning is unavoidable. Depending upon the element which we want focus, the order of focus marker can be changed and a simple sentence may have several cleft sentences as follows.

David ate pudding at the party yesterday

The above simple sentence can have following cleft forms:

It was David who ate pudding at the party yesterday
b. [David-S yesterday-Adv in the party-Adv pudding-O FocM eat-V-Past]
   It was pudding that David ate at the party yesterday.

c. [David-S yesterday-Adv in the party-Adv FocM pudding-O eat-Past]
   It was at the party yesterday that David ate pudding.

d. [yesterday-Adv FocM David-S pudding-O eat-V-Past in the party -Adv]
   It was yesterday that David ate pudding at the party.

Some times the focus marker is omitted and only the e- marked verb is used.

4.3.2.2. The Conditional Sentences

In Sinhala, the conditional clause is named as /aniyoma:rttha asambha: vyakkriya:/ and are used similar to English in meaning but not in word order. In Sinhala, adverbial particles /naŋ /of/misak/naŋnay/ If are postposed the verb in order to make conditional clauses. The usage of this kind also favors the left branching feature in Sinhala.
The adverbial particle /lot/ if is also used similar to the adverbial particle /nau/ if as exemplified below.

\[
\text{vahinacan} \quad \text{api temeyi} \\
\text{rain} \quad \text{if} \quad \text{we} \quad \text{wet}
\]

If it rains we will get wet

The adverbial particles /misak/nətnaŋ/ if are used as similar in meaning to the adverbial particle in English unless.

\[
laisoneka giyenaca nau misak nətnaŋ oya:to eləvanno venne nəe \\
license \quad have \quad if \quad unless \quad you \quad drive \quad not \quad able
\]

You won’t be able to drive unless you have a license

It is clear that the order of the adverbial particles misak/nətnaŋ/ unless in the structure of the clause is very rigid.

There are three types of conditional clauses in Sinhala.

Table :4.3.

The Types of Conditional Clause

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

198
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1</th>
<th>Possible to fulfill</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type 2</td>
<td>Possible in theory to fulfill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 3</td>
<td>Impossible to fulfill</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Prepared by the researcher

**Table: 4. 4.**

Examples for types of condition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1    | Positive: mama igaːnægannaː naŋ, vibhaːgøyen suːmaːt veːyi  
      | *If I study, I will pass the examination*  
      | Negative: mama igaːnægannaː naŋ, vibhaːgøyen suːmaːt venne næ  
      | *If I study, I won’t fail the examination*  
      |       | mama igaːnæganne n æt naŋ, vibhaːgøyen suːmaːt veːyi  
      | *If I do not study, I will fail the examination* |
| 2    | Positive: mama igaːnægattə naŋ, vibhaːgøyen suːmaːt vene naː  
      | *If I studied, I would pass the examination*  
      | Negative: mama igaːnægattə naŋ, vibhaːgøyen suːmaːt vene næ  
      | *If I studied, I wouldn’t fail the examination*  
      |       | mama igaːnægattə n æt naŋ, vibhaːgøyen suːmaːt veːyi  
      | *If I did not study, I would fail the examination* |
| 3    | Positive: mama igaːnɑ̃ɡenːtiːbunaː naŋ rassaːvæk gannə  
      | *If I had studied, I would have got a job*  
      | Negative: mama igaːnɑ̃ɡenːtiːbunaː naŋ vibhaːgøyen suːmaːt  
      | nʊːvənə nəː tiːbunaː.  
      | *If I had studied, I wouldn’t have failed the
It can be concluded that according to the above examples in the table, the word order within the conditional clauses is totally firm. But the word order within the main clauses is flexible since deviated forms are permitted as exemplified in /api Ɂemeyi/ Ɂemeyi api/ We will get wet /eləvanna venne næ /venne næ eləvanna/ You won’t be able to drive

However, at the sentence level, the order of both conditional and main clauses in Sinhala is flexible as they are interchangeable.

a. adə væssot api Ɂemeyi
   today rain if we wet
   If it rains we will get wet

b. api Ɂemeyi adə væssot
   we wet today rain if
   We will get wet if it rains today

It can be concluded that in the structure of the conditional clause in Sinhala, the word order within the if clause is rigid whereas it is free in the main clause. However, at the sentence level, the order of clauses is free.

