

Chapter 3

Interpersonal clause grammar: the semantic system of SPEECH FUNCTION and the grammatical system of MOOD

3.1 Introduction

The central concern in the previous chapter has been the ideational mode of meaning, i.e. the construing of our experience of the world that is around us and inside us as structural configurations. However, language is used not only to construe our experience of the material world, but also to enact social and intersubjective relationships in the social world. This interpersonal mode of meaning, or what Halliday & Matthiessen (1999) call “the second facet of our everchanging social semiotic”, will be explored in this chapter. If the ideational metafunction is a mode of reflection, then the interpersonal metafunction is a mode of action and interaction. It is a mode of action because for every ‘move’ in a conversation, the interactant intends to get something done. It is also a mode of interaction, just like the notion of interactant denotes, because the continuity of a conversation is collaborative in nature.

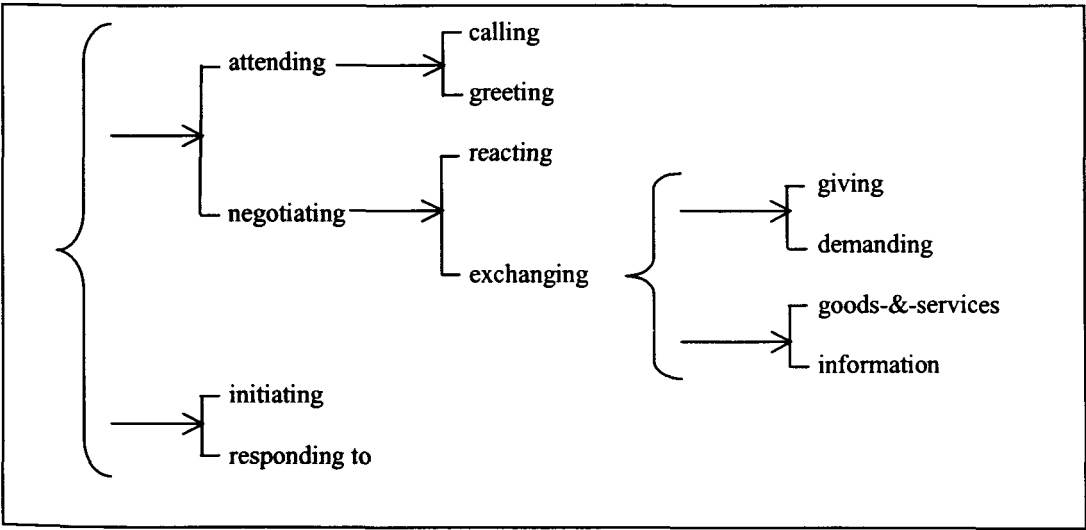
In this chapter, I will first explore the nature of this action and interaction and then how the interaction is realised grammatically. Rather than postulate an overall generic structures of dialogue, the aim of the present study is to create charts to illustrate the collaborative and interactive nature of the flow of exchanges in a dialogue and to construct a system network of SPEECH FUNCTION. In Section 3.2, some systems of SPEECH FUNCTION proposed in the past studies are briefly reviewed and ways to develop the system are discussed. In Section 3.3, based on the five dialogues in the three Chinese texts (Appendix J), the semantic system of SPEECH FUNCTION will be expanded to a more delicate degree through expanding the system of TURN. In Section 3.4, the grammatical system network of MOOD will be explored and the whole Chinese corpus, instead of just the five dialogues, will be analysed in order to construct a more comprehensive picture of the interpersonal clause grammar.

3.2 Interpersonal semantics

To have a better understanding of the interactive and collaborative nature of a conversation as well as the non-arbitrary relationship between the semantic and grammatical system network of the interpersonal mode of meaning, I will expand the system network of SPEECH FUNCTION in Section 3.3 and the system network of MOOD in Section 3.4. In this section, I will review what has been done in the past studies.

I have reviewed Halliday’s (1984) study of interpersonal semantics in Section 1.5, which has become the point of departure for many proposed systems of SPEECH FUNCTION. The system of SPEECH FUNCTION can theoretically be expanded in three major ways. The first way in which this can be achieved is by adding a new simultaneous system to the system network in addition to the original subsystems of TURN, COMMODITY and ORIENTATION. This requires the introduction of a new variable into the original system network. For example, Martin (1992) includes minor clauses and captures ‘greeting’ and ‘calling’ as the two options of ‘attending’ in the system as shown in Figure 3.1.

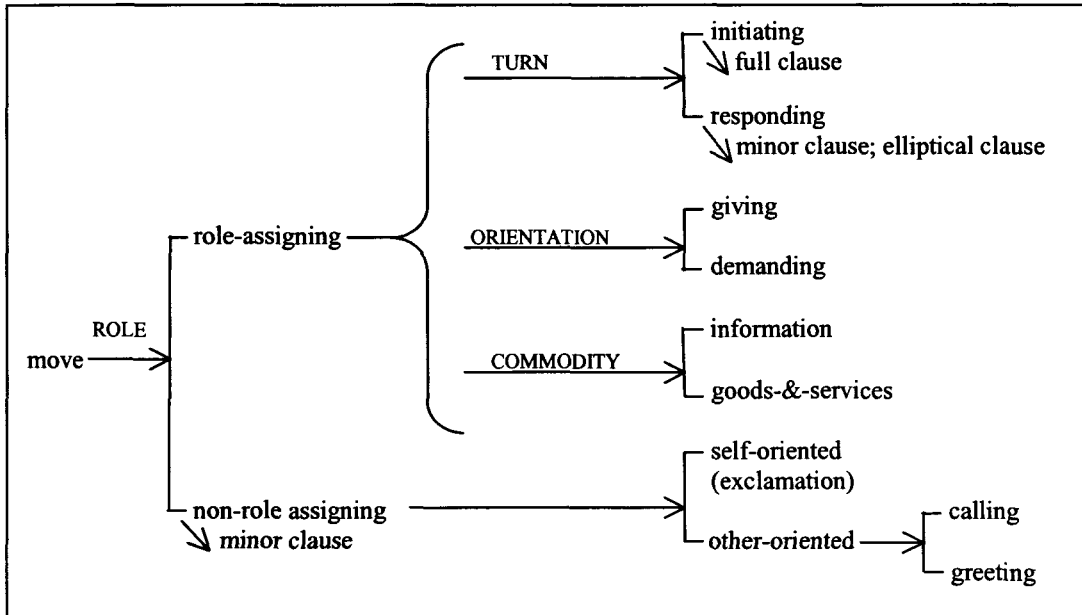
Figure 3.1: SPEECH FUNCTION – systems underlying basic adjacency pairs (Martin 1992: 44)



In contrast, the primary oppositions in Matthiessen’s (1995) system have to do with role-assigning. The choice of ‘role-assigning’ leads to the three simultaneous systems of

TURN, ORIENTATION and COMMODITY, whereas the choice of 'non-role assigning' leads to the three options of self-oriented 'exclamation', and other-oriented 'calling' and 'greeting' as shown in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: The most general system of SPEECH FUNCTION (Matthiessen 1995: 436)

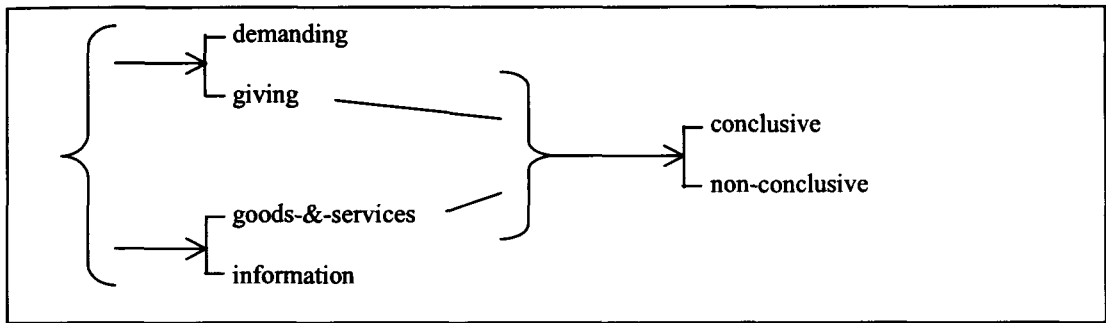


Halliday (1994: 363) has pointed out that the rhetorical modes of speech function can be identified by any one of, any combination of, or all of the following types of factor:

- (1) paradigmatically associated lexicogrammatical features;
- (2) syntagmatically associated lexicogrammatical features;
- (3) paralinguistic and behavioural features;
- (4) features of the context of situation; and
- (5) features of the context of culture.

The second way to expand the system of SPEECH FUNCTION is to differentiate the rhetorical modes of the four primary speech functions to a higher degree of delicacy. For instance, according to Martin (1992), Hasan's study on 'offer' adds a subsystem of [conclusive/ nonconclusive] as shown in Figure 3.3.

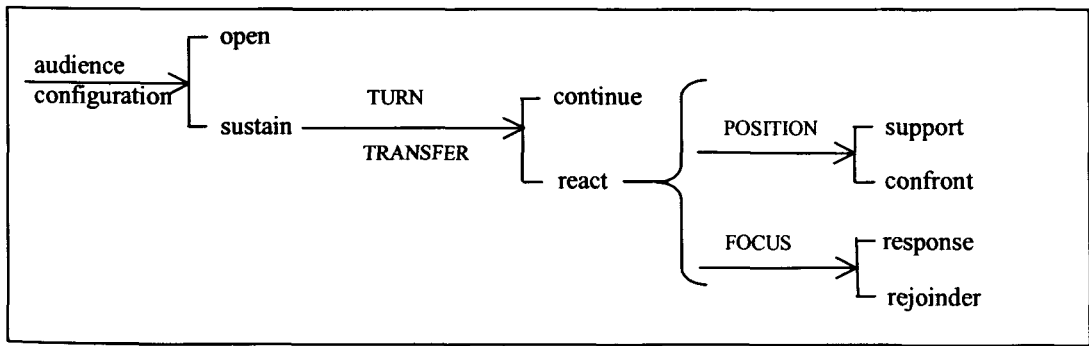
Figure 3.3: The subsystem of ‘conclusive/ nonconclusive’ offer (Martin 1992: 36)



The third way to expand the system of SPEECH FUNCTION is through further expanding of the three subsystems, i.e. TURN, COMMODITY and ORIENTATION. And the development of the system of TURN has been given the most attention in the past studies as this subsystem relates closely to the flow of exchange in the conversation on the one hand, and to the overall structure of the conversation on the other.

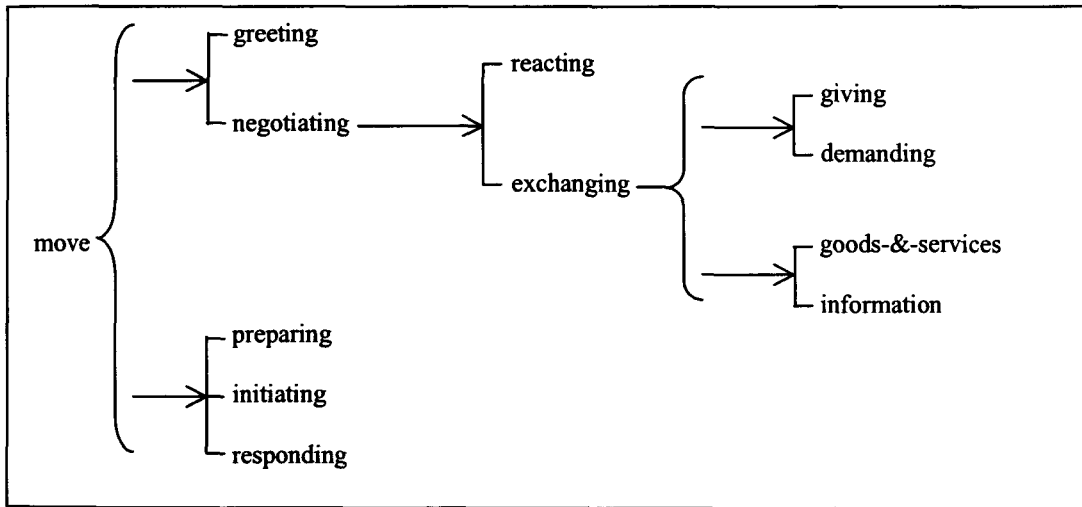
Eggins’ (1990) system is different from Martin’s in respect of how she deals with monologic moves in a conversation. She argues that a ‘continuing’ option can be created in the SPEECH FUNCTION network when the speaker continues his contribution in the conversation as in Figure 3.4. Her study extends the system of TURN to a high degree of delicacy.

Figure 3.4: Speech function network (overall system) (Eggins 1990: 197)



However, all the above studies deal with conversation in English. There are very few studies of conversation in Chinese. The most relevant one is McDonald's (1998) study, which is based mainly on Martin's and Eggins' work. His description of the system of EXCHANGE in Chinese is shown in Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5: The system of EXCHANGE (McDonald 1998: 54)



Since McDonald's description on the system of EXCHANGE in Chinese is based on text types different from those drawn on this study, I will not adopt his description or any previous description of system as my point of departure. However, the present study still owes much to all of the above-mentioned publications.

3.3 The semantic system of SPEECH FUNCTION: analysis of five dialogues

A system network of SPEECH FUNCTION in Chinese will be constructed in this section, based on the analysis of the five dialogues in the three Chinese texts that were used to explore the ideational metafunction in the previous chapter (see Appendix I). The discussion of the five dialogues will not follow their order of occurrence in the novel. The first dialogue in Section 3.3.1 is task-oriented, characterised by short and clear-cut exchanges. It is examined first because this dialogue involves exchanges of both information and goods-&-services. The second dialogue in Section 3.3.2 consists of only one exchange of a lengthy conversation between two close friends overheard by a third

party. The third dialogue in Section 3.3.3 is a person-oriented casual conversation between two strangers, taking place at a railway station. The fourth and fifth dialogues in Sections 3.4 and 3.5 are task-oriented interviews. The context of situation of the five dialogues is tabulated in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: The context of situation of Dialogues 1-5

	Field	Tenor	Mode
Dialogue 1	task-oriented; asking for services	Poirot & the restaurant attendant - two strangers; the restaurant attendant has the duty to perform the services; social distance: far	face-to-face conversation
Dialogue 2	person-oriented; thanking	Poirot & the General - two close friends; Poirot has done a favour for the General and the General tries to thank Poirot; social distance: close	face-to-face conversation
Dialogue 3	person-oriented; causal conversation at the train station	Poirot & Lieutenant Dubosc - two strangers; Dubosc has the duty to see Poirot off; social status: on a temporary basis	face-to-face conversation
Dialogue 4	task-oriented; interview: negotiating a point	Poirot & Colonel Arbuthnot - two strangers; social status: on a temporary basis	face-to-face conversation
Dialogue 5	task-oriented; interview: asking for explanation	Poirot & Miss Debenham - two strangers; social status: on a temporary basis	face-to-face conversation

3.3.1 Analysis of Dialogue 1

The first dialogue to be examined consists of two very short exchanges between Poirot and a dining car attendant. In the novel, Poirot is the detective employed by the railway director to investigate a murder case on the train. The full dialogue in Chinese, its interlinear glossing and a free translation in English are given in Appendix I.

In the first exchange, Poirot initiates an exchange in clauses (1.1), (1.2) and (1.3) to demand some services from the restaurant attendant. These three clauses form a paratactic expanding clause complex linked by a successive temporal enhancement

relationship. An immediate question arises here, viz. whether they should be analysed as three separate moves or one single move complex. The response in (1.4) is an elliptical supportive compliance and does not provide us with any clue to the answer. However, if we assume that the restaurant attendant refuses to comply, theoretically it is possible for him to refuse any one of the three commands realised by the three clauses. For instance, he may say that he is too busy to go but promise to ask someone else to do so (a negotiation of (1.1)). Or he will go but suggests that Poirot should invite someone else to come instead of the British lady because he knows that she is not there and that someone else can provide what Poirot wants from her (a negotiation of (1.2)). Or he may indicate that he will go and invite the British lady but he will not ask her to come directly because the director of the railway has previously asked him to request the lady to do something else (a negotiation of (1.3)). This means that each of the comments realised by one of the three clauses can be negotiated separately.

So instead of taking clauses (1.1) to (1.3) as a single move or move complex, I will regard them as three separate moves. This alternative approach raises two issues. First, we know that the clause is the grammatical unit of MOOD, which in turn realises a move of SPEECH FUNCTION. This statement does not rule out any clauses in a paratactic clause complex because each of them can select independently for MOOD and thus realise separate moves in the speech function selection. As a result, each of them can be negotiated separately as in clauses (1.1) to (1.3). The second issue concerns the longstanding issue of monologic sequence (see Section 1.6.3.2 above). To deal with the issue, the Birmingham tradition introduces the rank of act, Ventola (1987) the move complex and Martin (1992) cohesive relations. In the present study, following Eggins (1990) and Martin (1992), clauses in the monologic sequence will be taken as realising separate moves and these moves exhibit a logico-semantic relation among them. I will discuss these two issues in further detail when I analyse the other four dialogues.

A response to a demand for goods-&-services need not be a verbal one. However, as Halliday (1994) has pointed out, there is usually a vocal response accompanied by an action of compliance. The response in (1.4) is an elliptical clause followed by a vocative.

The statement that the clause is the basic unit realising a move therefore has to be further qualified so that it does not rule out any clauses in a paratactic clause complex and elliptical clauses as well.

After the attendant comes back, there is another short exchange between Poirot and him. This time, the attendant initiates the exchange in (1.5) by giving the information (reporting) that Miss Debenham will comply with the request expressed in (1.3). Then Poirot responds with a minor clause in (1.6).

These two short exchanges characterise the dialogue as follows:

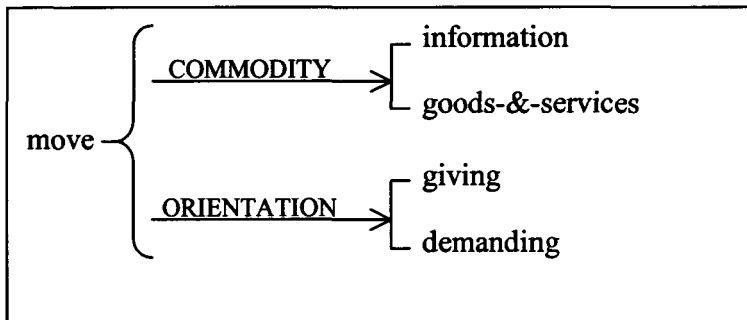
- (1) Dialogue is a sort of interaction in which an initiating move is followed by a responding one. In the first exchange, the demanding of goods-&-services is following by the providing of goods-&-services, and in the second exchange, the giving of information is followed by an acknowledgement (accepting the information). This means that the interactants in the dialogue take turns in contributing to the dialogue.
- (2) Dialogue is a kind of exchanges in which the commodity can be either information (as indicated in the first exchange) or goods-&-services (as in the second).
- (3) The interactants in the conversation adopt an orientation of either giving or demanding the commodity being exchanged. In this dialogue, the orientation of giving is followed by accepting, whereas demanding is typically followed by providing.

