The Systemic Functional Grammar of Chinese Nominal Groups:
A Text-based Approach

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Abstract

For the past two decades, great efforts have been made in the systemic functional description of English and many other languages including Chinese at the clause level. However, very few descriptive work has been done at the group/phrase level. As an attempt to fill in the gap, this thesis extends the lexicogrammatical study to the level of nominal groups, focusing on Mandarin Chinese in particular.

Drawing upon a corpus of 180 quality texts of different text types, the investigation is heavily text-based: the nominal groups are observed in the environment of clauses, sentences, paragraphs and texts in contexts. The description of Chinese nominal groups is unfolded on the basis of Halliday's metafunctional model, exploring the metafunctional resources that Chinese nominal groups provide in realising the three strands of meaning: ideational (including logical and experiential), interpersonal and textual meanings. Through the investigation of each metafunction, some important systems within the nominal group are presented, which provide selections in realising the metafunctional meanings. In terms of logical metafunction, the system of MODIFICATION is presented. In terms of experiential metafunction, the systems presented include THING TYPE, CLASSIFICATION, EPITHESIS, QUALIFICATION, and MEASURE. In terms of interpersonal metafunction, the system of PERSON is introduced. And finally, in terms of textual metafunction, the exploration includes the system of NAMING, the system of IDENTIFICATION, and

the system of NUMERATION. Major selections on each of these systems are discussed in detail, with examples demonstrating the potential lexicogrammatical choices. Apart from the exploration of the systems, another focus of the study is on the potential application of the findings to other areas. For this purpose, at the end of each metafunctional exploration, a case study involving different types of texts is presented, demonstrating the significance of nominal groups in their contributions to the metafunctional meanings. The case studies are designed to explore different issues in relation to the use of nominal groups, including the modification structure of the nominal groups and its relation with text types (in the logical exploration), the experiential environment of Thing type choices in different types of texts (in the experiential exploration), the choice of nominal groups in enacting different attitudes (in the interpersonal exploration), and challenges of cohesion and coherence in machine translation presented by nominal groups (in the textual exploration).

Through in-depth metafunctional exploration of the nominal gorups, as well as illustrative case studies, this research is expected to contribute to the development of language typology in Systemic Functional Linguistics, as well as other areas including delicate discourse analysis, the study of Chinese language, and machine translation research.

Certificate of Originality

I hereby certify that this work is the result of my own research and that the work has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other institution university or institution. I certify that sources of information used and the extent to which the work of others has been utilized have been indicated in the thesis.

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Symbols, abbreviations and systemic conventions

System:

If 'a', then 'x' or 'y'.

Delicacy ordering:

If 'a', then 'x' or 'y'; if 'x', then 'm' or 'n'.

Simultaneity:

If 'a', then simultaneously 'x' or 'y', and 'm' or 'n'.

Conjunction in entry condition:

If 'a' and 'b', then 'x' or 'y'.

Recursive system (logical):

If 'a', then 'x' or 'y', and simultaneously option of entering and selecting from the same system again.

|| clause boundary

| group/phrase boundary

[[ ]]   embedded clause

[[[[ ]]]]   further embedding: an embedded clause within another embedded clause

[ ]   embedded group/phrase

realised by

ϕ omission

CONJ   conjunction

SFL   Systemic functional linguistics

SUB   a subordinate particle (=*de* in this thesis)

MEA   a measure word in Chinese that has no equivalent in English

   •   A problematic/ungrammatical example

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1   Overview

This thesis aims to present a description of nominal groups of modern Mandarin Chinese. Using systemic functional linguistic theory[1] (see Halliday 1978, Halliday & Matthiessen 2004), the present study attempts to interpret nominal groups from a metafunctional perspective. More specifically, the study intends to explore Chinese nominal groups in terms of three modes of meaning, namely ideational, interpersonal and textual. By so doing, I will demonstrate how nominal groups provide resources in expressing and realising metafunctional meanings in texts. It is also important to state that this study, although concerned with grammar as shown in the title, is focusing on meaning rather than rules. This is because the term "grammar" in this study is viewed through the SFL lens as a resource for creating meanings, which contrasts with the traditional view of grammar as a system of rules (Matthiessen 1995).

The description is designed to achieve the following goals. The first and most important is to develop system networks within each metafunctional dimension, through which language users will be aware of the different choices of meaning which they can make at the level of nominal groups. Secondly, through a systemic functional description, the present work aims to contribute to the areas such as discourse analysis, the English-Chinese machine translation studies, and Chinese language teaching. Thirdly, the study aims to make a contribution to the development of SFL as a working model of language description, and to draw research attention to the study of grammar at group level.

The remainder of this chapter will be unfolded by giving an overview of the typological features of Mandarin Chinese in general (see Section 1.2), which is hoped to pave the way for the following discussion about the definition of this particular grammatical category termed by the current author as "nominal group" (see Section

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[1] An abbreviated form of "SFL" will be used to stand for "systemic functional linguistics" hereafter.

1.3). Then in Section 1.4, I will give a review of literature on the history of Chinese language study as well as the studies of Chinese nominal group (or as some researchers may term it as "noun phrase", which I will discuss in 1.3) by researchers in both China and overseas. Finally, in Section 1.4, the organisation of the thesis will be presented.

1.2　The general typological features of Mandarin Chinese

As the topic of this thesis is on the nominal group of Mandarin Chinese, it is necessary to have an overview of the general features of the language before I zero in on the definition of 'nominal group' in the following section.

The Chinese language belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family and is often referred to as the Sinitic languages. It is now generally accepted that Chinese can be classified into eight major dialect groups in accordance with phonological features (see Figure 1-1)[2].

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[2] Hui and Pinghua, the last two dialects shown in Figure 1-1, are classified into Wu and Cantonese respectively by many researchers, thus making a total of eight major groups instead (cf. Halliday and Edward 2004).

Figure 1-1: The map of Chinese dialects[3]

As the map in Figure 1-1 shows, Mandarin, based on Beijing dialect, is the major dialect in China, spoken by 836 million native speakers. It represents the standard spoken form of Chinese, and is referred to as *Guānhuà* 官话 ("official speech") or *Běifānghuà* 北方话 ("northern speech") in China. The standard Mandarin Chinese, *pǔtōnghuà* 普通话 or 国语 *guóyǔ*, is the official language

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[3] Source of the map: http://wikitravel.org/

spoken in Mainland China and Taiwan, though the writing systems in the two regions are different, with the former using simplified characters and the latter traditional characters[4]. In the present study, the description is based on the modern standard Mandarin Chinese.

Typological traits in Asian languages

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Modern Chinese	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Classical Chinese	+	?	-	+	-	+	+
Thai (Siamese)	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
Li	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
Vietnamese	+	+	+	+	+	-	+
Khmer	-	-	-	+	+	-	+
Miao	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
Yao	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
Written Tibetan	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
Yi (Lolo)	+	+	+	+	+		-
Jingpo	-	+	-	+	-	-	-
Malay	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
Rukai (Taiwan)	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
Mongol	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
Manchu	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
Uygur	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
Korean	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
Janpanese	-	-	+	-	-	+	-

Features plotted: (1) morphemes are monosyllabic, (2) the language is tonal, (3) only a single consonant is tolerated at the beginning of a syllable, (4) the language is morphologically and syntactically analytic, (5) the use of measures (classifiers) with numerals is obligatory, (6) the language has adjective-noun order, (7) the language has SVO sentence order. A plus indicates that the feature in question is present, a minus that it is absent.

Figure 1-2: Typological traits in Asian languages (Norman, 1988:11)

Figure 1-2 shows some general typological features of Chinese in comparison with other Asian languages (Norman, 1988). In Mandarin Chinese, each morpheme is represented by a zì 字 (literally meaning 'word', realised by one character in writing), and most morphemes are typical monosyllabic, which often causes the language to be mistakenly labelled as a monosyllabic language. In fact, in modern Mandarin Chinese, many words[5] consist of two or even more morphemes (i.e. two or more characters in

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[4] In Hong Kong, standard Mandarin is one of the official languages, but the writing system is traditional.

[5] By "word" here I mean a unit characterized by grammatical and semantic features, rather than zì.

writing), which makes them bisyllabic, trisyllabic or multi-syllabic. Altogether there are four tones in Mandarin, which are indicated by four diacritic marks, "–, ╱, ∨, ╲", in Pinyin. Another interesting feature of Mandarin Chinese is that the internal structure of a word, unlike Indo-European languages, is strictly derivational rather than inflectional. As a result, aspect and mood are indicated by the use of grammatical particles. Another striking feature of Mandarin Chinese is its "topic-comment" sentence construction with the topic always taking the first position in a sentence, though it may not necessarily function in the transitivity structure (cf. Li & Thompson 1981; Halliday & McDonald, 2004). In terms of nominal groups, there are two features worth mentioning from a typological perspective. One is the heavy use of measure words with numerals, and the other the typical order of modifier-head in the structure. These two features will be investigated in detail in this thesis.

1.3   Defining "nominal group"

The term "nominal group" is in fact full of SFL colour, which is rarely used in the literature of traditional grammar, and a corresponding term used in the latter is "noun phrase". Although by and large these two terms are very similar in a grammatical sense, the difference between the two goes beyond the terminological level. In traditional grammar, only the term "phrase" is used to refer to the intermediate grammatical unit between clause and word, whereas in systemic functional grammar, "group" and "phrase" are recognised as two independent terms to stand for different grammatical organisations at the same rank. Therefore, before the definition of "nominal group" is presented, it is necessary to first clarify the meanings of "nominal" and "group" respectively.

1.3.1 Group vs. Phrase

In Chinese, a *phrase* is called duanyu (短语), which literally means "short speech", whereas a *group* is called cizu (词组), which literally means "word group". The terminological difference in Chinese already gives some indication for the difference between the two terms. And Halliday and Matthiessen present a more straight point on the issue:

A phrase is different from a group in that, whereas a group is an expansion of a word, a phrase is a contraction of a clause. Starting form opposite ends, the two achieve roughly the same status on the rank scale…(Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 311)

The difference can be interpreted in this way: although phrase and group are both made up of words, they are viewed from different directions – phrase is viewed from above (thus as a contracted clause) while group is viewed from below (thus as a group of words).

1.3.2 About "nominal"

The same view is basically shared in systemic functional grammar and traditional grammar about the notion of "nominal": to be "nominal", a grammatical unit should be able to function as a noun. However, it is important to avoid confusion with "noun" in its specific sense, as the grammatical quality of being "nominal" can be realised by lexical items of word class other than noun, which is illustrated in the examples below:

1. 他们数了数，总共有<u>32个</u>。

tāmen	Shǔ le shǔ,	zǒnggòng	yǒu	sānshièr ge
they	counted	altogether	have	<u>32 MEA</u>
pronoun	verb	adverb	Verb	<u>numeral + measure</u>

They counted, and altogether there were 32.

2. 你想吃什么？<u>辣的</u>还是<u>甜的</u>？

nǐ	xiǎngchī	Shénme?	làde	háishi	Tiánde?
you	want to eat	what	<u>spicy *de*</u>	or	<u>sweet *de*</u>
pronoun	verb (group)	pronoun	adjective	conjunctive	adjective

What do you want to eat? Spicy or sweet?

3. 这些都是<u>他最喜欢吃的</u>。

zhèxiē	dōushì	tā	zuì xǐhuān chīde
These	all are	<u>he</u>	<u>like best eat *de*</u>
determiner	verb (group)	pronoun	Down-ranked clause + *de*

These are all his favourite food.

As shown in the examples above, a pronoun, an adjective, a numeral+measure structure, a determiner, or even a down-ranked clause+*de* structure can function as the same as a noun in a Chinese sentence and share some grammatical features, such as being able to take a subject or an object position, being referential and so on. This illustrates the broader sense of being "nominal", which is adopted by the present study to define a nominal group.

1.3.3 General features of the nominal group

I have discussed the notions of "group" and "nominal" in Section 1.2.1 and 1.2.2. When it comes to the definition of nominal group, it means that a nominal group should bear the features of both. To put it simply, a nominal group is a group of nominal words, but obviously this definition is not detailed enough to give us any clue about its general features. Here it is important to introduce Halliday and Matthiessen's five principles of constituency in lexicogrammar (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004), as I will base my description of the general features of a nominal group on these principles. Altogether they have summarized five principles of constituency in lexicogrammar, which apply to every language (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 9):

1. *There is a scale of rank in the grammar of every language. This can be typically represented as : clause > phrase/group > word > morpheme[6]*

2. *Each consists of one or more units of the rank next below.*

3. *Units of every rank may form complexes: not only clause complexes but also phrase complexes, group complexes, word complexes and even morpheme complexes may be generated by the same grammatical resources.*

4. *There is the potential for rank shift, whereby a unit of one rank may be downranked to function in the structure of a unit of its own rank or of a rank below.*

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[6] This representation applies to the case of Mandarin Chinese.

5. Under certain circumstances it is possible for one unit to be enclosed within another; not as a constituent of it, but simply in such a way as to split the other one into two discrete parts.

Based on these five principles, together with the discussions above about "group" and "nominal", the following criteria can be established for identifying a Chinese nominal group:

1. A nominal group must consist of a nominal head, which could be a noun, a pronoun, a locative[7], or a determiner. In the case of an elliptic nominal group without a head, this means that a nominal head should be recoverable.

2. A nominal group may consist of only one word, which is the nominal head.

3. A nominal group must be referential. Semantically speaking, this means that it must be able to represent (or refer to) a person, or other beings, concrete or abstract. Grammatically, it means that one can add a deictic element before the head to test a group with a doubtful status – but this should not be considered as a grammatical rule binding our minds as our focus is on meaning rather than rules.

4. A nominal head can be expanded through different types of modification, such as qualifying, classifying, ascribing epithets, and so on.

5. A nominal group, same as the other types of group or phrase, must be able to realise a part on a clause structure – this is the grammatical feature shared by all classes of group and phrase.

The five criteria presented involve both grammatical and semantic concerns. In the present research, the recognition of a nominal group will be strictly based on these criteria listed above. In other words, a grammatical unit should at least satisfy these five criteria to be identified as a nominal group.

1.3.4 Act clause vs. Nominal group

In this section, I will talk about a case in which doubts are widely cast over its membership in nominal groups: the rankshifted "act clause".

Look at the two examples below:

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[7] Discussion about "locative" will be presented in Chap. 4.

1. 这年头，**出名**不是难事。

zhè niántou	chūmíng	búshì	nánshì
these years	**become famous**	not is	hard thing

Nowadays, **becoming famous** is not a hard thing.

2. 难的是**不被人知道**。

nánde	shì	bú bèirén zhīdào
difficult *de*	is	**not be known by others**

The hard thing is **not to be known by others**.

The above two clauses both contain another clause (shown in bold), which is down-ranked to function as a subject (as in example 1) or an object (as in example 2). As Chinese is not an inflectional language, unlike English, this type of downranked clauses takes on the same lexical form as a ranking clause, and its rankshifted status is reflected by its grammatical role in another clause. In English, there is a similar type of clause, named by Halliday and Matthiessen as "act" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 438) clause. Such a clause is the name of an action, event or other phenomenon, and grammatically it functions in the same way as a nominal group. Many Chinese linguistics term them as míngcíxìng jiégòu (名词性结构, *nominal structure*) and treat it at the group/phrase level (cf. Zhu, 1982). If one checks against the five criteria presented in Section 1.2.3, this type of "act clause", although highly nominalised, cannot be treated as a nominal group because there is no nominal head in the structure – in fact, the rankshifted clause itself functions as "head".

1.4　Reviewing the study of nominal groups

In this section, I will have a review of literature on the research of Chinese nominal groups However, this review does not cover the studies based on systemic function grammar, which will be discussed in Chapter 2 instead.

The study of the Chinese language can date back to as early as 200 B.C. with focuses on lexicology and epigraphy mainly (cf. Wang, 1985; Shao, 1990), but the work on nominal groups[8] happened much later. The reason is that nominal group, as well as the other topics in grammar such as syntax and morphology, was defined and

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[8] In this Section, "the study of nominal group" by and large refers to the work on "noun phrase" (cf. Section 1.2.1).

recognised only in the modern linguistic history in China. As pointed out by Wang Li, one of the leading scholars in Chinese linguistics and linguistic history, there was no linguistics but only philology in the ancient Chinese history (Wang 1984). This is closely related to the fact that Chinese, as a logographic non-inflexional language, has virtually no trace of morphology, as a result of which syntactic questions have never been brought to attention (Halliday & McDonald, 2004). In fact, the study of grammar was absent in the country's linguistic history till the late nineteenth century. The publication of Wéntōng (also known as Mǎshì Wéntōng, *Ma's Grammar*) in 1898 is widely regarded as the first study on Chinese grammar, which also marks the beginning of modern Chinese linguistics (cf. Wang, 1984; Shao, 1990).

However, the study of nominal groups did not synchronize with the modern linguistic research in Chinese. The historical reviews of Chinese language studies in the twentieth century showed that the grammatical unit of *phrase* was either not recognised or largely ignored by scholars in the first half of the century. During this period, the research was under the heavy influence of western grammatical traditions and the focus exploring specific grammatical rules in Chinese (cf. Shao, 1990; Lu, 1993). The second half of the twentieth century witnessed tremendous progress in Chinese grammatical studies with the publications of several important works (e.g. Chao, 1968; Lü, 1979; Zhu 1982). During this period, more and more attention was given on describing the language rather than exploring rules. When it comes to language description, it seems to be unavoidable to define grammatical units from different levels, through which a syntactic structure can be more accessible. In Chao's description of spoken Chinese grammar, he mainly focused on three levels of grammatical unit: sentence, word and morpheme, though phrase was also recognised as one of the classes. However, phrases were not discussed as a separate class and neither were they categorised as nominal, verbal, adverbial and so on. Instead, Chao described these units from a syntactic structural perspective. He argued that syntax, from the point of view of kinds of units, was not primarily concerned with expressions[9] in their capacities as lexical items, but with types of constructions into which expressions of various types enter, and a part of speech was a class of words and not of phrase. As a result, in Chao's research, phrase was not investigated as a

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[9] Chao uses the term "expression" to cover either words or phrases, but not morphemes (see Chao 1968:258).

separate grammatical class, and was classified in terms of syntactical constructions (e.g., coordinate construction and subordinate construction) rather than of functional potential. Chao's categorisation represented the predominant views shared by scholars in the 1950s and 1960s. In 1979, Lü published an important work on Chinese grammar, where he stated that "it seems to be especially suitable in the case of Chinese to treat *phrase* as an intermediate unit between *word* and *sentence*" (Lü, 1979). This was when linguists in Mainland China started to pay more attention to *phrase* (including *noun phrase)*. 1980s experienced the rapid development in phrase grammar of various types with Zhu Dexi taking the lead (see Zhu, 1980, 1982, and 1985). On classifying grammatical units in Chinese, Zhu proposed the following points: 1. There is no simple corresponding relations between words and syntactic components; 2. Same syntactic constructing principles apply to both sentence and phrase levels (Zhu, 1982). Based on these two points, Zhu believed that the analysis of Chinese grammar should be based at phrase level, and the relations between morpheme and word, and between *word* and *phrase* were both compositional. In other words, it is a relation of parts and whole: a phrase is made up of words, and a word is made up of morphemes. However, the relation between phrase and sentence was different: sentence is realised by phrase and the two share the same construction principles. Zhu has been regarded as a pioneer in promoting research on phrase-based grammar (see Shao, 1990; Lu, 1993). According to Zhu's definition, a group should consist of at least two words, otherwise it is not a "word group" but only a word. This actually creates a problem of consistency because at the other three levels, in contrast, Zhu stated that a word may consist of one morpheme and a sentence may consist of only one group or even one word. So there is a clear-cut boundary between group and word, but the boundary between group and sentence is in fact very ambiguous – very often the case is that a group equals a sentence. In Zhu's description, group was termed as jùfǎ jiégòu (句法结构, *syntactic construction*), and was categorised in terms of the internal structural relations between each part. Altogether he divided group into six types (Zhu, 1982: 14):

> subordinate construction (typically realised by modifier+head)
> verb + object construction
> verb + complement construction
> subject + predicate construction

coordinate construction (realised by a group of words of the same part of speech)

verb + verb construction

It is not surprising that, according to Zhu's classification, the boundary between group and sentence is very fuzzy, creating a large overlapping area, since the same constructions, such as subject + predicate construction, can also be considered as a sentence structure. Therefore, it is possible to argue that Zhu's work on groups is still a study of syntax − he was trying to interpret syntax at the group level. Strictly speaking, this is not a grammar of phrase/group, as they were only used as a medium to interpret the grammar at the sentence level and the focus was always on the syntactic structure.

From 1980s till very recently, the situation of the group studies has not changed much in the Chinese linguistic field. Although some classifications of groups/phrases tend to consider both the internal construction and the external grammatical function, the dominant way to classify a group unit has been generally the same as Zhu's. In such a context, nominal groups can hardly receive much research attention since it is not often considered as a separate category in group/phrase grammar. Even in the studies with a specific focus on nominal groups, the dominant research focus is still on either the internal syntactic structure or the external roles nominal groups can play on a syntactic structure (e.g. Gu, 1985; Li, 1986; Liu, 2006; Xiong, 2008), and the classification within nominal groups still follow the framework similar to Zhu's.

In recent years, with the development of computational linguistics, some researchers raised doubts on the construction-based classification of groups after noticing that computers had problems in identifying nominal groups based on such classification (e.g., Zhan & Liu 1997; Zhan 1997; Qian 2010). This kind of doubts actually reflects the problems behind such classification. Firstly, the construction-based classification cannot adequately distinguish a sentence from a group/phrase since both are considered to have the same construction principles and in practice the only effective way to distinguish them relies on the use of punctuation marks. This leaves us an impression that, grammatically speaking, there is little difference between group and sentence in Chinese − this is in fact far from the truth. Secondly, under such classification, units of different grammatical potentials fall into the same category, as a result of which their grammatical functions tend to be overshadowed.

For example, a complex of nominal groups consisting of two head nouns is put in the same category as a complex of verbal groups consisting of two verbs, simply because they both have the coordinate structure. Such classification obviously cannot reflect their different grammatical potential. Thirdly and most importantly, such a classification is purely based on form, which makes it impossible to explore any context-based meaning potentials that a group can provide, which will inevitably influence the depth of the research. For instance, some researchers work on those ambiguous constructions which are open for more than one interpretation. In fact, without a context-based perspective, such problems can hardly get resolved.

Before the end of this section, it is important to mention the work of two groups of researchers who are not based in China. One is Li and Thompson's description of Mandarin Chinese grammar (C. N. Li & Thompson, 1981). In this study they used functional terms to describe modern Chinese at all the three levels of word, phrase and sentence. In their account of phrase, noun phrase was investigated as a separate category in terms of modification, referentiality and nominalisation. This is an outstanding work in that the structural properties in the language are discussed in terms of the pragmatic situations with an eye to the context. However, as the authors stated in the preface, the grammar was explicitly designed for students and teachers of Mandarin. Therefore, judging from the linguistic theoretical perspective, many linguistics issues, such as the semantic motivations behind the grammatical choices and the grammatical strategies in realising different pragmatic purposes, remained unaddressed. The other study worth noting is Zhang Min's study of Chinese noun phrase in his book 认知语言学与汉语名词短语 （renzhi yuyanxue yu hanyu mingci duanyu, *Cognitive linguistics and Chinese noun phrase*). In this book, Zhang described the different structures that a Chinese nominal group could have and explored the semantic and cognitive motives behind the optional use of *de* on the structure (Zhang, 1998). Zhang's study can be considered as one of the very limited number of studies on Chinese nominal group which based the description on meaning rather than form. However, as his study mainly focused on *de*, the description of the other parts in a nominal group only served to explain the use of *de.* Therefore, his account of nominal group was not a comprehensive one. It is obvious that more efforts are needed in exploring the Chinese nominal group.

1.5   Organisation of the thesis

This chapter begins with an overview of the research topic on which this thesis will be unfolded; the overview also lists the general objectives of the present study. Then the typological features of Mandarin Chinese are introduced in Section 1.2. Following this, I discussed the definition of nominal group by looking at both "nominal" and "group" features. I also made a comparison between "nominal group" and "noun phrase". Based on this, I presented five criteria against which a nominal group can be identified. After this, I applied the five criteria in judging a doubtful case, nominalised act clause, which tends to be mistaken as nominal groups. Then in Section 1.4, I gave a review of literature on the linguistic study of Chinese. Through the review, it is found that many researchers of Chinese classify group units in terms of their internal construction features rather than grammatical function. As a result, nominal group is not often studied as a separate grammatical topic. The literature review mainly covers the work outside the systemic functional account, whereas the SFL studies will discussed in Chapter 2.

In Chapter 2, I will present the methodological issues related to this study. The relations between theory and language description will be discussed, and the rationale of adopting systemic functional framework will be given by comparing the theory with other major schools. Then some fundamental dimensions of the theory will be introduced and some metalanguage being explained. After introducing the theory, I will give the details of the data being used in this research and how they will serve the description purpose.

Chapter 3 to Chapter 6 will be the main body of the description based on SFL's metafunctional model. In Chapter 3, I will describe nominal group from a logical perspective, investigating both complexity and logico-semantic relations within the nominal structure. In Chapter 4, I will explore the experiential resources of nominal group, where system of THING TYPE will be presented as well as all the functional elements within the experiential structure. In Chapter 5, the focus will be on the interpersonal resources of the nominal group, where the description will cover the lexicogrammatical strategies that a nominal group can provide to enact attitude and realise various interpersonal meanings. Chapter 6 will introduce textual resources of the nominal group. The systems of NAMING, IDENTIFICATION and NUMERATION will be

presented and discussed. Discussions on how the textual resources of nominal group will contribute to cohesion will also be investigated, which cover the topics of ellipsis and lexical cohesion. As a text-based research, sample texts will be selected and analysed at the end of each chapter to demonstrate the application of the findings, and these text analyses will be conducted to serve different purposes: in Chapter 3, the sample text analysis aims to indicate the relations between nominal group complexity and text type; in Chapter 4 the sample analysis aims to investigate thing type choices in relation to the construal of participant roles; in Chapter 5 the analysis aims to demonstrate how the use of nominal groups may serve attitudinal meanings; and in Chapter 6, sample machine-translated texts are analysed to illustrate the current challenges faced by machine translation in recognizing the contribution of nominal groups to creating cohesion.

Chapter 7, the concluding chapter, will give a summary of the metafunctional features of Chinese nominal groups, and its implication to text analysis, the learning and teaching of Chinese language as well as machine translation studies. Implications on potential projects in the future will also be proposed.

Chapter 2 Methodology

1.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will introduce the methodological issues involved in this research. First, I will discuss the relations between theory and language description (Section 2.2). Then I will give the rationale for adopting a systemic functional theoretic framework (Section 2.3). In Section 2.4, the fundamental dimensions of SFL theory will be introduced, and the metalanguages to be used in this thesis will be explained. Also in this section I will review the descriptive work that has been done in the SFL field with a particular focus on Chinese. In Section 2.5, I will introduce the process of data collection and categorisation, as well as the computational tool being used in some sample text analysis. In a word, this chapter explains why and how a text-based systemic functional approach is adopted in the study.

1.2 Theory and language description

I will discuss the relationship between theory and language description first. In their review of the language descriptive works in the 20th century, Matthiessen and Nesbitt noticed a prominent disjunction between theory and description in linguistics, and they continued to argue that this view of relationship between theory and linguistic description cannot help linguists cope with the new challenges in describing languages in the 21st century (Matthiessen & Nesbitt, 1996). Considering the dominant theoretical trend of the time (especially in 1960s and 1970s), it seems to be understandable that linguists (reference grammarians in particular) were trying to move away from theory in their descriptive work. However, in reality, freedom from theory in description is simply an illusion(Matthiessen & Nesbitt, 1996). I will quote Halliday's comments to illustrate the unrealistic nature of this attitude (Halliday 1992, after Matthiessen & Nesbitt 1996:64):

There is no such thing as theory-free engagement with language, whether one is actively intervening in the linguistic practices of a community or systematically describing the grammar of a particular language. The linguist who claims to be theory-free is like the conservative to claims to be non-political: they are both saying, to be impartial is to leave things as they are – only those who want to change them are taking sides.

It is not hard to anticipate the potential problems one may face in conducting a theory-free language description. The immediate headache will be the explicitness of the description itself. Without using metalanguage, which a theory is able to provide, it is impossible to describe linguistic features clearly. Other problems, such as consistency and comprehensiveness, are also highly predictable. Many sophisticated language phenomena cannot be easily described and analysed without using theoretical terms. A non-theory based language description is destined to be limited in the amount of information that can be handled and the depth of the exploration that can be achieved. Therefore, it is obvious that a separation from theory cannot produce a good description. Then the next relevant question to consider would be: which theory should be adopted?

1.3   Introducing SFL framework

In the previous section, I have discussed the relationship between theory and language descriptions and have concluded that a good language description must be based on a powerful theory. In this section, systemic functional linguistics will be introduced, which provides the theoretical framework for the current study. I will start from a discussion of the rationale for adopting an SFL framework (see 2.3.1 below), and then an overview of the basic dimensions of the theory will be given in 2.3.2.

1.3.1 The rationale for the adoption of an SFL framework

For the present description of Chinese nominal groups, systemic functional linguistic theory will be adopted as the framework. There are mainly three reasons for adopting an SFL approach. First of all, in systemic functional linguistics, there is an ontological distinction between theory and description, which enriches our potential for interpreting a wide range of language phenomena. Systemic linguistics draws the line between theory and description in such a way that theoretical assumptions are very general and all the categories of particular languages belong to the domain of

description (Caffarel, Martin, & Matthiessen, 2004). This systemic view on the relationship between the two ensures that the theory being adopted is not developed to address a limited number of descriptive categories of a particular language only; rather, this view indicates that SFL theory must be powerful enough to serve as a semiotic engine for descriptions of any human language. In fact, this has been evidenced by the SFL descriptions of a number of languages apart from English, such as the works of French (Caffarel et al., 2004), Japanese (Teruya, 2004, 2006), Tagalog (Martin, 2004), Thai (Patpong, 2005), Oko (Akerejola, 2005) and so on. Secondly, as a very comprehensive theory, SFL is able to provide enough resources to facilitate the descriptive work in the present study. Having reviewed the literature on Chinese nominal groups (see Section 1.4), one can see that many accounts put the construction of nominal groups as the central concern – in other words, the semantic motivation behind these constructions remain uninvestigated, which reflects the problems of the theories which these descriptions are based upon. In contrast, systemic functional linguistics is context-based and focuses on meaning. This ensures that an SFL-based description will not view nominal groups as an isolated context-free grammatical unit. Instead, an SFL-based description will go far beyond the syntactic structural concerns and allow for interpretations from three different metafunctional perspectives (i.e., ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions of a nominal group). The meaning potentials that a nominal group can realise, which have been heavily ignored by previous works but are essential in interpreting nominal groups, will be brought to focus under an SFL framework. Thirdly, unlike many other linguistic theories which parsimoniously focus on a limited number of linguistic categories, systemic functional linguistics is widely known as an extravagant theory, which allows the description to focus on a grammatical unit at any level from clause to morpheme. This makes a description being able to achieve complexity and consistency at the same time as one can view the same language phenomenon both from above and from below on the same map. This will allow for various possibilities and potentials in the description. For example, under the SFL framework, one can investigate how semantic motifs are realised by nominal groups and at the same time look at how the selections of head nouns (which are typically nouns) provide resources to achieve the above-mentioned purposes. All of these descriptions will draw upon the system networks developed in SFL.

1.3.2 Overview: systemic functional theory

I have discussed the importance of adopting a theory in language description and the reasons for selecting SFL for the current description of Chinese nominal groups. In this section, I will give a brief introduction of the basic dimensions of SFL theory, upon which my descriptive work is based.

Systemic functional linguistics is a theory of language developed by M.A.K. Halliday in 1960s, mainly under the influence of the work of J. R. Firth. SFL approach views language as multidimensional semiotic space where resources of language are functioning in the context of situation and culture, and are mapped in system networks based on their meaning potentials. Table 2-1 summarises the main theoretical dimensions of SFL along which language is organised (adapted from Caffarel, Martin & Matthiessen 2004: 19):

Dimension		Regions within dimension
global	Stratification	Context/semantics/lexicogrammar/phonology (graphology)/phonetics (graphetics)
	Instantiation	Potential (system) ← subpotential | instance type → instance (text)
	Metafunction	Ideational (logical & experiential) / interpersonal / textual
local	Rank	Semantics: variable according to register and metafunction Lexicogrammar: clause / group–phrase / word / morpheme Phonology: tone group/foot/syllable/phoneme
	axis	Paradigmatic (system) / syntagmatic (structure)

Table 0-1: Dimensions of language and their ordering principles

In the remainder of this section, I will briefly introduce the basic aspects of each of these five dimensions, which the current description of nominal groups will draw upon.

1.3.2.1 Stratification

As a complex semiotic system, language has various levels. This fact is acknowledged by SFL. Figure 2-1 shows SFL's STRATIFICATION map:

Figure 0-1: Stratification (Matthiessen, 2007b)

As shown in Figure 2-1, the level of context is the first on the hierarchy of the stratification system, which provides cultural and situational settings where language can unfold. Below the stratum of context, the linguistic system is organised into four levels or strata: semantics, lexicogrammar, phonology/graphology, and phonetics/graphetics. Among them, the systems of meaning and wording (semantics and lexicogrammar) are the strata of content, which allow the meaning potential of a language to expand, whereas the systems of composing and sounding (phonology/graphology and phonetics/graphetics) are the strata of expression, which interface with the biological environment (i.e., the human body) to realise abstract meaning and wording.

The relationship among the strata in the linguistic system is called **realisation**: semantics is realised by lexicogrammar and lexicogrammar is realised by phonology/graphology.

Perhaps it is necessary to take more efforts to discuss **lexicogrammar** here. This term, unlike others such as semantics and phonology that are widely used in the general linguistic field, often appears in SFL descriptions only. Lexicogrammar includes lexis and grammar in one system with lexis being the most delicate part of grammar (Halliday, 1961; Hasan, 1987; Matthiessen, 1995, 1999). Halliday and

Matthiessen present a more detailed interpretation of lexicogrammar (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999):

> ...*grammar, as used in systemic theory, is short for "lexicogrammar". The lexicon, or "lexis" as it is more properly known, is not a separate component, but simply the most "delicate" end of the (unified) lexicogrammar...Lexis and grammar are not two different phenomena; they are different ways of looking at the same phenomenon (p.5).*

1.3.2.2 Instantiation

The dimension of **instantiation** is concerned with the two perspectives of viewing language: language as **system** and language as **text**. The system of a language is 'instantiated' in the form of text and the relationship between the two is a cline – the cline of instantiation (see Figure 2-2, adapted from Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 28). As shown by this cline, there are intermediate patterns between the instance pole and the potential pole. If these intermediate patterns are viewed from the instance pole, one can identify them as text types. In contrast, if viewed from the system pole, they can be described as registers.

Verification

Instance type
(text type)

Instance (text in
context of situation)

subpotential
(register)

Potential (system in
context of culture)

Generalisation

Figure 0-2: The cline of instantiation

The cline of instantiation works as a perfect methodological guidance in the description of a grammar: quantitative study of texts will help identify patterns that they all share, which in turn may develop into system; at the same time, to test a tentative system that has been developed, it is always necessary to put it back into

texts for verification (see Figure 2-2). As Halliday and Matthiessen have stressed, writing a description of a grammar entails constant shunting between the perspective of the system and the perspective of the instance (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004:29).

1.3.2.3 Metafunction

In systemic functional interpretation, the entire architecture of language is arranged along three functional lines, which is termed as metafunctions (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Matthiessen, 1995). Halliday calls these three metafunctions the ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions.

The **ideational** metafunction provides resources for construing human experiences. This is realised through naming things, modelling our experience of the world into categories and so on. It can be distinguished into two parts, with the **experiential** metafunction encoding the experiences and the **logical** metafunction showing the relationships between these experiences.

The **interpersonal** metafunction provides resources for enacting roles and social relationships. This is typically realised through encoding ideas about obligation and inclination and expressing attitude. As Halliday and Matthiessen point out, if the ideational function of the grammar is 'language as reflection', interpersonal function is 'language as action' (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 30).

The textual metafunction provides resources for constructing a text. This is realised by presenting ideational and interpersonal meanings as information and organising these meanings into a coherent and linear text.

It is important to note that meanings are **simultaneously** organised along the three functional lines. Therefore, from a paradigmatic point of view (see further Section 2.3.5), this means a simultaneous selection of three strands of meaning in the system network. At the same time, as an integral component within the overall SFL theory, metafunctionality applies to lexicogrammar systems at all ranks (see further Section 2.3.4). At the clause rank, the three metafunctions generate three distinct structures combined into one. At the group rank, in comparison, the metafunctionality is represented in a single structural line with each element in the structure making partial contributions to one or more metafunctional meanings (see further Chapter 3).

1.3.2.4 Rank

Rank is the dimension along which language resources are distributed into hierarchical units, similar to the systems of all other orders – physical, social and biological (Caffarel, Martin & Matthiessen, 2004). According to the five principles of constituency in lexicogrammar presented in Section 1.3.3, rank orders grammatical units on a scale from highest to lowest. The highest unit on the rank scale is clause, and there is no separate rank for a sentence, as organisation beyond the clause and clause complex is taken to be semantic (see further Matthiessen, 1995). The second highest on the rank scale is group/phrase. A review of the language descriptive work reflects that most of the accounts are primarily concerned with these two highest ranks (cf. Matthiessen, 2007a). As Matthiessen points out, if we want to understand how the grammar is organised as a resource according to functional principles, the way into the grammatical system is "from above" – the interpretive view is clause-based rather than word- or morpheme-based (Matthiessen, 1995:76).

In Section 1.4, I reviewed the work on Chinese nominal groups based on non-systemic theories and pointed out that most of these accounts did not distinguish between groups and phrases and in many cases the term "phrase" was used to cover both. In contrast, SFL recognises that 'groups' and 'phrases' are organised in quite different ways. A group is a group of words, whereas a phrase is like a reduced clause. By reflecting the difference between the two types, a systemic description of Chinese nominal groups is able to solve the chronic problem of differentiating a group from a clause caused by the construction-based classification (see the discussion in Section 1.4).

SFL studies of Chinese have shown that English and Chinese share the same number of units on the rank scale as well as the way of distributing meanings across these ranks (see Halliday & McDonald, 2004; Li, 2003, 2007). However, as Halliday and McDonald point out, unlike English, the lowest rank with implications for clause grammar is the group rather than the word due to the derivational structure of the latter (Halliday & McDonald 2004). Table 2-2 presents an example of a Chinese clause analysed in terms of rank[1]:

---

[1] The use of conventions here follow Halliday & Mcdonald (2004: 319).

clause	Carrier	Circumstance		Process			Attribute		
group	nominal group	adverbial group		verbal group			nominal group		
word	noun	adjective	APART	verb	PV	ASP	NUM	MEA	NOUN
	冰	慢慢	的	变	成	了	一	滩	水

Table 0-2: Example of rank

1.3.2.5 Structure and System

Linguistic resources are organised along two axes, the paradigmatic and the syntagmatic. Matthiessen presents very clear definitions of the two organising modes when he discusses the grammatical organisation of language (Matthiessen，1995)

> *The fundamental mode of organisation is the organisation of the grammatical resources into options (alternative strategies, choices) available for realising meanings. In fact, the grammatical resources form a set of inter-related options, what the speaker can do grammatically to express meanings. This mode of organisation is called **paradigmatic.** These options are realised by means of the other mode of organisation, structures and items, or wordings – called the **syntagmatic** mode of organisation (p.12).*

So structure is the syntagmatic ordering in language, the structural specification that realises options. In contrast, System refers to the paradigmatic ordering in language, a set of interrelated options to realise meanings. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 22) have explained the two terms in plain language: Structure is the ordering of patterns in *what goes together with what*, whereas System is the ordering of patterns in *what could go instead of what*. Structure, being the expressive mode of organisation, is secondary in relation to System (i.e., paradigmatic organisation), as the latter represents the meaning potential of language. In SFL, grammatical resources are considered in terms of both System and Structure, but the former is more global as it is freed from structural placement. For instance, in lexicogrammatical descriptions of language, an SFL account often focuses more on system, or **system network**, which is a network of systems, than on structure. This again reflects one of the fundamental features of SFL that contrasts it with formal grammar: SFL is very much concerned with meaning and meaning potential rather than form. Figure 2-3 (adapted from Matthiessen, 2007b) shows the MOOD system network of English

(paradigmatic organisation) and its structural representation (syntagmatic organisation):

Figure 0-3: The English MOOD system network and its syntagmatic representation

As the example in Figure 2-3 shows, the paradigmatic MOOD system network provides a set of options with an entry condition, such as "major clause" as the entry condition for FREEDOM. Then the options in the system network contribute to the formation of a syntagmatic structure. For example, the configuration of Subject ^ Finite is the syntagmatic structure of a declarative clause, which is the result of the selections on the system network.

1.4   The SFL description of Chinese: a brief review

Since Halliday published the first edition of his *Introduction to Functional Grammar* in 1985, a number of works have been conducted on the SFL description of English as well as other languages including Chinese (see further in Matthiessen, 2007a). In this section, I will briefly review the SFL-based descriptive work in Chinese in recent years.

Since the late 1970s with China's opening up to the outside world, SFL has become influential among the Chinese linguists. As a result, a significant number of publications have been made by the Chinese scholars in the field of SFL, covering a wide range of areas such as theory introduction (e.g., Shen, 1987), discourse analysis (e.g., Huang, 2001), coherence and cohesion (e.g., Zhang, 2003), translation studies (e.g., Huang, 2006), and lexicography (e.g., Chang, 2009), to name a few. It is worth noting that most of these works were based on the study of English rather than Chinese. In the field of SFL study of Chinese, in contrast, the contributions have been limited and the credit mainly goes to the overseas-based scholars of Chinese. Among them, the earliest and also the most prescriptive contributions came from Halliday himself. Halliday's accounts of modern Chinese grammar date back to his early publication in the 1950s (cf. (Halliday, 1956 [2006]; Halliday & Ellis, 1951 [2006]) . His work on the lexicogrammar of Chinese resumed in 1980s with publications on grammatical metaphor (Halliday, 1984). During that period, under Halliday's supervision, a number of Chinese scholars also produced a series of MA thesis at Sydney University describing Chinese from SFL perspectives, each focusing on a particular dimension such as transitivity (Long, 1981), modality and modulation (Zhu, 1985), circumstances (Tsung, 1986) and clause complex (Ouyang, 1986). Following this productive decade, EcDonald and Li expanded the description focus to cover all the three metafunctions of Chinese in general (cf. (McDonald, 1998; Li, 2003, 2007). More recently, Halliday and McDonald (2004) presented a metafunctional profile of Chinese grammar. This account is very important in that it not only gives a very insightful overview of the language from the perspectives of rank and metafunction, but also presents the descriptive potential of the language by describing the clause systems in detail. In a word, their work has set a good example for any future SFL accounts of Chinese.

All the above mentioned works have been unfolded with a focus on clause, which is understandable since this is the rank at which the three metafunctions are integrated into a single syntagm. However, this does not mean that the grammatical potentials at other ranks, group/phrase in particular, can be ignored, as these units are the integral parts that make up a clause. In real life grammar, ignoring these intermediate structural units means some important aspects of meanings will be missing. As Halliday and Matthiessen argue, 'describing a sentence as a construction

of words is rather like describing a house as a construction of bricks, without recognizing the walls and the rooms as intermediate structural units' (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004:310). Unfortunately, the descriptive work at the level of group/phrase within SFL field is far less than clause, especially in the case of languages other than English. In Matthiessen's review of systemic functional descriptions of language since 1970s, only one account, Sutjaja's PhD thesis (Sutjaja, 1988) is listed as the work on nominal group of a language other than English (see further Matthiessen, 2007: 796). In the case of Chinese, the work at group/phrase level is quite blank indeed as most attentions are given to the clause or text. This fact gives the current author a strong motivation to fill in the gap.

1.5   Methodological issues

In this section, the methodological issues involved in this study will be discussed. The discussion will be unfolded in two parts. In Section 2.5.1, I will introduce the process of data collection, how the texts being collected can fit into the text typology map, and the criteria of sampling texts to establish a working corpus. In Section 2.5.2, I will mainly introduce two important aspects in dealing with the data. One is the presentation of Chinese examples in this thesis, and the other is SysConc, a computational tool being used in handling the data.

1.5.1 Data

As the present study is text-based, it is essential to have a further discussion of **instantiation**, one of the fundamental dimensions in SFL theory (see Section 2.3.2), which provides theoretical basis for adopting a text-based approach. Then in Section 2.5.1.2, I will introduce the details of data collection in this study.

1.5.1.1 Locating 'text' on the cline of INSTANTIATION

As Matthiessen points out, the evidential or empirical basis of any work involving language is text in context (Matthiessen, 2009:52). There has been a long tradition for systemic functional linguists to use texts and corpus for language investigations and descriptions (cf. Wu, 2009). This SFL tradition can be explained and justified by the fundamental theoretical dimension of instantiation. As explained in Section 2.3.2, the dimension of **instantiation** is concerned with the two perspectives of viewing language: language as **system** and language as **text**. And the system of a language is

'instantiated' in the form of text. When observing language, one can choose to view it from the instance end by investigating a particular text, that is, an instantiated text. It is also possible to move along the cline of instantiation to analyse a group of texts to find some recurrent patterns or features that belong to a particular text type or register. Or one can explore the overall systemic potential of the language from the system end. Whichever stance is taken, it is essential to base the investigation on text in context, as the systemic potential can only be represented and realised by the textual instances of the language. Figure 2-4 (adapted from Wu, 2009:132) shows how the cline of instantiation is related to the overall systemic potential:

Figure 0-4: Systemic potential and textual instance

Figure 2-4 provides three important methodological indications on language description. Firstly, it shows that systemic selections are instantiated in texts and the frequencies of these systemic selections are countable. This means that we can generalise about the systemic features by accumulating instantial profiles of text, provided that we get large enough samples of text. In fact, this indication is also supported by Halliday's view (Halliday, 1991:42):

Frequency in the text is the instantiation of probability in the system. A linguistic system is inherently probabilistic in nature.

Secondly, text type/register is located somewhere between instance and system. Therefore, in the process of data collection, if enough texts are collected to cover a wide range of registers/text types, then the analysis of these texts can help support the description of the systemic potential of a language (cf. Matthiessen 2009). Based on a table of context-based register typology initially developed by Jean Ure, Matthiessen, Teruya and Wu sketch a map concerning contextual parameters of field and mode (see Figure 2-5, adapted from Matthiessen, Teruya, & Wu, 2008). This effort is significant in that it takes into account both field or "socio-semiotic process" (expounding, reporting, recreating, sharing, doing recommending, enabling, and exploring) and mode (spoken monologic, spoken dialogic, written dialogic, and written monologic). This diagram provides guidance in data collection, ensuring the texts being collected are context-based representation of different fields of activity.

Figure 0-5: Text typology wheel

Thirdly, the cline of instantiation also provides clues on testing the validity of the system networks being proposed. When moving along the cline of instantiation from the system end to the instance end, one can check if the proposed system network is able to reflect all the potential selections being realised by instantial texts. This is usually done by manual analysis of a reasonable number of sample texts covering various text types.

1.5.1.2 Data collection

Although the focus of the present study is the nominal group, the observation is still based on text. This is a major difference between an SFL description and a description based on formal grammar, as in the latter language is typically studied in a 'vacuum' – free from text and context. The potential problem of a context-free description can be illustrated by a simple example:

> 晚会的神秘嘉宾突然出现，给大家带来了<u>出乎意料的精彩表演</u>。
>
> The mysterious guest of the evening appeared all of a sudden, who brought everyone <u>an unexpected wonderful performance.</u>
>
> 开场前一直不被看好的胡悦，给大家带来了<u>出乎意料的精彩表演</u>。
>
> Hu Yue, who had been seen as unpromising before the show, brought everyone <u>an unexpectedly wonderful performance</u>.

As the above examples illustrate, the nominal group *出乎意料的精彩表演* has different connotations in different contexts: in the first example, *出乎意料 unexpected* functions as a qualifier modifying the head *表演 performance* ; whereas in the second example, *出乎意料 unexpectedly* is a metaphorical comment adjunct sub-modifying the Epithet *精彩 wonderful* . As a typical non-inflectional language, Chinese does not reflect this context-based grammatical difference in form – the difference can only be interpreted through meaningful text in context.

As discussed in Section 2.5.1.1, to explore the systemic potential, one needs to get large enough samples of text for observation. To this end, a corpus of 180 texts are set up for this study, which contains two text archives (Archive A and B).

The texts in Archive A form the major part of the corpus, which are retrieved from the official website of the People's Education Press (http://www.pep.com.cn), a specialized publisher directly under the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, which undertakes the overall tasks of compiling and publishing teaching materials for school education. All these texts are used in the public primary and secondary schools across China, either as model texts for in-class study or supplementary texts for after-class reading. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the quality of the texts in Archive A is guaranteed, since they are used as model texts for Chinese teaching purpose. All the texts in Archive A have been categorised in terms of Year and text type.

The texts in Archive B work as a supplementary part of Archive A. This archive

was set up in the second year of this research project, when the current author realised that some type of texts, which could be relevant for analytical purposes, were not included in Archive A. There are mainly two types of texts in Archive B: one is 'doing text', which are collected from a published book on practical writing; the other is reporting, which are news reports retrieved from some major news agencies. The reason for focusing on these two text types will be explained in Section 2.5.1.2.1.

After the establishment of the corpus, the next step is to extract nominal groups from these texts since this is the focus for analysis. However, as the size of the corpus is not small, in practice it is almost impossible for the current author to extract nominal groups from all the collected texts. And even if a complete extraction is possible, it would be really challenging to carry out a manual analysis of all the extracted data by one researcher. As a solution to this problem, a working corpus is set up to reduce the workload. This is done by selecting 16 texts for extraction in every stage of description in terms of metafunction. In other words, the description of each metafunction (ideational, interpersonal or textual) is based on the detailed analysis of a working corpus. The working corpus will collapse when the investigation of the particular metafunction for which it serves is finished. And a new working corpus will be built for the description of another metafunction – this is to ensure a wide coverage of texts is under focus so that the description of the three metafunctions is NOT based on the observation of the same 16 texts.

The selection of texts to form a working corpus is done half-randomly. First, I will randomly select 2 texts of each text type to make a total of 16 texts. Then I will check these texts in terms of two things: one is to see if they cover a wide range of Year groups, the other is to check if there is a heavy overlap with another working corpus. The principles are that on the one hand a working corpus should cover at least 6 different Year groups with 8 text types; on the other hand the overlap with another working corpus should remain at a low level of no more than 5 texts. When either principle is not satisfied, the selection process will be repeated.

After a working corpus is established, all the nominal groups will be extracted. Thanks to SysConc, a computational tool, the work of extraction becomes more efficient than a complete manual extraction (SysConc is further discussed in Section 2.5.2). In general, the whole processing procedure can be illustrated in Figure 2-6:

Figure 0-6: Data processing procedure

1.5.1.2.1 Text Archive A

In this section, the discussion will focus on the textual features of the texts in Archive A. altogether 162 texts have been collected in Archive A with a total word count of 244,300 characters, ranging from Semester 2 of Year 1 to Semester 2 of Year 12. However, the number of texts being selected from each Year is not maintained at an even level. For example, only 2 texts are selected from Year 1 and only 5 from Year 12. In fact, a large part of the Archive is made of texts from the 'middle range' years, Year 4 to Year 8 in particular. This reflects the different emphasis of each year's textbook: for Year 1 the textbook aims to teach students individual characters as well as pronunciations (in the form of pinyin), and these are taught word by word out of a text; in comparison, as the students move onto senior high school years, the Chinese textbooks become more and more focused on ancient Chinese literature, and the number of modern Chinese texts are reduced. Table 2-3 lists the number of texts

being collected from each grade:

Grade	Text count
12	5
11	8
10	11
9	11
8	15
7	16
6	20
5	19
4	26
3	13
2	16
1	2

Table 0-3: Number of texts from each Grade

Of all these texts, two aspects will be investigated: text typological features and lexical density.

In perspective of Matthiessen et al's text typology theory (Matthiessen et al, 2008), the overall socio-semiotic type of a textbook is expounding. However, each individual text within a textbook may represent a different text type. Altogether the texts being collected in this study fall into 6 types on the 'text typology wheel': recreating, sharing, expounding, exploring, reporting, and recommending. However, the coverage of text types in each year does not display an even pattern. Figure 2-7 shows the profile of text type selections in each grade's textbook:

Figure 0-7: Text type profile of Archive A

Generally speaking, the selections of text type in these textbooks are quite limited. As shown in Figure 2-7, recreating texts seem to predominate most of the Years, and the predominance starts to decrease after Year 4 with some other text types being introduced into the textbooks. At around Year 9 and onwards, exploring texts become another major text type in these textbooks. It is also interesting to note that in the first two years of primary school, only recreating texts are included; whereas in the senior years, Year 10 to Year 12, exploring and expounding texts are the major selections. Table 2-4 lists all the detailed socio-semiotic process types of the texts in Archive A.

Text type	Detailed socio-semiotic process type
Recreating	short story, poem, travel notes (prose), novel, drama, myth, memoir, reporting literature
Sharing	Travel notes (diary), letter
Recommending	advice
Exploring	written speech, exposition, review, investigation, essay
Expounding	research article, explanation, taxonomic investigation
Reporting	biography, history, obituary, news story

Table 0-4: Detailed text types in Archive A

When categorising these texts in terms of text types, I have also faced some texts with 'fuzzy text types': the socio-semiotic process type of these texts may fit into more than one category. For example, travel notes is a very common type of

writing in Chinese literature, which not only aims to share one's travel experience, but more importantly to recreate this experience in an artistic linguistic manner. Another interesting example is 'reporting literature', which is a popular genre in modern Chinese writing. As its Chinese term 报告文学 (literally meaning 'reporting literature') indicates, this type of texts report an actual event or a life story in a fictional style, normally charged with emotions and personal views. It is also worth noting that some news stories which appear in the Chinese textbooks also display the similar 'flavour' of a reporting literature, which could be regarded as a distinguished feature in the Chinese journalism.

In terms of lexical density, it is not surprising to see an increasing tendency along the Years: as the Year goes up, the texts tend to be more lexically dense (see Figure 2-8):

Figure 0-8: Average lexical density of texts in Archive A

As can be seen from Figure 2-8, after Year 6, there is a significant increase in average lexical density from well below 1500 words to over 2000 per text. Another noticeable increase occurs in Year 10 when the texts in average are more than 3000 words long. However, it is also worth noting that, apart from its close correlation with the Year, the lexical density of these texts may also be related to text type. For example, poems, which belong to the recreating category, are generally shorter than a research article, which falls into the type of expounding.

