CHAPTER FIVE

A Contrastive Study of Word Order in Sinhala and English

5.0. Preliminaries

This chapter deals with the contrastive aspects of word order in both languages at the levels of phrase, clause and sentence. It is apparent that different types of languages have different word orders. This can be illustrated in relation to the following constructions in Sinhala and in English.

a. pota kaluyana jamaya
   book-writing-PreM child-H
   The child who is writing a book

b. The child who is writing a book

   $H$  $PoM$

In Sinhala, being ‘a head last language’ the headword functions at the end of the phrase, clause or a sentence. In the extended noun phrase a, the headword /jamaya/ -child occurs at the end while in English, being ‘a head first language’, the head word the child as in b occurs at the initial position of the phrase.

According to Weerakoon, (1982:9) languages, which belong to the same language family, may be expected to show a closer affinity than the languages that belong to different families. Sinhala and English both belong to the same Indo-European language family. Sinhala is a member of the Indo-Iranian sub-family and English a member of the Germanic sub-family.
However, both languages find some similarities in their structures. For instance, in noun phrases in both languages, the constituent order would be Det+N.

\[
\text{a. me: miniha} \\
\text{ this- Predet man-H} \\
\text{ this man}
\]

\[
\text{b. this man} \\
\text{ Predet H}
\]

5.1. A Contrastive Study of Word Order at the Phrase Level

A phrase may be a single word or a group of words which form a grammatical unit. Each phrase is named after a class of words which has primary and indeed obligatory function within it. This function, however, varies in different types of phrases and may be examined it in terms of the distinction between optional and obligatory elements. One kind of construction is illustrated by prepositional phrases, which contain two normally obligatory elements: the preposition and the prepositional complement.
According to Radford (1997:18) the head word, the key word in the phrase determines the nature of the overall phrase. For example, *Students of English* is a plural noun phrase because its head word is the plural noun *students*. In the same way, *in the kitchen* is a prepositional phrase which comprises the head preposition *in* and the complement *the kitchen*.

The following section of the chapter is a contrastive presentation of the constituent order of the phrases in both Sinhala and English.

5.1.1. The Noun Phrase

NPs in both languages can be grouped into several categories according to complexity of structure. Very broadly, they fall into two classes.

- The NP with a simple structure
- The NP with varying degrees of complexity (For detailed discussion: 5.1.1.1)

The structure of a noun phrase in both languages can be represented in the following way.

\[(M(s)) \rightarrow H \rightarrow (M(s))\]

The structure of a simple NP consists of Det+N in both Sinhala and English as is demonstrated in the following diagram.

![Diagram of NP structure](image-url)
Though English belongs to the SVO language category and Sinhala to the SOV, the word order in noun phrases shares common properties. In both languages in a noun phrase, for instance, a noun functions as the head.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a. } \text{saməharə} & \quad \text{minissu} \\
& \quad \text{some}_\text{PreM} \quad \text{people}_H \\
& \quad \text{some} \quad \text{people}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{b. } \text{some} & \quad \text{people} \\
& \quad \text{PreM} \quad H
\end{align*}
\]

5.1.1.1. The Modifiers in the Noun Phrase

The premodifiers and the post modifiers are two types of modifiers which add something to the noun.

- **Premodifiers**

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

- **Noun**

A noun can occur as a premodifier in an NP.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a. } \text{game} & \quad \text{minissu} \\
& \quad \text{village-Gen-PreM} \quad \text{people}_H \\
& \quad \text{village} \quad \text{people}
\end{align*}
\]
According to Kariyakarawana (1998: 27) Sinhala is 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 of constituents are predominant in Sinhala whereas in English the opposite holds true.

In a compound noun in both Sinhala and English, a noun occurs as a PreM.

- **Determiners**
They can be classified as:

i. Predeterminers: /okkomə /All /eːvage: /such

ii. Central determiners: The demonstratives like /meː/ this /arə/ that are used as Cdet

iii. Postdeterminers are numbers. Numbers are cardinals and ordinals.

Cardinals:
Common nouns in a noun phrase can have forms of numerals. Both in Sinhala and in English, the ordinal numbers appear before a noun. But a noun phrase with a cardinal number in English occurs as PreM but in Sinhala they occur as PoM except the cardinal number /ekə/ one. This can be considered a significant difference in respect to the word order in Sinhala and English. This may result the Sinhala speaker producing unacceptable phrases in English such as cats two /puːso denna/ in the initial stage.

Cardinals:
/ekə/ekak/ekkenek/ekek/ekiyak/ one /deka/dekak/dennek/denna/ two
/tunə/ tunak/ tundenek/ tundena/ three

a. _ekak_ potak

| one –PreM | book-H |
| one book |

b. _one_ book

| PreM | H |

c. minissu _denna_

| |
\[
\text{men-}H \quad \text{two-}PoM
\]
the two men

d. the two tables
\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{PreM} & H \\
\end{array}
\]

**Ordinals:**
The ordinals /pala\-\text{veni}/ first /de\-\text{veni}/second \text{tu\-\text{veni}}/ third occur as PreM in both languages.

a. pal\-\text{veni} \quad \text{miniha}
\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{first-PreM} & \text{man-}H \\
\end{array}
\]
the first man

b. the first man
\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{PreM} & H \\
\end{array}
\]

- **The Word Order of Predeterminers in an NP**
The Predets precede the H.

a. okkoma gas
\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{all-Predet} & \text{trees-}H \\
\end{array}
\]
the all trees

b. the all books
The frequent word order of these NPs is Predet+H, but unlike in English in Sinhala Predet/okkomə / All and /eːvage:/ such can occur after the head as a way of emphasizing Predet.

a. gas  okkomə

   trees-H  all –Predet

   the_all_trees

b. pudumâyak.  eːvage:

   surprise-H  such -Predet

   such a surprise

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

Noun phrases with demonstratives as Cdet also appear in both Sinhala and English.

a.  meː  ŋaməya

   this-Cdet  child-H

   this child

b.  this  child
The Cdet /arə/ that and /eː/ that are also used as premodifiers in a noun phrase. Gair notes:

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

According to Weerakoon (1982:24) the deictics /eː/ and /arə/ are used for anaphoric reference.

```
b.   eː /arə  |  laməya
     that - (near)- Cdet  |  child-H
                       that child
```

The similar phenomenon occurs in English.

```
c. that  |  child
       |  that - Cdet  |  child-H
```

Fernando notes:

that similarly indefinite determiners may occur with various /koyi/monə/ particles. There exists in the Sinhala language a series of /koyi/monə/ forms like /kaɾədə/mokeːdə/monundə/monəɾədə/ all of which are equivalents of English some (1973: 76).
which - Cdet    child-H
which  child

b. which  child
     Cdet   H

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

(1) a. samahara  minissu
       some -Cdet   people-H
       some  people

b. some  people
     Cdet   H

c. minissu  samaharak
       people-H   some -Cdet
       some  people

(2)a. onema  bAllek
       any-Cdet  dog-H
       any  dog

b. any  dog

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any-Cdet dog-H

(3)a. hæmə bAllamə
ev-Cdet d g-H
every dog

b. every dog
Cdet H

(4) a. eka eka bAlla
each-Cdet dog-H
each dog

b. each dog
Cdet H

(5)a. bAllo okkoma
dog-Pl-H all-Cdet
all dogs

b. okkoma bAllo
all-Cdet dog-pl-H
all dogs

c. all dogs
In Sinhala in case of using a nominal modifier, the word order pattern is fixed in noun phrases with singular nouns but it is not true in noun phrases with plural nouns as in (1) a,c and (5) a and b.

However, in English unlike in Sinhala the Cdet occurs only as a PreM as exemplified in (1)b, (2)b,(3)b,(4)b,(5)c.

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. 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” (Gair 1970:54). Accordingly, this process may take place when the speaker intends to give more emphasis to one part of the phrase than the other.

The significant difference in NPs in the two languages is that sometimes, when the word order changes in Sinhala there are changes in the inflection being used as in b. This does not apply in English since there is no inflection.

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

a. saməharə

\[ \text{minissu} \]

\[ \text{some-Cdet} \quad \text{people-H} \]

\[ \text{some people} \]

b. minissu

\[ \text{saməharak} \]
Weerakoon notes:

The Sinhala definite noun remains in the substantival form. On the other hand the English definite article that occurs pre-nominally is a particle separate from the noun but very closely linked to it. Pre-nominal modifiers occur between the article and the noun so that in a left-branching NP the article appears in left most position. This “distantly occurring” definite article is one of the biggest sources of difficulty to the Sinhala speaker learning English because this is something quite alien to his “grammatical thinking” (1982: 266).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a. } & Û \text{ ratu } \text{ pæ:na} \\
& Û \text{ red-PreM pen } H \\
& \text{The red pen}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{b. } & \text{ the red pen} \\
& \text{Da -PreM PreM } H
\end{align*}
\]

In noun phrases with indefinite article, the word order in Sinhala is different from that of English since there is no indefinite article in Sinhala but suffixes like /ek, ak/ occur only with singular nouns.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a. minihek} \\
& \text{a man}
\end{align*}
\]
b. ballek
   a dog

c. potak
   a book
The indefinite articles *a/an* are used in English as the Cdet which occur before a singular noun in order to mark the indefiniteness.

a. *a* pen
   \[
   \begin{array}{c}
   \text{Cdet} \\
   \text{H}
   \end{array}
   \]

b. *an* orange
   \[
   \begin{array}{c}
   \text{Cdet} \\
   \text{H}
   \end{array}
   \]

The structure of noun phrases with **Demonstrative+ Adjective** and a **Noun** is similar in both languages as demonstrated in the following diagram.

```
NP
   Dem
   me: (this) Adjp
       uso (tall)
   N
   HN
   PP
   miniha (man)
```

Normally, in English, the word order in noun phrase with one nominal modifier cannot be changed but in both Sinhala and English the usual word order in a simple noun phrase with two nominal modifiers can vary for emphasis as exemplified below.
The examples (a, b, c, d) show the similarity between two languages. Though in English the word order is fixed particularly within the phrase, there are exceptions as in b, d.

- **Postdeterminers (Podet)**

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

The cardinals eka/ekak/ one/deka/dekak/ two /tunə/ tunak/ three etc are used as PoM with inanimate nouns in Sinhala but in English they occur as PreM with animate as well as inanimate nouns.
The cardinals /ekkenek/ekel/ one and /dennek/denna/ two are used as PoM with animate nouns in Sinhala but as PreM in English as in b and c.

a. me: gas dekə
   this-Cdet tree-H two-Podet
these two trees

b. these two boys
   PreM

c. these two books
   PreM

b. one lad
   PreM H

c. duvəla denna
   daughter-Pl-H two-PoM
two daughters
d. **two daughters**

Normally, the cardinal numbers in Sinhala /ekkenek/ekek/ denote the singular meaning, but they occur as PoM of plural nouns as in a and c. However, in English the cardinal numbers occur as PreM.

As Gair observes (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.

a. **pot tunak**

  books-H three-PoM

  three books

b. **minissu dennagen**

  man -H two-PoM

  to two men

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

a. **guruʋəru dennama**

  teacher-N both-PoM

  the both teachers
b. book      dekəma
          book- N both-PoM
          the both books

In English, *both* and *all* are considered as quantifiers and they are usually attached to NPs as in a and b.

a. **All** the dragons had escaped

b. **Both** the twins might have been at the party (David 2003: 2006).

If these numerals occur as a PreM in Sinhala, it changes the meaning since the whole phrase becomes a sentence.

a. **dennama** guruʋaru
          two-PreM teacher-H
          both are teachers

b. **dekəma** navəkata:
          both -PreM trees- H
          both are novels

Since the focus lies on the numeral modifiers /dennama/ *both* and /dekəma/ *both* in Sinhalese, they will specifically imply the meaning that both are teachers as well as two are novels respectively but this phenomenon is totally absent in English.