This dialogue indicates that the central speech function paradigm is:

	[information]	[goods-&-services]
[giving]	statement	offer
[demanding]	question	command

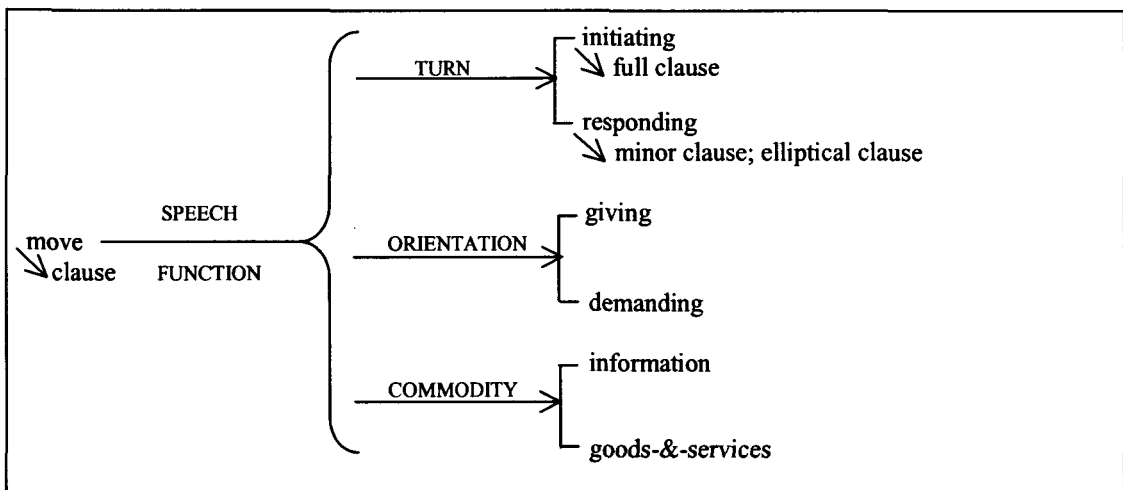
Formulated systemically as in Figure 3.6, this gives two simultaneous systems [information/goods-&-services] and [giving/demand].

Figure 3.6: Two central systems of SPEECH FUNCTION



This paradigm is very much affected by a third system, i.e. [initiating/responding], which intersects with [information/goods-&-services] and [giving/demand]. Up to this point three simultaneous systems have been proposed; they are represented as a network in Figure 3.7, which will serve as the point of departure for further development in this study.

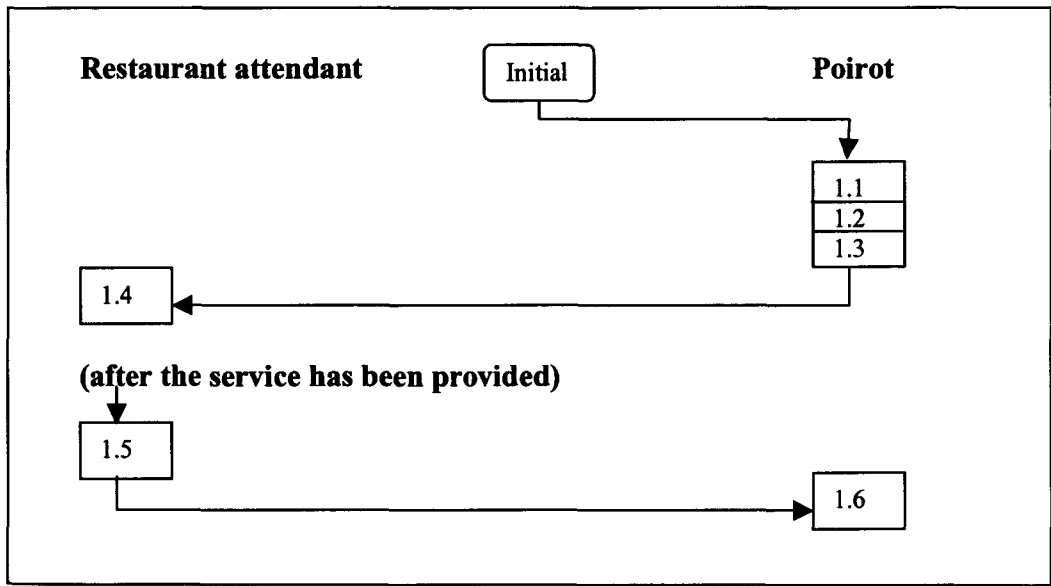
Figure 3.7: Three central systems of SPEECH FUNCTION



Simplifying the chart in Matthiessen (1995: 447-449), we can illustrate Dialogue 1 with a chart which, on the one hand, emphasises the collaborative nature of the exchanges and, on the other hand, indicates the flow of exchanges. In the chart, an 'initiating' turn is represented by a vertical arrow while a 'responding' one is marked by a horizontal arrow. A monologic sequence is represented as a stack of boxes piling upon each other and a hypotactic clause complex by horizontal dotted line dividing up the boxes. There will be

more symbols to distinguish more delicate choices when the system is extended to a higher degree of delicacy. The flow of exchanges in Dialogue 1 is presented in Figure 3.8.

Figure 3.8: Flow of exchanges – goods-&-services (Dialogue 1)



3.3.2 Analysis of Dialogue 2

Dialogue 2 is part of a dialogue between two close friends, the General and Poirot, which Lieutenant Dubosc overheard. Some very serious problems had occurred in the French Army and having accepting a request from the General, Poirot comes all the way from England to solve the problems. There is only one exchange in the dialogue.

The General initiates the exchange from clauses (2.1) to (2.6). He is interrupted by Poirot's response in (2.7) and (2.8). Clauses (2.1) to (2.6) raise an issue concerning the recognition of clause complexes in Chinese, i.e. do we interpret (2.4) and (2.5) in this dialogue as a clause complex? Or to put it in a more general way, does it need a conjunctive marker to interpret two or more adjacent clauses as a clause complex? These two clauses semantically form another paratactic expanding clause complex linked by a causal enhancement relation, whereas they are structurally separated by a comma instead of a period and there is no explicit marker indicating this causal relationship. Martin (1992) has argued that a cohesive relation of conjunction should be recognized on

semantic criteria, even where there is no actual conjunction present, i.e. no marking of any kind. Though Fang et al (1987) do not explicitly discuss the issue of conjunctive markers in Chinese, they seem to take the same position as Martin because some of the clause complexes that they cited in their study are not marked with any conjunctive marker. Halliday & Matthiessen (1999: 301-303) have noted that the unmarked paratactic extending relation, i.e. ‘and’, in Chinese is typically not marked by any conjunction. There are many instances in the Chinese corpus where adjacent clauses are semantically related and structurally separated by a comma but not marked by any conjunctive marker. One possibility is, of course, that intonation plays a role. In the present study, (2.4) and (2.5) are taken as a clause complex, whereas (2.1) to (2.6) represents a series of monologic moves (or a monologic sequence). These moves exhibit some kind of logico-semantic relationship just like those in the system of CONJUNCTION at the lexicogrammar stratum. Eggin’s (1990: 101) proposes four SPEECH FUNCTION categories which correspond to the categories of logico-semantic relations in Halliday (1985/1994) as shown in Table 3.2. Eggin’s categories are adopted in this study and may be modified if necessary.

Table 3.2: Correspondence between Halliday’s categories of logico-semantic relation and Eggin’s SPEECH FUNCTION categories (Eggin 1990: 101)

categories of logico-semantic relation in Halliday (1985)	categories of SPEECH FUNCTION in Eggin (1990)
elaboration extension enhancement projection	clarify qualify justify report

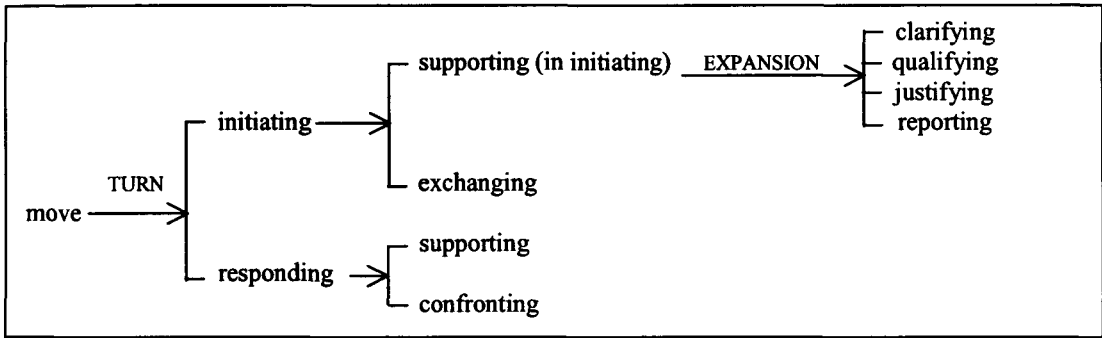
Clauses (2.1) to (2.4) in Dialogue 2 therefore constitute four separate moves with a relation of qualification and, as a whole, linked to (2.5) by a relationship of justification (reasoning). Each of the moves can theoretically be negotiated but (2.5) is more likely to be negotiated by the addressee as it seems to be the main focus. As mentioned, Eggin (1990) captures the issue of monologic sequence with a ‘continue’ option, which is one of the options after the choice of ‘sustain’. The analysis of Dialogue 2 suggests that

monologic sequence can exist not only in a 'responding' turn but also in an 'initiating' turn. In order to capture this new observation, we have to create another option, namely 'supporting (of initiating)', to represent this feature in the 'initiating' turn and keep 'continuing (of responding)' for the 'responding' turn (if the data indicate that there are monologic sequences in the responding turn as well).

The responding move realised in (2.7) and (2.8) responds to (2.5). The response is structurally a grammatical metaphor, a metaphorical realisation of a question, but semantically an indirect rejection of the indirect speech function of thanking expressed in the 'initiating' turn. The sense of rejection is reflected grammatically in several ways. First, it is reflected by the textual conjunction *kěshì* (but). Second, it is also expressed through the choice of a 'biased' polar interrogative clause. And third, the force is reflected by the adverb *yě* (also). Since indirect speech function is not the focus of this study, I will not go into detail here (for details, see Halliday 1985/1994: 340-367 and Matthiessen 1995: 438-443). What concerns me here is that a response can be a 'supporting' move as in (1.4) and (1.6) of Dialogue 1, or it can be a 'confronting' one as in (2.7) and (2.8) here. It is 'confronting' in the sense that it semantically rejects the thanking in the 'initiating' move though it may be a common polite practice to reject a thanking indirectly in some cultures. This means that the options of 'supporting' and 'confronting' are realised to indicate the fact that giving is supposed to be accepted and demanding is expected to be provided.

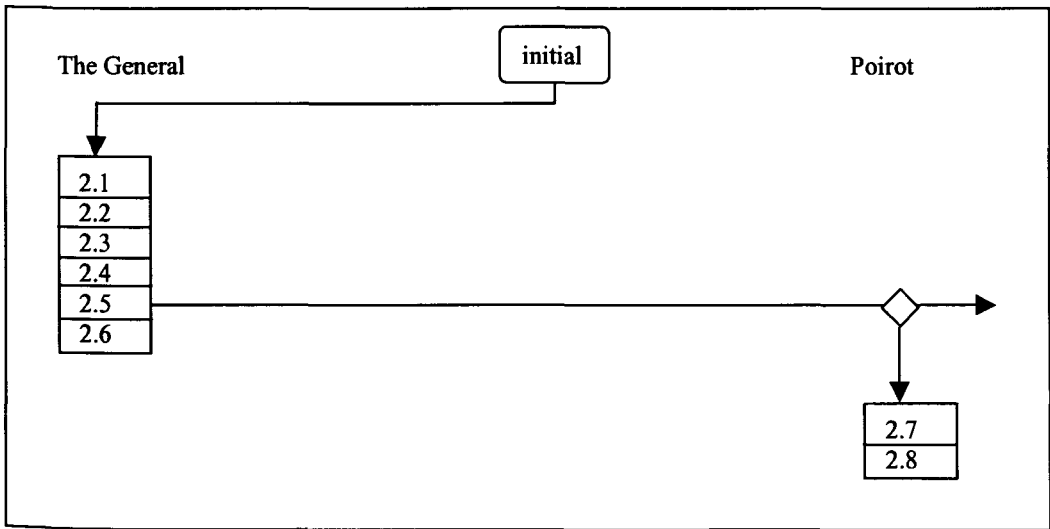
Now in order to capture the monologic moves in the initiating turn as well as their logico-semantic relation, an option 'supporting (in initiating)' and a system of EXPANSION have to be added. Figure 3.9 shows only the part that has been expanded based on the analysis in Dialogue 2.

Figure 3.9: The system of TURN in Dialogue 2



For the flow of exchanges we have to create a new symbol to capture the difference between a ‘supporting’ response and a ‘confronting’ one. The former is represented by a horizontal arrow while the latter is represented by a diamond with a downward pointing arrow. This symbol captures two facts, i.e. the diamond represents confronting while a downward pointing arrow captures the fact that a confronting move usually, if not always, initiates a sequence of sidetracking responses. The flow of exchanges in Dialogue 2 is shown in Figure 3.10.

Figure 3.10: Flow of exchanges – thanking and response (Dialogue 2)



3.3.3 Analysis of Dialogue 3

Dialogue 3 is a series of exchanges between Lieutenant Dubosc and Poirot, who are probably meeting for the first time. Dubosc is a young officer who is given an order to see Poirot off at the train station early in the morning. The dialogue takes place on the platform of a railway station. Generally speaking a dialogue like this can be classified as person-oriented casual conversation. In this case, however, Dubosc has the responsibility to make the departure a pleasant one and this is reflected on the flow of exchanges in the dialogue.

Based on this dialogue, there are seven observations to be discussed. First, the analysis of this dialogue calls for more precise definitions of move and monologic move. A move is the point of entry into the SPEECH FUNCTION network, which starts with three simultaneous systems, namely TURN, COMMODITY and ORIENTATION. I have proposed that a move is realised grammatically by a free clause, any clause which enters into a paratactic relation, an elliptical clause or in some cases, a minor clause. This statement rules out a dependent clause, which enters into a hypotactic relationship with another main clause, to be a move. This also rules out the projecting clause in a projection because it is normally the projected clause which is being negotiated as shown in the exchanges in (3.24) and (3.25) and more obviously in (3.29) and (3.30). This means that when two clauses enter into a hypotactic relation or a projection relation, they realise only one single move, whereas when two clauses enter into a paratactic relation, they realise two separate moves. So monologic moves or monologic sequences can be defined technically as a case of an interactant contributing more than one move in his 'turn'⁴. In the chart indicating the flow of exchanges, a monologic sequence is represented by more than one move being stacked up together and should be distinguished from the stacked clauses of the same move as mentioned in Section 3.3.2. That is, the stacked moves (monologic moves) are separated by bold horizontal line, whereas the stacked clauses (hypotactic or projection clause complex) are separated by a dotted horizontal line.

⁴ Here s 'turn' should be distinguished from an option in the system of TURN. The 'turn' here resembles the definition given by the CA tradition, i.e. including all the moves that an interactant is undertaking from the time that he starts contributing in the dialogue to the time that he stops his contribution.

Second, since a projection complex represents only a single move, there is no need for the system of EXPANSION to include an option of 'reporting' as in Eggins' study. This means that 'reporting' is removed from the network system in the present study.

Third, with the above definition of monologic moves, they become quite frequent in a casual conversation like Dialogue 3. Out of 25 moves (in 31 clauses) in the dialogue, 16 moves (in 18 clauses) are some kind of monologic move. All the monologic moves in Dialogue 3 are shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Monologic moves in Dialogue 3

no.	clause	TURN		EXPANSION
		'initiating'	'responding'	
1	3.1	'supporting'		'qualifying'
	3.2	'exchanging'		
2	3.6		'supporting'	
	3.7		'continuing'	'justifying'
	3.8			
	3.9		'continuing'	'justifying'
	3.10		'supporting'	
3	3.17		'supporting'	
	3.18		'continuing'	'qualifying'
4	3.19		'supporting'	
	3.20	'exchanging'		'qualifying'
5	3.21		'supporting'	
	3.22	'exchanging'		'qualifying'
6	3.25		'supporting'	
	3.26	'exchanging'		're-initiating'
7	3.27		'supporting'	
	3.28	'exchanging'		're-initiating'
	3.29			

Fourth, clauses (3.25) to (3.26) and (3.27) to (3.29) represent two monologic moves but the relationship between the clauses in each monologic move is difficult to classify. First, (3.25) is a 'supporting' move directly responding to the previous 'initiating' move but (3.26) seems to be a totally new 'initiating' move, bearing no relationship with (3.25). We have to go back to the beginning of the dialogue to notice that (3.26) is almost a repetition of (3.2). This means that the same interactant, Lieutenant Dubosc, was in (3.26) turning to a topic previously discussed. In the same way, (3.29) bears little relation to (3.27) but is a repetition of (3.11). The only difference in these two instances is that in

(3.29) the interactant, Poirot, was picking up a topic initiated by the other interactant, Lieutenant Dubosc. To capture this feature, I have to introduce a new option, namely 're-initiating', in the system of EXPANSION.

Fifth, there was a breakdown in the dialogue after (3.11), where Poirot fails to make his contribution. In the present study, failing to make one's contribution is taken as a sort of confronting, representing by an option 'disengaging', because the hearer totally disengages himself from the dialogue.

Sixth, after any breakdown, the original speaker has to re-initiate the dialogue if he wants to sustain it. In Dialogue 3, Lieutenant Dubosc restarts the conversation through initiating a new topic in (3.12). There are at least two ways to capture this situation of re-initiating a dialogue. The first way is to interpret it as the starting of a new dialogue, and the second way is to represent it by the option of 're-initiating' in the system of EXPANSION. This means that we simply interpret (3.9) and (3.10) as a monologic sequence with a long pause between the two clauses.

Seventh, while (3.19) is an obvious response to (3.14) and (3.15), lying between them is an inserted exchange comprising a question in (3.16) and an answer in (3.17) and (3.18). This resembles what the CA tradition calls an insertion sequence. Mey (1993: 223) notes that:

in an insertion sequence, the normal flow of conversation is not stopped; conversationists behave as if they were aware that the 'turns' in their talk are operating at different levels, and thus the main stream of conversation may continue its course, even though part of it is shunted off in order to let the conversationalists attend to actual or possible upcoming difficulties. After the obstacles have been removed, conversation continues as before; the turn-taking counters have not been affected by the insertion sequence.