4.3.3. The Word Order In Question

4.3.3.1. The Yes-No Question
Question in Sinhala generally formed with the use of the question particle /də/. According to Hagstrom (2001:1) the yes-no question differs from the declarative only in that the yes-no question has a clause final /də/.

```
pere:ra  baṭ  kæːva  də?
Perera _S  rice-O  eat-Past  Qp
```

Did Perera eat rice?

The Qp can appear as:

- clause-finally

```
pere:ra  baṭ  kæːva  də?
Perera _S  rice-O  eat-Past  Qp
```

Did Perera eat rice?

- clause internally

In case of using the Qp /də/ internally, the verb is marked with /el/.

```
b. pere:ra  baṭ  də  kæːve?
Perera -S  rice-O  Qp  eat-Past
```

Is it rice that Perera ate?

According to Kariyakarawana (1998: 156) the particle such as /də/ is used in questions as focus markers and every element that is marked with such elements are necessarily focused.
In a focus question the scrambling is possible in Sinhala.

a. **pere:ra baṅ də kae:ve paːŋ də kae:ve ?**

   Perera _S  rice-O Qp eat-Past bread Qp eat-Past

Is it rice or bread did Perera eat?

The first verb in the clause can be scrambled.

b. **pere:ra baṅ də paːŋ də kae:ve ?**

   Perera _S  rice-O Qp bread Qp eat-Past-Foc

Is it rice or bread did Perera eat?

In a negative focus question the first negator is scrambled as in **b**.

a. **pere:ra baṅ də kanne nātte paːŋ də kanne nātte ?**

   Perera-S rice-O Qp eat-Pres-Fos no bread Qp eat-Prest-Foc no

Is it rice or bread that Perera does not eat?

b. **pere:ra baṅ də paːŋ də kanne nātte?**

   Perera-S rice-O Qp bread Qp eat-Pres-Foc no

Is it rice or bread that Perera does not eat?

The word order of this sentence can be changed as:
Is it rice or bread that Perera does not eat?

4.3.3.2. The Wh Question

The Wh question in Sinhala is formed with Wh form accompanied by the Qp /da/.

a. kavuda -who

b. moka:da-which

c. mokakda -what

d. monvada -what

e. koheda-where

f. kavdada/ koviyela:veda -When

In Sinhala, the Wh word is not obligatorily moved to the sentence initial position. However, the Wh form accompanied by the Qp /da/ is used in different orders as follows. In the structure of Wh questions in Sinhala, the following orders of Wh question are dominantly used.

a. a:e  kavuda ?
come-Past who-Wh

Who came?

b. kəvənə aːve ?

who-Wh come-Past

Who came?

According to Kariyakarawana (1998:146) if the Wh -phrases occur postverbally, then the sentence has a unique cleft reading.

oya: dække mokak də ?
you see-Past-E what-Q

What is it that you saw?

(Kariyakarawana 1998: 144).

When the sentence is not in a focus position, the Qp occurs just after the verb.

oya: mokak dækka də ?
you what-Q see-Past Qp

What is it that you saw?

4.3.4. The Word Order in Negation

In the structure of negation, Sinhala has different types of negative markers (Nm). According to Kariyakarawana (1988:49) most common non-prefixing negators are /næː:/ and /neve/. (neveyi has a number of dialectical variants including nemey/nevi/neme:).

a. nimal  bət  kanne  næː:
Nimal does not eat rice

According to Gair (1970: 129) in the transform, the verb appears in the emphatic form, with the tense retained, and /ne:/ is added as an Aux.

In the above example the verb /kanne/ eat is in an emphatic form and the Nm /nae:/ is in the verb final position as n Aux.

According to Kariyakarawana (1998: 49) /nae:/ is limited to [+v] predicates.

The Nm /nae:/ occurs as an Aux an in a above as well as a full verb as in a and b below.

a. nimal  hongə  nəe:
    Nimal-S  good-Adj  no-Nm
    Nimal is not good

b. nimal  koɭmbə  nəe:
    Nimal -S  Colombo-Adv  no-Nm
    Nimal is not in Colombo

According to Gair and Paolillo (1988:49) /nae:/ is also the negator of existential locative verb /tiyenəva/ (be) exists inanimate and /innəva/ (be) exists in animate.