- 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 predicator. According to Greenberg (1963:78) in languages with postpositions the adjectives precede nominal. However, both in Sinhala and in English the Adj precedes the noun.

i. Adj as a premodifier (PreM)

a. **narəkə** miniha

   | bad -PreM | H |
   | the bad | man |

b. the **bad** man

   | PreM | H |

c. **Aluŋ** gedərə

   | new-PreM | house-H |
   | the new house |

d. the **new house**

   | PreM | H |

In the noun phrase /**Aluŋ gedərə*/ the common word order of PreM+ H can be changed as H+PreM making it a sentence as /**gedərə Aluŋ*/ but the focus will lay on the adjective /**Aluŋ*/. This phenomenon is not acceptable in English. In English, an Adj can occur as PreM with Cdet.
Classifiers:

Classifiers such as colour, are normally used in the initial position of the NP as PreM as in a.

a. **ratu**  **paːjə**  **malə**

red -PreM  color-Q-PreM  flower-H

the red color flower

b. the **red**  **colour**  **flower**

red -PreM  Q-PreM  H

In a the noun /malə/ functions as the head of the phrase and if the word order is changed as /malə ratu paːjə/ the meaning becomes odd. The words of measuring like /græ:m /kilo:/ occur normally as PoM (a) in Sinhala but in English they occur as PreM as in b below.

a. siːni  **græːm**  siːvək

suger-H  gram  hundred-PoM

hundred grams of sugar

b. hundred grams of sugar

PreM  H
However, since the H /siːni/ can be transferred to the end of the sentence, and then the deviant word order would be as in c.

c. ɡræːm  siːyak  siːni
   gram-PreM  hundres-PreM  sugar-H
   hundred grams of sugar

d. fifty grams of sugar
   PreM  H

ii. An Adj can occur as PreM with Cdet

a. meː  ratu  kaːrekə
   this-Cdet  red-PreM  car-H
   this red car

b. this  red  car
   Cdet  PreM  H

iii. More than one Adj can occur as PreMs

a. arə  ratu  indiyan  kamisəyo
   this-Cdet  red-PreM  Indian-PreM  shirt-H
   this red Indian shirt

b. this  red  Indian  shirt
   Cdet  PreM  PreM  H
iv. An Intf, Adj and also Claf occur as premodifying elements

\[ \text{a. me: hari ahinṣakə isko:le ]aməya} \]

\[ \text{this -Cdet very-Intf innocent-Adj school-Claf boy-H} \]

this very innocent school boy

\[ \text{b. this very innocent school boy} \]

The syntactic similarity between Sinhala and English of this kind often facilitates the learner and also the translator who deals with two languages concerned.

- **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 in Sinhala.

\[ \text{a. eva:ge ge:} \]

\[ \text{his/her-PreM house -H} \]

his/her house

\[ \text{b. ge: eya:ge} \]
Dryer observes the two constructions of genitive in English as follows.

When we look at the order of genitive and noun in English, we find two constructions, one in which the genitive precedes the noun, the other in which the genitive follows the noun (2006: 6).

c. my friend

\[ PreM \quad H \]

d. friend of mine

\[ H \quad PoM \]

However, “the languages with prepositions, the genitives almost always follow the governing noun” (Hawkins 1983:15). English, being a prepositional language follows this pattern.

a. the destruction of the city

\[ H \quad PoM \]

According to Hawkins (1983:15) this is called the “doubling construction” in linguistics. Within the noun phrase, for example, doubling structures are much less common than unique orders and where they occur; they are generally limited to one or two modifiers. English has a single order for demonstrative determiners. The construction called “doubling” exists in different forms.
Hawkins notes:

Keenan analyzes noun genitive (N+Gen) construction such as “Father of John” as function (Father of) and argument (John) and the genitive noun (Gen +N) as John’s father as argument (John) and function (’s father) (1983:181).

But if a language has SOV word order then, if the adjective precedes the noun, the genitive precedes the noun (1983: 71).

The examples can be drawn from Sinhala as it is a language with SOV order. However, similar construction is possible in English as in b.

a. mitrǝyage  adǝhasǝ

\[\text{friend’s-Gen} \quad \text{idea-H}\]

b. friend’s  idea

\[\text{Gen} \quad \text{H}\]

In Sinhala, the possessive adjective follows the noun which is analogous to English. However, in Sinhala the noun is inflected whereas in English instead, preposition is used.

a. adǝhasǝ  mitrǝyage

\[\text{Idea -H} \quad \text{friend-Gen}\]

the idea of a friend

b. the idea of a friend
In Sinhala and English, the group genitive is also possible as a way of multi determination.

\[ a. \text{ ta:tta}\text{ge} \quad \text{ loku malla}\text{ige} \quad \text{ puta:} \]
\[ \text{father’s -PreM younger brother’s -PreM son-H} \]
father’s younger brother’s son

\[ b. \text{ father’s younger brother’s son} \]
\[ \text{PreM} \quad \text{PreM} \quad \text{H} \]

- The Word Order of a Participle Verb as a Modifier

- The participle forms as a PreM
Both present and past participle verbs can occur as PreMs in NPs in Sinhala and in English.

\[ a. \text{ utur}\text{ωνa} \quad \text{ vaturɔ} \]
\[ \text{boiling-PreM} \quad \text{water-H} \]
boiling water

\[ b. \text{ boiling} \quad \text{ water} \]
\[ \text{PreM} \quad \text{H} \]

\[ c. \text{ kädicəcə} \quad \text{ putuνa} \]
The similarities of this kind in both languages will definitely facilitate the Sinhala speaking learner in English and the translator who deals with two languages. According to contrastive analysis (www.ling.lancs.ac.uk)\(^1\) structurally different areas of the two languages involved would result in interference. This term was used to describe any influence from the \(L_1\) which would have an effect on the acquisition of the \(L_2\). This was the origin of the term transfer, and a distinction was made between positive and negative transfer. Positive transfer occurred where there was concordance between the \(L_1\) and \(L_2\). In such a situation, acquisition would take place with little or no difficulty. Negative transfer, on the other hand, occurred where there was some sort of dissonance between the \(L_1\) and \(L_2\). In this case, acquisition of the \(L_2\) would be more difficult and take longer because of the ‘newness’ (hence, difficulty) of the \(L_2\) structure.

**Emphatic elements**

In noun phrases in Sinhala, the post position /\(\text{ma}\)/ is used in similar meaning to *self* or *own* in English in order to emphasize the noun.

a. oya: \(\text{ma}\)

\(^1\) Accessed on 25 May 2008
b. **yourself**

```
yourself-NP
yourself
```

c. **oya:ge ma**

```
your own-NP
your own
```

d. **your own**

```
your own-NP
your own
```

### 5.1.1.1. The Extended Noun Phrase

As compared to the structure of the simple NPs, the structure of the extended NPs in Sinhala and English 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/PoM

iv. The compound H with PreM

i. The H with a Pop as PreM
But in English, in an extended noun phrase the prepositional phrase occurs as a postposition.

In Sinhala, generally the opposite holds true where the noun that depends upon the postposition is inflected for the locative case as / me:seya> me:se/.

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 English extended NPs are formed with the H with more than one PoM.

iii. The H with a clause as PreM/PoM

In Sinhala, a clause normally occurs as PreM. But in English a clause will be a PoM as in b.

a. potak *liyana* ka*maya*

book writing-PreM child-H

the child who is writing a book

b. the child who is writing a book

H PoM

In English, an Adv which is derived from a relative clause occurs as a PoM.

The rooms which are in upstairs> the rooms upstairs

H PoM

But in Sinhala, the word /u*stattuwe/ (in upstairs) occurs as a PreM.

u*stattuwe tiyana ka*mara> u*stattuwe ka*mara
If the word order changes as:

\[
\text{ka}:\text{mərə} \quad \text{uətattuwe} \\
\text{rooms -}H \quad \text{upstairs - PoM}
\]

it will change the meaning since the whole construction becomes a sentence.

This kind of complexities may cause the L2 learner a considerable difficulty in learning English.

iv. The compound H with PreM

a. \text{ita:} \quad \text{avəŋkə} \quad \text{ammayi} \quad \text{ətə:ttayi}

\[
\text{very} \quad \text{PreM} \quad \text{honest-PreM} \quad \text{mother and father- CH}
\]

very honest father and mother

b. very honest father and mother

\[
\text{PreM} \quad \text{PreM} \quad \text{CH}
\]

c. \text{hari} \quad \text{usə} \quad \text{gæ:niyi} \quad \text{minihayi}

\[
\text{very-PreM} \quad \text{tall- PreM} \quad \text{woman and man-CH}
\]

very tall man and woman

d. very tall man and woman
There are noun phrases in Sinhala consisting of compound nouns which are of two types.

(a). Where several nouns are conjoined by the conjunctive particle /yi/ being suffixed to each nouns which is different from English. In English instead of a particle, the conjunction “and” occurs just before the last noun in the phrase as shown in the following diagram.

(b). This is a kind of noun phrase which infer between several nouns where the postpositions /hari/ or in written Sinhala /ho:/ is used similar in meaning and the structure to conjunction or in English.
As shown in those diagrams the word order of extended noun phrase in Sinhala and also in English is rigid.

The compound NP in ablative case has following forms.

\[
\text{pere:ragen hari so:magen hari kuma:ragen hari}
\]

\[
\text{Perera from or-Pop Soma from or-Pop Kumara from or-Pop}
\]

\[
\text{from Perera or Soma or Kumara}
\]

In English, the preposition is used before the noun whereas in Sinhala the noun is inflected and the case marker/gen/ from is suffixed.

\[
\text{pere:ragen hari so:magen hari kuma:ragen hari}
\]

\[
\text{Perera from or Soma from or Kumara from or}
\]

\[
\text{from Perera or Soma or Kumara}
\]

In Sinhalese, the inflectional form as well as the conjunction is compulsorily used but the compound NP in English consists of N, the use of preposition before each N is optional as in a. But with the compound NP consists of pronouns, the preposition occurs before each pronoun but conjunction is optional as in b.

a. from Perera, Soma and Kumara

b. from you, from me or from her

Thus, it is clear that the use of preposition and conjunction in the English NP involves various options whereas in a NP in Sinhala there is just a simple method ie. the case inflection and conjunction is used after each constituent. A learner used to such a simple system would definitely find the system in English quite complex.

An apposition occurs as PreM as well as PoM in both languages. In a and b below, the
stress falls on the same word /perer:al/ likewise in c and d the words /mitr:aya/ friend thereby are stressed.

a. perer:a , mage: mitr:aya

Perera H my-PoM friend-PoM

Perera, my friend

b. Perera , my friend

H PoM PoM

c. mage: mitr:aya , perer:a

my-PreM friend -PreM perera-H

my friend ,Perera

d. my friend , Perera

PreM PreM H

This kind of similarities may facilitate the L₂ learner and the translator who deals with two languages.

5.1. 2. The Adjectival Phrase

Adjectives which modify nouns are normally placed before a noun phrase in both Sinhala and English.

Hawkins notes:

Languages tend to place these kinds of modifying elements either consistently before or consistently after modified elements or heads. This is called the basic word order (1983: 2).
Weerakoon adds some insight to our knowledge on Adjectival Phrase as follows.

The Adj phrase consists of an Adj alone or of an Adj modified by one or more intensifiers, generally one. The structure of both Sinhala and English Adj phrases are the same (1982: 224).

a. hari lassəna
   very -Adj beautiful-H

b. very beautiful
   Adj H

The other striking similarity of the structure of adjectival phrase is that in both languages, the adjectival phrase may consist of an adverb as the PreM and an adjective as the H as demonstrated in the following diagram.

```
Adjp
   Adv Adj
remarkably warm
```

However, in Sinhala overlapping characteristics of noun and adjectives (and of postposition) in colloquial Sinhala raise question as to whether adjectives are a class of their own or a subclass of nouns. For instance
the word /\textit{rasne} / \textit{warm} in the above example functions as a noun and an adjective as well.