1.5.1.2.2 Text Archive B

With 6 text types included in Text Archive A, the current author feels it necessary to expand the corpus to cover doing and enabling texts as well, which are not represented in the first archive. That is how Archive B came into being, which was established as a supplementary archive to the main collection. Altogether 17 texts of around 22,000 words were collected in the first stage, with 10 texts as doing and the other 7 enabling. Later, in exploring interpersonal resources, I added another 37 reporting texts into Archive B. All these reporting texts are news reports, which are not well represented in Archive A, but are very useful in a case study that I conducted when investigating interpersonal meanings. Table 2-5 gives the details of the texts being collected for Archive B:

Text type	Text count	Detailed semiotic type
enabling	7	recipe, contract, product instruction, legal document
doing	10	invitation, public notice, letter of commendation, offer letter
reporting	37	news report

Table 0-5: Texts in Archive B

Except 5 doing texts, which are collected from *yingyongwen xiezuo daquan*，a published book on Chinese practical writing (Zhang & Zhang 1997)，all the other types of texts in Archive B are retrieved through internet, from the official websites of either government agencies and institutions or from the widely recognised news agencies.

1.5.2 Parsing data

After the establishment of the corpus, the next step is to extract nominal groups from the texts and analyse them in terms of the three metafunctions. In this section, I will briefly introduce two technical aspects that are involved in this process: SysConc, a computational tool being used to help extracting data, and two ways of presenting Chinese examples.

1.5.2.1 SysConc

As the current research is based on a corpus of a considerable volume of data, it is a big challenge for the author to conduct manual extraction and analysis alone.

Fortunately, SysConc, a language computational tool, is available to help reduce the human workload. Developed in Java, SysConc is a multilingual concordance program (available at http://minerva.ling.mq.edu.au/units/tools/ , see further in Wu, 2009). In the current study, SysConc mainly provides assistance in two aspects: frequency and concordance search.

With the help of SysConc, I can do a frequency search of two-character patterns of all the texts in a working corpus, in which way most of the nouns can be sorted out as Chinese nouns are typically made of two characters. As SysConc can list all the two-character patterns in the order of their frequency level in the texts, I am able to focus on those recognizable nouns of high frequency. In this way, the workload of extracting data can be greatly reduced.

The limitation of the frequency search lies in that it can only display patterns at word level, whereas the focus of this study is group. So the next step is to do a concordance search so that the nouns on the frequency list can be studies in a zoomed out context. Figure 2-9 shows an example concordance search of "老师" (meaning 'teacher'), which appears 138 times in the texts of Archive A (as shown in the left panel of the figure) and each context environment where it is used (as shown in the right panel):

Figure 0-9: A frequency and concordance search of "老师" by SysConc

As shown in Figure 2-9, a concordance search will display a linguistic unit in the form of concordance lines, showing its surrounding 'environment' at sentence level. If needed, even a full context can be displayed at the left panel (see Figure 2-10). In such a way, it becomes very straight forward to investigate a particular nominal group in terms of its various lexicogrammatical potentials, such as its collocation with other functional elements, the metafunctional resources it can provide for the meaning-making process at clause and text level, and so on.

From the perspective of the current research, a limitation of using SysConc is that, when doing a frequency search of a two-character pattern, I always get some junk data being mixed with the desirable data on the list, which need to be removed before further processing. This problem is particularly serious in the case of searching Chinese words, as the internal structure of a 'word' in Chinese is strictly derivational with a large amount of words being compound words containing more than one character. As a result, a single-character search will display a large volume of morphemes, and a two-character search often comes back with a list of combination of two non-collocational morphemes which are not recognised as 'words'. All these

unwanted data need to be removed before analysis.

Figure 0-10: Search results of "老师" in context

1.5.2.2 Presentation of Chinese examples

As this thesis is an English description of a Chinese grammar, translation of example data becomes unavoidable in the process of analysis. Therefore, in this section, I will briefly introduce two ways by which examples of Chinese are presented in this thesis. Firstly, a large part of the selected samples, such as clauses and paragraphs or even short texts, will presented in Chinese characters and then a literal English translation will be provided in the following line. If the example is used to illustrate a nominal group of a particular category, the nominal group in the example, together with the corresponding part of the English translation, will be highlighted. A literal translation makes sure that the original structural organisation in the Chinese examples will be maintained as much as possible in the English translations. Where the translation is too literal to convey the connotation, a second translation, which is more meaning-focused and serves the purpose of explanation, will be presented. Examples:

Nominal group being highlighted in a sentence example

写文章解决了[["写什么"]]的**问题**后，还要解决[["怎么写"]]的**问题**。

On writing, after solving the **problem** of [["what to write"]], one also needs to solve the **problem** of [["how to write"]].

Chinese example being presented with two lines of English translation

[饭桌上]的笑话

Literal translation: jokes (made) [at the dinner table]

Translation: jokes made at dinner time

When a grammatical item in Chinese under discussion is not translatable, it will be presented in the English translation as a conventional abbreviation to indicate its actual location in the nominal structure (see further in the list of *Symbols, abbreviations and systemic conventions* on pp.*xv)*. Example:

我买了五条鱼，吃了两条，还有几条？

 I bought five fish, ate two MEA, how many MEA left?

Secondly, sometimes where the selected example is presented as an isolated nominal group, not in the environment of a clause, paragraph or text, interlinear glossing will be used in the presentation. The basic principles of interlinear glossing, a literal, word-for-word translation approach will be adopted for illustrating this kind of examples, as shown below.

这	是	我	新买	的	一	辆	蓝色	轿车
Zhè	shì	[[wǒ	Xīnmǎi]]	de	yí	liàng	lánsè	jiàochē
This	is	I	newly bought	SUB	one	MEAS	blue	sedan
This is a blue sedan that I newly bought.								

The example above uses four lines of transcription: the first line is the orthographic presentation in Chinese characters, the second line is the phonetic transcription in *pinyin*, the third line is a word-by-word gloss in English, and the fourth line is an English translation of the whole clause. Please note that, depending on the actual needs in the discussions, there might be some differences in the arrangement of the lines of transcription.

It is also important to emphasize that, in the third line of word-by-word gloss, translation equivalence is achieved at the word level. This means that more than one Chinese character could be aligned with only one English word, as many Chinese words are compounds which are made up of more than one morpheme. Of course, a one-to-many correspondence is also possible for some monomorphic Chinese words may be glossed as more than one word in English.

Additionally, as the second and the third line show, some labels may be needed in phonetic transcription and word-level glossing. Generally speaking, there are two types of labels being used: general grammatical labels, and SFL symbols and conventions. The former includes the symbols being used to represent the general grammatical categories in terms of word class, such as *de* in Figure 2-9 being labelled as 'SUB', representing a subordinating particle. The latter refers to the notational specifications that are conventionally used in systemic functional linguistics. For example, the "[[…]]" in Figure 2-9 is an SFL structural symbol for rank-shifted clauses. All the general grammatical labels being used in this study, as well as all the SFL symbols and conventions, are listed at the beginning of this thesis (see page xiv).

1.5.2.3 Presentation of System networks and trinocular vision

In Section 2.3.2.5, I have introduced two grammatical organisation modes, namely, *System* and *Structure*. In this thesis, my exploration will cover both but with a focus on the former by developing systems and system networks reflecting the potential choices in terms of a particular functional category. The presentation of these systems and system networks will follow the SFL conventions where applicable, reflecting both simultaneous and non-simultaneous selections. A list of systemic conventions which this thesis uses in presenting the system networks has been given (see p. *xv*) with example figures illustrating each organisation being provided. It is important to note that the presentation of realisation of each choice in a system network is not always available, as sometimes the realisation is very straightforward, and therefore does not become the focus for the discussion at hand. For example, the Thing is typically realised by a noun, which is widely accepted as a general realisation feature. In this case, the discussion of the system of THING will focus on some more significant features, such as the modification potential, the measurability, and so on.

The development of each system and system network is based on the

observation of the collected data. And a trinocular vision is adopted where possible in probing these data. According to Halliday (1978), any language phenomenon or category can be viewed from three angles based on the system of STRATIFICATION, which he later named "trinocular vision" (Halliday, 1996): from above, from roundabout and from below. Although the focus of the current study is on the lexicogrammatical selections in realising the three strands of meaning of nominal groups, the description of the system networks will involve semantic and contextual concerns from above, as well as discussions on categories below the rank of group. This trinocular vision is particularly relevant in exploring systems in the logical, experiential, interpersonal and textual domains. When introducing each major selection in a system, the semantic motivation behind the selection will be discussed, and where relevant, how it can be realised by items down the rank scale will also be examined. Undoubtedly, the most important and also challenging part is to observe the nominal groups 'from roundabout': how to find out the patterns through the observation of examples and generalise them; how to identify the problems of the current system after testing it through the examples; how to fit the rare examples into the existing systems; and so on. The trinocular vision is inevitable as each stratum is related with the others and the relations of realisation between each stratum means that any effective lexicogrammatical description should include aspects of the other strata. Figure 2-11 illustrates how the nominal groups will be approached trinocularly in the current study:

From above:
- Context: Different text types, tenor relations
- Semantics: Things, attitudes, references

From roundabout

Logical systems

Interpersonal systems

nominal group

Experiential systems

Textual systems

From below:

lexical realisation of at the rank below Group: nouns, adjectives, rankshifted clauses...

Figure 0-11: A trinocular vision

1.6 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the key methodological issues from the following perspectives: firstly, I have reviewed different interpretations of the relations between theory and language description, and then presents the rationale for adopting an SFL framework in my study; secondly I have given an overview of all the major theoretical dimensions within systemic functional linguistics: stratification, instantiation, metafunction, rank, and structure and system; after introducing the theoretical framework, it becomes easy for me explain how a text-based approach is taken in the current project; finally, detailed information about data, data collection, corpus establishment and analysing methods have been presented in Section 2.5.

In the following chapters, the description of the lexicogrammar of Chinese nominal group will be unfolded in terms of the three metafunctions: ideational (logical and experiential), interpersonal, and textual metafunctions.

Chapter 3 Logical resources of Chinese Nominal Groups

1.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I have introduced the fundamental dimensions of SFL theory, which provides a theoretical framework for the current study of Chinese nominal group. Among the five theoretical dimensions being discussed, it seems to have become a convention for an SFL description of a language to draw upon the dimension of metafunctions in setting up the framework, and the current account is no exception. In the following four chapters, the description will be presented along the lines of metafunctions: I will start from investigating the logical metafunction in this chapter, followed by experiential in Chapter 4, and interpersonal in Chapter 5, and finally textual in Chapter 6.

Logically speaking, nominal groups can be studied from two perspectives: complexing and logico-semantic relations, which is very similar to the situation at clause rank. In Section 3.2, I will investigate the complexity of Chinese nominal group, and then take the next step to interpret nominal group complex from the perspectives of both taxis and logico-semantic type. Then in Section 3.3, I will take a closer look at nominal group simplex, the predominant type in complexing. Detailed discussions will be presented in terms of the modification structure, types of expansion, types of embedding within a nominal group, and the affordance of expansion. After the discussion of the above mentioned, a case study will be presented in Section 3.4 with an aim to investigate the modification profile of Chinese nominal groups in different types of texts.

1.2 Nominal group complexing

In terms of complexing, the complex structures of nominal groups are very similar to that of clauses: a nominal group may enter into a nominal group complex by combining with another group, typically another nominal group. This can be illustrated by the following examples:

> *1.风把太阳永生不灭的宣言带到了全世界：喜马拉雅山的最高峰，太平洋中的小岛，古老宁静的小村落，繁华的现代都市。*

The wind brings the declaration that the sun is eternal to **the whole world**: **the summit of Himalaya, the small islands in the Pacific, the peaceful old villages, and the busy modern cities**.

2. 梅花雀、小黄雀，还有小杜鹃已经在选好的枝丫间开始做窝了。

The waxbill, the little siskin, as well as the little cuckoo have started building nestles in their chosen twigs.

As shown in the examples above, the parts in bold are complex of nominal groups, where several groups work together to play a participant role in a clause. It is interesting to note that, in Chinese the nominal groups within a group complex may be connected with a conjunction as in example 2 above: 还有 (*as well as)* is used to link each group. However, it is also common for each group to be presented without any conjunction units, but to still form a group complex as in example 1.

There is another possible interpretation of the second example above. The combination of 梅花雀 (*the waxbill*), 小黄雀 (*the little siskin*) and 小杜鹃 *(the little cuckoo)* is obviously a complex, but it may not necessarily be a group complex, as the three nouns are not modified and they may be treated as a noun complex instead. Compare the examples below:

1. 蓝色的小河里游着<u>一群快乐的鱼和虾</u>。

In the creek were swimming a group of happy fish and shrimps.

一群快乐	的	鱼和虾
A group happy	de	fish and shrimps
premodifiers	SUB	noun complex
a group of happy fish and shrimps		
Nominal group simplex		

2. 梅花雀、小黄雀，还有小杜鹃已经在选好的枝丫间开始做窝了。

The waxbill, the little siskin, as well as the little cuckoo have started building nestles in their chosen twigs.

Analysis A:

梅花雀	小黄雀	还有	小杜鹃
The waxbill	the little siskin	as well as	the little cuckoo
noun 1	noun 2	CONJ	noun 3
Noun complex			

Analysis B:

梅花雀	小黄雀	还有	小杜鹃
The waxbill	the little siskin	as well as	the little cuckoo
nominal group 1	nominal group 2	CONJ	nominal group 3
Nominal group complex			

Unlike the second example, which is open for two interpretations since the nouns are not characterized by different modifiers, example 1 can only be analysed as a simple nominal group, or "nominal group simplex" as is termed here. This is because that 鱼 (*fish*) and 虾 (*shrimps*) function together as the head of the group which are jointly modified by the preceding functional elements.

In comparison, example 3 presents a nominal group complex made of two nominal groups featured with different premodifiers for each.

3. 是您那温柔、期待、信任的目光，和蔼真诚的神情鼓舞了我。

It is your gentle, expecting and trustful gaze, as well as your kind and sincere look, that encouraged me.

您那	温柔	期待	信任	的	目光，	和蔼	真诚	的	神情
your	gentle	expecting	trustful	de	gaze	kind	sincere	de	look
determiners	premodifier 1	premodifier 2	premodifier 3	SUB	noun 1	premodifier 1	premodifier 2	SUB	noun 2
nominal group 1						nominal group 2			
Nominal group complex									

Based on the discussions above, it seems that the use of modifiers can work as an effective indicator for differentiating a simple nominal group with two or more head nouns from a complex of two or more nominal groups. For a nominal group simplex with multiple head nouns, it is highly possible that the nouns can be jointly modified by a single set of modifiers. However, this is far from a generalization of all the structures that a nominal group complex could have – once again, every analysis needs to be based on context and meaning.

The following example can illustrate the importance of a meaning-based analysis:

不论是亲密的朋友或者仇敌，都怀着最深的敬意在他的遗体前哀痛的埋下了头。

Close friends or enemies, with the deepest respect, all sadly bowed their heads in front of his body.

亲密的	朋友	或者	仇敌
close	friends	or	enemies
premodifier	noun 1	CONJ	noun 2
nominal group 1		CONJ	nominal group 2
nominal group complex			

As shown from the example above, the modifier in the structure, 亲密的 (*close),* is functioning within the first nominal group only, and the second nominal group of the complex contains no modifying elements. The semantic distance between the heads of the two groups, 朋友 vs. 仇敌，has already provided a strong-enough indication that they cannot be jointly modified by the only modifier here. Therefore, it is impossible to interpret this structure as a simple nominal group with two head nouns.

I have investigated the structural difference between a nominal group complex and a nominal group simplex. In the following discussions, I will first take a closer look at the nominal group complex, and then the nominal group simplex will be studied in a separate section thereafter.

1.2.1 Nominal group complex: taxis and logico-semantic type

Same as a clause complex, from a logical perspective, a nominal group complex can also be interpreted in terms of taxis and logico-semantic type. The former refers to the degree of interdependency of each group unit within the complex, whereas the latter refers to the fundamental semantic relations between each unit within the complex.

1.2.1.1 Taxis

In a nominal group complex, one may find such a structure where each group and/or

phrase within the complex are taking equal status, and any of these group-level unit can stand alone and serve the same function as the whole group complex. In terms of taxis, this type of structure is **paratactic**. In Chinese, groups and phrases within a nominal group complex can be linked paratactically either with or without a conjunction.

Sometimes, one may also see another type of structure where groups and phrases within a complex do not take equal status, with one of them serving as the dominant group and the others as dependent ones. Under such circumstances, only the dominant group can stand alone and serve the same function as the whole complex. In terms of taxis, this type of structure is **hypotactic**. In Chinese, the dominant group and the other dependent units in a hypotactic nominal group complex are typically linked with conjunctions.

For the purpose of a clear representation of the logical structure, I follow the SFL convention to label each group/phrase within a nominal group complex according to their tactic relations (see table 3-1):

	group 1	group 2	group 3
parataxis	1 (initiating)	2	3
hypotaxis	α (dominant)	β	γ

Table 0-1: Conventions of tactic relations

Below are some examples of a nominal group complex being analysed in terms of tactic relations:

1. 风把太阳永生不灭的宣言带到了全世界：喜马拉雅山的最高峰，太平洋中的小岛，古老宁静的小村落，繁华的现代都市。

   The wind brings the declaration that the sun is eternal to <u>the whole world: the summit of Himalaya, the small islands in the Pacific, the peaceful old villages, and the busy modern cities.</u>

1		全世界：the whole world
2	1	喜马拉雅山的最高峰　the summit of Himalaya
	2	太平洋中的小岛　the small islands in the Pacific
	3	古老宁静的小村落　the peaceful old villages
	4	繁华的现代都市　the busy modern cities

2. 除了内在特征，一部艺术作品，例如一部小说、一首长诗或一部戏剧作品，还可能有其它有趣的因素。

   Except internal features, <u>an artistic work, such as a novel, a long poem or a play</u>, may also have other interesting elements.

α		一部艺术作品 an artistic work
β	1	例如一部小说 such as a novel
	2	一首长诗 a long poem
	3	或一部戏剧作品 or a play

As can be seen from the examples above, nominal group complexes may also display a similar complex pattern that clause complexes have. However, unlike clause complexes, in Chinese nominal group complexes, parataxis is highly unmarked and hypotaxis is less common.

1.2.1.2 Logico-semantic relations

From a logico-semantic perspective, one can investigate what type of semantic relations that the groups enter into to form a complex. In the Chinese nominal group complex, three types of expansion are found to relate one group with another, and unlike the case of the clause complex, there is no projecting type in a nominal group complexing.

The type of expansion can be further categorised into elaboration, extension and enhancement. In the case of the Chinese nominal group complex, an elaborating group presents the complexity of the thing by explaining, exemplifying or particularizing it. In comparison, an extending group construes the experiential complexity of the thing by adding something new. For enhancement, a group is used to enhance the meaning of another group of the same complex by qualifying it in terms of sequence of time. Table 3-2 sets out each type and subtype of expansion as well as the SFL conventions for each category:

Type of expansion	Subtype
elaboration "="	expository
	exemplifying
	particularising
extension	additive

"+"	alternative
	subtractive
enhancement "×"	sequential

Table 0-2: Types of expansion

Examples of each type and subtype of expansion are presented below:

Elaboration: expository

> 胡杨，维吾尔语称作<u>"托克拉克"，即"最美丽的树"</u>。
>
> Huyang, in Uyghur is called <u>"toghraq", viz. "the most beautiful tree"</u>.
>
> 难道小阿尔伯特是**<u>低能儿？傻子</u>**？
>
> Could it be that little Albert is **<u>a moron? An idiot?</u>**

Elaboration: exemplifying

> <u>中国内陆的几个大城市，例如西安和太原，教育也比较发达。</u>
>
> <u>(In) some big cities in inland China, such as Xi'an and Taiyuan, the education there is also advanced.</u>

Elaboration: particularizing

> 一个最基本的原因就是**<u>俄罗斯的人口，尤其是富人</u>**，一直在向莫斯科等大城市聚集。
>
> One of the most fundamental reasons is that **<u>the Russian population, especially the rich people,</u>** are moving towards big cities like Moscow.

It should be noted that the use of structural conjunctions, such as 即(*viz*)，例如 (*such as*)，尤其 (*especially)*， is often a strong indicator for an elaborating relation between two groups.

Extension: additive

> 画<u>一个红人，一只蓝狗，一间紫房子</u>… …
>
> Draw <u>a red man, a blue dog, a purple house</u>…
>
> <u>除了辣椒，还有茄子和西红柿</u>也是夏天常见的蔬菜。
>
> <u>Except chillies, eggplants and tomatoes</u> are also common vegetables in summar.

Extension: alternative

> **<u>无论传统教学还是远程教学</u>**，都需要包括老师、学生和教材三个要素。

Traditional teaching or correspondence education, (both) need to include the three factors of the teacher, the student and the teaching materials.

友情，而不是仇恨才为人所记住。

Friendship, instead of hatred, will be remembered.

Extension: subtractive

除了他，全班同学都到齐了。

Except him, the whole class were there.

As shown in the examples above, the conjunction "except" may mark an additive extension, and may also be used to indicate a subtractive extension.

Enhancement: sequential

事故发生后，先是妇女和小孩，接着是现场工作人员，都出现了类似的症状。

After the accident, it was **first the women and children, and then the working staff on the site**, that all showed the symptoms of the kind.

In the Chinese nominal group complex, the relation of enhancement is highly marked. In my working corpus for logical investigation, only one example shown as above is found as enhancement, and it is realised by the collocated use of conjunctions: 先是 (*first*)…and 接着 (*then*). In fact, conjunctions like these, which show a sequence of time, as well as others which mark the other circumstantial relationships such as location, condition, reason, or cause (see further Halliday & Matthiessen 2004), can rarely be used to link two nominal groups. Rather, circumstantial conjunctions of this kind are more often used to connect two clauses. I may quote Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) view to explain this from a semantic perspective:

> …*enhancing relationships are essentially between figures as a whole, and only rarely can they be interpreted as holding between particular elements of a figure (pp.492).*

As nominal groups typically realise participant roles, which only represent some elements of a figure, it is not surprising that, based on Halliday and Matthiessen's explanation, it is uncommon to see an enhancing relationship between to nominal groups.

Similarly, the fact that no projecting relations are found between nominal

groups may be explained in the same manner: as a projection essentially requires either a mental or verbal process to be involved, it is a relationship between clauses and verbal groups, rather than nominal groups. However, when a mental or verbal process are packed into a nominal form through grammatical metaphor, the part of nominalisation does play the essential role in realising the projecting relationship between two clauses. This can be illustrated by the following example:

||| 土豆网做出了**一个艰难的决定**：|| 融资1.62亿美元。|||

|||The Tudou.com made **a hard decision**: || to be financed of USD 162 million.

|||**他的结论，** <<"中国还没有那样好的小说家">>，让许多人不能接受。|||

||| **His conclusion,** <<"There is no such a wonderful novelist in China">>, can hardly be accepted by many. |||

Note that in the second example above, the logico-semantic relationship between the two clauses is elaborating, as the interrupting clause helps explain part of the other clause. However, the relationship between the nominal group 他的结论 (*his conclusion*) and the clause 中国还没有那样好的小说家 (*There is no such a wonderful novelist in China*), is more of a projecting one, as the nominal group here is simply a nominalised verbal process and the clause is the content of this verbal projection.

I have now discussed the logical meaning of the nominal group complex by means of both Taxis and Logico-semantic relations. Table 3-3 sets out examples of different types of logico-semantic relations with a combination of parataxis or hypotaxis in Chinese nominal group complexes:

Expansion Type	Subtype	parataxis	hypotaxis
elaboration	expository	胡杨，维吾尔语称作"**托克拉克**"，即"**最美丽的树**"。 Huyang, in Uyghur is called **"toghraq", viz. "the most beautiful tree".**	
	exemplifying		中国内陆的几个大城市，例如西安和太原，教育也比较发达。**Some big cities in inland China, such as Xi'an and Taiyuan,** the education there is also advanced.
	particularising		一个最基本的原因就是**俄罗斯的人口，尤其是富人，**一直在向莫斯科等大城市聚集。 One of the most fundamental reasons is that **the Russian population, especially the rich people,** are moving towards big cities like Moscow.
Extension	additive	画**一个红人，一只蓝狗，一间紫房子**。。。Draw **a red man, a blue dog, a purple house**…	除了辣椒，还有茄子和西红柿也是夏天常见的蔬菜。**Apart from chillies, eggplants and tomatoes** are also common vegetables in summer.
	alternative	**无论传统教学还是远程教学，都需要包括老师、学生和教材三个要素。Traditional teaching or correspondence education,** (both) need to include the three factors of the teacher, the student and the teaching materials.	最后留下的是**友情，而不是仇恨**。At last what remains is **friendship, rather than hatred.**
	subtractive		除了他，全班同学都到齐了。**Except him, the whole class** were there.
enhancement	sequential	事故发生后，**先是妇女和小孩，接着是现场工作人员，**都出现了类似的症状。After the accident, it was **first the women and children, and then the working staff on the site,** that all showed the symptoms of the kind.	

Table 0-3: Examples of different types of nominal group complexes

In terms of the logical complexity, the potential for a nominal group complex to expand is no less than any other unit in the language, but the expansion is pervasively realised through extension, either hypotactically or paratactically. Examples:

1. 风把太阳永生不灭的宣言带到了全世界：喜马拉雅山的最高峰，太平洋中的小岛，古老宁静的小村落，繁华的现代都市。

```
The wind brings the declaration that the sun is eternal to the
whole world: the summit of Himalaya, the small islands in the
Pacific, the peaceful old villages, and the busy modern cities.
```

1		全世界：the whole world
=2	1	喜马拉雅山的最高峰 the summit of Himalaya
	+2	太平洋中的小岛 the small islands in the Pacific
	+3	古老宁静的小村落 the peaceful old villages
	+4	繁华的现代都市 the busy modern cities

2. 除了内在特征，一部艺术作品，例如一部小说、一首长诗或一部戏剧作品，还可能有其它有趣的因素。

```
Except internal features, an artistic work, such as a novel,
a long poem or a play, may also have other interesting
elements.
```

α		一部艺术作品 an artistic work
=β	1	例如一部小说 such as a novel
	+2	一首长诗 a long poem
	+3	一首长诗或一部戏剧作品 or a play

1.2.2 Nominal group simplex

Nominal group simplex, i.e., simple nominal group, refers to the choice of developing one nominal group only, and the entry condition is to have a single nominal head, typically a noun. In Chinese, the simple nominal group is much more common than the nominal group complex. Same as the latter, a nominal group simplex can also be logically analysed in terms of Taxis and Logico-semantic relations. Viewed through a logical lens, a simple nominal group may be interpreted as a structure where a group

of elements expand a nominal head through modification.

1.2.2.1 Taxis

In terms of taxis, only one type of relation is found between the head of a nominal group and its modifiers: all the modifying elements are dependent on the head, which forms a hypotactic relation. For example:

那个高度融合统一的很亮的灰白色的线，总是在前边吸引着你。

```
That   highly  amalgamated  bright  grey  line  is  always
attracting you at the front.
```

那个	高度融合统一	的	很亮	的	灰白色	的	线
that	highly amalgamated	de	bright	de	grey	de	line
modifier 4	modifier 3	SUB	modifier 2	SUB	modifier 1	SUB	Head
ε	δ		γ		β		α

As can be seen in the example above, if one ignores the different experiential aspects of the Thing (being realised by the head noun) that each modifying element represents, he may consider the structure as a univariate one by simply looking at all the functional elements as modifiers in general. The head of the nominal group, marked as α, is the only part that can stand alone, and therefore is independent. All the other elements in the nominal group, marked as β, γ, δ and so on, are the ones that depend on the Head. Another interesting feature about the Chinese nominal group is that a subordinating article, 的 (de), is commonly used to connect modifiers and the Head. In the example above, altogether three 的(de) are used to link the three modifiers β, γ, δ with the Head α. Therefore, logically speaking, 的 (de) can be interpreted as a hypotactic conjunction functioning within a simple nominal group to connect modifiers with the Head. However, it is also important to note that not all the hypotactic relations in a Chinese nominal group have to be marked by the use of 的 (de)，as it really depends on the experiential function of each modifying element in relation to the Thing. Discussions about this will continue in Chapter 4.

In terms of sequencing, the sequence of modifiers in a Chinese nominal group is always regressive, which means that the modifiers are sequenced from right to left, starting from the Head in an increasing order of expansion. This is a structural

difference between nominal groups of Chinese and English, as an English nominal group can also expand in a progressive sequence, where modifiers (typically Qualifiers) are sequenced from left to right starting from the Head. Being able to expand in both ways makes an English nominal group more flexible in structure, thus it is more capable of packing various types of experiential properties of the Thing into the group structure. In comparison, as all the modifiers come before the Head, a Chinese nominal group tends to have less flexible expansion potential than its English counterpart. Although if judged purely from a logical perspective, the univariate structure can expand again and again following the sequence of α →β→γ→δ…, awkwardness will increase accordingly as the expansion continues. See the example below, which is expanded from the previous one:

那个总是在你前面的让你着迷的高度融合统一的很亮的灰白色的线*

```
That highly amalgamated bright grey line which is always in
front of you and attracts you
```

那个	总是在你前面	的	让你着迷	的	高度融合统一	的	很亮	的	灰白色	的	线
that	always in front of you	de	attracts you	de	highly amalgamated	de	bright	de	grey	de	line
modifier 6	modifier 5	SUB	Modifier 4	SUB	modifier 3	SUB	modifier 2	SUB	modifier 1	SUB	Head
η	ζ		ε		δ		γ		β		α

With all the modifiers coming before the Head, a nominal group as such is very unnatural in Chinese, and a more congruent realisation in lexicogrammar will instead be one or two clauses.

1.2.2.2 Logico-semantic relations in a simple nominal group

In terms of logico-semantic relations, I will investigate the relationship between the nominal Head and its modifiers. Generally speaking, the logico-semantic relations between the two fall into two types: expansion and projection.

1.2.2.2.1 Expansion

Same as in a nominal group complex, three different types of expansion can be found in a simple nominal group, namely elaboration, extension and enhancement. Different

modifying elements within a nominal group may have different types of expansion to the Head. Examples in Table 3-4 illustrate how these items form different logico-semantic types with the Head in a nominal group – the items in bold belong to the relevant type of expansion as set out in the table:

	δ	γ	β		α
elaboration	一束 a bunch of	**美丽** **beautiful**	芬芳 aromatic	的 de	鲜花 flowers
			[[卖花]] selling flowers	的 de	工作 job
extension		我的 my	第一辆 first		汽车 car
enhancement			三十多年前 more than thirty years ago	的 de	事 event
			花园里 in the garden	的 de	百合花 lilies

Table 0-4: Examples of modifiers of different expansion types

In terms of elaboration, if a modifier elaborates the Head, there could be two possible subtypes of the elaboration: one is as an intensive attribute, and the other as an apposition. As in the first example shown in the table above, the modifiers of 美丽 (*beautiful*) and 芬芳*(aromatic)* elaborate the Head by presenting the attributes of the Thing 鲜花 (*flowers)*. In the second example of elaboration, the relation between the modifier 卖花 *(selling flowers)* and the Head 工作 *(job)* is appositive, as the latter simply refers to the former.

In terms of extension, there are no categories of additive, alternative or subtractive found in the case of simple nominal group. The only category is possession, which represents the relation of ownership and various kinds of association with the Head. As can be seen in the example above, the modifier 我的*(my)* represents a relation of ownership, whereas 第一辆 *(first)* represents an abstract association of both quantity and measure with the Thing 汽车 *(car).*

In terms of enhancement, the modifiers can form various kinds of circumstantial relations including time and location, as shown in Table 3-4. In fact, the relation of circumstantial enhancement is not limited to the spatio-temporal categories. The enhancement may also be realised through other types of relation such as manner, cause and conditions. In most cases, this is realised by an embedded clause which functions as a qualifier in the nominal group. In the following chapter when experiential resources are under focus, the logico-semantic relations between an embedded clause as a qualifier and the Head will be discussed.

1.2.2.2.2 Projection

Unlike in a nominal group complex, where expansion is the only type of logico-semantic relation, in a simple nominal group complex, projection is found as the other option. If the logico-semantic relationship between a nominal Head and its modifier is projecting, then one can be certain of two things: one is that the Head is realised by a noun which either represents a metaphorical, nominalised version of a mental or a verbal process, or by a noun representing the name of a phenomenon, a fact or a verbiage; and the other is that the modifier is realised by a rank-shifted embedded clause which represents the linguistic content of the Head noun. Examples:

(1) 科学家提出了<u>发展"绿蓝白"三色农业的构想</u>。

Scientists introduced <u>the concept of developing "green, blue and white" triple-colour agriculture.</u>

[[发展"绿蓝白"三色农业]] [[developing "green, blue and white" triple-colour agriculture]]	的 de	构想 concept
'β		α

(2) 她要我记住<u>她盼望我用功读书的话</u>。

She wants me to remember <u>her words that she hopes me to study hard.</u>

[[她盼望我用功读书]] [[she hopes me to study hard]]	的 de	话 words
'β		α

(3) 因为古人有<u>**"无过雷池一步"的话，**</u>后人就 以"雷池"表示不可超越的界限。

As the ancient Chinese had such <u>a saying "don't get yourself one step beyond leichi"</u>, afterwards people use "leichi" to refer to the unsurpassable limit.

[["无过雷池一步"]] [[don't get yourself one step beyond leichi]]	的 de	话 words
'β		α

(4) 孙中山先生看到周围的风景优美，地势也很开阔，就表示了<u>**身后要埋葬在这里的愿望**</u>。

After seeing the beautiful scenery and the broad and open view, Mr. Sun Yat-sen had expressed <u>his wish to be buried here when he died.</u>

[[身后要埋葬在这里]] [[be buried here when he dies]]	的 de	愿望 wish
'β		α

(5) 然而一百年后的今天，我们必须正视<u>**黑人还没有得到自由这一悲惨的事实**</u>。

However, today after a whole century, we have to face <u>the miserable fact that the black haven't been freed.</u>

[[黑人还没有得到自由]] [[The black haven't got freedom]]	这 this	一 one	悲惨 miserable	的 de	事实 fact
'ε	δ	γ	β		α

The Heads of the example (2) and (3), 话 (hua, words) are realised by nominalised verbal processes: in example (2), the Head projects an indirect locution, whereas in example (3) a direct locution being marked by punctuations. Note that mode of the quotation, whether direct or indirect, does not influence the hypotactic relation between the Head and the embedded clause. In example (1) and (4), the Heads构想 (*concept*) and 愿望 (*wish*) are nominalised mental processes: although both are proposals, 构想(*concept*) is an offered type, whereas 愿望(*wish*) is a commanding type. The Head in example (5), 事实 (*fact*), is different from all the other four in that it is neither a nominalised sensing nor a nominalised saying. Rather, this is simply a **fact noun** which projects, and the embedded clause represents the content of the projection. Based on the discussion up to now, I can summarize the type of Head nouns which have projecting potential in the tables below:

Types of Head nouns with projecting potential		Examples		
		locutions	ideas	
			desirative	cognitive
proposition	Statement	抗议 (remonstration) 公告(announcement) 论点 (argument) 话 (words) 谎言 (lie) 借口(excuse) 解释 (explanation) 结论 (conclusion) 感叹 (exclamation)		想法(idea) 假设 (supposition) 理念(thinking) 信念 (belief) 概念 (concept) 观点(view) 回想 (recollection) 回忆 (memory) 看法 (opinion) 感悟 (reflection) 感想 (reflection) 体会 (feeling)
	Question	疑问 (doubt) 问题 (question) 讨论 (discussion) 辩论 (debate)		
proposal	Offer	建议(suggestion) 暗示 (implication) 提示 (indication) 意见 (opinion) 劝告 (persuasion)	愿望(wish) 决心 (determination) 念头(intension) 理想 (ideal) 意愿 (inclination) 心愿 (wish) 心声 (aspiration)	
	command	要求 (requirement) 命令 (order)请求 (request) 告诫 (warning) 呼声 (demand) 呼吁 (request)		

Table 0-5: Types of Head nouns (locutions and ideas)

		fact nouns	
		simple fact	metafact
proposition	statement	事实 (fact) 事情 (matter) 情况 (circumstance) 事 (matter) 新闻 (news) 消息 (message) 现实 (reality)	经验 (experience) 教训 (lesson) 道理(principle) 原理 (principle) 现象 (phenomenon)
	question	谜 (mystery) 问题 (question)	
proposal			规定 (regulation) 规矩 (rule) 原则 (principle)

Table 0-6: Types of Head nouns (fact)

Table 3-5 sets out different types of Head nouns that have the potential to project locutions and ideas. As can be seen, some of the examples are simply the names of phenomena or verbiages which could construe a participant role in a mental or a verbal process, like 念头 (*intention*)，想法 (*idea*) as phenomenon in a mental process) and 话 (*words*), 呼声 (*demand*) as verbiage in a verbal process. Other examples in the table are the names of nominalised mental or verbal processes, in other words, the names of macrophenomena, such as 感悟 (*reflection*) and 劝告 (*persuasion*). It is also interesting to note that, as Chinese is a highly non-inflectional language, these names of nominalised processes bear the same lexical forms as the verbs that congruently construe these processes. Therefore, words such as 要求 (*requirement/require*) and 假设 (supposition/suppose) can be used as either nouns or verbs.

In general, the majority of the locution nouns are nominalisations of verbal processes, whereas the majority of the idea nouns are names of phenomena in mental processes. And further under the category of ideas, two types of sensing are sub-categorised: desirative and cognitive, both of which congruently have the ability to project. It is important to note that Chinese nouns also provide resources for naming another two types of sensing, namely emotion and perception (for the subtypes of sensing, see further Halliday & Matthiessen 1999, 2004), such as 悔恨 （*regret)* and 品味 （*taste*). However, nominalisations of these two types of mental process generally lack the projecting potential and the logico-semantic type between these Head nouns and their modifiers is typically expansion.

The Head nouns in Table 3-5 are also categorised in terms of the potential speech functions that they realise: as either propositions or proposals. For idea nouns, the desirative type falls into the category of proposal, and the cognitive type conflates with proposition. Examples:

Idea noun: desirative + proposal

她那种[[要求增强独立行动能力]]的强烈**愿望**，都使我们备受鼓舞。

Her strong **desire** [[to increase independence]] greatly encouraged us.

Idea noun: cognitive + proposition

[["男大当婚，女大当嫁"]]的传统**观念**依然存在。

The traditional **idea** that [[Men and women should get married when they grow up]] still exists.

In terms of nouns of locutions, categories of proposition and proposal can fall further into two subtypes: statement and question, and offer and command. The first sub-categorisation is based on the potential speech function of whether to give or request information; the second sub-categorisation is based on the speech function of whether to offer or command goods and services. Examples:

Locution noun: proposition: statement

[[公众对反腐满意度达7成]]的**结论**靠谱吗？

Is the **conclusion** [[that 70 percent of the public are satisfied with the anti-corruption campaign]] reliable?

Locution noun: proposition: question

写文章解决了[["写什么"]]的**问题**后，还要解决[["怎么写"]]的**问题**。

On writing, after solving the **problem** of [["what to write"]], one also needs to solve the **problem** of [["how to write"]].

Locution noun: proposal: offer

[[要求延期审理此案]]的**提议**未获得通过。

The **proposal** [[to adjourn the case]] was not approved.

Locution noun: proposal: command

红四团接到了"29日早晨夺下泸定桥"的**命令**。

The Red Regiment No.4 received the **command** that "The Luding Bridge must be conquered on the morning of 29th".

In terms of modality, the degree of obligation and inclination under 'proposal' type of Head nouns can be expressed in either or both of the following two ways: (i) by the use of the Head noun in which the sense of modality is part of the semantic meaning of the word itself, such as 建议(*suggestion*, low obligation), 要求(*request,* median obligation) and 命令(*command,* high obligation); (ii) by the use of modifiers, typically realised by adjectives, to intensify the degree of modality, e.g. 强烈要求 (*strong request,* high obligation), 强烈愿望(*strong desire,* high inclination).

Table 3-6 sets out the third type of Head nouns that can project, the fact nouns. They can be further categorised as either names of simple facts or of metafacts, which are the facts resulting from subjective judgement on the simple facts. Examples of the metafact nouns, such as 经验（*experience),* 教训 *(lesson)* and 道理 *(principle),* represent the results of complicated mental process of analysing, evaluation and summarizing based on some human experiences. Fact nouns can also be categorised in terms of the potential speech function that they may realise: either as a proposition or a proposal. All the simple fact nouns tend to realise propositions by stating a fact or presenting a question. There are also a small group of fact nouns which are inherently modulations. Examples:

[["离职人员不发放奖金"]]的**规定**是否有效？

Is the **regulation** effective that [["the staff leaving their job positions should not receive the bonus payments"]] ?

多年来我们一直秉承[["客户利益至上"]]的**原则**。

For many years we have been sticking to the **principle** that [["the interest of the clients must be put in the first place"]].

1.2.2.3 Complexity of a simple nominal group

The logical structure of a simple nominal group could be as complicated as that of a clause complex. In this section, the discussion of the complexity of the simple nominal group will be based on the following three situations: (a) the nominal groups with sub-modification, (b) the nominal groups where Head and Thing are not conflated, (c) the nominal groups being modified by embedded clauses.

1.2.2.3.1 Nominal groups with sub-modification

As being discussed, a nominal group can be interpreted as a univariate structure where a group of modifiers expanding[1] the Head. The complicated case lies in that this univariate structure may be repeated in multiple layers. For instance:

<u>浙江大学文化遗产研究中心开始筹建</u>。

<u>The Zhejiang University research centre</u> for cultural heritage starts to be established.

浙江	大学	文化	遗产	研究	中心
Zhejiang	university	cultural	heritage	research	centre
γ		β			α
γβ	γα	ββ		βα	
		βββ	ββα		

Within the logical structure of the nominal group above, sub-modification occurs where certain elements within the group do not modify the Head noun directly, but function to modify a subhead such as 文化遗产（*cultural heritage)* modifies 研究（*research*）in the example above. Such structural representations, which are often studied in constituency analysis in non-SFL research, reflect the logical complexity of a nominal group in construing the order of modification.

1.2.2.3.2 Nominal groups with Head and Thing not conflated

The example nominal groups that I have discussed so far share a common feature: the Head and Thing map into one lexical item. In other words, the noun that functions as the Head also represents the Thing. However, there is another type of nominal group in Chinese where the Head and Thing are not conflated. Look at this example:

你所了解的只是**<u>真实情况的一部分</u>**。

What you have known is only **<u>a part of the truth.</u>**

---

[1] Here the word "expanding" does not represent a logico-semantic type.

真实 true	情况 situation	的 de	一部分 one part
ββ	αβ		
β			α
	Thing		Head

In the example above, the Head and Thing are realised by two separate items: a **Facet** is selected to take the Head position, which represents a partitive relation to the Thing. It is also worth noting that the adjective modifier 真实 (true) does not modify the Head, but the Thing, which in turn expands the Head through another layer of modification. Compare：

这只是他名下资产的很小的一部分。

This is only a small part of the properties under his name.

他名下 under his name	资产 property	的 de	很小 very small	的 de	一部分 a part
Sub-Modifier βγ	Sub-Head αγ				
γ			β		α
	Thing				Head

In the example above, the rank-shifted prepositional phrase 他名下 (*under his name*), which comes before the Thing, functions as a sub-modifier modifying the sub-Head (i.e. the Thing), whereas 很小 (*very small*), which precedes the Head but follows the Thing, modifies the Head.

This seems to represent a general situation where a modifier only modifies the Thing when it comes before the Thing + Head structure. However, if a modifier is selected to come before the Head but after the Thing, it serves the Head directly. In fact, this 'special' structural feature is simply another example reflecting the regressive sequence of modification in a Chinese nominal group, and the complexity lies in that there are more than one layer of modification and all of the layers presents the same kind of regressive pattern within their local structures. This is the general logical feature of the nominal groups with sub-modifications. However, compared with those where Thing and Head are conflated, the nominal groups with separate

representations for Thing and Head tend to be more complicated. This is because that Thing, being the most basic experiential class in relation to which it is construed as a being, provides the biggest potential for modification compared with any other elements that could be selected in the same nominal group. This underlines the fact that all the other elements in the group, whether or not taking the Head position, can only construe the qualities that are not as basic as the Thing in its own right. Therefore, when Thing becomes a sub-Head in a regressive modification structure, all the modifiers preceding it serve for the Thing only, which in turn serves as a modifier to the Head.

I have assumed so far that a nominal group in Chinese always contains a Thing, whether conflated or dissociated with the Head. In fact, this does not reflect the complete picture. Very similar to English, in most cases there is a Head in a Chinese nominal group, but there may be no Thing. From a logical perspective, when a nominal group is considered as a structure which can be expanded repeatedly through modification of some primary class of things, there must be a Head in the structure to make modification possible. Sometimes, functional elements other than Thing may be selected as Head. Examples:

> **Measure as Head**:
> 我买了五条鱼，吃了两条，还有几条？
> I bought five fish, ate two MEA, how many MEA left?
> **Deictic as Head**:
> 你的在这儿，我的在那儿。
> Yours is here, and mine is there.

As illustrated in the examples above, in an elliptical nominal group where the Thing is missing, another element on the structure can function as Head. More detailed discussion about nominal ellipsis will be presented in Chapter 6.

1.2.2.3.3 Nominal groups modified by embedded clauses

I have had a brief discussion of the nominal group modified by embedded clauses in Section 3.2.2.2, where a logico-semantic relation of projection is investigated. In this section, I will explore the logical complexity of the embedded clauses functioning in the nominal groups: although only a pre-modifier in a nominal group, an embedded

clause may present a logical structure more complex than a ranking clause, as in the examples below:

Nominal group with an embedded clause simplex

月球登陆给我们提供了<u>一个[[研究它和我们星球遥远过去]]的好机会</u>。

The moon landing provides us with <u>a good opportunity [[to study the remote history of the moon and the earth]]</u>.

Nominal group with an embedded clause complex

本法所称合同是<u>[[平等主体的自然人、法人、其他组织之间设立、‖变更、‖终止民事权利义务关系]]的协议</u>。

A contract in this law refers to <u>an agreement [[establishing, ‖modifying ‖and terminating the civil rights and obligations between subjects of equal footing, that is, between natural persons, legal persons or other organisations]]</u>.

Nominal group with further embedding: simplex

对合同格式条款有两种以上解释的，应当作出<u>[[不利于[[提供格式条款]]一方]]的解释</u>。

Where there are two or more kinds of interpretation of the contract terms, **<u>an interpretation [[unfavourable to the party [[supplying the standard terms]]]]</u>** shall be preferred.

Nominal group with further embedding: complex

<u>[[外国合营者在履行[[法律和协议、合同规定]]的义务后‖分得]]的净利润</u>可按外汇管理条例汇往国外。

<u>The net profit [[that the foreign side in a joint venture receives ‖ after fulfilling its obligations [under laws and various agreements and contracts]]],</u> may be remitted abroad in accordance with the foreign exchange regulations.

The examples above illustrate the complexity of different types of nominal groups involving embedded clauses. As can be seen, the degree of complexity can be influenced by two logical structural features: the embedded clause complexity and the existence of further embedding. In the former case, the embedding is realised by a clause complex containing more than one clause. In the latter, there are more than one layer of embedding in the structure, which is actually a type of sub-modification realised in the form of further embedding. Both features may be selected simultaneously in an embedding structure, as a result of which the complexity will be greatly increased. It is interesting to note that nominal groups with complicated logical structures are often found in formal written texts such as legal documents.

1.3   The logical system: MODIFICATION

So far we have investigated the logical resources of the nominal group in Chinese in terms of group complexity, tactic relations, logico-semantic relations and the logical complexity of the simple nominal group. Based on the discussions above, I present a logical system of MODIFICATION in Figure 3-1:

Figure 0-1: The logical system of MODIFICATION for the nominal group

As shown in Figure 3-1, from a logical perspective, we can interpret a nominal group as an expansion of the nominal head. And this expansion is realised by repeated modification for the head. Taxis is not open for selection because the tactic relation between a head and its modifiers is always hypotactic. However, the logico-semantic relation between the head and its modifiers can be selected between expansion and projection. It has to be stressed that such modification can recur again and again to realise a theoretically endless regressive structure of a nominal group in Chinese.

1.4   Case study

In the previous sections, I have explored the logical resources of the nominal group in Chinese. It is important that the theoretical description can be applied to the practical text analysis. For this purpose, a case study will be presented in this section.

The nominal groups will be extracted from two texts, a written speech and a school regulation (see Appendix for the original texts). The context information for the texts is presented below (see Table 3-7):

	Text 1 不骂人，不打架 No brawls, no fights	Text 2 关于处置学生打架斗殴等事件的应急预案 Plan for dealing with school fights
Field	The socio-semiotic function of this text is recommending and the situation type is that of advice. The domain is concrete and concerned with advising audience not to brawl or fight with others at school.	The socio-semiotic function of this text is enabling and the situation type is that of regulation. The domain is concrete and concerned with what teachers must do in dealing with school fights.
Tenor	The institutional roles are a teacher to the primary school students; an adult to children (generally under 12). The speech was delivered on campus during school hours. The speaker acts as an adviser with authority, providing guidance to the young audience on what can be done and what cannot be done.	The institutional roles are the school administration committee to the primary school teachers; a policy-making authority to its staff members. The school administrative committee is in a position of power, which develops the regulation for the teachers to follow in dealing with incidents of school fights. Both the writer and the readers are adults.
Mode	The text is monologic, spoken and constitutive of its contextual situation.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation.

Table 0-7: Context of Text 1 and 2

Based on the contextual information, it is reasonable to assume that Text 1 is more accessible than Text 2 in terms of lexicogrammatical complexity. In such a context, it would be interesting to investigate how the use of nominal group will contribute to the achievement of the difference.

Altogether 73 nominal groups (including nominal group complex) are extracted from Text 1 and 51 from Text 2. Then they are analysed in terms of logical complexity – mainly four aspects are examined: group complexity, sub-modification, embedded clause, and times of modification. The results are listed in the table below

(see Table 3-8):

	Text 1 (number of instances)	Text 2 (number of instances)
Nominal Complex	6	5
Nominal Simplex — Sub-modification	0	5
Nominal Simplex — ⟩ 2 modifications	3	0
Nominal Simplex — Embedded clause — as a modifier	5	3
Nominal Simplex — Embedded clause — As a sub-modifier	0	4

Table 0-8: Logical complexity of Text 1 and 2

The table above shows that both texts use a number of nominal group complexes. The major differences are found in three aspects. Firstly, there is no sub-modification found in Text 1, the text for the primary school students. In comparison, there are 5 instances of sub-modification in Text 2, the text for the teachers. Secondly, in terms of the number of modifiers to the Head, Text 1 has three nominal groups with more than 2 modifiers, whereas all the nominal groups in Text 2 contain less than 3 modifiers. Thirdly, in terms of the use of embedded clause in a nominal group, the incidence is higher in Text 2 than Text 1. And it is also worth noting that more than half of these embedded clauses in Text 2 are functioning in a sub-modification structure. In contrast, in Text 1 none of the embedded clauses function as a sub-modifier.

The results in Table 3-8 provide three implications on the logical complexity of the nominal groups. First of all, the nominal complexity, that is, whether to develop a simplex or a complex of nominal group does not have significant impact on the complexity of the logical structure. In other words, from a logical perspective, a nominal group complex may not necessarily be more complex than a nominal group simplex. Second, similar to nominal complexity, the number of modification to the nominal Head also has limited impact on the logical complexity. Thirdly, sub-modification can greatly increase the logical complexity of a nominal group, making it less common in a simple text. And this complexity will be further enhanced when an embedded clause is used in the sub-modification. In other words, both sub-modification and embedded clause can be contributors to the high logical complexity of a nominal group.

1.5 Summary

In this chapter, the logical resources of Chinese nominal group are investigated in four aspects. On group complexity, both nominal group complex and simplex are discussed. On tactic relations, the relationship between each group within a complex, and the relationship between each modifier and the nominal Head within a simplex are examined. On logico-semantic relations, I have explored the relationship between each group within a nominal group complex, and between each modifier and the Head in a simplex. Based on the above discussion, the complexity of a simple nominal group is investigated in three cases: nominal groups with sub-modification, nominal groups with Head and Thing not conflated, and nominal groups modified by embedded clauses. The logical system of MODIFICATION is presented in Section 3.3, which summarizes all the potential logical choices to realise a nominal group. Finally, a case study is conducted to illustrate how different logical selections may contribute to the complexity of a nominal group, thus increase the complexity of a text in general.

Chapter 4

Experiential resources of Chinese nominal group

1.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I have explored one part of the ideational resources, the logical resources of the Chinese nominal group. In this chapter, I will continue to investigate the other part of the ideational resources, namely, the experiential resources of the Chinese nominal group. Compared with the logical description, which focuses on the relationship between each element within the group, an experiential account aims to look at how the nominal group provides resources to construe participant roles in a human experience.

The description in this chapter will be unfolded in a few steps. First, the experiential structure of the nominal group will be presented in Section 4.2, where each functional element on the structure will be introduced and given an overview. Then in Sectional 4.3, the most important system in this dimension, the System of THING TYPE, will be presented and discussed, which will be followed by an investigation of its subordinating systems in Section 4.4 to 4.7, covering classifiers, epithets, qualifiers and measure. Finally, a case study will be presented in Section 4.8, after the general discussion of the experiential resources, to illustrate how the description may be applied in text analysis.

1.2 Experiential structure of the Chinese nominal group

I have discussed in Chapter 3 that a nominal group can be viewed logically as a repeatable expansion of the nominal head through modification. This will no longer be the case when the same nominal group is viewed under an experiential lens. I can use an example to illustrate the experiential structure of a Chinese nominal group:

我买 wǒ mǎi I buy	的 de	这 zhe this	一 yī one	辆 liàng Measure	蓝色 lánsè blue	的 de	轿 jiào sedan	车 chē car
Qualifier	de	Deictic	Numerative	Measure	Epithet	de	Classifier	Thing
rank-Shifted clause	SUB	determiner	numeral	measure	adjective	SUB	noun	noun
This blue sedan that I bought								

Table 0-1: the experiential structure of a Chinese nominal group

As the example above shows, from an experiential perspective, a nominal group is no longer viewed as an expansion of the head, but a configuration of functional elements representing different aspects of the Thing, which construes participant roles in an experiential process.