Here we have to consider how this feature can be captured in the chart and in the system network. The feature can be captured in the chart by creating another flow of exchanges

in a separate column as shown in Figure 3.12, whereas it can be captured in the system network by a new option ‘inserting’. The question is where it is located in the system. There are three possible alternatives. First, it can be taken as an option opposing ‘continuing’ and ‘reacting’. Second, it can be interpreted as a kind of ‘supporting’ move because it serves to clarify the previous move before the speaker undertakes a direct response. Third, it can be taken as an option of ‘confronting’ as it deviates from the original flow of exchanges. In the present study, I will tentatively adopt the first alternative until there are more data to illustrate other kinds of insertion sequence.

At this point the system of TURN has now been expanded as in Figure 3.11 while the flow of exchanges is shown in Figure 3.12.

Figure 3.11: The system of TURN in Dialogue 3

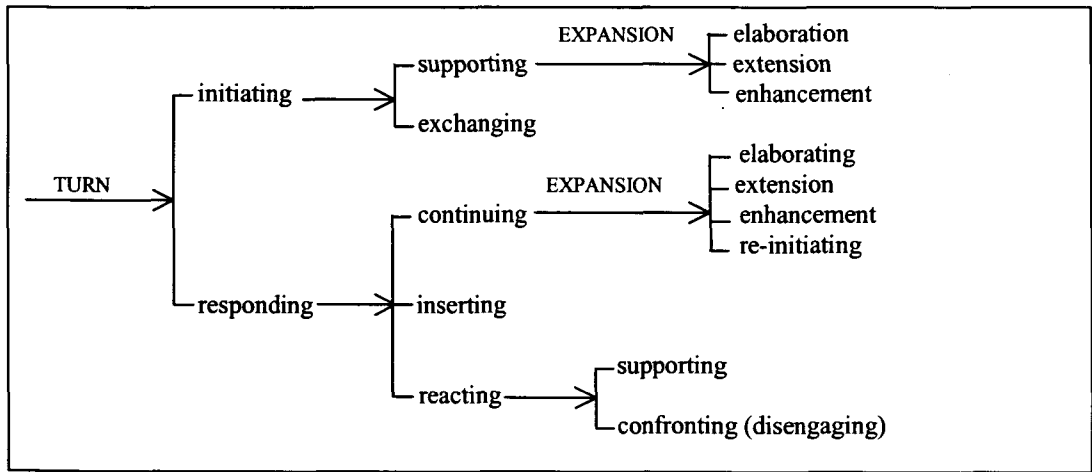
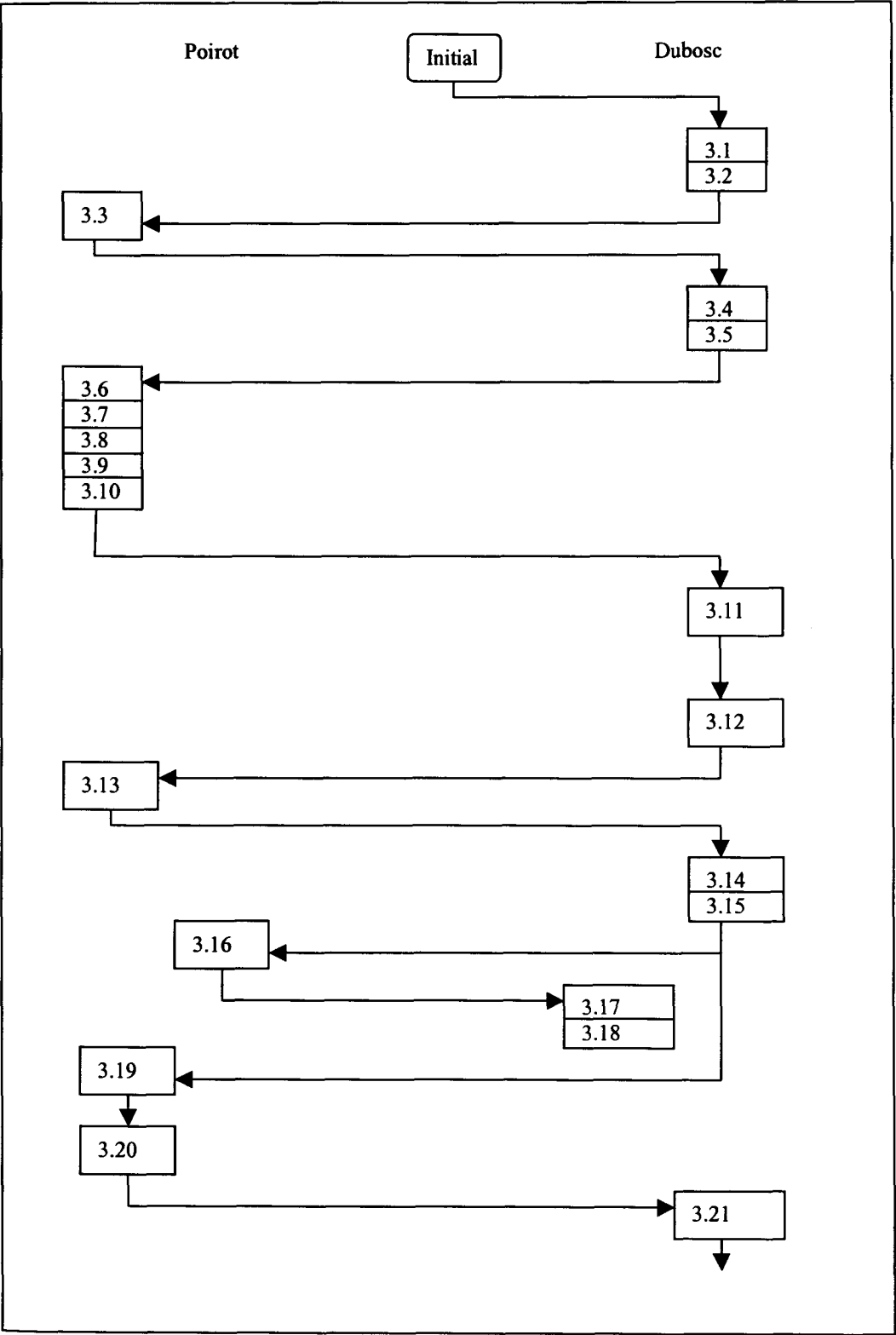
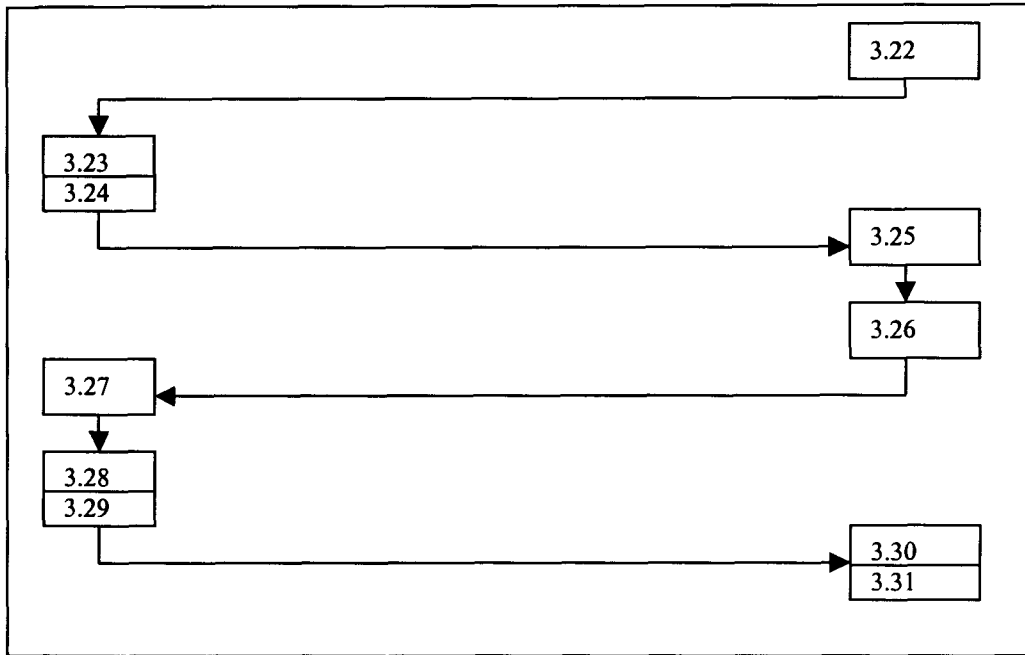


Figure 3.12: Flow of exchanges – casual conversation (Dialogue 3)





3.3.4 Analysis of Dialogue 4

Dialogue 4 is a task-oriented interview, which is the second interview with Colonel Arbuthnot, taking place in a dining car of the train. In the conversation, Poirot suggests that another passenger, namely Miss Debenham, is a suspect. In fact, the Colonel and Miss Debenham have fallen in love with each other and are accomplices in the murder. So, unlike Dialogue 3, which is a casual conversation characterized by ‘supporting’ moves, Dialogue 4 is characterized by many arguments and confrontations. Several observations can be made about this dialogue and these help to expand the system of SPEECH FUNCTION and the chart showing the flow of exchanges.

First, unlike (3.11) in Dialogue 3, which was totally disengaged from the conversation, there are some new types of ‘confronting’ moves in the ‘responding’ turn in (4.2) to (4.6), and also (4.12) to (4.17). First, (4.2) simply rejects the proposition in (4.1) through a comment, which we call a ‘commentary’. Second, (4.3) rejects directly the proposition in (4.2) by negotiating its polarity; this is a ‘disclaimer’. Third, (4.4) rejects (4.1) through challenging the possibility for finding evidence to support the proposition; this is a ‘challenging’ move. Fourth, (4.5) is a counter-challenge to (4.4) by providing the

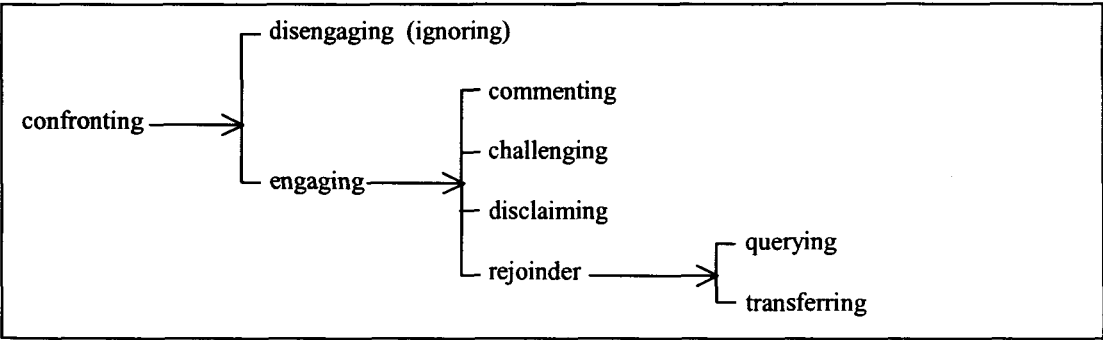
evidence. Fifth, (4.13), (4.16) and (4.17) negotiate the polarity. This means that 'confronting' moves can be either 'disengaging' or 'engaging'. An 'engaging' confrontation keeps the conversation going by one of the three methods, i.e. by a 'commentary' move, in which the speaker negotiates the proposition by commenting on it; by a 'disclaimer' move, in which the point of negotiation is the polarity of the proposition; or by a 'challenging' move, in which the focus is on the ability for one to justify his proposition..

Second, similar to an 'inserting' move, an 'engaging' confrontation also creates a sequence operating at a different level from the main stream of conversation. For instance, (4.2) is a 'commentary' that initiated its own response, viz. a 'disclaimer' move in (4.3). Then the interactant responds (4.1) again by providing a 'challenging' move in (4.4). As a result, (4.2) and (4.3) form a separate sequence resembling the case of (3.16) and (3.17) in Dialogue 3. Similar, but bit more complicated, is the second part of Dialogue 4, in which there are two simultaneous flows of exchanges. In this part of the dialogue, Poirot initiates a monologic sequence from (4.7) to (4.11) to which Colonel Arbuthnot responds with (4.12). Then Poirot responds with a 'disclaimer' in (4.13) and initiates a 're-initiating' move in (4.14). Here Arbuthnot responds (4.14) with a 'rejoinder' in (4.16) and (4.13) and with a 'disclaimer' in (4.17). As a result, there are two flows of exchange operating at the same time. In other words, the main flow of exchanges is first initiated in (4.7) to (4.11), with the proposition being re-initiated in (4.14), responded to in (4.15) and finally with the proposal in (4.15) being complied by an action; whereas the secondary flow of exchanges is initiated in (4.12), with its proposition being negotiated in (4.13), (4.16) and (4.17).

Third, a question may not be responded to by a direct answer. For example, both (4.9) and (4.10) are elemental interrogative clauses. A 'supportive' response to them is to provide the information being demanded in the interrogatives. However, (4.12) is a polar inter-rogative clause which questions the trustworthiness of the propositions in (4.9) and (4.10). Thus a new option of 'rejoinder' has to be introduced into the SPEECH FUNCTION network to capture this situation. There is another 'rejoinder' move in the dialogue; (4.14)

is another elemental interrogative clause but as a response, (4.15) does not provide the information being demanded as an answer but instead provides a suggestion for action. This ‘rejoinder’ clause is semantically different from the previous rejoinder. The former rejoinder is a question realized by an interrogative clause while the latter is a proposal, more specifically a suggestion, realised by a statement. To distinguish these two types of ‘rejoinder’, the first one is called a ‘querying’ move because it inquires about the validity of the proposition in the question, whereas the second one is called a ‘transferring’ move because it proposes that the original speaker should seek other sources for an answer. To this point the confronting option is now expanded as in Figure 3.13.

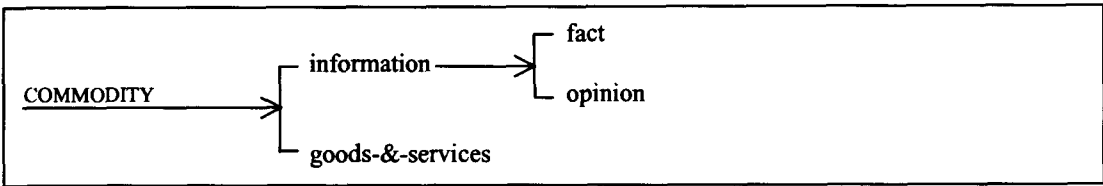
Figure 3.13: An expanded system of confronting



Fourth, as Halliday (1985/1994) has mentioned, only an answer to a question is essentially a verbal response; the other speech functions like acceptance of offer, undertaking of command and acknowledgement of statement can all be non-verbal. However, all four types of response are usually verbalised, whether they are accompanied by non-verbal actions or not. Unlike in Dialogue 1, the command (suggestion) in (4.15) is responded to by means of an action without any verbal response.

Fifth, the information being exchanged in Dialogue 2 is mainly concerned with facts whereas some of the information being exchanged in Dialogues 3 and 4 is concerned with opinions, for instance, (4.2) and (4.3). This distinction between fact and opinion can be captured in the subsystem of COMMODITY as in Figure 3.14. The chart indicating the flow of exchanges in Dialogue 4 is shown in Figure 3.15.

Figure 3.14: An expanded system of COMMODITY



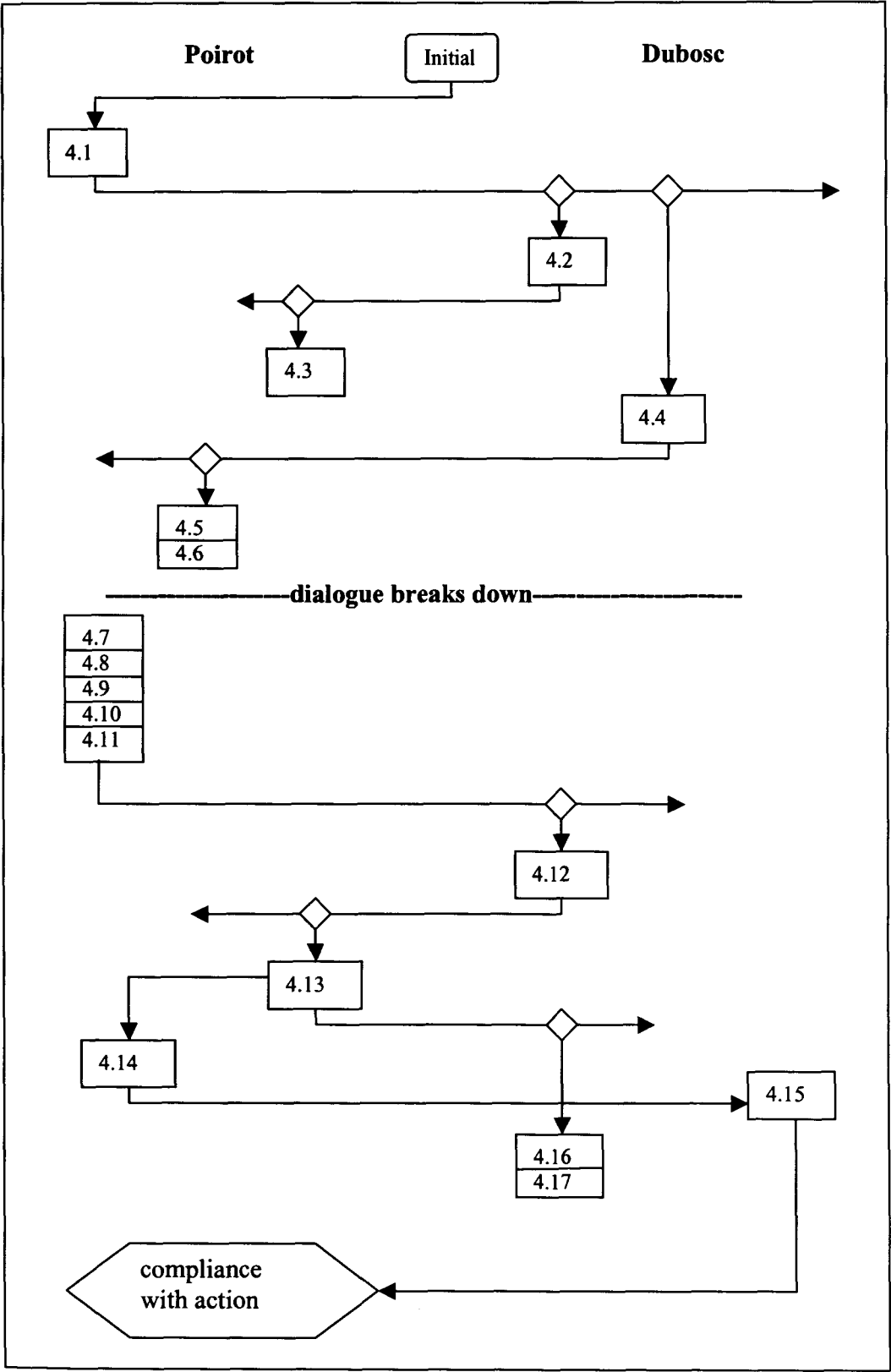
3.3.5 Analysis of Dialogue 5

Similar to Dialogue 4, Dialogue 5 is also a task-oriented interview in which Poirot interviews Miss Debenham the second time. In the interview, Poirot accuses Miss Debenham of lying to him in the morning and demands an explanation. This dialogue has different features from Dialogue 4; there are fewer confrontations but more side-trackings in Dialogue 5. Again, there are some observations worth making.