The word /\textit{hayiya}/ \textit{strength/strong} for example occurs as a noun as well as an adjective in Sinhala.

\begin{itemize}
\item[a.] \textit{kambe:} \quad \textit{hayiya}
\begin{itemize}
\item rope-Loc-PreM \quad strength-N
\end{itemize}
the strength of the rope
\end{itemize}

\begin{itemize}
\item[b.] \textit{hayiya} \quad \textit{kambe:}
\begin{itemize}
\item strong-Adj \quad rope-N
\end{itemize}
the strong rope
\end{itemize}

But in English separate words \textit{strong} and \textit{strength} are used as an Adj and a N respectively.

Heenadeerage notes:

However, 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 semantic features of the language (2002: 154).

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

\[\text{(M(s))} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{(M(s))}\]
• The H in an Adjp can be:
  1. an Adj

        a. ţikak       narəkə
          |
        little - PreM  bad –H
          a little bad

        b. rather      big
          |
        PreM        H

• The PreM of an Adjp can be:

  1. A determiner

        a. tarəmak      pahasu
          |
        rather-PreM  comfortable -H
          rather comfortable

        b. rather      comfortable
          |
        PreM        H

  2. a numeral

        a. visi       avərudu
          |
        twenty-PreM  year –H
          twenty years
3. an intensifier

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a. hari</th>
<th>narəkə</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>very</td>
<td>bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PreM</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very bad</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>b. very</th>
<th>bad</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PreM</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>c. ita:</th>
<th>ama:ru</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>so</td>
<td>H-difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PreM</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so difficult</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>d. extremely</th>
<th>difficult</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PreM</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The function of an Adjp

An Adjp can function:

1. attributively as a PreM of an N in an NP
a. bohomə usə minihək
defined as  

\[ \text{very-PreM tall-PreM man-H} \]

a very tall man

b. a very tall man

defined as  

\[ \text{PreM PreM H} \]

very tall man

c. go[a:k] prasiddha pudgəlayək

defined as  

\[ \text{very-PreM famous-PreM person-H} \]

a very famous person

d. a very famous person

defined as  

\[ \text{PreM PreM H} \]

very famous person

No movement is possible within these phrases since there is a fixed word order but in the clause level it can change determining the word order flexible. The intensifiers in both languages like very/ go[a:k] , hari. bohomə/ quite /hariyətəmə, sampu:rynəmə, muluməninmə/ occur in pre-adjectival position as in the above examples(a,b,c,d).

2. predicatively

In Sinhala, in using an Adj predicatively the copula /yi/ which denotes the sense of a verb should be suffixed to the Adj but in English be verbs function as full verbs.
Another characteristic of Sinhala is typical of verb-final languages in comparative constructions, the order is standard of comparison (St) followed by the marker of comparison (M) followed by the adjective.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{sunil} & \quad \text{nimal}^\text{tə} & \quad \text{vaːaː} & \quad \text{usayi} \\
\text{Sunil-N} & \quad \text{Nimal-N} & \quad \text{than-M} & \quad \text{tall-Adj}
\end{align*}
\]

Sunil is taller than Nimal

The standard is a noun phrase to which something is being compared, in a. the noun phrase /sunil/, the adjective is \text{usa+yi}) tall (\text{Adj+ copula}) with the marker superlative case is /vaːaː/ 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 /vaː:a:/ than is considered as a postposition.

According to Lehmann (1972: 977) SOV languages have the following order in comparison: Standard- Pivot- Adjective. The comparative construction in Sinhala is in accordance with this pattern as in the following examples.

```
sunil nimalʈə vaː:a: usa yi
sunil to Nimal-Sta than-Pivot tall-Adj Cop
```

Sunil is taller than Nimal

Thus, the embedded element in OV languages are placed to the left of modified elements. On the other hand, when objects are placed after verbs in VO languages, the verb is preceded by verb modifiers, nominal modifier occurs after the nominal; embedded structures are placed to the right of the modified elements.

**Nancy is more intelligent than Jeff**

Note that the marker of comparison is the word than, rather than the word more. Most languages do not employ a word meaning more in comparative constructions, using expressions that literally translate more like Nancy is intelligent than Jeff, although the marker of comparison in such languages might be considered to mean more than rather than just than.
5.1.3. The Verb Phrase

According to Wickramasinha (1973: 34) in Sinhala, the 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, it can be said that the main constituent of a verb phrase is a verbal complement as illustrated in the following diagram.

The verb /duvana/ run does not take an object and it is known as an intransitive verb.

In Sinhala, being a head final language, the verb of a verb phrase will take the right headness as in a.

But in English the opposite holds true.
However, as a result of the influence of the mother tongue, L2 learner tends to make inter lingual errors, such as *tea drink* in which the learner’s errors are accounted for by interference of the mother tongue. The VP consists of a main verb which either stands alone as the entire VP, or is preceded by Aux.

In **a** the verb /liyənaːva/ *writes* is a lexical verb (main verb) which stands on its own whereas in **c & d** the verb /liyəla tiyenəva/ *(has written)* is a VP with Aux.
According to the structure of a verb phrase it can be classified as:

3. a simple verb phrase  
4. a complex verb phrase

1. A simple verb phrase

A simple finite verb phrase consists of one verb which may be present, past or imperative.

a. eya: gedəʁə duwənəʋa

he/she home run

Svp

He/She runs home

b. He runs home

Svp

c. eya: mahansiyen vaʁə kəɭ:

worke hard – Past - VP

He/She worked hard

d. He/Sheworked hard

VP

Examples for simple non finite verb phrase are;

a. kanə- to eat

b. kæːmə - eating
2. A complex verb phrase

A complex verb phrase is a phrase which contains more than one item. This is a common phenomenon in both languages.

a. eya: potə .lvəlativanəva

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{he/she-NP} \\
\text{book write-Past part has}
\end{array}
\]

\[Cvp\]

He/she has written the book

b. He/she has written the book

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Cvp}
\end{array}
\]

In Sinhalese, the Auxv is preceded by the Inf and the main verb. According to Gair (1970: 110) /æti/ /o:ni/ want /pulucən/ can in Sinhala are considered as auxiliaries.

a. eya: ma:əə ˈbalanəə enəə æti

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{he/she-NP} \\
\text{me} \\
\text{visit will-Aux}
\end{array}
\]

\[Cvp\]

He/she will visit me

According to quirk et al(1985: 150) there are four basic types of complex verb phrases. The modal, perfective, progressive and passive auxiliaries follow a strict word order in a complex verb phrase in English.

Modal auxiliary in English is always followed by an infinitive as in
He must visit us

The auxiliaries /o:ni/ want /puluvan/ can, might are used with Inf attributes but in English the auxiliaries are preposed the main verb as in d.

b. mama sinhala iganaganna → mama sinhala iganaganna o:ni

I want to learn Sinhala

c. mama sinhala iganaganna → mata sinhala iganaganna puluvan

I can learn Sinhala

d. I can learn English

I can learn English

However, in compound verb phrases, the VO order as the unmarked word order in English is changed as Auxv+V+O.

a. I will go home

b. He must go home
The sentences in English also display other auxiliaries which mark for tense. The emphatic auxiliary *do* for example is used as follows.

```
I    do    write    it
   S   Auxv   V    O
```

In Sinhala, the verb stem is followed by tense markers obligatorily and modals such as /puluvan, hækyi/*can, might etc whereas in English, the auxiliary verb is placed before the main verb and the tense value depends upon the auxiliary verb.

```
a. maṭə    yanna    puluvan
      I    -Dat    go-Inf    can
      I    can    go
```

The following diagrams show the difference in the order of auxiliary verbs in a verb phrase in Sinhala and English. According to Greenberg (1966:88) in languages with dominant order SOV, an inflected auxiliary always follows the main verb. This is true in Sinhala whereas in English the opposite holds true.

```
VP
  /
 Pp     Auxv
    /
  gihilla-gone  tiyenəva-has
  has    gone
```
As shown in this diagram it is apparent that the auxiliary verb in Sinhala is preceded by the past participle form of the verb whereas in English the opposite holds true.

The following diagram indicates the word order of Auxv in a verb phrase in English.

```
VP
  /\      
Auxv /  Pp 
  |     |
  has  gone
```

In Sinhala, the Auxv /tiyenaw/ bears the tense value and is preceded by a past participle form of the verb.

```
a. eya:  nacokata:vak liyalo tiveaw
  he/she-NP   a novel   writte-Pp  has-Pres

He/she has written a novel
```

```
b. eya:  nacokata:vak liyalo tibuna
  he/she-NP   a novel   written-Pp  has-Past

He/she had written a novel
```

But in English perfective is always followed by an –ed form, as in

```
He has visited
  Auxv   Pp
```
In Sinhalese, a verb can be transformed to a progressive form with the suffix /min/ to the root form of the verb.

\[
\text{eya: } \text{nəpəmin } \text{innəva}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{he/she} \\
\text{dance-Prog} \\
\text{Auxv}
\end{array}
\]

He/she is dancing

The reduplicated form of the verb is used in the progressive verb phrase as the dominant order of words in spoken Sinhala.

\[
\text{eya: } \text{nəpənəpə: } \text{innəva}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{he/she} \\
\text{dance-Prog} \\
\text{Auxv}
\end{array}
\]

He/she is dancing

But in English, the progressive verb is always preceded by an auxiliary.

\[
\text{He was } \text{visiting } \text{me}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Auxv} \\
\text{Prog}
\end{array}
\]

Though in written Sinhala the verbs are inflected for voice, mood, tense, number and person, in spoken Sinhala verbs are inflected only for voice, mood and tense.

\a. kəpənənə -do active voice- kerenənə been done passive voice (involitive)

These verbs can be used as head of the verb phrases as follows.

\b. vǣnə kənənə - work - Active voice (Volatile Form)

\c. vǣnə kerenə - work is done - Passive (Involitive form)
In English the word order of these verb phrases is inflexible but the word order in that of spoken Sinhala is flexible and occurs as a less dominant order.

\[
\text{a. kəranəva væaə̃a}
\]

\[
do \quad \text{work}
\]

\[
\text{work}
\]

\[
\text{b. kərenəva væaə̃a}
\]

\[
is \, \text{done} \quad \text{work}
\]

\[
\text{work \, is \, done}
\]

It is obvious that verb phrases in both languages are headed to the extent that they are composed of two kinds of element, auxiliary and main verb, such that every unreduced verb phrase contains a main verb but auxiliary is not obligatory.

5.1.4. The Adverbial Phrase

According to David (2003: 163) adverbs are adjunct elements which adjoin to phrases. The following tree diagrams show the constituent order of adverbial phrases in Sinhala and English.

\[
i. \quad \text{Advp}
\]

\[
\text{Degree} \quad \text{Adv}
\]

\[
təɾəmək \quad \text{hemiːtə}
\]

\[
\text{rather} \quad \text{slowly}
\]
In both Sinhala and English, adverbs can be formed by adding suffixes to adjectives. This can be considered as a considerable similarity between two languages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lassana – beautiful</td>
<td>lassana – beautifully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>satu – happy</td>
<td>satu – happily</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The postpositions /və/ /tə/ /vidiyə/ in Sinhala are used to derive adverbs from adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/prəyo:janəvat/ useful</td>
<td>/prəyo:janəvatvidiyə/ prəyo:janəvat/ usefully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>harima narəkə very bad</td>
<td>harima narəkə/ harima narəkəvidiyə/ very badly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The word order within the adverbial phrases in both languages is very inflexible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sinhala</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>maha ve:gyeyen</td>
<td>great speed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nosəlakillen</td>
<td>without any care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he:ʒude:</td>
<td>tomorrow morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>min passe</td>
<td>here after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>giyə bada:da</td>
<td>last Wednesday</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following adverbial phrases also have very rigid word order in both languages.

**Sinhala**  
**English**  
navatinne nātuva → without stopping  
ivaravak nātuva → without an end  
digatawa → continuously  
e:gamahana → at the same time

According to Fernando (1973: 303) Locative adverbial phrases like /nuera/ in Kandy /gedara/ (at home) appears constantly except /kolamba/ a locative suffix /el/. But it is clear that all nouns ending in a appear without this case suffix. However, to nouns like /ga:lla/ Galle the /el/ is suffixed.