If one compares the experiential structure of the Chinese nominal group with its English counterpart, it becomes obvious that the two share many common features. For example, in terms of realisation, both use the same lexical resources: Thing and Classifier being typically realised by nouns, Epithets by adjectives, and Qualifiers typically by rankshifted clauses or groups. However, there are also two significant differences between the two. One is a structural difference: all the functional elements in the experiential structure of the Chinese nominal group, including the Qualifier, come before the Thing; whereas in English, a Qualifier may come on the either side of the Thing in the structure. The other difference is that in Chinese Measure becomes compulsory when a non-possessive Deictic and/or a Numerative is selected; whereas in English there is no such an equivalent case and measure words are not recognised as a distinct functional category.

In the following two sub-sections, I will interpret the experiential structure from two perspectives: first, some general tendencies of the functional elements along the structure will be discussed in Section 4.2.1; and then an overview of the metafunctional potential of each element will be given in Section 4.2.2.

1.2.1 Experiential structure: some general tendencies

As shown by the example in Table 4-1, in a Chinese nominal group, there can be as many as 7 types of functional elements in the experiential structure: Thing, Classifier, Epithet, Measure, Numerative, Deictic, and Qualifier. Thing represents the primary class of experience. Selections can then move through subclassification and epithets. E.g., car, sedan car, blue sedan, a blue sedan, this blue sedan, and so on. As it moves on, the properties become more instantial in terms of the textual meaning. This is also a move in stability through time, from properties that are stable through time to properties that are more transient (see Figure 4-1).

Instantial (transient)						General (stable)
Qualifier	Deictic	Numerative	Measure	Epithet	Classifier	Thing

Figure 0-1: The experiential move of nominal group in time and space

The organisation of the functional elements of a Chinese NG also shows another move, the move from lexis to grammar: as the experiential structure of the nominal group develops, it tends to depend more on the grammatical organisation of the structure. This also indicates the level of integration of the each functional element with the Thing, and 的 (*de),* a hypotactic structural marker, is an important indicator on this move. In an unmarked structure of a NG in Chinese, *de* usually follows Qualifier and sometimes if the properties that an epithet represents are transient and loosely related to the Thing, a *de* may also be used between the Thing and the Epithet or even the Classifier. On the other hand, if the qualities being construed represent some subclasses of the Thing, the functional element construing these qualities is usually more integrated with the Thing and the structural organisation tends to be lexical (see Figure 4-2). For example, in Chinese the boundary between a compound noun and a nominal group sometimes can be ambiguous, as the former usually can be interpreted as the latter of a structure of Classifier + Thing. So 轿车 (sedan car) can either be interpreted as a nominal group of Classifier (sedan) + Thing (car), or a compound noun 轿 (sedan) + 车 (car). It is interesting to note that *de* cannot be used in a combination of Classifier + Thing.

Grammar						Lexis

loose	de			de		tight
Qualifier	Deictic	Numerative	Measure	Epithet	Classifier	Thing

Figure 0-2: The move from lexis to grammar

1.2.2 A metafunctional overview of the elements of the experiential structure

We have discussed some general tendencies of the experiential structure of the nominal group, both in terms of the instantiation potential and the lexicogrammatical organisational potential. Before I move on to investigate each functional element in detail, it is necessary to give an overview of each of them in terms of their metafunctional potentials. It is important to note that not all the functional elements on the experiential structure are experiential in character, but all of them are able to be expressed in experiential terms by means of this structure. The situation is very similar when Halliday and Matthiessen describe English nominal groups. As they have explained, it is a general principle of linguistic structure that it is the experiential meaning that most clearly defines constituents (see further in Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: 328). Therefore, in this thesis, I will follow the practice by presenting all the functional elements in experiential terms.

The experiential structure of the nominal group has presented a picture different from the logical one: instead of being a univariate structure as interpreted logically, an experiential structure is a highly multivariate one, with each element playing different roles.

The Thing represents the most basic experiential class that can be construed as a participant. Semantically speaking, Thing is the core of the nominal group. It is the Thing that gives the group its basic nominal features, such as referentiality, generality and modifiability, etc. With its central status in the nominal group, Thing is significant in all the metafunctional contributions that a nominal group can make. Experientially, it represents the basic experiential class; interpersonally, it enacts attitude and provides person resources as interactant or non-interactant; textually, it presents a discourse referent as identifiable or unidentifiable. The Thing is realised by a noun or a pronoun.

The Classifier represents the subclasses of the Thing and is typically realised by a noun. Therefore, experientially speaking, it is a very important resource in construing the specific classes of a thing. In terms of its textual potential, the Classifier becomes significant when the Thing is elliptical and the Classifier works with some other elements, typically a Deictic and a Measure, to identify a referent. As discussed in the previous section, the Classifier works so closely with the Thing that they are often difficult to be differentiated with compound nouns in Chinese.

The Epithet represents the properties of the Thing: these properties can be either non-attitudinal, such as age, colour, size, and so on, or attitudinal, such as the mental or emotional state of the Thing. The non-attitudinal properties are highly experiential, which reflect the material features of a thing, whereas the attitudinal ones are highly interpersonal, as they enact the speaker's attitude. Therefore, the Epithet is the important resource for making both experiential and interpersonal meanings, and it is typically realised by adjectives.

The Qualifier represents the qualifications of the Thing, which are highly instantial and transient in time and space. The Qualifier is significant in providing both experiential and textual resources. Experientially, the Qualifier helps to construe a participant by providing a specific and instantial experience in relation to the Thing. Textually, the Qualifier is important in managing the flow of information as the text unfolds. In terms of realisation, Qualifiers in Chinese, same as English, are rank-shifted grammatical units which function at the group rank, such as adverbial groups, prepositional phrases, embedded clauses and even nominal groups.

The Measure, similar to the Classifier, represents the subclasses of the Thing, which is typically realised by measure words. The major difference between the two lies in the motives behind these classifications. The Classifier helps to define the basic qualities of the Thing through classification, whereas the Measure uses classification to either identify or quantify the Thing (or both). Due to this difference, the qualities represented by the Classifier are generally more stable in time than the Measure. Functionally speaking, the Measure is important in terms of both experiential and textual functional potentials. It is also worth noting that the Measure, as a separate functional element in the Chinese nominal group, has no equivalent status in English, as the latter has rich grammar resources to distinguish the countable from the uncountable, and therefore makes the use of measure words optional.

The Numerative represents the quantitative property of the Thing. The nature of the qualities it represents has decided that it is not significant in its experiential functional potential. Rather, the Numerative is more concerned with instantial features of the Thing, and therefore has great textual functional potential. The Numerative can be realised by a numeral or an ordinal.

The Deictic represents the identifiability of the Thing being referred to. As this is concerned with the instantial features of the Thing, the Deictic is textual in character. In terms of realisation, the Deictic is realised by a determiner.

Table 4-2 below lists all the major metafunctional roles that a functional element plays based on the discussions above, and the table also presents the potential systems for which these elements provide metafunctional resources:

Metafunction	System	Functional element
Experiential	THING TYPE	Thing
	EPITHESIS	Epithet
	CLASSIFICATION	Classifier
	QUALIFICATION	Qualifier
	MEASURE	Measure
Interpersonal	ATTITUDE	Epithet, Thing
	NOMINAL MOOD	Thing
	PERSON	Thing, Deictic
Textual	DETERMINATION	Deictic, Thing
	NUMERATION	Numerative, Measure

Table 0-2: Functional elements across metafunctions

In the following sections, five functional elements with significant experiential functional potential (i.e., Thing, Classifier, Epithet, Qualifier and Measure), will be investigated and relevant systems will be presented.

1.3 Thing

This section focuses on the experiential resources of the Thing. I will first introduce Halliday and McDonald's TRANSITIVITY system of Chinese, based on which the System of THING TYPE will be presented in Section 4.3.1. The following sub-sections will then

be the detailed discussion of each major selection on the THING TYPE system (see Section 4.3.2 and Sectional 4.3.3).

1.3.1 System of THING TYPE

From an experiential perspective, a nominal group is significant in that it provides resources for construing participant, which is one of the central elements in modelling our experience of the world. When it comes to the interpretation of the lexicogrammatical system of THING TYPE, it is necessary to look at the potential of the Thing in construing participant roles from both the greater and the local environment: the semantic environment where participant functions as an element of a phenomenon, and the clause environment where the Thing construes different types of participant roles in lexicogrammar.

The examination of the semantic background of the Thing will be based on the work of Halliday and Matthiessen (1999), where they explore how different kinds of experiences are construed as meaning. At the level of semantics, the preliminary taxonomic cut is shown in Figure 4-3 (Halliday and Matthiessen 1999:182). It is important to note that, although Halliday and Matthiessen's work is based on their observation of English, this basic taxonomy at semantics also applies to Chinese.

Figure 0-3: The preliminary taxonomy of participants

The preliminary groups of participants in Figure 4-3 provides a general direction to the preliminary categories of the Thing type in lexicogrammar: **simple things** are congruently realised by the nominal in grammar, and **metaphorical things**, which are nominalised processes, qualities, are realised as the Thing through grammatical metaphor.

The examination of the lexicogrammatical environment will focus on the TRANSITIVITY system, where the nominal group provides resources to construe participant roles in a clause. There have been some descriptions of the system network of TRANSITIVITY in Chinese, such as McDonald (1998), Li (2003), and Halliday & McDonald (2004). The present study will adopt Halliday and McDonald's (2004) description as a basis to present the types of participant roles. Figure 4-4 shows a simplified system network of TRANSITIVITY with the presence of different types of participant (adapted from Halliday & McDonald 2004).

Figure 0-4: Participant roles in the Chinese TRANSITIVITY System

As shown in Figure 4-4, the overall picture of the Chinese process types is very similar to English (cf. Halliday & Matthiessen 2004). Processes are categorised as doing, sensing, saying and being, with the different participant roles for each category. When nominal group is viewed experientially as the major resource for construing participant roles, it is essential, in the development of the system of THING TYPE, to look at the general potential of the Thing in construing different participant roles in relation to each type of process.

Figure 4-5 presents a basic system of THING TYPE, which draws upon and reflects the semantic and lexicogrammatical environment where the Thing functions.

The system of THING TYPE in Figure 4-5 presents the selections in lexicogrammar to realise the functional potential of the Thing. Mainly five factors are taken into account in the development of the system: the metaphoric propensity of the noun, animacy, modifiability, generality, and measurability.

The metaphoric propensity is reflected at the most basic level of categorisation of the Thing: a nominal is construed either congruently as the simple Thing, or as metaphorically nominalised processes and qualities. In other words, the Things are first categorised in terms of their potential for construing processes and qualities as things through grammatical metaphor. This categorisation corresponds to the preliminary taxonomy of participants in semantics (cf. Figure 4-3), with simple things being congruently realised and metaphorical things being realised in grammatical metaphor.

Figure 0-5: System of THING TYPE

In terms of animacy, congruent things can be further categorised as conscious and non-conscious things. This distinction reflects the likelihood of any thing being construed experientially as a senser or a sayer in a mental or a verbal process (cf. Figure 4-4), as in reality only a conscious being can sense and/or say.

The modifiability of the thing can be considered as a cline: on the one end, there are things that can be easily modified in terms of their objective qualities (such as colour, shape, make, size, etc.) as well as subjective qualities (such as moral judgement, and so on); on the other end, there are things that can only be modified in the referential space through Measure, Deictic and so on, such as metaphorical things.

The generality of the thing is reflected on the system in a linear manner: from the most general class on the left to the most specific on the right. Using lexical resources, the system can be potentially developed further towards the right end as lexical taxonomy. So the system shown in Figure 4-4 is mainly a grammatical one, which can be developed further towards the lexical end. For instance, "human" can be further categorised in terms of gender, age, race and so on; "object" can be further categorised in terms of function, origin, mobility, and so on. With lexical resources, there are obviously many ways of grouping things into further categories. Halliday and Matthiessen (1999) have a very straightforward view of this:

> *...lexically construed folk and scientific taxonomies do not start at the highest degree of generality in delicacy; they are ordered in delicacy after those systems that are construed grammatically (p.86).*

Figure 4-6 shows the cline of generality as the system of THING TYPE develops. As can be seen, the move from the 'general' end to the 'delicate' end also represents the move from 'grammar' system to 'lexis' system. When reflected on the system of THING TYPE, it means that the general classes on the left hand side represent the grammatical categorisation, whereas the more specific classes on the right hand side represent the lexical taxonomic categorisation. However, it is important to stress that, in the present study, the detailed exploration of this system focuses on the left end, that is, the categorisation in terms of grammatical features.

Figure 0-6: Generality cline of the THING TYPE system

The measurability is another important principle reflected in the categorisation. In Chinese, things generally get assigned to a measure type in terms of various criteria and the measurable potential depends on the properties embodied by each thing type. For example, simple concrete things can be measured according to their elaborating and extending potentials, in such terms as size, shape, state, repository manner (i.e., how thy are packed into one), and so on. Nominalised processes, in comparison, can be measured according to their potential to be enhanced, in such terms as time, location, frequency and manner.

In the following sub-sections, I will go through the special grammatical features of each major category on the system of THING TYPE, with examples presented where appropriate.

1.3.2 Congruent things

Things are grouped as congruent in terms of their grammatical realisation. A congruent thing bears the inherent characteristics that people recognise as things, such as the stability in time and space, the tendency to be elaborated into sub-categories according to its qualities, and so on. In semantics, they represent what Halliday and Matthiessen term as "simple things" (Halliday and Matthiessen 1999). Congruent things are either conscious or non-conscious.

1.3.2.1 Conscious things

Conscious things are prototypically human, as in reality only human beings can sense and say through language. This feature is recognised as a category in grammar because it determines the roles of Senser and Sayer in mental and verbal processes. The other selection under this category is animal. Animals, higher animals in particular, are often treated as conscious beings which can construe physiological or psychological behaviours. However, animals cannot construe the role of Sayer in a verbal process unless they are personified. Human and animal are recognised as two distinct subcategories of 'conscious things' also because in lexicogrammar they are represented in different patterns. For example, to classify a conscious being in terms of gender in Chinese, one has to first make a selection between human and animal, as specific lexical items are used as classifiers to distinguish them (男 *male* or 女 *female* for human; 公/雄 *male [animal]/male [insect]* or 母/雌 *female [animal]/female [insect]* for non-human). Similarly, in the referential space, specific pronouns are used to refer to a human and a non-human (他/她 *he/she* for human; 它 *it* for non-human). It is interesting to note that, in terms of reference, human are distinguished from animals more strictly in Chinese than in English, as higher animals are often referred to as he/she in the latter, which is less common in Chinese.

The selections under 'human' and 'animal' can be further developed in lexical taxonomy. There are mainly two points worth noting on the potential of further distinctions under these two subcategories. Firstly, the domain of 'human' presents more potential for further distinctions than the domain of 'animal'. This is because 'human' takes on both natural and social roles, which gives human much more abundant qualities to define and distinguish himself in language. In contrast, an animal does not take any social roles, which limits its potential for further distinctions. For example, apart from age, gender and

some other general physiological features, human beings can also be further distinguished by profession (such as 医生 *doctor*, 小偷 *thief*, 士兵 *soldier*, etc.), moral judgement (such as 好人 *good man*, 坏蛋 *bastard*, 分子 *member of a particular group*), and so on. These distinctions by social functions are recognizable in lexicogrammar as they provide distinct potentials for elaboration. Table 4-3 presents the examples of different measure words used to modify different 'humans' in terms of their professions. Secondly, compared with English, the lexical resources to be used for further distinction of conscious beings in Chinese is rather limited. It is typical in Chinese to use a general noun to refer to a conscious being and rely heavily on the grammatical resources to further distinguish it. This is especially significant in presenting an animal. For example, English has separate lexical items to distinguish dogs in terms of gender, age, breeding, and so on (such as bitch, puppy, and poodle). In contrast, the equivalent distinctions are realised in Chinese by different classifiers modifying the general name of dog 狗. In fact, this difference has been found as applicable to the general picture of construing things (Halliday and Matthiessen 1999):

> *Likewise lexically, at least in construing participants, it is typical for Chinese*
> *to use a general term where the more specific one, even if relevant, is rendered*
> *unnecessary by the context (p.300).*

		医生 (doctor)	士兵 (soldier)	小偷 (thief)	学生 (student)
		Human			
		Profession (examples)			
Measure	singular	个 (neutral)，位 (honorific)	个	个	个
	plural	群 (*group,* neutral)	群(*group,* neutral)，列 (*line,* neutral)，队 (*team,* neutral)，组 (*group,* neutral)	群(*group,* neutral)，伙(*group,* negative)，窝 (*den,*negative)，帮 (*gang,* negative)	群 (*group,* neutral)，班 (*class,* neutral)，队(*team,* neutral)，组 (*group,* neutral)

Table 0-3: Further distinction of 'human' in configuration with Measure

1.3.2.2   Non-conscious things

Non-conscious things include all the other congruent things that are neither human nor animal. It is important to emphasize that this is a category under "congruent things". Although "metaphorical things" are also non-conscious in nature, they are recognised as a distinct category in terms of different lexicogrammatical realisations. In contrast, the non-conscious things under this lexicogrammatical category are naturally (i.e., congruently) realised as nominals.

Non-conscious things are further categorised into two groups: simple things, and complex things. The latter refers to an entity embodying either an expansion or a projection, whereas the former includes all the other non-conscious things. They are recognised as two distinct categories because the distinction brings different grammatical potentials. For example, with a thing of elaboration or extension, a nominal group can develop into a structure where Head and Thing are not conflated (see the discussion in Section 3.2.2.3.2). With a thing of enhancement, the nominal group is likely to be modified by a down-ranked embedded clause, but unlikely to be modified by an epithet. In comparison, the general modification potential by an epithet is much higher in the case of nominal groups with simple things.

1.3.2.2.1   Simple things

Simple things are categorised as either concrete or abstract. This categorisation is reflected by the modifiability of the thing in terms of classifier, epithet, measure and deictic. Table 4-4 lists the general modifying potential of each sub-category of the simple thing based on the observation of the corpus. In the following paragraphs, I will discuss the major grammatical characteristics of each sub-category based on the values listed in Table 4-4.

		Measure		Classifier	Epithet		1.3.3 Deictic		
		个/种 item/type	other		objective	subjective	Post-deictic	possessive	demonstrative
concrete	object	H	H	H	H	L	H	H	H
	substance	L	H	H	H	L	H	L	H
	institution	H	H	H	L	L	H	H	H
abstract	semiotic	L	H	H	L	H	H	H	H
	discipline	L	L	H	L	L	L	L	L
	phenomenon	H	H	H	M	H	H	L	H

H: high potential; M: medium potential: L: low potential;

Table 0-4: Simple things and modification potential

Concrete: object

A nominal group with an object thing has the best modification potential, compared with any other type of things. The thing can be measured according to various criteria in terms of quantity/type (个/种), shape, size, state, repository manner and so on, which reflect the semantic features embodied by an object thing: 一双鞋 *a pair of shoes*，一本书 *a volume of book*，一张桌子 *a spread of desk*，一捆柴 *a bundle of firewood*. Things of this type also have good potential to be modified by an epithet, representing objective properties of the thing, as in: 一本新书 *a volume of new book*，一张旧书桌 *a spread of old desk*，一束美丽的鲜花 *a bunch of beautiful flowers*. It is important to point out that, although object things tend to bear objective quality in nature, sometimes these objective qualities may be used to enact attitude and therefore become significant in terms of interpersonal meanings. Examples: 一瓶廉价香水 *a bottle of cheap perfume*，一双臭袜子 *a pair of stinky socks*. Here the epithets being used to modify the object things to represent their objective qualities: in terms of price and in terms of smell. However, both could be in effect very judgemental because these objective qualities have been generally considered as unflavoured. Therefore, it is important to explore the motif of using these epithets: are they to represent the qualities of a thing or to enact an attitude, or both? 一双臭袜子 *a pair of stinky socks* in Chinese may not necessarily be stinky in reality, as the Chinese speakers could use such nominal group to express a negative judgement about the person wearing these socks. More discussion on the metaphorical use of objective epithet will be presented in Chapter 5. In terms of classification, an object thing can be classified in various terms, such as make, function, time, and so on: 木桌 *wood desk*，课桌 *class desk*，现代家具 *modern furniture,* 古典家具 *classic furniture*. In the referential space, an object thing can be modified by either type of deictic: 我的书桌 *my desk* (personal), 这张报纸 *this newspaper* (demonstrative). In general, a nominal group with an object thing has a very good potential to be modified in various terms to present its experiential aspects.

Concrete: substance

The substance represents the material matter that a simple thing consists. It is recognised as a category on the system of THING TYPE because this type of things shows a different modification potential from an object thing. For measure, a thing of substance

cannot be measured in terms of quantity (个, *item*), as a substance can hardly be individuated. They are similar to the set of things being realised by nouns recognised as mass in English grammar. However, things of substance type in Chinese can be measured in many other terms: time 一阵风 *a period of wind*, shape 一朵云 *a flower of cloud*, repository 一盆水 *a bowl of water*, which reflects the rich experiential potential of the substance things. Same as the object things, a substance thing usually can be modified by an epithet representing its object quality: 一阵冷风 *a period of cold wind*, 一朵白云 *a flower of white cloud*, 一盆脏水 *a bowl of dirty water*. In classification, a substance thing can be classified in terms of various scientific disciplines: 化学气体 *chemical gas*, 地下水 *underground water*. In the referential space, a nominal group with a substance thing cannot be modified by a personal deictic, but can be generally referred with the use of a demonstrative. On the whole, the modification potential of a substance is not as good as an object.

Concrete: institution

Things of institution type are recognised as a category because, unlike other simple things, institution things can project in a mental or a verbal process, where they are construed as a collection of conscious members who can think and say collectively. For examples:

> 该医院表示已暂停心脏病外科手术，正在查找原因。(institution thing construed as 'sayer' in a verbal process)
>
> The hospital said that all the cardiological surgeries had been suspended and they were carrying out an investigation into the cause.
>
> 多数学校认为"早恋"不光彩。(institution thing construed as 'senser' in a mental process)
>
> Many schools believe that "puppy love" is disgraceful.

The institution thing can be measured in terms of quantity as it is often considered as a unit. When construed as such a unit, it is often modified by an epithet representing an objective quality of the institution, such as size, outlook, and so on. In comparison, when construed as a collection of human beings, it can be modified by a subjective epithet to enact attitude, and interestingly many of such subjective qualities represent aspects of human participants. Examples:

> 记者卧底黑心医院曝光医疗器械利益链。

A journalist worked undercover in <u>a black-hearted hospital</u> to uncover the chain of interests in the medical equipment.

南海实验小学是当地小有名气的<u>贵族学校</u>。

Nanhai Experiment Primary School is an <u>elite school</u> with some local fame.

In terms of classification and deictic, institution things have a good potential to be modified in various terms.

Abstract

Abstract things have no material extension in space, but share the general lexicogrammatical features with the concrete things, as both are simple things: they both are congruently realised by nouns. Abstract things can be further categorised into semiotics, discipline, and names of event.

Abstract: semiotics

In semantics, semiotic things refer to the signs and symbols used to create meanings and construe experiences. In lexicogrammar, they are recognised as either simple semiotic things which cannot be modified by an embedded projection, or complex semiotic things which can. A simple semiotic thing typically functions as token in an identifying relational clause, which is easy to understand since semiotics in nature are used to identify meanings and content. For example:

<u>这首古诗</u>向我们展示了一幅鲜活的牧童晚归休憩图。

<u>This ancient poem</u> depicts a vivid picture of a shepherd boy coming home late.

<u>这支舞蹈</u>展现的是一群壮族姑娘在茶山上采茶、劳作的情景，表达丰收的喜悦。

<u>This dance</u> presents the scene of a group of Zhuang girls picking tea leaves on the mountain, which aims to express people's joy of harvest.

Sometimes a simple semiotic thing is personified as a conscious participant to construe a verbal process which often projects. Examples:

<u>这篇文章</u>指出，议论文写作有常见的三大问题。

<u>This article</u> points out that there are three common problems encountered in argumentative essay writing.

<u>诊断书</u>说，他膝关节有少量积水。

<u>The diagnosis record</u> says that there is a small amount of hydrops in his knee joint.

A simple semiotic thing can be measured in terms of quantity as well as other aspects. The nature of semiotic things has determined their unseparatable relations with human beings, as mainly human beings create and use semiotics to construe experience. Therefore, the epithets modifying a semiotic thing can represent both objective and subjective qualities: 一首长诗 *a long poem* (objective), 一部无聊的电影 *a boring movie* (subjective). In terms of classification and deictic, a simple semiotic thing has a good potential to be modified. Examples:

> 他为大家带来了<u>一首忧伤的情歌</u>。
>
> He brought <u>a sad love song </u>to us.
>
> <u>这部长篇历史小说</u>将在两岸同步发行。
>
> <u>This long historical novel</u> will be released at the same time on both sides of the Strait.

Abstract: discipline

Names of disciplines are recognised as a separate category because this type of things has the least modification potential compared with all the other simple things. Representing a general name of a range of learning or instruction, names of disciplines can hardly be modified in terms of Measure or Epithet. However, it can still be classified in terms of the sub-systematic features within the discipline: 高等数学 *higher mathematics*, 现代经济学 *modern economics*, 古代历史 *ancient history*. In the referential space, names of disciplines cannot be identified as a specific referent, as they often are referred to as something in general. Therefore, names of disciplines cannot be modified by a deictic either.

Abstract: phenomenon

A phenomenon thing represents a figure that is congruently realised by nouns. This figure may be prototypically configurational, containing participants, process and/or circumstance, but is construed as a thing in grammar. They are different from metaphorical things mainly because they are congruently realised by nouns and share the basic features with other simple things in terms of grammatical potential. In terms of measure, nouns of this category have good potential to be measured in terms of circumstantial features, such as location and frequency. Examples:

几十年前，广东沿海发生了<u>一次海啸</u>。

A few decades ago, <u>a (one occurrence of)</u> <u>tsunami</u> took place along the coast of Canton.

二战是人类有史以来参战国最多，涉及地区最广，人员财产损失最巨大的 <u>一</u> <u>场战争</u>。

The WWII is <u>a (a field of) war</u> where most countries took part and most regions got involved and which caused the most devastating loss of lives and properties.

<u>汶川地震</u>，是一场灾难，更是一次考验。

<u>The Wenchuan Earthquake</u> is both a disaster and a test.

The collocation of circumstantial measure words with event nouns reflects the experiential nature of this type of things, as semantically they are evolved from processes and figures.

Phenomenon things also show a good modification potential in terms of epithesis, classification and deictic. In general, they are highly modifiable compared with the other sub-types of abstract things.

1.3.3.1.1 Complex things

Complex things represent features of either expansion or projection. It is important to note that these features are not construed through the relationship between a head noun and its modifiers. Rather, these features are embodied in the thing itself: being realised by either a noun of expansion or projection (cf. Section 3.2.2.2). Complex things are considered as a distinct category mainly because they have modification potentials that distinguish them from simple things. For example, things of projection generally can be modified by an embedded clause, whereas things of extension can be modified by a nominal group complex. In the following paragraphs, I will discuss each subcategory in detail.

Expansion: elaboration

Elaboration nouns being found in Chinese nominal groups generally fall into two types: nouns that are meant to be exemplified, such as 例子 *example*，比方 *example*; or nouns that represent the name of general quality of a kind.

An elaboration noun of example is special in that it often signals a relationship of elaboration either between itself and its modifiers, or between a clause which contains it and a clause that comes before and/or after it in the discourse. Examples:

可是在这种工房里面，[[生病躺着休养]]的例子是不能任你开的。

But in a workers house as such, <u>an example of [[resting in bed due to illness]]</u> cannot be set easily.

|||过雪山的时候有过不少这样的<u>例子</u>，||战士用惊人的毅力支持着自己的生命，||但是一倒下去||就再也起不来了。|||

|||In climbing over the snowy mountains, there were many such <u>examples</u>: ||the soldiers tried to survive with extraordinary determinations, ||but could never get up again ||once they fell. |||

In the first example, 例子 *example* is modified by a rankshifted clause (being underlined), which elaborates the meaning of the head in its context by giving a specific example. In the second example, the last three clauses (as indicated by clause boundaries) elaborates 例子 *example* by giving a general example of the kind. Nouns of exemplification can be modified by an adjective functioning as either a post-deictic or an epithet to express the speaker's comment on the thing in general, such as 一个真实的例子 *a real example*；一个简单的比方 *a simple example*；活生生的例子 *a living example*; 打一个特殊的比方 *to give a special example*；etc.

Names of quality kind are the other type of elaboration nouns. They represent the general quality of a kind, which is so general that it is treated as an entity. In semantics, qualities characterize things along various parameters (cf. Halliday & Matthiessen 1999). Correspondingly, they are congruently realised by adjectives to modify nouns in lexicogrammar. However, when different parameters of a quality need to be identified as a whole, nominal groups provide resources to name the quality. Things being represented by this type of names are highly abstract because they represent a general quality apart from any specific instance. In this perspective, things of this type are very close to metaphorical things. However, the two are different in terms of congruency in lexicogrammatical realisation: the former is recognised as a thing and therefore congruently realised by nouns, whereas the latter as quality and the congruent form would be adjectives.

Nouns of quality name can be further categorised as 'human-only' and 'other'. The former subcategory refers to the general quality things relevant to human beings only. It is distinguished from 'other' quality things because it is more likely to be modified by subjective epithets. Also, all human-related quality things can be modified by personal determiners. Examples:

他们的职业令人羡慕。(personal deictic + de + thing)

Their occupations are enviable.

所谓高贵的血统其实是最蒙人的。(post-deictic + subjective epithet + de + thing)

The so-called noble lineage is in fact most deceptive.

"Other" represents the more general and material category of this type of things. In terms of modification, they are mainly different from human-only quality things in that the potential for them to be modified by a subjective epithet is much limited. Rather, they are often modified by an objective epithet: 飞快的速度 *fast speed*, 鲜艳的颜色 *bright colours*, 昂贵的价格 *high prices*. But both sub-types of nouns have a good potential to be sub-classified, as they inherently are at the most general end of classification.

In the referential space, both types of quality names can be modified by Deictics, either possessive and/or demonstrative. When being modified by a thing which bears these qualities, these quality kinds are highly elaborative and often come in a structure where Thing and Head are not conflated. Examples:

布料的颜色、品质及价格有很大差别。
The colour, the quality and price of **the clothes** vary widely.
受访者的年龄、婚姻状况、性别和经济收入都纳入调查范围。
The age, the marital status, gender and income of the **interviewees** are all covered in the survey.

Expansion: extension

Nouns of extension generally can be categorised into three types in Chinese: being construed as parts of a thing, such as 部分 *part*，成份 ingredient，方面 *aspect*, or as a state of being in a logical relation of an extension between one thing and another, such as 集合 *collection*, 关系 *relation*, 对比 *comparison*, or as a position relative to Thing. Strictly speaking, nouns of extension do not represent a general thing type as those being discussed above; rather, they represent an extension of things. In grammar of nominal groups, this is reflected by a logical structure where Thing and Head are not conflated with an extension noun as the Head and another type of noun representing Thing (see Section 3.2.2.3.2.). Examples:

你所了解的只是**真实情况的一部分**。

What you have known is only **a part of the truth**.

真实	情况	的	一部分
true	situation	de	one part
	Thing		Head

但是复杂一些的组合，比如多项并列成分的组合、多项修饰语与中心语的组合，有时可能会出现语序不合理的毛病。

However, some complicated combinations, such as the combination of multiple coordinate parts, or the combination between multiple modifiers and the head word, may cause inappropriate word orders.

多项修饰语	与	中心语	的	组合
multiple modifiers	and	the head word	de	combination
Thing 1	Conj	Thing 2	de	Head

When an extension noun construes a part of a thing, sometimes the structural analysis of the nominal group can be ambiguous, which relies heavily on the context. Examples:

1. 一些品牌果汁饮料<u>果汁</u>成分少得可怜。

Fruit drinks of some brands contain very little <u>fruit</u> ingredients.

果汁	成分
fruit	ingredients
Thing/Classifier	Head

2. 随着婴儿的一天天长大，<u>所需的营养</u>成分也日益增多。

As a baby grows, <u>the nutritional ingredients needed</u> also increase.

所需	营养	成分
that is needed	nutritional	ingredients
Qualifier	Classifier	Thing/Head

所需	营养	成分
that is needed	nutrition	ingredients
Qualifier	Thing/Classifier	Head

3. 粮油果蔬中除含有<u>对人体有益的营养</u>成分外，还含有对人体无益并有害的嫌忌成分。

Except <u>the nutritional ingredients that are good to human bodies</u>, food, oil, fruits
and vegetables also contain some unfavourable ingredients that do harm to bodies.

对人体有益	的	营养	成分
good to human bodies	de	nutritional	ingredients
Qualifier	de	Classifier	Thing/Head

As the examples above show, sometimes it is difficult to decide if Thing and Head
are conflated on the structure when a noun of extension realises the Head. Usually
additional contextual information is needed to help with the analysis.

When an extension noun represents a position relative to Thing, it is construed as a
facet. Similar to English (cf. Matthiessen 1995; Halliday and Matthiessen 2004), facet in
Chinese is typically realised by nouns, which function as Head in analogous constructions
of nominal groups. Therefore, many facet nouns can be regarded as extension of things and
thus fall into this category. Halliday and McDonald name these facet words as "post-
nouns" or "localizer" indicating relative position (see Halliday and McDonald 2004: 316).
Their examples are presented below:

桌子	上
table	on
noun	post-noun
Thing	Head

桌子	的	上面
table	de	topside
noun	de	post-noun
Thing		Head

Compared with their English counterpart, nouns of extension in Chinese are limited
both in terms of types and quantity. In English, many nouns used as measure words can be
regarded as an extension of things and therefore fall into this category on the THING
TYPE system, as they can be "transparent" to extend the Thing: "a cup of strong tea" can
be said as "a strong cup of tea" (see further in Matthiessen 1995: 676). However, measure
words in Chinese are more of a separate grammatical category, which are not used to
realise Thing and are not as transparent as in English: 一杯浓茶 *a cup of strong tea* cannot
be transferred to 一浓杯茶 *a strong cup of tea**; similarly, 一大杯茶 *a large cup of tea*

cannot be transferred to 一杯大茶 *a cup of large tea**, as Thing and Measure each play their own distinct roles in the structure.

Expansion: enhancement

Nouns of enhancement generally construe circumstantial things of time, place, cause, and manner. They are recognised as a category because enhancement nouns tend to be modified by a rank-shifted embedded clause. Examples:

他一直追到虞渊，也就是[[太阳落下去]]的地方。

He had been chasing all the way to Yuyuan, the place where [[the sun sets]].

这种[[反常情感产生]]的原因只能归结为食物的 缺乏，雏鹰的父母在自己食物匮乏情况下，尽量减少家庭成员数量。

The reason for [[having this abnormal emotion]] can only be attributed to the lack of food, as the parents of eyas try to reduce the number of family members when they don't have enough food.

Nominal groups with an enhancement noun as Head sometimes can function as circumstance in a clause, which is different from English where only prepositional phrases and adverbial groups can realise circumstance in a clause:

[[湖水最深]]的地方立了三个石塔作为深水记号。

湖水最深	的	地方	立了	三个石塔	作为深水记号
it is deepest in the lake	de	place	stood	three stone towers	as marks of deep water

(In) the deepest **place** in the lake stand three stone towers to mark the deep water.

[[我昨天给你打电话]]的时候看见他匆匆忙忙的出了门。

我昨天给你打电话	的	时候	看见	他匆匆忙忙出了门。
I yesterday called you	de	time	saw	he went out in a hurry.

I saw him go out in a hurry (at) the time when I called you yesterday.

It is worth noting that when a nominal group construes a circumstance in a clause, the circumstantial thing is either about time or location. In terms of all the other

subcategories of this thing type, such as cause or manner, the nominal group only functions within a prepositional phrase or an adverbial group (as in所有这些哲学都<u>以这种或那种方式</u>与政治思想联系着 *All these philosophies associate with political ideologies <u>in either this or that way</u>*).

There is an ambiguous case related to this type of Thing, which is about the boundary between an enhancement noun of location and an extension noun of relative position. In the local grammatical environment within a nominal group, the difference between the two does not seem to be a question, as an extension noun Head structurally does not conflate with Thing, whereas an enhancement noun does. However, from a logico-semantic perspective, a nominal group with a facet noun construing a relative position may also be treated as an enhancement of location, and can function as a circumstance in a clause:

屋顶的**上面**种着花。

Flowers are planted on the roof top.

屋顶	的	上面	种着	花。
roof	de	top	plant	flowers
Thing	de	Head		
Circumstance: location: place			process	participant

I have completed my discussion about different subcategories of Things of Expansion, and Table 4-5 summarises all the major types within each subcategory as well as examples.

			Examples
Expansion	Elaboration	Example	例子 example，比方 example
		Quality name	年龄 age，质量 quality，速度 speed，价格 price
	Extension	Part	部分 part，方面 aspect
		Logical relation	集合collection，关系 relation，对比contrast，排比 parallelism, 对等 parity
		Relative position	上面 side above，下面side below，东部east side，西边 west side
	Enhancement	Time	时间 *time*，时机chance/timing，时刻 *moment*
		Place	地方place，地点 location
		Cause/Result	原因 reason，起因 cause，结果 result，后果 consequence
		manner	方式 way/manner，方法 method/means/way

Table 0-5: Things of Expansion

In general, nouns of elaboration, elaboration of kind in particular, have very good potential to be modified by classifiers. In fact, these nouns of quality kind represent the most general names of classifications, which gives them a great potential to be elaborated in terms of subclassification. In comparison, nouns of enhancement are less likely to be classified, but more likely to be qualified in terms of when, where, why and how. Nouns representing facet can construe either an elaboration or an extension.

Projection

Nouns of projection represent names of locutions, ideas and facts. In the experiential structure of a clause, things of this category often construes a participant in a mental or verbal process, being the phenomenon or the verbiage correspondingly. Examples:

|||孙中山先生看到||周围的风景优美，||地势也很开阔，||就表示了**身后要埋葬在这里的愿望**。||| (as phenomenon in a mental clause)

After seeing the beautiful scenery and the broad and open view, Mr. Sun Yat-sen had expressed **his wish to be buried here when he died**.

|||你可以先说**出自己的意见**，||然后把是非交付公论。||| (as verbiage in a verbal clauce)

You can express **your own opinion** first, and leave it for public discussion.

They are recognised as a category because when a noun of projection realises a thing,

it tends to be qualified by a rankshifted embedded clause construing the content of the projection. As detailed discussions about different types of nouns of projection, as well as their potentials to be modified by an embedded clause, have been presented in Chapter 3 (see Section 3.2.2.2.2), therefore they won't be repeated here. In this section, the discussion will mainly focus on the modification of projection nouns by experiential elements other than Qualifiers.

Nouns of projection can be modified by a measure word, but the measurability is quite limited compared with nouns realising simple things. 个 (itemized quantity) and 种 （kind）are the commonly used measure words to modify this category, as many names of locutions, ideas and facts can be counted either through elaboration (种 kind) or extension 个(itemized quantity). They can hardly be measured by other terms due to their inherent experiential feature of being related to our inner experience.

Projection nouns are often modified by possessive deictic, which is typically realised by possessive pronouns referring to a person, which is easy to understand as only human can generate ideas and locutions in reality. Examples:

> **老舍先生的意见**表现了他对人的理解，对一个人生活习惯的尊重，同时也表现了对白石老人真正的关怀。
>
> **Mr. Laoshe's opinion** reflects his understanding of others, his respect of one's life habits, which also shows his genuine consideration to Senior Baishi.

> 他也将从"狮子舞"、"划龙船"、"放风筝"这三种民族形式的民间娱乐， 来描写**祖国人民的**生活、**理想和要求**。
>
> Through three forms of folk entertainment, the "lion dancing", the "dragon boat", and "flying kites", he will describe **people's** lives, **dreams and demands in his homeland.**

Nouns of projection are often modified by a subjective Epithet and/or a post-Deictic to express the speaker's attitude, such as 真实想法 *real thoughts*，愚蠢的主意 *stupid ideas*，崇高的理想 *lofty ideals*, 伟大的口号 *grand slogan*. Again, this is associated with the close connection between projection things and human's inner experience, as what one thinks and says are generally subject to others' assessment.

It is important to point out that, although they have high propensity to project, the projection noun in a nominal group does not necessarily project – it is just that it has the grammatical ability to project through modification.

Till now I have finished the discussion of 'congruent thing" by exploring the categories and sub-categories of this major type of thing. Despite their differences in terms of modification potential (when viewed from around) as well as grammatical contributions to the clause (when viewed from above along the rank-scale), all the sub-types of congruent thing share one basic grammatical feature: they represent things that are congruently realised by nouns when viewed from below. Semantically, this means that things of this category inherently are construed as being experientially ordinary 'simple things' in semantics (see further in Halliday and Matthiessen 1999).

1.3.4 Metaphorical thing

A metaphorical thing is a nominalisation of either a process or a quality, which would have been congruently realised by a verbal group or an adjectival verb, rather than a noun. It is termed as "metaphorical" because the process of nominalisation is in fact a grammatical metaphor (see further in Halliday and Matthiessen 1999). Compared with Congruent things, Metaphorical things have much less modification potential than Congruent things in terms of expansion, as they are less stable in time (when realised as a nominalised process) and experientially less complex (when realised as nominalised quality). However, there is no such a clear-cut boundary line between 'metaphorical' and 'congruent': very often it is simply a matter of tendency when Thing type is discussed. I would like to quote Halliday and Matthiessen's (1999) point in viewing the two:

> *...we have to acknowledge that the metaphorical relationship is not a symmetrical one: there is a definite directionality to it, such that one end of the continuum is metaphorical and the other is what we shall call congruent. Thus given the pair, we shall locate the two respects to each other on a metaphor scale...(p.221).*

Based on the point above, which is supported by semohistorical evidence (cf. Halliday & Martin, 1993; Halliday, 2003), it is possible to interpret any type of Thing as metaphorical, and the congruent thing simply represents the least metaphorical type on the metaphor scale (see Figure 4-7):

```
congruent                                              metaphorical
thing                                                  thing
        ←────────────────────────────────────────────→
least metaphorical                              most metaphorical
```

Metaphorical scale

Figure 0-7: Thing type on the Metaphorical scale

In the following discussion, I will investigate those nominalised processes which are presented as things, and their common collocations with other experiential elements within a nominal group. Discussion of nominalised quality will also be included in this part, as metaphorical quality things can be interpreted as the result of the nominalisation of an attributive relational process.

In general, nominalised processes fall into four categories on the system of THING TYPE: they are nominalised material process, nominalised mental process, nominalised verbal process and nominalised relational process − the distinction corresponds to the four process types at the level of clause. Among them, one subcategory of nominalised relational process, attributive relational process, provides resources to construe quality as Thing.

Before the detailed discussion begins, it is important to distinguish a metaphorical thing resulting from a nominalised process from an act clause (see Section 1.3.4.1). In fact, they share something in common in terms of lexicogrammar: both are nominalisations of process and both can take on participant roles. The major difference lies in that they represent two different kinds of grammatical realisation of nominalisation. When a process is nominalised, the speaker can choose to realise it as a thing, which is the concern of the current section, or to realise it as an act clause (see Section 1.3.4.1). In terms of realisation, the former is a nominal group with a metaphorical noun as Head, whereas the latter is a rankshifted embedded clause without Head. It is also common to see an act clause functioning as Qualifier in a nominal group. Examples below illustrate the different grammatical environments for an act clause and a nominalised process as Thing:

Act clause as participant:
[[选择学校]]比[[选择专业]]更重要。

[[Selecting a school]] is more important than [[selecting a profession]].

Act clause as Qualifier in a nominal group:

在**[[选择专业]]**的问题上，家长们应该尊重孩子的意愿。

On the matter of **[[selecting a profession]]**, parents should respect their children's wish.

Nominalised process as Thing in a nominal group:

应该根据自己的实际情况来做出专业的**选择**。

One should make a profession **choice** based on his actual situation.

1.3.4.1 Material process construed as a thing

When a material process is construed as Thing, the nominal group can be expanded by various modifiers which correspond to the functional roles in a material clause. Examples:

Congruent clause structure	Actor + Circumstance (manner) + process	Example: 火山突然爆发了。 The volcano suddenly erupted.
Metaphorical nominal group structure	Deictic + Epithet + Thing	Example: **火山的突然爆发**吓呆了所有人。 The volcano's sudden eruption shocked everyone.

Congruent clause structure	Process + goal	Example: 他养殖水产。
Metaphorical nominal group structure	Deictic + Thing	Example: **水产的养殖**需要科学的指引。

As the above two examples show, when a material process is nominalised, the

participant roles in the congruent structure can function as Deictic in the nominal group, and this transformation may happen to either Actor or Goal.

Apart from participant, circumstance in a clause may also be transformed to a modifier when the nominalisation happens. Examples:

Congruent clause structure	Circumstance (manner: quality) + process	Example: 他们热情的款待了我们。 They treated us with hospitality.
Metaphorical nominal group structure	Epithet + Thing	Example: 他们给予了我们**热情的款待**。 They gave us a hospitable treatment.

Congruent clause structure	Actor + Circumstance (location: place) + process + Circumstance (extent: frequency)	Example: 我们在异乡遭遇了许多。 We experienced a lot of things in the foreign place.
Metaphorical nominal group structure	Deictic +Qualifier + Epithet + Thing	Example: 我们在异乡的很多遭遇都无法诉说。 Many of our experiences in the foreign place cannot be told.

Congruent clause structure	Process + Circumstance (extent: duration)	Example: 我们等了很长时间，‖ 车终于来了。 We were waiting for a long time, ‖ and the bus finally came.
Metaphorical nominal group structure	Epithet + Thing	Example: 在**漫长的等待**之后，车终于来了。 After **a long waiting**, the bus finally came.

As the above examples illustrate, the circumstance elements can be transformed into different types of modifiers when the process is nominalised: the 'extent' and 'manner' types of circumstance tend to become Epithet in the corresponding nominal groups, whereas the 'location' type of time and place tends to become Qualifier.

1.3.4.2 Nominalised mental and verbal processes as Thing

When a mental or a verbal process is nominalised, a mental process noun or a verbal process noun function as Thing in the agnate nominal group. Before the detailed examination of this type of nouns, it is necessary to identify the boundary between a mental/verbal process noun and a noun of projection (see Section 4.3.1.1.2), as the two represent separate categories in the system of THING TYPE. The main difference still lies in the degree of congruency: a projection noun is more congruent and a verbal/mental process noun is more metaphorical. Due to this difference, a projection noun has greater modification potential than a mental/verbal process noun. The other difference between the two is that, unlike a projection noun, which has the potential to project, a mental/verbal process noun may not be able to project, as it represents a wider category where being able to project is only a subcategorical feature. For example, among the four subtypes of mental clauses in Chinese (see further in Halliday and McDonald 2004), affective mental process rarely projects. As a result, when this subtype of mental process is nominalised as Thing, it can hardly be modified by a rankshifted projection clause.

Despite the above-mentioned differences, the boundary line between these two types of nouns is in fact rather blurry, with a number of marginal cases falling in between. This is mainly because, when we judge the projection nouns from a semogenetic point of view, they are all metaphorical in nature – they are all derived from nominalised mental and verbal processes, and semantically they still represent process. It is just that they are now generally being treated as Thing in grammar, and the congruent lexical realisation of them are by nouns, rather than verbs. In comparison, a mental/verbal process noun represents a nominalisation that is not yet common enough to become a congruent form of nouns - the categorical shift from verb to noun is still instantial, and the more congruent realisation is still by verb instead of noun. However, as said before, there are always ambiguous cases which lie somewhere in between: words such as 回答(*answer*), 保证(*promise*), 渴望 (*desire*) may be treated as either type, as the congruency of these words may well be argued in different contexts.

In the following paragraphs, I will discuss mental and verbal process nouns separately.

Mental process nouns

Mental process nouns can be further categorised into cognitive, affective, desirative and perceptive nouns, corresponding to the four subcategories of mental processes at the clause level. When construed as Thing, these nouns have limited modification potential due to their metaphorical nature. In terms of classification, they can hardly be modified by a classifier. However, many of these nouns can still be modified by Qualifier, Epithet, and Measure. Table 4-6 presents the types of mental process nouns and their modifiability in terms of the above three aspects:

		Measure		Epithet		Qualifier	
		个/种 item/type	other	objective	subjective	expanding	projecting
Mental process nouns	Cognitive	H 一个猜测 a guess；一种理解 an understanding	L	L	H 片面的理解 one-sided understanding 主观臆断subjective assumption	H 完全不同的理解the understanding which is completely different	M 关于"他就是凶手"的猜测 the speculation that he is the killer
	Affective	L	H 一丝烦恼 a trace of misery 一腔热情 a vessel of passion	H 强烈的愤怒 strong anger 淡淡的忧伤 slight sadness	L	H 挥之不去的烦恼 the worry that is haunting me	L
	Desirative	H 一个决定 a decision 一种愿望 a wish	L	H 强烈的欲望 strong desire 极度的渴望 desperate craving	L	H 爱的欲望 crave for love 婚姻里的欲望 desires in marriage	H 被溺爱的渴望 the crave for being indulged 早日成才的愿望 the wish to become successful one day
	perceptive	L	L	H 强烈的感觉 strong feeling	L	H 沿途的见闻 the sights and hearings* (what one sees and hears) in the journey	L

H : high potential ; M : medium potential ; L : low potential

Table 0-6: Mental process nouns and modification potential

As Table 4-6 shows, cognitive and perceptive mental process nouns can be modified by projecting Qualifier, whereas affective and perceptive nouns cannot, which corresponds to the situation at the clause level. And mental process nouns show a very low level of measurability, which is also due to its semantic feature of being a process rather than a thing.

In terms of Epithet, most of the mental process nouns can be modified by adjectives representing manner (degree), which corresponds to the circumstance of degree in the agnate mental clause structure. For example,

Agnate mental clause structure	circumstance (manner: degree) + process	Example: 这近半个月来所发生的事，使他**非常困惑**。(cognitive) What happened in the past half a month has **deeply confused** him. 我们**非常喜爱**蒲公英（affective）We **love** dandelion **very much**. 这画难免让人想起作画者**极度的渴望**生活。（desirative） The painting easily reminds people that the artist desperately wanted his own life.
Metaphorical nominal group structure	Epithet (degree) + Thing	Example: 这近半个月来所发生的事，使他陷入了**极大的困惑**之中。(cognitive) What happened in the past half a month has put him in **deep confusion**. 蒲公英得到了人们**深深的喜爱**。(affective) The dandelion has won **much love** from people. 这画难免让人想起作画者对生活的**极度渴望**。(desirative) The painting easily reminds people of the artist's **desperate craving** for his own life.

In terms of Deicticity, all the four types of mental process nouns can be modified by a possessive pronoun functioning as Deictic, and this possessive pronoun typically represent a conscious being, which reflects the nature of the Senser in the agnate mental clause. Examples:

	nominal group (possessive Deictic + Thing)	agnate mental clause (senser + process)
perceptive	鸟的叫声，引起了**有心人的注意**。 The bird's song attracted the attention from someone.	**有心人注意**到了鸟的叫声。 **Someone noticed** the song of the bird.
cognitive	感谢领导的信任。 I thank my supervisor for **his trust**.	**领导信任**我，我很感谢。 **My supervisor trusts** me, for which I am thankful.
desirative	你以为创造了一个用新的方式操琴的演奏家，可是**你的打算**完全落空了。 You thought you have brought about a performer who plays the instrument in a new way, but **your intention** came to nothing.	**你打算**创造一个用新的方式操琴的演奏家，可是却落了空。 **You intended** to bring about a performer who plays the instrument in a new way, but this came to nothing.
emotive	**他的烦恼**又有谁知道呢？ Who would know about **his worries**?	又有谁知道**他**为什么**烦恼**呢？ Who would know what **he worries about?**

Verbal process nouns

Verbal process nouns, in general, have the similar modification potential to mental process nouns: some of the verbal process nouns can be modified by a qualifier functioning as projection, which reflects the ambiguous boundary between verbal process nouns and projection nouns of locution, similar to the situation of mental process nouns and projection nouns of idea. Apart from the verbal process nouns which can project, there is another subtype, which represents targeted verbal activities, and can hardly project. Table 4-7 presents some examples of verbal process nouns being categorised in terms of their propensity to project.

	Examples of verbal process nouns
projectable	号召 call，感叹 exclamation，解释 explanation，保证 promise，要求 requirement，回应 response，回答 answer，指示 instruction，威胁 threat，质问 query, 预告 prediction，抱怨 complaint
non-projectable	批评 criticism，表扬 compliment，解说 comment，讲话 talks，发言 talk，提问 raising questions，辱骂 verbal abuse，指责 blame，谴责 denouncing，演讲speaking，争执 argument，讨论 discussion, 问答 question and answer，辩论 debate，反对objection，责怪 blame，埋怨 whinge

Table 0-7: Examples of verbal process nouns and their projectability

In terms of Epithet, verbal process nouns are typically modified by an adjective representing manner (quality), which corresponds to the circumstance of manner (quality) in

the agnate verbal clause structure. Examples:

Agnate verbal clause structure	circumstance (manner: quality) + process	Example: 他把想法告诉了教练，可是教练却没有**明确回答**他。He told his coach what he thought, but the coach didn't **reply** him **clearly**. 家长们**严厉的批评**了我们的行为。Parents **severely criticised** us for our behaviour.
Metaphorical nominal group structure	Epithet (quality) + Thing	Example: 他把想法告诉了教练，却没有得到**明确的回答**。He told his coach what he thought, but didn't get **a clear reply**. 我们的行为遭到了家长们的**严厉批评**。Our behaviour received **severe criticism** from the parents.

In terms of Deicticity, a verbal process noun is typically modified by a possessive pronoun functioning as Deictic, which corresponds to the sayer in the agnate verbal clause.

nominal group (possessive Deictic + Thing)	agnate verbal clause (sayer + process)
我们不能盲目地接受过去认为的真理，也不能等待**"学术权威"的指示**。 We cannot blindly accept what we used to believe, neither can we wait for **the "academic authority"'s instructions.**	**"学术权威"指示**我们接受所谓的真理。 **The "academic authority" instruct** us to accept the so-called truth.
我的回应和我的证据已经在前几篇文章里说的很清楚。 **My response** and my evidence have been clearly presented in the previous articles.	**我**已经在前几篇文章里**回应**得很清楚。 I have clearly **responded** in my previous articles.
对于**媒体的质疑**，我无话可说。 Facing the questioning from the media, I have nothing to say.	**媒体质疑**我的表现，我无话可说。 The media questioned my behaviour, about which I have nothing to say.
面对**不明真相者的辱骂**，他选择了沉默。 Facing **the verbal abuse** from the people who know nothing about the truth, he chose to remain silent.	**不明真相者辱骂**他，他却选择了沉默。 The people who know nothing about the truth **verbally abused him**, but he chose to remain silent.