First, Miss Debenham initiates the dialogue with a question in (5.1), negotiating the polarity of the proposition presented in the clause. The response in (5.2) is a grammatical metaphor realising an elemental question. This means that an initiating polar question is responded to with a grammatical metaphorical elemental question. A question by itself always explicitly solicits an answer, whether the question is issued in the initiating turn or the responding one. So do we need a new option like ‘responding + initiating’ in the network to capture this feature shown in (5.2)?

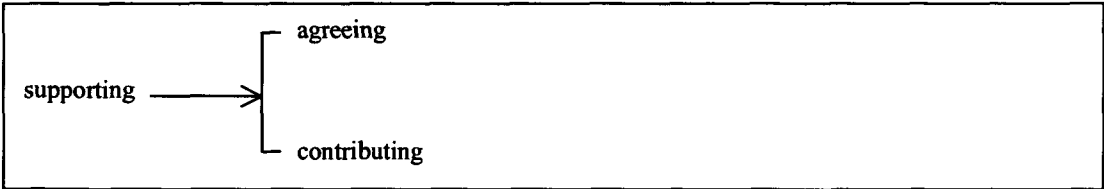
The same question can be asked for any ‘confrontation’ moves, as a matter of fact, because a ‘confrontation’ move is a kind of response which always initiates a new flow of exchanges, just like an insertion sequence, operating at a different level from the main stream of conversation. The ‘confrontation’ move in the present study is taken as a ‘responding’ turn, and similarly a responding question as in (5.2) is also taken as a ‘responding’ turn. In any conversation it is easier for an interactant to undermine the question in a ‘responding’ turn and to take it as a purely ‘responding’ move than a question in an ‘initiating’ turn. Then it is up to the speaker of the responding question whether or not to insist on its initiating status as a question as in (5.21). So no new option will be created here unless more evidence arises to show the necessity for doing so.

Figure 3.15: Flow of exchanges – interview (Dialogue 4)



Second, the data suggest that there are two kinds of ‘supporting’ response, namely ‘agreeing’ and ‘contributing’. In an ‘agreeing’ move, apart from showing agreement with what has been said in the previous turn, the speaker contributes little to the continuation of the dialogue, for instance, (3.3) in Dialogue 3, whereas in a ‘contributing’ move, the speaker initiates in his response a similar but slightly new topic for the continuation of the conversation as in (5.18). The new options are formulated systemically as in Figure 3.16.

Figure 3.16: The options of supporting



Third, the monologic sequence (5.6) to (5.10) answers the indirect question in (5.4) and (5.5). Clauses (5.6) and (5.8) form a hypotactic clause complex while (5.9) and (5.10) form a clause complex of projection. Both complexes are related paratactically and each can be negotiated separately. The data suggest that in a hypotactic clause complex it is the independent clause that is more likely to be negotiated, whereas in a hypotactic projection, it is both the projecting and projected clauses.

Fourth, there occurred a misunderstanding in (5.11). The misunderstanding is partly caused by the ellipsis and is partly due to its ambiguous nature as a ‘supporting’ or a ‘confronting’ move. The intended response is a ‘supporting’ move, i.e. ‘*shìde, (wǒ gēn nǐ shuō le huǎng) shì zhēn de.*’ (Yes, (the fact that I lied to you) is true.) It is, however, interpreted by the other interactant as a ‘confronting’ move, i.e. ‘*shìde, (wǒ shuō de) shì zhēn de.*’ (Yes, (what I said) is true.) So the other interactant starts a separate flow of exchanges in (5.13) in order to negotiate the value of polarity. This situation presents a challenge to the chart showing the flow of exchanges, i.e. leading us to ask how can we present in the chart the clause that is misunderstood, according to the intention of the speaker or the interpretation of the hearer? The suggestion in this study is to create two sets of arrows; the unbroken arrow represents the intention of the speaker and the dotted one the interpretation of the hearer as shown in Figure 3.18. No new option is needed for

the system because the main purpose of a system network is to represent the potential options available in a language and both possibilities, i.e. the speaker's intention or the hearer's interpretation, have already been represented in the present network as 'supporting' and 'confronting' moves respectively.

Fifth, it takes two monologic moves realised in clause (5.13) and clause complex (5.14) and (5.15) to clarify the misunderstanding. While (5.13) explicitly notes the existence of a misunderstanding, (5.14) and (5.15) are an emphatic repetition of (5.11), the move that caused the misunderstanding by filling in the ellipted elements. The two moves here have two different functions, i.e. clarification in (5.11) and repair in (5.14) and (5.15). This means that there can be some monologic moves in an insertion sequence. In addition, the 'inserting' move here serves a different function in comparison with the one in Dialogue 3. We therefore need two kinds of 'inserting' move to capture the difference, namely 'inquiring' and 'repairing'.

Sixth, there is another insertion sequence from (5.16) to (5.20) whose function is neither 'inquiring' nor 'repairing' but basically some sort of side-tracking. To this point there are three kinds of 'inserting' move, viz. 'inquiring', 'repairing' and 'side-tracking', and they are represented in Figure 5.17.

Figure 3.17: The options of inserting



Seventh, though Miss Debenham has admitted telling a lie, the indirect question in (5.2) and (5.3), which forms the main stream of the conversation because it is what the interview is intended for, has yet to be answered. So the question is re-initiated in (5.21). This shows the difference between task-oriented conversations as in Dialogues 4 and 5 and person-oriented conversations as in Dialogue 3.

Ninth, the question in (5.22) was responded to with a 'rejoinder' move in (5.24). However, this 'rejoinder' move was neither a 'querying' move nor a 'transferring' one, since the speaker simply avoids providing the answer by saying that the answer is obvious. It takes another 'confronting' move in (5.25) before the answer is given in (5.26). We can call (5.24) an 'avoiding' move. The chart indicating the flow of exchanges in Dialogue 5 is presented in Figure 3.18.

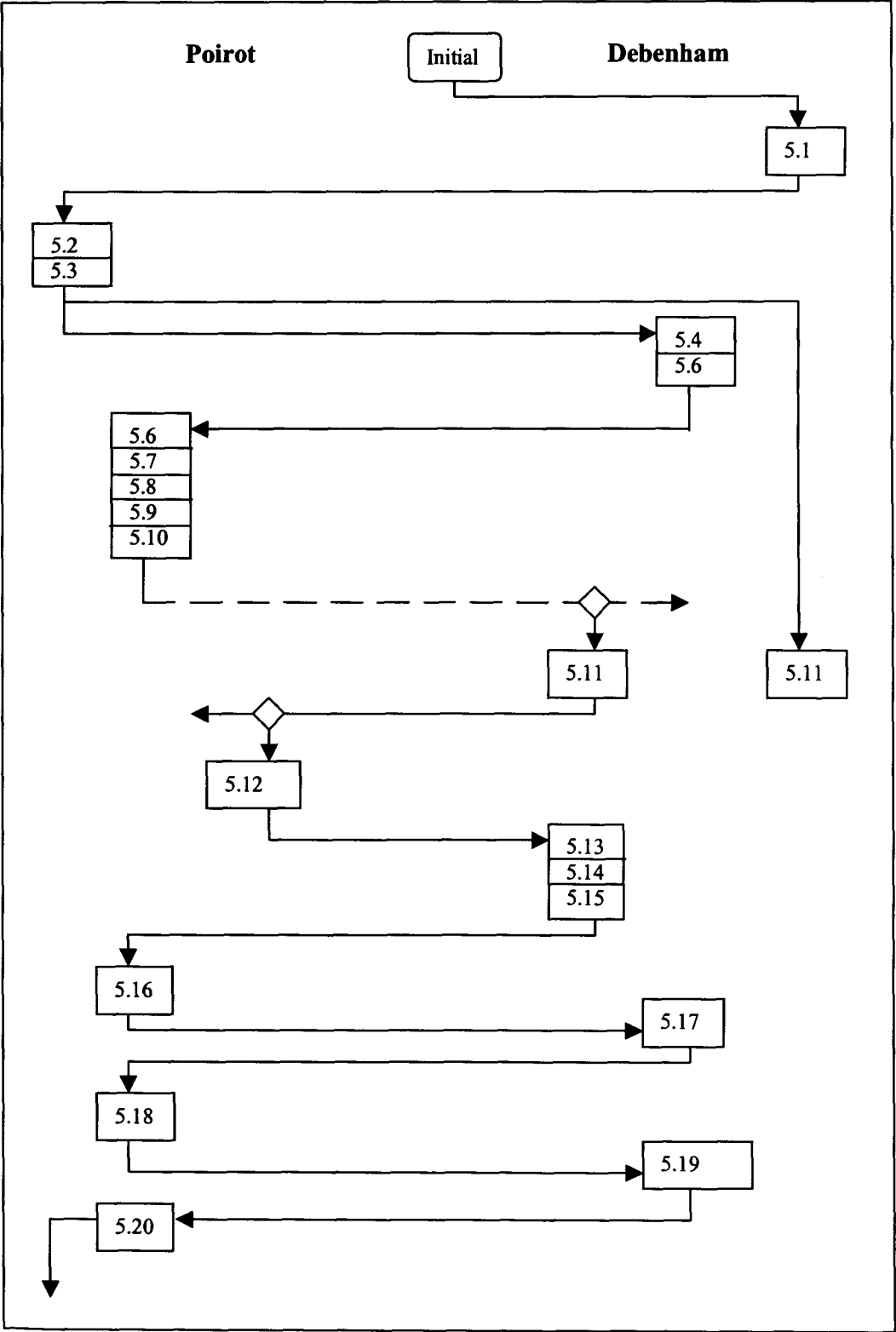
3.3.6 Conclusion

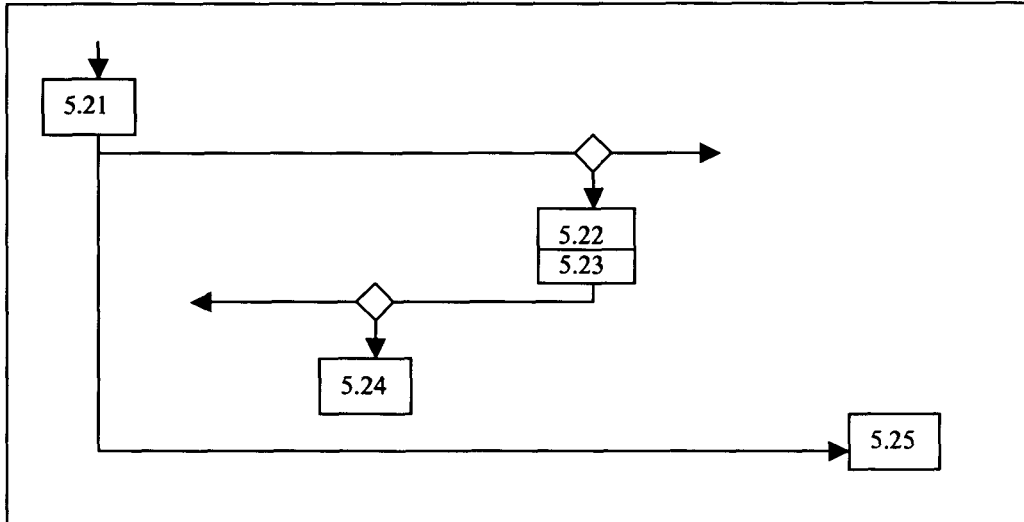
In this section, I will begin with a discussion of the five charts showing the flow of exchanges and then discuss the final version of the system network of SPEECH FUNCTION. Chart 1 (Figure 3.8) consists of two short exchanges, both of them are task-oriented. The first exchange is a typical goods-&-services exchange with the structure of command ^ compliance. The second exchange is an information exchange with the structure of report ^ acknowledgement. Both exchanges are short and straightforward with clear 'initiating' and 'supporting' moves. They are multivariate structures.

Chart 2 (Figure 3.10) represents only a single exchange in a longer dialogue between two close friends. It nevertheless indicates a very common feature of dialogue, i.e. that an exchange has the structure of an adjacency pair, 'initiating' ^ 'responding'.

Chart 3 (Figure 3.12) represents the flow of exchanges in a person-oriented casual dialogue. It is characterised by a smooth flow. There is only one inserted sequence, which is intended for clarification. The insertion sequence, however, does not affect the main stream of dialogue. There is a conversational breakdown, which happens when one of the interactants fails to make his contribution. This breakdown indicates the collaborative nature of dialogue, i.e. both interactants need to take turns to keep the dialogue going. The dialogue here is characteristically univariate in structure. This means that there are topics, but no topic control. It is in fact astonishing to see how often and how smoothly the topic changes. This also means that there are turns but no turn assignment (cf. Halliday & Plum 1985: 23). However, unlike other casual conversations which show no status relations, the context of situation of this dialogue tells us that one of the

Figure 3.18: Flow of exchanges – interview (Dialogue 5)





interactants in this dialogue has the duty to make the situation a pleasant one. This is reflected in the flow of exchanges where this interactant has to make an effort to keep the dialogue going. The context also tells us that the two interactants are not close friends and that they are probably meeting for the first time. This is also reflected in the flow of exchanges in that, apart from the conversational break-down, all the moves are extremely supportive.

Chart 4 (Figure 3.15) summarises the flow of exchanges in a task-oriented interview. The whole chart characterises the nature of confrontation in the conversation, all the way from the beginning to the end of the interview. There are confronting commentary moves, a lot of negotiations of the value of polarity, challenge and counter-challenge, and also negotiations of the trustworthiness of the proposition in the move. All of these reflect the particular context of situation, i.e. Poirot suggesting that Miss Debenham is a suspect in the murder, and that Miss Debenham is in fact Colonel Arbuthnot's lover, who is also an accomplice in the murder. Towards the end of the conversation, there are two flows of exchanges running simultaneously.

Chart 5 (Figure 3.18) also summarises the flow of exchanges in a task-oriented interview. The chart indicates fewer confrontations but more side-tracking and insertion sequences

than Chart 4. This reflects the particular context of situation of the dialogue, i.e. Poirot accusing Miss Debenham of lying to him in the morning and demanding an explanation. There are some supporting moves after Miss Debenham admits that she did lie to Poirot. The task-oriented nature of the interview is shown in the flow of exchanges. We know that the purpose of the interview is to get an answer to the question raised at the very beginning of the dialogue, thus despite all the insertion sequences and side-trackings, the flow still clearly indicates the main stream of the conversation, which is associated with the main purpose of the interview. This characterises the feature of a task-oriented dialogue which is different from a person-oriented dialogue.

In short, the charts indicate the flow of exchanges in the dialogues, characterise the person-oriented or task-oriented nature of the dialogues, indicate the initiation of the interactants in the dialogues and also reflect the relaxing or stressful atmosphere through the supporting and confronting moves. All these reflect the three variables of the context of situation, particularly field and tenor.

Based on the analysis of the five dialogues, the system network of SPEECH FUNCTION has been expanded toward a more delicate level as shown in Figure 3.19. However, the present system network has to be read in light of it only capturing the exchange patterns in the five dialogues described here, with the expansion focusing mainly on the system of TURN. It can be further expanded and modified, based on the analysis of dialogues of a different nature. The chart and the system are designed to reflect the variables of the stratum above semantics, i.e. the context. The system in turn is realised by the system network of MOOD in the lexicogrammatical stratum, which is the area investigated in the following section. The number of occurrences of various TURN features in the five dialogues in respect to the four speech functions is shown in Table 3.4.