/ga:lle/- in Galle

But in English prepositional phrases function as adverbial phrases with a rigid word order within them.

a. -in Colombo
b. ga:le - in Galle

As far as the word order within the adverbial phrases is concerned, the total inflexibility within them marks one of the most striking similarities of both languages. However, at the sentence level most of the adverbials are both mobile and optional occurring in the following dominant orders.

a. mage: amma sa:ma:nyen aiskri:muoləta goɔak kæmətyi  
my mother-S usually-Adv ice-cream-O very much-Adv like -V

My mother usually likes ice-cream very much
b. My mother **usually** likes ice-cream very much

```
S  Adv  V  O  Adv
```

c. sa:manyen  mage: amma kæmətyi aiskri:mələʈə  goək

```
usually-Adv  my mother-S  likes-V  ice-cream  very much-Adv
```

**Usually** my mother likes ice-cream very much

d. **Usually** my mother likes ice-cream very much

```
Adv
```

The fact that these orders enable us to explain is that in both languages, the order of constituents within the adverbial phrase is fixed whereas at the sentence level it becomes flexible.

5.1.5. Prepositional Phrase Vs Postpositional Phrase

In English, there are prepositional phrases whereas in Sinhala postpositional phrases appear. One of the main differences between Sinhala and English is that in Sinhala instead of prepositions, the postpositions are employed which follow the NP they combine with whereas in English prepositions are used in phrases, clauses and also in sentences. According to Greenberg (1963:82) the languages having dominant SOV order are postpositional. In Sinhala being a SOV language the postpositional phrases are dominantly used. However, as analysed in this study the word order of postpositional phrases in Sinhala and prepositional phrases in English is very rigid.
In Sinhala, the postpositional phrases usually consist of a NP and Pop whereas in English the prepositional phrases usually consist of a P and NP.

The following diagram shows the constituent order of Postpositional phrases in Sinhala as well as the prepositional phrases in English.

\[
(1) \text{a. me:se } \underline{u\text{a}} \\
\text{table-NP } \text{on-Pop} \\
\text{on the table}
\]

\[
\text{b. on } \text{the table} \\
P \text{ NP}
\]

The following tree diagrams show the constituent order of postpositional and prepositional phrases of the two languages respectively.

\[
\text{i. POP} \\
\text{N} \text{ Pop} \\
\text{\textit{lam}aya} \text{ child} \text{ g\textit{en}a} \text{ about} \\
\text{about the child}
\]
“In Sinhala postpositions as in the diagram 1 appear with preceding substantives, whose case they govern to form postpositional phrases” (Gair 1970: 41).

a. isureya gena

the child-NP about-Pop

about the child

c. from the village

from-P village-NP

game: iθala

However, both units can consist of more than one word (postpositional and prepositional phrases, must normally consist of at least two words) There is therefore no reason to describe one unit as more extensible than the other. The unmarked similarity is that the word order within both kinds is fixed as exemplified in the above diagrams. The order of a prepositional phrase in English is preposition and then the noun governed by the preposition as in c. But in Sinhala, the order is the same the opposite.

Due to the influence of Sinhala, English learners of Sinhala tend to make the mistakes of prepositions in English.

a.prasnawala ta mu:nadenwa
Prepositional phrases in English function as adjectival and adverbial phrases as well.

2 a. The cat is playing in the garden – (used as an adverbial phrase).

b. In the garden the cat is playing. (used as an adverbial phrase).

c. The cat in the garden is playing (used as an adjectival phrase)

When a prepositional phrase like in the garden occurs as an adverbial phrase in a sentence, it can occur at the initial position or at the end position of a sentence as in a, b. But when it is used as an adjectival phrase it can occur only in the mid position of the sentence as in c. So, it can be concluded that the semantic difference of prepositional phrases in English depends upon the different function of it in a sentence whereas in Sinhala the postpositional phrase can occur as an adverbial phrase anywhere in the sentence without making semantic differences as analyzed in 3 a,b,c,d. If it appears before a noun to show that it
functions as an adjective there is an intonation before the verb and changes the meaning as in e.

3 a. isko:le ætule ḍamayi sellamkola: krikat

School in-Pop children-N play- Past cricket

In the school students played cricket

b. ḍamayi krikat sellamkola: isko:le ætule

children-N cricket play- Past school in-Pop

Students played cricket in the school

c. ḍamayi isko:le ætule krikat sellamkola:.

children-N school in-Pop cricket play- Past

Children played cricket in the school

The following less dominant order as in d is also possible in Sinhala.

d. sellamkola: krikat ḍamayi isko:le ætule

play- Past cricket children-N school in-Pop

Children played cricket in the school

e. isko:le ætule ḍamayi, krikat sellamkola:

school in -Pop children-N cricket Play- Past

Children in the school played cricket
The following sentences also indicate the function of postpositional phrases in Sinhala as adverbial as well as and adjectival phrases in sentences.

f. mage: potə me:se u

| my     | book   | table | on |

My book is on the table

g. me:se u

| table-N | on-Pop | book   | mine |

The book on the table is mine

As far as the function of postpositional and prepositional phrases is concerned, in both languages the syntactic differences make the semantic differences. It is evident that the translator should be well versed with the complexity of this kind in order to do a translation which is of acceptable standard.

5.2. A Contrastive Study of Word Order at the Clause Level

A clause is a word or a group of words which normally consists of a subject and a predicate, although in some languages and some types of clauses, the subject may not be explicit. (This is especially common in null subject languages). The basic kind of sentence consists of a single clause; complex sentences contain multiple clauses. Wijesingha notes:

When a phrase or group of words includes a verb it is known as clause. A clause needs to have a main verb that is the verb included should not be a verbal noun or an adjective (2004: 94).
Clauses are generally classified as either dependent or independent. An independent clause can stand alone as a complete simple sentence, whereas a dependent clause must be connected to or part of another clause. The dependent clause is then described as subordinate to a main clause, or (if it is part of a larger clause) as embedded in a matrix clause. Examples are drawn from Sinhala and English.

**Example a:** *balla marəpu miniha pænəla giya*

```
| | | |
The dog kill man go away V- Past
```

The man who killed the dog went away

**Example b:** *The man who killed the dog went away*

```
| |
Dc
```

While *balla marəpu miniha* /The man who killed the dog/, functions as a dependent clause (Subordinate clause) and *miniha pænəla giya* /the Mn went away/ acts as an independent clause (Main clause).

Examples in English include the following:

- **a.** I went to the doctor (Independent clause)
- **b.** because I was ill (Dependent clause)

Adverbial subordinators occur at the beginning of the subordinate clause in English, as illustrated by the adverbial subordinator *because*.

because I was tired
But in Sinhala, the word order within the subordinate clause is contradictory to that of English. In Sinhala, the postpositions /nisa: and hinda/ because occur at the end of the clause.

\[
\text{a. } \text{maṭə mahansi nisa:} \\
\text{I–Dat } \text{tired } \text{because-Su} \\
\text{because I am tired}
\]

\[
\text{b. } \text{maṭə mahnsi hinda} \\
\text{I–Dat } \text{tired } \text{because-Su} \\
\text{because I am tired}
\]

It is visible that the word order within the clauses in both languages is rigid.

- The Comparison of the Major Clause Types in Sinhala and English

Though Sinhala is known as a SOV language, it has a number of other word order characteristics which are typical of verb final languages. According to Quirk et al.(1985: 157) there are seven clause types in English.
**Type** - **Examples**

**Type 1: SV** -  \( \text{veda} \ vana \)  
\( \text{the new year- S} \)  \( \text{dawn- V} \)  

The new year dawns

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

i. **VS** -  \( \text{veda} \ vana \)  \( \text{veda} \)  
\( \text{dawn- V} \)  \( \text{the new year- S} \)  

The New Year dawn

In English, the unmarked word order of **Type 1** is SV and VS variation is used in spoken English.

(1) **SV** -  \( \text{Rishi} \)  \( \text{came down} \)  
\( S \)  \( V \)  

**VS**-  \( \text{Down came} \)  \( \text{Rishi} \)  
\( V \)  \( S \)  

In Sinhala, the unmarked word order of the **Type 2** -SOV has the following variation.
The Type 2 has word order variations as VSO, OVS and VOS frequently used in Sinhala.

i. VSO -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>udavə kəɾənəva  eyaː</th>
<th>maʈə</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>help-V</td>
<td>he/sh-S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me-O</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He/She helps me

ii. OVS -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>maʈə  udavəkəɾənəva  eyaː</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>me-O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>help-V-Pres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he/she-S</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He/She helps me

iii. VOS -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>udavəkəɾənəva  maʈə  eyaː</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>help-V-Pres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me-O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he/sh -S</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He/She helps me

The SVO order is also used in Sinhala similar to English.

iv. SVO -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>eyaː  udavəkəɾənəva  maʈə</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he/she</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>help-V-Pres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me-O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He/She helps me

In English, the unmarked word order of Type 2 is SVO.
Type (2) : SOV- 
He likes mutton
\[ S \quad V \quad O \]

However, the following variation in English is used when the O is thereby emphasized.

OSV-
Mutton he likes
\[ O \quad S \quad V \]

Type 3: SCV
mage: mitrəya guruvərəyek
\[ my \quad friend-S \quad teacher-C \quad V \]

My friend is a teacher

In Sinhala, since the be verbs are totally absent, the particle /ek/ak/ are suffixed to the complement as below. Consequently, the English learners of Sinhala (L2 learners) have tendency to neglect be verbs\(^1\).

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

\(^1\)“The university life (is) important for us because after the A/L examination we (are) selected to the university. It is very happy for us. Some students (are) very close to us. University students (are) important for the country. We can be the good citizen in

the country. So university life (is) very significant in our lives”.

(The paragraph written by a Sinhala speaking undergraduates in the faculty of Social sciences and Languages at Sabaragamuwa University of Sri Lanka on 25 March 2008) (The be verbs within brackets are neglected by the students)
i. CVS  

\[ \text{guruərayek} \quad \text{mage: mitrəva} \]

\[ \quad \text{teacher-C} \quad \underline{V} \quad \text{my} \quad \text{friend-S} \]

My friend is a teacher

But in English the unmarked constituent order is SVC.

(3) SVC  

\[ \text{She seems happy} \]

\[ \quad \text{S} \quad \underline{V} \quad \underline{C} \]

Type 4: SAV -  

\[ \quad \text{mamə} \quad \text{gedərə} \quad \text{innəva} \]

\[ \quad I \quad \underline{-S} \quad \text{at home-A} \quad \underline{\text{stay-V}} \]

I stay at home

The following variations of Type 4 are commonly used in Sinhala.

i. ASV -  

\[ \quad \text{gedərə} \quad \text{mamə} \quad \text{innəva} \]

\[ \quad \text{at home-A} \quad I \quad \underline{-S} \quad \text{stay-V-Pres} \]

I stay at home

ii. VSA -  

\[ \quad \text{innəva} \quad \text{mamə} \quad \text{gedərə} \]

\[ \quad \underline{\text{stay-V-Pres}} \quad I \quad \underline{-S} \quad \text{at home-A} \]

I stay at home
iii. SV A  
\[
\begin{align*}
I & -S \\
\text{stay-V-Pres at home} & \\
\text{I} & \text{stay at home}
\end{align*}
\]

iv. A V S  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{at home-A} & \\
\text{stay-V-Pres} & \\
I & -S
\end{align*}
\]

I stay at home

In English the unmarked word order in Type 4 is SVA.

Type (4): SVA- The children play in the garden
\[
\begin{align*}
S & \\
V & \\
A
\end{align*}
\]

The following marked constituent order is also acceptable in English.

ASV - In the garden the children play
\[
\begin{align*}
A & \\
S & \\
V
\end{align*}
\]

In Sinhala in clause Type 5, the indirect object is inflected whereas in English instead the preposition is used. This phenomenon is considered as a big difference between inflected and uninflected languages.