1.3.4.3 Nominalised relational process

Compared with the other three types of process discussed above, the nominalisation of a relational process is more complicated. On the system of TRANSITIVITY in Chinese, the relational process type can be further divided into three subtypes: existential, identifying and attributive (Halliday and McDonald 2004). When nominalisation occurs to a relational clause, the three subtypes go through different transformations: existential and identifying process can be transformed into a limited number of metaphorical Things, representing the existence of a participant and the abstract relationship of identity, whereas attributive process is nominalised with the attribute being construed as Thing. In the following discussion, I will first investigate the nominalisation of the first two subcategories, existential and identifying processes, and then examine the attributive process separately.

In Chinese, the examples of nominalisation of existential and identifying relational processes are quite limited, which is due to the same limited number of verbal groups in Chinese being available to construe such a process at the clause level.

In the case of existential process, there is mainly one verb being typically used to construe the existence: 有 *there is/are*. However, 有 *there is/are* cannot be nominalised. The only case of nominalisation of an existential relational clause being found in the present author's corpus is the nominalisation of the verb 存在 *existence*, which presents the existence of things as a being. Example:

> 如何证明*神的存在*?
> How to prove the existence of God?
> 金属检出机就能检测到*金属的存在。*
> A metal detector is able to detect the existence of a metal.

As the above examples illustrate, through nominalisation, the existential relation is construed as Thing, and the existent becomes a Deictic realised by a possessive determiner. Sometimes, this metaphorical thing can be modified by Epithet, which corresponds to circumstance in an agnate existential clause:

> 这些问题*的严重存在*，直接影响今后 "2131工程"的实施。
> The serious existence of these problems will directly impact the implementation of the "2131 Project" in the future.
> 校车*的大面积存在*恰恰证明，小孩子在这里的"就近入学"首先是不科学的。

The wide existence of school buses has just proven that it is not sensible for kids to "go to a nearly school" in this place.

In the case of an identifying relational clause, the general sense of the Value-Token relation, which is typically realised by verb 是, can hardly be nominalised. However, some other sub-types of this category, such as the relations of 'symbolization', 'equivalence', 'demonstration' and 'constitution', can be construed as Thing, which are often found in some prestigious registers, such as political and academic discourses. Examples:

1. 这繁茂的"季荷"，不正是绵绵生命的象征吗? (symbolisation)

Isn't this luxuriant "seasonal lotus" a symbol of continuous life?

2. 再次，"同等条件"还应包括其他交易*条件的等同*。（equivalence）

Once again, an "equal condition" should also involve the equivalence of other trading conditions.

3. 他的面相完全没有特征，完全属于普通的俄罗斯人，因此，我们得把他称为普通人，而且此刻会产生这么一种感 觉，即天才没有任何特殊的长相，而是一般人的总体现。(demonstration)

There are completely no characters in his facial appearance, as he is just an ordinary Russian. So we have to call him an ordinary person, and then we will come up with such a feeling, that is, that a genius does not have an extraordinary look, rather he is a general representation of ordinary people.

4. 了解*新一届中共政治局委员的构成*有什么意义？(constitution)

What is the point of interpreting the constitution the newly elected CPPCC?

It is interesting to note that, when a Value-Token relation is construed as Thing, it is often the Value that remains in the nominal group to modify the relation. Sometimes, it is also possible to interpret the Value as Thing, and the nominalised relation as Facet which elaborates Thing:

绵绵生命	的	象征
Continuous life	de	symbol
Value		Identifying relation (symbolization)
modifier	de	Head
Thing		Facet

I have discussed the nominalisation of the first two subtypes of relational process, existential and identifying relational process, where the process is construed as a metaphorical Thing through nominalisation. Next, I will investigate the third subtype, attributive relational process, the transformation of which is very different from the other two subtypes when nominalisation occurs.

The attributive relational processes can be divided into four further subtypes: circumstantial, possessive, categorising and ascriptive (see further in Halliday and McDonald 2004). The first three subtypes of attributive processes are typically realised by verbs of 在 (*is/are,* circumstantial), 有(*have/has,* possessive) and 是(*is/are,* categorising) respectively, all of which can hardly be nominalised. The present discussion will focus on the fourth type, the ascriptive attributive relational process, which provides resources to construe quality things.

Unlike the other three types of attributive processes where the process is construed by a verb and the two participants stand to each other as Carrier and Attribute, an ascriptive attributive process is conflated with Attribute and is realised by an adjective, which is a subclass of verb, and therefore is also termed as 'adjectival verb'. Example:

> 这本书*很有趣*。
>
> This book (is) very interesting.
>
> 空气*很潮湿*。
>
> The air (is) *very humid.*
>
> 经过精心挑选和编排的轻音乐，格调*高雅*。
>
> The style of the carefully selected and arranged music (sounds) *very elegant*.

As these examples illustrate, in an ascriptive clause, the attribute and process are fused into one lexical item, an adjectival verb, and therefore quality functions as Process (see further in Halliday and McDonald 2004). This is different from English, where adjectives are generally considered as a subclass of noun, and therefore as nominals, and the corresponding relational process is still realised by a verb.

When nominalisation happens to an ascriptive attributive relational process, the quality, which is congruently construed as Process, becomes Thing. In Section 4.3.1.1.2, I have discussed 'names of quality', which is a subtype of elaboration thing. It is important to distinguish the metaphorical quality thing from thing of quality kind. In general, there are two major differences between the two types of Thing. The first difference is again in the degree of congruence. 'Names of quality' is more congruent than metaphorical 'quality thing', as the former is typically realised by nouns whereas the latter by nominalised adjectives. Secondly, as 'names of quality' represents the general name of a quality kind, it has great potential to be modified through elaboration. In comparison, 'quality thing' has very limited modification potential, as it represents a highly specific quality. Below are some examples of 'Names of quality' being modified by adjectives, and the more specific qualities being construed as Thing through nominalisation of these adjectives:

Names of quality	Quality thing
美丽的外表 *beautiful appearance*	人们感叹大自然的美丽。 People are touched by the <u>beauty</u> of the nature.
优雅的举止 *elegan*t manner	在一个 宽松的社会里，人们可以收获到优雅 In a comfortable society, people can be endowed with *elegance*.
无耻的人格 a *shameless* personality	人格上的无耻导致学术上的堕落。 The <u>shamelessness</u> in personality leads to the fall in academic values.

Figure 4-8 illustrates the relationship between Names of quality realised by nouns and specific quality realised by adjectives on the cline of generality. As 'Names of quality' stands at the general end, it has great potential to be further elaborated; and 'Quality thing' stands at the specific end, which determines its limited modification potential.

Figure 0-8: Names of quality and Quality on the cline of generality

Despite the limited modification potential through elaboration, nominalised attributes can be extended by possessive deictic, which corresponds to the agnated clause structure of "Carrier + Attribute). Examples:

Agnate attributive relational clause structure	<u>Carrier</u> + Attribute/Process	Example: <u>大自然</u>既**美丽**又**神奇**。 The nature is both beautiful and mysterious. <u>他</u>**勇敢诚实**，让对手肃然起敬。He is **brave and honest**, for which his opponent respects him.
Metaphorical nominal group structure	<u>Deictic</u> + **Thing**	Example: 人们感叹<u>大自然</u>的**美丽与神奇**。People are touched by the **beauty and the mystery** of the mother nature. <u>他</u>的**勇敢诚实**让对手肃然起敬。**His bravery and honesty** wins respect from his opponent.

Sometimes, nominalised attributes can be modified by adjectives functioning as Post-Deictic, which identify the attribute in terms of authenticity, commonality, or similarity. Examples:

每个人都有自己最*独特的美*，最独特的自己，才是*最真实的美*。

Everyone has got his own unique beauty, for the most unique self represents the most real beauty.

他总是用*同样的诚恳和热情*对待每一个来访者。

He always accepts every visitor with the same sincerity and passion.

1.3.4.4 Chinese idioms

Apart from adjectives which can be nominalised to construe Quality thing, there is also a very special category in Chinese, *chengyu* 成语 (Chinese idioms), which provides resources in construing metaphorical Quality thing.

Chinese idioms are a type of traditional idiomatic expressions in Chinese which are typically realised by four characters. Most of the idioms were originally derived from a story or a myth in ancient Chinese literature, or from a historical event and reflect the essence or the moral of the stories and events. Semantically it is possible to view them as a highly condensed event or quality, so condensed that it is represented by only four characters[1]. Idioms are very flexible in use with a potential to play different roles on a grammatical structure. Compare the following examples:

as a subject:
他的自以为是让人看了就生气。

His self-righteousness is very annoying.

as a predictor
他很自以为是。

He is self-righteous.

as a premodifier in a nominal group
他的脸上一副 [[自以为是]]的表情。

On his face is an expression of [[being self-righteous]].

An idiom like 自以为是 *being self-righteous* may function in the same way as a nominalised act clause (see example 3). However, a nominalised act expressed by an idiom

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[1] There is a small number of idioms which consist of more than 4 characters, and they bear the same linguistic features as the 4-character idioms.

may not necessarily mean the act – it often has a deeper meaning, a connotation which carries the moral of the original act or event. It is because of this connotation that a Chinese idiom can often be descriptive with adjectival features.

In her investigation on the grammatical functions of Chinese idioms, Yang finds that Chinese idioms are predominantly verbal and adjectival, with a small number of them adverbial and nominal (Yang, 2005) . Here are some examples:

verbal idiom

他的一席话让我茅塞顿开 (the blocking thatch suddenly being removed)。

His words <u>enlightened</u> me all of a sudden.

adjectival

这消息<u>千真万确</u> (thousand truth and ten thousand correctness)。

The news is <u>a 100% true</u>.

adverbial

听到叫他名，他<u>大步流星</u> (*with big stride)* 的迈过去。

Hearing his name called, he came up <u>with vigorous strides</u>.

nominal

花虽然多，但是没有<u>奇花异草</u> (strange flowers and rare herbs)。

Although there are lots of flowers, one cannot find <u>an exotic and rare one</u>.

Although the grammatical versatility of idioms makes most of them being able to function as a nominal group in a clause, not all of them can be recognised as nominal groups. Strictly speaking, only nominal idioms, which have a nominal head in its structure, can be considered as a special type of nominal groups. Below are some examples of nominal idioms that have a nominal head:

残花败柳   *withered flowers and faded willows,* referring to women who lost their chastity

阴谋诡计 schemes and intrigues

肺腑之言 *words out of lung and stomach,* referring to words from the bottom of heart.

Many nominal idioms have a coordinated structure with two heads and these two head nouns are from the same taxonomic category to create a rhetorical effect of being symmetrical. Another interesting feature shared by all types of idioms is that they can hardly be further modified. In the case of nominal idioms, this means that they cannot be further qualified, classified or given another epithet. A possible reason for this is that idioms, as discussed before, can be viewed as highly condensed event or quality. A nominal idiom is

usually a compact form of "quality + head", thus no further modifications are needed since the potential qualities a modifier can give to the head is already an integral part of the meaning of that idiom. Experientially speaking, these nominal idioms provide resources in construing congruent things, as congruently they are nominal in nature.

In comparison, there are some other types of idioms, which construe nominalised fact or quality, but cannot be considered as nominal groups – the main reason is that they do not have a nominal head and are not nominal in nature. However, thanks to the grammatical versatility and the adjectival features carried by these Chinese idioms, non-nominal idioms become an important source in construing metaphorical things. The situation corresponds to the nominalisation of process and quality: the verbal idioms can be used to construe a nominalised process, and adjectival idioms to construe a nominalised quality. Compared with their lexical counterparts, these idioms are playing the same role in the nominalisation, and they are only different in terms of lexical realisation. Some examples of idioms construing a process or a quality thing are presented here:

他的<u>自以为是</u>最终害了他自己。(Quality as thing)

<u>His self-righteousness</u> finally got himself punished.

他的<u>急流勇退</u>是明智的。（Process as thing）

His retirement at the height of his career was very wise.

In this section, I have discussed the nominalisation of the four major process types in Chinese, material, mental, verbal and relational processes, which provides resources in construing metaphorical Thing. Based on the investigation, it is clear that nominalisation is the powerful grammatical device that makes these transformations possible. As a highly non-reflexive language, Chinese nominalisation happens less explicitly than English where the transformation is directly reflected through the change of lexical form. However, despite this difference, the nominalisation in both languages is driven by the incongruent realisation of an element in a clause, viewed through grammatical lens.

Till now I have completed the discussion of each major categories and subcategories on the system of THING TYPE. In the following sections, I will move onto the other functional elements on the experiential structure of a nominal group, which represent different experiential aspects of the Thing. The discussion will mainly focus on four elements which

play significant experiential roles in construing a participant: Classifier, Epithet, Qualifier and Measure.

1.4   Classifier

The experiential complexity of things provides great potential for it to be further specified through classification, which is particularly true in the case of Congruent Things as they can be highly elaborated in terms of taxonomy.

Classifiers are structurally the closest element to the Thing in the experiential structure and semantically it represents the most basic features that people may use to classify a type of things. In the case of Chinese nominal groups, the subordinating particle *de* can be used as an effective marker to indicate the difference between Classifier and the other modifying elements in relation to the Thing: *de* typically exists between the other functional elements and the Thing but not between Classifier and the Thing. Sometimes, the Classifier and the Thing are so closely bound that they develop into a new compound noun. In Chinese, A typical example of this type of lexical expansion usually results from the wide use of abbreviations of Classifier + Thing. For example,

川菜: Sichuan cuisine; 国企: state-owned enterprise; 快件: express mail

1.4.1 Classifiability and Thing Type

Things are not always classified, and the thing type plays an important role in deciding the potential for classification. Figure 4-9 illustrates the relationship between classifiability and different thing types.

Figure 0-9: Classifiability and Thing Type

As the figure 4-9 illustrates, the more congruent a thing is, the more potential it has to be classified, and due to this tendency, metaphorical things can hardly be classified. In fact, this tendency is a further elaboration of the relationship between congruency and modifiability of the thing in general, as classification itself can be interpreted as a kind of modification from a logical perspective.

In the following subsection, I will present the system of CLASSIFICATION, which mainly reflects the selections of classifiers to modify conscious beings and simple things.

1.4.2 System of CLASSIFICATION

Figure 4-10 presents the system of CLASSIFICATION. In general, this system reflects three concerns: 1. the type of things being classified; 2. the semantic quality being represented to classify a thing; 3. the logicosemantic relations between the thing and its classifier. In the following paragraphs, discussions will focus on each major selection on the system.

Figure 0-10: System of CLASSIFICATION

First of all, it is important to stress again that this system is relevant to congruent things only, conscious beings and simple things in particular, as metaphorical things can hardly be classified. And in the case of congruent things, the complexity of the Thing type plays an important role in making a selection on the system. For example, most simple things can be classified in terms of both ascriptive features and non-ascriptive achieved features, whereas complex things tend to be classified in terms of situational features only.

Secondly, I will discuss the two major selections in terms of "quality": ascriptive and achieved qualities. This categorisation reflects the semantic nature of classifiers: they are thing-like qualities semantically (see further in Halliday and Matthiessen 1999). **Ascriptive** qualities represent those simple and specific characteristics that are assigned to a thing, such as colour, shape, size, age, and so on. It is clear that conscious beings, as well as concrete objects and substances, have great potential to be classified in terms of their ascriptive qualities. Examples: 棉袜 *cotton socks*，木椅 *wooden chair*，方桌 *square table*，红细胞 *red cell*. However, less concrete things, such as semiotics and complex things, cannot be classified along these values, as they represent more complex experiences which cannot be specified by a quality of a single dimension as such. Rather, these abstract and complex things tend to be classified in terms of **achieved** features, which are qualities that derive from context (both sociocultural and situational) and represent experientially more complex values that can be defined only in a specific context, such as social class and status (特级教师 a special-grade teacher，重点中学 *key school*, 已婚妇女 *married women*), domain (外科医生 *surgical doctor*，古典音乐 *classic music*), function (出口商品 *export commodity*，比赛项目 *competing events*) and so on. It is important to note that achieved features can be used to classify all types of things, unlike ascriptive features, which are only used to classify conscious beings and concrete things. This again reflects the relationship between congruency of Thing type and modifiability of the Thing.

The categorisation between 'achieved' and 'ascriptive' is based on the stability of the qualities being construed through time and space. To put it in a simple way, ascriptive features represent qualities on the stable end, whereas achieved features represent qualities on the transient end, which is less stable in time and space. Another concern being reflected by this categorisation is about the objectivity of the quality being represented by these classifiers: achieved classification is often subject to personal interpretation based on the context, whereas ascriptive classifiers represent a more objective classification (see Figure 4-11). In

the referential space, ascriptive classifiers helps to build a natural identity of the thing, whereas achieved classifiers contribute to the social identity of the thing.

stable ⟵————————————————————⟶ transient

ascriptive   achieved

objective ⟵————————————————————⟶ subjective

Figure 0-11: Ascriptive and achieved classifiers

Both ascriptive and achieved classifiers can be further categorised along various dimensions. The subcategorisation is full of taxonomic features, which forms a cline from acquired to achieved as the elaboration moves further. Figure 4-12 illustrates the cline with an example of cloth taxonomy.

Under the category of "achieved", the classifiers can be further classed into "standardised" and "activity based". Standardised classifiers are used in identifying things sharing some similar qualities and formally recognised as an established discipline or category. Classifiers of this kind often modify things of institution, discipline, semiotics and human of a specific profession. Examples: 古代历史 *ancient history*，古典音乐 *classic music*，重点中学 *key school*，甲等医院 *A-level hospitals*，本科院校 *undergraduate institutions*，电影学院 *film academies*，陆军士兵 *army soldiers*，外科医生 *surgical doctor*. The other subcategory under "achieved", namely "activity-based", refer to those classifiers that are used to classify things based on the activities they are involved. This type of classification are less stable compared with the other types, and are not well established as standards in recognizing a discipline or a profession. The activities that these classifiers represent are not instantial activities. Rather, they are those activities where the thing being modified will typically involve as participant. Examples: 原装机 *machines made in the original country*，组装机 *machines assembled in another place*，失业人口 *unemployed population*，已婚人口 *married population*，批发商 *wholesale company*，经销商 *distributing company*. As the examples show, the classifications of this kind are not permanent, but only make sense in a given context.

Figure 0-12: Taxonomy of cloth on the "ascriptive-achieved" cline

Next, I will discuss the other major selection on the system of CLASSIFICATION, the logicosemantic type. This category reflects the logicosemantic relations between the classifier and the Thing being classified. Again, it can be categorised into projection and expansion, which are prevalent in the organisation of the ideation base. Table 4-8 lists some examples of each logicosemantic type and subtypes of classifiers.

I will make comments on two things being reflected in the examples presented in Table 4-8. First, the two major selections on the system of CLASSIFICATION, "classifying quality" and "logicosemantic type", are not completely independent from each other. Rather, with both showing semantic concerns, the two types of selections can influence each other. For example, in terms of material manner of enhancement, only ascriptive classifying qualities can be selected at the same time, as only material things and substances carry the ascriptive quality of a material make. Second, in terms of projection, only semiotic things have the potential to project and this quality is regarded as achieved. In the previous section about Thing Type (see section 4.3.1) I have discussed the projection potential of things of ideas and locutions. Although these complex thing types have good potential to develop a projection through modification, it is commonly realised by qualification, not classification. More discussion will be given in Section 4.4.4 when I investigate qualifiers.

I have explored the major two selections on the system of CLASSIFICATION. In the following subsection, I will present some sample text analysis to further demonstrate how things can be classified in texts.

Type	subtype		Examples	
			ascriptive	achieved
Elaboration (intensive)			红蜻蜓 red dragonfly 幼鲸 baby whale 圆桌 round table	高级职称 senior titles 清洁能源 clean energy 已婚妇女 married women
Extension (possessive)			齿鲸 toothed whale 酒精饮料 alcoholic drinks 双门跑车 "two-door sport car", ie. coupe 盐水 saline water	烟草大国 tobacco country 四字成语 four-character idioms 多音节词 multisyllable words
Enhancement	time		春笋 spring bamboo shoots 冬笋 winter bamboo shoots	夏令时 summer time 古代史 ancient history 现代文学 modern literature
	place		法国葡萄酒 French wine 蓝山咖啡 Blue mountain coffee	户外活动 outdoor activities 农村劳动力 country labour 沙滩排球 beach volleyball
	manner	means		超声波检查 ultrasound check 水路运输 water transport 油炸食品 deep-fried food
		materials	棉衣 cotton-padded coat 红木家具 redwood furniture 真皮沙发 genuine leather sofa	
	conditional	purpose		儿童设施 children facilities 消防设备 fire-fighting equipment 感冒药 cold medicine
		result/effect		迷幻药 hallucinogenic drug 致癌物 carcinogenic substances 节能灯 energy-saving lights
projection	matter			战争片 war film 爱情小说 love stories 家庭伦理小说 novels about family

Table 0-8: Examples of logicosemantic types of Classifiers

1.4.3 Three sample texts

In this section, I will present the analysis of three sample texts, all of which are expounding texts with taxonomic features. The focus of the analysis is on how the key subjects being explored in these texts are further classified in nominal groups. First, I will compare the classification selections in text 1 and 2, and then will discuss the case of text 3 separately. Table 4-9 presents the context information of the three texts.

	Text 1: 新型玻璃 *New types of glass*	Text 2: 鲸 *Whales*	Text 3: 千奇百怪的动物语言 *A great variety of animal languages*
Field	The socio-semiotic function of this text is expounding and the situation type is that of taxonomy. The domain is concrete and concerned with four new types of glass and their functions.	The socio-semiotic function of this text is expounding. The domain is concrete and concerned with all kinds of features of whales of different species.	The socio-semiotic function of this text is expounding. The domain is concrete and concerned with all sorts of animal languages. In demonstrating how the languages are used, animals are personified.
Tenor	The institutional roles are a glass expert to the primary school students; an adult to children readers. The evaluation of the experiential domain is neutral.	The institutional roles are an expert of whales to the primary school students; an adult to children. The evaluation of the experiential domain is neutral.	The institutional roles are an expert to the junior high school students; an adult to young readers. The evaluation of the experiential domain is neutral to positive, with the writer making some positive appraisal to the use of animal languages.
Mode	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation. No technical language is used in the text, and concrete scenarios are presented to demonstrate the functions of glass.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation. Some simple terminologies are used.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation. Some simple terminologies are used.

Table 0-9: Context of sample texts

夹丝玻璃 *wired glass* - enhancement: manner + achieved

变色玻璃 *colour-changing glass* - enhancement: manner + achieved

新 型 玻 璃 new glasses
Thing type: object

吸热玻璃 *heat-absorbing glass* - enhancement: purpose + achieved

吃音玻璃 sound-absorbing glass - enhancement: purpose + achieved

Figure 0-13: Classification in Text 1

I will focus on the three key things being expounded by these texts: glass, whales, and animal languages. Figure 4-13 presents how "玻璃" (glass) is taxonomised in text 1, and the analysis of the classifiers in terms of CLASSIFICATION.

Figure 4-14 presents how "鲸"(whales) is taxonomised in text 2, and the analysis of the classifiers in terms of CLASSIFICATION.

须鲸 *baleen whale-* extension + ascriptive

齿鲸 *toothed whale* - extension + ascriptive

鲸 whale
Thing type: animal

幼鲸 *baby whale -* elaboration + ascriptive

母鲸 *mother whale* - elaboration + ascriptive

Figure 0-14: Classification in Text 2

A comparison of the classification analysis between Figure 4-13 and 4-14 illustrates that the thing type tend to play a decisive role in how the thing can be further classified: objects like "glass" have good potential to be classified in terms of purpose (as function), or manner (as how they are made); in comparison, a conscious being like "whale" have great potential to

be classified in terms of their ascriptive qualities through elaboration (in terms of size, age, gender) or extension (in terms of physical properties).

Figure 4-15 presents the analysis of text 3. In terms of logicosemantic relations, animal languages are classified through enhancement of means: different varieties are recognised in terms of how they are realised. In terms of classifying quality, however, the analysis reflects some ambiguity, as it can be argued that these classifiers represent an achieved quality, rather than ascribed. This is a special case, as a common-sense "语言" (*language*) is something exclusive to human beings, and is not ascribed with these qualities being recognised in the text except "声音"(*sound*). This text, however, defines "language" in a wider sense to include semiotics other than human language, and therefore the "language" in this particular context can be classified in terms of a wider range of qualities, which are not the default qualities being recognised in common sense. This makes the case rather ambiguous, as all these classifiers represent "achieved qualities" of language if out of context. However, as the text unfolds, the implicit relation between these qualities and "language" is built up, which is set as the context, and everything makes sense. As Matthiessen points out, this kind of logogenetic build-up can ensure that the classifier + thing combination is interpretable in its discourse environment (Matthiessen 1995: 667). Again, this sample analysis illustrates that classifiers have to rely on context to classify things.

声音语言 *sound language* - enhancement: means + achieved

超声语言 *ultrasound language* - enhancement: means + achieved

动物语言 animals language
Thing type: semiotics

运动语言*movement language* - enhancement: means + achieved

色彩语言 *colour language* - enhancement: means + achieved

气味语言 *smell language* - enhancement: means + achieved

Figure 0-15: Classification in Text 3

I have now completed my discussion about classifiers. In the next section, I will move onto another important experiential element in the nominal group structure: Epithet.

1.5 Epithet

Epithet represents properties of the Thing, typically realised by adjectives. Being experientially complex, the Thing has a great potential to be further described by Epithets. In the following discussion, I will first explore the differences between Epithet and Classifier; and then the system of EPITHESIS will be presented; finally, a sample text analysis is presented to illustrate how the properties of Things are represented.

1.5.1 Epithet vs. Classifier

Compared with Classifiers, Epithets represent the less basic characteristics of the Thing, and therefore have the potential to modify a wider range of Things, both simple and complex. However, in terms of lexical realisation, there are some overlaps between the two functional categories: the same adjectives may be realised as Epithet in one text, but as Classifier in another. For example, adjectives representing such qualities as colour, weight, size, and so on, can be used either to classify things or to further describe things by assigning an epithet to them. Examples:

> Adjectives: 红*red* 白*white*
>
> **As Classifier**
>
> 葡萄酒以成品颜色来说，可以分为<u>红</u>葡萄酒和<u>白</u>葡萄酒两大类。
>
> According to the colour of the products, wine generally falls into two categories: **red** wine and **white** wine.
>
> **As Epithet**
>
> 那个姑娘身着<u>白</u>衣<u>红</u>裙，在人群中显得十分醒目。
>
> Wearing a **white** top and a **red** skirt, that girl was highly noticeable in the crowd.

As can be seen in the above example, the qualities represented by classifiers are the more stable ones which serve to classify things into subsets, whereas epithets represent properties that are more transient in time and space and less defining but more descriptive than those of classifiers. And the overlapping area covers those objective qualities which can either classify or further describe the Thing.

Also, there is a structural difference between the two functional elements: the classifier is closer to the Thing than Epithet on the experiential structure of the nominal group, and the difference is often marked by "de", which unmarkedly appears after an epithet, but always before a classifier. Figure 4-16 illustrates the relations between the two elements:

Figure 0-16: Relations between Classifier and Epithet

1.5.2 System of EPITHESIS

Figure 4-17 presents the system of EPITHESIS, which lists the selections of epithet one can make to further describe the Thing:

Figure 0-17: System of EPITHESIS

In general, this system reflects both the experiential and interpersonal aspects of epithets. As the system shows, the selections on both experiential and interpersonal categories are simultaneous, as the Epithet is significant in terms of both at the same time. Apart from representing certain properties of the Thing, epithets also enact attitudes towards the participant being construed. In the following discussion, however, I will focus on the experiential categories only, which is the concern of the current chapter, and will reserve the "interpersonal" category for the following chapter.

Experientially, an epithet may represent either an attributive or circumstantial property of the Thing. This categorisation is closely related to the categorisations of the Thing Type: attributive epithets modify conscious beings or simple things, as both types of things can be distinguished or characterised by certain qualities they have; circumstantial epithets tend to modify complex things or even metaphorical things, in which case the circumstance is construed as an attribute and the process is construed as a thing, and thus a circumstantial relationship is formed between the epithet and the thing.

Attributive epithets can be further categorised into two types: material epithets, which represent the properties that the thing has in the material world, such as colour, size, shape, and so on; mental epithets, which represent the properties being construed mentally, and can be further categorised as emotion, cognition and desire. Material epithets often modify conscious beings and concrete things which inherently have material characteristics. Mental epithets can only modify conscious beings (as senser) and any projected ideas and locutions, as well as anything that arouse and/or reflect emotions, cognition, desire and hatred (as phenomena). Mental epithets are highly attitudinal, as they reflect the speaker's judgement and subjective interpretation of things. There is another category in the domain of sensing, namely perception, which is not included here, because this type of sensing usually assign attributes that are perceived in the material world, such as taste (酸 *sour*, 甜 *sweet*, 苦*bitter*，辣*spicy*), colour (红*red*，黑*black*，白*white*), touch feelings (软 *soft*，硬 *hard*，冷 *cold*，热 *hot*), and so on, and these perceived attributes are treated as "material".

There are some attributive epithets, which reflect more complex qualities with values on multiple dimensions, and can be perceived in the outer world experience, but at the same time also represent some inner world reflections. For example, adjectives such as 孤零零 *lone*, 豪爽 *open and generous*，正派 *decent*, which represent the state of being from different angles, reflecting an outer world experience. But at the same time, these adjectives also represent the interpretation of the speaker based on his/her inner world experience. In other words, the attributes being realised by these adjectives are fused with both objective quality and subjective attitude. Under experiential lens, they are treated as material attribute; but at the same time, they enact attitudes and are presented subjectively. Table 4-10 shows some examples of different types of attributive epithets:

			Examples	
			neutral	attitudinal
Attributive Epithet	material	single-dimension	酸 sour, 甜 sweet, 苦 bitter, 辣 spicy, 红 red, 白 white, 蓝 blue, 软 soft, 硬 hard, 冷 cold, 热 hot, 大 large, 小 small, 毛茸茸 fluffy, 光滑的smooth	香喷喷 appetising, 可口的 delicious, 艳丽的 showy, 肮脏的 dirty
		multi-dimension		孤零零 all alone, 豪爽 open and direct, 热闹 boisterous, 冷清desolate, 轻盈 light and graceful, 文雅 elegant, 亲密 intimate, 繁盛 prosperous, 穷困的 poor
	mental	emotion		羞涩 shy, 可怕的 frightening, 愤怒的 furious, 可怜的 poor
		cognition		狡猾 crafty, 笨的 stupid, 聪明 clever, 愚蠢 foolish
		desire		可爱的 lovely, 厌恶的 disgusting, 深情的 affectionate

Table 0-10: Examples of attributive epithets

Circumstantial epithets have two subsets: extent, which modifies complex things that expand through time and space – thing types such as event, enhancement, or nominalised material process, all have good potential to be assigned with circumstantial attributes of extent by describing them in terms of distance, duration, and frequency; the other subset under this category is manner, which includes 'means' and 'degree'. An epithets of 'means' tend to modify a noun of a nominalised process, which corresponds to the agnate structure of process + circumstance (manner: means) at the clause level. An epithet of 'degree' represents an attribute of intensity, in terms of quantity, scale, and so on. Table 4-11 presents some examples of different types of circumstantial epithets.

			Examples
Circumstantial Epithets	extent		悠久 long (time), 遥远 far (space)长途的long (distance), 漫长的 lengthy (time), 短暂的short (time), 长期的long term, 经常的often,普遍的general, 频繁的frequent
	manner	means	飞快的 rapid, 缓慢的 slowly, 柔和的 gentle, 强烈的 strong
		degree	丰富的 plentiful, 巨大的huge, 充足的 abundant, 稀有的 rare, 剧烈的 violent

Table 0-11: Examples of circumstantial epithets

1.5.3 Sample text analysis

In this section, I will present a sample text analysis, which aims to seek answers to the following two questions: 1. How are the properties of a participant represented in lexicogrammar? 2. How can epithets contribute to the construal of a participant?

Altogether there are 4 sample texts being selected for analysis: text 1, 松鼠 *Squirrels* (for semester 1, Year 5), text 2, 仙人掌 *The cactus* (for semester 1, Year 6), text 3, 济南的秋天 *The autumn in Jinan* (for Semester 1, Year 7), and text 4, 一双手 *A pair of hands* (for semester 1, Year 9). These four texts are of different text types, with text 1 and 2 being expounding, text 3 recreating and text 4 sharing. However, there is a common feature shared by all the four texts: all of them are highly descriptive about the subject thing of the text, namely "the squirrel" in text 1, "the cactus" in text 2, Jinan's mountains and water in autumn in text 3, and a forestry worker's hands in text 4. Table 4-12 presents the detailed context information of each sample text:

	Text 1: 松鼠 *Squirrels*	Text 2: 仙人掌 *Cactus*	Text 3: 济南的秋天 *The autumn in Jinan*	Text 4: 一双手 *A pair of hands*
Field	The socio-semiotic function of this text is expounding. The domain is concrete and concerned with all kinds of features of squirrels.	The socio-semiotic function of this text is expounding. The domain is concrete and concerned with all kinds of features of the cactus.	The socio-semiotic function of this text is recreating in the form of a modern Chinese essay (sanwen). The domain is concrete and concerned with all kinds of features of mountains and waters of Jinan in autumn.	The socio-semiotic function of this text is sharing in the form of a narrative reminiscence. The domain is concrete and concerned with the writer's experience of meeting a hard-working forestry worker and was impressed by the look of his hands.
Tenor	The institutional roles are an expert of squirrels to the primary school students; an adult to children. The evaluation of the experiential domain is neutral.	The institutional roles are an expert of plants to the primary school students; an adult to children. The evaluation of the experiential domain is neutral.	The institutional roles are a well known writer who once lived in Jinan to the general readers. The evaluation of the experiential domain is positive and emotional.	The institutional roles are a writer to the general readers. The evaluation of the experiential domain is positive and emotional.
Mode	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation. Some simple terminologies are used.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation. Some simple terminologies are used.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation.

Table 0-12: Context of sample texts

In the following analysis, I will first sort out all the qualities being assigned to the above four subject things, and then look at how these qualities are realised in lexicogrammar; and for those realised by epithets in nominal groups, I will take a further look at which types of epithets are selected to realise these qualities. Table 4-13 presents the results of the analysis:

Subject Thing	Lexicogrammatical Realisation of Qualities (number of instances)		
	Relational Clause of **Carrier + Attribute**	Nominal Group of **Epithet + Thing**	Quality Thing
Text 1: the squirrel and its body parts and physical properties (face, eyes, body, limbs, tail, paws, movements, voices)	8	2	
Text 2: cactus and its parts	16	3	2
Text 3: mountains in Jinan and their possessive features (pine trees, colour, height, curve) and water plus its possessive features (lotus, willow tree)	17		3
Text 4: hands and their physical properties	11	9	

Table 0-13: Lexicogrammatical realisation of qualities in the sample texts

For the first question that I raised earlier, the result shows that the semantic meanings of qualities can be realised in lexicogrammar in three different forms: as attribute in a relational clause, as epithet in a nominal group, or as a quality thing in a nominal group. Based on the instances counted in the sample texts, the most unmarked grammatical realisation is at the clause level, and the most unmarked realisation is that a quality being realised metaphorically as a thing. See examples below:

Unmarked: as attribute in a relational clause

松鼠是一种漂亮的小动物，**驯良，乖巧，很讨人喜欢**。

Squirrels are a type of beautiful little animals, **docile, cute, and adorable**.

More marked: as epithet in a nominal group

干枯的仙人掌还可以当颜料用。

Dry cactus can also be used as paint.

Most marked: as Thing in a nominal group

但仙人掌宁可改变自身结构也要适应艰苦环境生存下去的**坚韧顽强**和它那种默默奉献的精神，却是一种独有的**美丽**。

The tenacity and resilience of the cactus, with which it can survive the harsh environment by changing its own structure, together with its unnoticed dedication, are a kind of unique **beauty**.

The unmarkedness is closely related to the grammatical features of adjectives in Chinese. As discussed earlier in this thesis, adjectives in Chinese are functioning as a subclass of verbs, which construe Attribute and Process all at once (see further in Halliday and McDonald 2004). Comparatively, the case where adjectives functioning as Epithets in nominal groups is less common in the language, as most of the properties carried by the Thing can be presented as Attributes with the Thing being construed as the Carrier. Even more marked is the case where qualities of a Thing are construed as a Thing - a metaphorical thing. Semantically, as Quality is distinguished as a separate category from Thing, it is not surprising to see that a Quality being construed as a Thing is highly marked.

As for the second question – how epithets contribute to the construing of participant roles, the result shows that the contribution can be made to different participant roles in various process types. Below are some examples taken from the sample texts:

As Attribute in relational clause:

（松鼠）<u>玲珑的小面孔</u>，衬上一条帽缨形的美丽的尾巴，显得格外漂亮。

The squirrel has <u>a delicate little face</u> and a tassel-shaped beautiful tail, which make it look very lovely.

As Carrier in relational clause:

<u>仙人掌高大的片状茎</u>像板子一样。

<u>The cactus's high plate-shaped stems</u> are like planks.

As Value in relational clause:

这真是我今生今世见到的<u>天下第一号大手</u>。

This is really <u>the No.1 big hand</u> that I have ever seen in my life.

As Actor in material clause:

就在这60度的灼热的沙漠上<u>满身是刺的仙人掌</u>却傲然存活。

It is in this 60-degree scorching hot desert that <u>the spined cactus</u> proudly lives.

As Goal in material clause:

姜梦之我握过<u>各种各样的手——老手、嫩手、黑手、白手、粗手、细手</u>。

I, Jiang Mengzhi, have shaken <u>all kinds of hands – old hands, soft hands, dirty hands, clean hands, rough-skinned hands, and thin and delicate hands.</u>

Another interesting thing in the result is that most these epithets in text 1 and 2 represent material attributes, whereas in text 4 mental attributes are also represented. This could be related to the interpersonal features of the texts, as the first two texts are neutral in terms of evaluation, whereas text 4 is positive and charged with attitude. However, analysis of a larger number of texts is needed to prove this. Further discussion about how Epithet enacts attitude will be presented in the following chapter.

Till now, I have finished the investigation of the experiential resources of Epithet. In the next section, I will focus on another functional element on the experiential structure, the Qualifier.

1.6   Qualifier

From an experiential perspective, Qualifier represents the qualification of a certain thing type, the circumstance where the Thing is construed. On the one hand, the experiential aspects the Qualifier represents are less basic and less defining compared with some other functional elements such as Classifier or Epithet. On the other hand, the experiential aspects represented by the Qualifier are also more transient and instantial than Classifier or Epithet (refer to Figure 4-1 and 4-2).

In the following discussion, I will first take a look at the realisation of Qualifier in lexicogrammar. Then I will move on to the system of QUALIFICATION, with a focus on those Qualifiers being realised by an embedded clause.

1.6.1 The realisation of Qualifier

In terms of realisation, a Qualifier can be realised by a rankshifted clause (i.e., an embedded clause), or an adverbial group, or a nominal group. Unlike English where a Qualifier comes after the Head, a Qualifier in Chinese precedes the nominal Head as a premodifier. A hypotactic conjunctive particle ^的 is typically used to connect the Qualifier and the Thing.

There are mainly three types of nominal groups that can function as a Qualifier. The first type is typically a locative one, indicating relative position of the Thing, and the typical structure of the nominal group is head noun + locative post noun (see further in Halliday & McDonald 2004; and Section 4.3.1.1.2 of this thesis). Logicosemantically, a Qualifier realised by such a nominal group forms a relationship of elaboration with the Thing, though it is circumstantial in meaning – the circumstantial information represented by the Qualifier is to

further describe and specify the Thing.

The second type of nominal group functioning as Qualifier is typically realised by nouns of event (see further in Section 4.3.1.1.2), such as 地震 *earthquake*，事故 *accident*，会议 *meeting*, and so on, which qualifies a special type of Things – Things of enhancement, representing names of location, time, result, and reason, such as 时间 *time*, 地点 *location*，结果 *consequence*，原因 *reason*. Logicosemantically, a Qualifier realised by such a nominal group forms a relationship of enhancement with the Thing.

The third type of nominal group functioning as Qualifier also forms a relationship of enhancement with the Thing, but this time an enhancement of extent of distance, duration or frequency – as most of these nominal groups in Chinese are often made up of a word of quantity and a measure word of distance, time, or frequency. Below are some examples of Qualifiers being realised by nominal groups of these three types:

> Nominal group as Qualifier:
> (a)
> 屋子里的笑声
> The laughter in the house
> 书架上的书
> The books on the shelf
> (b)
> 火灾的原因
> The reason of the fire
> 地震的后果
> The consequence of the earthquake
> 会议的时间
> The time of the meeting
> (c）
> 两万五千里长征
> The twenty five-thousand miles march
> 上下五千年的悠久历史
> five thousand years long history
> 无数次的失败
> Numerous failures

A Qualifier can also be realised by an adverbial group, which typically indicate location

or time, such as 这里 *here*, 今年 *this year*，and so on. Obviously, these Examples:

这里的人们

People here

今年的收成

The harvest this year

明天的火车

The train tomorrow

很久以前的事情

The event a long time ago

Other types of adverbial groups in Chinese, which functions as verbal adjuncts (see further in Halliday & McDonald 2004), cannot function in a nominal group directly, and therefore are out of the scope of this discussion.

Sometimes, the qualifier being realised by the above-mentioned locative nominal groups or adverbial groups may take on idiomatic interpretations. For example, a locative nominal group functioning as Qualifier may actually represent circumstance of time for the Thing:

[饭桌上]的笑话

Literal translation: jokes (made) [at the dinner table]

Translation: jokes made at dinner time

A rank-shifted clause, namely an embedded clause, is commonly used as a Qualifier in a nominal group. In the following section, I will mainly focus on this type of Qualifier and their experiential contribution to the nominal groups.

1.6.2 System of QUALIFICATION

In Chapter 3 where the logical resources are explored, I have presented a system of MODIFICATION (see Section 3.3). In this section, I will re-present this system, but in the version of QUALIFICATION instead. Generally speaking, the categorisation of expansion and projection can be seen in nearly all the systems being introduced in this thesis, which supports Halliday and Matthiessen's view that "the categories of projection and expansion are very prevalent in the organisation of the ideation base" (Halliday & Matthiessen 1999: 62). I need to make it clear that, although an experiential system, the system of Qualification is based on its logicosemantic categorisation. Figure 4-18 presents the system of QUALIFICATION:

Figure 0-18: System of QUALIFICATION

As the system shows, theoretically the qualification can go on again and again. In fact, however, most of the nominal groups do not have more than one Qualifier, as more qualifiers may easily cause awkwardness, especially in the Chinese case where all the modifiers precede the nominal Head. More commonly, a speaker would express the meaning at clause level. When a Qualifier is selected to modify the Thing, it forms a relationship of either 'expansion' or 'projection'. And among the subcategories of these two groups, a Qualifier realised by a nominal group or an adverbial group is typically selected to further clarify the Thing (thus 'elaborating' logicosemantically), or to enhance the meaning of the Thing by reference to its extent, time, or place. The unmarked realisation of a Qualifier is by rank-shifted embedded clauses. Let me quote Halliday and Matthiessen's description of 'embedding' here (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004):

> *Embedding is a semogenic mechanism whereby a clause or phrase comes to function as a constituent within the structure of a group, which itself is a constituent of a clause (p.426).*

When focusing on the embedded clause as a Qualifier of a nominal group, one may

view embedding from another angle: this time not only the embedded clause is viewed as a constituent within the structure of a nominal group, the Head/Thing can also be viewed as a potential participant role within the structure of the embedded clause when we suppose the embedded clause is up-ranked to clause level. By viewing the relationship in this way, I tend to seek answers to the following two questions: a) What types of clause can be potentially downranked to function as a Qualifier modifying a particular type of Thing; b) Does the process type of such an embedded clause have an impact on the logicosemantic relations it forms with the Thing? To explore answers to these questions, I present below some examples of embedded clause in different types of expansion with the Thing: together with these nominal groups are the agnate/related ranking clauses where the Thing takes a participant role (see Table 4-14, 4-15, and 4-16).

Embedded clause elaborating the Thing	Agnate/related ranking clause	Role of Thing/process type	Thing Type
[[他昨天刚买]]的一本书 A book[[he bought yesterday]]	他昨天刚买了一本书 He just bought a book yesterday.	as Goal / material	object
我们爬的那座山 The mountain [[we climbed]]	我们爬那座山 We climbed that mountain.	as Range / material	object
从监狱里逃走的罪犯 The criminals[[that were on the run from the jail]]	罪犯从监狱里逃走了 The criminals were on the run from jail.	as Actor / material	human
孩子们喜爱的儿歌 The nursery rhymes[[loved by children]]	孩子们喜爱(这些)儿歌 Children love these nursery rhymes.	as Phenomenon / mental	Simple semiotics
认识我的人 People [[who know me]]	(这些)人认识我 (These) people know me.	as Senser /mental	human
他撒的谎 The lies[[told by him]]	他撒了谎 He lied.	as Verbiage/ verbal;	locution
和我谈话的警官 The police officer [[who talked to me]]	警官和我谈了话 The police officer talked to me.	as Sayer/ verbal	human

Table 0-14: Embedded clause elaborating the Thing

Embedded clause/phrase extending the Thing	Agnate ranking clause	Role of Thing/process type	Thing Type
头发少的人 People [[whose hair is thin]]	(有些人)头发少 Some people have thin hair.	as absolute Carrier/ relational	human
叶子少的树 The trees [with few leaves]	(有些树)叶子少 Some trees have few leaves.	as absolute Carrier/ relational	object
分子密度大的物质 The substance[with high molecular density]	(有些)物质分子密度大 Some substances have high molecular density.	as absolute Carrier/ relational	substance
亲朋好友多的家庭 The families[with a large number of relatives and friends]	(有些)家庭亲朋好友多 Some families have a large number of relatives and friends.	as absolute Carrier/ relational	institution

Table 0-15: Embedded clause/phrase extending the Thing

Please be noted that there is no related ranking clauses for some of the examples in table 4-16 (see below), as the Things in these nominal groups are represented by some general circumstance names, such as result, reason, degree, and manner, and the circumstance in a ranking clause can only be realised by more specific adverbial groups functioning as verbal adjuncts. Therefore no related ranking clauses are presented here.

I would like to present three points based on the examples listed in the three tables. First, in the case of elaboration, the prototypical process type of the embedded clause include all the major types except relational, and the transitivity roles taken by the Thing in the related ranking clauses vary, ranging from actor in a material clause to verbiage in a verbal clause. These transitivity roles are related to the Thing types being selected: for example, only a conscious being like human can be a senser in a mental clause; a complex thing of locution can construe verbiage in a verbal clause. When these ranking clauses become down-ranked to modify the thing, it is the Thing type that decides the experiential potential of the embedded clause as Qualifier.

Embedded clause/phrase enhancing the Thing	Agnate ranking clause	Role of Thing/process type	Thing Type
事故发生的地点 The place [[where the accident happened]]	事故发生在(这个)地点 The accident happened in this place.	as Circumstance / material	location
开学的日期 The date [[when school starts]]	在(这个)日期开学 School starts on this date.	as Circumstance/ material	time
发表演说的广场 The square where speeches are given.	在广场发表演说 Speeches are given in the square.	as Circumstance / verbal	location
绝食的后果 The consequence [of hunger strike]	-	as circumstance / material	result
吵架的原因 The reason [for the argument]	-	as Circumstance/ verbal	reason
喜爱的程度 The degree [of fondness]	-	as Circumstance/ mental	degree
奋斗的目的 The goal [[of working hard]]	-	as Circumstance/ material	purpose
谈话的方式 The way [[of talking]]	-	as Circumstance/ verbal	manner

Table 0-16: Embedded clause enhancing the Thing

Second, in the case of extension, the typical process type of an embedded clause is attributive relational, and the Thing is the absolute Carrier of the attribute. There is an interesting difference between Chinese and English in this case: in English there is only one "Carrier" in an attributive relational clause, whereas in Chinese there could be two, one as 'absolute', and the other as the 'direct' Carrier of the attribute. The relationship between these two Carriers is typically possessive: the absolute Carrier as the possessor, and the direct Carrier as the possessed. I borrow the term "absolute" from Fang et al. in their description of the textual resources of Chinese clause (Fang et al. 1995), where the first group or phrase in the clause taking the Theme position is termed as "absolute theme". When a relational clauses of this type

becomes down-ranked, it has the potential to form a relationship of extension with the absolute Theme/Carrier taking the Thing position. It is also interesting to note that the Thing type of this kind of nominal groups tends to be either conscious or simple concrete. In other words, it is less likely for the complex thing types to be selected, as normally these complex things can hardly develop a possessive relationship with something else, and rarely carry attributes. So again, one can say that it is the Thing type that plays a role in selecting an extending embedded clause as Qualifier. Another feature of this type of embedded clause is that they function similarly to a classifier: this kind of embedded clause tends to classify a group of things by assigning a common attribute, though this attribute represented by the embedded clause is more transient and less defining than the one that a real Classifier represents. Examples:

这个政策主要针对那些[[父母双方都已再婚]]的**子女**。

This policy mainly targets *those people [[whose parents married others later]].*

[[头发多]]的**人**是劳碌命。

People [with thick hair] are predestined to have a lot of things to look after in their lives.

Third, in terms of enhancement, there seems to be no limitations on the process type choices of an embedded clause: any of the four major process types can be selected. The thing worth noting is that the enhancement is not realised by the embedded clause, but by the Thing, as they belong to a particular type on the THING TYPE system – they are all complex things of enhancement, representing the names of various types of enhancing relations. This is different from the case of enhancement where an adverbial group functions as a Qualifier, as in that case it is the adverbial group that is circumstantial, not the thing. Compare the examples below:

Enhancement: time

几年前的事情 (circumstantial adverbial group as Qualifier)

The event [[that happened a few years ago]]

他到达的时间 （circumstantial Thing as Head）

The time [[when he arrives]]

Enhancement: location

北京的婚礼 （circumstantial adverbial group as Qualifier）

The wedding [in Beijing]

上次见面的地方（circumstantial Thing as Head）

The place [[where we met last time]]

Apart from the embedded clause, such circumstantial Thing can also develop a relationship of enhancement with another nominal group – some examples can be found in

Section 4.6.1.

There are some ambiguous cases, where the logicosemantic relations cannot be decided easily. For example, 生孩子的痛苦 *the pain of giving birth* can be interpreted as either elaborating or different types of enhancing: 生孩子的痛苦 *the pain of giving birth* =生孩子所带来的痛苦(elaborating) *the pain brought by birth-giving*; 生孩子的痛苦 *the pain of giving birth* =生孩子时的痛苦(enhancement: time) *the pain when giving birth*; 生孩子的痛苦 *the pain of giving birth* =生孩子导致的痛苦 *the pain that results from birth-giving* (enhancement: result).

My discussion here has not covered the other major category of the logicosemantic relations, namely, the Projection. This is because a detailed exploration with examples has been presented in Chapter 2 when I investigated the logical resources (see Section 3.2.2.2.2 for details), and therefore won't be repeated here. It is important to emphasize though that Thing type again is a determining factor in developing the relationship of projection, as only complex things of facts, ideas, and locutions have the potential to project. And this sense of projection can be realised not only by an embedded clause, but also by a nominal group or a prepositional phrase in the form of 'matter'. Examples:

> Projection: matter
> 人们展开了[关于战争]的**思考**。
> People started the contemplation [on the topic of war].
> 这个[现代办公系统]**概念**让人耳目一新。
> This concept of [modern office system] is eye-opening.

Up to now, I have discussed all types of logicosemantic relations being realised by different types of Qualifier and the related Thing type choices. Table 4-17 presents the general picture of different Qualifiers and their realisations in lexicogrammar:

Type	Subtype	Examples (with Qualifier in bold)	
		embedded clause	Adverbial/nominal group
Elaboration	exemplifying	[[唐太宗纳谏]] 的例子 The example [[of Emperor Tang Taizong adopting advices]]	[交通事故]的例子 examples of traffic accidents
	clarifying	[[漂浮在北冰洋上]] 的 冰山 the icebergs [[floating on the Arctic Ocean]]	[桌子上]的书 the book on the desk
Extension	possessive	[[父母双亡]] 的子女 those children[[whose parents are both dead]]	
Enhancement	Extent: distance		[两万五千里]的征程 a march of 25000 miles
	Extent: duration		[整整两个小时]的会议 a meeting of two hours
	Location: time	[[洋槐开花]] 的季节 the season [[when the locust tree is in blossom]]	[白天]的时间 the time of daylight
	Location: place	[[我们初次相遇]] 的地方 the place [[where we first met]]	
	Cause: purpose	[[用来酿酒]] 的好材料 the nice materials [[for making wine]]	[北京奥运会]的圣火
	Cause: result	[[我们共同努力]] 的结果 the result [from our mutual efforts]	
	Cause: reason	[[我支持他]] 的原因 the reason [[that I support him]]	[事故]原因
	Manner: means	[[当地人酿酒]]的方法 the way[[for the local people to make wine]]	
projection	locution		[[关于民主]] 的争论 the argument [about democracy]
	idea	[[毕业后出国留学]]的想法 the thoughts of studying overseas after graduation	
	fact	[[全球气候变暖]]的事实 The fact of global warming	

Table 0-17: Examples of Qualifiers

1.7   Measure

Measure words provide resources to help construe participants and circumstances. In the case of nominal groups, Measure is recognised as a functional element in the experiential structure because it is a prevalent element representing the membership of a certain kind that the Thing belongs to. As its function is similar to that of a Classifier, measure words are often termed as "classifier" by linguists (e.g., Chao 1968). However, in the present study, Measure and Classifier are considered as two distinct functional elements, as they represent different aspects of the Thing. The Classifier represents the most basic subclass of the Thing, and is significant in terms of experiential function. Measure, on the other hand, represents certain experiential features that a group of things share, based on which this kind of things can be further measured in terms of quantity and identified in the referential space. For example, both 绳子 *rope* and 鱼 *fish* have the experiential feature of being long and thin, and therefore both can be measured in terms of 条 *slip*, which represents this quality. And clearly these two things belong to the different thing types, and are classified differently in terms of classification.

The following discussion will be divided into two parts: first, I will investigate the relations between Thing Type and measurability (section 4.7.1); then I will present the system of Measure (4.7.2).