Figure 3.19: The system network of SPEECH FUNCTION

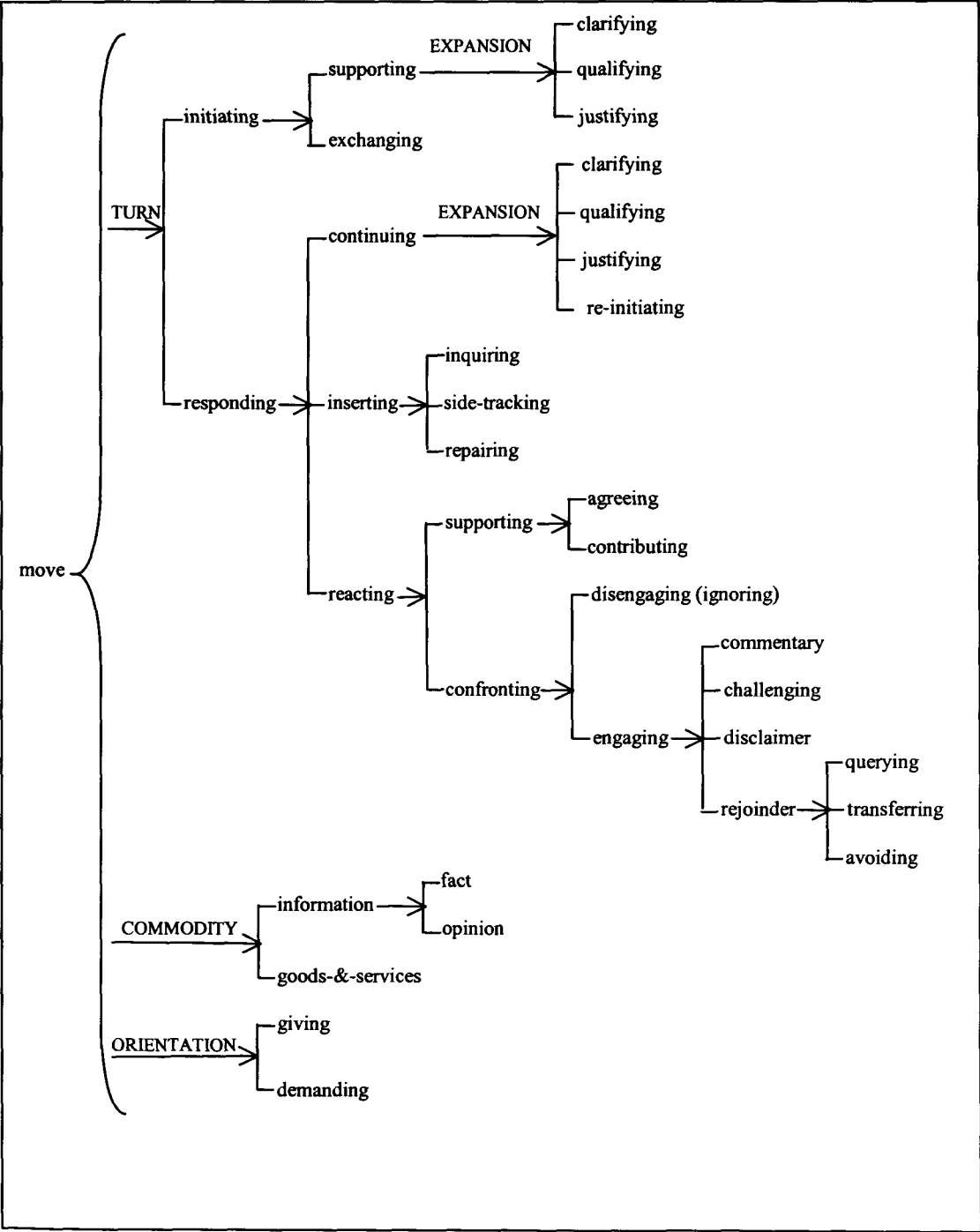


Table 3.4: Occurrence of various TURN features in respect of speech function

	full clause				elliptical clause				minor clause	total
	statement	question	command	offer	statement	question	command	offer		
initial:										
supporting	4	1			2					7
exchanging	10	6	3							19
responding:										
continuing	5				1					6
inserting:										
inquiring		3				1				4
side-tracking		1								1
repairing	2									2
reacting:										
supporting:										
agreeing	3				3				7	13
contributing	7				2					9
contronting:										
disengaging	2									2
commentary	2				2					4
challenging	2									2
disclaimer	2				1					3
query		1								1
transferring	1									1
avoiding		1								1

The data allow us to make some interesting observations:

- (1) 'Initiating' turns are more likely to be realised by full clauses (92.3%) than 'responding' turns (65.3%); whereas 'respodning' turns are more likely to be realized by elliptical or minor clauses (34.7%) than 'initiating turns (7.7%) (see Table 3.5 for details).
- (2) Among the three major types of 'responding' turn, 'reacting' turns are more likely to be realized by elliptical or minor clauses (41.7%) than 'continuing' turns (16.7%) and 'inserting' turns (14.3%).
- (3) Among the 'reacting' turns, 'supporting' turns are more likely to be realized by elliptical or minor clauses (54.5%) than 'contronting' turns (21.4%).
- (4) In these five dialogues, only the 'reacting: supporting' turns are realized by minor clauses.

3.4 The system of MOOD: analysis of the novel – *Murder on the Orient Express*

The main focus in the previous sections was on the construction and expansion of the semantic system network of SPEECH FUNCTION, and the charts representing the flow of exchanges. Now the central concern is the system network of MOOD, which provides the grammatical resources to realise the various options of speech function.

The most general contrast in MOOD TYPE in Chinese is that between ‘indicative’ and ‘imperative’; these clause types are the resources realising propositions and proposals respectively. The choice of ‘indicative’ in turn leads to the options of ‘declarative’ and ‘interrogative’, which congruently realise statements and questions respectively. ‘Imperative’ clauses realise commands, leaving offers without any congruent grammatical realisation. Regarding the system of TURN, ‘initiating’ turns are typically realised by full clauses, whereas ‘responding’ turns are more likely to be realised by elliptical or minor clauses as shown in Table 3.5. The most general semantic system of SPEECH FUNCTION and its realisation in the grammatical system of MOOD are shown in Figure 3.20.

Table 3.5: Occurrence and percentage of ‘initiating’ and ‘responding’ in respect of clause types

TURN	full clause		elliptical + minor clauses		TOTAL	
‘initiating’	24	92.3%	2	7.7%	26	100%
‘responding’	32	65.3%	17	34.7%	49	100%

Figure 3.20: Realisational relation between SPEECH FUNCTION and MOOD

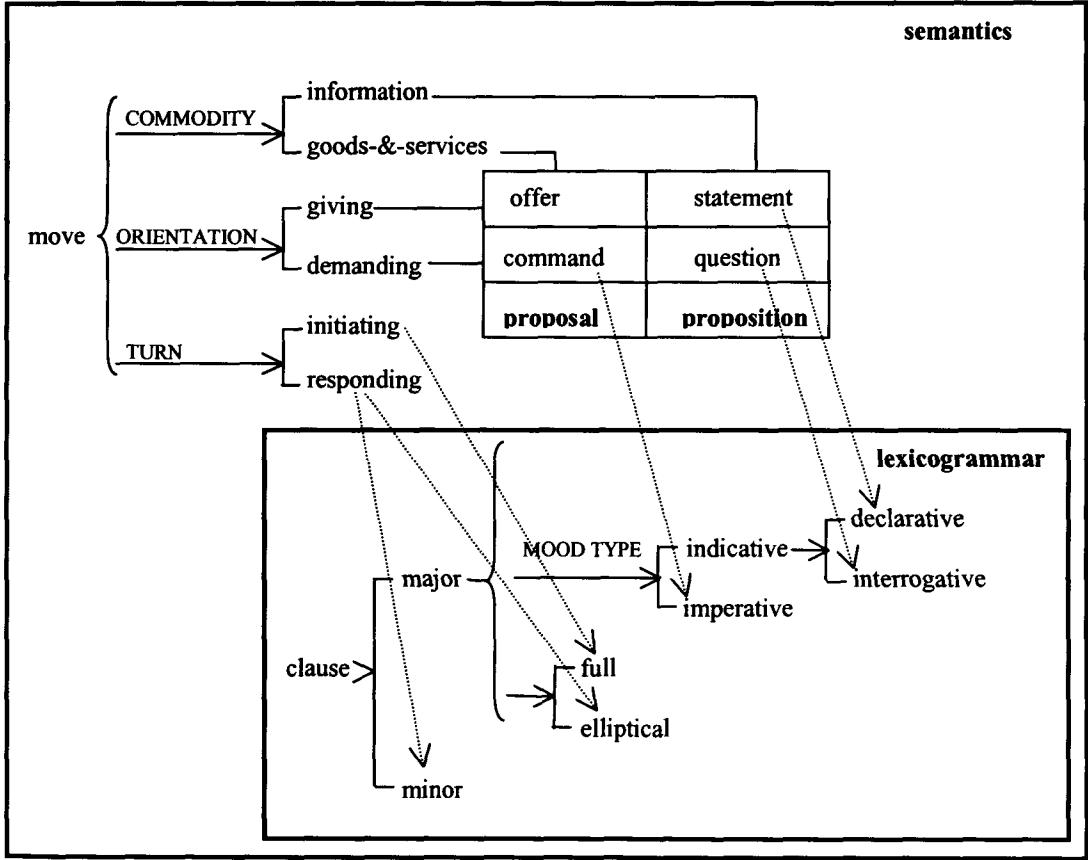


Figure 3.20 represents only the realisation between the most general semantic system network of SPEECH FUNCTION and the most general grammatical system network of MOOD. The figure does not account for many speech function features displayed in Figure 3.19, which represents a more comprehensive system of SPEECH FUNCTION in Chinese. The basic concern in this section is to elaborate the description of the system of MOOD in delicacy so that it can capture the ranges of grammatical resources which realise the more delicate speech function features. The possible ranges of grammatical realisation of the various speech function features are shown in Table 3.6. However, they should be interpreted as probabilistic statement rather than be taken as a set of strict rules.

Table 3.6: Speech function features and their possible ranges of grammatical realisation

speech function features	expressed as	possible (range of) grammatical realization in addition to the system of MOOD TYPE
initiating: supporting	monologic sequence (clause complex)	free & bound clause; system of EXPANSION
initiating: exchanging	single move (clause simplex)	clause simplex
responding: continuing	monologic sequence	free & bound clause; system of EXPANSION
responding: inserting: inquiring	question	interrogative
responding: inserting: side-tracking	statement; question	declarative; interrogative
responding: inserting: repairing	statement	repetition; parallelism
responding: reacting; supporting: agreeing	minor / elliptical clause	minor / elliptical clause
responding: reacting; supporting: contributing	statement	lexical cohesion
responding: reacting: confronting: disengaging	no response	---
responding: reacting: confronting: engaging: commentary	statement; question	system of MODALITY; (comment)
responding: reacting: confronting: engaging: challenging	statement; question	system of MODALITY; (modalization)
responding: reacting: confronting: engaging: disclaimer	question	system of POLARITY; system of ASSESSMENT
responding: reacting: confronting: engaging: rejoinder: querying	question	system of POLARITY; system of ASSESSMENT
responding: reacting: confronting: engaging: rejoinder: transferring	imperative	system of MOOD PERSON
responding: reacting: confronting: engaging: rejoinder: avoiding	statement	system of MODALITY; (comment)

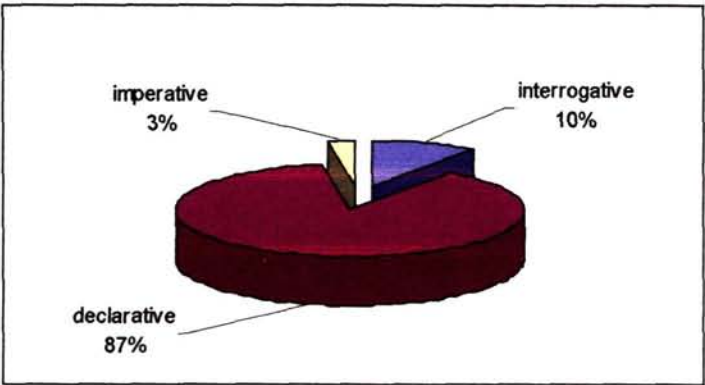
3.4.1 The system of MOOD TYPE

The three general options in the MOOD system, namely ‘declarative’, ‘interrogative’ and ‘imperative’, are not equi-probable in the Chinese data. Among them, ‘declarative’ is the unmarked option and this is indicated by its lack of any special marker and its extremely high frequency among all mood types as shown in Table 3.7. This table summarises the number of occurrences and percentages of the most general mood types in the Chinese corpus, while Figure 2.21 displays of the proportions that each mood type represents out of the total number of major clauses in the data.

Table 3.7: Number of occurrences and percentages of different mood types

<div>clause $\xrightarrow[\text{TYPE}]{\text{MOOD}}$<div><div>indicative</div><div>imperative</div></div><div><div>interrogative</div><div>declarative</div></div></div>		No.	%
		1003	10.07%
		8712	87.42%
		250	2.51%
TOTAL		9965	100%

Figure 3.21: Proportion of different mood types



The various options of MOOD TYPE are not only distinguished from each other semantically, i.e. in terms of the speech function features that they realise, but also structurally, i.e. in terms of the syntactic structure that realizes them. This means that they

can be differentiated from each other from both above and below. In general, they are distinguished from each other by the following characteristics:

- a declarative clause lacks any special marker as in (3.1):

(3.1)

<i>'nǐ</i> you	<i>zhēn</i> really	<i>jiù le</i> save ASP	<i>wǒmen,</i> we	<i>qīnài de péngyǒu,</i> dear NOM friend
Subject	Adjunct	Predicator	Complement	Vocative

('You really saved us, my dear friend,')

- an interrogative clause is marked by an interrogative particle like *ma* at the end of the clause such as (3.2) or by a question word that indicates the type of information being sought as in (3.3):

(3.2)

<i>'nǐ</i> you	<i>yào</i> want	<i>jiàn</i> see	<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>ma?</i> NTR: int
Subject	Predicator	Predicator	Complement	Negotiator

('Do you want to see me?')

(3.3)

<i>tā</i> she	<i>wèishénme</i> Q-why	<i>yào</i> have to	<i>yǐnmán</i> conceal	<i>zhè xiàng shìshí?</i> this MEAS fact
Subject	Adjunct	modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement

(Why did she conceal that fact?)

- an imperative clause is indicated by the elliptical interpersonal subject as in (3.4):

(3.4)

	<i>qù</i> go	<i>dìshíyī hào fángjiān</i> eleventh number room
(Subject)	Predicator	Complement

('Go to room 11,')

Approaching from around the system, we find that indicative clauses are distinguished from imperative clauses by the fact that the choice of 'indicative' leads to the options of

‘declarative’ and ‘interrogative’ while ‘imperative’ does not lead to any option at this degree of delicacy. They are the primary options at the most general level of the system. In the following sections, the system of MOOD TYPE will be examined and the description will be elaborated in delicacy.

3.4.1.1 Interrogative Mood

Structurally, there are five different types of ‘interrogative’ clause in the corpus. An example of each type is given below:

(3.5)

<i>tā</i> she	<i>wèishénme</i> Q-why	<i>yào</i> have to	<i>yǐnmán</i> conceal	<i>zhì xiàng shìshí?</i> this MEAS fact
Subject	Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement

(Why did she conceal that fact?)

(3.6)

[[<i>tā shuō de</i>]] she say SUB	<i>shì</i> be	<i>yīngyǔ</i> English	<i>háishì</i> or	<i>fǎyǔ?</i> French
Subject	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	Complement

(Did s/he speak in English or French?)

(3.7)

<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>bù huì</i> NEG possible	<i>nòng cuò le</i> make wrong ASP	<i>ma?</i> NTR: int
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Negotiator

(Weren’t you possibly making a mistake?)

(3.8)

<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>yǒu-méi-yǒu</i> have-not-have	<i>kànjiàn</i> see	<i>rènhé lǚkè</i> any traveller	<i>zài guòdào shēng</i> at passage upon	<i>zǒudòng?</i> move
Subject	Adjunct	Predicator			
			Subject	Adjunct	Predicator

(Did you notice any travellers moving in the passage?)

(3.9)

<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>shí</i> EMP	<i>shuō</i> say	<i>nà wèi kějīng de shēnshì?</i> that MEA respectable NOM gentleman
Subject		Predicator	Complement

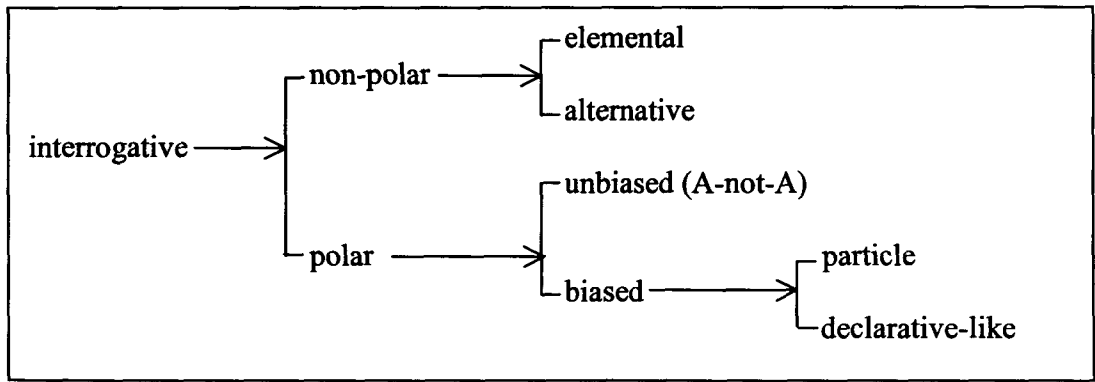
(You meant that respectable gentleman?)

Semantically, the first four types of interrogative clause seek after four distinctive kinds of information, whereas the last type does not seek after distinctive information. In (3.5) the speaker is seeking information about the element that is replaced by the question word. This type of interrogative clause is traditionally known as ‘open’ question because the speaker does not have any presumption about the answer (unless it is a rhetorical question). In (3.6) the speaker provides alternative answers for the addressee to choose and an unmarked response to this type of interrogative is for the addressee to choose one of the alternatives. In (3.7) the speaker asserts a proposition and invites the addressee to confirm or deny it. In (3.8) the speaker is after the value of polarity of the proposition. In (3.9) the speaker seeks information as in (3.7) or (3.8), depending on how he encodes the interrogative. The realizational strategy in (3.9) is different from the other two, i.e. intonation is used instead of a clausal particle as in (3.7) or the A-not-A constituent as in (3.8). In other words, these five types of interrogative clause are distinguished from each other by three variables, namely the value of polarity, the ‘openness’ of the expected answer and the ‘bias’ of the question. These variables become the criteria for the description of the system of INTERROGATIVE.

At this point two questions arise. The first question is whether these three variables lead to three separate simultaneous subsystems. The data suggest that they cannot form three separate simultaneous systems as there is no combination of polar and elemental interrogative clauses, or elemental and biased interrogative clauses. In addition, the variable concerning the ‘bias’ of the question applies to the polar interrogative clausen only. This means that among the three variables, polarity and ‘openness’ are the primary ones while ‘bias’ is a secondary one.

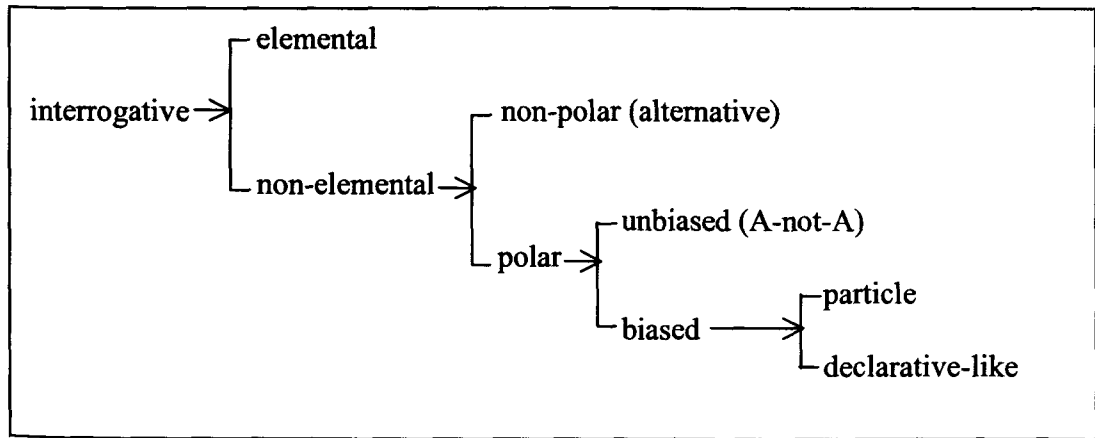
The second question concerns the ordering in delicacy, i.e. does the order of application of the two primary variables affect the outcome of the description? And if so, are there any criteria which guide the order of application? There are three possible outcomes. First, if the variable of ‘polarity’ is applied before the variable of ‘openness’, the system of INTERROGATIVE TYPE will be formulated as in Figure 3.22.