Type 5: SVOO-  
\[
\begin{align*}
I & -S \\
\text{my to son -IO a book-DO give-V-Past} & \\
\text{I gave my son a book}
\end{align*}
\]
The following variations are also predominantly used in spoken Sinhala.

i. SDOIOV-  
mamə  potak mage: putaːʈə  dunna  
I -S  a book-DO my to son -IO  give-V-Past  
I gave a book to my son

ii. SVDOIO-  
mamə  dunna  potak  mage: putaːʈə  
I -S  give-V-Past  a book-DO  to my son -IO  
I gave a book to my son

iii. SVIODO -  
mamə  dunna  mage: putaːʈə  potak  
I -S  give-V- my to son -IO  a book-DO  
I gave my son a book

iv. VSIODO -  
dunna  mamə  mage:  putaːʈə  potak  
give-V-Past  I -S  my to son -IO  a book-DO  
I gave my son a book

v. VSDOIO-  
dunna  mamə  potak  mag  putaːʈə  
give-V-Past  I -S  a book-DO my to son -IO  
I gave a book to my son
vi. IODOSV | mage: | puta:ʈə | potak | mamə | dunna

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{my} & \quad \text{to son -IO} & \text{a book-DO} & \text{I -S} & \text{give-V-Past} \\
\end{align*}
\]

I gave a book to my son

The following variation is less dominant in Sinhala.

vii. DOIOSV- | potak | mage: | puta: | mamə | dunna

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a book-DO} & \quad \text{my} & \quad \text{to son -IO} & \text{I -S} & \text{give-V-Past} \\
\end{align*}
\]

I gave a book to my son

In English the unmarked word order of clause Type 5 is SVOO.

Type 5: SVOO- | I | gave | a book to my son

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{S} & \quad \text{V} & \text{DO} & \text{IO} \\
\end{align*}
\]

The following variation is largely in English.

SVIODO- | I | gave | my son | a book

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{S} & \quad \text{V} & \text{IO} & \text{DO} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Type 6: SOCV - | mamə | mage: | puta: | dostərə-kenek | karənəva

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I-S} & \quad \text{my} & \text{son-O} & \text{a doctor -C} & \text{will make-V} \\
\end{align*}
\]

I will make my son a doctor
The following variations are largely used in spoken Sinhala.

i. CVSO -  
\[ \text{dostrə-kenek kəɾənəva mama mage: puta:} \]
\[ a \text{ doctor-C will make-V I-S my son-O} \]
I will make my son a doctor

ii. OCVS -  
\[ \text{mage: puta: dostrə-kenek kəɾənəva mama} \]
\[ my \text{ son-O a doctor-C will make-V I-S} \]
I will make my son a doctor

But the constituent order in English of Type 6 is fixed as exemplified below.

Type (6): SVOC -  
\[ \text{I found her very helpful} \]
\[ S \text{ V O C} \]

The unmarked word order of clause Type 7 in Sinhala would be as:

Type 7: SOAV-  
\[ \text{pere:ra hæmədeyakmo avəŋkəvəma piligatta} \]
\[ Perera -S everything-O frankly-A admit-V-Past \]
Perera admitted everything frankly

The following variations are predominantly used in spoken Sinhala.

i. OSAV -  
\[ \text{hæmədeyakmo pere:ra avəŋkəvəma piligatta} \]
\[ everything-O Perera -S frankly-A admit-V-Past \]
Perera admitted everything frankly

ii. AOV - ={`avəŋkəwəmə`}  pere:ra  hæmədeyakəmə  piligətə

frankly-A  Perera -S  everything-O  admit-V-Past

Perera admitted everything frankly

iii. AOV - ={`avəŋkəwəmə`}  hæmədeyakəmə  pere:ra  piligətə

frankly-A  everything-O  Perera -S  admit-V-Past

Perera admitted everything frankly

iv. AOVS - =`avəŋkəwəmə`  hæmədeyakəmə  piligətə  pere:ra

frankly-A  everything-O  admit-V-Past  Perera -S

Perera admitted everything frankly

v. OAVS -  hæmədeyakəmə  =avəŋkəwəmə  piligətə  pere:ra

everything-O  frankly-A  admit-V-Past  Perera -S

Perera admitted everything frankly

The basic word order of clause Type 7 in English would be as:

Type (7): SVOA- He  took  him  into the hotel

S  V  O  A

The following marked word order is possible in spoken English so as the adverbial is thereby emphasized.
5.2.1. The Nominal Clause

There are five main types of nominal clauses in Sinhala, namely:

i. The interrogative sub clause

ii. The nominal relative clause

iii. The nominal ʈə (to) - infinitive clause

iv. The participle clause

v. The nominal equational clause

In English, there are five main types of nominal clauses, namely:

i. *that* clause

ii. The interrogative sub clauses

iii. The nominal relative clause

iv. The nominal *to* - infinitive clause

v. The Nominal *ing* - clause. (Leech and Svartvik 2004:326).

(The detailed discussion of *that clause* in English: 3.2.2).

**i. The interrogative sub clause**

The interrogative sub clauses are introduced by *Wh- interrogative* words in both languages, including /kohomədə/ *how*.

- *Wh* interrogative subclause as:
- a subject:
a. eya: ʋǣkaranne kohoməda kiyənəekə eya:ge kæpə kirima

| He/she | work | how | Pop | his/her | dedication |

Isc-S

mata ti:ranayavena

on depend

How he/she works depends on his/her dedication

b. **How he/she works** depends on his/her dedication

Isc-S

Unlike in English, the word order of interrogative sub clause in a sentence is flexible so as the following variation is also dominant in Sinhala.

c. kæpə kirima mata ti:ranayavena eya: ʋǣkaranne kohoməda

dedication on depend he/she work how

kiyənəekə

Pop-Isc

How he/she works depends on her dedication

Contradictory to nominal clause in English, in Sinhala the postposition /kiyələ/ follows the verb.
Where he is going is not known

However, in Spoken Sinhala, for the purpose of emphasis, the word order within the nominal clause and its position in the sentence can be changed so as the word order variation as in b is dominantly used. The emphasis lies on /danne næ/ with the change of its order in the sentence. “Usage of this kind is named as the emphatic transformation” (Gair 1970:133).

Where he is going is not known

ii. The nominal relative clause

Nominal relative clauses are also introduced by different Wh- words which in both languages can function as:

- a subject

What we need is to pass the examination
b. What we need is to pass the examination

iii. The nominal \( tə \) or \( tə(\text{to}) \)- infinitive clause

Nominal \( tə \) or \( tə(\text{to}) \) - infinitive clause in Sinhala occurs as an Adv where the dative subject is omitted.

\[
\text{payiŋ yan} tə \text{ ama:ruyi}
\]

\[
\text{on foot to go difficult-Adj}
\]

To go on foot is difficult

The particle /yi/ is suffixed to the Adj / ama:ru+yi/ in order to denote the sense of verb since there is hardly any ‘be’ verbs in Sinhala.

In English Ic occurs as a subject.

To go on foot is difficult

\[
\text{Inf}c
\]

• a complement of an adjective

a. mamə satuṭu davəsə purə:ma vəξəkəranə

\[
I \text{ happy-Adj the day throughout to work}
\]

To go on foot is difficult

\[
\text{Inf}c
\]

I am happy to work throughout the day

In English also infinitive clause occurs as a complement of an adjective.
b. It is not easy to work throughout the day

iv. The participle clause (Partc)

The participle clause can function as:

- a subject

a. akuru lici:ma ama:ruyi

   letter writing is difficult

   Partc

   Writing letters is difficult

b. Writing letters is difficult

   Partc

v. The nominal equational clause

Equational clause is a clause in which the subject and the complement refer to the same person or thing.

a. gunasiri maha:tya ape: iskole mulguru:aryya

   Gunasiri gentleman_S our-Gen school-Loc head teacher-Com

   Mr Gunasiri is the head teacher of our school (Gair and Paolillo 1988: 40).
b. **Susan** is the girl I was talking about

\[
\begin{array}{c}
S \\
Com
\end{array}
\]

In both languages the word order of the nominal equational clause is flexible.

c. **ape: isko:le**  
**mulguruərəya**  
**gunasiri makaṭtəya**

Our-Gen school- Loc head teacher-S Gunasiri gentleman -Com

The head teacher of our school is Mr Gunasiri

d. **The girl I was talking about is Susan**

\[
\begin{array}{c}
S \\
Com
\end{array}
\]

- **Equational type with indefinite NP predicate**

a. **gunasiri makaṭtəya**  
**ape: isko:le**  
**guruərəvek**

Gunasiri gentleman _S_ our-Gen school- Loc teacher-Com-Ind

Mr Gunasiri is a teacher of our school

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

d. **ape: isko:le**  
**guruərəvek**  
**gunasiri makaṭtəya**

our-Gen school- Loc teacher-S-Ind gunasiri gentleman- Com

Mr Gunasiri is a teacher of our school

But in English, the word order of equational clause is fixed.
5.2.2. The Adjectival Clause

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

According to Greenberg (1966:78) in languages with postpositions, the genitives, adjectives and relative clause precede nominal. Sinhala follows this pattern and the word order within the clause is very rigid.

The man who is wearing a white shirt went home

/sudu kamisəyak ændəgət/ is the relative clause which modifies the N /minihə/ man. Subaravo notes:

Verb-final languages such as Japanese and Dravidian Languages, the complement occurs to the LEFT of the head and thus the DIRECTION of the government is to the LEFT (1996: 17).

But in English, being a right–branching language, the relative clauses occur to the right of their heads with a very rigid word order.
In the sentence *The man who is wearing a white shirt went home* while *who is wearing a white shirt* does the work of a relative clause and *The man* is the modified noun. The dissimilarities of this kind make difficulty for the Sinhala learners of English and the translator as well.

The difference in function between restrictive relative clauses is well-known. As their name suggests, the restrictive relative clauses limit the scope of the noun phrases they are associated with, while non-restrictive does not.

a. Drug manufactures *who are rich* are thieves

b. Drug manufactures, *who are rich*, are thieves

According to Lakoff (1966: 36) in a. *who are rich* is a restrictive clause; in b it is non restrictive. a. does not refer to all drug manufacturers, only about the rich ones. But b discusses all drug manufacturers and makes the additional assertion that they are rich. In example a, it is not asserted that all drug manufacturers are rich. Similar difference in function can be seen in the relative clauses in Sinhala.

a. *bat kana lamayi anəanəa*

   *rice eating*  *children*  *crying*

   The children who are eating rice are crying

b. *bat kana me: lamayi anəanəa*

   *rice eating*  *these*  *children*  *crying*

   These children, who are eating rice, are crying

   (Fernando 1973:12).
According to Fernando (1973:12) a expresses only about the children who are eating rice while example b refers to all the children and makes an additional assertion that they are crying.

5.2.3. The Adverbial Clause

A clause which functions as an adverb is called an adverbial clause. In Sinhala it is named as / kriya: vije:sonəva:çi: aturu væki/. The constituent order of an adverbial clause in both languages can be identified as follows.