1.7.1 Measurability and Thing Type

Compared with English, Chinese is a highly 'measurable' language: measure words provide rich resources for things to be measured in one way or another. The measurability is closely related to the type of the Thing being measured (see Figure 4-19). The general tendency is that the more concrete the thing is, the more measurable it seems, and complex things and metaphorical things have very limited potential to be measured, and when they do, they are typically measured in terms of种"type" or个"instance". Examples:

> Complex things:
> 这个时间我来不了。
> This (MEA) time I cannot come.
> 出于某种原因，他未能出席。
> Out of certain (MEA) reasons, he couldn't come.
> 这个结果我早预见到了。

This (MEA) result I have long foreseen.

Metaphorical things:

善于放弃是一种智慧。

Being able to give up is a (MEA) wisdom.

孤独也是一种美。

Being alone is also a (MEA) beauty.

Figure 0-19: Thing Type and Measurability

Unlike English, there is no clear boundary line between countable and uncountable nouns in the lexicogrammar of Chinese. However, through the relations between measurability and Thing Type, it can be seen that the distinction exists implicitly. It is just that the distinction is not reflected through the change of word forms, but through the use of measure words.

1.7.2 System of MEASURE

Figure 4-20 presents the system of MEASURE. The most fundamental categories on the system represent the experiential and logicosemantic potentials of Measure. There are three selections under the experiential category, representing the quantity, quality and both quantity and quality side of the Thing.

Figure 0-20: System of MEASURE

A measure of quantity presents either a singular or a plural quantity – apart from quantity, it does not provide any other features of the Thing. A typical measure word representing singular quantity is 个 *ge*, which can be used to measure any entity that is construed as countable – it can be regarded as a grammatical marker for those things that are construed as count in English (cf. Halliday and Matthiessen 1999: 286). There are a few other measure words that are used to construe a plural quantity, such as pair 对 *couple*, 双 *pair*，打 *dozen*. Same as 个, these words, often working together with numeratives, solely construe the quantity feature of the Thing, and only modify countable things.

A measure of quality is realised by type words, typically two in Chinese: zhǒng 种 *variety* and lèi 类 *type*. This kind of measure words differentiates the Thing from the other things of the same Thing type, as if it assigns a quality to the Thing – a highly general quality of being "a kind". It represents a 'variety' or a 'kind' of a particular Thing type. Textually, they are significant in identifying a participant with a certain quality. Measure of quality has the best potential to modify things, including both congruent and metaphorical things. Examples:

Congruent: conscious

这**种**人到处都是。

This **kind** of people are everywhere.

你认识这**种**鸟吗？

Do you know this **kind** of birds?

Congruent: non-conscious: concrete

从那时起，蒲公英成了我们最喜爱的<u>一种花</u>。

Since then, dandelion has become our favourite **kind** of flower.

经常饮用<u>这种水</u>，会使人的新陈代谢减缓。

If you often drink <u>this **type** of water</u>, your metabolism will slow down.

Congruent:non-conscious:complex

"有德者得天下"、"无德者失天下"<u>*这类说法*</u>的问题在哪里？

What's wrong with <u>this **type** of arguments</u> such as "People with morals will win support from others" and "those without morals will lose support"?

<u>这种情况</u>是什么原因导致的呢？

What caused this **type** of circumstances?

Metaphorical:

好的文艺作品中总含有<u>一种人生见解和社会观察</u>。

Good literary works always involve a **kind** of contemplation on life and social observation.

所有他们的作品都给我一**种**神圣，一**种**清明，一**种**灵魂沐浴的通畅爽洁，一**种**对于人生价值包括人生的一切困扰和痛苦的代价的理解和肯定。

All of their works bring me a **kind** of sacredness, a **kind** of enlightening, a **kind** of thorough satisfaction to soul, a **kind** of understanding and affirmation of the value of life, including the cost of all the worries and pains in life.

The third subtype of the experiential category are those measure words that represent both quantity and quality features of the Thing. In other words, the Thing is measured in terms of its quantity and quality all at the same time. Therefore, measure words of this type play dual roles: on the one hand, they construe the quantity of the Thing, and at the same time, they indicate the qualities through which the Thing is measured. Unlike the Measure of quality, this type of Measure construes a much more specific property of the Thing. For example, 张 *spread* is used to measure things that can spread or open or set out in space, such as 一张纸 *a piece of paper*，一张嘴 *a (open) of mouth*，三张床 *three (sets) of bed*; 台 *stand/desk* is used to measure things that can stand on a flat surface, such as 一台电脑 *a (desk) of computer*；这台缝纫机 *a (stand) of sewing machine*; 杯 *cup/glass* is used to measure things can be contained in a cup, such as 一杯水 *a cup of water*；两杯酒 *two glasses of wine*；三杯米 *three cups of rice*.

The other major selection on the system of MEASURE reflects the logicosemantic relations between the Measure and the Thing, and all the potential relations fall into the three

expansion types: elaboration, extension and enhancement. Table 4-18 presents each type and subtype with examples:

Type of Measure	Subtypes		Examples
Elaboration	expository	state	滴drop，座block/mount，股ply/strand，坨lump，页page/leaf，汪pool
		shape (with state)	扇flap，片slice，叶leaf，条strip/bar，行line，张spread, 束bunch/bundle
		size	粒particle/grain，颗grain，
		animacy	位(for human), 只(for animals and insects)，匹(for horses)，头(for dunkeys,cows, cattles)
	exemplification	instance	个item，件item
		type	类type，种kind
Extension	aggregate		群group，堆pile，批batch，点bit
	measure (repository)		杯cup/glass，箱box，盒box，盘plate，包bag
	partitive		头head，尾tail，边side，面face
Enhancement	space	time	阵spell/period，段period，天day
		location	场field，台stage，间room,屋room
	Motion: manner		把 handful，摞stack，撮pinch，串skewer/string，口mouthful
	frequency		顿time(meal)，次time，番time

Table 0-18: Types of Measure

Up to now, my discussion has covered five functional elements on the experiential structure of the nominal group: Thing, Classifier, Epithet, Qualifier, and Measure. These five elements are experientially significant in that they provide resources to construe participant roles by representing different aspects of the general experience of a participant. When relevant, some of these five elements will be brought forth again in the following chapters, as

many of these functional elements simultaneously play roles in more than one metafunctions (see further in Section 4.2.2).

1.8   Case study

In this final section, I will present a case study where the focus will be given to the analysis of Thing and its modification environment in different types of text. The case study aims to serve as an illustration of how the investigation of nominal groups will contribute to the analysis of the text.

Altogether four texts are selected for analysis. The texts have their distinctive descriptive focuses, but all of them are about Things – in the following discussion, I will refer to these things as "**topic things**", since they are the main topic of description in the texts. Table 4-19 presents the topic thing of each text and the Thing type they belong to:

Text	Topic thing	Thing type
海上日出	The sun rise	Abstract: phenomenon
武夷山九曲溪小记	The Nine-curve Creek	Enhancement: location
松鼠	The squirrel	Conscious: animal
我的老师	My teacher	Conscious: human

Table 0-19: Topic thing type

Table 4-20 presents the context information of each text.

	Field	Tenor	Mode
Text 1: 海上日出 *The sun rise at sea*	The socio-semiotic function of this text is recreating in the form of a modern Chinese essay (sanwen). The domain is concrete and concerned with detailed descriptions of a sun rise at the sea.	The institutional roles are a well known writer to the general readers. The evaluation of the experiential domain is positive and emotional.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation.
Text 2: 武夷山九曲溪小记 *The Nine-curve Creek in Wuyi Mountain*	The socio-semiotic function of this text is recreating in the form of a modern Chinese essay (sanwen). The domain is concrete and concerned with the detailed scenery features of the Nine-curve Creek in Wuyi Mountain.	The institutional roles are a writer to the general readers with a sense of sharing. The evaluation of the experiential domain is positive and emotional.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation.
Text 3: 松鼠 *The squirrel*	The socio-semiotic function of this text is expounding. The domain is concrete and concerned with all kinds of features of squirrels.	The institutional roles are an expert of squirrels to the primary school students; an adult to children. The evaluation of the experiential domain is neutral.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation. Some simple terminologies are used.
Text 4: 我的老师 *My teacher*	The socio-semiotic function of this text is recreating in the form of a memoir. The domain is concrete and concerned with the recount of the writer's childhood teacher.	The institutional roles are a writer to the general readers with a sense of sharing his childhood experience. The evaluation of the experiential domain is very emotional.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation.

Table 0-20: Context of sample texts

My investigation of these texts mainly aims to answer the following questions: 1. As the focus of the description, how are the properties of a topic thing represented in the text, as modifiers within a nominal group or as a participant in a clause? 2. What participant roles are construed by the nominal groups containing topic things? 3. What factors will influence the predominance of the topic thing be selected in the construal of participant roles?

In the following analysis, I used SysConc, the computational tool, to do a concordance search of the words representing the topic thing in each text – this is to see the local text environment where these topic things are presented. And then I did a frequency search of words containing one and two characters, which are the most typical lexical realisations of nouns in Chinese – this step aims to investigate if the topic things are predominantly selected to construe participant in the text, and if there is any other things that are more predominantly

presented than the topic thing in the text. For the sake of clarity, I will refer to those things that are predominantly chosen to take participant roles as "**predominant thing**". For each text, I will present the analytical results together with my comments.

Text 1: 海上日出 The sunrise at sea

Text type: recreating

Major process types in the text: material and relational (attributive)

Predominant thing: the sun

Nouns realising predominant thing	Roles in clause	Roles in nominal group		other	Also as topic thing?
		Thing		other	
		With modifier(s)	Without modifiers		
太阳the sun，东西 thing，它 it	Actor (8), Carrier (1) Phenomenon (1)	Epithet (1)	(9)	Qualifier (1) Possessive deictic (1)	No

Table 0-21: Analytical result of 海上日出

Comment: The topic thing 日出 (sunrise) itself is not the predominant choice in construing participant roles. Rather, it is the sun, the centre of the phenomenon, and its various lexical equivalents in the text, that are predominantly selected to take on the participant roles. The sun in this text is very active in that it takes the role of actor in material clauses prevalently. It construes changes in time and space, through which the process of sunrise is depicted. When the sun is represented in nominal groups, it is seldom modified by other elements; more often, the description focuses on what it does and what effects it creates to the other things (cloud, water, light, and so on). It is also interesting to note that, in the 2nd dominant process type in the text, the attributive relational process, the sun is not the major selection for the role of 'carrier'. Rather, it is other things that are related to the sun, such as the light and the surrounding cloud, that construe carrier. In general, the picture of sunrise is depicted by describing the changes of the sun as well as the features of its surroundings when these changes take place.

Text 2: 武夷山九曲溪小记 The Nine-curve Creek in Wuyi Mountain

Text type: recreating

Major process types in the text: relational (attributive), mental and material

Predominant thing: I (the author), the mountain, the water

Nouns realising predominant thing	Roles in clause (number of instances)	Roles in nominal group (number of instances)		other	Also as topic thing?
		Thing			
		With modifier(s)	Without modifiers		
我 I	senser (10), actor (4) goal (2) recipient (2) receiver (1)	0	(19)	Qualifier (2)	No
山 the mountain, 丘 壑 gullies，小丘小 壑 hills and gullies	Phenomenon (8) Carrier (8) Behaver (4) Goal (3) Sayer (3) Identifier (1) Assigner (1) Range (1) Actor (1) Circumstance (1)	Epithet (10) Qualifier (4)	(17)	（0）	No
水 water, 溪水 the creek water	Carrier (6) Phenomenon (5) Actor (3) Goal (2) Behaver (1) Sayer (1) Assigner (1) Ranger (1) Circumstance (4)	Epithet (10) Qualifier (3)	(11)	(0)	No

Table 0-22: Analytical result of 武夷山九曲溪小记

Comment: The topic thing, 九曲溪 *the Nine-curve Creek*, is not the major selection to construe participant roles. Rather, 我 *I*，山 *mountain*, and 水 *water* appear on the top of the frequency list. This is not surprising as the topic thing is a complex thing of location, and it is through the key values in this location, in this example, water and mountain, as well as the visitor that the description is unfolded. This is realised by 我 *I* perceiving 山 *mountain* and 水 *water*. That explains the dominant choice of I as senser, and 山 and 水 as phenomenon. The features of the 山*mountain* and 水 *water* are represented not only as attribute in a relational clause – thus 山*mountain* and 水*water* become carriers, but also as epithet modifying 山 *mountain* and 水*water* in nominal groups. This is perhaps related to the general tone of the text, as the whole text reflects some emotional poetic prosody. Another interesting finding in this text is that the 山*mountain* and 水*water*, although unconscious, are selected to function as sayer and behaver, which are the roles that only conscious beings can take. This reflects a prevalent technique used by writers of travelling notes in Chinese: the objects in the scenery are often personified as human, through which the author expresses his feelings and thoughts.

In a sense, the travelling notes in Chinese are often charged with lots of emotions.

Text 3: 松鼠 The squirrel

Text type: exploring

Major process types in the text: material and relational (attributive)

Predominant thing: the squirrel

Nouns realising predominant thing	Roles in clause (number of instances)	Roles in nominal group (number of instances)			Also as topic thing?
		Thing		other	
		With modifier(s)	Without modifiers		
松鼠 the squirrel，它们 they	Actor (27), Carrier (5) Goal (1) Behaver (1) Senser (1)	(0)	(34)	Possessive deictic (1)	Yes

Table 0-23: Analytical result of 松鼠

Comment: The squirrel is both the topic thing and the predominant thing in the text. When realised as a thing in a nominal group, 松鼠*the squirrel* is presented as a thing-only nominal group, without any other modifiers. For the two major process types in the text, material and attributive relational, 松鼠 *the squirrel* and the other nominal equivalents become a main resource in construing the participant role of actor in the material clauses (with 27 instances out of 42 material clauses), but not in the relational clauses (with only 5 instances out of 35 relational clauses). In the latter, it is some other nouns that are selected to construe the participant of 'carrier' in the relational clauses, and these nouns function as facet, representing a part of the squirrel body, such as 面容*face*，眼睛 eyes，*身体 body*，四肢*the four limbs* and so on. So it is clear that the characteristics of the topic thing 松鼠 is represented as attribute in relational clauses rather than as epithet or qualifier in a nominal group. The description focuses on the squirrel's daily activities and the detailed features of its body parts.

Text 4: 我的老师 *My teacher*

Text type: sharing

Major process types in the text: mental and material

Predominant thing: my teacher

Nouns realising predominant thing	Roles in clause (number of instances)	Roles in nominal group (number of instances)			Also as topic thing?
		Thing		other	
		With modifier(s)	Without modifiers		
老师 the teacher，蔡老师 Miss Cai，她 she	Phenomenon (9) Actor (7), Carrier (2) Senser (2) Goal (2) Token (2) Behaver (1)	Possessive deictic (3) Classifier (1) Qualifier (1)	(14)	Possessive deictic (2) Qualifier (4)	Yes

Table 0-24: Analytical result of 我的老师 *My teacher*

Comment: The topic thing, the teacher, is also the predominant thing in construing participant roles. And the participant roles taken by 老师 *my teacher* and its equivalent match the major process types in the text: the 'teacher' functions as either actor in the material clauses or 'phenomenon' in the mental clauses. Interestingly, the characteristics of the protagonist are represented neither in the form of epithets nor relational clauses. She is featured through the description of what she does to her pupils (thus as 'actor') and how the pupils perceive and feel about her (thus as 'phenomenon').

The analysis of the above four texts brings some interesting implications. First, when a thing becomes the topic of description, it is not necessarily the predominant selection in construing participant roles. Rather, the selection has something to do with the thing type. For example, it seems to be hard to describe a complex thing directly and the description tends to focus on something more concrete and which is related to the topic thing . This can be demonstrated by a number of instances where nouns realising a topic thing become modifying elements in a nominal group (refer to the column of "Other" in tables 4-21 to 4-24). This also indicates that concrete Things tend to have a better modification potential than complex Things. Secondly, it seems much common to use relational clauses than the "Epithet + Thing" structure to feature a thing in Chinese. It is reflected in all the four texts I have investigated, but more data analysis is needed to prove this. Furthermore, when epithet is remarkably used to modify the thing, it is often an implication of emotion. Thirdly, the study of participant roles taken by the topic thing can present a general but clear profile of how it is described in the text, which can serve as a useful tool for the teachers of writing classes.

1.9   Summary

In this chapter, I have investigated the experiential resources of the nominal group, and introduced the systems of five major elements that are important in terms of the experiential metafunction: the systems of THING TYPE, CLASSIFICATION, EPITHESIS, QUALIFICATION and MEASURE . Many of these elements are multi-metafunctional, such as Thing and Epithet, which are also important interpersonally, and they will be discussed again in the coming chapters where relevant.

Chapter 5

Interpersonal resources of Chinese nominal groups

1.1 Introduction

In this Chapter, I will investigate the interpersonal resources of the nominal group. From an interpersonal perspective, nominal groups are significant in the following aspects: firstly, in terms of speech function, especially in realising the fundamental types of speech role, a nominal group provides choices to either give or demand further information about a referent; secondly, in terms of Person, nominal groups provide resources to realise a Person choice as an interactant or a non-interactant; thirdly, in terms of modality, the system of THING TYPE provides resources to metaphorically realise probability and usuality, and post-Deictic provides resources to elaborate the degree of modality; fourthly, nominal groups are very significant in enacting attitude. The following discussion will be unfolded along these aspects: in Section 5.2, I will introduce an interpersonally oriented nominal group system, which presents an overview of the major interpersonal selections in terms of 'nominal mood', 'person', 'attitude' and 'modality'; in Sections 5.3 to 5.6, I will present detailed discussions about these major selections, with Section 5.3 focusing on nominal mood, Section 5.4 on subject person, 5.5 on attitude, and 5.6 on modality. In the final section of this chapter, Section 5.7, a case study will be presented to illustrate how the interpersonal analysis of the nominal group can reflect the overall interpersonal colour of the texts.

1.2 An interpersonal nominal group system

Figure 5-1 presents a nominal group system with interpersonal orientation:

nominal
mood ──────►┌ determinative
            │
            └ interrogative

subject
person ─────►┌ interractant
             │
             └ non-interractant

attitude ───►┌ neutral
             │
             └ attitudinal ──►┌ positive
                              │
                              └ negative

modality ──►┌ modalisation ──►┌ probability
            │   │
            │   └ usuality
            │
            └ modulation ────►┌ obligation
                              │
                              └ inclination

Figure 0-1: Interpersonal nominal group system

The system presented in Figure 5-1 is a very general one, which gives only an overview of the major interpersonal selections that nominal groups can provide. As can be seen, nominal groups provide resources to make four interpersonal selections: nominal mood, subject personal, attitude and modality. This system reflects the realisational relations between semantics and lexicogrammar. For example, attitude can be enacted through the choice of lexical words with certain connotations, or through a grammatical metaphor. For another example, the selection on Person can reflect the social distance between the speaker and the listener. In terms of realisation, these interpersonal selections can be realised by different functional elements of a nominal group, such as Deictic, Epithet, Numerative or Thing. In the following three sections, I will explore these major selections more specifically.

1.3   Nominal mood

The term "nominal mood" is borrowed from Matthiessen's *Lexicogrammatical Cartography* (see Matthiessen 1995: 687), where he uses the term to refer to the distinction between Determinative and Interrogative. Determinative represents the choice where the nominal group gives information about a referent, whereas Interrogative represents the choice where the nominal group is used to demand information about a referent. Interpersonally, this distinction is important in two aspects. On the one hand, it corresponds to the two fundamental choices in terms of speech role at the semantic level: giving and demanding. On the other hand, the choice of Interrogative is also significant in realising the mood type at the clause level. The following discussion will focus on these two options.

1.3.1 Determinative

A determinative nominal group gives information about the Thing. It may appear in any types of clauses, and in the case of declarative clauses, it takes the positions of subject and/or complement. In terms of realisation, nouns, pronouns and determiners can all realise a determinative nominal mood. Examples:

> Determinative nominal mood realised by a noun:
> As proper noun (names)
> 埃菲尔铁塔是世界著名建筑，法国的象征之一。
> The Eiffel Tower is a worldly famous building, a symbol of France.
> 你认识小王吗？
> Do you know Xiao Wang?
> 北京是中国的首都和政治文化中心。
> Beijing is China's capital and the country's centre of politics and culture.
>
> As general noun
> 花园里种满了玫瑰花。
> In the garden roses were planted everywhere.
> 埃菲尔铁塔对面的广场上聚集了数千名示威人员。
> On the square opposite the Eiffel Tower, thousands of demonstrators gathered.
>
> Determinative nominal mood realised by a pronoun:
> as personal pronoun
> 咱们看月食去。

<u>Let's</u> go to watch the eclipse of the moon.

<u>你</u>叫什么名字？

What name are <u>you</u> called?

as demonstrative pronoun

<u>这</u>是什么？

What is <u>this</u>?

光讲<u>这些</u>没有用。

It's useless to talk about <u>these</u>.

Determinative nominal mood realised by a determiner

as possessive determiner

两只孔雀咬住<u>她的</u>筒裙，不让她走。

Two peacocks gripped <u>her</u> tube skirt, not letting her go.

<u>小鹿的</u>玫瑰花开了。

<u>Little Deer's</u> roses flowered.

as demonstrative determiner

<u>那个</u>人很可疑。

<u>That</u> man looks very suspicious.

<u>这个</u>问题非常棘手。

<u>This</u> problem is very touch.

As shown in the examples above, when a noun is used to realise the determinative mood, it gives the information about a referent by giving it a name, either a specific one or a general one. When a determinative pronoun is used, it takes the position of Head/Thing in a nominal group and gives the information about a referent either by referring to it from the standpoint of speaker (in the case of personal pronoun，such as 你 *you*，我 *I*), or by referring to it according to the proximity to the speaker (in the case of demonstrative pronoun, such as 这 *this*，那 *that*). In either case, the speaker assumes that the Thing being referred to is identifiable to the addressee. When a determiner is used to realise the determinative mood, it comes either as a possessive or demonstrative determiner, and functions as Deictic in the nominal group.

1.3.2 Interrogative

An interrogative nominal group demands information about the referent. The sense of demanding is realised when it is used in an interrogative clause. In Chinese, there are two types of interrogatives: the elemental interrogative (similar to Wh-interrogative in English) and the polar interrogative (similar to yes/no interrogative in English) (see further in Halliday & McDonald 2004: 333). Interrogative nominal groups provide important resources in realising an elemental interrogative clause, which is characterized by the presence of an interrogative word. In terms of realisation, an interrogative nominal mood can be realised by a pronoun, a determiner or a numeral, functioning as Thing, Deictic or Numerative respectively in a nominal group. All of these words are interrogative in nature, demanding certain information about the referent in some way. Table 5-1 presents some examples of the main words used in the Chinese nominal groups in realising the interrogative mood at the clause level:

		Lexical items	Example interrogative clauses
pronoun as Thing/Head	Personal	谁 who	谁动了我的奶酪？Who touched my cheese?
	Demonstrative	什么 *what*，啥 *what* （colloquial）	这是什么？What's this? 你的什么丢了？What did you lose？
determiner as Deictic	Possessive	谁的 whose	谁的书忘在这儿了？Whose book is left here？
	Demonstrative	哪*which*，什么 *what*，啥*what* (colloquial)	这是什么地方？What's this place？ 到底是哪扇门没关呢？Which door on earth is left open？
numeral as Numerative	Ordinative	几 which/what	你在看第几页？What page are you reading？
	Quantitative	多少 how many，几 how many	一共有多少只小羊？Altogether how many little lambs？

Table 0-1: interrogative words in Chinese nominal groups

These interrogative items are very similar to the wh- items in English in realising an interrogative clause. However, unlike English where the wh- elements always come at the beginning of an interrogative, the interrogative items in Chinese remain in the same place in an interrogative as in a declarative. Therefore, it is possible to say that these interrogative

items are crucial in realising an elemental interrogative in Chinese.

The functional position of the interrogative item within a nominal group determines which part of the information about the referent is demanded. For example, as table 5-1 shows, when the interrogative item functions as Thing, the information demanded is about the most fundamental experiential information about the referent, and the use of different types of interrogative pronouns may indicate the consciousness of the referent: as human or non-human. When the interrogative item functions as Numerative, then the information requested is about either the quantity or order of the referent. Sometimes, two interrogative items may appear in the same nominal group, thus demand two types information about the referent at the same time:

> 谁的什么丢了？
>
> <u>Whose what</u> was lost?

Apart from an elemental interrogative clause, the above interrogative words may also appear in a declarative clause in Chinese, which is typically a mental clause in terms of experiential metafunction, and the information in question is the projection of the mental process. Examples:

> 我不知道你在想<u>什么</u>。
>
> I don't know <u>what</u> you are thinking about.
>
> 我记得你叫<u>什么名字</u>。
>
> I remember <u>what name</u> you are called.

Sometimes, these interrogative items may also appear in an imperative clause, which is typically a "let be" interrogative mental clause:

> 让我猜猜你是<u>谁</u>。
>
> Let me guess <u>who</u> you are.
>
> 让我想想这到底是<u>什么原因</u>。
>
> Let me think <u>what reasons</u> this is for.

As the above examples show, whether in a declarative, interrogative, or an imperative clause, the presence of these interrogative words gives no information about the referent. Therefore, the local mood, that is the nominal mood, of the nominal groups where these items are functioning, remains interrogative, though the mood at the clause level may be of a different type.

1.4   Person

The system of PERSON provides choices between speech roles as interactant or as non-interactant in a speech exchange. Figure 5-2 presents the Chinese PERSON system. In the following discussion, I will explore each major selection on the system with examples. In Section 5.4.1, I will discuss the three subcategories under "interactant" in detail, focusing on how these selections will bring impact on the interpersonal meanings being conveyed. In Section 5.4.2, I will mainly examine the two types of realisation of "non-interactant' in lexicogrammar: as pronominal and as nominal.

Figure 0-2: System of PERSON

1.4.1 Interactant

The role of an 'interactant' is either presented as speaker or addressee in a speech exchange. A typical realisation of speaker is through the use of a first person pronoun, such as 我 or 我们, and correspondingly, the typical realisation of addressee is through the second person

pronouns, such as 你 *you* (singular), or 你们 *you* (plural). In Chinese, however, there is another option in terms of realisation of an interactant role, where a word other than a first person or second person pronoun is selected to represent the role of a speaker or an addressee. As this mode of realisation is not as direct as the use of a personal pronoun, which often relies on the context to gain the interactiveness of the speech role, I present it as an "indirect" option of realisation on the system of PERSON. Correspondingly, the direct realisation of an interactant, that is by means of a first or second person pronoun, is presented as the other option in terms realisation. Table 5-2 presents some examples under each subcategory of "realisation".

		direct	indirect
Interactant	speaker	我 *I*，我们*we*，咱们*we* (colloquial)	我商场 *this/our shopping centre*，本公司*this/our company*，我校 *this/our school*，本人 *I* (formal, written)，笔者 *this author=I*，记者 *the reporter=we/I* (in news texts)
	addressee	你们*you* (plural)，你 *you* (singular)，您 *you* (honorific)	贵公司*your company* (formal)，你们学校 *your school*，大家 *everyone*，各位 *everyone*

Table 0-2: Examples of direct and indirect interactants

In the following subsections, I will examine each selection in details.

1.4.1.1 Direct Speaker

When the role of Speaker is realised directly in Chinese, it opens for more options: the speaker is presented either as singular (i.e. the speaker himself) or as plural (i.e. the group that the speaker represents). As for the latter, there are further two options: as general, where the inclusion of the addressee as a part of the group represented by the speaker is not certain and shall depend on the context, or as 'inclusive', where the addressee is included as part of the group. Examples:

Speaker: singular

<u>我</u>每天都去上学 。

<u>I</u> go to school everyday.

Speaker: plural: general

<u>我们</u>都喜欢小动物。

<u>We</u> all like little animals.

Speaker: plural: inclusive

快下雨了，<u>我们</u>快点回家吧。

It is going to rain, so <u>let's</u> rush home.

<u>咱们</u>把林奶奶扶到楼上去吧。

<u>Let's</u> help Granny Lin go upstairs.

As illustrated by the above examples, the pronoun 我们 *we*, which represent a plural form of speaker in Chinese, may be used as either a speaker+ in general, or as a speaker+ that includes the addressee. Speakers have to rely on the specific context for judgement. In comparison, another plural pronoun, 咱们 *we*, is always inclusive, which is equivalent to "let's" in English when used in an imperative clause. The pronoun is commonly used in informal spoken texts, and often comes with an indication of a short interpersonal distance between the speaker and the addressee.

1.4.1.2 Indirect Speaker

When the role of Speaker is realised indirectly, a noun, other than a personal pronoun, is selected. These nouns, when taking the role of Speaker, in general fall into two groups on the system of THING TYPE: they either represent institutions, or the speaking person (i.e., the speaker). When an institution is presented as the Speaker, the nominal group that construes it has a typical structure of Deictic + Thing. There are two deictic items that are commonly used in this situation: 我 (*I/we*)，and 本(*one's own*), both referring to the speaker. And the Thing in this structure is a general type, representing the name of a kind of institution. This type of nominal groups often appears in a formal discourse. Examples:

Indirect Speaker (Deictic + Thing)

<u>我公司</u>是一家集设计、生产、销售为一体的大型服装生产企业。

<u>We company</u> are a large apparel company, which is a designer, manufacturer, and seller at the same time.

= **We** are a large apparel company, which is a designer, manufacturer, and seller at the same time.

本商场对本次促销活动中商品的价格拥有最终解释权。

This store have the right of final explanations about the prices of the goods involved in this sale.

= **We** have the right of final explanations about the prices of the goods involved in this sale.

Where a speaker uses a noun, rather than a first person pronoun, to refer to himself, it tends to be formal, especially in written discourse. For example, a commonly used noun referring to the speaker himself, 本人（*this person*）, typically appears in formal statements:

本人谨此声明，有关收购交易系正常商业行为，交易过程均遵循内地法律法规和香港上市公司规则进行。本人对有关造谣中伤、蓄意捏造事实的言行保留采取法律行动之权利。

This person (=I) hereby declare that the relevant acquisitions are normal business practices, and the process of the acquisitions all comply with the law and regulations of Mainland China and the rules of the listed companies in Hong Kong. **This person(=I)** reserve the right to take any legal actions against the behaviour of defamation, and intentional fabrication of facts.

Sometimes in a written text, a speaker will use 笔者 "the person holding the pen" (=*this author)* or 作者 *this writer/author* to refer to himself, which is considered as a common feature in academic discourse – an equivalent example in English academic writing is "the current author".

As demonstrated by the discussion above, the use of a non-interactant item to realise an interactant choice can be interpreted as a grammatical metaphor, which is significant interpersonally. When a noun, instead of a first person pronoun, is selected to take the role of 'speaker', the actual sayer is distancing himself from the role of 'speaker', and thus increases the objectivity of the manner of saying. This seems to be a common motive behind the selection of an indirect Speaker role. The category of "indirect Speaker" represents a common selection in the formal Chinese discourse, which is highly different from the situation in English. It is believed that further studies within a multilingual framework of language comparison are needed to cast a new light on the realisations of Speaker roles.

1.4.1.3 Direct Addressee

When a second person pronoun is used as an addressee in an exchange of speech, it is defined as a 'direct addressee'. In Chinese, there are three second person pronouns that can be used to refer to an addressee: 你 *you*，您 *you* (honorific), and 你们 *you*. The first pronoun, 你 *you*, is the most generally used one in addressing the listener, and it has a plural form, 你们

you, which is used to refer to a group of listeners. The other singular pronoun for addressee, 您*you*, is an honorific one, the use of which means to show the speaker's respect towards the addressee. Therefore, it is often used to refer to an addressee with a higher social status than the speaker, or between two people of considerable social distance. But in Beijing and its surrounding areas of North China, 您 *you* is also commonly used in dialogues between two people of a long social distance, such as between strangers, and the purpose of using an honorific pronoun is to show politeness. There has been some ongoing debates about the use of 您们 *you* (plural and honorific), the honorific plural form of 您 *you*. As it is not widely accepted in major Chinese lexicographic works, the discussion here will not cover the term. The example below is the Chinese translation of a Russian poem by Alexander Pushkin. The translation was done by a well-known translator, Feng Chun, whose translation of the poem serves a good purpose for illustration:

你和您

You (general) and you (honorific)

她无意中失言，把空泛的<u>您</u>

With a slip of tongue, she didn't use the feelingless "***you***" (honorific)

说成了亲热而随便的<u>你</u>

Instead it became a sweet and casual "***you***" (general)

于是在我痴情的心中

so in my loving soul

唤起了种种甜蜜的情思

all the sweet thoughts of her were evoked

我若有所思地站在她面前

Thoughtfully I was standing in front of her

目不转睛地把她凝视

with nothing but her in my eyes

我对她说："<u>您</u>多么可爱！"

I said to her: "how lovely "***you***" (honorific) are!"

心里却在说："我多么爱<u>你</u>！"

but at the bottom of my heart I was saying: "How much I love "***you***" (general)!"

1.4.1.4 Indirect Addressee

When the role of "addressee" is not realised by a second person pronoun, it is defined as an "indirect addressee". The nominal groups that can realise an indirect addressee can be further

categorised according to the specifiability and the deicticity of the referent. Table 5-3 presents a general picture of the choices in Chinese with examples.

There are a few points that need to be further discussed based on the examples in Table 5-3. Firstly, there is one pronominal, 大家 (everyone)，which is not a second person pronoun, that can be selected as an indirect addressee. It is commonly used in spoken texts in addressing a group of audience.

		Nominal		Pronominal
		Deictic	Non-deictic	
Indirect addressee	Specific	贵公司 **your** (honorific) company 你校 your school	领导 leader = you	
	Non-specific	各位同学 **every** student=everyone		大家 everyone

Table 0-3: Different types of indirect addressee

Secondly, when a nominal is selected to take the role of addressee, it can be further categorised in terms of its specifiability and deicticity. In referring to a specific addressee, the speaker may select a nominal group with a Deictic, which typically happens when the addressee is an institution rather a human. And there two commonly used possessive determiners functioning as Deictic in this situation: 贵 (honorific 'your') and 你 (general 'your'), which are similar to 您 (honorific) *you* and 你 (general) *you* respectively in the findings of direct addressee. However, when the honorific determiner 贵 (honorific 'your') is selected, it can only modifies an institution or organisation represented by the actual listener/reader in the exchange. Similarly, the purpose of using such an honorific term is to show respect or politeness, and at the same time also indicates a certain distance between the speaker and the addressee. Therefore, 贵 (honorific 'your') is usually used in a formal discourse, written texts in particular. More examples:

我们对**贵**公司目前的运营情况深表担忧。
We are deeply concerned about the current operation of **your** company.

贵校的外语专业一直名列全国前列。

The foreign language programme at **your** university has remained at the top of the national list.

Compared with the honorific 贵 (honorific 'your'), its equivalent in general context, 你 *you*, is used to indicate a different tenor relationship between the speaker and the addressee with less respect being indicated.

Thirdly, when a non-deictic nominal group is selected to refer to the addressee indirectly, it implies a huge gap between the speaker and the addressee both in terms of social status and social distance. It is generally perceived by Chinese speakers that it is neither respectful nor polite enough to use a second person pronoun to directly address a listener/reader whose social status or rank in a given context is obviously higher than the speaker himself. This common perception gives a speaker an understandable reason to avoid a direct addressee, even in the case of a face-to-face exchange. Instead a general nominal group is selected to take the role as an indirect address. And this nominal group usually includes a title attached to the addressee from the speaker's perspective, which functions as an acknowledgement by the speaker of the unequal relations with the addressee. Therefore, this kind of realisations typically occurs in a context where a speaker with lower social status addressing to a listener/reader with higher status. Examples:

以下是昨天的会议纪录，请<u>领导</u>审阅。

Below is the minutes of the meeting yesterday for <u>leader (=you)</u> to check and approve.

请<u>总理先生</u>就中澳贸易的前景发表一下看法。

Can <u>Mr. Prime Minister</u> express your views on the prospect of China-Australia trade.

请<u>首长</u>放心，我们坚决完成任务。

<u>Mr. Director</u> (you) may rest assured that we will definitely complete the tasks.

Fourthly, when addressing to a group of audience, apart from the pronouns, there is a non-specific Deictic item in Chinese which can be used: 各位 (every). This determiner has good potential to modify all types of nouns, irrespective of social values being connotated, and is non-specific to anyone of the group being addressed. Examples:

请允许我向<u>各位来宾</u>表示热烈的欢迎！

Please allow me to extend our warm welcome to <u>every guest</u> here!

我希望各位同学能利用假期多参加社会实践。

I hope every student (=everyone) will involve in some social activities during the holiday.

1.4.2 Non-interactant

The role of a "non-interactant" represents the person outside a speech exchange, which is neither a speaker nor an addressee. In traditional grammar, it corresponds to role of the "third person". In terms of realisation, a non-interactant may be realised by either a pronoun or a nominal group. Table 5-4 presents the third person pronouns in Chinese that can function as non-interactant.

	human		Non-human
	male	female	
singular	他	她	它
plural	他们	她们	它们

Table 0-4: Third-person pronouns in Chinese

As can be seen, the situation here is very similar to English, except that the plural forms of Chinese third-person pronouns are further distinguished by gender and humanity. When a third person pronoun is used, the speaker assumes that his listener/reader is able to identify whom the referent is, as this type of pronouns is typically anaphoric in the text. For example:

一你找谁？

Whom are you after?

一我找小王。<u>他</u>回来了吗？

I'm looking for Xiao Wang. Is <u>he</u> back?

When a non-interactant is realised by nominal group other than a pronoun, there are two further choices: the speaker may use a proper name to refer to the non-interactant if the referent bears one, or a nominal representing a name of a general kind. It is worth noting that, the use of a proper name in referring to a non-interactant typically happens with an assumption that the name of the referent is the given information to both parties in an interaction. Example:

一 你刚才在和谁讲话？

Whom were you talking to?

一 小王。

    Xiao Wang.

—小王是谁?

    Who's Xiao Wang ?

—住在隔壁的那个小伙子，我以为你们认识呢。

    The man living next door. I thought you knew each other.

Alternatively, a general name may also be selected to represent a non-interactant, in which case further selections become available in terms of deicticity. For those general names modified by a deictic, the distinctions can be further specified : (a) in terms of demonstrative proximity to the speaker, which comes with options of demonstrative determiners such as 这 *this* and 那*that*; (b) in terms of the possessive relation from the perspective of the speaker, which comes with options of possessive determiners such as 我的*my*，你的*your*，and 他的 *his*.

1.5 Attitude

The term 'attitude' is very semantic, which can be interpreted as a kind of appraisal meaning, and which is related to the speaker/writer's judgements about people's behaviour, and the quality of things in terms of social value and social standard. Nominal groups are an important resource for enacting attitude. The attitude-enacting process is somewhat like colouring: the effect is cumulated as the text unfolds, and attitudinal items are scattered across the text without a regulated position. Many scholars refer to this feature as 'prosodic' – I will quote Halliday's comment as further explanation (Halliday 1979, after Martin 2005:19):

> *Interpersonal meanings cannot easily be expressed as configurations of discrete elements...this interpersonal meaning...is strung throughout the clause as a continuous motif or colouring...the effect is cumulative...we shall refer to this type of realisation as 'prosodic', since the meaning is distributed like a prosody throughout a continuous stretch of discourse (66-67).*

When it comes to nominal groups, this prosodic effect is achieved by a number of resources: attitudinal Epithets, attitudinal Things, some other attitudinal elements such as Deictic and Measure, and delicate lexicogrammatical metaphors. Some resources manifest attitude explicitly, such as attitudinal Epithet and attitudinal Thing, by which the speaker/writer's attitude is expressed through connotation of the lexical items realising the Thing and Epithet. Other resources, such as lexicogrammatical metaphors, manifest attitude more implicitly, where attitude is indirectly enacted through delicate lexical and grammatical

resources. In the following discussions, I will explore these resources in detail. Section 5.5.1 will focus on attitudinal Epithet, and Section 5.5.2 on attitudinal Thing, Section 5.5.3 on some other attitudinal elements functioning in the nominal group, and Section 5.5.4 on lexicogrammatical metaphor.

1.5.1 Attitudinal Epithet

An attitudinal epithet is the epithet that manifests the speaker/writer's attitude. I presented the System of EPITHESIS in chapter 4, where one of the two simultaneous major selections, the 'experiential' selection, has been discussed in detail. In this section, I will review this system with a focus on the other major selection, the 'interpersonal' selection.

When viewed through the interpersonal lens, Epithets, which represent various properties of the Thing, generally fall into two categories in terms of the assessment and opinion of a speaker/writer: they are either 'neutral', representing the objective physical properties of the Thing, such as size, make, thickness, and so on; or 'attitudinal', representing the subjective qualities that are subject to the speaker/writer's assessment. The predominant use of a certain type of Epithet makes an important contribution to the overall interpersonal profile of a text type, and thus should be considered as a discourse feature. For example, neutral epithets are generally used in some expounding taxonomic texts, which are supposed to be objective about the subject matter. In comparison, attitudinal epithets often appear in casual conversations between people in a close social relationship, where one's attitude or opinion about the subject matter is the key commodity for exchange. Attitudinal epithets can be further categorised into two types: positive epithets, which are realised by purr words, and negative epithets, which are realised by snarl words.

Positive	Negative
豪迈 heroic 勇敢 brave 坚韧 tenacious 果断 resolute 乐观 optimistic 幽默 humorous 简朴 simple 实干 practical 坦诚 frank 威严 commanding 悲天悯人 compassionate 叛逆 rebellious 大度 generous	自私 selfish 奸诈 fraudulent 狡猾 cunning 虚伪 hypocritical 残忍 cruel 自卑 self-abased 自大 arrogant 多疑 distrustful 好色 lewd 急躁 impatient

Table 0-5: adjectives used in describing Cao Cao

It is usually very explicit and straight forward for the speaker/writer to enact his attitude through the use of an attitudinal Epithet, as the connotation of an adjective realising a

purr or a snarl word could be manifest enough. Many languages, including Chinese, have rich lexical resources in manifesting a speaker/writer's attitude through the use of certain epithets. Below are examples of different adjectives in Chinese that are used to describe the characteristics of Cao Cao, a highly controversial figure in Chinese history who was described in both literature and history books as both "good" and "bad" at the same time. In modern times, there are a good number of reviews about Cao Cao, which reflect the controversy of his characters. As can be seen in Table 5-5, the adjectives used reflect different attitudes towards him (examples extracted from (Luo, 2011):

The adjectives in Table 5-5 are all about human-related characters, which are highly attitudinal as they are subject to the judgement against social values. And most of the epithets construing the human-related characters can be assessed according to the mainstream social values, so the attitude they enact, either positive or negative, is generally stable in all contexts.

In comparison, some other epithets, which are not human-specific, may be more reliant on the context to be assessed. When discussing the experiential selections of Epithet, I make a distinction between 'material' and 'mental' attributes (see further in Section 4.5.2). It is important to note that the experientially material attributes are not equivalent to 'neutral' interpersonally, as a speaker may assess a material attribute, such as weight, smell, or size, according to a certain standard in order to enact attitude. In other words, the neutrality of a material property is subject to the view of the speaker in a specific context. For example, the property of "being fat" could be interpreted as either 'positive' or 'negative' depending on the context. In Chinese culture, it is generally assumed as a desirable feature when used in describing children, which bears the implication that the children are healthy and strong. However, the same feature may be interpreted as just the opposite when used in describing women, which may come with the indication that the women are overweight.

As a modifier which precedes the Thing, the attitudinal Epithet is significant in setting the tone of the whole group. When explaining the prosodic effect realised by the Epithet, Poynton makes the following comment (Poynton, 1996):

> It may be that the first realisation of attitude as initial Epithet has particular significance, functioning rather like a key signature announcing the tonality of the music it precedes. An initial attitudinal "key" whose scope is, initially, the whole nominal group, spreading it over the rest of the group (and ultimately the utterance), having the effect of foregrounding the attitudinally salient information and backgrounding experiential content (p.217).

1.5.2 Attitudinal Thing

Apart from attitudinal epithets, attitudinal things are also an important resource in manifesting the speaker's attitude. Viewed on the System of Thing Type, the attitudinal things tend to fall into the category of "human" and other human-related categories, such as locutions, ideas, and nominalised attributes, which is not surprising because attitude has much to do with all kinds of human behaviour, material or mental. In comparison, some other thing types, such as animal, objects, substance, and so on, tend to fall into the 'neutral' category. However, this does not mean that these things cannot enact attitude – the attitude is enacted through resources other than Thing, such as Epithet. Table 5-6 presents some commonly used attitudinal Epithets modifying a neutral Thing, 狗（dog）:

Attitudinal Epithet		De	Neutral Thing
Positive	Negative		
活泼active 忠诚loyal 可爱cute 聪明clever	凶恶ferocious 脏兮兮dirty 凶狠fierce	的 de	狗 dog

Table 0-6: different attitudes towards 狗 (dog)

As presented by the example epithets in Table 5-6, the different properties of a dog represented here are interpreted from the human perspective as desirable or undesirable, and these properties do not represent the inherent characteristics of a dog, rather, they represent an attitude, like or dislike, towards a dog from the speaker's perspective.

When it comes to "objects", there are quite a number of nominal resources to enact attitude according the 'value' of the object, which again is interpreted from the speaker's perspective (see Figure 5-3):

Valuable:

财宝treasure
宝贝treasure

Medium:

东西thing 物品objects

Valueless:

废物waste 垃圾rubbish

← ⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯ →

positive   **negative**

Figure 0-3: The value cline of 'object'

As Figure 5-3 shows, the attitude towards an object is enacted through nouns carrying

different 'values' assessed by the speaker.

Metafunctionally speaking, an attitudinal thing plays dual roles: one the one hand, it construes the general experiential Thing type; on the other, it enacts the speaker's attitude.

When construing a human thing, there are even more nominal selections in Chinese which can play dual roles. This can again be demonstrated by the example of Cao Cao - Table 5-7 presents different nouns functioning as attitudinal Thing that are used in describing Cao Cao (examples from Luo, 2011):

Positive	Negative
政治家statesman 军事家military strategist 大文豪 great writer 英雄 hero	奸雄careerist 统治者ruler 奸臣traitor 小人 vile character

Table 0-7: Nouns describing Cao Cao

The examples in Table 5-7 indicate that the interpersonal attitude towards a human thing heavily depends on the cultural values based on which the thing is assessed. For example, "家" in Chinese represents a group of people who are masters in a certain socially recognised profession or domain, which is often valued high in the Chinese culture. So when Cao Cao is referred to as a 军事家*military strategist*, he is assigned to a group different from a simple group of war masters, as the latter does not bear the same high social value in the Chinese culture.

When an attitudinal Thing and an attitudinal Epithet are selected simultaneously, the prosodic effect is harmonious – the preceding Epithet sets the attitudinal tone, which is then strengthened by the attitudinal Thing. Therefore, collocations such as "positive Epithet + neutral/positive Thing" and "negative Epithet + neutral/negative Thing" are very common. Examples:

> Positive Epithet + **Positive Thing**
>
> 曹操是一位 了不起的**政治家、军事家**，也是一个了不起的**诗人**。
>
> Cao cao was a remarkable **statesman, military strategist**, as well as an outstanding **poet**.
>
> Positive Epithet + **Neutral Thing**
>
> 他是个很聪明的**人**。
>
> He was a very clever **man**.
>
> Negative Epithet + **Negative Thing**
>
> 他同时也是一个自私冷酷、奸诈虚伪的**统治者**。

At the same time he was also a <u>selfish and cruel</u> **ruler** who was both <u>fraudulent and hypocritical</u>.

Negative Epithet + Neutral Thing

曹操同时也是一个极端<u>自私</u>的**人**。

Meanwhile, Cao cao was also an extremely <u>selfish</u> **person**.

When the attitudinal tone of an Epithet does not match that of the Thing, it is highly marked, and usually brings some rhetorical effects, such as irony or humour. Examples:

Positive Epithet + Negative Thing

遗忘是<u>可爱的小偷</u>，把幼小心灵的记忆都偷走了。

Forgetting is a <u>lovely thief</u>, who has taken away all the memories of the little heart.

Negative Epithet + Positive Thing

我是个<u>聪明的傻瓜</u>，更是一个<u>愚蠢的天才</u>。

I am such a clever idiot, and a stupid talent.

1.5.3 Other attitudinal elements

Apart from Epithet and Thing, there are some other functional elements on the experiential structure which can enact attitude, which again contribute to the prosodic nature of interpersonal meanings. For example, it is easy to enact attitude with Qualifiers realised by embedded clauses that contain attitudinal lexical items. Examples:

他是个[[**妒忌心**很强]]的人。

He is a person [[who easily gets **jealous**]].

曹操还是个[[<u>充满**才气**]]</u>的诗人。

Cao cao was also a poet [full of **talent**].

这是一个既现代而又[[<u>充满**诗情画意**]]</u>的城市。

This is a city [[which is both modern and **poetic**]].

Sometimes, even measure words could be attitudinal, provided that the Thing being measured is an attitudinal human Thing. Examples:

一小<u>撮</u>敌人(negative)；

A small bunch (=group) of enemies

一<u>伙</u>罪犯(negative)

A gang of criminals

一<u>帮</u>无赖(negative)

A gang/bunch of scoundrels

In terms of Deictic, there is one item realised by a determiner, 某*certain*，which can be

attitudinal when used to modify a human Thing. For example,

> 这是**某**集团的无耻，恰是李先生的光荣！
>
> This reflects the shamelessness of a **certain** group, and also the glory of Mr. Li.
>
> 中方谈斯诺登事件,奉劝**某**些人先照照镜子。
>
> China talks about the incident of Edward Snowden, and asks **certain** people to look at themselves first.

In the above two examples, 某 is used as a non-specific Deictic. It indicates that the speaker intentionally chooses not to identify the referent, though he clearly knows whom he is talking about. Such use bears a strong connotation of contempt and disapproval of the referent.

Another common attitudinal Deictic item in Chinese is 人家 (rén jiā), which may function either as a determiner or a pronoun. When used as a determiner, it modifies a non-interactant, a third party, with an indication that the referent is in an admirable position in some way. When used as a pronoun, 人家 refers to the speaker herself (normally a female), with an implication of showing coquetry. Examples:

> <u>人家</u>小王都走了，你怎么还在这儿？(showing admiration)
>
> <u>(rén jiā)</u> Xiao Wang was gone already, why are you still here?
>
> 袭人啐道："小蹄子，<u>**人家**</u>说正经话，你又来胡拉混扯的了。" (showing coquetry)
>
> "Little bitch!" swore Xiren. "<u>**We**</u> were speaking seriously, but you go talking such nonsense.

Sometimes, there may be a second Deictic element in a nominal group, which is commonly termed as "post-Deictic". The use of a post-Deictic helps further identify the Thing in terms of such qualities as typicality, similarity, usuality and possibility. Interpersonally speaking, post-Deictics may function similarly as a comment adjunct in a clause, which expresses the speaker's attitude to the thing being talked about. Examples:

> 这是个**显而易见**的道理。(comment on the reason of the argument)
>
> This is such an **obvious** point.
>
> 作者选择了两个**典型**的案例来进一步证明自己的观点。(comment on the typicality of the case)
>
> The author picked two **typical** examples to further demonstrate his point.
>
> 你做了一个非常**明智**的决定。 (comment of the accuracy of the decision)
>
> You made a **wise** decision.

Many post-Deictic items may also be used to create the sense of modality, such as

probability and obligation, which will be discussed in Section 5.6.

1.5.4 Interpersonal metaphor in nominal groups

Apart from attitudinal Epithet and/or attitudinal thing, nominal group provides a speaker another resource to enact attitude: through the use of lexical and grammatical metaphors. The following discussion will be divided into two parts: in subsection 5.5.3.1, I will discuss the interpersonal lexical metaphor; and in subsection 5.5.3.2, I will focus on the interpersonal grammatical metaphor.

1.5.4.1 Interpersonal lexical metaphor

In the case of Chinese nominal groups, mainly two lexical resources, nouns and adjectives, are used to create interpersonal lexical metaphor. It happens when a noun congruently realising one Thing type is used to represent another Thing type; or an Epithet representing a attitudinal material feature is used to modify a Thing which does not bear this feature in reality. In both cases, the purpose of using these lexical metaphors is to enact an attitude towards the Thing being talked about, with an intention to either appreciate or to depreciate the referent.

1.5.4.1.1 Thing and lexical metaphor

When the metaphor happens in the position of Thing, it can be further elaborated according to the Thing Type. Figure 5-4 shows the general tendency of presenting a human referent along the attitudinal cline:

Examples:

上帝 God; 女神 goddess；　　　　super-human　　　　positive

猪 pig; 狗 dog; 狐狸 fox　　　　animals　　　　negative

Figure 0-4: Human referent as animal alone the attitudinal cline

As the Figure above shows, metaphorically, when human referent is presented as a high-level conscious being, typically a super-natural human, the speaker indicates a high-level admiration of the person being talked about. In contrast, when a human referent is dehumaned as an animal, there is usually a strong indication of dislike about the person being talked about. Certainly this is only a very general tendency, and further elaboration along the same cline could be presented. For example, within the group of "super-human", further categorisation of good and bad super-human, such as "God" and "ghost", would also follow the same attitudinal cline.

The commonly perceived features and behaviours of the selected animals imply the negative characteristics and behaviours that the human referent has, such as the laziness, nastiness, stupidity of a pig, the adulation and abjection of a dog, and the guile of a fox. There is one exception though, which is the case of describing children. It is common to assimilate children to animals, usually harmless and innocent young animals which share some similar characters such as activeness, cuteness and alertness. The purpose of using lexical metaphors in this case would be to express the speaker's adoration about the child being referred to. Below are some examples of animal words being used in lexical metaphor to express the speaker's like and dislike of the referent:

Negative: Human adult as animal

你这样反对人民领袖，就是地主资本家的*走狗*。

If you are against people's leader, you are **the running dog** (=stooge) of the landlords and capitalists.

大家可千万别被他这个*老狐狸*给骗了。

Please don't be taken in by this old fox (=him).

Positive: Children as animal

春天里，我们是一群快乐的小鸟。

In spring, we are a group of happy little birds.

你可真是个小馋猫啊！

You are such a greedy little cat (= gluttonous).

Sometimes, a speaker may refer to a human being as an unconscious object. In this situation, the attitude is represented by the value carried by the object. Figure 5-5 shows the general tendency:

Examples:

宝贝 baby/treasure   Valuable object   positive

Thing Type   **Attitude**

废物 waste; 垃圾 rubbish   Valueless object   negative

Figure 0-5: Human referent as object along the attitudinal cline

Similar to the case of animal assimilation, when a human is referred to as a high-value object, it indicates the speaker's fondness of the person being talked about. On the contrary, if someone is described as a valueless object, it indicates the speaker's strong dislike of the person. Again, there is some difference between the case of an adult referent and a junior referent. For example, when the name of a general object, 东西 *object/thing*, is used to refer to a human, the attitude can be very different in the two cases:

> **Negative:** Human adult as 东西
> 他这么对我，真不是个<u>东西</u>!
> Treating me so badly, he is not a <u>thing</u> (=a good person)!
> **Positive:** Children as 东西
> 他可真是个调皮的<u>小东西</u>!
> He is such a cheeky <u>little thing</u>!