Figure 3.22: The first alternative description of INTERROGATIVE TYPE



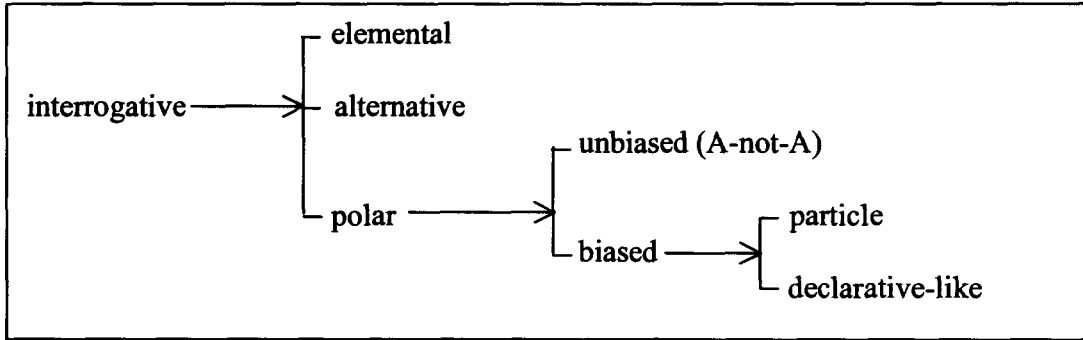
Second, if the variable of ‘openness’ is applied before the variable of ‘polarity’, the system of INTERROGATIVE TYPE will be organised as in Figure 3.23 instead.

Figure 3.23: The second alternative description of INTERROGATIVE TYPE



Third, there is always another possibility as shown in Figure 3.24.

Figure 3.24: The third alternative description of INTERROGATIVE TYPE



Semantically, unless I can argue that the three options, namely ‘elemental’, ‘alternative’ and ‘polar’, lie on a cline which is subject to a single variable, for instance, the degree of ‘openness’, such an option seems to give too much weight to syntactic structure as the recognition criterion from below the system. Since a description of the system should cover the three angles, i.e. from above, below and around the system, the third description of the system will not be my choice in the present study.

Halliday & McDdonald (in press) do not mention the alternative interrogative type, so the primary contrast in the system is ‘elemental’ and ‘polar’. Li & Thompson (1981: 531-545) call the alternative interrogative clause a ‘disjunctive question’. They distinguish two types of disjunctive question. In the first type, the two alternatives are connected by *háishì*. In the second type, “an affirmative sentence followed by its negative counterpart, usually without *háishì* (or)”. They mention that the second type is traditionally classified as A-not-A question. This means that they group ‘alternative interrogative’ clauses and ‘A-not-A polar interrogative’ clauses together in one category.

In this study, the first variable to be applied concerns the ‘openness’ of the expected answer so that the primary contrast in the system is ‘elemental’ vs. ‘non-elemental’, while the second variable concerns the value of polarity, which leads to the options of ‘alternative’ and ‘polar’. There are two reasons for this choice. First, alternative inter-

rogative clauses and unbiased polar interrogative clauses are structurally similar. This similarity can be illustrated by the following invented examples:

- (a) *nǐ qù?*
you go
(Are you going?)
- (b) *nǐ bù qù?*
you NEG go
(Aren't you going?)
- (c) *nǐ qù bù qù?*
you go NEG go
(Are you going (or not)?)
- (d) *nǐ qù háishì bù qù?*
you go or NEG go
(Are you going (or not)?)
- (e) *nǐ qù měiguó?*
you go America
(Are you going to America?)
- (f) *nǐ qù yīngguó?*
you go Britain
(Are you going to Britain?)
- (g) *nǐ bù qù měiguó?*
you NEG go America
(Aren't you going to America?)
- (h) *nǐ qù háishì bù qù měiguó?*
you go or NEG go America
(Are you going to America (or not)?)
- (i) *nǐ qù yīngguó háishì měiguó?*
you go Britain or America
(Are you going to America or Britain?)

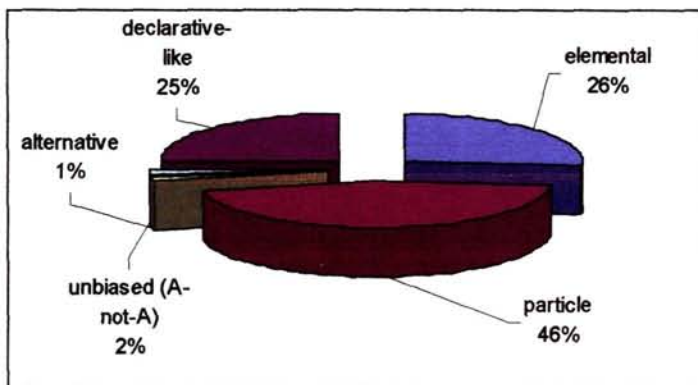
Both (c) and (d) are unbiased polar interrogative clauses and both can be interpreted as a combination of (a) and (b), with the second repeated nominal *nǐ* (you) being omitted. Similarly, an alternative interrogative clause as in (i) can be interpreted as a combination of (f) and (g) just as an unbiased polar interrogative (h) is a combination of (e) and (g).

Apart from the syntactic similarity, the relative frequencies of alternative interrogative and unbiased polar interrogative clauses are similar. Table 3.8 shows the number of occurrences and percentages of different interrogative types in the Chinese corpus while Figure 3.25 displays the proportion of each interrogative type out of the total number of interrogative clauses.

Table 3.8: Number of occurrences and percentages of different interrogative types

types of interrogative	number	percentage
elemental (open) interrogative	265	26.42%
particle interrogative	454	45.27%
alternative interrogative	14	1.40%
unbiased (A-not-A) interrogative	17	1.69%
declarative-like interrogative	253	25.22%
Total	1003	100%

Figure 3.25: Proportion of different interrogative types



The present study has proposed that the primary oppositions of interrogative are ‘elemental’ and ‘non-elemental’. The choice of ‘non-elemental’ leads to two further options, namely ‘polar’ and ‘non-polar’. The ‘non-polar’ option is known as alternative interrogative clause. The choice of ‘polar’ also leads to two further options, namely ‘biased’ and ‘unbiased’. An unbiased polar interrogative clause is traditionally known as an A-not-A interrogative clause. And finally, the choice of biased polar interrogative leads to the options of ‘particle’ and ‘declarative-like’. In short, the second alternative description depicted in Figure 3.23 will be taken as a part of the system network of MOOD in the present study. In the following sections, each interrogative type will be examined in greater detail.

3.4.1.1.1 **Elemental interrogative clauses**

An elemental interrogative clause is structurally characterised by the presence of an interrogative word in the clause. It is also known as ‘question-word question’ (c.f. Li & Thompson 1981). The interrogative word in the elemental interrogative clause is either a nominal or an adverbial. Many grammarians, such as Li & Thompson (1981) and Halliday & McDonald (in press), have provided a useful list of interrogative words. The most common ones include *shéi* (who); *shénme* (what); *nà* (which); *jǐduō, duōshǎo* (how many, how much); *zěnmē, zěnmeyàng* (how); *nǎr, nǎlǐ* (where); *wěishénme* (why); *shénme shíhòu, héshí* (when). In general these interrogative words occupy the same position in the clause as the element being asked after would in the corresponding declarative clause as in (3.10).

(3.10)

<i>tā</i> she	<i>shénmeshíhòu</i> Q-when	<i>líkāi?</i> leave
Subject	Adjunct	Predicator

(When did she leave?)

3.4.1.1.2 Polar interrogative clauses

A polar interrogative clause can be either ‘biased’ or ‘unbiased’. The ‘biased’ type is also called particle interrogative because one of the four particles, *ma*, *ne*, *ba* and *a*, occupies clause-final position. Of these four interrogative particles, only *ma* can turn a declarative clause into an interrogative one. This type of interrogative selects for polarity in the clause itself, i.e. the speaker makes either a positive or negative statement and seeks for it to be confirmed or denied by the addressee as in (3.11).

(3.11)

Arthbutnot:	<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>bù huì</i> NEG possible	<i>nòng cuò le</i> make wrong ASP	<i>ma?</i> NTR: int
	Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Negotiator

(Weren’t you possibly making a mistake?)

Poirot:	<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>méi-yǒu</i> NEG:pf	<i>gāo cuò.</i> make wrong
	Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predictor

(‘I am not making any mistake.’)

The ‘unbiased’ polar interrogative clause is traditionally called the A-not-A type. It is formed by repeating the first element in the verbal group (an auxiliary if present, otherwise the lexical verb) with a negative particle in between. When the clause is perfective in aspect, the negative is *méi-yǒu*, with *yǒu* substituting for the repeated verb (see Halliday & McDonald in press), for example as in (3.12).

(3.12)

<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>kànjiàn</i> see	<i>rènhé lǚkè</i> any traveller	<i>zài guòdào shēng</i> at passage upon	<i>zǒudòng</i> move	<i>méi-yǒu?</i> NEG:pf
Subject	Predicator				Negotiator
		Subject	Adjunct	Predicator	

(Did you notice any travellers moving in the passage?)

According to Li & Thompson (1981), as Putonghua is influenced by southern dialects, there is another possible variant as shown in (3.13).

(3.13)

<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>yǒu-méi-yǒu</i> have NEG:pf	<i>kànjiàn</i> see	<i>rènhé lǚkè</i> any traveller	<i>zài guòdào shēng</i> at passage upon	<i>zǒudòng?</i> move
Subject	Adjunct	Predicator			
			Subject	Adjunct	Predicator

(Did you notice any travellers moving in the passage?)

However, the above discussion must be qualified by the fact that in Chinese *yǒu* itself can be the verb in a possessive or existential clause. In this case, the construction *yǒu-méi-yǒu* is interpreted as verb-not-verb instead of a perfective form such as (3.14).

(3.14)

<i>'wǒ en</i> we	<i>děi</i> have to	<i>zài zhèlǐ</i> at here	<i>tíng</i> stop	<i>duōjiǔ?</i> how long
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Adjunct	Predicator	Adjunct

('How long shall we be here?')

<i>mǎlì dàiběnhàn</i> Mary Debenham	<i>zhìwèn shuō,</i> demand
Subject	Predicator

(Mary Debenham demanded,)

<i>'dàodī</i> in fact	<i>yǒu-méi-yǒu</i> have-NEG: pf	<i>rén</i> person	<i>xiǎodé?</i> know
	Adjunct	Subject	Predicator

('In fact, is there anyone who knows (the answer)?')

In addition, there is another type of A-not-A question in the corpus as presented in (3.15).

(3.15)

A:	'nǐ you	shì-fǒu yes-no	huí dào back to	zìjǐ de wèizǐ yourself POSS seat	qù le?' go ASP
	Subject	Adjunct	Predi-	Complement	-cator

('Did you go back to your own seat?')

B:	'shì de, yes	xiānshēng.' sir
		Vocative

('Yes, sir.')

Here, *fǒu* in the construction *shì-fǒu* means *bù-shì*. It is mainly used in written Chinese. And the whole construction *shì-fǒu* can be replaced by *shì-bù-shì* without changing its meaning and the above example can be rewritten as in (3.16).

(3.16)

A:	'nǐ you	shì-bù-shì yes-no	huí dào back to	zìjǐ de wèizǐ yourself POSS seat	qù le?' go ASP
	Subject	Mood	Predi-	Complement	-cator

('Did you go back to your own seat?')

According to Halliday & McDonald (in press: 321), 'biased' interrogative clauses, to a certain extent, are similar to English tagged declarative clauses, whereas 'unbiased' interrogative clauses are similar to straight interrogative clauses. However, they point out that the equivalence is by no means exact since tagged declarative clauses are also possible in Chinese, and the tags themselves may be of either the A-not-A type or the A-particle type (see Section 3.4.1.2 for further discussion).

Furthermore, ‘polar’ interrogative clauses in Chinese can be projected and the projected interrogative clauses remain in the same form as the unprojected variants as shown in (3.17) and (3.18).

(3.17)

‘ <i>kěshì</i> , but	<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>yě jìdé</i> , also remember	<i>nín</i> you	<i>bùshì yě</i> NEG also	<i>jiù guò</i> save ASP	<i>wǒ yī mìng</i> I one life	<i>ma?</i> NTR: int
	Subject	Predicator					
			Subject	Mod. Adj.	Predicator	Complement	Negotiator

(But I also remember that you had saved my life before.)

(3.18)

‘wǒ I	xiǎng wèn want ask	nǐ, you	xiǎojiě, Miss			
Subject	Predicator	Complement	Vocative			
jīntiān zǎoshèng today morning		nǐ you	wèishénme Q-why	yào want	duì wǒmen towards we	shuōhuǎng?’ lying
Adjunct		Subject	Adjunct	Predi-	Complement	-cator
Complement of the previous clause						

(I want to ask you, Miss, this morning, why you lied to us?)

3.4.1.1.3 Alternative interrogative clauses

In an alternative interrogative clause, the speaker provides some alternatives, usually two, in the question and the addressee is expected to choose among these alternatives. This is clearly shown in (3.19).

(3.19)

A:	[[<i>tā shuō de</i>]] he say SUB	<i>shì</i> be	<i>yīng yǔ</i> English	<i>háishì</i> either-or	<i>fǎyǔ?</i> French
	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	Complement

(Did s/he speak in English or French?)

B:		<i>shì</i> be	<i>fǎyǔ.</i> French
	(Subject)	Predicator	Complement

((She spoke) in French.)

It should be noted that in English, the question *Did s/he speak in English or Franch?* can be a polar interrogative, in which the polarity of the proposition is being negotiated. Or it can be an alternative interrogative, in which the the addressee is expected to choose among the two alternatives, i.e. English or Franch. And it is intonation (tone 1 or tone 2 followed by tone 1) rather than structure which makes the difference. In Chinese, *háishì* (either-or) always present an either-or choice (cf. Li & Thompson 1981: 531). In other word, (3.11A) can only be interpreted as an alternative interrogative clause.

In addition, the two alternatives provided for the addressee can be two nominal groups as in (3.19) or two individual clauses as in (3.20):

(3.20)

<i>zhè</i> this	<i>shì</i> be	<i>tā hēishèhuì zhōng de duitóu</i> he triad society inside ASSOC enemy			
Subject	Predicator	Complement			
		Subject			
<i>wèile</i> for the sake of	<i>chéngfá</i> punish	<i>tā</i> he	<i>chūmài</i> betray	<i>péngyǒu</i> friend	<i>cái</i> then
					<i>xià de dúshǒu,</i> take action
Complement (continued)					
Adjunct			Adjunct	Predicator	

(This was the action made by his enemy in the triad society because of his betrayal of a friend,)

<i>yīhuò</i> or	<i>yǒu rén</i> someone	<i>wèi</i> for the sake of	<i>bào</i> revenge	<i>sī</i> individual	<i>chóu</i> grievance	<i>ér</i> then	<i>shā le</i> kill ASP	<i>tā?</i> 'he
Complement (continued)								
	Subject	Adjunct			Adj.	Predicator	Complement	

(or someone killed him as an act of revenge out of an individual grievance?)

3.4.1.1.4 Declarative-like interrogative clauses

A declarative-like interrogative clause resembles a declarative clause structurally but it serves as a question. In spoken Putonghua, they are marked by the rising tone, whereas in written Chinese, they are marked by punctuation (a question marked) as in the following exchange between Bouc (A) and Poirot (B).

(3.21)

A:	<i>'kěshì</i> but	<i>měi jiān fáng lǐ</i> every MEAS room inside	<i>dōu</i> also	<i>yǒu</i> possess	<i>lǚkè</i> passenger	<i>a!'</i> NTR: ass
		Adjunct	Adjunct	Predicator	Subject	Negotiator

('But there were passengers in every room.')

B:		<i>'bù cuò.'</i> NEG wrong
	(Subject)	Predicator

((You are) right.)

A:	<i>'a,</i> ah,	<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>shì shuō</i> EMP say	<i>tā</i> he	<i>kěyǐ</i> can	<i>liǔ huí</i> slip back	<i>zìjǐ de fángjiān?</i> one POSS room
		Subject	Predicator				
				Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Adjunct

(Ah, do you mean he could slip back to his own room?)

B:	<i>báilúo</i> Poirot	<i>diǎn le diǎn</i> nod ASP nod	<i>tóu.</i> head
	Subject	Predicator	Complement

(Poirot slightly nodded his head.)

When a declarative-like interrogative clause is projected, the verb in the projecting clause usually indicates that the projected clause is a question, for example by means of a verb such as *wèndào* (ask) in (3.22):

(3.22)

<i>bōkè xiānshēng</i> Bouc Mr	<i>wèndào</i> , ask	<i>‘nǐ</i> you	<i>yě</i> also	<i>yǒu</i> have	<i>tōng gǎn?</i> same feeling
Subject	Predicator				
		Subject	Adjunct	Predicator	Complement

(Mr. Bouc asked, ‘do you have the same feeling?’)

Declarative-like interrogative clauses are a kind of ‘biased’ interrogative clause because just as with particle interrogative clauses, the speaker indicates his assumption about the value of polarity in the clause and invites the addressee to confirm or deny it. However, what is the semantic difference between the particle interrogative and declarative-like interrogative clauses? Halliday & McDonald (in press) have provided a possible answer when they talk about ‘cline of interrogativity’.

Before we move on to examine declarative clauses, there are two issues concerning interrogative clauses that need to be clarified. The first issue concerns tagged interrogatives. We know that both declarative and imperative clauses can be tagged. A tagged declarative clause is traditionally called a tag question. Li & Thompson (1981) interpret it as a kind of interrogative clause. Just as with a biased interrogative clause, the speaker indicates the value of polarity of the proposition in a tagged declarative clause; however, unlike in a ‘biased’ interrogative clause, the speaker intends to seek confirmation from the addressee. In other words, tagged declarative clauses are distinguished from biased interrogative clauses by the expectation of confirmation by the addressee. In this study, TAG is a system in which the entry condition is either a declarative clause or an imperative clause and tagged declarative clauses are not considered a type of interrogative (see Section 3.4.1.2.2 for further discussion).

Second, there is a polite way to ask a question as shown in (3.23). In this example, Poirot asks Countess Andrenyi a question, trying to be very polite. The question is realised by a particle interrogative clause, in which politeness is shown in two places, viz. in the first word *qǐng* (please) and the pronominal *nín* (an respectful/intimate form of you). Here the function of the clause as a particle interrogative will not change even if we take away the phrase *qǐng wèn* (can I ask) because the function is encoded in the interrogative particle *ma*. This means that the function of the phrase *qǐng wèn* (can I ask) is mainly to indicate polite-ness.