(In the following table Sinhala adverbial clauses are translated into English in order to identify the similarities and differences in constituent order between them)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The adverbial clauses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sinhala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maṭə mahansi nisa:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maṭə gedərə yanəkə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maṭə kaka: innə velə:ne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maṭə kaka: innə velə:ne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maṭə kaka: innə velə:ne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maṭə kaka: innə velə:ne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Prepared by the researcher
The significant difference is that the word order within some of the adverbial clauses in Sinhala is free whereas that of English is totally inflexible.

\[ \text{a. maṭṭa mahansi nisa: mamə nida:gaṭṭa} \]
\[ I-Ds \text{ tired-Adj because-Pop I-S sleep-Past-V} \]
\[ \text{Advc} \]

because I was tired

\[ \text{b. because I was tired} \]
\[ \text{I slept} \]
\[ \text{Prep S V Adj} \]
\[ S V \]
\[ \text{Advc} \]

In Sinhala, the following variation is also largely used whereas in English, the word order within the adverbial clause is very rigid.

\[ \text{b. mahansi nisa: maṭṭa nida:gaṭṭa mamə} \]
\[ \text{tired-Adj because-Pop I-Ds sleep-Past-V I-S} \]
\[ \text{Advc} \]

Because I was tired I slept

The function of the adverbial clauses as adjunct can be classified as follows and it indicates the function of adverbial clauses in both languages.
• Causal:
Causal adjuncts establish the reason for or purpose, of an action or state.

a. inimagə kaːa: ɾætuna   eːka paɾəna nisa:

The ladder  collapse-Past-Mc it  old because-Adv

The ladder collapsed because it was old (Reason)

b. The ladder collapsed  because it was old (Reason)

Mc  Adv

She went out to buy some bread

c. eya: eliyətə giya   paːn ɾ̥iːkak gannə (Purpose)

She went out to buy some bread

d. She went out  to buy some bread (Purpose)

Mc  Adv

In both languages, the following variation in the order of adverbial clauses is largely used.

a. paːn ɾ̥iːkak gannə   eya: eliyətə giya

To buy some bread she went out
b. To buy some bread she went out

Advc

c. eya: eliyọtọ giya  

pa:n tikak ganna

She went out to buy some bread

d. She went out to buy some bread

Advc

• Concessive:

“The concessive adjuncts establish the contrary circumstances”

a. eya: eliyọtọ giya  

va:ssa  

tibunat

He went out although it was raining

b. He went out although it was raining

Mc  

Advc

c. va:ssa  

tibunat  

eya: eliyọtọ giya

Although it was raining he went out
d. Although it was raining he went out

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{Adv}c & \text{Mc} \\
\end{array}
\]

Apparently, the word order of clauses functions as causal and concessive is free in both languages.

The adjunct clauses introduced by the temporal complementizer before /\text{perə/ kalin}/ when /\text{vetə:ve/kotə}/ and after /\text{passə/}, the word order is free since they can be adjoined on either side of the main clause.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
\text{a. poli:siyə ennə} & \text{kalin} & \text{eya: magæ:rəla gihilla tibuna} \\
\end{array}
\]

the police come-Past Before-Adv c he escape-Past part had -Mc

Before the police came he had escaped

b. Before the police came he had escaped

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{Adv}c & \text{Mc} \\
\end{array}
\]

c.eya: magæ:rəla gihilla tibuna poli:siyə ennə kalin

he escape-Past part had the police come-Past before-Adv c

He had escaped before the police came

d. He had escaped before the police came

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{Mc} & \text{Dc} \\
\end{array}
\]
When his father came he was sleepy.

It is also worth examining the relationship between the position of adverbial subordinators and that of adpositions. We might expect a stronger correlation here because of their semantic similarity; adverbial subordinators indicate semantic relationships between an adverbial clause and the main clause while adpositions indicate semantic relationships between a noun phrase and a verb. In many languages, the set of adverbial subordinators overlaps with the set of adpositions. In English, for example, the words after and before function either as adverbial subordinators or as prepositions, as illustrated in a and b respectively.

a. John went home after he had watched the game

b. John went home after the game
Furthermore, the two-word preposition in English **because of** is similar in form to the adverbial subordinator **because**, and they have essentially the same meaning as in (a).

a. **Because it was raining**, the picnic was canceled  
b. **Because of the rain**, the picnic was canceled

However, the internal structure of these clauses is fairly straight forward and they are headed by the temporal complementizer which takes tense complement. Significant difference is that temporal complementizer of this kind in English is placed at the initial position of the adverbial clause whereas in Sinhala particles like /kotə/ when/na/oṭ/ if and postposition like /nisa:/ because /relə:və/ when, while /kalən/ before-passed /nəunəṭ/ though, although occur at the end of the clause as in the examples a, b, c and d, e, f, g and h. According to Dryer (1992: 53) by an adverbial subordinator, a word that marks an adverbial subordinate clause for its semantic relation to the main clause. In English, this includes such words as **while, when, after, because, although** and **if**.

However, the noteworthy similarity is that all those complementizer, particles and postposition in both languages embody a very rigid order.

```
a. polisiya giyaṭə passe  
   the police has left-Past perf after-Pop  
   Advc  
   after the police had left  

b. after the police had left -Advc
```
Consequence of mixing the order of conjunctions in Sinhala with that of in English, the English learners of Sinhala tend to make mistakes like misplacing conjunctions.

\[ a. \text{ asənǐːpə hində məmə behet ɡaṭtə} \]
\[ \text{ill because I medicine take-Past-V} \]
* I am ill **because** I took medicine

\[ b. \text{ muhunə soːda: ɡaṭtə pase apı udeːtə kæːva} \]
\[ \text{face wash-Past after-Pop-Advc we break fast have-Past-V} \]
- We washed our face **after we** had our breakfast

In considering the word order in clauses in English it is obvious that within the clause the word order is very rigid which is not always true with that of Sinhala.

5.3. A Contrastive Study of Word Order at the Sentence Level

The languages in the world can be classified as languages with grammatical word order (GWO) and languages with pragmatic word order (PWO).

“English is a fine example of GWO” (Rutherford 1998:300-303) but Sinhala is mostly a language with pragmatic word order (PWO).

Pairs of sentences, one from each language will glimpse at contrast.

\[ a. \text{ ɣæʋʊʋ a liyum ə joːn} \]
* Sent the letter John
b. jo:n  yævɔva liyumə
John sent the letter

c. liyumə jo:n yavanna  æti
The letter was sent by John

d. jo:n tamaí liyumə yævɔve
It was John who sent the letter

John is the salient element in these sentences and the saliency in spoken English would typically be accomplished through rigid SVO order with stress on S-John. In spoken Sinhala, it would typically be accomplished simply through flexible reordering SOV, to OVS,VOS,OSV,SVO placing John (S) in sentence final salient position. Spoken Sinhala can achieve it simply by rearranging the constituents such that the subject is placed last.

This section will study the word order in Sinhala and in English at the sentence level. According to Rutherford (1998:300-303) English can also achieve it by putting the subject last, as in example c but crucially must utilize a grammatical device ,namely passive-to do so wherein grammatical – subject position can remain filled by the object letter.

According to Hawkins (1983:21) Greenberg states that if in a language if the verb follows both the nominal subject and nominal object as the dominant order, the language almost always has a case system. Examples can be drawn from Sinhala since it is one of the inflectional languages in the world. But it is not true with English since instead of inflection, the prepositions are used.
a. miniha gedəə yanaəa

man-S home-O go-V-Pres

The man goes home

b. məmə minihaṭə potə dunna

I-S man-Dat book-O give-V-Past

I gave the book to the man

c. I gave the book to the man

It is clear that the verb follows the nominal subject and nominal object as the dominant word order in Sinhala.

“Greenberg maintains that in languages with dominant order SOV, an inflected auxiliary always follows the main verb” (Hawkins 1983: 21).

Auxiliaries like /æti, o:ni/ in Sinhala with a dominant SOV order follow the main verb.

a. mahaṭṭəya yanna æti

Gentleman go-PastPart may have-Auxv

Gentleman may have gone

/puluʋaŋ/ o:ni/, are model adjectives and quasi verb /æti/ can be used as auxiliaries which follow the main verb.
But in English, the auxiliary verbs either primary or model are used before the verb in sentences other than question form. The following examples indicate the word order of auxiliary verb in a verb phrase in English.

a. We will go home.
b. He must do it.

In spoken English, sometimes the auxiliary verbs are used before the subject not in interrogative sentences but in a normal matrix sentence as in b.

a. Where were you at that time?
b. May be I was at school (Look Ahead, BBC English CD1).

In continuous tenses in English, the auxiliary verbs are used before the ing form of the verb whereas in spoken Sinhala /min/ is suffixed to the verb (Eg.a) or reduplicated form of the verb is used which follows the auxiliary as in the example b.

Another example to show the difference in the order of auxiliaries in sentences in both Sinhala and English is as follows.

c. amma gihilla tiyenəəa
   mother-S gone-Past part has-Auxv
   Mother has gone

d. Mother has gone
   S Auxv gone-Past part
In Sinhala, the auxiliary verb /tiyenaː/ has can be omitted but in English the auxiliary verb has cannot be omitted since there is a rigid order.

The following discussion deals with the contrastive aspects of word order in both languages at sentence level.

5.3.1. The Compound Sentences

In a compound sentence too, sentences are joined with a conjunctive and in a complex sentence they are joined with the relative pronouns. A compound sentence in both languages contains two independent clauses joined by a coordinator. The coordinators are as follows: /namṳt, /e:unaː:τa/ but /taːmovə/ yet /me:daːkɐa: / till.

a.
maː siŋhəla kataːkəranə puluːya eːunaːta iŋgrisi kataːkəranə
bæ

I-Dat Sinhala speak-Inf can but English speak-Inf can’t

I can speak Sinhala but can’t speak English

b. I can speak Sinhala but can’t speak English

c. aːymiː gameː giyaː taːmovə aːve næ

elder brother village-Loc go-Past yet come no

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

In changing the order of clauses in the above sentence the conjunction / eːunaː:τa/ but is normally omitted or changed its order.
The coordinators in English are as follows: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, till* and *so*.

a. *I tried to speak Spanish, and my friend tried to speak English*

b. *Smith played football, so Mary Smith went shopping*

c. *Smith played football, for Mary Smith went shopping*

The above three sentences are compound sentences. Each sentence contains two independent clauses, and they are joined by a coordinator with a comma preceding it. The conscious use of coordinators can change the relationship between the clauses. Sentences b and c, for example, are identical except for the coordinators. In sentence b, *Smith played football occurs* first, and as a consequence, *Mary Smith went shopping*. In sentence c, *Mary Smith went shopping first*. In sentence c Smith played football because, possibly, he didn't have anything else to do, for or because *Mary Smith went shopping*.

However, the word order within the two clauses in c is free since the following changes are acceptable only in Sinhala whereas in both languages the word order within the sentence seems rigid as in a, b, c and d.

c. *aïya giya: game: a:re nӕ tarəmə*

```
elder brother go-Past village-Loc come no yet
```

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

However, the order of two clauses in the compound sentence in both languages is somewhat rigid since the following changes are not acceptable.

*a. a:ve næ tacəma ayiya giya: game
   come no yet elder brother go-Past village-Loc

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

*b. Hasn’t come yet and my elder brother went to the village

Gapping is predominantly operated in compound sentences in both languages. Panhuis (1980: 229) states that gapping is the deletion of identical verbs except for one in conjoined sentences which defer at least two of their constituents.

“Gapping as formulated by J. R. Ross operates to delete indefinitely many occurrences of a repeated main verb in a conjoined structure” (Fernando 1973: 254).

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

a. sunil baŋ kanəra pere:ra paɳ kanəra
   sunil-S rice-O eat-V Perera-S bread-O eat-Pres-V

Sunil eats rice and Perera eats bread
b. Sunil eats rice and Perera eats bread

c. Sunil eats rice and Perera ø bread

S V O Co S O

d. sunil baŋ ø pere:ra paŋ kanaŋa

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

Sunil eats rice and Perera eats bread

e. Saman and I finished my homework but Anura did not

(Wijesinha 2004: 82).

Unlike in English in Sinhala, when the verb in the first clause is gapped, the assertion marker /yi/ is added to the objects of the two clauses and the object takes the marked form like /batuyi/ rice.

a. sunil batuyi pere:ra paŋuyi kanaŋa

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

Sunil eats rice and Perera bread

b. Sunil eats rice and Perera ø bread

S V O Co S O

5.3.2. The Complex Sentence

The complex sentence can be defined as a sentence which contains one or more dependent clauses in addition to its independent clause.
A complex sentence has an independent clause joined by one or more dependent clauses.

A principal, main, or independent clause is one making a statement without the help of any other clause. A subordinate or dependent clause is one which makes a statement depending upon or modifying some word in the principal clause.