The discussion above mainly focuses on the human referent. When it comes to a non-human referent, a similar strategy applies: animals as unconscious products (玩意儿*thing*，东西*thing*) and valuable things as valueless things (垃圾*rubbish*, 废物 *trash/waste*) when the attitude goes down. The tendency seems to be one directional only, which is in the direction of devaluation, rather than the other way around. For example, unlike English where animals may also be 'upgraded' to human to express a positive attitude, the upgrading strategy in Chinese mainly applies to human referents.

Till now I have discussed the major contributions that the nominal group can make to enacting attitude. As a highly significant contributor to expressing interpersonal meanings,

nominal groups help create the prosodic attitudinal effect through the 'colours' of different functional elements within the group, which work together harmoniously create the effect.

1.5.4.1.2 Epithet and lexical metaphor

When the experiential function of an Epithet, which congruently construes certain material features of the Thing, completely concedes to its interpersonal function, a lexical metaphor occurs. In this situation, the speaker expresses his attitude by attaching certain material properties to the Thing against reality. For example:

> 趁妈妈还没发现，赶紧把你的**臭**袜子穿上！
>
> Before mum finds out, put on your **stinky** socks quickly!
>
> 不好意思，这是一点**微薄**的小礼，不成敬意。
>
> Excuse me, this is just a **shabby** little gift to show my respect.

In the above examples, the socks may not be "stinky" and the gift may not be "shabby" in reality – the speaker attaches these properties to the Things in order to enact an attitude. Various motives could be behind this type of lexical metaphors, such as to express dissatisfaction towards the listener, to express modesty of the speaker himself, which is a virtue highly valued in the Chinese culture, or to sound ironic. In any of these cases, the experiential meaning realised by the metaphoric Epithet has become minimal and the interpersonal meaning has been maximized. There are some common features shared by the Epithets used in these metaphorical sense: experientially they represent some material features of the Thing, and interpersonally they are attitudinal. In a non-metaphorical context, such Epithets realise meanings in both dimensions. However, in a metaphorical context, the focus has been shifted to the interpersonal dimension, and the experiential feature could be ignored. Compare the examples below:

> 1. 你这是刚从泥巴堆里爬出来吗？瞧瞧你这身脏衣服！
>
> Did you just come out of the muddy puddles? Look the dirty the clothes you wear!
>
> 2. 别碰我！把你那**脏**手从我身上拿开！
>
> Don't touch me! Keep your dirty hands off me!

In the first example, the Epithet construes the experiential feature of "being unclean", which is one of the properties of the Thing "clothes". However, in the second example, the Epithet is heavily attitudinal, with no such an experiential indication of being "unclean" – the "hand" may not look dirty, but it is undesirable.

1.5.4.2 Interpersonal grammatical metaphor

An interpersonal grammatical metaphor uses grammar, rather than lexis, as a resource to create an attitudinal metaphor. In Chapter 4, when introducing the functional elements on the experiential structure of the nominal group, I presented two general tendencies along the "lexis-grammar" cline, and the "stable-transient" cline (see Figure 4-1 and 4-2). These clines indicate that the elements representing the more coherent properties of the Thing, such as Classifier and some material Epithet, tend to be lexically integrated with the Thing, whereas the elements representing the more transient features, such as Qualifier and some non-material Epithet, tend to be loosely related to the Thing through grammar. In Chinese, a hypotactic structural marker 的 is a strong indicator of the relationship between a functional element and the Thing. From an interpersonal point of view, such tendencies bring a new picture (Figure 5-6):

transient   stable

← ───

Qualifier   Epithet   Classifier   Thing

← ───

Most arguable   Non-arguable

Arguability

Figure 0-6: The cline of Arguability

When the properties represented by each functional element within a nominal group is viewed as arguable features of the Thing, their arguabilities are presented in Figure 5-6. As Thing represents the most basic experiential class that defines a participant as it is, the feature it represents is not open for arguments. In contrast, a Qualifier represents features that are the most arguable due to their transient nature. Epithet and Classifier stand in between, with the former representing more arguable features than the latter. In terms of congruent lexicogrammatical organisation, the more arguable features are loosely related to the Thing, where *de* 的 often comes in between, and the less arguable features are more closely organised with the Thing without *de* 的.

When a more arguable feature is represented by an element that is congruently more closely related to the Thing on the structure, the organisation makes the feature less arguable than it should be. In such a case, an interpersonal grammatical metaphor happens. The motive

behind this type of metaphor is to make a certain feature of the Thing less arguable and more defining instead. So the general principle of this type of metaphors is to push the elements on the experiential structure closer to the Thing to reduce the arguability. The extreme case would be to marry the Thing into one word, or to simply take the Thing position. Examples:

Congruent Form	Metaphorical Form
Qualifier + Thing:	As Thing:
有钱人的下一代	富二代
the younger generation of the rich people	the Rich II (=the children of the rich)
当官的下一代	官二代
The younger generation of the officials	The official II (=the children of these officials)
Epithet+ Thing:	As Thing:
神圣的火炬	圣火
Holy torch	Holy flame
豪华住宅	豪宅
Luxury residence	mansion
As Epithet:	As Thing:
她皮肤白皙，富有美丽	白富美
She has fair skin, rich and beautiful.	The white rich and beautiful (= the young women with these attributes)
他高大富有帅气。	高富帅
He is tall, rich and handsome.	The tall, rich and handsome (=the young men with these attributes)

As can be seen, when the features that are congruently realised by Qualifier or Epithet have been presented as Thing or part of the Thing, these features become much more defining and therefore less arguable. In fact, many of the most recent new words used in the cyber world are the results of such metaphorical shift of the grammatical positions.

1.6   Modality in nominal groups

Modality refers to the intermediate degrees, the various kinds of indeterminacy that fall in between "yes" and "no" (see further in Halliday & Matthiessen 2004:146). In terms nominal groups, there are mainly two types of functional element that provide resources for modality: the metaphorical Thing, and the post-Deictic. Both can fall into the two fundamental categories of modality: modalisation and modulation.

The metaphorical Things of modality are realised by two types of nominalisations: metaphorical Things of modalisation are realised by nominalised modal adverbs, and the metaphorical Things of modulation are realised by nominalised modal auxiliaries (for obligations) and nominalised mental verbs (for inclinations). The table below shows the two types of modality being realised by metaphorical Things, and their agnate congruent forms (see Table 5-8):

		Examples	
		Metaphorical things	Congruent forms
Modalisation	Probability	发生这种事的**可能性**极大。 The **possibility** that such thing happens is very high.	极有**可能**发生这种事。 It is very **possible** that such thing happens.
	Usuality	当地震成为**常态**，我们将何去何从？ When earthquake becomes the **norm**, what shall we do?	当地震**经常**发生的时候，我们将何去何从？ When earthquake happens **often**, what shall we do?
modulation	Obligation	这些话无不言简意赅地道出了守信**重要性**和**必要性**。 These words all simply demonstrate the **importance and necessity** of being trustworthy.	这些话无不言简意赅的说明，守信**很重要**，**必须要**守信。 All these words simply show that being trustworthy is very **important**, and one **must** be trustworthy.
	inclination	同学们，你们毕业后有出国的**打算**吗？ Dear students, do you have the **intention** to study abroad after graduating?	同学们，你们毕业后**打算**出国吗？ Dear students, do you **intend to** study abroad after graduating?

Table 0-8: Metaphorical Things of modality

The post-Deictics realising modality also fall into the two categories of 'modalisation' and 'modulation'. They are realised either by adjectives construing the features of probability, usuality and obligation, or by nouns representing inclinations. Table 5-9 presents some examples of post-Deictics of modality:

		Examples
Modalisation	Probability	新事物代替旧事物，是社会发展的**必然**结果。 The new replacing the old is an <u>inevitable result</u> of social development. 广东省发现一例人感染H7N9禽流感**疑似**病例。 <u>One suspected case</u> of H7N9 infection was found in Guangdong province. 重启野味市场，<u>最**可能**</u>的结果就是非典卷土重来。 <u>The most likely outcome</u> of re-opening the game market is the return of SARS.
	Usuality	"多媒体化",这是目前高中语文课,特别是语文公开课中出现的**常见现象**。 The use of multimedia materials is a <u>**common** phenomenon</u> in today's high school Chinese classes, especially in those open classes. 一场**罕见**的沙尘暴23日横扫澳大利亚东部地区。 <u>A rare sandstorm</u> swept across eastern Australia on 23rd.
modulation	Obligation	想象是学生掌握知识的**必要**条件。 Imagination is <u>necessary condition</u> for students to grasp knowledge.
	inclination	找工作之前，如何了解你的**目标**行业呢？ Prior to your job hunting, how will you get to know about the **target** industry?

Table 0-9: Examples of modality realised by post-Deictic

Some modality types realised by nominal group elements may also be graded in terms of degree. For example, in terms of inclination, metaphorical Things provide choices between the high and low ends (see Figure 5-7):

Examples:

决定decision　　　　打算plan　　　　　想法thought　　　念头intention

high　　　　　　　　　　　　　Inclination　　　　　　　　　　low

Figure 0-7: Degrees of Inclination

Till now my discussion has covered all the four major categories on the Interpersonal System of Nominal Groups. In the following section, I will present a case study to demonstrate how the explorations above can be applied in text analysis.

1.7　Case study

In this section, a case study will be presented. The purpose is to demonstrate how, through the

use of nominal groups, one's attitude can be effectively reflected, and how the prosodic effect is achieved.

1.7.1 Context and data

Altogether 37 texts are collected for this case study, all of which are new reports covering the save event: the Beijing Olympic torch relay in Paris. The torch relay met quite a number of protests in Paris, and the media coverage at that time was highly controversial. Below is the comment quoted from Wikipedia:

> *The coverage of the events by the media came under scrutiny during the relay. Chinese media coverage of the torch relay has been distinct in a number of ways from coverage elsewhere. Western reporters in Beijing have described Chinese media coverage as partial and censored (for example when Chinese media did not broadcast Reporters Without Borders' disruption of the torch lighting ceremony), whereas Chinese netizens have in turn accused Western media coverage of being biased. The French newspaper Libération was criticised by the Chinese State press agency Xinhua for its allegedly biased reporting; Xinhua suggested that Libération needed "a stinging slap in the face" for having "insulted the Olympic flame" and "supported a handful of saboteurs". ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2008_Summer_Olympics_torch_relay#Media_cover age](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2008_Summer_Olympics_torch_relay#Media_coverage))*

The controversial media coverage provides some interesting data for the current author to look further into some contrasting interpersonal meanings presented in these new reports. The 37 Chinese news texts were collected after a Google search of "北京奥运火炬(Beijing Olympic torch relay) + 巴黎(Paris)". Then they were groups into two archives:

- Text Archive A: 14 texts from non-mainland Chinese media, based in 7 countries and regions

- Text Archive B: 23 texts from the mainland Chinese media

1.7.2 Analysis

With the help of the computational tool SysConc, a frequency search of two-character words was done for each text archive, and the results are listed below (see Table 5-10):

Frequency list	Text Archive A	Text Archive B
1	火炬 torch	火炬 torch
2	巴黎 Paris	奥运Olympic
3	奥运 Olympic	传递relay
4	传递 relay	圣火holy flame
5	抗议 protest	巴黎Paris
6	(invalid data)[1]	北京Beijing
7	圣火holy flame	(invalid data)
8	法国France	(invalid data)
9	示威demonstration	法国 France
10	西藏Tibet	中国China

Table 0-10: Frequency search of two-character words

The reason for doing a two-character search is because most of the nouns in Chinese are made of two characters, so the search is expected to effectively reflect the dominant Thing types being construed in the texts. As Table 5-10 shows, among the top ten frequently used words in the two archives, more than half appear in both lists: the torch, Olympic, relay, Beijing, Paris, France, and so on. This is not surprising, as they represent the main transitivity roles in the event of torch relay: torch as a participant or a goal, relay as a process, and Paris and France as circumstances. However, there are also some interesting differences between the two lists. For example, in the list for Archive A, 抗议(protest), 示威(demonstration) as well as 西藏(Tibet) appear in the top 10, which cannot be found in the list for Archive B. Also, 圣火 *holy flame* appears in the top 5 in Archive B, but not so frequent in Archive A. Based on the differences, in the following analysis I will focus on the nominal groups related to the following two controversial things: 圣火*holy flame* and 示威 *demonstration*.

About "圣火" (holy flame)

The word "圣火" (*holy flame)* in general context is positive in terms of attitude. It was

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[1] Some items being listed in the frequency search cannot be recognised as a valid grammatical unit, therefore they are presented as "invalid data" here.

originally presented as an "Epithet + Thing" structure: 神圣的火（炬）*holy de flame (torch)*. In the context of Olympic Games, the structure has been condensed into a compound noun through repeated use, which in fact can be considered as a grammatical metaphor: from a nominal group of "Epithet + Thing" into a Thing. As discussed in Section 5.5.4.2, such a metaphorical transformation makes the feature of "being holy" a more defining and inherent property of the Thing "flame". Therefore, it seems that "being holy" should not be arguable in the one-word form 圣火 *holy-flame*. However, the analysis of the word in the two archives brings some interesting contrasts.

The analysis of "holy flame" is done by investigating the local context where the word is used. A concordance search using SysConc displays each surrounding environment of "圣火" at sentence level. In Text Archive A, the search shows that 圣火 mainly plays two types of functional role in the texts: as a Qualifier in a nominal group, or as a Thing construing participant. Below are the detailed examples showing how it is presented:

Archive A:

As Qualifier:

圣火护卫队   the guard squad of the holy flame;

圣火的传递 the relay of the holy flame

As Participant:

Participant role	Process	examples
Actor	躲 hide	圣火只好躲到大巴里 The holy flame cannot help but hide into the bus
	坐sit	圣火坐上了大巴 The holy flame took a bus
	经过pass by	圣火经过巴黎 the holy flame passed by Paris
Goal	熄灭extinguish	圣火被熄灭了两次 the holy flame was extinguished twice
	遭遇encounter	圣火遭遇抗议 the holy flame was met by protests.
	保卫protect	他们的任务是保卫圣火的安全 their job is to protect the holy flame

As the above examples illustrate, the original positive attitude carried by the word "圣 (holy)" has been reduced considerably in these texts: the holy flame doesn't seem be popular as it's supposed to be among people: it had to hide and travel, and it met protests and needed to be protected. The "holy" colour has faded to neutral or even negative. Obviously, the positive tone of the "holy flame" is not responded in its local text environment – in other words, the local context is not positive in matching the positiveness of the "holy flame". As a result, the "flame" has lost its "holiness" in the context.

In contrast, the analysis of the same word in text Archive B shows a different picture:

Archive B:

As Qualifier

圣火护卫 the guard of the holy flame

圣火的光芒 glory of the holy flame

圣火的尊严 the dignity of the holy flame

圣火的神圣 the loftiness of the holy flame

As Thing

北京奥运圣火 the Beijing Olympic holy flame

As participant	Process (material)	examples
Actor	到达 arrive	奥运圣火到达巴黎 The Olympic holy flame arrived in Paris
	传递 relay	奥运圣火开始了在巴黎的传递 The Olympic holy flame started relay
	融化 melt/move	圣火融化巴黎夜雪 the holy flame has melted the night snow in Paris
Goal	捍卫 protect	用生命捍卫圣火 （she）defended the holy flame with her life
	抢夺 snatch	2名藏独分子企图抢夺圣火 Two Tibetan separatists attempted to snatch the holy flame
	绑架 kidnap	企图绑架奥运圣火 （they）attempted to kidnap the holy flame
	欢迎 welcome	他们用中国特色的演出欢迎圣火 They welcome the holy flame with a Chinese show

As shown in the above examples, the positive attitude towards 圣火 is effected displayed in the texts in Archive B. Being presented as a Qualifier in a possessive extension to a number of highly positive "virtues", such as "glory", "dignity" and "loftiness", the holiness of the flame is well presented in the texts. When functioning as an actor, the holy flame not only does ordinary things like "arrive" and "relay", it also does magic, such as melting the night snow. When construed as a goal, the holy flame is portrayed as innocent and vulnerable, which becomes the target of some negative activities realised by "snatch" and "kidnap". All the functional roles of 圣火in these examples work together to further enhance the positive attitude towards the topic Thing, the holy flame.

If one compares the local lexicogrammatical environments where 圣火 has been used in the two archives, such as the nominal groups where it has been used, and the clauses where it has taken a participant role, it is clear that the attitudinal 'colors' of the surrounding text can either weaken (as in Archive A) or enhance (as in Archive B) the original appraisal of the Thing. In other words, the appreciative nature of the topic Thing alone cannot determine the general attitude of a text. Rather, it is through the joint effort of both the topic

Thing and its local lexicogrammatical environment, which is made up of the modifying elements in the same nominal group, or the transitivity roles in the same clause, that a certain attitude is enacted.

About "示威" (demonstration) and "抗议" (protest)

The word 示威, meaning *demonstrate* and 抗议 *protest,* both appear in the top 10 frequency list in Archive A. As semantically they are almost synonymous, it is possible to treat both as one type, which would make their ranking to be even higher on the list. By contrast, neither words appears in the top 10 list in Archive B. However, most texts in both archives have the coverage of people who demonstrated or protested in the torch relay, but unsurprisingly they are referred in different ways in the two groups of texts. So in the following analysis, my focus will be put on the nominal groups representing these people, the demonstrators, and I will investigate how lexicogrammatically these nominal groups are presented to enact different attitudes. Altogether 56 nominal groups in Archive A and 40 in Archive B are collected for analysis, all of which are used to refer to the people who demonstrate in the torch relay. Below are the lexicogrammatical situations of these nominal groups:

Archive A

Qualifier	Numerative	Thing (number of instance)
抗议protesting 亲藏 pro-Tibet 人权组织Human-rights organisations	大批 a large number of 数千 several thousands of 五千多over 5000	者 People (36) 人士，人员 people (14) 群众 mass people (6)

Examples:
面对**群众**的大规模抗议，法国警方不得不中断长跑传递.

Facing the large-scale demonstration of (mass) people, the French police had to cancel the relay in the middle of the process.

埃菲尔铁塔对面的广场上聚集了数千名示威人员，抗议中国的西藏政策。

Thousands of demonstrating people (=demonstrators) gathered on the square opposite the Eiffel Tower, protesting against China's policy in Tibet.

北京奥运火炬在亲西藏和人权等组织的示威者的抗议和干扰下缩短了原订活动，用车送到终点。

Due to the demonstration and interference of the pro-Tibet demonstrators and people of the human rights organisations, the Beijing Olympic torch relay was cut short and

the torch was sent to the terminal in a vehicle.

Archive B

Numerative	Epithet	classifier	Thing (number of instance)
少数 a small number of 极少数 a very small number of	居心叵测的 wicked 无耻的 shameless	藏独 Tibetan separatist	分子 (40) "molecule", (=a member of a reactionary political group)

Examples:

北京奥运圣火在巴黎传递时遭遇<u>少数"藏独"分子</u>的干扰破坏。

The relay of Beijing Olympic holy flame was disturbed by <u>a small number of "Tibetan separatist" members</u> in Paris.

在<u>极少数"藏独"分子</u>动手干扰破坏圣火传递的时候，她用自己的行动捍卫了奥运圣火。

When <u>a very small number of "Tibetan separatist" members</u> were trying to disturb the relay of the holy flame, she, through her action, protected the Olympic holy flame.

<u>无耻的"藏独"分子</u>竟毫无人性地把黑手伸向了坐在轮椅上的金京，试图要从金京手中抢走火炬。

<u>The shameless "Tibetan separatist" members</u> even inhumanly attacked Jin Jing who was sitting on a wheelchair, trying to snatch the torch from her.

It is obvious that the people who demonstrated in the torch relay are portrayed very different between the texts in the two archives, which is evidenced by the lexicogrammar of the nominal groups representing them. There are mainly the following strategies being used in enacting attitude. Firstly, different attitudinal Things are selected in construing these people:

Archive A:

者 （neutral)

人士 （neutral to positive)

人员 （neutral)

群众 （positive)

Archive B:

分子 （negative)

Secondly, some highly negative attitudinal Epithets are selected to modify Things in Archive B, such as 居心叵测 (*with evil intention)* and 无耻 (*shameless)*. These Epithets work together with the negatively toned Thing, which further enhance the negative sense.

Thirdly, some nominal groups in both archives are found to have Numeratives in the

experiential structure. Interestingly, quantity in these nominal groups is presented in a different manner: Archive A uses Numeratives indicating a large quantity, such as "一大批" (a large number of) and "数千"(several thousands of); whereas Archive B uses Numeratives representing a small quantity, such as "少数" (a small number of), 极少数(a very small number of). It is also interesting to note that most of the Numeratives in both Archives tend to be non-specific in terms of quantity. The use of different types of Numeratives in an attitudinal nominal group helps to adjust the volume of the positive or the negative tone according to the speaker's needs. In the current case, an indication of a large-scale demonstration is presented in Archive A, and in contrast, the opposing voice has been tuned down to the minimum in Archive B.

The findings in this case study lead to the following conclusions. Firstly, it reinstates Halliday's comment on the "prosodic" nature of interpersonal meanings. As the case shows, attitude is enacted by the different functional elements across the nominal group structure. Secondly, different elements on the experiential structure work together to produce and reinforce a positive or a negative tone, which brings a harmonic attitudinal effect. This is a clear demonstration of how nominal groups contribute to the enacting of attitude in text.

1.8   Summary

In this chapter, I have explored the resources that the nominal group can contribute in terms of the interpersonal metafunction. An interpersonal system is presented, based on which my investigation is unfolded to further explore its selections and sub-selections, including Nominal mood, the System of Person, Attitude, and Modality. As shown in the investigation, nominal groups make very significant contributions interpersonally in a number of aspects, which reflect the interpersonal metafunction in various strata including Context (reflected by the System of Person), Semantics (reflected by Nominal mood and Attitude), and Lexicogrammar (by Attitude and Modality).

Some Deictic items are discussed in this chapter, as they represent some important selections in terms of Nominal Mood, Person and Attitude. In the following chapter, Deictic items will be studied again as a major subject for discussion, but from a different angle, the textual metafunctional angle.

Chapter 6

Textual resources of Chinese nominal groups

1.1   Introduction

In this chapter, I will describe the Chinese nominal group in terms of another metafunction, namely, textual metafunction. Textually speaking, a text can be regarded as a flow of information. From such a textual point of view, nominal groups are important in that they present the identity information of a thing in the context. Through nominal groups, the identity information of a thing can be presented either as new, which appears for the first time in a text, or as given, which can be recovered by the listeners. Meanwhile, the thing can also be viewed as either an instance or a general type of the Thing in the text, rather than an experiential class. Following this direction, some questions can be further asked in relation to the identity of a thing:

- How identifiable is the thing in a text? Is it identified explicitly or implicitly?

- When the thing is interpreted as an instance in the referential space, how is it related to the here-and-now situation?

- When the Thing is presented as an instance, how specific is the instance to the addressee?

- What's the quantity information about the thing? How is quantity presented?

The textual resources that nominal groups provide are not only significant in identifying things, but more importantly, in creating cohesion in text. For examples, Deictic elements provide choices in the referential space, presenting a referent as specific or non-specific; Numeric items, working together with Measure words, provide choices in
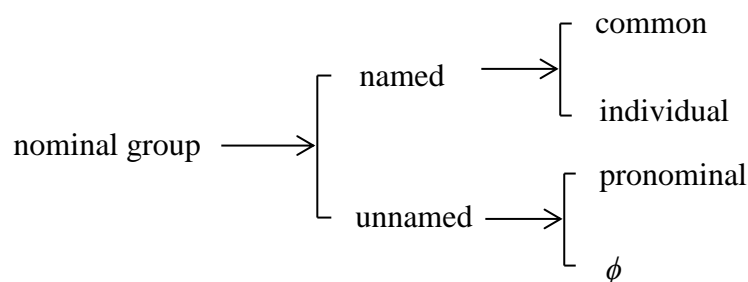
realising ellipsis where Thing becomes absent; different nouns with the potential to construe the same type of Things provide resources in creating lexical cohesions. In the following discussion, I will first present three systems of nominal group in the textual metafunctional domain in Section 6.2, the system of NAMING, the system of IDENTIFICATION, and the system of NUMERIFICATION, all of which are about the choices in presenting the identity of a thing. Discussions in the following sections will focus on the contribution of nominal groups to creating cohesion in a text. In Section 6.3, I will explore the choices that nominal groups provide in realising ellipsis. In Section 6.4, another important cohesive device, lexical cohesion, will be discussed in relation to nominal groups. Finally, in Section 6.5, a case study will be presented to demonstrate how the use of nominal groups helps create cohesion in text. It is important to note that, the systems to be presented in Section 6.2 are not distinguished as separate cohesive devices. Rather, they are system networks that reflect lexicogrammatical and/or semantic choices, which contributes to the realisation of cohesion. So there are frequent and close links between the discussions in Section 6.2 and the rest of the chapter: an important type of cohesion, reference, will be discussed in Section 6.2 when choices in the system of IDENTIFICATION is explored; and in Section 6.3, when another two types of cohesion, ellipsis and lexical cohesion, are discussed, I will explain them by looking at the selections on the system of IDENTIFICATION.

1.2　Systems in the textual domain

In the previous section, I presented some questions one can ask in exploring the identity of a Thing when the Thing is viewed as an instance of a class. Based on these questions, I will present three systems. The system of NAMING reflects the selections one can make in relation to the explicitness in identifying a Thing – whether to name it directly or not. The system of IDENTIFICATION shows the specificity of the referent – how far it is to the here and now situation. And the system of NUMERATION is about how an instance of a class is presented in terms of order and quantity.

1.2.1　System of NAMING

When a Thing is presented as an instance, nominal groups provide resources to identify it as either an instance with a name or as an unnamed instance. In the case of former, it is an explicit identification as the Thing is given a name, whether an individual or a class name; whereas in the latter, the Thing is identified implicitly without being named. Figure 6-1

presents the system of NAMING showing the further options in these two categories.

Figure 0-1: System of NAMING

1.2.1.1 Named Things

A named Thing can be further distinguished as either a Thing with an individual name, that is, a proper name, or with a common name, that is a name shared with others of the same class.

In an unmarked case, there are mainly four types of Things that can bear individual names: human beings, institutions, some specific semiotic Things and some complex Things representing specific locations. Being individually named, the Thing is distinguished from others and therefore becomes identified. Table 6-1 presents some examples of individual names of different Thing types:

Thing Type	Examples of Individual Names
human	<u>桑兰</u>是我国女子体操队中最优秀的跳马选手。 **<u>Sang Lan</u>** was the best vaulter in the Chinese national gymnastics team.
institutions	*<u>清华大学</u>*是中国著名的高等学府。 **<u>Tsinghua University</u>** is a prestigious university in China.
semiotic Thing	周敦颐的《<u>爱莲说</u>》，读书人不知道的恐怕是绝无仅有的。 No scholars would not know Dunyi Zhou's "**<u>On the love of the lotus</u>**".
location	有人从<u>湖北</u>来，带来了<u>洪湖</u>的几颗莲子。 Someone came from **<u>Hubei</u>**, and brought a few lotus seeds from **<u>Honghu Lake</u>**.

Table 0-1: Examples of individual names of different Things

Normally, individual names of different types of Things have their own lexicogrammatical features, which make the Thing types obvious to the addressees. For example, an institution name is typically realised by a nominal group, where the head noun represents the most basic class name of the institution type, such as 大学 *university* in 清华大学 *Tsinghua University*，医院 *hospital* in 协和医院 *the Union Hospital*, and so on. Usually, human names in Chinese are highly distinguished in that there are only a few

hundreds of characters that are commonly used as surnames and names, and they are widely recognisable to the Chinese speakers. Even in less usual cases where a surname or a name is realised by less common characters, it is still easy to be identified in the text environment, as they are presented together with some other lexicogrammatical features which help identify the Thing type as 'human', such as titles (先生 *Mr.*，女士 *Ms.*)，or participant roles being construed (senser in a mental process, sayer in a verbal process, and so on). In an identifying relational clause, an individual human name can also be recognised by the assignment of a human-only identity:

> 桑兰是我国女子体操队中最优秀的**跳马选手**。
>
> San Lan was the best **vaulter** in the Chinese national gymnastics team.
>
> 大堰河，是我的**保姆**。
>
> Da Yan He was my **nanny**.

Sometimes, Things other than these four types may also be identified with individual names. For example, domestic animals, especially pets, may have their own names, which is usually given by their human masters. They are the examples of personification. Children's literature is another example, where animals and even non-conscious beings can be identified individually through naming:

> 鸭先生的小屋前有一条长长的小路。小路上铺着花花绿绿的鹅卵石，路旁开着五颜六色的鲜花。 兔姑娘轻轻地从小路上走过，说："啊，多美的小路呀！"鹿先生慢慢地从小路上走过，说："啊，多美的小路呀！"
>
> There was a long path in front of Mr. Duck's cottage. The path was colourfully cobbled with flowers of all kinds of colours on both sides. Miss Rabbit gently passed by the road and said, "Ah, what a beautiful road!" Mr. Deer slowly passed by and said, "Ah, what a beautiful road!"

The other type of named Things are those that are given a class name. In this category, the name being presented is a common name shared by a whole class of Things. The names on the system of THING TYPE (figure 4-5) are the examples of this type: they are the common names of things that are grouped according to some experiential features they share. Compared with individual names, common names are on the general end, with a potential to be further specified. Because of the feature of being general, instances with common names can be easily identified in terms of Thing Type. There are no clear-cut boundary between a common name and an individual name on the cline of instantiation. Rather, the situation can be viewed as a continuum: an individual name can be seen as an instance of a common name; whereas a common name is the most general potential that an individual name represents (see Figure 6-2):

specific   general

individual name   **common name**

instance   potential

Figure 0-2: Name and the cline of Instantiation

Sometimes, an instance may be presented as taking the middle position on the specific-general cline: the name is half individual and half common. In realisation, the nominal group typically has the structure of Classifier (individual name) + Thing (common name). Example:

去年10月，湖南桃源出了一个<u>李皇帝</u>；11月，四 川达县出了个<u>朱皇帝</u>。

Last October, there was an Emperor Li in Taoyuan Hu'nan Province; and in November, there came an Emperor Zhu in Daxian Sichuan Province.

The potential selections between an individual name and a common name provide rich resources in creating lexical cohesion, which will be further discussed in Section 6.4.

1.2.1.2 Unnamed Things

The other major selection in the system of NAMING is 'unnamed', which represents those things being talked about in the referential space without an explicit name. They are typically realised by a pronoun, or even completely elliptical. In such a case, these unnamed Things are only identifiable to the interactants, that is, the speaker and the addressee. To someone out of the interaction and out of the context, these unnamed Things can not be easily identified unless more contextual clues become available. For example:

"老栓只是忙。要是他的儿子……"驼背五少爷话还未完，突然闯进了一个满脸横肉的人，披一件玄色布衫，散着纽扣，用很宽的玄色腰带，胡乱捆在腰间。刚进门，便对老栓嚷道： "<u>吃了么？好了么？</u> 老栓，就是运气了你！你运气，要不是我信息灵……。"

老栓一手提了茶壶，一手恭恭敬敬的垂着；笑嘻嘻的听。满座的人，也都恭恭敬敬的听。华大妈也黑着眼眶，笑嘻嘻的送出茶碗茶叶来，加上一个橄榄，老栓便去冲了水。

"<u>这是包好！这是与众不同的。</u> 你想，趁热的拿来，趁热的吃下。"横肉的人只是嚷。

"真的呢，要没有康大叔照顾，怎么会这样……"华大妈也很感激的谢他。

"包好，包好！这样的趁热吃下。*这样的人血馒头，*什么痨病都包好！"**

"It's just that Old Chuan's busy," said the hunchback. "If his son. . . ." But before he could finish, a heavy-jowled man burst in. Over his shoulders he had a dark brown shirt, unbuttoned and fastened carelessly by a broad dark brown girdle at his waist. As soon as he entered, he shouted to Old Chuan:

"Has (he) eaten (it)? (Is he) getting any better? Luck's with you, Old Chuan. What luck! If not for my hearing of things so quickly. . . ."

Holding the kettle in one hand, the other straight by his side in an attitude of respect, Old Chuan listened with a smile. In fact, all present were listening respectfully. The old woman, dark circles under her eyes too, came out smiling with a bowl containing tea-leaves and an added olive, over which Old Chuan poured boiling water for the newcomer.

"This is a guaranteed cure! This is not like other things!" declared the heavy-jowled man. "Just think, brought back warm, and eaten warm!"

"Yes indeed, we couldn't have managed it without Uncle Kang's help." The old woman thanked him very warmly.

"(It is) a guaranteed cure! (It is) eaten warm like this. *A roll dipped in human blood like this* can cure any consumption!"(Translated by Yang Hsien-yi

and Gladys Yang 1960)

   In the example text above, the Thing being talked about, a roll dipped in human blood as a cure for tuberculosis, is mentioned a number of times in the conversation. However, this topic Thing is not explicitly mentioned in the talk: as shown in the underlined sentences, it is presented either by a pronoun, or becomes completely elliptical in the sentence. In either way, the topic Thing is not identifiable to the casual audience, but only to the two interactants until it is named in the end.

   The above example also brings another interesting implication: when it comes the question of 'identifiability', there are two parallel aspects that one needs to consider.

   One is 'explicitness' – how explicit the identity of the Thing is presented? Based on the discussions till now, it is obvious that a named Thing, whether with a common name or an individual name, is more explicitly presented than an unnamed Thing. So 馒头(roll) is more explicit than 这个(this) in identifying the Thing, and even more than an ellipsis. The matter of 'explicitness' can be viewed from the perspective of a third listener, or typically a casual listener, who is not directly involved in the interaction. So from the perspective of a third listener, if a subject matter is presented as a named Thing, it is explicit in that at least the third listener is able to identify the basic type of the Thing being talked about. However, on the other hand, when a third-person pronoun or an ellipsis is selected to represent the Thing, the identity becomes so implicit that it is very hard for a casual

listener to tell what is being discussed unless more clues become available later in the text.

The other aspect is 'specificity' – how specific the Thing is presented as an instance? This aspect is interpreted from the perspective of the addressee, as the matter of specificity is related to the here-and-now situation where the interaction takes place – how a referent is identified as a specific instance to the listener. 'Explicitness' and 'specificity' are two parallel aspects related to the identification of a Thing. So a specific Thing may not necessarily be presented as explicit. As the example above shows, 这(*this*) in 这是包好 (*This is a guaranteed cure*) represents something with an implicit identity, but also represents something specific to the addressee. In the following discussion, I will focus on the System of IDENTIFICATION, which presents the selections in terms of specificity of an identity.

The two selections under the category of "unnamed" Things, pronominal and ellipsis, will be discussed separately in the following sections: pronominal choices will be discussed in Section 6.2.2, and ellipsis in Section 6.3.

1.2.2 System of IDENTIFICATION

Figure 6-3 presents the System of IDENTIFICATION. The two simultaneous selections, SPECIFICITY and DEICTICITY, reflect semantic and lexicogrammatical concerns. Selections in terms of specificity are concerned about the identifiability of a particular instance of a general class of the Thing from the addressee's perspective, whereas selections in terms of deicticity are concerned with choices in lexicogrammatical realisation, in particular, the use of Deictic elements. In the following discussion, I will investigate each type of selections in detail.

Figure 0-3: System of IDENTIFICATION

1.2.2.1 Specific + Deictic

When a Thing is presented as a specific instance of a class, an unmarked lexicogrammatical choice in the nominal group is an eligible Deictic element realised by a determiner. Table 6-2 shows the Deictic items in Chinese that make an instance specific to the listener:

	Determiners		
Specific Deictic	demonstrative + determinative		这 *this*，那 *that*，这些 *these*，那些 *those*
	demonstrative + interrogative		哪 which，哪些 which (plural)，什么=哪 *what=which*
	possessive + determinative	1st person	我（的）*I de (=my)*，我们（的）*we de (=our)*
		2nd person	你（的）you de (=your)，你们（的）*you de (= your plural)*，
		3rd person	他（的）he de (=his)，她（的）she de (=her)，她们（的）they de (=their female)，他们（的）*they de (=their human)*，它们（的）*they de (=their non-human)*
	possessive + interrogative		谁的 *whose*

Table 0-2: Specific Deictic in Chinese

In terms of reference, determiners that are demonstrative and determinative, such as 这(this) and 这些(these), are often used anaphorically, where the referent has been previously presented in the text, and the determiner is used to refer back to the referent. In such a way, it becomes identifiable to the listener. Same situation applies to the third-person possessive determiners, such as 他的 and 他们的. Examples:

> Determiners realising anaphoric reference
>
> 那个学生，一边揉着自己的中指，一边看着<u>陈老人的手</u>，只见**那两只手**确实和一般人的手不同。
>
> That student, rubbing his middle finger, looked at <u>Lao Chen's hands</u>. Seriously <u>the two hands</u> looked different from others.
>
> 我们这学期又学会了几首新的<u>古诗</u>，你还记得**它们的**题目吗？
>
> We have learned a few more <u>ancient poems</u> in this semester. Do you remember <u>their</u> titles?

In comparison, possessive determiners that are realised by first- and second-person pronouns, such as 你的 *your* and 我的 *my*, make the Thing identifiable immediately without the need of any anaphoric reference. This is because they are 'interactant' choices, the use of which already involves both the speaker and the addressee.

Interrogative determiners, although unable to give information about a referent but demand instead, make the referent specific by singling it out of a class of Things. In other words, the speaker uses an interrogative Deictic item to demand information about a specific referent. They often come together with other specific Deictic items in a clause:

> 这是<u>谁的书</u>？
>
> Whose book is this?
>
> **哪些花**是你种的？
>
> <u>Which flowers</u> were planted by you?

Although it is very common to use certain Deictic elements to present a specific instance, there are other strategies that speakers can use to achieve the same textual effect.

1.2.2.2 Specific + Non-Deictic

Sometimes, the Thing is presented as a specific instance by other means rather than a Deictic. In the following discussion, I will investigate three situations where a non-Deictic

nominal group is used to present a specific Thing. These situations draw on lexicogrammatical, textual and/or contextual resources to make a Thing identifiable.

A Thing may be presented as specific by means of exophora, where the Thing is part of the specific situation and therefore identifiable. Examples:

> <u>作业</u>写完了吗？
>
> <u>The homework</u> have you finished?
>
> 请把<u>书</u>递给我。
>
> Please pass <u>the book </u>to me.

In the examples above, "作业"(the homework) and "书" (the book) are identifiable to both people involved in the exchange –both people know which homework and which book are referred to in these specific settings, and therefore are interpreted as specific in the analysis.

Sometimes, a Thing may be presented as specific by means of homophora, where it becomes identifiable because the identity it represents is a common knowledge shared by both parties in the interaction, and/or it is given a proper name. Examples:

> 你今天见到<u>小张</u>了吗？
>
> Did you see <u>Xiao Zhang </u>today?
>
> 我们去年夏天去参观了<u>"水立方"</u>。
>
> We visited <u>the Water Cube </u>last summer.

Things being mentioned in terms of exophora and homophora do not need to rely on the resources within the text to be identified. Instead, it is achieved through the situational and contextual resources.

There is a third type of situation where a non-Deictic nominal group represents a specific instance that is identifiable: by virtue of endophoric lexicogrammatical resources that are provided within the text. This can be achieved in two ways. In the first way, the Thing is realised by a pronoun, which is either an interactant choice or creates an anaphoric reference when representing a non-interactant. In terms of anaphoric reference, the referent has been introduced previously in the text, and now is mentioned again through the use of a pronoun. Example:

> <u>小鹿</u>在门前的花坛里，栽了一丛玫瑰。<u>他</u>常常去松土、浇水。
>
> <u>Little Deer</u> planted a clump of roses in his front garden. <u>He</u> often loosened the soil
> and watered the flowers.

Table 6-3 presents the pronouns that realise a specific Thing.

		Pronouns
Personal	interactant	我 *I*, 你 *you*，您 *you (honorific)*，我们 *we*，你们 *you*，咱们 *we (inclusive)*
	non-interactant	他 he，她 she，他们 they *(human)*，她们 they (human female)，它 *it*，它们 *they (non-human)*
Demonstrative		这 *this*， 这些 *these*，那 *that*，那些 *those*

Table 0-3: Pronouns realising specific Things

In the second way, the Thing is identified as specific through the defining elements that modify it in the nominal group. These modifying elements include ordinating Numerative, Epithet, Classifier, and Qualifier. The examples below illustrate how each element works to make the thing specific:

Ordinating numerative:

从前有一个国王，他有三个儿子。第一个儿子长得很英俊，国王建造了一座宫殿给他。第二个儿子很聪明，国王送给了他一座城堡。第三个儿子长得既不英俊，也不聪明，国王一点也不喜欢他。

Once upon a time, there was a king, who had three sons. The first son was very handsome, and the king built a palace for him. The second son was very bright, and the king gave him a grand castle. The third son, neither handsome nor bright, was not at all adored by his father.

Classifier:

小明家有两个一样大的箱子，一个皮箱，一个纸箱。请问是皮箱重还是纸箱重？

Xiaoming has two boxes of the same size, one made of leather, and the other cardboard. Which one is heavier, the leather box or the cardboard box?

Epithet:

從前有兩個和尚，一個和尚很有錢，另外一個和尚很窮。有一天，這兩個和尚碰面了。窮和尚說：「我很想到南海去拜佛，你看怎麼樣？」

富和尚搖頭說：「南海離這有多遠，你知道嗎？我早就想去，只是路途太遠，應該帶的東西太多，一時準備不齊全，所以到現在沒有動身。你什麼都沒有，怎麼去得成呢？」

窮和尚說：「只要下定決心，帶一個缽，一根木杖，就夠了。」

Once there were two monks. One was rich and the other poor. One day, the two monks met, and the poor monk said, "I want to worship the Buddha in the Southern Sea. What do you think?"

The rich monk shook his head and said, "Do you realise how far away the Southern Sea is? I have been thinking of going for a long time, but cannot make it due to the long distance, which requires too much preparation. Being penniless, how can you

make it?"

<u>The poor monk</u> smiled, " Once I'm determined, a bowl and a walking stick would be enough".

Qualifier:

一天中午，三只白鹤在河里捉到了许多鱼。他们吃得饱饱的，把剩下的一条大鱼埋在地里，留着明天吃。

第一只白鹤抬头看了看太阳，记住大鱼埋在太阳底下。第二只白鹤抬头看了看天空，记住大鱼埋在白云下面。第三只白鹤看了看河边的大柳树，记住大鱼埋在柳树旁边。

第二天，太阳刚刚升起，三只白鹤都睡醒了。第一只白鹤朝太阳飞去。第二只白鹤朝白云飞去。第三只白鹤飞到河边，落在大柳树旁边。

哪只白鹤能找到<u>埋在地里的大鱼呢</u>？

Once day, three white cranes caught many fish in a river. After the feast, they buried a big fish that was left uneaten in the soil for the next day.

The first crane raised her head and saw the sun. So she remembered that the big fish was buried under the sun. The second crane raised her head and saw the sky. So she remembered that the big fish was buried under the white cloud. The third crane saw a huge willow tree beside the river and remembered that the big fish was buried next to the willow tree.

The next day, right after the sunrise, the three cranes woke up. The first flew towards the sun, the second flied to the clouds, and the third flied to the willow tree.

Then which crane will find <u>the big fish buried in the soil</u>?

In the above examples, the underlined parts are the nominal groups made up of "modifier + Thing". These nominal groups represent Things that are specific in the context, which are identifiable to the readers. It is important to point out that it is only in a given context that these non-deictic modifying elements are able to function in the same way as a specific Deictic. In other words, these non-deictic elements draw on the given contextual information to identify the Thing. One thing in common among the examples above is that, when viewed in terms of "Given/New" information status, the Things they modify are all presented as given information in the texts: they all have been introduced in the texts previously. More interestingly, the relevant properties that the modifiers represent are also given information: "三个"*three*, "纸箱"*cardboard box*，"皮箱"*leather box*，"穷"*poor*，"富"*rich*，"埋在地里"*buried in the soil* have all been introduced in the texts initially. Except in the example of "qualifier", all the other examples introduce more than one instance of the same Thing type: three "sons", two "boxes", and two "monks". They are fundamentally the same in terms of Thing Type, but different in terms of a certain quality. In such situation, the modifier representing this quality can be used to differentiate one Thing from another of the same type if the differentiating quality has been introduced in

the text previously. As can be seen, this identification process can only be made possible as the text unfolds.

Another interesting thing in these examples is that, when translated in English, the non-deictic nominal groups all become deictic in English, typically through the use of "the". This simply indicates a difference in terms of lexicogrammatical resources: English has the lexical resource to present a Thing as implicitly specific: the subset in question is identifiable, but this will not tell you how to identify it (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: 314). Chinese, however, does not have such Deictic item "the" to function in this way, and a non-Deictic nominal group may represent either specific or non-specific things, depending on the given context. This structural difference creates potential challenges to the Chinese English-learners as well as translators, as many have trouble in using "the" properly to present something as specific and given (see further in Robertson, 2000; Huang, 1999)

1.2.2.3 Non-specific + Deictic

When the Thing is presented as an unidentifiable instance to the addressee, it is non-specific. The use of some Deictic items in the nominal group may enable the speaker to present something as non-specific, and they are typically realised by determiners. Table 6-4 presents the non-specific Deictic items in Chinese.

	Determiners	
Non-specific Deictic	partial	某 *certain*
	total	任何 any，每 every，哪 whichever，什么 whatever，所有 *all*，全部 *all*

Table 0-4: Non-specific Deictic items in Chinese

Based on Table 6-4, I will have a further discussion about the following two points. First, a non-specific instance may represent part of a group or class, and the speaker is not specific about which part of the group/class being talked about. In the case of Chinese, there seems to be only one Deictic item that can function like this: 某 *certain*. Generally speaking, there are two situations where 某 *certain* is used to refer to something non-specific. In one situation, the speaker intentionally choose not to make the Thing specific due to some reasons, whereas in the other, the speaker presents the Thing as non-specific simply because he is unable to identify it himself.

In the first situation, 某 *certain* plays dual roles in terms of metafunction – it is significant both interpersonally and textually. I will use the example below to illustrate:

> 这是<u>某集团</u>的无耻，恰是李先生的光荣！李先生在昆明被暗杀是李先生留给昆明的光荣！也是昆明人的光荣！
>
> The shamelessness of <u>a certain group</u> has well demonstrated the glory of Mr Li! The assassination of Mr Li is the glory that Mr Li left with Kunming! It is also the glory of the Kunming people.

The example is extracted from a famous political speech, where the speaker condemns the assassination of his comrade by the government. He chooses not be specific about who the "shameless group" is, though he is able to identify them. The use of the non-specific deictic 某 *certain* simply indicates that it is obvious and therefore needless to identify who is shameless.

The example below illustrates the other situation where 某 *certain* is used to present something as simply a certain non-specific instance of a kind:

> 安装这个软件之后，<u>某些网站</u>就打不开了。
>
> After installing this software, <u>some</u> websites cannot be visited.

Secondly, compared with the partial Deictic, the 'total Deictic' presents the Thing as a general non-specific instance of a kind, and has more options. This is very similar to English, where determiners like *any, every,* and *all* can be selected to present all the instances in general. In Chinese, there are another two determiners with the same function, which only work in a certain grammatical structure: 哪 *which (=whichever)* and 什么 *what (=whatever)* collocating with 都 *all*:

> <u>哪个孩子</u>都爱玩游戏。
>
> <u>Whichever kids</u> all like playing games.
>
> (= All kids like playing games.)
>
> <u>什么问题</u>都难不倒他。
>
> <u>Whatever problems</u> all can never beat him.
>
> (= No problems can beat him.)

1.2.2.4 Non-specific + Non-Deictic

Apart from Deictic items, nominal groups also provide some other resources in presenting a non-specific Thing. This can be achieved in four ways: by presenting the Thing as the

general name of a kind, or as the collection of a group, or simply by using certain non-specific pronouns to refer to the Thing, or through the modification of a non-ordinated numerative.

When the Thing is represented as the general name of a class, it is non-specific in nature as the name represents all the things of the same kind/type in general. Examples:

> 松鼠是一种漂亮的小动物，驯良，乖巧，很讨人喜欢。
>
> The squirrel is a beautiful small animal, tame, gentle and very adorable.
>
> 干旱地带的植物都有发达的根系，仙人掌也不例外。
>
> Plants in arid regions have well-developed root systems, and the cactus is no exception.

Similarly, when representing a collection of members, the Thing may be realised by a collective noun. In such a case, it is also non-specific in nature. Examples:

> 他死时，人们纷纷赶来吊唁。
>
> When he died, people all came to mourn.
>
> 中华人民共和国中央人民政府主席毛泽东出现在主席台上，跟群众见面了。
>
> Mao Tse-Tong, the chairman of the central government of People's Republic of China appeared on the platform to meet the people.

In Chinese, there are certain number of pronouns which can also represent things that are non-specific. Below are some examples:

> 爱护环境，人人有责。
>
> One one (=Everyone) has the responsibility of protecting the environment.
>
> 我觉得没有必要事事都向他汇报。
>
> I don't think it is necessary to report thing thing (=everything) to him.
>
> 谁都没有我了解他。
>
> Whoever all (=no one) knows him better than me.
>
> 他看到什么都不顺眼。
>
> He is not happy with whatever he sees.

As the examples above show, these non-specific pronouns in Chinese all come with some interesting lexicogrammatical features: they are either the reduplication of the same noun representing a general name, such as 人人 *one one (=everyone)* and 事事 *thing thing (=everything),* or only work in a certain syntactic structure: 谁 *whoever* and 什么 *whatever* both collocate with 都 *all*.

There is another type under this category: a non-ordinated numerative is used to modify the Thing in terms of quantity, which makes the Thing non-identifiable. Examples:

> 门口有一位王先生找你。
>
> Outside <u>a Mr. Wang</u> was asking to see you.
>
> 一天中午，三只白鹤在河里捉到了许多鱼.
>
> One day at noon, <u>three white cranes</u> caught quite some fish in the river.
>
> 朋友送我一对珍珠鸟，我把它们养在一个竹条编的笼子里。
>
> A friend gave me <u>a pair of zebra finches</u>, and I keep them in a bamboo cage.

As the above examples indicate, a non-ordinated Numerative provides quantity information about a referent, and treat the Thing as a general instance. So even when the Thing is a particular instance (as in 王先生 *Mr. Wang* in the first example), the speaker may present it as non-specific by using a Numerative 'one', as he is unable to identify this particular instance among a group of others.

In his exploration of the use of *de* in Chinese nominal groups, Zhang has noticed the situations where the subordinating particle *de* sometimes has to be used in a nominal group whereas some other times it becomes optional (Zhang, 1998). One of Zhang's discussions focuses on the identification nature of the Thing (see Zhang, 1998: 326), where he tries to interpret the compulsory/optional use of *de* as an indication of the identity status of the Thing in people's general cognition. For example, Zhang believes that if an animal's body parts, such as meat or skin, are accepted as of common use to human, *de* tends to be omitted – his examples include 牛肉 (`ox meat`), and 羊皮 (`sheep skin`). However, if the body part cannot or is seldom used by human, it is more likely that *de* is needed to connect the Thing (animal) and the partitive (body part) – he gives an example of 老鼠的皮 (`a mouse de skin`, `mouse skin`). However, as his account focuses on the context-free grammatical structure, it is hard not to be challenged with some simple examples. Compare the examples below:

> <u>小老鼠的皮</u>是白色的。(`compulsory use of de)` - Specific + Non-Deictic
>
> `The skin of the little mouse` (the little mouse de skin)` is white.`

> 最近，中药市场上发现一些不法商家用<u>老鼠（的）皮</u>冒充鹿茸。
> (`optional use of de`) - Non-Specific + Non-Deictic

> ```
> Recently  in  the  Chinese  medicine  market,  some  unscrupulous
> businesses pass the mouse skin off as the velvet antler.
> ```

As illustrated by the two examples above, even things such as 'mouse skin', which are rarely usable by human, may be realised by a nominal group with or without *de*. In a given context, the Thing gets an identification status as either specific or non-specific, and it is based on it identification status in the text that a lexicogrammatical selection is made. Therefore, when exploring a grammatical phenomenon, it is essential for one to observe it in a meaningful context.

In the following section, I will have more detailed discussion about 'Numerative'.

1.2.3 System of NUMERATION

The system of NUMERATION provides selections to modify the Thing in terms of order and quantity. It is concerned with how an instance is presented in terms of ordering and quantity. Figure 6-4 presents the System of NUMERATION in Chinese.

In the following discussion, I will explore further the two major selections on the system: Ordination and Quantification.

Figure 0-4: System of NUMERATION

1.2.3.1 Ordination

When an instance is presented in terms of ordination, there are two further choices: it is

either ordered in terms of sequence or certain qualities. In terms of realisation, the sense of ordination is realised by ordinals. Table 6-5 presents the ordinals used in Chinese:

		Ordinals
Ordinative	general	第 *di (ordinal prefix)*
	sequential	头 *the first* 、前 *the first*、后 *the last*、下 *the next*、上 *the first*
	superlative	最 *the most*

Table 0-5: Chinese ordinals

When an instance is ordered in terms of sequence, the nominal group is typically featured with a "Numerative (↘ordinal + numeral) + Measure + Thing" structure. And the ordinal used under this category is either a general or a sequential one. The ordering of sequence happens in terms of time, being defined either in exophoric (out of the text) or endophoric (inside the text) time reference. Example:

Exophoric time sequence:

第一次世界大战是一场于1914年7月28日至1918年11月11日间主要发生在欧洲但波及到全世界的世界大战。在1939年第二次世界大战爆发前，这场战争被称之为"世界大战"。

The First World War is a world war which centred in Europe but later spread to the whole world between 28 July 1914 and 11 November 1918. Before the breakout of the Second World War in 1939, this war was referred to as "the World War".

Endophoric time sequence:

从前有一个国王，他有三个儿子。第一个儿子长得很英俊，国王建造了一座宫殿给他。第二个儿子很聪明，国王送给了他一座城堡。第三个儿子长得既不英俊，也不聪明，国王一点也不喜欢他。

Once there was a king, who had three sons. The first son was very handsome, and the King built a palace for him. The second son was very clever, and the King gave him a castle. The third son, neither handsome nor clever, received little favour from the King.