(3.23)

<i>‘qǐng</i> POLITE	<i>wèn</i> ask	<i>nín xiānshēng</i> you husband	<i>chōuyān</i> smoke	<i>ma?’</i> NTR: int
	Predicator			
		Subject	Predicator	Negotiator

(Can I ask you if your husband smokes?)

3.4.1.2 Declarative Mood

A declarative clause is a congruent realisation of a statement, i.e. giving information, whereas an interrogative clause is the congruent realization of a question, i.e. demanding information. However, the line of divison between them is not all that clear in dialogue. As shown in Section 3.3, the speaker of a statement assigns a role to the listener, expecting the listener to contribute by giving a response. Grammatically, the speaker invests in the Subject of the clause modally so that the statement is ‘grounded’ to be arguable as a declarative clause. This means that a statement is an invitation from the speaker to the addressee, inviting the latter to comment on the Subject in respect of the comment given on the value of POLARITY, MODALITY and ASSESSMENT encoded in the clause. In this sense, a statement is not so different from a question. Structurally, we can see how easy it is to turn a declarative clause into an interrogative one in Chinese, viz. by adding a tag for confirmation, by intonation or by adding an interrogative particle for confirmation or denial, or by changing the element in respect of which the information is sought into a question word.

3.4.1.2.1 Exclamative clauses

As mentioned by Halliday & McDonald (in press), the exclamative clause is a subtype of the declarative clause. They are often marked by a degree adverb *duō* (how...!), *tài* (too) or *zhēn* (truly), and/or with the assessment particle *a* as shown in (3.24). There is no instance of an exclamative clause in the three texts, but there are some in the whole corpus.

(3.24)

<i>bókè xiānshēng</i> Bouc Mr		<i>tǎn le kǒu qì,</i> si-- ASP --gh		<i>‘gōngshì, bān bù wán de gōngshì!’</i> business, fin-- NEG --ish SUB business			
Subject		Predicator					
<i>bǔguò,</i> but	<i>lǎo péngyǒu,</i> old friend	<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>rújīn</i> nowadays	<i>zhēn</i> truly	<i>shì</i> EMP	<i>hóng tòu bànbiān tiān le!’</i> red through half sky ASP	
	Vocative	Subject	Adjunct	Mod. Adj.		Predicator	

(Mr Bouc sighed, ‘Business, unfinished business! But my old friend, you are at the top of the tree nowadays!’)

An alternative interpretation is to consider the option of ‘exclamative’ as a parallel option of ‘declarative’ (see Martin 1992) so that the choice of ‘indicative’ leads to two options, namely ‘informative’ and ‘interrogative’. Then the choice of ‘informative’ in turns leads to the options of ‘declarative’ and ‘exclamative’.

3.4.1.2.2 The system of TAG

Systemically, both declarative and exclamative clauses can be the entry condition to the system of TAG as in (3.25) and (3.26).

(3.25)

<i>[[cuòguò le]]</i> missing ASP	<i>jiù</i> then	<i>tài kěxī le,</i> too pity ASP	<i>shì ba?’</i> TAG
Subject	Adjunct	Predicator	

(Missing it will be a pity, won’t it?)

(3.26)

	<i>‘zhēn</i> truly	<i>cìyǎn,</i> dazzling,	<i>shì bù?</i> TAG
(Subject)	Adjunct	Predicator	Negotiator

(‘(This is) truly dazzling, isn’t it?’)

There are two major types of tag form in the corpus, i.e. the A-not-A type as in (3.27) and the A-particle type as in (3.25) and (3.26). The A-not-A type includes *shì-bù-(shì)*, *dùi-bù-dùi*, *chéng-bù-chéng*. The A-particle type can be further subdivided into two types, i.e. A-particle like *shì / dùi / chéng-ma/ba* in (3.28) or the not-A-particle type like *bù-shì / dùi / chéng-ma/ba* in (3.29).

(3.27)

<i>‘nǐ</i> you	<i>chūmài le</i> betray ASP	<i>wǒmen</i> we		<i>jiù</i> then	<i>xiǎng</i> want	<i>táozhīyāoyāo,</i> escape	<i>shì-bù-shì ?</i> TAG
Subject	Predicator	Complement	Subject	Adjunct	Predicator	Predicator	Negotiator

(You betrayed us and then wanted to escape, didn’t you?)

(3.28)

<i>‘duì le,</i> right		<i>xìng</i> surname	<i>luójiǎdé de,</i> Ratchett EMP	<i>duì- ba,</i> TAG	<i>luójiǎdé ?</i> Ratchett
Modal Adjunct	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Negotiator	Complement

(‘Right, his last name is Ratchett, isn’t it? Ratchett?’)

(3.29)

<i>‘nǐ</i> you	<i>fān</i> dish	<i>zhǔ dǐ hǎo jí le,</i> cook CC very good ASP	<i>bù-shì-ma?’</i> TAG
Subject	Complement	Predicator	Negotiator

(‘You are a good cook, aren’t you?’)

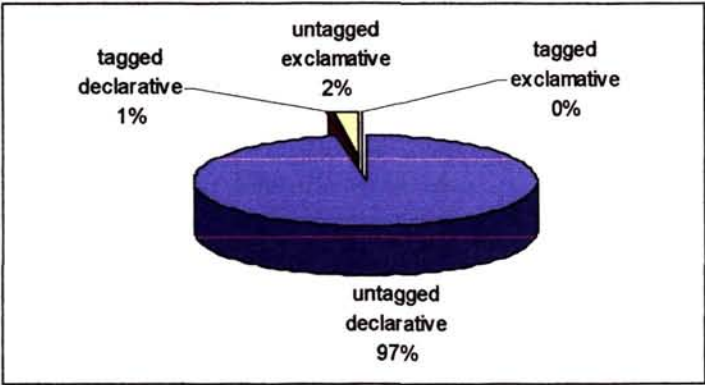
Halliday & McDonald (in press: 330) include the feature of assessment in the system of TAG so that there are three options, namely tagged, neutral (un-tagged) and assessed. In McDonald (1998), ASSESSMENT is a system simultaneous with the system of MOOD

TYPE. In the present study, the system of ASSESSMENT is taken as a separate system (see Section 3.4.2 for clausal particles and the system of ASSESSMENT). The number of occurrences and percentages of different informative types in the corpus are tabulated in Table 3.9. The proportion of each informative type out of the total number of informative clauses is shown diagrammatically in Figure 3.26.

Table 3.9: Number of occurrences and percentages of different informative types

				number	percentage
informative →	declarative →	untagged	8479	97.33%
		tagged	50	0.57%
	exclamative →	untagged	181	2.08%
		tagged	2	0.02%
	TOTAL			8712	100%

Figure 3.26: Proportion of different informative types



3.4.1.3 Imperative Mood

The choice of ‘imperative’ leads to three simultaneous systems, namely MOOD PERSON, TAG and POLITENESS. The primary oppositions in MOOD PERSON are between ‘interactant’ and ‘non-interactant’. The choice of ‘interactant’ leads further to INTERACTANT TYPE, which differentiates addressee, speaker and speaker-plus (inclusive). They are known as ‘jussive’, ‘optative’ and ‘inclusive’ in Halliday & McDonald (in press).

In a ‘jussive’ imperative clause, the Subject of the command is either implicit in the context as in (3.30) or explicitly stated in the clause as in (3.31).

(3.30)

	<i>qù</i> go	<i>dìshíyī hào fángjiān</i> eleventh number room	<i>qǐng</i> invite	<i>nà wèi yīngguó xiǎojiě,</i> that MEAS British lady
(Subject)	Predi-	Adjunct	-cator	Complement

(‘Go and invite that British lady in Room 11,)

<i>piānláo</i> trouble	<i>tā</i> she	<i>guòlái</i> come	<i>yī xià.</i> one MEAS
POLITE	Subject	Predicator	Adjunct

(Ask her to come for a while.)

(3.31)

<i>bùlùnruhe,</i> Whatever,	<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>děi</i> have to	<i>tì zhè wèi xiānshēng</i> for this MEAS Mr	<i>zhǎo</i> find	<i>yī jiǎn wòpū fáng.</i> one MEAS sleeping coach
	Subject	Mod. Adj.	Complement	Predicator	Complement

(Whatever, you have to find a sleeping coach for this gentleman.)

According to Halliday & McDonald (in press), the ‘explicit’ addressee option is not a marked person’ variant as it would be in English. There are 46 occurrences of the explicit type of jussive imperative clause and 113 occurrences of the implicit type in the corpus. These figures on the one hand support their observation and, on the other hand, suggest that implicit ‘jussive’ imperative clause is ‘unmarked’ in this text type in Chinese.

The command in an imperative clause may be directed to the speaker only (called oblique in this study) as in (3.33) or the speaker and the addressee(s) (called suggestive) as in (3.34). To this point, a proposed system of IMPERATIVE MOOD PERSON is formulated as in Figure 3.27.

(3.32)

<i>zhěnpò</i> solve	<i>běn àn</i> this case	<i>yǒu</i> be	<i>liǎng xiàng kěnéng de lùn diǎn.</i> two MEAS probable NOM point of view
Adjunct		Predicator	Subject

(There are two solutions to this.)

<i>ràng</i> let	<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>xiànzài</i> now	<i>gěi gè wèi</i> for every MEAS	<i>fēnxī shuō-míng,</i> explain say-clear
	Subject	Adjunct	Complement	Predicator
<i>ránhòu</i> then	<i>yóu</i> by	<i>bōkè xiānshēng,</i> Bouc Mr.	<i>kāngsīdāndīng yīshī</i> Constantine Dr	<i>lái pànduàn ...</i> come judge
		Subject		Predicator

(Now let me explain it clearly for everyone of you, then Mr. Bouc and Dr. Constantine will judge ...)

(3.33)

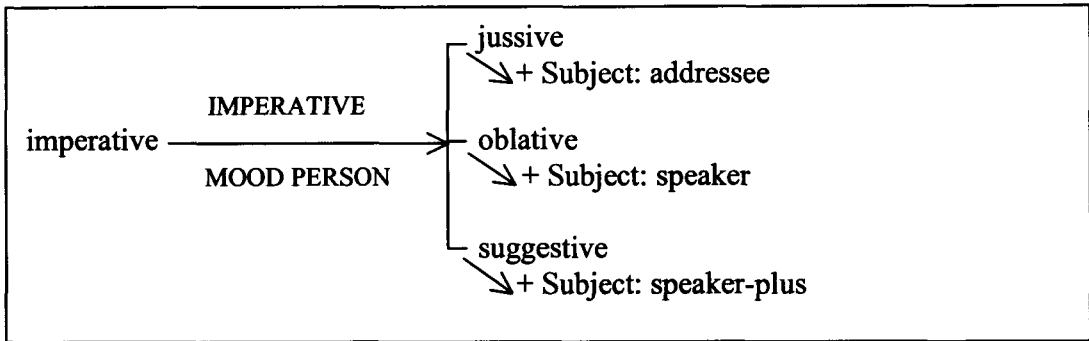
<i>‘zhè</i> this	<i>wǒmen</i> we	<i>shāohòu</i> a bit later	<i>zài</i> again	<i>shuō.</i> talk
Complement	Subject	Adjunct	Adjunct	Predicator

(‘This, we will talk about it later.’)

<i>mūqián,</i> presently	<i>ràng</i> let	<i>wǒmen</i> we	<i>zài</i> again	<i>fānkàn</i> look	<i>yī xià</i> one MEAS	<i>fāng lǐ de dōngxī.</i> room inside ASSOC thing
Adjunct	Mood	Subject	Adjunct	Predicator	Adjunct	Complement

(Presently, let’s check again the things in the room.’)

Figure 3.27: The system of IMPERATIVE MOOD PERSON



The second system that ‘imperative’ leads to is POLITENESS. This only applies to ‘jussive’ clauses but not to ‘suggestive’ and ‘oblative’ ones. The reason is obvious; in both ‘suggestive’ and ‘oblative’ clauses, the speaker is the one who takes up the modal responsibility and it may sound awkward to be polite to oneself. *Qǐng* (please), *máfan*/*piānláo* (trouble) are the two most common politeness markers; they usually occur before the Subject in the command as in (3.34). In the case where the Subject is ellipsed, the politeness markers appear before the Predicator as in (3.35).

(3.34)

<i>piānláo</i> trouble	<i>tā</i> she	<i>guòlái</i> come	<i>yī xià.</i> one MEAS
POLITE	Subject	Predicator	Adjunct

(Ask her to come for a while.)

(3.35)

<i>qǐng</i> please	-- (you)	<i>shàng</i> ascend	<i>chē</i> train
POLITE	Subject	Predicator	Range

(Please get on the train)

The proportion of each imperative type out of the total number of imperative clauses in the corpus is shown diagrammatically in Figure 3.28. The number of occurrences and percentages of different imperative types in the environment of tag and politeness are shown in Table 3.10.

Figure 3.28: Proportion of various imperative types

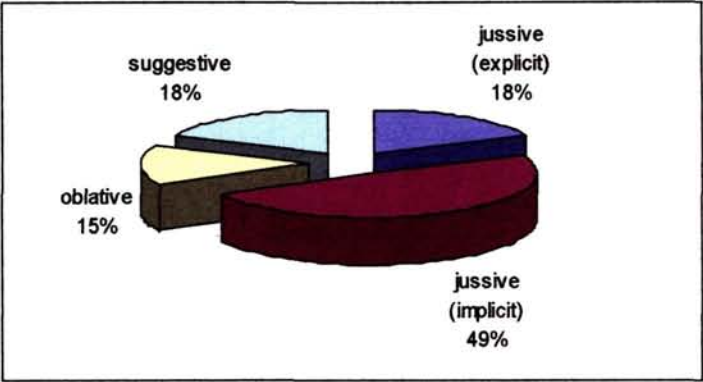
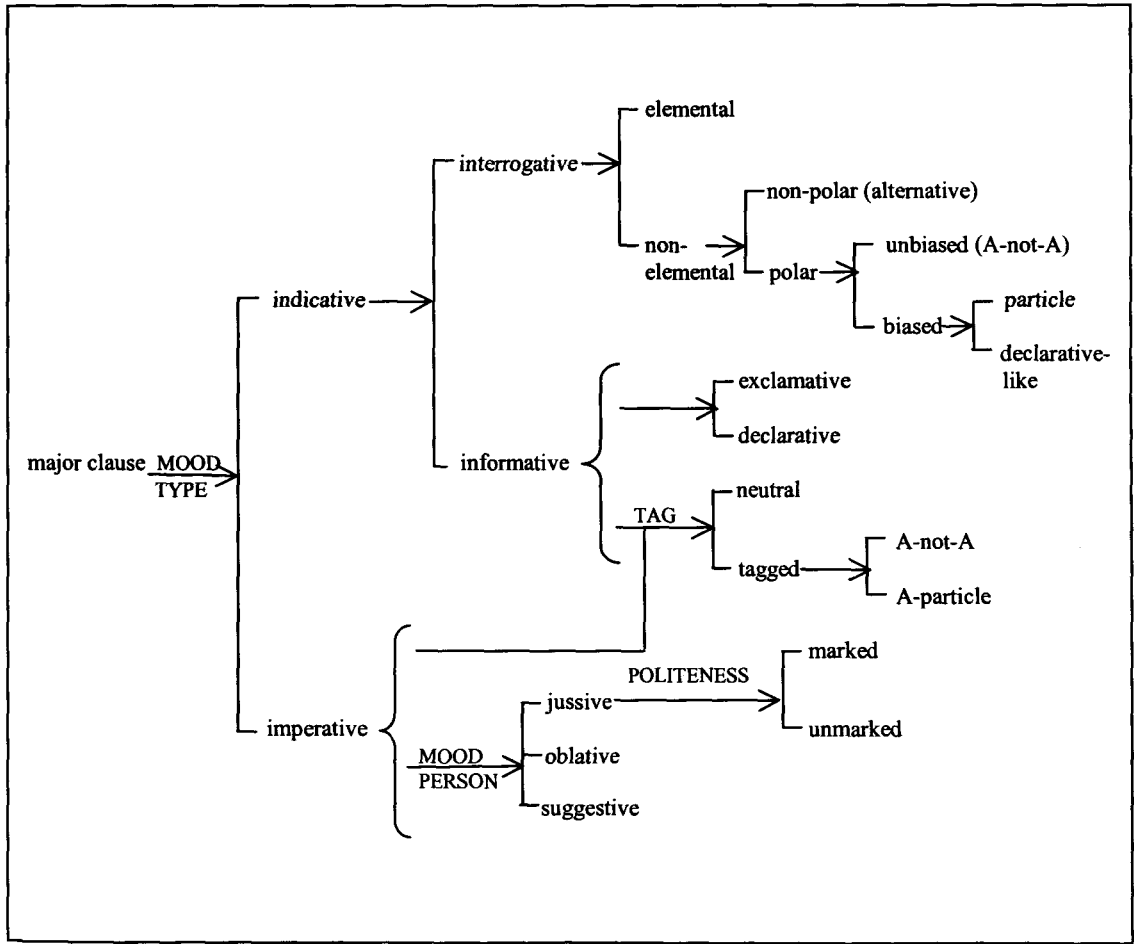


Table 3.10: Number of occurrences and percentages of different imperative types in the environment of tag and politeness

				number	percentage	
imperative →	jussive →	explicit →	tagged →	marked	1	0.4%
				unmarked	0	0.0%
			untagged →	marked	22	8.8%
				unmarked	23	9.2%
		implicit →	tagged →	marked	1	0.4%
				unmarked	0	0.0%
			untagged →	marked	37	14.8%
				unmarked	84	33.6%
	oblativ →	tagged	0	0.0%		
		untagged	37	14.8%		
	suggestive →	tagged	1	0.4%		
		untagged	44	17.6%		
TOTAL				250	100%	

At this point, a tentative system of MOOD TYPE can be formulated systemically as in Figure 3.29 below.