According to Gair Special rules apply where V is a stative verb innəva or tiyenəva in the non-past tense: these verbs are deleted in the transform (1970: 129).

a. miniha  gedəɭə  innəva
The man is home

b. miniha gedərə nae:

The man isn’t home

c. adə maʃə vəɾəak tienəca

I have a work today

The Nm /neveyi/ occurs at the end position of the non verbal sentence.

a. pere:ra mage ya:luva neveyi

Perera is not my friend

Depending upon the element which we want focus, the order of Nm /neveyi/ marker can be changed. A simple sentence may have several focus forms as follows.

Simple sentence: a. pere:ra balŋgoŋə giya

Perea went to Balangoda
can have:

a. `pere:ra neveyi balŋgoŋə giye`

   `Perera-S not-Nm Balangoda-O go-Past`

   It is not Perera who went to Balangoda

If the word order of `Nm` is changed as follows, the meaning of the sentence is definitely changed.

b. `pere:ra balŋgoŋə neveyi giye`

   `Perera-S Balangoda-O not-Nm go-Past`

   It is not Balangoda that Perea went

It is clear in these examples, when the `Nm` takes the focus position the verbs take special form like `/giye/`. However, the `Nm` is in the focus position and occurring as an Aux at the end position of the sentence the verb does not change its normal present or past form.

a. `pere:ra balŋgoŋə yanəva neveyi`

   `Perera-S Balangoda-O go-Pres not-Nm`

   It is not Balangoda that Perera goes

b. `pere:ra balŋgoŋə giya neveyi`

   `Perera-S Balangoda-O go-Past not-Nm`

   It is not Balangoda that Perera went
Sinhala has Prefixing Negative marker (/no/).

“Prefixing negator /no/ is limited to infinitival and adverbial clauses in the Colloquial Sinhala” (Kariyakarawana 1998: 50).

\[
\text{ehemə } \text{no} \text{liyənə}
\]

\[
\text{that way do’-Pn write-Inf}
\]

Don’t write that way

The Pnm in Sinhala is used in imperative construction.

\[
\text{a.e:nə } \text{nakəranə}
\]

\[
\text{that don’t-Pn do-Inf}
\]

Don’t do that

\[
\text{b. ehemə } \text{no} \text{liyənə}
\]

\[
\text{that way do’-Pn write-Inf}
\]

Don’t write that way

The Nm /epa:/ (don’t) is used as a modal auxiliary (MAux) and denotes a meaning similar to the Pnm /no/.

\[
\text{a. ehemə } \text{liyənə } \text{epa:}
\]

\[
\text{that way write-Inf don’t-Nm}
\]

Don’t write that way
The word order of this sentence can be changed without changing the meaning.

a. liyanə  epaː  ehemə
  
  |      |      |      |
  write-Inf  do’t-Nm  that way
  Don’t write that way

b. epaː  liyanə  ehemə
  
  |      |      |      |
  do’t-Nm  write-Inf  that way
  Don’t write that way

4.3.5. The Word Order in Imperative Construction

A sentence which is in the form of command is called an imperative sentence.

a. potə  ganna
  
  |      |      |
  take  the book
  Take the book

According to Van Valin (1997: 41) in this construction, the second person subject is normally omitted and is interpreted as the addressee, and the verb is in a special, usually tenseless form.

a. dorə  arinna
  
  |      |      |
  door  open
open the door

The word order of a can be changed as:

b. arinna dorə

open door

open the door

In all these constructions the addressee is understood to be the subject of the verb, and it is reasonable to expect that this would be the case for everywhere.

Imperative clauses are traditionally said to be finite. Radford notes:

The subjectless imperative clauses have traditionally been assumed to have an ‘understood’ –second person subject (i.e. our terms might be analyzed as an empty second person pronominal singular or plural subject which we might designate as YOU) (1988: 333)

paressəmen

be careful

be careful

4.4. Summary

Though Sinhala is considered a language with free word order it is not true at all levels. In noun phrases like /gedara vistara/ details of home, the word order is very rigid since there is hardly any utterance like / vistara gedara / details of home in Sinhala. The word order in phrases like /me: lamaya/ this child can be changed as / lamaya me:/ this child in order to place the focus on Cdet/me:/ this. It proves that determining the word order at the phrase level is difficult in Sinhala.
As far as the word order in clause level is concerned, the word order within the dependent clause like /sudu kamisøyak ændøgat minih a/
The man who has worn a white shirt is rigid whereas at the sentence level, the order of both independent and dependent clauses is free.