每一件事都很重要，但它有一个顺序，解决头一件事是解决后一件事的前提。

Everything matters, but they need to be put in order of priority. Having the first matter solved is the precondition for solving the next.

As demonstrated in the examples above, the sequential ordering may be realised in terms of physical time out of the text: the ordering of the two world wars is based on the physical time as everyone can see; or in logogenetic timeframe within the text: the ordering of the "three sons" is based on the order of the introduction of each of them within the text. In the second case, the referents have been introduced as a general class in

the text initially, which forms a context for the subset of the instance to be ordered later as the text unfolds.

Apart from sequence, an instance can also be ordered in terms of a quality. In this case, the instance is first assigned with a quality and then the ordering is made by comparing the quality of this instance with others of the same class within a certain domain. Unsurprisingly, nominal groups of this type tend to have the following typical structures:

Numerative (↘ordinal + numeral) + Epithet + Thing

广州是中国第三大城市。

Guangzhou is the third largest city in China.

Numerative (↘superlative ordinal) + Epithet + Thing

世界上最高的山是位于中国和尼泊尔交界的喜马拉雅山的珠穆朗玛峰，海拔 8882 米。

The world's highest peak is Mt . Qomolangma of the Himalaya Mountains across the border between China and Nepal, at an elevation of 8882 metres.

Numerative (↘ordinal + numeral) + Qualifier + Thing

第一个吃螃蟹的人是很令人佩服的，不是勇士谁敢去吃它呢？

The first person eating crabs is admirable. Who dare to eat it if he is not brave enough?

Numerative (↘superlative ordinal) + Qualifier + Thing

最先到达山顶的小组获得了一面红旗。

The first group that arrived at the hilltop won a red flag.

As can be seen, Epithet and Qualifier are used to construe a certain quality of the Thing, based on which the ordering is made by comparing the instance with other instances of the same kind. I need to point out that in the examples above where Epithet or Qualifier are involved, there could be an alternative interpretation of the structure, where the Numerative may be treated as a part of the epithesis or qualification, and therefore not modify the Thing directly.

1.2.3.2 Quantification

When an instance is presented in terms of quantification, selections under this category provide information about the quantity aspect of the instance. As shown in Figure 6-4, there are two further simultaneous selections to be made under this category: selections in terms of Measure status and Exactness. The former is about whether the instance is measured or not in terms of certain aspect, and the latter is about how exact the quantity is presented. In the following discussion, I will explore each combination of choices in detail.

1.2.3.2.1 **Measured + Exact**

When an instance is measured in exact quantity, the exactness of the quantity is achieved by joint functions of the Numerative and the Measure. In other words, the Measure provides a means by which the instance can be counted in exact numbers. In this sense, the Measure may be considered as an extended numerative, which provides further details about the numerative information. Examples:

三只小鸡 three MEA(for birds) chickens

两片树叶 two slices of leaves

一百个学生 one hundred MEA (for individuals) students

一滴水 one drop (of) water

Measure words used in this category often represent the expository physical features of the instance, such as shape, size, animacy, and as on. From a quantitative perspective, they define how the instance is quantified.

1.2.3.2.2 **Unmeasured + Exact**

In Chinese, there are a limited number of numeral compounds which are formed as two-character numerals. When these numerals are selected to function as a Numerative in a nominal group, Measure is not needed to help quantify the Thing. The quantity information these numerals represent is definite and exact. Examples:

一打鸡蛋 a <u>dozen</u> (of) eggs

一对鸳鸯 a <u>couple</u>(=pair of) lovebirds

一双鞋子 a <u>pair</u> (of) shoes

There is an alternative interpretation of these numeral compounds: they may also be seen as "Numeral + Measure" structure, where the Measure words represent exact quantity information: 打 meaning *twelve*, 对 and 双meaning *two* (as a pair).

1.2.3.2.3 **Measured + Inexact**

An instance may also be presented as inexact in quantity while still be measured in a certain manner. The inexactness of the quantity can be achieved in two ways grammatically: it can be realised by an inexact Measure, or by an inexact Numerative. In both cases, one cannot get an answer to the question of "how many exactly are the instances". Examples:

Numerative + Inexact Measure

一捧玫瑰 an armful (=bunch) of roses

一堆衣服 a pile of clothes

一摞书 a stack of books

一屋子人 a room of people

Compared with the Measure items in the category of "exact", inexact Measure items are more likely to fall into the category of "Extension" and "Enhancement" in relation to the Thing (see further in Section 4.7.2). More specifically, the Measure items that are inexact in terms of quantity tend to measure Things subjectively from the Speaker's perspective: things are measured not according to their physical properties, but according to the Speaker's interpretation of how they are presented. For instance, one Measure word used in the examples above, 捧 *(hold in arms)* ，measures the 'roses' according to the manner in which the roses are carried, which can only give a vague indication of how many roses an ordinary person can hold with him arms. In another example above, 堆 *pile* is used to measure a pile of clothes, according to which no one can tell exactly how many clothes the Speaker talks about. It seems that the inexact Measure items make the Things hardly instantiated from its group and therefore make the quantity inexact, even though the Numeratives are still exact.

Below are some examples of the other type, where Numerative is realised by an inexact numeral and thus the quantity becomes inexact:

Inexact Numerative + Measure

参加大会的有三十多个学生。

Thirty-odd MEA students attended the assembly.

小白兔采了几朵玫瑰花。

The little white rabbit picked a few MEA roses.

一到周末，他就约上三五个朋友去远足。

At weekends, he would ask three or five (=a few) MEA friends to hike.

电话里才说了不到两句话，就吵起来了。

Talking no more than two (=a few) sentences, they started to argue.

一眼望去，水上至少停了十来艘军舰。

At a glance, ten-ish (=a dozen) MEA warships were moored on the water.

The above examples show the commonly used numerals in Chinese that represent an inexact quantity. Some of them, such as 多 （duō) and 来 (lái)， are similar to "some" or

"-ish" in English. Others, such as 几 (jǐ), 两 (liǎng), are close to "a few" in sense. It is interesting to note that, 两(liǎng) is also be used as an exact Numerative meaning "two" in many contexts – the exactness is heavily context-based.

1.2.3.2.4 Unmeasured + inexact

There is a fourth type of quantification, where an instance is not measured, and an inexact Numerative makes it inexact in quantity. The situation again is very similar to that in English, where some indefinite Numerative items provide very general quantitative information about the instance. Again, nominal groups in this structure cannot provide an answer to "how many exactly". Examples:

> 过了些日子，玫瑰枝头长出了许多花骨朵。
>
> A few days later, on the branches of the roses many flower buds came out.
>
> 它们搭窝的时候，先搬些小木片，错杂著放在一起，再用一些乾苔藓编扎起来。
>
> When building a nest, they first put together some bark flakes they have found, and then bind them together with some dry moss.
>
> 只要能转变自己找工作的观念，大多数毕业生都能找到工作.
>
> As long as they adjust their job-hunting concept, most graduates will be able to find a job.
>
> 极少数"藏独"分子企图干扰破坏北京奥运会火炬传递，是对奥运精神的亵渎。
>
> A small number of "Tibetan separatists" were trying to disturb the Beijing Olympic torch replay, which desecrated the Olympic spirit.

As shown in the above examples, these inexact Numeratives present a subset of a group of instances in terms of the degree of quantity compared with the total: small quantity (e.g., 少数 *a few*), median quantity (e.g., 一些 *some*), and large quantity (e.g., 许多 *many*).

Till now I have completed my discussion about the three major systems in the textual domain. The selections on these systems are significant in creating cohesion and coherence in the text. In the following two sections, I will move onto the contributions that nominal groups can make in these aspects.

1.3   Ellipsis in nominal groups

When the Thing, sometimes together with some other functional elements in a nominal group, becomes omitted, the phenomenon is called ellipsis in nominal groups, or "nominal

ellipsis" as termed by Halliday and Hasan (Halliday & Hasan 1976: 147). Ellipsis in nominal groups is commonly seen in texts, which is an important means to create cohesion. In the following discussion, I will explore Chinese nominal ellipsis in detail. The discussion will be divided into two parts: in Section 6.3.1, I will introduce some general features of nominal ellipsis; and in Section 6.3.2, I will investigate different types of elliptical nominal groups in Chinese.

1.3.1 General features of elliptical nominal groups

There are three general features of nominal ellipsis that I will discuss here. Firstly, elliptical nominal groups are most often anaphoric and cohesive in texts, and the previous reference in the text makes it possible to recover the omitted part in the nominal group. Below is an example to illustrate this:

> 开国典礼那天，我同大伯一同到百货公司去买布，送他和大娘一人一身蓝士林布，另外，送给女孩子一身红色的。大伯没见过这样鲜艳的红布，对我说：“多买上几尺，再买点黄色的!”

> On the inauguration day of PRC, Uncle and I went to buy cloth in a department store, where I bought the blue indanthrene cloth for both him and Auntie. I also bought **a red one** for the girl. Uncle had never seen red cloth in such bright colours, and said to me, "Get **a few more inches**; get some **yellow ones**".

Cloth in different colours is the topic Thing in the example above. The nominal groups construing them appear in the text in the following sequence:

> 蓝士林布-->红色的-->红布-->几尺-->黄色的

> blue indanthrene cloth ---> red one ---> red cloth ----> a few inches ---> yellow one

Nominal groups containing ellipsis have been underlined. The first instance, 蓝士林布 *blue indanthrene cloth*, is non-elliptical. When the second one 红色的 *red* appears, the Thing in the nominal group is omitted, but it is clear to readers as one can recover the missing Thing '布' (*cloth*) by anaphoric reference. Similarly, one can recover a few inches "of red cloth" in the same way by referring backward to the proceeding instance 红布 *red cloth*. The recovery of 红布 *red cloth* here is significant because it makes the recovered content "red cloth" a further presupposition for the following instance 黄色的 *yellow*. In a text like this, where ellipsis happens continuously, it is through a succession of anaphoric clues that makes the ellipsis possible. And that is how cohesion is created as the text unfolds.

Secondly, in terms of information status, the omitted part in an elliptical nominal group represent given information, whereas the existing part often represent new information. My second argument is in fact based on my first one: as nominal ellipsis is usually anaphoric, the missing part in the group must have been mentioned previously in the text, and therefore represent given information. Meanwhile, the existing elements in an elliptical nominal group often carry new information which makes the instance 'stand out' of the others of the same class. Similar to English, elements carrying new information tend to carry the tonic prominence. In the "cloth" example above, if the text is read aloud, one will easily notice that the existing elements, such as "红色的" (*red)* and "黄色的" *(yellow)*, carry the prominent tones and represent new and differentiating information.

Thirdly, when a nominal group is elliptical, the ellipsis may happen to more than one element n the structure, and the Thing is always one of them. The recoverability of the omitted elements is closely related to two factors: one is the integration level of the omitted element with the Thing in the experiential structure; the other is the existing modification structure of the elliptical nominal group. I will use the example below to illustrate this (table 6-6):
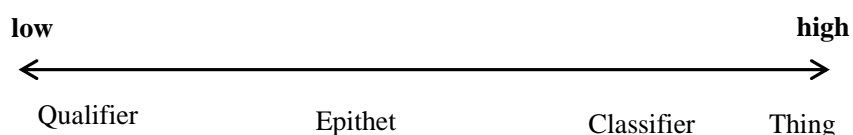
A:- 我新买的两条红色羊毛围巾呢？

Where are the two red wool scarves that I just bought?

Example responses	The non-elliptical response being recovered	Elements that must be recovered	Elements that may not be recovered
B1： - 我只见到你以前买的。 I have only seen what you bought before.	我只见到你以前买的（羊毛围巾）。I have only seen (the wool scarves) that you bought before.	Thing Classifier	Numerative Epithet
B2： - 我只看见一条。 I have only seen one.	我只看见一条（你刚买的红色羊毛围巾）。I have only seen one (red wool scarf that you just bought).	Thing Classifier Epithet Qualifier	-
B3: - 我只见到黑的。 I have only seen the black (one).	我只见到黑的（羊毛围巾）。I have only seen the black (wool scarf).	Thing Classifier	Numerative Qualifier
B4: - 我只见到尼龙的。 I have only seen the nylon (one).	我只见到尼龙的(围巾)。I have only seen the nylon (scarf).	Thing	Numerative Qualifier Epithet

Table 0-6: Examples of elliptical nominal groups and recoverability

The above example has two implications. First, it seems that the more integrated the element is with the Thing, the more likely it can be recovered together with the Thing. In Chapter 4 where the functional elements in the experiential structure are introduced, I have discussed the cline of integration (see Figure 4-2), which shows that classifier is the most integrated element with the Thing, followed by Epithet and Qualifier. This cline is determined by the stability/transiency of the properties they represent – the more stable the property of an element is, the more closely it is integrated with the Thing in a nominal group structure. When recovering the omitted elements in an elliptical nominal group, the listener is more likely to recover the elements that are more integrate with the Thing than others. The recoverability tendency can be illustrated like this (Figure 6-5):

low   **high**

← ————————————————————————→

Qualifier   Epithet   Classifier   Thing

Figure 0-5: Recoverability of omitted elements in a nominal ellipsis

Second, when an elliptical nominal group is made up of only Numerative and

Measure, all the presupposed functional elements can be recovered. This can be explained by the fact that a Numerative only represents the quantitative aspects of the instance, so the experiential aspects of the Thing are assumed to be the same as they are shared by all the instances of the same class, and therefore recoverable. In general, if the existing elements of an elliptical nominal group is in a partitive logical relation with the Thing, all the experiential functional elements that are omitted can be recovered. More examples:

a. 王老汉有两个打光棍的儿子，一个是木匠，一个是铁匠。

Wang Laohan has two bachelor sons. One MEA is a carpenter, and one MEA is a blacksmith.

一个 = 一个 （打光棍的儿子）

One MEA = One (bachelor son)

b. - 开国上将中，共有几位国民党的起义将领？

Among the state-founding generals, how many were the insurrectionary generals of Kuomintang?

- 三位。

Three MEA.

三位 = 三位 （国民党的起义将领）。

Three MEA = Three (Kuomintang insurrectionary generals)

1.3.2 The structure of elliptical Chinese nominal groups

I have discussed some general features and tendencies of elliptical nominal groups. In this section, I will examine different structures of elliptical nominal groups in Chinese. By structure I mean both logical and experiential structures, which have been discussed in Chapter 3 and 4 separately. Logically speaking, the nominal group has a univariate structure, where all the other elements are the modifiers of the Head forming a hypotactic relation. So from a logical perspective, all the elliptical nominal groups can be categorised into two types: one is those whose Head position is taken by an existing modifier, and the other is those whose Head is elliptical and cannot be filled in by any existing modifiers. I will present each type with examples and discuss them in detail.

1.3.2.1 Elliptical nominal group with a Head

As discussed earlier in the previous section, when a nominal group is elliptical, the Thing must be omitted. This does not mean that the elliptical one will become a headless group, as there might be an eligible existing element which can fill in the position. In Chinese,

apart from nouns and pronouns, there are a few other classes of words which can take the Head position in a nominal group, including numerals, measure words, and determiners. As a result, when a functional element realised by one of these classes of words, such as Numerative, Measure, and Deictic, is in an elliptical nominal group, it can fill in the Head position. Below are examples to illustrate how another element may function as Head in an elliptical nominal group:

a. Numerative + Measure: Measure as Head

- 我买了五条鱼，吃了<u>两条</u>，还有<u>几条</u>？

 I bought five fish, ate <u>two MEA</u>, <u>how many MEA</u> left?

- <u>三条</u>。

 Three MEA.

b. Deictic + Measure: Measure as Head

-哪件衣服是你刚买的？是<u>这件</u>吗？

 Which clothes is the one you bought recently? <u>This MEA</u>?

c. Numerative as Head

- 你一共花了多少钱？

 How much money did you spend in total?

- <u>一千</u>。

 One thousand.

d. Deictic as Head

- 这是谁的书？

 Whose book is this?

- <u>我的</u>。

 <u>Mine</u>.

e. Deictic + Numerative + Measure: Measure as Head

- 哪些是你从图书馆里借来的书？

- <u>这两本</u>。

The examples above show the most common cases where an elliptical Chinese nominal group still gets a nominal Head. As illustrated above, Deictic, Numerative and Measure all can take the Head position in an elliptical nominal group. However, when all of the three elements exist in an elliptical structure, it is the Measure that functions as the Head (see example e). Moreover, when functioning as the Head, the three elements show very different potential to be further modified. Generally speaking, Measure has the

biggest potential for further modification, compared with the other two. This can be illustrated by the above examples: in a, the Head is modified by Numerative; in b, the Head is modified by the Deictic; and in e, the Head is modified by both Deictic and Numerative. In fact, when the Measure as the Head, it can even be modified by an Epithet, such as 大 *big* and 小 *small*, as in 三大条鱼 *three big MEA fishes*，and 一小碗粥 *one small bowl of congee*. Obviously, the other two elements, Deictic and Numerative, cannot be further modified when functioning as Head. The difference is probably caused by the experiential nature of Measure, which makes it more similar to the Thing, and gives it potential to be further elaborated. In comparison, Deictic and Numerative do not have these experiential potential, and are more textual instead.

1.3.2.2 Elliptical nominal group without Head

There is another type of elliptical nominal groups whose Head position is left unfilled when the Thing is elliptical. The structure of this type of nominal group is made up of elements which are realised by classes of words that cannot function as Head, such as adjectives, adverbs, adverbial groups, rank-shifted embedded clauses, and so on. Below are examples of Headless elliptical nominal groups with different experiential structures:

Classifier + de

沙发还是<u>布的</u>好，不像<u>皮的</u>容易刮花。

As for sofa, <u>the fabric (one)</u> is good, unlike <u>the leather (one)</u> which easily gets scratches.

Epithet + de

也许每一个男子全都有过这样的两个女人，至少两个。娶了红玫瑰，久而久之，<u>红的</u>变了墙上的一抹蚊子血，<u>白的</u>还是"床前明月光"；娶了白玫瑰，<u>白的</u>便是衣服上沾的一粒饭黏子，<u>红的</u>却是心口上一颗朱砂痣。

Perhaps every man has had such two women in his life, at least two. Marry a red rose and eventually <u>the red</u> will be a mosquito-blood streak smeared on the wall, while <u>the white</u> is "moonlight in front of my bed". Marry a white rose, and before long <u>the white</u> will be a grain of sticky rice that's gotten stuck to your clothes; <u>the red</u>, by then, is a scarlet beauty mark over your heart.

Qualifier + de

中国菜流派众多，不同地区的菜肴口味风格差别很大。举例来说，江浙一带的偏甜，广东一带的偏清淡，四川一带的偏辣。

Chinese cuisine has a variety of schools, showing different tastes and styles across different regions. For example, <u>(the cuisines) in Jiangsu and Zhejiang provinces</u> tend to be sweet, <u>(the ones) in Canton area</u> are more delicate and mild, and <u>(the ones) in Sichuan province</u> are generally spicy.

As can be seen in the above examples, there is a common feature in these Headless structures: the subordinate particle *de* is used. In Chapter 3, I have introduced *de* from the logical perspective, which can be viewed as a hypotactic structural marker connecting the Head with modifiers. In Chapter 4, *de* has been discussed again from an experiential perspective, which indicates the experiential distance between the Thing and other experiential elements. Experientially speaking, Classifier is the closest to the Thing on the structure, and therefore de usually is not needed between them. However, when looking at the example above, one can see that when the nominal group becomes elliptical, *de* is necessary on the structure even with a Classifier. This is probably because that the existence of *de* can bring two simultaneous indications which cannot be achieved by any other existing elements: one is that the use of *de* makes the structure nominal; meanwhile it also indicates that the Head is elliptical, as there is nothing after *de*. It may be argued that the first indication does not apply to the "Classifier + de" case, where the Classifier is also typically realised by a noun, and therefore nominal. In this case, however, *de* is still necessary because, without *de*, it will become a different nominal group where the noun which originally realises the Classifier becomes the Thing in the new group.

There is another interesting feature shared by the Headless elliptical nominal groups: there is little potential to have additional experiential modifiers in the structure. In other words, they cannot be further elaborated experientially. For example, one can say 沙发还是布的好 *The fabric (sofa) is a good sofa*. It is awkward to say 沙发还是黑色的布的好 *The black fabric (sofa) is a good sofa*, and even more awkward to say 沙发还是新买的布的好 *The newly-bought fabric (sofa) is a good sofa*. However, headless elliptical nominal group can generally be further modified by textual elements, such as Deictic, Numerative and Measure. These elements will not increase the experiential complexity of the elliptical group, but can provide additional information about the instance of the same kind/class. So it is possible to say 沙发还是买<u>一个布的</u>好 *It is good to buy a fabric (sofa);* 我要买<u>这两件红色的</u> I will buy these two red (ones)；<u>那盒我新买的</u>特别好吃 *That box (of food) that I bought recently is very delicious*.

1.4　Lexical cohesion and nominal groups

Apart from reference and ellipsis, nominal groups also contribute to another commonly used cohesive device – lexical cohesion. It refers to the cohesive effect that is achieved by

lexical choices. In this section, I will explore the lexical cohesion achieved by resources of nominal groups, using the previous description of nominal groups to interpret lexical cohesion from a grammatical perspective. As Halliday and Hasan point out (Halliday & Hasan 1976):

...because there is no sharp line between grammar and vocabulary: the vocabulary, or lexis, is simply the open-ended and most 'delicate' aspect of the grammar of a language. (p. 281)

In their study of cohesion in English, Halliday and Hasan suggested a framework for the description of lexical cohesion, which involved two types of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation (see further in Halliday & Hasan 1976: 288). Reiterational cohesion can be achieved by repeating the same word, using a synonym, or a superordinate word, or a general word that is related to a preceding lexical item. The other type, collocation, achieves cohesion by using related lexical items in the text. The following discussion will focus on these two types of lexical cohesion, interpreting them in the grammatical environment of the nominal group.

1.4.1 Reiteration

I will borrow Halliday and Hasan's definition of "reiteration" here (Halliday & Hasan 1976):

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between – the use of a synonym, near-synonym, or superordinate. (p. 278)

In the environment of nominal group, the most typical reiteration happens when a noun construing the Thing is mentioned previously, and then the same noun, or a synonymous noun, or a superordinate noun, or a general noun, is used in the following sentences to refer back to the same Thing. The following examples illustrate the different types of nominal reiteration in Chinese:

Repetition

春天到了。小鹿在门前的花坛里，栽了<u>一丛玫瑰</u>。他常常去松土、浇水。<u>玫瑰</u>慢慢地抽出枝条，长出了嫩绿的叶子。

Spring is here. Little Deer planted <u>a clump of roses</u> in the front garden. He often

loosened the soil and watered the flowers. <u>The roses</u> slowly grew branches and sprouted green leaves.

Synonym

<u>宝宝</u>聪不聪明一出生就知道。一个感觉敏锐、反应迅速的<u>婴儿</u>常常很聪明。在你抱他时，你会感觉到这一点。

One can tell if a <u>baby</u> is clever at the time of birth. An alert <u>infant</u> with quick reactions is usually clever. When you hold him, you will notice this.

Superordinate

近处的一只小船上，渔人坐在船尾，悠然地吸着烟，<u>灰黑色的鸬鹚</u>站在船舷上，好像列队的士兵在等待命令。渔人忽然站起来，拿竹篙向船舷上一抹，<u>这些水鸟</u>都扑扑地钻进水里去了。

On a small boat nearby, a fisherman was sitting on the rear end of the boat, smoking at his leisure. Some <u>dark grey cormorants</u> were standing on the sides of the boat, like a line of soldiers waiting taking orders. The fisherman stood up suddenly and swiped the sides with his bamboo pole. <u>These waterfowl</u> all dived into the water.

General

朋友在新疆给我买了<u>一把匕首</u>，却无法邮寄给我，因为<u>这东西</u>邮局不让寄。

A friend has bought me <u>a dagger</u> in Xinjiang, but cannot send to me because <u>this stuff</u> is not allowed for post.

I will make a few comments based on the examples above. Firstly, when the Thing is reiterated, the nominal groups that construe the same Thing may take on different modification structures. This also applies to the case of repetition. As the example of repetition shows, the first occurrence of "玫瑰 *rose*" appears in the structure of Numerative + Measure + Thing, whereas in the following occurrence it becomes a Thing-only group. One can also change the structure of the second occurrence into " Deictic + Epithet + Thing", as in 这些幼嫩的玫瑰 *these delicate roses*, and it is still cohesive. Compared with the other functional elements in the nominal group structure, the Thing is the most commonly reiterated item.

However, the reiteration of the other functional elements can also achieve cohesion, but this will fall out of the referential domain. Take a look at the following example, which are the lyrics of a pop song *The blue night and the blue dream*:

圆圆的月亮	The round moon
悄悄爬上来	quietly climbs up
蓝蓝的梦幻	The blue dream
轻轻升起来	gently rises
远方的人儿 她会不会走过来	The person afar, is she coming
心里的话儿	The words from bottom of heart
我想要说出来	I want to tell out
蓝蓝的夜蓝蓝的梦	The blue night, the blue dream
请你从我的梦中走出来	Please will you come out of my dream
伤心的眼泪不会掉下来	Sad tears will not shed
蓝蓝的夜蓝蓝的梦	the blue night, and the blue dream

Two different Things, 夜 *night* and 梦 *dream*, are linked together not only because they are semantically close, but also because they are assigned with the same quality construed by the same Epithet here. As said before, the reiteration of other elements, such as Epithet, Classifier and Qualifier, is less common, and it often occurs to achieve a rhetoric effect.

Secondly, the four types of reiteration actually represent lexical realisations at different degrees of generality in construing a Thing. In Chapter 4, when presenting the System of THING TYPE, I introduced the "generality cline of the system of THING TYPE" (see Figure 4-5). This cline shows the tendency of generality/specificity on the system of THING TYPE, providing choices to construe the Thing as either a general type (therefore close to grammar), or a specific instance (therefore close to lexis). Mapping the four types of reiteration onto the cline, one can see that repetition is located on the specific end, and general reiteration is on the general end, with synonyms and superordinates in between (see Figure 6-6):

specific   **general**

⟵————————————————————————⟶

repetition   synonym   superordinate   General reiteration

Figure 0-6: Reiteration on the generality cline

In the referential space where a reiteration anaphorically refers to something being mentioned before, then the move of choices on the generality cline becomes one-way only: the initial occurrence is always on the specific end, and the following reiterating choice can only be more general, but not the other way around. For example,

a. 小王最近好像有心事，你该跟这个学生谈一谈。(specific-->general)

Xiao Wang seems to be worrying about something these days. You should have a talk with this student.

b. 小王最近好像有心事，你该跟这个小伙子谈一谈。(specific--> general)

Xiao Wang seems to be worrying about something these days. You should have a talk with this lad.

c. 小王最近好像有心事，你该跟这个年轻人谈一谈。(specific--> general)

Xiao Wang seems to be worrying about something these days. You should have a talk with this young man.

e. 小王最近好像有心事，你该跟这个家伙谈一谈。(specific--> general)

Xiao Wang seems to be worrying about something these days. You should have a talk with this folk.

f. *你该跟这个小伙子谈一谈，小王最近好像有心事。(general-->specific)

*You should have a talk with this lad. Xiao Wang seems to be worrying about something these days.

Two nouns are used in these examples, one representing an individual name and the other a common noun. So 小王 *Xiao Wang* is on the specific end, and the others, 学生 *student*，小伙子*lad*，年轻人 *young man*，家伙 *folk*，all represent more general types of Thing. It is possible to say that the two nouns in the first four examples (a,b,c,d), where the more specific one precedes the more general one, all refer to the same person, and therefore are cohesive. However, unless more context information is given, it is very hard to say that the two nouns in example f , where the more general Thing comes first and the more specific one comes next, are referring to the same person.

In the above examples, whether specific or general, choices of reiteration of Thing happen along the horizontal line in the system of THING TYPE: both general and specific realisations are in the same general category of the THING TYPE system. So for example, on the general end, all the choices representing 小王 *Xiao Wang* belong to the category of "Conscious: human". Similarly, 匕首 *dagger* and 东西 thing/stuff, both fall in the

category of "Non-conscious: simple". On the system map, the shift of choices only takes place in a linear way between left and right.

In fact, there is also a vertical shift of choices that could happen to reiteration of the Thing – this is my third discussion point. Sometimes, transcategory reiteration happens when the speaker/writer wants to enact attitude to the referent. Look at these examples:

> 你可要提防着老王，这老狐狸鬼着呢。
>
> You have to beware of Lao Wang. This is a wily old fox.
>
> 今天的桃子都是小猴子采的，这个小东西动作可快了。
>
> Today's peaches were all picked by Little Monkey. This little thing was really quick.

The above examples involve transcategory reiteration, where the Thing of one category is used to refer back to a Thing of another category: 老狐狸 *old fox* (Conscious: animal) and 小东西 *little thing* (Non-conscious: simple) are used to refer to 老王*Lao Wang* (Conscious: human) and 小猴子*little monkey* (Conscious: animal) respectively. Such transcategorised reiteration often happens with an interpersonal motive: the speaker/writer expresses his attitude towards the referent by connecting the two Things, indicating that they have certain qualities in common.

1.4.2 Collocation

Collocation refers to the situation where two or even more lexical items tend to share the same lexical environment and occur in similar contexts. The occurrence of such collocations in adjacent sentences will create a cohesive effect (see Halliday & Hasan 1976). For example,

> 晚饭过后,火烧云上来了。霞光照得小孩子的脸红红的, 大白狗变成红的了,红公鸡变成金的了,黑母鸡变成紫檀色的了。
>
> After dinner, the glowing clouds appeared. In the evening glow, children's faces became red, the big white dog became red, the red rooster became gold, and the black hen became purple.

I will focus on two sets of collocations in the above example: 火烧云 *the glowing clouds* with 霞光 *the evening glow*；大白狗，红公鸡 *red rooster* and 黑母鸡 *black hen*. In the first case, 火烧云 *glowing clouds* and 霞光 *the evening glow* are associated with each other in that they both represent some natural phenomena in the sky. In the second case, 大白狗*big white dog*，红公鸡 *red rooster* and 黑母鸡 *black hen* are related

because they all represent domestic animals, and more interestingly the nominal groups construe these Things all contain Epithet of colour. One may argue that the first pair of words, 火烧云*glowing clouds* and 霞光*the evening glow*，is more likely to co-occur than the latter, as dog may not necessarily co-occur with chicken, but is definitely more related with "barking". However, at the same time, 大白狗*big white dog* is definitely more related to 红公鸡*red rooster* and 黑母鸡 *black hen* than 稀薄的空气 *thin air* or 火红的太阳 *the red sun*. So we can see that collocation is in fact a matter of degrees of proximity between two items – it represents only a relative possibility of one word co-occurring with another. My standard here is that, as long as this relatedness is strong enough to create a cohesive effect, it is a collocation. In the following discussion, I will try to interpret this proximity in the experiential environment of nominal groups, focusing on two things: the relationship between collocation and the system of THING TYPE, and the collocation achieved between Thing and Facet.

1.4.2.1 Collocation and Thing Type

Collocational cohesion can be achieved when two lexical items construe the same type of Thing at a specific level. On the generality cline of the system of THING TYPE (Figure 4-5), the more specific a category is, the more likely the items in the same category will co-occur in the similar contexts. Figure 6-7 illustrates the tendency of collocation in relation to the specificity of Thing Type:

Figure 0-7: Thing Type and tendency of collocation

As can be seen in Figure 6-7, 沙发 *sofa* is most likely to collocate with 茶几 *tea table*, both of which belong to the most specific Thing Type category. The collocation tendency decreases when the common category shared by the two items moves towards the general end. So 东西 *thing* is least likely to collocate with 沙发 *sofa* in this example,

though as a frequently used general noun, 东西 *thing* can be used to anaphorically refer to 沙发 *sofa*, which would still create cohesive effect. So as Halliday and Hasan point out, the most important thing is to use common sense when analysing a text in respect of lexical cohesion (Halliday & Hasan 1976).

1.4.2.2 Collocation between Thing and Facet

Sometimes, the topic thing of one clause is cohesively tied with the topic thing of its following clause because they are simply the "Thing" and the "Facet" of the Thing. Example:

> 松鼠是一种漂亮的小动物，驯良，乖巧，很讨人喜欢。它们面容清秀，眼睛闪闪有光，身体矫健，四肢轻快，非常敏捷，非常机警。玲珑的小面孔，衬上一条帽缨形的美丽的尾巴，显得格外漂亮；尾巴老是翘起来，一直翘到头上，身子就躲在尾巴底下歇凉。

> The squirrel is a beautiful little animal, docile, cute and very adorable. (Its) face is pretty, eyes are bright, body is agile, and limbs brisky, and it moves fast and is very alert. With a delicate face, matched with a beautiful bushy tail, the squirrel looks very smart. (Its) tail always stands up to its head so (its) body can rest in the shadow of the tail.

In the above example, 松鼠 *squirrel* is the topic Thing of the whole text, which appears in the Theme position in the first sentence. In the following sentences, facet items representing different parts of the body of the squirrel become the centre of description. All looks cohesive because this is a smooth shift of topic Things, from the Thing to Facet 1, and to Facet 2, and to Facet 3, and so on. Here is another example:

> 那个学生一边揉着中指，一边看陈秉正的手。只见那两只手确实跟一般人的手不同：手掌好像四方的，指头粗而短，而且每个指头都伸不直，里外都是茧皮，圆圆的指头肚儿都像半个蚕茧上安了个指甲，整个看来真像用树枝做成的小耙子。

> That student was rubbing his mid-finger, while looking at Chen Bingzheng's hands. Those two hands indeed were very different from ordinary ones: the palm seemed to be square, the fingers were thick and short, none of which can keep straight. Both sides of the hands were covered by thick callus, and the top parts of the fingers looked like half cocoons with nails. The whole hand was like a rake made with tree branches.

As shown in the example above, the text is unfolded in a cohesive manner, with the topic things being introduced to collocate with each other: from 手 *hand* (Thing) to 手掌 *palm* (Facet 1) to 手指头 *finger* (Facet 2), to 指头肚儿 *top part of the finger* (Facet 3)，to

指甲 *nail* (Facet 4).

So far I have investigated different resources that nominal groups can provide in achieving cohesive effects. The discussion mainly focuses on the contributions made to some commonly used cohesive strategies, including reference, ellipsis and lexical cohesion. In their study of cohesion in English, Halliday and Hasan (1976) also include 'substitution' as another common strategy. However, this is not covered in the present study because Chinese do not have such lexical resources as "one" and "ones" to substitute the Head of a nominal group. Therefore, there is no such an equivalent cohesive device in Chinese. Instead, Chinese seems to be more 'powerful' in using the strategy of ellipsis, which makes it possible to have Headless nominal groups in a cohesive environment.

1.5   Case study

In this case study, I will investigate the problems of cohesion caused by the machine-translated nominal groups between English and Chinese. As many can see, with the rapid development of translation softwares, nowadays it is common to achieve translation equivalence at the sentence-level in machine translation. However, one major problem remains unsolved: unlike human translators, computers cannot recognise the internal links between each sentence, neither can they effectively use grammatical resources to achieve cohesion (cf. Gross 1992; Fox 2002, etc.). It is based on this problem that the current case study is designed. I aim to further explore this issue by looking at the following questions: 1. Among the major cohesive strategies being discussed in this chapter, how well can they be adopted in machine translation? 2. What are the cohesion-related problems in translating nominal groups by the machine? 3. Between English and Chinese, does the translation in each direction involve different cohesion problems?

1.5.1 Sample texts and translation tool

Two sample texts are selected, one in Chinese and the other English. The context information of each text is presented in Table 6-7:

	Field	Tenor	Mode
小鹿的玫瑰花 *Little*	The socio-semiotic function of this text is recreating in the form of a short narrative. The	The institutional roles are a writer to junior school-aged children. The evaluation of the	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation. It is presented with

Deer's roses	domain is concrete and concerned with a little deer and the roses he planted. The protagonist is a personified animal.	experiential domain is positive and imaginative.	multimodal features – the text is illustrated with a picture. The story is written in Chinese.
Three little pigs	The socio-semiotic function of this text is recreating in the form of a short narrative. The domain is concrete and concerned with three little pigs and a big wolf. The protagonists are personified animals.	The institutional roles are a writer to young children. The evaluation of the experiential domain is positive and imaginative.	The text is monologic, written and constitutive of its contextual situation. The story is written in English.

Table 0-7: Contexts of the two sample texts

As can be seen, these two texts are very similar in terms of context features, based on which it is possible to say that the two are at the same level in terms of lexicogrammatical complexity.

The next step is to machine-translate the two texts into the other language, using Google translation tool. There are two reasons for using 'Google translate'. First, 'Google translate' is a very powerful statistical machine translation tool which operates on the basis of a massive bilingual text corpus (see further at http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Google_Translate). So the translation quality can be somewhat guaranteed as 'acceptable'. Second, as it is a free service provided by the most popular search engine in the world, it is reasonable to assume that the problems of the Google translation texts represent the most common problems that most people will see when they use machine translation.

1.5.2 Results and analysis

After the texts are translated by Google, the nominal groups in the source language texts (SLT) are compared with their translation equivalents in the target language texts (TLT). The comparison focuses on two things: the first is to see if a nominal group is translated as a nominal group or else; second, if there is no shifts in terms of translation unit, then is

there any differences in terms of identifiability of the instances? Findings are presented below.

1.5.2.1 Text 1 (Chinese into English)

There are some interesting findings in the translation of 小鹿的玫瑰花 *Little Deer's roses*. First, although the majority of the nominal groups in the source language text have been translated as nominal groups in the translation text, those with Qualifiers are generally not recognised as nominal groups. Rather, a Qualifier is often wrongly identified as a clause, and therefore results in mistakes. Examples:

> **Unidentified Qualifier in a nominal group**
> SLT: 门前的玫瑰已经长得很高了。
>> *The roses in the front have grown very high.*
> TLT：*<u>In front of the roses</u> have grown very high.

> SLT: 原来我种的玫瑰花是红色的。
>> *It turned out that the roses I planted were red.*
> TLT：It turned out *<u>I planted roses </u>are red.

A possible reason that the computer fails to recognise the Qualifier is that there is not a clear structural marker that can help identify such a modifier in Chinese. Although 的is often used as a marker between a modifier and the Head, it is not an exclusively used marker between Qualifier and the Head – except Qualifier, de can also be a marker for Epithet, a possessive Deictic, or Facet. Moreover, it is not a compulsory structural marker, and sometimes there is no marker at all between a modifier and Head. For example, in this sample text, there is a nominal group without *de* between Qualifier and Head, as in 你家那些红玫瑰 *your home red those roses (*=those red roses in your home)，but also a nominal group with de connecting Qualifier and Head, as in 你家的玫瑰花 *your home de roses* (= the roses in your home).

As discussed in Section 6.2.2.3, the structure "Qualifier + Thing" may represent a specific instance without a Deictic element (see discussions about "Specific + non-Deictic). When the Qualifier in such situation becomes unrecognisable in the translation, the specificity of the instance will be inevitably impacted.

Second, there is a significant shift in terms of specificity when the nominal group is non-Deictic in the Chinese text. To be more specific, when a specific instance is realised by a non-Deictic nominal group in Chinese, the machine translation cannot maintain the identifiable status of the instance in the English translation. Rather, it is often translated as a non-specific instance realised by a non-Deictic nominal group. Example:

(SLT) Specific + non-Deictic ---> (TLT) non-Specific + non-Deictic

SLT: 小鹿在门前的花坛里，栽了一丛玫瑰。他常常去松土、浇水。玫瑰慢慢地抽出枝条，长出了嫩绿的叶子。

Little Deer planted a clump of roses in the front garden. He often loosened the soil and watered the flowers. The roses slowly grew branches and sprouted green leaves.

TLT: Deer in front of the flower beds , planted a rose bush . He often went to loosen the soil , watering. Rose slowly withdrawn branches , grow a green leaf .

As discussed in Section 6.2.2.3, the specific status of an instance can be achieved by something other than a Deictic element, such as exophoric or homophoric information, or through endophoric information that is given and precedes in a text. In any of these ways, the specific status is achieved through something that is more related to the context and the unfolded text rather than an explicit lexical marker, and this is something that the computer can hardly catch.

Third, in contrast with my second point, the computer does well when there is a clear lexical marker for the specificity status. In the sample text, where a lexical item, such as a pronoun, a determiner, or a numerative, is used to clearly mark the specificity status, then the status can be well maintained in the machine translation in the same way. Examples:

(SLT) Specific ---> (TLT) Specific

小鹿，我见过你家那些红玫瑰，可好看了！

The deer I've seen those red roses in your house

(SLT) non-Specific ---> (TLT) non-Specific

这时，一只黄莺飞来了。

At this time, an oriole flew.

It seems that the computer can do well if the identifiability status is realised by lexical items. However, if it is achieved through textual and contextual clues, such as the information status of the referent, then it is very hard for the computer to identify the status of specificity.

Fourth, it seems that the computer also has problems identifying an individual name. In the sample text, 小鹿 *little deer* is presented as a specific individual, so it is either "The Deer" or "Little Deer", rather than a common name of the same class "deer/fawn". As this individual name bears the same lexical form as the common name in Chinese, the computer fails to recognise its actual status of naming. Again, it is a problem related to context: human translators can draw on the context and textual clues to distinguish an individual name from a common name, both of which are realised by the same lexical item in Chinese, and show no difference in presentation. In comparison, the computer cannot − its sole dependence on the lexical items available in the source text has determined its disadvantage in dealing with context-based information.

1.5.2.2 Text 2 (English into Chinese)

Some different situations are noticed in the translation of text 2, this time from the other direction. Firstly, unlike the translation from Chinese into English, the nominal groups containing Qualifiers are more recognisable in the other direction: English nominal groups with a post-modifying Qualifier are translated as nominal groups with a pre-modifying Qualifier in Chinese. Example:

Qualifier in a nominal group

SLT: The frightened little pig ran to the second pig's house [[that was made of sticks]].

TLT: 受惊的小猪跑到[[那个被做了枝]]的第二猪的房子。

Back translation: The frightened little pig ran to [[that was made of sticks]] de second pig's house.

Please note that, although there is a translation error in the machine translation example above, the computer does recognise the modifying structure of "Qualifier + Head", and makes the Qualifier precede the Head in Chinese. Then an interesting question to think about is: why is there such a difference in recognising Qualifier in the two translation directions? Why the structure can be identified by the computer from English into Chinese, but not the other way around? A possible explanation again lies with the use of lexical marker. In English when a Qualifier is used in a nominal group, there is a conjunction, such as *that* or *which*, connecting the Qualifier with the Head. However, in Chinese, the possible equivalent structural marker, 的, is not a definite selection between Qualifier and Head. As discussed before, de can be optional, and is not limited to the connection between Qualifier and the Head. So it presents a tricky situation to the computer, which

completely relies on the lexical resources to do the translation.

Secondly, the identifiability status of an instance is better maintained in the translation in this direction. In other words, in the translation of Text 2, there is no significant translation shift in terms of specificity of the instances. Examples:

(SLT) Specific + Deictic ---> (TLT) Specific + non-Deictic

SLT: He chased <u>the two pigs</u> and they ran and hid in their houses.

TLT: 他追了<u>两只小猪</u>，他们跑了，藏在他们的房子。

Back translation: He chased the two little pigs, they ran away, and were hiding in their house.

SLT: <u>The wolf</u> fell into it and died.

TLT：<u>狼</u>掉进它而死。

Back translation: *The wolf fell into it and died.*

As shown in the above two examples, a specific Deictic item, *the*, is used to mark the specific status of the instance in the source text. And when it is translated into Chinese, it is still presented as specific, though there is no equivalent Deictic item in the translation. The specific status is achieved by the information status of the instance that is presented previously: 两只小猪*two little pigs* and 狼 *wolf* both have been introduced and therefore are given information. So as the Chinese text unfolds, it is not necessary to use a lexical item to mark the specific status again – readers simply know which two pigs and which wolf are being talked about. In comparison, English is a more explicit language in that one always has to use a lexical item to mark the identifiability of an instance. This has made the computer's job easier. It is not the machine that keeps that status unchanged, but the Chinese language itself, which allows for a more flexible realisation of the specific status.

Thirdly, a potential problem that machine translation from English into Chinese will have is caused by Measure words. As discussed before, it is unmarked to have Measure collocate with Numerative or Deictic in a Chinese nominal group, which is very different from English. Measure is significant especially in the elliptical Chinese nominal groups, as it is often functioning as the Head in the ellipsis. However, when such an elliptical English nominal group is translated into Chinese, the computer often fails to recover the Measure. Example:

SLT: One pig built a house of straw while <u>the second</u> built his house with sticks.

TLT: 一头猪稻草建造一所房子，*而第二，把房子盖用棍棒。

*Back translation: One pig straw built a house, *while secondly, built a house with sticks.*

Again it is caused by the fact that the machine relies on the available lexical resources to do the translation, and unlike human, it cannot use the anaphoric information to recover the missing Measure, not to mention the elliptical Thing!

Based on the discussions above, one can see that a fundamental problem with the machine translation is that it relies heavily on the lexical items to do the translation. As discussed in this chapter, cohesive effects are achieved in many ways, through resources both inside and outside the text. And even for the resources inside the text, they are not limited to lexical resources – they could be grammatical, semantic, or textual. The sole dependence on the lexical resources creates problems in achieving cohesion in a consistent manner, especially when two languages, such as English and Chinese, are different in distributing lexicogrammatical resources in achieving cohesion. This has made cohesion an even more challenging problem to machine translation. One thing the researchers in machine translation can consider is to try to increase the computer's capacity in recognising given information, such as instances that have appeared previously in the text. In this way, the computer may work more effectively in identifying the specificity of an instance in a language like Chinese, which often relies on resources other than lexis to achieve the identity status.

1.6   Summary

In this chapter, I have explored the textual resources of Chinese nominal groups. Three textual systems are presented: the system of NAMING, the system of IDENTIFICATION, and the system of NUMERATION. All the three systems are related to the identification of an instance, from the perspectives of the explicitness of the identifying process, the specificity of the instance, and the quantity information of the instance. The three systems reflect the choices in lexicogrammar to present the instance, which have been discussed in detail in the chapter. During the discussion of the three systems, 'reference' of different types and their realisations are investigated as well. Following this, another two important cohesive devices, 'ellipsis' and 'lexical cohesion', are introduced. The focus is on how nominal groups can contribute to these strategies and provide resources to achieve the cohesive effects. Finally, a case study is presented, investigating the detailed cohesion problems in machine translation. Again, the investigation concentrates on the translation

problems of nominal groups and their impact on cohesion.

Chapter 7 Summary and Conclusion

1.1 Introduction

I have completed the metafunctional description of Chinese nominal groups. In this final chapter, I will summarise the main findings in terms of each metafunction. I will also explore the potential applications of the current research to other areas, and propose for further research in nominal groups.

1.2 Summary

In this thesis, I have used systemic functional linguistic theory to describe Chinese nominal groups. The description is organised according to the three metafunctions for which nominal groups provide resources: ideational (including logical and experiential), interpersonal and textual metafunctions. In each metafunctional description, I focused on detailed examinations of the elements in a nominal group that are relevant to the particular metafunction concerned, and how they work in the group to contribute to the metafunctional meanings. As a result of each metafunctional exploration, systems and system networks have been presented, which summarise the selections one can make in achieving a particular metafunctional meaning. Table 7-1 presents a summary of the main systems being drawn for each metafunctional strand:

Metafunction	System
Logical	MODIFICATION
Experiential	THING TYPE
	EPITHESIS
	CLASSIFICATION
	QUALIFICATION
	MEASURE
Interpersonal	ATTITUDE
	NOMINAL MOOD
	PERSON
	MODALITY
Textual	NAMING
	IDENTIFICATION
	NUMERATION

Table 0-1: Summary of main systems

The description starts from the logical exploration, where different structures of nominal groups in Chinese are investigated. The description focuses on three aspects: the complexity of the nominal groups, taxis, and logico-semantic relations between the nominal Head and its modifiers. Some complex structures are also discussed, including sub-modification, separate Head and Thing, and rank-shifted clauses as a modifier. I have also presented the logical system of MODIFICATION, which shows a theoretically endless potential for the Head to be modified repetitively, and the logico-semantic relation between a modifier and the Head is either an expansion or a projection. In general, the logical structure of a nominal group is always a univariate one, where all the modifiers are in the same kind of relationship with the Head: the hypotactic relationship of modifier modifying the Head.

The experiential description of nominal groups is the most significant part of this research, which lays the foundation for the description of interpersonal and textual resources. This is because in the metafunctional description of groups, it is very hard to draw a distinct line for each metafunction, which is very different from the description of clauses (cf. Halliday & Matthiessen 2004). Rather, it is based on the clear definition of the elements in an experiential structure that the description of the other two metafunctions becomes possible. So the arrangement of the metafunctional description in this thesis is made in such an order that an experiential description precedes the interpersonal and the textual ones.

In Chapter 4, I have given a metafunctional overview of each functional element in the experiential structure, indicating what would be covered in each of the metafunctional explorations. Some important general tendencies along the experiential structure have also been discussed, including the "instantial-general" cline and the "grammar-lexis" cline, which are closely related to the modifiability of the Thing. The system of THING TYPE is the most important system in the experiential domain, which has a great impact on the categorisation of the sub-systems, such as the systems for Classifier and Epithet. The major selections on the system of THING TYPE are based on congruency/metaphoric propensity, the consciousness/unconsciousness, the concreteness/abstractness, and so on. These categories, drawing on semantic distinctions, aim to reflect different grammatical potentials. This has been demonstrated by detailed examples at both group and clause levels, indicating how the categorisation reflects modifiability and the potential of construing participant roles. A number of systems of other important experiential elements have also been presented, including the system of CLASSIFICATION, the system of EPITHESIS, the system of QUALIFICATION, and the system of MEASURE. The discussions of these sub-systems have reached one common conclusion: the Thing Type is the determining factor influencing the experiential potential of the other experiential elements of the group.

In Chapter 5, I have explored the interpersonal resources of the nominal group. The discussion focuses on nominal groups' contributions in the following aspects: nominal mood, subject person choices, enacting attitude, and presenting modality. Nominal groups play a significant role in creating a prosodic attitudinal effect across the whole text. This is mainly achieved by the use of attitudinal Epithets, attitudinal Things, as well as lexical and grammatical metaphors. The interpersonal system allows a speaker to play with the choices to value or devalue the Thing, to humanise or to de-humanise a referent, in which way the attitude is enacted. Nominal groups also provide resources to create modality, which is mainly achieved through the use of metaphoric Things and post-Deictics. The modality realised by nominal groups also corresponds to the two categories of modulation and modalisation.
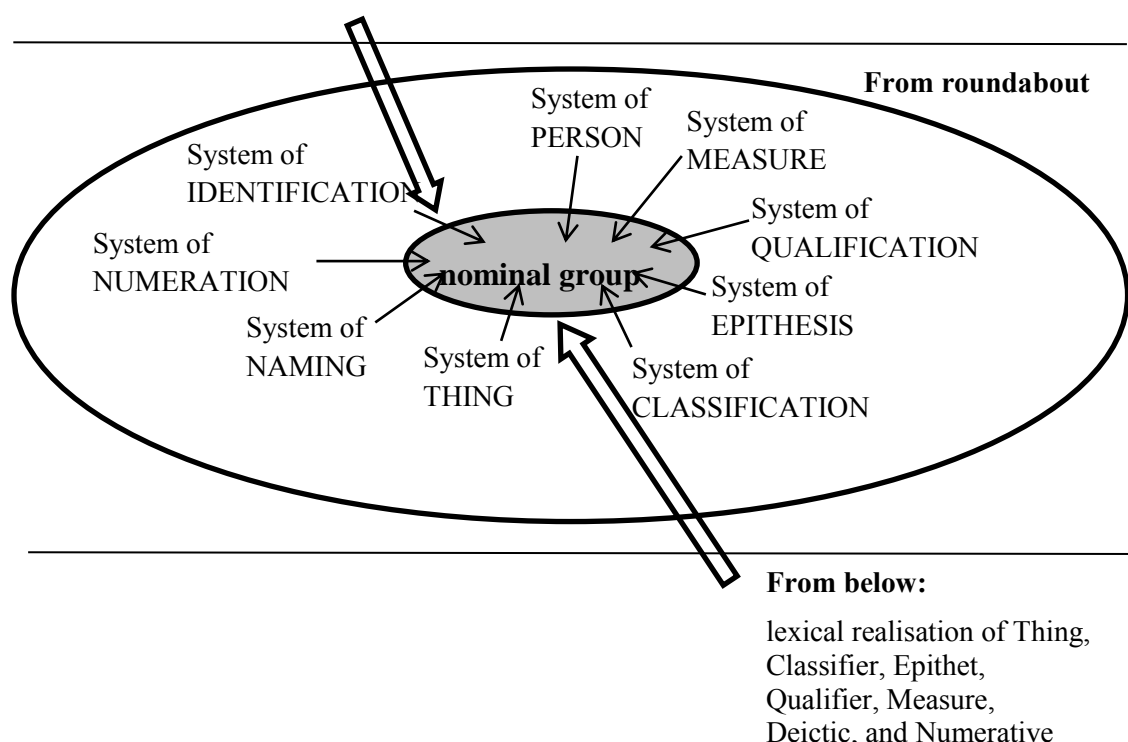
The exploration of the textual resources in Chapter 6 includes two parts. First, I have discussed the lexicogrammatical choices on the three textual systems: the system of NAMING, reflecting how things are named; the system of IDENTIFICATION, reflecting choices to present the Thing as specific or non-specific, as identifiable or unidentifiable; the

system of NUMERATION, reflecting choices to present an instance as ordinated or quantified. These systems indicate how reference, which is an important cohesive device, works in the text to create cohesion. Analysis of examples indicates that, when investigating the contribution made by nominal groups to cohesion, one needs to base the observation on the context and textual information. Apart from reference, another two important cohesive strategies, ellipsis and lexical cohesion, are also discussed. The discussion has mainly focused on how nominal groups provide resources in adopting these strategies to create cohesion. When ellipsis occurs to a Chinese nominal group, the Thing must be omitted. There are three functional elements other than the Thing which can take the Head position when the Thing is elliptical: Numerative, Measure and Deictic. However, with the subordinate particle 的, an elliptical Chinese nominal group can also be Headless. The discussion of lexical cohesion mainly has focused on two strategies: reiteration and collocation. Findings show that both strategies are closely related to the specific-general cline of the THING TYPE system, which allows for lexical choices along the cline to achieve reiteration and collocation of various kinds.