A complex sentence always has a subordinator such as /nisa: /hinda/ because, since/passe/ after /ehema unat/ although, or /rela:re/ when or a relative pronoun such as that, who, or which. A complex sentence contains one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. The structure of a complex sentence could be as follows.

a. **rahina rela:re**          api ætulæti giya:
   
   rain  when-Dc
   
   When it was raining we went inside

b. **When it was raining.**  we went inside

   Dc
   
   Ic

The constituent order within the Dc in both languages is very rigid but in many complex sentences the order of clauses is flexible.

a. **api ætulæti giya:**          **rahina rela:re**

   we  inside  go-past-Ic
   
   rain  when-Dc

   We went inside when it was raining

b. **When it was raining.**  we went inside
c. We went inside when it was raining

| Ic | Dc |

| Ic | Dc |

d. eya: sindu kiyaddi api naṭnaṭa: hiṭiya

he/she singing while-Dc we dance keep-Past-Ic

While he/she was singing we danced

e. While he was singing, we danced

| Dc | Ic |

| Dc | Ic |

When a complex sentence begins with a subordinator such as sentences b and e, a comma is placed at the end of the dependent clause. When the independent clause begins with subordinators in the middle as in sentences c no comma is required.

f. I danced while he was singing

| Ic | Dc |

| Ic | Dc |

A complex sentence with one dependent clause and one compound clause:

a. vahiddi ape ṭa:tta gedara hiṭiya e:una:ṭa mama

while it was raining our father home was but I

| Dc | Ic |

| Dc | Ic |

isko:le giva:
The sentences containing adjective clauses [or dependent clauses] are also complex because they contain an independent clause and a dependent clause. Being a head last language the adjectival clause occurs before the H in Sinhala as in a whereas in English, the adjectival clause follows the H as in b. The dissimilarity of this kind is likely to make some difficulties for the L₂ learner to acquire English and also the translator may encounter some difficulty in translating the source to the target language.

a. mage amma kata: kəɾə kəɾə hiṭi minihat bisnəs kəɾənə

kenek

my mother taking keep man also business one

b. The man with whom my mother was talking is a businessman

c. deːɾiŋ kiyəɾəpə̱ potə raːkke tiyenəɾə

Davit read-Past part book self−Loc is
The book that Davit read is on the self

d. **The book that Davit read is on the self**

The complex sentences with infinitive have a flexible word order in both languages.

a. oyaːtə hɔpələmə deː  anɪt ayətə udəʊə kiriːmayi
    you-Dat  best   thing   others   help-Inf   go-Vn

The best thing for you is to help others

b. anɪt ayətə udəʊə kiriːmayi  oyaːtə hɔpələmə deː:
    others   help-Inf   you-Dat  best   thing

The best thing for you is to help the others

c. The best thing for you would be to tell everyone

The best thing for you would be to tell everyone would be the best thing for you.
The infinitive without to and the subject of the sentence also has a free word order in English.

**a. All I did was hit him on the head**

**b. Hit him on the head was all I did.**

When the subject of adverbial participle clauses is expressed, in Sinhala the postposition /ekka/ is used whereas in English it is often introduced by *with*.

**a. raṆaya venas vi:ma ṭ ekka api praṆo:janə laebuva**

With the changing of the government we were benefited

**b. With the changing of the government, we are benefited**

**c. We are benefited with the changing of the government**

### 5.3.2.1. The Cleft Sentences
The structure of cleft sentences in Sinhala is different from that of English.

**The structure:**
According to Henadeerage (2002: 204) one of the characteristics 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 and the focus marker on a constituent, is crucially important.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
 \text{a.pere:ra} & \text{tamayi} & \text{liyuma} & \text{livove} \\
\text{Perera -S} & \text{Foc} & \text{letter -O} & \text{write-Past} \\
\end{array}
\]

It is Perera who wrote the letter

However, in English the “Cleft sentences usually begin with *it* + form of the verb *is*, followed by the element which is being emphasized” (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics 1985)

“Clefting and passivization are particularly prominent in SVO languages” (Verma 1996: 5).

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
 \text{It+ Be} & \text{form} & \text{+ the element to be focused} & \text{+ clause} \\
\end{array}
\]

\textbf{It was Mr. Smith who gave Mary a dress}

\textbf{It was a dress that Mr. Smith gave Mary}

In Sinhala, no such construction is possible and instead the focus marker /tamayi/ is used as in a, whereas according to the structure of cleft sentence in English, there are two subjects: the anticipatory subject and the postponed subject.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
 \text{a. smi\text{t} } & \text{tamayi } & \text{me:ri\text{t} } & \text{poto } & \text{dunne} \\
\end{array}
\]
Smith  Foc  Mary-Dat  book  give-Past-Foc

It was  Mr. Smith who gave Mary a book

b. It was  Mr. Smith who gave Mary a book

As  Ps

In a cleft sentence in Sinhala 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/.

a. pererayi  liyuma  liyang

Perera-S  letter-O  write -Pres

It is Perera who writes the letter

In sentence of this kind, the focus marker /tamayi/ is omitted and the /yi/ copula is suffixed to the S.

However, in some sentences the /yi/ copula is attached to the object.

a. perera  liyumayi  liyang

Perera-S  letter-O  write -Pres

It is the letter that Perera writes

It is clear that with the change of this kind of the word order of focus marker, the change of the meaning is unavoidable. In discussing the cleft and pseudo cleft sentences in English Arts notes:

Both cleft and pseudo cleft always contain a form of the copular verb be. The position following this copular verb is called the focus position. The elements that occur here receive special prominence (1997: 212).
a. It is Mary who writes.

b. It is Honda that she bought.

Depending upon the element which one wants to focus, the order of focus marker can be changed and a simple sentence may have several cleft sentences as follows. Simple sentence:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Davit-s yesterday-Adv in the party-Adv pudding-O eat-Past} \\
\text{Davit ate pudding at the party yesterday}
\end{array}
\]

can have following cleft forms:

a. \[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Davit Foc yesterday-Adv in the party-Adv pudding-O eat-V-Past} \\
\text{It was Davit who ate pudding at the party yesterday}
\end{array}
\]

b. \[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Davit-S yesterday-Adv in the party-Adv pudding-O Foc eat-V-Past} \\
\text{It was pudding that Davit ate at the party yesterday}
\end{array}
\]

c. \[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Davit-S yesterday-Adv in the party-Adv Foc pudding-O eat-Past} \\
\text{It was at the party yesterday that Davit ate pudding}
\end{array}
\]

d. \[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Davit Foc} \\
\text{It was at the party yesterday that Davit ate pudding}
\end{array}
\]
It was at the party yesterday that Davit ate pudding.

In English also, depending upon the element we want to focus; a simple sentence may have several cleft sentences. This can be considered a way of making complex sentences.

Simple sentence: David had ice cream at the party last night.

Cleft Forms:

- a. It was David who had ice cream at the party last night.
- b. It was ice cream that David had at the party last night.
- c. It was at the party that David had ice cream last night.
- d. It was last night that David had ice cream at the party.

5.3.2.2. The Conditional Clause

This section deals with the comparative presentation of the word order in conditional clauses in both Sinhala and English. In Sinhala, the conditional clauses is named as /asambhaːryakriya:/ and is used similar to English in meaning but there are differences in word order since two languages deal with different properties in their structures. In Sinhala adverbial particles /nāŋ/ /ot̪/ are placed after the verb in order to make conditional clauses. The usage of this kind also shows the left branching feature in Sinhala.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{vahinəvanəŋ api űtemeyi} \\
\text{rain if we wet-Pres} \\
\end{array}
\]

If it rains we will get wet

The adverbial particle /ot̪/ is also used similar to the adverbial particle /nāŋ/ as exemplified as follows.
If it rains we will get wet

In English the adverbial clauses beginning with *if*, *unless* or conjunctions with similar meanings where a state or a situation in one clause is dependent on something that may or will happen, and which is described in another clause.

**a. If it rains, we will get wet.**

**b. If you worked hard, you would succeed.**

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

**a. laisənəka țiyenəva naŋ misak nætnay oyaːtp eləvanna venne nae**

| license have | if | unless | you | drive | able | no |

CoC

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

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

CoC

The following table which contains the Sinhala translation of the above sentences denotes the similarities and the differences of word order of the conditional clauses in both languages.
Table: 5.2.
The comparison of word order in conditional clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1    | Positive | mamə igungənənə nəŋ, vibhaːgəyen əsəmat əveyi  
*If I study, I will pass the examination* |
|      | Negative | mamə igungənənə nəŋ, vibhaːgəyen əsəmat vene nəe  
*If I study, I won’t fail the examination*  
mamə igunganənə nət nəŋ, vibhaːgəyen əsəmat əveyi  
*If I do not study, I will fail the examination.* |
| 2    | Positive | mamə igungəgəṭṭa nəŋ, vibhaːgəyen əsəmat venəvəvə  
*If I studied, I would pass the examination* |
|      | Negative | mamə igungəgəṭṭa nəŋ, vibhaːgəyen əsəmat vene nəe  
*If I studied, I wouldn’t fail the examination*  
*If I did not study, I would fail the examination*  
mamə igionəgəṭṭe nət nəŋ, vibhaːgəyen əsəmat əveyi |
| 3    | Positive | *Had I studied, I would have passed the examination*  
mamə igurenənə əṭibunə nəŋ vibhaːgəyen əsəmat vene əṭibunə  .  |
|      | Negative | mamə igurenənə əṭibunə nəy vibhaːgəyen əsəmat novenne əṭibunə  .  |
It can be concluded that according to the above table, the word order within the conditional clauses is totally firm. But in Sinhala in the main clauses the word order is flexible since deviated forms are permitted as exemplified in /api Ɂemeyi/ Ɂemeyi api/ We will get wet /elavanna venne næ /venne næ elavanna/ You won’t be able to drive.

But in English within the conditional clause as well as the main clause, the word order is very rigid. However, at the sentence level the order of both conditional and main clauses in both languages is flexible.

a. Ɂæssot Ɂapi Ɂemeyi

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
\text{rain} & \text{if} & \text{we} & \text{wet} \\

d\text{CoC} & d\text{Mc} \\
\end{array}
\]

If it rains we will get wet

b. Ɂapi Ɂemeyi Ɂæssot

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
\text{we} & \text{wet} & \text{rain} & \text{if} \\

d\text{Mc} & d\text{CoC} \\
\end{array}
\]

We will get wet if it rains

c. If it rains we will get wet

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
\text{CoC} & \text{Mc} \\
\end{array}
\]

d. We will get wet if it rains

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
\text{Mc} & \text{CoC} \\
\end{array}
\]
So, comparatively both in Sinhala and English, the word order within the clause is very rigid. In English unlike in Sinhala the order of subject clauses in sentences is also rigid. However, the word order of clauses at the sentence level shows flexibility.

5.3.2.3. The Word Order in Question

5.3.2.3.1. The Yes-No Question

Question in Sinhala generally formed with the use of the question particle /ɗə/.

“The yes-no question differs from the declarative only in that the yes-no question has a clause final /ɗə/” (Hagstrom 2001:1).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{pere:ra} & \quad \text{bař} & \quad \text{kæ: ra} & \quad \text{ɗə ?} \\
\text{Perera } S & \quad \text{rice-O} & \quad \text{eat-Past} & \quad \text{Qp}
\end{align*}
\]

Did Perera eat rice?

The Qp can appear as:

- clause-finally

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{pere:ra} & \quad \text{bař} & \quad \text{kæ: va} & \quad \text{ɗə ?} \\
\text{Perera } S & \quad \text{rice-O} & \quad \text{eat-Past} & \quad \text{Qp}
\end{align*}
\]

Did Perera eat rice?

- clause internally

In case of using the Qp /ɗə/ internally, the verb is marked with /el/.
The formation of questions in English is more complex than that of Sinhala. In English, the yes-no questions can be formed placing the operator before the subject as in b.

a. He is in the office now.
b. Is he in the office now?