The metafunctional descriptions of nominal groups are text-based, the examples of which all come from genuine texts. A trinocular vision has been adopted as much as possible to ensure the observation of the data is comprehensive and effective. This is demonstrated by the fact that all the examples in the discussions come from texts and text types are always considered as an important factor influencing the lexicogrammatical choices. The contextual concerns have been well demonstrated by the case studies at the end of each major chapter. And semantic motives behind each major selections in a system have also been discussed wherever relevant. As from below, the categories below the rank of group that realise the nominal groups are also considered in the descriptions wherever it becomes a significant issue, such as in the descriptions of "Metaphorical things" and the system of NUMERATION. And from the perspective of roundabout, systems and system networks have been presented in terms of each metafunctional dimension of nominal groups, reflecting selections that one can make in achieving the metafunctional meanings concerned. Figure 7-1 illustrates how nominal groups have been approached trinocularly in the current study.

From above:
- Case studies
- Semantic discussions

From roundabout

System of PERSON

System of MEASURE

System of IDENTIFICATION

System of QUALIFICATION

System of NUMERATION

nominal group

System of EPITHESIS

System of NAMING

System of THING

System of CLASSIFICATION

From below:

lexical realisation of Thing, Classifier, Epithet, Qualifier, Measure, Deictic, and Numerative

Figure 0-1: The trinocular vision being achived

1.3   The application of the current research

The metafunctional description of nominal groups can be applied to many areas of research, including text analysis, language learning and teaching, and translation studies. At the end of each metafunctional description between Chapter 3 and Chapter 6, a case study is presented, demonstrating how the metafunctional description could be used in these areas.

In Chapter 3, the case study focuses on the logical complexity of the nominal groups used in two texts of the same domain targeting audience of different age groups. The logical analysis of the two texts finds that submodification can greatly increase the complexity of the logical structure, whereas the number of modifications seems to have less impact on the complexity. This brings potential lexicogrammatical indications for people intending to design texts for language tests of different levels. The logical complexity of the nominal

groups should also be considered when people conduct research in children's books. It may also bring insights into the choice of texts in translation training: for example, those texts with high logical complexity tend to present more challenges in translation activities than those without. The study of logical complexity of the nominal groups provides lexicogrammatical evidence showing how and why one text is more difficult than another

In Chapter 4, the case study involves four texts of different text types. The experiential analysis of the topic Thing in each text aims to seek any connections between the Thing type and its potential participant roles construed in the text, and their relationship with the text type. Findings show that in describing a complex type of Thing, writers tend to concretise the Thing by focusing on the concrete aspects of it in the description. The detailed experiential analysis of nominal groups provides a new perspective of doing text analysis: instead of focusing on clauses, one can conduct delicate analysis of the nominal groups, which provides a straightforward picture of how the thing under focus is depicted in different types of text. Such analysis can also bring implications to the training of writing, as it shows how lexicogrammatical choices are made by experienced writers to deliver to a good piece of writing.

In Chapter 5, the case study presents an alternative angle of viewing the attitudinal colour of a text. The case involves two groups of news reports covering the same event, but from two different political perspectives. The interpersonal analysis of the nominal groups shows great contrast in terms of lexicogrammatical choices in enacting the attitudes. This is evidenced by the use various strategies at the level of nominal groups, including very delicate interpersonal grammatical metaphor, different types of attitudinal Epithets, and the choice of Numeratives to tune up or down the intended effects. Again, the case study is presented as another piece of evidence showing how doing delicate text analysis may help people zoom in the details in the text which accumulate to achieve the interpersonal effect bit by bit. When analysing the interpersonal meanings of a text, one should not ignore the significance of nominal groups in contributing to the interpersonal prosodies.

In Chapter 6, the case study focuses on a problem faced by a rather popular area in translation studies – machine translation. The study aims to explore further the problem of cohesion that is commonly encountered by machine translations. By comparing the machine translation of two children's stories in both English and Chinese, the study finds that English is a more explicit language than Chinese in presenting the identifiable/non-identifiable status

of a referent, and it relies more on lexical resources to achieve cohesion. This leads to the different situation in each translation direction when the computer translates: the problem of cohesion seems to be less serious when the computer translates from Chinese into English than from English into Chinese. The study of nominal groups in achieving cohesion in texts also provides good insights into the comparative studies between English and Chinese.

As can be seen, the metafunctional study of nominal groups will provide researchers with an alternative to clause grammar when they conduct discourse analysis. It makes delicate text analysis a useful tool in a number of research areas, and displays the important nitty-gritties below the clause that people tend to ignore.

1.4   Proposal for future studies

Although this thesis provides an overall metafunctional description of Chinese nominal groups, there are a number of aspects where further studies are needed. Due to the limit of space and time constraints, these issues have gone beyond the scope of the current project, and need to be addressed in the future studies. I will briefly talk about them based on the trinocular vision in relation to stratification.

Firstly, from the angle of 'above', to get a more comprehensive picture of nominal groups functioning in different contexts, a well-balanced corpus of more text types should be included for observation. In the current study, although texts of all the major text types have been collected, each text type is not evenly represented in the corpus. The distribution of the current corpus shows a high proportion of recreating texts that come from text Archive A (Chinese textbooks), whereas the proportions of expounding, exploring, enabling and doing texts are considerably lower. This uneven distribution simply reflects the current choice of texts used in China's schools. In the future studies, if all the text types are evenly distributed across the corpus, the researchers may get some more interesting examples reflecting a more comprehensive and in-depth categories. For example, expounding texts, such as scientific writings, may present the researchers opportunities to do more delicate investigation of the metaphorical Thing type.

Secondly, from the angle of 'roundabout', more work should be done to extend the delicacy of the system networks of nominal groups. In the current study, the system networks being presented still leave quite a bit of space for further development along the cline of delicacy. Take the system of THIING TYPE for example. The current system can be viewed

closer to the "grammar" end than the "lexis" end. To further elaborate the system and develop it towards the more delicate end, it is essential for the future researchers to base their investigations on a paradigmatic foundation, which brings the grammatical description closer to the meaning potential, and therefore makes it both powerful and elastic. Meanwhile, a topological account should also be brought in as an agnated description to further elaborate the system network towards the delicate end (cf. Martin & Matthiessen 1992; Matthiessen, 2007a). For example, in the case of the system of THING TYPE, taxonomic elaborations may fit in for a topological description of a primary Thing type.

Thirdly, from the angle of 'below', the resources of phonology should also be taken into account in the future descriptions. In the current study, all the texts involved are written, due to the fact that onerous workload of transcribing spoken texts is beyond the management of the current author. As a result, some potential impact brought by the phonological resources may not be covered in the description. For example, tones and intonations usually carry some important attitude clues in spoken texts, and it would be interesting to investigate the relations between the tone movements and their representations of attitudinal Epithets. Also, in the textual exploration where information status is concerned, tone prominence plays important roles in presenting given/new information. For example, as the existing elements in an elliptical nominal group typically represent new information, they tend to carry the prominent tones. It would be interesting to examine further which particular existing element among others carries the prominent tone, and how this is related to its metafunctional role in the nominal group.

As the first attempt to give a comprehensive and overall account of the metafunctional resources of Chinese nominal groups, I expect this thesis to make its contribution to the metafunctional study of Chinese language, and fill in the blank of metafunctional description of nominal groups in Chinese. At least, this project has demonstrated the significance of nominal groups in construing experiences, enacting attitudes, and creating cohesion in a text.

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Appendix

This appendix contains the individual sample texts that have been used in the case studies presented between Chapter 3 and 6. Please note that, as the case study in Chapter 5 is based on text archives of 37 texts, which would take too many pages to present, they will not be included here.

Texts used in Chapter 3

Section 3.4

<u>Text 1: 不骂人、不打架 —— 国旗下讲话发言稿</u>   **(from Text Archive B)**

泉州市第三实验小学
丁燕芬

老师同学们：
　　早上好！今天我国旗下讲话的主题是"不骂人，不打架"。
　　不 骂人、不打架是小学生基本的文明行为。我们经常看到有些同学为了一点小事，破口大骂，大打出手，这是很愚蠢也是错误的行为。据了解，同学们骂人、打架，原因是多方面的。比如，有的同学逞强好胜，总以为要想在同学中树立起自己的威信，就得让同学怕自己，不敢惹自己；有的同学情绪易激动,不能控制好自己的言行举止,一旦别的同学与自己的意见不一致,就会骂人或打人;有的同学则是从小受不良环境的影响；还有的同学从小就养成了爱骂人、爱打架的恶习。

骂 人、打人是一种不文明的粗野行为，轻则影响团结，伤害彼此的感情，重则危害社会，给自己、给家庭、给他人造成不可估量的损失。因此，打人、骂人并非小事。 小朋友们一起生活、学习，难免会发生碰撞，这时要讲团结、讲礼貌，要以理服人，不要以力压人，打人、骂人既是不道德、无纪律的表现，也是违法行为。我国 《治安管理处罚条例》规定，殴打他人，造成轻微伤害的，要处以拘留、罚款或者警告。教育部发布的《小学生日常行为规范》也规定，小学生要尊敬师长，友爱同 学，待人有礼貌，不打架，不骂人。

同学们，今天老师想教你一招学会讲道理。一个人在同学中有没有威信并不是靠拳头说话的，一个爱骂人爱打架的同学不可能受到大家的尊敬和喜爱。因此，在与别人意见不一致时，要摆事实、讲道理，使别人心服口服。只有这样，才能树立起真正的威信。

学会控制自己的情绪。当自己情绪激动时，要学会忍让，先要冷静下来，想想自己对不对，再坐下来与对方解决纠纷,当双方不能解决时,可求助于同学或老师。

　　学会监督自己和别人。骂人打架的习惯不是一朝一夕就可以改正过来的，因此，必须学会自我监督，时时提醒自己，也可以请周围的同学或家人提醒自己。身边的同学、朋友或家人有骂人打架的行为也要及时加以制止。

　　播下一个动作，收获一个习惯；播下一个习惯，便收获一个品格。现代社会中，"文明"二字已被人们放在心里的一个重要位置，每一个人时时刻刻都在与文明交谈，每个人的举手投足之间都传递着丰富的文明信息。同学们，就让我们在国旗下共同祝愿，祝愿我们的华园处处开满文明之花。

　　http://www.huayuanqz.com/Article/ShowArticle.asp?ArticleID=819

Text 2: 关于处置学生打架、斗殴等事件应急预案 (from Text Archive B)

为加强对校园安全活动的管理，防止打架斗殴等意外事故的发生，根据我校的安全保卫工作条例，现在原来的应急预案的基础上对校园发生打架斗殴现象的安全应急预案进行修改，并自公布之日起实行。

　　第一条　各班主任以及任课教师都有责任对本班学生进行和谐相处文明做人的教育，对有发生打架斗殴可能的苗头要及时报告年级主任和学校领导，把问题解决在萌芽阶段。

　　第二条　班主任要将本班有这类问题和可能的学生名单报告年级组长进行统筹管理，重点做好这部分学生的工作，防止打架斗殴问题的发生。

　　第三条　凡萧王庙中心小学的教师如果遇到学生或者是校外人员到学校滋事打架的，都有责任及时劝阻，同时报告学校领导进行处理，如果遇到而不报告的，学校将根据情况对其进行严肃处理。

　　第四条　发现学生在校园内打架斗殴时，教师除了要当面进行劝阻，还要及时将有关的情况反映给学校领导以及班主任老师。

　　第五条　一旦出现人身伤害事故，教师要马上报告学校领导，同时播打120急救电话，组织送往最近的医院进行抢救处理。

　　第六条　对发生打架斗殴的学生所在班级的班主任老师要对这类问题学生建立专门的档案进行跟踪管理，要做耐心的思想工作，并注意做好调查研究工作，把有些问题解决在萌芽状态。

　　第七条　对有些学生纠集社会上的人员到校园进行斗殴，教师发现后要及时报告学校领导，并根据情况劝阻，打电话报警（报警电话110）。

　　第八条　对参与打架斗殴的学生要根据现场情况做好工作，稳定局势，防止事态进一步扩大。

　　第九条　未 依法履行安全职责，违反安全规定的行为或违反本规定的，经校行政会议及有关部门的认定，由学校依照有关规定对责任人员给予行政纪律处分或者其他处罚。因渎 职、失职或者管理失控发生事故，造成恶劣影响的，由有关管理部门和公

安机关依照有关法律法规予以处罚。构成犯罪的，依法追究刑事责任。

本规定解释权限在学校行政办公会议，可以根据具体情况，在每年进行一次审视和必要的修改。

Texts used in Chapter 4

Sample texts in Section 4.4.3

Text 1: 新型玻璃　**(from Text Archive A)**

夜深了，从一座陈列珍贵字画的博物馆里，突然传出了急促的警报声。警察马上赶来，抓住了一个划破玻璃企图盗窃展品的犯罪嫌疑人。你也许不会相信，报警的不是值夜班的看守，而是被划破的玻璃！这是一种特殊的玻璃，里面有一层极细的金属丝网。金属丝网接通电源，跟自动报警器相连。罪犯罪嫌疑人划破玻璃，碰着了金属丝网，报警器就响起来了。这种玻璃叫"夹丝网防盗玻璃"，博物馆可以采用，银行可以采用，珠宝店可以采用，存放重要图纸、文件的地方也可以采用。

另一种"夹丝玻璃"不是用来防盗的。它非常坚硬，受到猛击仍安然无恙；即使被打碎了，碎片仍然藕断丝连地粘在一起，不会伤人。有些国家规定，高层建筑必须采用这种安全可靠的玻璃。

还有一种"变色玻璃"，能够对阳光起反射作用。建筑物装上这种玻璃，从室内看外面很清楚，从外面看室内却什么也瞧不见。变色玻璃还会随着阳光的强弱改变颜色的深浅，调节室内的光线。所以人们又把这种玻璃叫做"自动窗帘"。有人想，窗子上的玻璃要是能使房间里冬暖夏凉，那该多好！这样的玻璃早就问世了，它就是"吸热玻璃"。在炎热的夏天，它能阻挡强烈的阳光，使室内比室外凉爽；在严寒的冬季，把冷空气挡在室外，使室内保持温暖。

噪音像一个来无影去无踪的"隐身人"，不像烟尘和废水那样可以集中起来处理。尽管这位"隐身人"难以对付，人们还是想出了许多制服它的办法。"吃音玻璃"就是消除噪音的能手。临街的窗子上如果装上这种玻璃，街上的噪音为40分贝时，传到房间里就只剩下12分贝了。

在现代化的建筑中，新型玻璃正在起着重要的作用。在对新型玻璃的研制中，人们将会创造出更多的奇迹。

Text 2: 鲸 **(from Text Archive A)**

不少人看过象，都说象是很大的动物。其实还有比象大得多的动物，那就是鲸。最大的鲸有十六万公斤重，最小的也有两千公斤。我国捕获过一头四万公斤重的鲸，

有十七米长，一条舌头就有十几头大肥猪那么重。它要是张开嘴，人站在它嘴里，举起手来还摸不到它的上腭；四个人围着桌子坐在它的嘴里看书，还显得很宽敞。

鲸生活在海洋里，因为体形像鱼，许多人管它叫鲸鱼。其实它不属于鱼类，是哺乳动物。在很远的古代，鲸的祖先跟牛羊的祖先一样，生活在陆地上。后来环境发生了变化，鲸的祖先生活在靠近陆地的浅海里；又经过了很长很长的年代，它们的前肢和尾巴渐渐变成了鳍，后肢完全退化了，整个身子成了鱼的样子，适应了海洋的生活。

鲸的种类很多，总的来说可以分为两大类：一类是须鲸，没有牙齿；一类是齿鲸，有锋利的牙齿。

鲸的身子这么大，它们吃什么呢？须鲸主要吃虾和小鱼。它们在海洋里游的时候，张着大嘴，把许多小鱼小虾连同海水一齐吸进嘴里，然后闭上嘴，把海水从须板中间滤出来，把小鱼小虾吞进肚子里，一顿就可以吃两千多公斤。齿鲸主要吃大鱼和海兽。它们遇到大鱼和海兽，就凶猛地扑上去，用锋利的牙齿咬住，很快就吃掉。有一种号称"海中之虎"的虎鲸，有时好几十头结成一群，围住了一头三十多吨重的长须鲸，几个小时就把它吃光了。

鲸跟牛羊一样用肺呼吸，也说明它不属于鱼类。鲸的鼻孔长在脑袋顶上，呼气的时候浮上海面，从鼻孔喷出来的气形成一股水柱，就像花园里的喷泉一样；等肺里吸足了气，再潜入水中。鲸隔一定的时间必须呼吸一次。不同种类的鲸，喷出的气形成的水柱也不一样：须鲸的水柱是垂直的，又细又高；齿鲸的水柱是倾斜的，又粗又矮。有经验的渔民根据水柱的形状，就可以判断鲸的种类和大小。

鲸每天都要睡觉。睡觉的时候，总是几头聚在一起，找一个比较安全的地方，头朝里，尾巴向外，围成一圈，静静地浮在海面上。如果听到什么声响，它们立即四散游开。

鲸是胎生的，幼鲸靠吃母鲸的奶长大。这些特征也说明鲸是哺乳动物。长须鲸刚生下来就有十多米长，七千公斤重，一天能长三十公斤到五十公斤，两三年就可以长成大鲸。鲸的寿命很长，一般可以活几十年到一百年。

Text 3: 千奇百怪的动物语言

动物也有着自己的语言。它们不光有声音语言，还有许多无声的语言，例如美妙的舞姿、绚丽的色彩和芬芳的气味，甚至连超声波也被用来作为一种特殊的语言。

声 音 语 言

人们发现，每当敌害来到白蚁的巢穴时，整群白蚁常常已逃得无影无踪，只留下空"城"一座。为了揭开这个奥秘，昆虫学家进行了专门的研究。原来，担任哨兵的白蚁能从很远的地方，就发出敌情"报告"，用自己的头叩击洞壁，通知巢中的蚁群立即撤退。在大自然中，用声音作为通信工具的动物是很多的。许多鸟都有着清甜多变的歌喉，它们是出色的歌唱家。据说，全世界的鸟类语言共有两三千种之多，和人类语言的种

类不相上下。有些动物学家对鸟类的各种语言进行了研究，并编成了一本《鸟类语言辞典》。这本辞典是很有用处的。举个例说，空中的飞鸟对飞机是个很大的威胁，因为飞鸟虽小，却能像子弹一样击穿飞机，使飞机坠毁。现在有的机场已设立了鸟语广播台，播送鸟类的惊恐叫声，以便驱散它们，使飞机安全起飞和降落。

动物的声音语言千变万化，含义各不相同。长尾鼠在发现地面上的强敌——狐狸和狼等时，会发出一连串的声音；如果威胁来自空中，它的声音便单调而冗长；一旦空中飞贼已降临地面，它就每隔八秒钟发一次警报。母鸡可以用七种不同的声音来报警，它的同伴们一听便知：来犯者是谁，它们来自何方，离这儿有多远。

心有灵犀一点通是唐代李商隐《无题》中的诗句。意思是说两心相通，互相了解。有些动物的警报声，不仅本家族的成员十分熟悉，就连其他动物也都心领神会。例如，当猎人走进森林时，喜鹊居高临下，叽叽喳喳地发出了警报，野鹿、野猪和其他飞禽走兽顿时便明白了：此地危险。于是它们不约而同地四处逃窜了。

目前，分类学家正在研究，把动物的声音信号，作为动物分类的一种指标；生态学家正在探索，如何通过声音信号，来揭示动物行为的奥秘。更引人注目的，则是利用动物的声音语言来指挥动物，使之按人类的吩咐行事，不得越出雷池半步。

超 声 语 言

螽斯〔螽（zhōng）斯〕一种害虫，身体绿色或褐色，善跳跃，吃农作物。雄的前翅有发声器，颤动翅膀能发声。、蟋蟀、蝗虫和老鼠等动物，是用超声波进行联系的。螽斯有三种鸣声："单身汉"螽斯唱的大多是"求婚曲"，其他"单身汉"听到后，会此呼彼应地对唱起来。雌螽斯闻乐赴会，并选中歌声嘹亮者。两只雄螽斯相遇，就高唱"战歌"，面对面地摆好阵势，频频摇动触角，大有一触即发之势。当周围出现危险时，螽斯就高奏"报警曲"，闻者便"噤若寒蝉"，溜之大吉。

海豚的超声语言是颇为复杂的。它们能交流情况，展开讨论，共商大计。1962年，有人曾记录了一群海豚遇到障碍物时的情景：先是一只海豚"挺身而出"，侦察了一番；然后其他海豚听了侦察报告后，便展开了热烈讨论；半小时后，意见统一了——障碍物中没有危险，不必担忧，于是它们就穿游了过去。

现在，人们已听懂了海豚的呼救信号：开始声调很高，而后渐渐下降。当海豚因受伤不能升上水面进行呼吸时，就发出这种尖叫声，召唤近处的伙伴火速前来相救。有人由此得到启发，认为今后人们可以直接用海豚的语言，向海豚发号施令，让它们携带仪器潜入大海深处进行勘察和调查，或完成某些特殊的使命，使之成为人类的得力助手。

运 动 语 言

有些动物是以动作作为联系信号的。在我国海滩上，有一种小蟹，雄的只有一只大螯，在寻求配偶时，便高举这只大螯，频频挥动，一旦发觉雌蟹走来，就更加起劲地挥舞大螯，直至雌蟹伴随着一同回穴。

有一种鹿是靠尾巴报信的。平安无事时，它的尾巴就垂下不动；尾巴半抬起来，表示正处于警戒状态；如果发现有危险，尾巴便完全竖直。

蜜蜂的运动语言可算是登峰造极的了，它能用独特的舞蹈动作向自己的伙伴，报告食物（蜜源）的方向和距离。蜜源的距离不同，在一定时间内完成的舞蹈次数也不一样。

有人因此提出了一个诱人的设想：派人造的电子蜂打入蜜蜂之中，指挥蜜蜂活动。这样，不但可以按人的需要收获不同的蜂蜜，还可以帮助植物传粉，提高农作物的产量，真是一举两得。

色 彩 语 言

孔雀是以华艳夺目的羽毛著称于世的。雄孔雀之所以常在春末夏初开屏，是因为它没有清甜动听的歌喉，只好凭着一身艳丽的羽毛，尤其是那迷人的尾羽来向它的"对象"炫耀雄姿美态。

现在已经知道，善于运用色彩语言的动物不光是鸟类，爬行类、鱼类、两栖类，甚至连蜻蜓、蝴蝶和墨鱼也都充分利用色彩。

观察一下背上长有三根长刺的刺背鱼的体色变化，是十分有趣的。这种鱼体呈青灰色，貌不惊人。在交配前夕，雄鱼各自划分势力范围，同时腹部出现了红色，以警告旁的雄鱼，赶快回避。当它追求雌鱼时，随即披上了绚丽的婚装——腹部泛红，背呈蓝白，煞是好看。待到交配、产卵和鱼卵孵化后，雄鱼便再度恢复婚前的色彩——红色的腹部和青灰色的鱼体，日夜看守着幼鱼。

气 味 语 言

一位昆虫学家曾经做过一个试验：把一头新羽化的天蚕雌蛾，装进一只用纱布缝制的口袋里，然后在桌上放一夜。翌日清晨发现竟有四十多万头同种雄蛾闯进这间房子，将那头雌蛾团团围住。天蚕雌蛾既无声音语言，又无色彩和运动语言，它是靠什么和雄蛾取得联系的呢？

原来，许多昆虫都是靠释放一种有特殊气味的微量物质（即气味语言）进行通信联系的。这种微量物质称之为传信素。目前，人们已查明一百多种昆虫传信素的化学结构，并根据这些气味语言物质的作用进行了分类：有借以吸引同种异性个体的性引诱剂，通知同种个体对劲敌采取防御和进攻措施的警戒激素，帮助同类寻找食物或在迁居时指明道路的示踪激素，以及维持群居昆虫间的正常秩序的行为调节剂等。

人们发现，运用气味语言的绝非昆虫一家，鱼和某些兽类也有这种本领。有些雄兽（如许多鹿和羚羊）在生殖季节，能用特殊的气味物质进行"圈地"，借以警告它的同伙：有我在此，你须回避。

各种传信素的发现、分离和人工合成，不仅为我们揭示动物行为的秘密，也为进而控制、改造生物开辟了诱人的前景。据报道，最近已研制成功一种香味浓郁的"假激素"，蚊子、蛾子和小甲虫等害虫闻到之后，便会大倒胃口，停止吃食和排泄，中断发育周期，并不再繁殖后代了。一旦这些研究成果得到广泛应用，人们对于使用农药的后顾之忧，也就可以彻底解除了。

Texts used in Section 4.5.3

<u>Text 1：松鼠</u> **(from Text Archive A)**

松鼠是一种漂亮的小动物，驯良，乖巧，很讨人喜欢。

它们面容清秀，眼睛闪闪有光，身体矫健，四肢轻快，非常敏捷，非常机警。玲珑的小面孔，衬上一条帽缨形的美丽的尾巴，显得格外漂亮；尾巴老是翘起来，一直翘到

头上，身子就躲在尾巴底下歇凉。它们常常直竖著身子坐著，像人们用手一样，用前爪往嘴里送东西吃。可以说，松鼠最不像四足兽了。

松鼠不躲藏在地底下，经常在高处活动，像鸟类似的住在树上，满树林里跑，从这棵树跳到那棵树。它们在树上做窝，摘果实，喝露水，只有树被风刮得太厉害了，才到地上来。在田野里，在平原地区，是找不到松鼠的。它们从来不接近人的住宅，也不呆在小树丛里，只喜欢大的树木，住在高大的树上。在晴明的夏夜，可以听到松鼠在树上跳著叫著，互相追逐的声音。它们好像很怕强烈的日光，白天躲在窝里歇凉，晚上出来练跑，玩耍，吃东西。它们虽然也捕捉鸟雀，却不是肉食兽类，常吃的是杏仁、榛子、榉实和橡栗。

松鼠不敢下水。有人说，松鼠过水的时候，用一块树皮当作船，用自己的尾巴当作帆和舵。松鼠不像山鼠那样一到冬天就蛰伏不动。它们是十分警觉的，只要有人稍微在树根上触动一下，它们就从窝里跑出来，躲在树枝底下，或者逃到别的树上去。松鼠跑跳轻快极了，总是小跳著前进，有时也连蹦带跳。它们的爪子是那样锐利，动作是那样敏捷，一棵很光滑的高树，一忽儿就爬上去了。松鼠的叫声很响亮，比黄鼠狼的叫声还要尖些。要是被人家惹恼了，还会发出一种不高兴的恨恨声。

松鼠的窝通常搭在树枝分叉的地方，又乾净又暖和。它们搭窝的时候，先搬些小木片，错杂著放在一起，再用一些乾苔藓编扎起来；然后把苔藓挤紧，踏平，使那建筑物既宽广又坚实，可以带著儿女住在里面，既舒适又安全。窝口朝上，端端正正，很狭窄，勉强可以进出；窝口上有一个圆锥形的盖，把整个窝遮蔽起来，可以使雨水向四周流去，不落在窝里。

Text 2: 仙人掌(from Text Archive A)

烈日炙烤着大地，沙漠上粒粒沙石反射出灼目的光晕。到处是恼人的炎热，到处是难耐的干渴，然而就在这６０度的灼热的沙漠上，满身是刺的仙人掌却傲然存活。

这顽强的生命力是怎样赢得的呢？原来为了适应干旱艰苦的环境，仙人掌有自身的结构和生活方式。

干旱地带的植物都有发达的根系，仙人掌也不例外。它的根有很强的吸水能力，这有利于它们从炎热干燥的沙漠环境中吸收更多的水分，维持生命活动的需要。

仙人掌的茎也起了很大变化。它的茎秆又大又粗，而且肉质化，很像水果的果肉，这有利于它贮藏更多的水分。仙人掌在水分供应充足时，积极吸水，把水贮存在自己像果肉一样的茎中，一旦水分缺乏，贮水的茎就把水供给周围的组织，满足整个植株的生存需要。在沙漠上往来的行人口渴时，往往劈开仙人掌的茎，取它里面的积水来解渴。

为了减少水分的蒸发，仙人掌的叶子严重退化。有人做过试验，连续 6 年不给仙人掌供水，它仍然能够活下去。由于叶子无法进行光合作用，它的茎秆就承担了这个重任，进行光合作用，供给整个植株营养。

仙人掌具有顽强的生命力，它不像温室里的花朵那样娇气，它不需要人们特别的照料便能茁壮成长，而它的用途却非常广泛。

仙人掌的果实是紫红色的，呈椭圆形，大一点的果实有鹅蛋那么大，汁多味甜，除了可以当作美味的水果食用外，还可用来炼糖和酿酒。

有的仙人掌茎秆，经过发酵加工，可以做成饲料；仙人掌树上经常会有一种叫胭脂虫的小虫子，能用来提炼名贵的红色染料；在农村，干枯的仙人掌还可以当燃料用；仙人掌高大的片状茎像板子一样，可以做建筑材料，建造农舍。

世界上已知的仙人掌有一千多个品种：高的、矮的，圆的、扁的，绿的、紫的，开花的、不开花的；结果的、不结果的。这一千多个品种有一半生长在墨西哥。墨西哥境内多山缺水，仙人掌耐旱，根须又长又发达，当地农民利用它来防止水土流失、固定流沙、保护农田。小一点的仙人掌还可以种到花盆里，放在桌角窗台当作观赏植物。

仙人掌凭着无线旺盛的生命力在最酷热干旱的艰苦环境中生长着，而且给人们贡献出许多有价值的东西。它虽然浑身是刺，貌不惊人，外表比不过高大挺拔的乔木、摇曳多姿的奇花异奔，但仙人掌适应艰苦环境而生存的坚忍顽强和它那种默默奉献的精神，却是一种独特的美丽。可以说，仙人掌是个只讲奉献不讲索取的典范！

Text 3: 济南的秋天 (from Text Archive A)

济南的秋天是诗境的。设若你的幻想中有个中古的老城，有睡着了的大城楼，有狭窄的古石路，有宽厚的石城墙，环城流着一道清溪，倒映着山影，岸上蹲着红袍绿裤的小妞儿。你的幻想中要是这么个境界，那便是个济南。设若你幻想不出——许多人是不会幻想的——请到济南来看看吧。

请你在秋天来。那城，那河，那古路，那山影，是终年给你预备着的。可是，加上济南的秋色，济南由古朴的画境转入静美的诗境中了。这个诗意秋光秋色是济南独有的。上帝把夏天的艺术赐给瑞士，把春天的赐给西湖，秋和冬的全赐给了济南。秋和冬是不好分开的，秋睡熟了一点便是冬，上帝不愿意把它忽然唤醒，所以作个整人情，连秋带冬全给了济南。

诗的境界中必须有山有水。那么，请看济南吧。那颜色不同，方向不同，高矮不同的山，在秋色中便越发的不同了。以颜色说吧，山腰中的松树是青黑的，加上秋阳的斜射，那片青黑便多出些比灰色深，比黑色浅的颜色，把旁边的黄草盖成一层灰中透黄的阴影。山脚是镶着各色条子的，一层层的，有的黄，有的灰，有的绿，有的似乎是藕荷色儿。山顶上的色儿也随着太阳的转移而不同。山顶的颜色不同还不重要，山腰

中的颜色不同才真叫人想作几句诗。山腰中的颜色是永远在那儿变动，特别是在秋天，那阳光能够忽然清凉一会儿，忽然又温暖一会儿，这个变动并不激烈，可是山上的颜色觉得出这个变化，而立刻随着变换。忽然黄色更真了些，忽然又暗了些，忽然像有层看不见的薄雾在那儿流动，忽然像有股细风替"自然"调合着彩色，轻轻的抹上层各色俱全而全是淡美的色道儿。有这样的山，再配上那蓝的天，晴暖的阳光；蓝得像要由蓝变绿了，可又没完全绿了；晴暖得要发燥了，可是有点凉风，正像诗一样的温柔；这便是济南的秋。况且因为颜色的不同，那山的高低也更显然了。高的更高了些，低的更低了些，山的棱角曲线在晴空中更真了，更分明了，更瘦硬了。看山顶上那个塔！再看水。以量说，以质说，以形式说，哪儿的水能比济南？有泉--到处是泉--有河，有湖，这是由形式上分。不管是泉是河是湖，全是那么清，全是那么甜，哎呀，济南是"自然"的情人吧？大明湖夏日的莲花，城河的绿柳，自然是美好的了。可是看水，是要看秋水的。济南有秋山，又有秋水，这个秋才算个秋，因为秋神是在济南住家的。先不用说别的，只说水中的绿藻吧。那份儿绿色，除了上帝心中的绿色，恐怕没有别的东西能比拟的。这种鲜绿色借着水的清澄显露出来，好像美人借着镜子鉴赏自己的美。是的，这些绿藻是自己享受那水的甜美呢，不是为谁看的。它们知道它们那点绿的心事，它们终年在那儿吻着水波，做着绿色的香梦。淘气的鸭子，用黄金的脚掌碰它们一两下。浣女的影儿，吻它们的绿叶一两下。只有这个，是它们的香甜的烦恼。羡慕死诗人呀！

在秋天，水和蓝天一样的清凉。天上微微有些白云，水上微微有些波皱。天水之间，全是清明，温暖的空气，带着一点桂花的香味。山影儿也更真了。秋山秋水虚幻地吻着。山儿不动，水儿微响。那中古的老城，带着这片秋色秋声，是济南，是诗。

Text 4: 手　(from Text Archive A)

我握过各种各样的手--老手、嫩手、黑手、白手、粗手、细手，但都未留下很深的印象。

1988年5月，小兴安岭上的积雪化净了，树木睁开了惺忪的睡眼，林区人肩镐上山。

我去岭丘的乌马河林业局采访。在山场我握过一只手，我敢说，今后不论在什么地方，只要再提到它，就能马上说出。那是天下第一奇手--林业工人张迎善同志的手。

和素常采访一样，我们见面时先礼节性地握手。两只手握到一起的瞬间，我惊讶了：我握的是手吗？那简直是半截老松木！

我本能地想抽回手来，可是没有得逞。那只大手把我的手紧紧地裹住了。

他松手了，我低头去察看他的一双手。翻过来看手心，掉过去看手背。

这双手皮肤呈木色，纹络又深又粗，一道道黑土色。很明显，为了这次见面、握手，

他事先用肥皂把这双手认真地洗过了。

掌面鼓皮样硬，老茧布满每个角落。手指特别粗大肥圆，一只手指头就像一根三节老甘蔗。

左手大拇指没有指甲，长过指甲的地方，刻着四条裂纹，形成上下两个"人"字，又黑又深。手指各个关节都缠着线，线染成了泥色。

"缠线做什么？"我问。

"治手裂。"张迎善说。

"手裂贴胶布涂手油多好？"

"栽树是手活。穴里的草根根、石块块得用手拣出来。要保证苗苗不窝根，苗根得用手送进土里。栽一棵苗，手得往土里插三四次。胶布、手油不顶用。"

"你一天能栽多少棵树？"

"1000多棵。"

一天能栽1000多棵树！他的手一天得往土里插三四千次！10天、20天呢？……这双手亏得是肉长的，若是铁铸的，怕也磨光、磨透了。

"你等等。"我边说边去里屋取来一圈米尺。我像丈量土地似的量起他的手来：长24厘米，宽10厘米，厚2.5厘米。这真是我今生今世见到的第一号大手。

量完，我用自己的手在他的手掌上"哗哗"地搓了几个来回。我的手火燎燎地痛，看看，红了。他的手呈木色。

林业局工会一位负责同志向我介绍说："这双手已经栽树26万多棵，仅1981年至1985年就造林33垧，改造迹地林和次生林44.5垧。这双手生产木材3300立方米，枝丫3500层积立方米。这双手让这位32岁的年轻林业工人，成为伊春林区最年轻的育林功臣，荣获全国"五一"劳动奖章。这双手栽的树使小兴安岭上的西北岔河水，仿佛第一次变清了。这是一双创建绿色宝库的手。"

看着这双手，我仿佛看到了一山山翠绿的森林……

Texts in Section 4.8

Text 1: 海上日出　 (from Text Archive A)
为了看日出，我常常早起，那时天还没有大亮。周围很静，只听见船里机器的声音。

天空还是一片浅蓝，很浅很浅。转眼见天水相接的的地方出现了一道红霞。红霞的范围慢慢扩大，越来越亮。我知道太阳就要从天边升起来了，便目不转睛的望着那里。

果然，过了一会儿，那里出现了太阳的小半边脸。红是红得很，却没有亮光。太阳像负着什么重担似的，慢慢儿，一纵一纵地，使劲儿向上升。到了最后，它终于冲破了云霞，完全跳出了海面，颜色真红得可爱。一刹那间，这深红的圆东西发出了夺目的亮光，射得人眼睛发痛。它旁边的云也突然有了光彩。

有时候太阳躲进云里。阳光透过云缝直射到水面上，很难分辨出那里是水，哪里是天，只看见一片灿烂的亮光。

有时候天边有黑云，而且云片很厚。太阳升起来人看不见它。它的光芒给黑云镶了一道光亮的金边。太阳慢慢透出重围，出现在天空，把一片片云染成了紫色或者红色。这时候，不仅是太阳，云和海水，连我自己了成了光亮的了。

这不是伟大的奇观么？

Text 2: 武夷山九曲溪小记 (from Text Archive A)
怎么会有这样弯弯曲曲的溪涧，缠绵地围绕着苍翠的山崖？怎么会有这样青青秀秀的丘壑，紧密地偎倚着碧绿的流水？我竟怀疑自己是否在缥缈和朦胧的梦里了，轻轻地揉了揉眼睛，又放下双手，拍击着竹筏两侧的溪水，如梦如醉的幻觉才渐渐消失，分明感到这是白昼的游程，而且还深深地领悟了，山和水本来就应该是拥抱在一起的情侣。
然而我走到过天涯海角，却还没有瞧见像这样朝朝暮暮都相亲相爱欢聚在一起的山和水。这深情地荡漾着山峦倒影的微微水波，这倾心地张望着一汪碧潭的小丘小壑，似乎永远都默默地诉说着蕴藏在心里的爱情。
这山光水色的情侣，美丽得玲珑剔透，娇小妩媚，实在太迷人了，谁只要瞧上它一眼，肯定会留下刻骨铭心的印象，成为终生难忘的回忆。
竹筏飞也似的往下游移动着，哪里来得及细细地咀嚼和回味，还是静静地坐着，默默地张望着密密层层的树木和重重叠叠的嶂峦，纷纷扬扬地掠过自己眼前，真让我应接不暇。这滚圆的山顶，是古代抑或异邦的城堡？而紧挨着城堡挺立在那儿的，难道不是一匹体魄庞大的骆驼？瞧它昂着头，耸着背，像要跟随我乘坐的竹筏一起向前迈步，多么的坚强，充满着毅力，永不止息地跋涉。我刚才瞧见的，还是蕴含着一股俊秀之气的景致，顷刻间却又迎来了这刚劲和健壮的象征，我怀着满腔的激情，仰望这骆驼背后湛蓝得像大海似的天际，只见一团团的白云冉冉地飘浮着，我顿时又醒悟了，美还应该是辽阔的，无边无际的。真得感谢这武夷山的九曲溪，瞬息间就给予我多种多

样的美感。

在小溪里不住翻滚着的漩涡，奔腾得更湍急了，更汹涌澎湃了，原来一座低矮的峰峦在这儿拐过弯去，流淌的溪水砰訇地冲撞着它。我赶紧伸出手去，抚摸着它凹凸不平的缝隙，这近在咫尺的峭壁，多么像一块颀长和端庄的石碑，千万年来始终在这儿亭亭玉立，脉脉含情。尽管它没有任何文字，尽管它不会妙曼地歌咏，却蕴藏着多少让人们猜测和感喟的沧桑往事。

还来不及开始思索，竹筏又顺着弯道向下游漂去，只见绿茵茵的草地后面，那一片高高耸起的竹林，多少青翠欲滴的叶子，在微风中飒飒地摇曳。这蓬蓬勃勃的万绿丛里，还无声无息地矗立着一座峭岩，在它逶迤起伏的石壁上，像是曾被力大无穷的壮士，挥舞着手中的利剑，刻画出数不清的印痕，于是这幽深和静谧的峡谷，就不仅使人沉醉和痴迷，还鼓荡着一股壮怀激烈的豪气。

竹筏又掠过一列比城墙还光滑和高耸的峭壁，只见那硕大和壮丽的暗红色巨石，绵延着横亘在小溪之滨，约有半里之遥的路程，巍然屹立，气势磅礴，也许是千军万马都无法将它攻克的。我真想朝着这雄伟的高墙长啸一声，还没有等自己发出声音，却已有多少乘着竹筏的游人，争先恐后的叫喊起来。这高亢的男声，这悠扬的女声，像多少箭簇似的一起射向平坦的岩壁，立刻又被弹拨了过来，这些震荡的回声融汇在一起，像一曲交响乐似的，充满了欢乐的向往和惊讶的赞叹。多么秀丽和神秘的山水，把前来接受洗礼的远方游子，几乎都变成了潇洒而又钟情的诗人。

九曲溪的水啊，你流得太匆促了，让竹筏无法静静地停留，也让我无法细细地鉴赏峥嵘竞秀和流水淙淙的万种风情。刚抬起头还没有看够山崖的姿态，这碧带缭绕似的溪涧，又飞也似的消逝了，要是能多长几双眼睛就好了，可是现在怎么办呢？只有暂时把眼光离开这奇异的峰峦，低头多看一眼柔情脉脉的碧水。

同样是神秘莫测的九曲溪，刚才还照见清澈的浅滩，多少浑圆的石子、方正的石块和棱角歪斜的石板，纷纷点缀在沙粒和泥土的顶部。几条乌黑的小鱼，悠然自得地游弋着，大概不会知晓自己被日光折射出的影子，也在水底晃动着。我把手伸进水去，抓住了一块有缘相识的碎石，还溅出一阵晶莹的水珠，却抓不住摇摆着尾巴，翕忽离去的这一群小鱼，它们又在几茎青色的水藻中间无忧无虑地嬉戏了。

然而当竹筏转过弯去，就又让我浮游于碧澄的深潭上，波平如镜，水光潋滟，绿油油的，亮闪闪的，映照着苍翠的丘壑，映照着紫褐的悬崖，映照着飞过天空的小鸟，映照着蹲在竹筏上的多少红男绿女。

听说在有的地段，这迷人的碧水，竟深达六七丈之多，这就有四五层楼房的高度。如果正眺望着旖旎的山水时，一不当心掉进绿色的深渊，死亡会立即在毫无准备的精神状态中降临，原来在笼罩着美的氛围中，在寻觅、追求和浏览美的时刻，竟也悄悄埋伏着死亡的危机。向美好境界的攀援，难道真会潜藏着死亡的险峻之路吗？这似乎有点儿危言耸听了，不过比起躲在狭窄的小屋里，或者只在湫隘的街道上行走，确乎是一条相当艰险的路，难道为了惧怕这偶或袭来的危险，就不再去寻觅和游览迷人的山水，这不是太遗憾了吗？

正在不知所云地幻想时，我乘坐的竹筏已经冲过峡谷，掠过飞溅的浪花，在浅浅的沙滩上飘浮起来，于是我又抬起头，从容地张望这拔地而起的山丘，有的像折成好几叠

屏风似地站立着，还有像即将启碇的船舶一样昂扬着。更有像紧紧收敛着翅膀的金鸡，在群峰的顶巅报晓；像高昂着头颅的猛虎，在弥漫的云雾里呼啸，是它唤来了满天的烟云吗？怎么刹那间就只见白茫茫的一片，飞快地滚动着，奔腾着，扩展着，遮住了所有的丘壑。我自己也像被这大海的波涛包围住了，怎么顷刻间就将这玲珑娇小的丘壑，变成了无边无际的沧海呢？正激动和兴奋时，云雾又纷纷消散，竹筏也抵达了闻名遐迩的玉女峰底下。

在湛蓝的天空和灿烂的阳光下面，我凝神张望着这挺拔的峭岩，好一派稚嫩和洁净的鹅黄色，真是光彩照人，而峰顶葱茏的草木，又宛若美女头顶的玉簪，也许正是这样的缘故，才被人喊出如此娴丽的称号吧。两条从上至下的缝隙，深深地镌刻于这俊秀的岩壁，像是将它分成了高矮参差的三截。右侧两截耸立的山崖，也许是千万年来被风雨剥蚀的原因，竟像是曾有技艺高超绝伦的雕塑家，在这儿镌刻出好几根巍峨壮观的石柱，而在这些顶天立地的圆柱中间，似乎有无数的回廊和大门，通往虚无缥缈的宫殿里去。左侧最低矮的这块岩石，圆滚滚的顶儿，横着两道细小的缝隙，隐隐约约地像个慈祥和蔼的老人，正眯着双眼站在雄壮的穹门旁边。

真是的，左瞧右瞧，反复揣摩，都看不出亭亭玉立的少女模样，是谁给它取了这个"玉女峰"的名称？为什么会传诵得如此的响亮？是不是因为几乎人人都爱美丽的少女，于是对这个不太贴切的名称，也高高兴兴地认可和接受了？然而每一个人都应该赋有自己独立的审美眼光，对每一种美丽迷人的山光水色，都必须说出自己心里的印象，唤出最能够传达它神韵的声音，这就一定要改变人云亦云和盲目服从的习惯。我多么希望每一位前来武夷山漫游的朋友，都好好运用自己的眼睛去观看，启动自己的心灵去感受，把这九曲溪畔的三十六座峰峦，都叫出一个最确切和美丽的名字，都唱出一支最睿智和激越的歌儿。

正在思忖间，竹筏已经停泊在高高的大王峰底下，于是悄悄地跨上岸去，一双眼睛始终都离不开这座迷人的悬崖，真不明白它怎么会有如此奇异的形状？它纤细的腰部，竟托起了宽阔的顶巅，像一朵硕大无比的鸡冠花，开放在白云飞卷的半空中。在平整和光润的岩壁上，还可以看出有一道裂罅，从顶端贯通下来，像是勾勒出两幅左右并列的图画，多少纵横交错和雄浑深沉的线条，多少蓊郁茂密和青翠如碧的草丛，似乎在微风里轻轻呼叫着我。几棵孤独的小树攀援于悬崖顶巅，不知道在飘浮的云彩中沉思冥想着什么？我真的不懂得，为什么大自然的鬼斧神工，能够挥洒出如此苍莽寥廓的境界？大概因此才有人很崇敬地称呼它为"大王峰"，这确乎是很容易理解的。

那么钟灵毓秀的人们，也应该坚持不懈地去创造美，去建树新颖和神奇的人生历程，而决不要跌落在平庸和琐屑中间，浪掷自己的青春和生命，这就是武夷山九曲溪给予我的深切启示。

Text 3: 松鼠 (refer to text 1 in Section 4.5.3)

Text 4: 我的老师 **(from Text Archive A)**

    最使我难忘的，是我小学时候的女教师蔡芸芝先生。现在回想起来，她那时有十八九岁。右嘴角边有榆钱大小一块黑痣。在我的记忆里，她是一个温柔、美丽的人。

她从来不打骂我们。仅仅有一次，她的教鞭好像在落下来，我用石板一迎，教鞭轻轻地敲在石板上，大伙笑了，她也笑了。我用儿童的狡猾的眼光察觉，她爱我们，并没存心要打的意思。孩子们是多么善于观察这一点啊。在课外的时候，她教我们跳舞，我现在还记得她把我扮成女孩子表演跳舞的情景。

在假日里，她把我们带到家里和女朋友家里。在她的女朋友的园子里，她还让我们观察蜜蜂；也是在那时候，我认识了蜂王，并且平生第一次吃了蜂蜜。

她爱诗，并且爱用歌唱的音调教我们读音。直到现在我还记得她读诗的音调，还能背诵她教我们的诗：

圆天盖着大海，

黑水托着孤舟，

远看不见山，

那天边只有云头，

也看不见树，

那水上只有海鸥……

今天想来，她对我们的接近文学和爱好文学，是有着多么有益的影响！像这样的教师我们怎么会不喜欢她？怎么会不愿意和她亲近呢？我们见了她不由得围上去。即使她写字的时候，我们也默默地看着她，连她握笑的姿势都急于模仿。

有一件小事，我不知道还值不值得提它，但回想起来，在那时却占据过我的心灵。我父亲那时候在军阀部队里，好几年没有回来，我和母亲非常牵挂他，不知道他的死活。我的母亲常常站在一张褪了色的神像前面焚起香来，把两个象征记号的字条卷着埋在香炉里，然后磕了头，抽出一个来卜问吉凶。我虽不像母亲那样，也略略懂了些事。可是，在孩子群中，我的那些小"反对派"们，常常在我的耳边猛喊："哎哟哟，你爹回不来了哟，他吃了炮子儿！"那时的我，真好像死了父亲似的那么悲伤。这时候蔡老师安慰了我，批评了我的"反对派"们，还写了一封信鼓励我，说我是"心清如水的学生"。一个老师排除孩子世界里的一件小小的纠纷，是多么平常，可是回想起来，那时候我却觉得是给了我莫大的支持！在一个孩子的眼里，他的老师是多么慈爱，多么公平，多么伟大啊。

每逢放假的时候，我们就更不愿意离开她。我还记得，放假前，我默默地站在她的身

边，看她收拾这样那样东西的情景。蔡老师！我不知道你当时是不是觉察，一个孩子站在那里，对你是那么依恋！至于暑假，对于一个喜欢他的老师的孩子来说，又是多么漫长！记得在一个夏季的夜里，席子铺在当屋，旁边燃着蚊香，迷迷糊糊地往外就走。

母亲喊住我："你要去干什么？"

"找蔡老师……"我模模糊糊地回答。

"不是放暑假了么？"

哦，我才醒了。看看那块席子，我已经走出六七尺远。母亲把我拉回来，劝说了一会，我才睡熟了。我是多么想念我的蔡老师啊！至今回想起来，我还觉得这是我记忆中的珍宝之一。一个孩子纯真的心，就是那些热恋中的人们也难比的啊！什么时候，我能再见一见我的蔡老师呢？可惜我在原校没上完初小，就转到县立五小上学去了。从此，我就和蔡老师分别了。

Sample texts in Chapter 6

Text 1: 小鹿的玫瑰花　 **(from Text Archive A)**

春天到了。小鹿在门前的花坛里，栽了一丛玫瑰。他常常去松土、浇水。玫瑰慢慢地抽出枝条，长出了嫩绿的叶子。

过了些日子，玫瑰枝头长出了许多花骨朵。小鹿和弟弟一起数了数，总共有三十二个，他们高兴极了。

花骨朵渐渐地长大了。就在快要开花的时候，小鹿不小心把脚跌伤了。他只能静静地躺在床上养病。一天，一周，一个月……小鹿终于能下床走路了，他一瘸一拐地来到门外。呀！门前的玫瑰已经长得很高了，可是浓密的绿叶中，一朵花也看不到了。

鹿弟弟惋惜地对哥哥说："这玫瑰你白栽了，一朵花都没看着。"

这时，一只黄莺飞来了。她说："小鹿，我见过你家那些红玫瑰，可好看了！看着那些花，我就想唱歌。"

一阵微风吹来，说："小鹿，我闻过你家的玫瑰花，可香了！我带着它的香味吹过森林，大伙儿都夸我是'玫瑰香风'呢！"

小鹿高兴地笑了，说："原来我栽的玫瑰是红色的，它们很美丽，还散发着香味。谢谢你们告诉了我。"

鹿弟弟也高兴地笑了，说："看来，你的玫瑰没有白栽！"

Google translation of 小鹿的玫瑰花

Spring has come. Deer in front of the flowerbeds, planted a rose bush. He often went to loosen the soil, watering. Rose slowly withdrawn branches, grow a green leaf.

After some days, the branches grow a lot of roses bud. Deer with his brother counted a total

of thirty -two, they are very happy.

Bud gradually grown up. Just about to bloom when the deer falls careless feet . He could only lie on the bed to recuperate . Day, a week , a month ...... finally able to get out of bed to walk a deer , he limped to the door. Yeah ! In front of the roses have grown very high, but the dense green leaves , a flower can not see it.

Deer brother regret for his brother , said: "This is the white rose you planted , a flower never looked at ."

At this time, an oriole flew . She said: "The deer I've seen those red roses in your house , you can look good look at those flowers, I wanted to sing ! ."

Breeze blowing, said: " ! ! Deer, I heard of your home roses, it can be fragrant with the smell of my blowing forest, everybody Doukua I was ' Rose Wind ' it."

Fawn smiled happily and said: . " It turned out I planted roses are red, they are very beautiful , but also exudes a scent Thank you told me ."

Deer brother smiled happily and said: " ! Appears that you do not have white roses planted ."

Text 2: Three little pigs

Once upon a time there were three little pigs. One pig built a house of straw while the second built his house with sticks. They built their houses very quickly and then sang and danced all day because they were lazy. The third little pig worked hard all day and built his house with bricks.

A big bad wolf saw the two little pigs while they danced and played and thought, "What juicy tender meals they will make!" He chased the two pigs and they ran and hid in their houses. The big bad wolf went to the first house and huffed and puffed and blew the house down in minutes. The frightened little pig ran to the second pig's house that was made of sticks. The big bad wolf now came to this house and huffed and puffed and blew the house down in hardly any time. Now, the two little pigs were terrified and ran to the third pig's house that was made of bricks.

The big bad wolf tried to huff and puff and blow the house down, but he could not. He kept trying for hours but the house was very strong and the little pigs were safe inside. He tried to enter through the chimney but the third little pig boiled a big pot of water and kept it below the chimney. The wolf fell into it and died.

The two little pigs now felt sorry for having been so lazy. They too built their houses with bricks and lived happily ever after.

(from http://shortstoriesshort.com/story/the-three-little-pigs/)

Google translation of "Three little pigs"

三只小猪

曾几何时有三只小猪。一头猪稻草建造一所房子，而第二，把房子盖用棍棒。他们建造他们的房子非常迅速，然后又唱又跳了一整天，因为他们是懒惰的。第三只小猪辛苦了一整天，把房子盖用砖砌成。

一个大坏狼看到了两只小猪，而他们跳舞和演奏，心想："什么嫩多汁的饭菜，他们

会！"他追了两只小猪，他们跑了，藏在他们的房子。大灰狼去的第一家，吓和膨化并在几分钟内吹响了满堂彩。受惊的小猪跑到那个被做了枝的第二猪的房子。大灰狼现在来到了这所房子，吓和膨化，并在几乎没有任何时间吹响了满堂彩。现在，两只小猪都吓坏了，跑到那是做砖的第三猪的房子。

大灰狼试图咆哮，发怒和打击的房子下来，但他不能。他不停地尝试了几个小时，但房子是非常强大和小猪里面是安全的。他试图通过烟囱进入，但第三只小猪煮沸的水一大锅，并保持它的烟囱下面。狼掉进它而死。

该两只小猪现在觉得对不起已经这么懒。他们也建立了自己的房子用砖砌成，并愉快地过着日子。