In order to form a question from a statement, first it is required to consider the number of verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John is a doctor.</td>
<td>Is John a doctor?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jane drives a sports car.</td>
<td>Drives she a sports car?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joan played basketball last night.</td>
<td>Played Joan basketball last night?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan is eating her dinner.</td>
<td>Is Jan eating her dinner?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June has rented an apartment.</td>
<td>Has June rented an apartment?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jen has been living there since 1969.</td>
<td>Has Jen been living there since 1969?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If there is one verb in the statement and the verb is a form of be, the question can be formed changing the positions of the S and V.
They are here. Are they here?

If there are *two verbs*, questions are formed changing the positions of the subject and *first* verb.

**Statement**  
**Question**

| Jan is eating dinner. | Is Jan eating dinner? |
| June has rented an apartment. | Has June rented an apartment? |
| Jen has been living here since 1969. | Has Jen been living here since 1969? |

“If there is one verb, and the verb is **not** a form of *be*, the process is more complex”. (http://www.eslgold.com/).

1. The auxiliary ‘*do*’ is placed before the subject and the tense value depends upon the auxiliary verb.

   **Mary Smith lives here**  
   **Does Mary Smith live here?**
   
   (Look Ahead, BBC English CD 2)

2. If the main verb *carries* a third person singular *s*, the *s* is added as a suffix to the *Do*, making it **Does**.

   **Jane drives a car.**  
   **Does Jane drive a car?**

   If the main verb *carries* the past tense, the auxiliary is placed in past tense *did*.

   **John played cricket last night- Did John play cricket last night?**

   As usage of this kind is not found in Sinhala, the English learners of Sinhala tend to ignore the rule restrictions in the question forms and very likely to do following mistakes.
*a. Did he gone?  
*b. Did he went? (Very common mistake)  
*c. Does he drives fast? (Very common mistake)  
*d. Are you love/agree? (Very common mistake)

5.3.2.3.2. The Wh Question

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

a. kavəda -who  

b. moka:da-which  

c. mokakda -what  

d. monəvada -what  

e. koheda-where  

f. kavədada/koyivela:vedə -When

In Sinhala, unlike in English, the Wh word is not obligatorily moved to sentence initial position. However, the Wh form accompanied by the Qp /da/ is used in various orders.

a. a:ve kavəda?  
   | |  
   come-V-Past who-Wh  
   Who came?
According to Kariyakaravana (1998:2) unlike in English in Sinhala if Wh phrases occur post verbally as in example a, it gives a unique focus interpretation and if they occur pre verbally as in example b, it gives both focus and non-focus interpretations.

a. oya: dække mokak də ?

You-S see-Past what-Q Qp

What is it that you saw?

Not: What did you see?

b. oya: mokak dæ dække?

You-S what-Q Qp see-Past

What did you see? (Kariyakaravana 1998:2).

Hawkins notes that according to Greenberg’s word order universals (9.a-s) the question particles or affixes specified in position by reference
to a particular word in the sentence almost always follow that word (1983: 21).

This universal feature can be applied to the usage of question particle /da/ which follows the word as in a and b above.

According to Greenberg’s word order universals (9 b s) (1966: 73-113) the inversion of statement order so that verb precedes subject occurs only in languages where the question word or phrase is normally initial. This universal feature can be applied for the construction of question in English.

a. You went home – statement

b. Did you go home? – question

In this respect, “standard Wh question in English resembles yes-no question which also displays subject-auxiliary inversion” (Roberts 1986: 185). The complexity of this kind is a real difficulty for a L2 learner especially in the initial stage of learning English. As a result they are likely to make mistakes like Did You went home? since there is no such complexities in the formation of their mother tongue.

The Wh question formation in English invokes two movement operations: fronting of the Wh – element and subject auxiliary inversion.

a. What John can do? - Fronting of the Wh element

b. Can John read this paper? - Subject Auxiliary inversion

Movement of various kinds plays an important role in English. In the analysis of a sentence like “What did you ask? the question element
originated as object of the verb ask moves in its Wh-form to sentence initial position.

In addition, both Sinhala and English allow multiple Wh-questions, where there is more than one Wh-expression in the clause.

a. karaṇḍa dunne kaṭṭaḍa?
   who give who-Dat
   Who gave to whom?

b. karaṇḍa dunne kaṭṭaḍa mokakda?
   Who-S-Wh give-V-Past who-Io what-Do
   Who gave to whom what?

c. Who did what to whom?
   S V DO IO

However, in Sinhala Wh movement is permitted without any condition and the following variations are dominantly used.

a. oya: mokak da ahuve?
   You-what-ask Past
   What did you ask?

b. mokakda oy a: ahuve?
   what-Wh you-ask-Past
   what did you ask?
In English, the constituent order within the Wh-question is rigid.

5.3.2.4. The Word Order in Negation

As discussed in detail in 4.3.4., Sinhala has different types of negative markers (Nm). According to Kariyakarawana (1988:49) most common non-prefixing negators are /næ/ and /neve/neveyi/ have a number of dialectical variations including nemey/nevi/neme:/.

\[
\text{eya: } \text{ba } \text{kanne } \text{næ}
\]

He/she rice-O eat-Pres no-Nm

Nimal does not eat rice

But in English the negative marker is postposed the auxiliary verb which is followed by the main verb.

\[
\text{S } \text{Aux } \text{Nm } \text{V}
\]

The verb with Nm has a free word order at the sentence level which is dominant in Sinhala.

\[
\text{a. eya: } \text{ba } \text{kanne } \text{næ}
\]

He/she rice-O eat-Pres no-Nm

Nimal does not eat rice

\[
\text{b. kanne } \text{næ} \text{eya: } \text{ba}
\]
Nimal does not eat rice

However, the following construction of negation is less dominant in Sinhala.

kanne  naw  baṭ  eya:

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
\--Pres  no-Nm rice-O  He/she

Nimal does not eat rice

As a result of the influence of the free word order in this kind, the Sinhala students who study English simply tend to transfer Sinhala sentence structure in which the word order is not fixed into English and make the erroneous statement as follows.

*Nimal not eat rice

The above sentence makes it clear that the students have not acquired the English rule of dummy inversion that is the insertion of do or does with not to form a negative sentence in the present tense. Therefore, they simply add not before the verb in negation.

There are two types of negation:

i. The modal negation

ii. The non-modal negation

The modal negation

The structure of modal negation in English is:
In the translation of this sentence into spoken Sinhala, the structure would be:

b. eya: enækak  nae

He/she-S may come-V Nm-Aux

He may not come

In a structure of this kind in Sinhala, the auxiliary is not used similar to English.

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

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

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

The Nm /nae/ occurs as an Aux as in b above as well as a full verb as in a and b below. The noteworthy difference in the structure of negative sentence is that since be verbs are not used in Sinhala, in the following constructions the Nm functions as a full verb.

a. nimal  hondo  nae

Nimal-S good-Adj no- Nm-Aux

Nimal is not good
According to Gair and Paolillo (1988:49) /nae/ is also the negator of existential /locative verb /tiyəvə/ be/have/available exist inanimate and /innəvə/ be, have or available exist in animate.

“Special rules apply where V is a stative verb innəvə or tiyəvə in the non-past tense: these verbs are deleted in the transform” (Gair 1970: 129).

In English the Nm “No” is used as a full verb and “not” is postposed to the auxiliary verb.

A: Does Peter Smith live here?
B: No, he doesn’t
A Do you live here?
B. No, I don’t live here (Look Ahead, BBC English CD2)

The Nm /neveyi/ occurs at the end position of the non verbal sentence but in English Nm is postposed the Aux.
b. pere:ra  mage  ya:luva  neveyi

\[\text{Perera-S my-PreM friend -O not-Nm}\]

Perera is not my friend

Depending upon the element focused, the order of Nm /neveyi/ marker can be changed as follows.

Simple sentence: a. pere:ra  balngoŋə  giya

\[\text{Perera-S Balangoda-O go-Past}\]

Perera went to Balangoda

can have:

b. pere:ra  neveyi  balngoŋə  giye

\[\text{Perera-S not-Nm Balangoda-O go-Past}\]

It is not Perea who went to Balangoda

But in English, the order of the Nm is not changed.

c. It is not  Smith who went to London

\[\text{Nm}\]

d. pere:ra  balngoŋə  neveyi  giye

\[\text{Perera-S Balangoda-O not-Nm go-Past}\]

It is not Balangoda that Perera went
e. It is not London that Smith went

As shown in these examples; when the Nm /neeyi/ takes the focus position, the verbs take special form like /gye/. However, the Nm is in the focus position and occurs as an Aux at the end position of the sentence and the verb does not change its normal present or past form but in English in the focus position the Cleft construction is used as below.

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{It} & \text{is} & \text{not} & \text{London that} \\
\text{Aux} & \text{Nm} & \text{O} & \text{Ps V} \\
\end{array}
\]

Sinhala has Prefixing Negative marker (Pnm) /no/.

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

a. ehemə noliyannə

that way don’t-Pnm write-Inf

Don’t write in that way

In English, in the All … not…construction, the Nm not occurs at the initial position of the sentence.

Not all that glitters is gold

The Pnm in Sinhala is used in imperative construction but in English the Nm is postposed to the Aux.
a. e:kə  nokəranə

that  don’t-Pnm  do-Inf

Don’t do that

b. Don’t write in that way

The Nm /epa:/ don’t is used as a modal auxiliary and denotes a meaning similar to the prefixing negative marker /no/.

a. ehemə  liyanna  epa:

that way  write-Inf  do ’t-Nm-Aux

Don’t write in that way

The word order of this sentence can be changed without changing the meaning in Sinhala but in English the word order is fixed.

a. liyanna  epa:  ehemə

write-Inf  do ’t-Nm  that way

Don’t write in that way

b. epa:  liyanna  ehemə

do ’t-Nm  write-Inf  that way

Don’t write in that way
c. Don’t write in that way.

5.3.2.5. The Word Order in Imperative Construction

According to Van Valin (1997: 41) in both languages in the imperative 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 arinnə
door -O open-V
open the door

The word order of a can be changed as:

b. arinnə dorə
open-V door-O
open the door

But in English, the constituent order is not changed in an imperative construction. In both languages the subject of imperative construction is implied.

open the door

V O

This example shows that though Sinhala is considered as a verb final language, it has Head moved to the left making it verb medial. Ross
(1970:30) in his article titled “Gapping and the order of constituent” shows that underline word order of Turkish and Hindi is verb medial though their basic word order is verb final. This feature is visible in Sinhala also as forward and backward gapping is possible in the language.

The unmarked word order in English (SVO) can also be changed in an imperative sentence. In such cases, the verb appears first and the rest follows it. But in Sinhala as in a,b above the word order favors changes.

   a. Open the door!
   b. Finish!
   c. Take a rest! (Look Ahead CD 3).

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)

   a.pairessəmen

   do be careful

   Do be careful

   b. run!
5.4. Summary

The word order at the phase level in SOV and SVO languages observed in the present study indicates rigidity. The word order within the clause is fixed whereas the order of clauses within the sentence is comparatively free in Sinhala and English.

CHAPTER SIX

Conclusion

6.0. Preliminaries

This chapter presents the observations reached at after the analysis and the discussion about the word order in Sinhala and English in the previous chapters.

Before summing up, there are two general problems that need to be addressed while attempting to identify word order characteristics of the two languages. The first is of identifying the basic word order for which the language may have more than one order. The second is of identifying instances of particular constructions.

In two languages examined, classifications according to each of the various characteristics in them have been recorded. In instances where only one order of elements is possible, the classification is not very complex. But especially Sinhala in its word order at the sentence level exhibits more than one order for at least some pairs of elements and then the classification becomes complicated. There is some variation in the practice of linguists on this question, both in terms of what criteria to employ in these instances and in terms of whether to classify a language at all when the criteria do not yield an obvious answer. These issues have been discussed in the context of identifying a basic order of subject, object, and verb, but they apply to all pairs of elements. One of