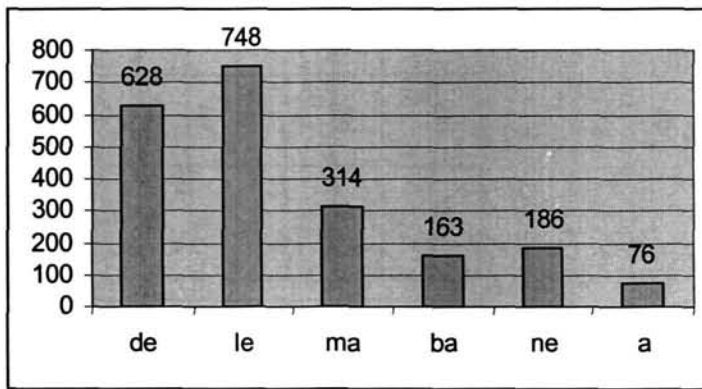
Figure 3.29: A tentative system of MOOD TYPE



3.4.2 Clausal particles and the system of ASSESSMENT

The most common clausal particles in Chinese are *le*, *de*, *ma*, *ne*, *ba*, *a* and its phonologically conditioned variants (*ya*, *wa na* or *nga*), depending on the final vowel preceding *a*. Out of 9965 major clauses in the corpus, 2111 (21.18%) are marked with clausal particles with *le* and *de* occurring the most frequently. Their number of occurrences is shown in Figure 3.30.

Figure 3.30: Occurrence of different clausal particles



Summary tables of clausal particles in the environment of mood types are reproduced here as Tables 3.11, 3.12 and 3.13. These tables are organised around two axes: eight different mood types at the vertical y-axis and six clausal particles passed over above the horizontal x-axis. Table 3.11 shows the number of occurrences while Tables 3.12 and 3.13 show the percentages. Table 3.12 displays the distribution of different particle types in each mood type. It tells us what percentage of 'declarative' is marked by *ma*, *ba*, *ne* and so on. In contrast, Table 3.13 displays the distribution of each clausal particle type in the different mood types. It tells us how many per cent of all instances of *ma* occur in 'imperative', 'declarative', 'exclamative' and so on. In this way, these two tables give us information from two different perspectives.

Table 3.11: Number of occurrences of different clausal particles

		unmarked	marked						Total	
			<i>de</i>	<i>le</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>ne</i>	<i>a</i>		
➤	indicative ➤	elemental	173	18	25	12	4	32	1	265
		non-element ➤	6	4	0	0	0	4	0	14
		polar ➤	12	3	0	0	1	1	0	17
			0	0	0	282	70	92	10	454
		biased ➤	215	12	26	0	0	0	0	253
			81	3	54	12	5	8	20	183
		declarative	7159	586	638	8	48	49	41	8529
	imperative	204	2	5	0	35	0	4	250	
TOTAL		7850	628	748	314	163	186	76	9965	

Table 3.12: Distribution of different clausal particle types in each mood type

		unmarked	marked						Total			
			<i>de</i>	<i>le</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>ne</i>	<i>a</i>				
≻	indicative	interrogative	elemental	65.3%	6.8%	9.4%	4.5%	1.5%	12.1%	0.4%	100%	
			non-element	non-polar	42.8%	28.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	28.6%	0.0%	100%
		polar		unbiased	70.5%	17.7%	0.0%	0.0%	5.9%	5.9%	0.0%	100%
				biased	particle	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	62.1%	15.4%	20.3%	2.2%
		declarative-like	85.0%		4.7%	10.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100%	
	informative	exclamative	44.3%	1.6%	29.5%	6.6%	2.7%	4.4%	10.9%	100%		
		declarative	83.8%	6.9%	7.5%	0.1%	0.6%	0.6%	0.5%	100%		
	imperative		81.6%	0.8%	2.0%	0.0%	14.0%	0.0%	1.6%	100%		
	TOTAL			78.7%	6.3%	7.5%	3.2%	1.6%	1.9%	0.8%	100%	

Table 3.13: Distribution of each clausal particle types in different mood type

				unmarked	marked						Total
					<i>de</i>	<i>le</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>ne</i>	<i>a</i>	
➤	indicative➤	interrogative➤	elemental	2.2%	2.9%	3.3%	3.8%	2.5%	17.2%	1.3%	2.7%
		non-element➤	non-polar	0.1%	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.2%	0.0%	0.1%
	polar➤		unbiased	0.2%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%	0.5%	0.0%	0.2%
		biased➤	particle	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	89.8%	42.8%	49.5%	13.2%	4.6%
	declarative-like		2.7%	1.9%	3.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.5%	
	informative➤	exclamative	1.0%	0.5%	7.2%	3.8%	3.1%	4.3%	26.3%	1.8%	
		declarative									
	imperative			91.2%	93.3%	85.3%	2.6%	29.5%	26.3%	53.9%	85.6%
				2.6%	0.3%	0.7%	0.0%	21.5%	0.0%	5.3%	2.5%
			TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

From Table 3.12, we can see that:

- (1) in general 21.3% of major clauses are marked with clausal particles;
- (2) among all the mood types, only 'declarative', 'exclamative' and 'elemental interrogative' clauses can be marked by all types of clausal particle;
- (3) among the different types of interrogative, all particle interrogative clauses are marked with particles, mostly with *ma* (62.1%). Apart from particle interrogative clauses, non-polar interrogative clauses are likely to be marked (57.2%), mainly with *de* (28.6%) and *ne* (28.6%), whereas declarative-like interrogative clauses are least likely to be marked (15%), mainly with *le* (10.3%). For the rest, elemental interrogative clauses are mainly marked with *ne* (21.1%) and unbiased interrogative ones with *de* (17.7%);
- (4) among different types of informative, exclamative clauses are more likely to be marked (55.7%), mainly marked with *le* (29.5%), whereas declarative clauses are less likely to be marked (16.2%), mainly with *le* (7.5%) or *de* (6.9%); and
- (5) imperative clauses are quite unlikely to be marked (18.4%). When they are marked, they are more likely to be marked with *ba* (14.0%).

The results shown in Table 3.13 will be discussed in Sections 3.4.2.1 to 3.4.2.5.

3.4.2.1 Assessment particle *ma*

The particle *ma* is strongly associated with interrogative clauses in general, and particle interrogative clauses in particular. 89% of all instances of *ma* occur in particle interrogative clauses and only 6.4% in informative clauses, despite the fact that the number of informative clauses (7240) is almost 18 times higher than that of interrogative clauses (406). In addition, there is no incidence in the corpus of *ma* occurring in any imperative clauses.

As an interrogative marker, *ma* can signal different levels of forcefulness as in the following examples:

- Interrogative: high level of forcefulness (assertive):

(3.36)

<i>tā</i> he	<i>dà shēng</i> big sound	<i>shuōdào,</i> say	<i>‘wǒ hái yǐwéi</i> I still think	<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>xià</i> descend	<i>chē le</i> train ASP	<i>ne.</i> NTR: ass
Subject	Mod. Adj.	Predicator					
			interp. metaphor	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Negoti.

(He shouted, ‘I thought that you had left the train.)

<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>bū shì</i> NEG be	<i>shuō</i> say	<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>zài bèiěrgéláidé</i> at Belgrade	<i>xià</i> descend	<i>chē</i> train	<i>ma?’</i> NTR: int
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator					
			Subject	Adjunct	Predicator	Complement	Negotiator

(Didn’t you say that you would leave the train at Belgrade?)

- Interrogative: median level of forcefulness (biased question):

(3.37)

<i>xiānshēng</i> Mr	<i>yào</i> want	<i>xiē shénme</i> MEAS something	<i>ma?</i> NTR: int
Subject	Predicator	Complement	Negotiator

(‘Sir, do you want anything?’)

- Interrogative: low level of forcefulness (hesitative):

(3.38)

<i>‘hǎoxiàng</i> seem	<i>méi</i> NEG	<i>jǐ wèi chéngkè</i> several MEAS traveller	<i>ma?’</i> NTR: int
Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Subject	Negotiator

(It seems that there aren’t many traveller?)

3.4.2.2 Assessment particle *ne*

The particle *ne* is strongly associated with interrogative clauses in general (69.4%). Among all types of particles, it has the strongest association with elemental interrogative clauses, 17.2% in comparison with a mean of 4.4%. As an interrogative marker, it can also signal different levels of forcefulness:

- Interrogative: high level of forcefulness (demanding):

(3.39)

<i>bōkè xiānshēng</i> Bouc Mr	<i>nùqínánxiāo de</i> angrily NOM	<i>zhìwèn dào,</i> demand	<i>‘kěshì</i> but	<i>zhè</i> this	<i>shì</i> be	<i>zěnmē</i> Q-how	<i>huìshì</i> matter	<i>ne?’</i> NTR: ass
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator						
				Subject	Predi.	Adj.	Comple.	Negoti.

(Mr Bouc demanded angrily, ‘But what had happened?’)

- Elliptical interrogative: low level of forcefulness (truncated question...how about).

(3.40)

<i>‘[[tā gěi wǒ de]] yīnxiàng</i> she give I SUB impression	<i>hén bù</i> very NEG	<i>hǎo.</i> good
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator

(‘The impression that she gave me was very bad.)

<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>kàn</i> see	<i>ne?’</i> NTR: ass
Subject	Predicator	Negotiator

(What do you think?)

Apart from interrogative clauses, 26.3% of all instances of *ne* occur in declarative clauses as in (3.41) and 4.3% in exclamative clauses as in (3.42). In both cases, it signals a median level of forcefulness.

- Declarative: median level of forcefulness:

(3.41)

<i>‘yīsitànbáo zhè gè dūshì</i> Stamboul this MEAS city	<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>hái</i> still	<i>méi</i> NEG: pf	<i>dào guò</i> visit ASP	<i>ne.</i> NTR: ass
Complement	Subject	Adj	Mod. Adj.	Predicator	Negotiator

(Stamboul I have never been there before.)

- Exclamative: median level of forcefulness:

(3.42)

	<i>‘zhēn bù</i> really NEG	<i>zhīdào</i> know		<i>yào</i> have to	<i>zài zhèlǐ</i> at here	<i>děng shāng</i> wait upon	<i>duōjiǔ</i> how long	<i>ne!</i> NTR: ass
(Subject)	Modal Adjunct	Predicator						
			(Subject)	Modal Adjunct	Adjunct	Predicator	Adjunct	Negotiator

(‘I) really don’t know how long (I) have to wait here!’)

3.4.2.3 Assessment particle *ba*

The particle *ba* can mark all sorts of mood types, but not non-polar and declarative-like interrogative. Like *ma* and *ne*, *ba* is strongly associated with interrogative clauses (45.5%). However, in comparison with other types of particle, it has the strongest association with the imperative, 21.5% in comparison with a mean of 2.2%.

It can be used in an imperative clause to indicate an ‘opinative’ mood as in (3.43), a suggestion as in (3.44) or a mild command or request with a soft tone as in (3.45). This means that it always signals a median level of forcefulness.

- Imperative: median level of forcefulness (opinative, advisative):

(3.43)

<i>‘xiānshēng</i> Mr	<i>zuìhǎo</i> the best	<i>shāng</i> ascend	<i>chē</i> train	<i>ba.</i> NTR: ass
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement	Negotiator

(‘Monsieur had better mount.’)

- Imperative: median level of forcefulness (suggestive):

(3.44)

<i>'nǎme,</i> then	<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>kāi</i> open	<i>gè jiànmǎ</i> MEAS price	<i>ba.'</i> NTR: ass
	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Negotiator

('Then you give me a price.')

- Imperative: median level of forcefulness (mild command or request):

(3.45)

<i>'qǐng</i> please	<i>shāng</i> ascend	<i>chē</i> train	<i>ba,</i> NTR: ass	<i>xiānshēng.'</i> Mr
POLITE	Predicator	Complement	Negotiator	Vocative

('Please mount the train, sir.')

In interrogative clauses, it implies uncertainty or a doubting mood as in (3.46).

- Interrogative: low level of forcefulness (uncertainty, doubting)

(3.46)

<i>'nǐ</i> you	<i>shì</i> EMP	<i>zài yīstānbǎo</i> at Stamboul	<i>xià</i> descend	<i>chē</i> train	<i>ba?'</i> NTR: ass
Subject		Adjunct	Predicator	Complement	Negotiator

('Are you getting out the train at Stamboul?')

In declarative clauses, it expresses something similar to 'opinative' in an imperative as in (3.47).

- Declarative: median level of forcefulness (opinative)

(3.47)

<i>'bié tāi</i> NEG too	<i>fèishēn le,</i> trouble ASP	<i>lǎo pēngyǒu,'</i> old friend	<i>báiluó</i> Poirot	<i>shuō,</i> say
Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Vocative		
			Subject	Predicator

('Don't trouble yourself too much, my friend,' Poirot said.)

'wǒ I	jiù then	zuò sit	pǔtōng common	chēxiāng carriage	ba.' NTR: ass
Subject	Adjunct	Predicator	Complement		

(‘Then I can take an economy class.’)

3.4.2.4 Assessment particle *a* and its variants

The particle *a* is usually taken as one of the four interrogative markers. Its association with interrogative clauses in the corpus, however, is not as strong as for the other three markers; only 14.5% of all instances of *a* occur in interrogative clauses but 80.2% in informative clauses. This comparison should be interpreted in the light of informative clauses being almost 18 times more frequent than interrogative clauses in the corpus. This means that it is still considered to be strongly associated with interrogative clauses. On the other hand, among all types of particle, it has the strongest association with exclamative clauses, 26.3% in comparison with a mean of 4.8%.

The particle *a* and its variants (*ya*, *wa*, *na*, *nga*) reduce the forcefulness of the message in interrogative and imperative clauses (see Li & Thompson 1981). When it is used in an interrogative clause, it softens the query, whereas when it is used in an imperative clause, it turns the command into a mild one (‘molliative’ in Halliday & McDonald’s (in press) terms). For instance:

- Interrogative: low level of forcefulness (tentative)

(3.48)

A:	'nǐ you	tài too	kèqì amiable	le.' ASP
	Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	

(‘You are too amiable.’)

B:	'fǎnzhèng in fact	zhǐ only	yǒu have	yī yè. one night
		Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Adjunct
		dào le arrive ASP	bèiěrgéláidé...' Belgrade...	
	(Subject)	Predicator	Adjunct	

(‘In fact, it is for one night only. After (I) arrive at Belgrade...’)

A:	'ou! ah	nǐ you	shì EMP	dào reach	bèiěrgéláidé Belgrade...	ya...' NTR: ass
		Subject		Predicator	Adjunct	Negotiator

(‘Ah, you go to Belgrade...’)

- Imperative: median level of forcefulness (mild command, molliative)

(3.49)

A:	'lǚkè passenger	dōu all	dàoqí le arrive ASP	ma?' NTR: int
	Subject	Adjunct	Predicator	Negotiator

(‘Have all the passengers arrived?’)

B:	'shì de, yes	zhǐ only	yǒu exist	yī wèi one MEAS		hàì still	méi-yǒu NEG: pf	dào.' arrive
		Mod. Adjunct	Predicator	Subject				
					(Subject)	Adjunct	Mod. Adj.	Predicator

(‘Yes, there is only one who has not arrived yet.’)

A:	'nǐ you	shuō say	ya' NTR: ass
	Subject	Predicator	Negotiator

(‘Tell me.’)

In contrast, when it is used in exclamative and declarative clauses, it indicates a high level of forcefulness as in the following:

- Exclamative: high level of forcefulness

(3.50)

<i>‘zhè jìjié</i> this season	<i>zhēn méi-yǒu</i> really NEG: pf	<i>shénme rén</i> whatever people	<i>lǚxíng</i> travel	<i>a!</i> NTR: ass
Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	Subject	Predicator	Negotiator

(‘There aren’t many travelers in this season.’)

- Declarative: high level of forcefulness

(3.51)

<i>‘[[shuō de]]</i> say SUB	<i>shì</i> right	<i>ya.</i> NTR: ass
Subject	Predicator	Negotiator

(‘What you said is right.’)

The interaction between the four clausal particles and the level of forcefulness in the environment of different mood types is shown in Table 3.14, which is subject to modification when new data of different text types emerge.

Table 3.14: Interaction between clausal particles and level of forcefulness in the environment of different mood types

mood types	level of forcefulness	<i>ma</i>	<i>ne</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>a</i>
interrogative	high	high (assertive)	high (demanding)		
	median	median (biased question)			
	low	low (hesitation)	low (elliptical interrogative clause; truncated question)	low (uncertainty; doubting)	low (tentative)
imperative	high	high			
	median			median (opinative; advisative; suggestive; mild command; request)	median (mild command; molliative)
	low				
declarative	high				high
	median		median	median (opinative)	
	low				
exclamative	high				high
	median		median		
	low				

3.4.2.5 The particles *le* and *de*

Finally what remains to be discussed are the other two particles, *le* and *de*. The question is whether it is appropriate to include them in the system of ASSESSMENT. According to Li & Thompson (1981), *le* as a clausal particle can signal a current relevant state alone, a sense of perfective alone or both current relevant state and perfective. Halliday & Matthiessen (1999) treat both uses of *le* as aspectual. Tice (1990: 231) argues that *le* can also “reinforce the nature of conclusion of a completed action or event” as in (3.52).

(3.52)

<i>‘xiānshēng</i> Mr	<i>nín</i> you	<i>méi-yǒu</i> NEG: pf	<i>zhùyì dào?</i> notice to
Vocative	Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator

(Sir, haven’t you noticed?)

<i>chē</i> train	<i>tīng xià-lái le,</i> stop descend-come ASP/NTR
Subject	Predicator

(The train has topped.)

	<i>bēi fēngxuě</i> DISP: rec wind-snow	<i>gēi fēngzhù le.’</i> DISP: rec block ASP/NTR
(Subject)	Adjunct	Predicator

((it) is blocked by snow.)

On the basis of the above example one may argue that the main function of *le* is perfective. However, this does not mean that it cannot indicate the force of certainty as well. In (3.53), the first occurrence of *le* obviously signals the perfective aspect. If the second occurrence of *le* is also interpreted as another perfective aspect, then it becomes somewhat redundant. In fact, Tiee (1990) employs this type of example to suggest that the function of the second *le* is to express a sense of certainty.

(3.53)

<i>‘tāmen</i> they	<i>yīdìng</i> must	<i>rènwéi</i> believe	<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>chū le shì le.’</i> out ASP matter ASP/NTR
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator		
			Subject	Predicator

(‘They must think that there must be an accident.’)

Apart from in declarative clauses, *le* can also be used in interrogative clauses as in (3.54), exclamative clauses as in (3.55) and imperative clauses as in (3.56).

- Interrogative: high level of forcefulness

(3.54)

<i>‘xiànzài</i> now	<i>wǒmen</i> we	<i>dào le</i> arrive ASP	<i>shénme suǒzài le?</i> what place NTR:ass
Adjunct	Subject	Predicator	Adjunct

(‘Where are we now?’)

- Exclamative: high level of forcefulness

(3.55)

<i>‘nǐ</i> you	<i>tài</i> too	<i>kèqì le</i> amiable ASP/NTR
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator

(‘How amiable you are!’)

- Imperative: high level of forcefulness

(3.56)

<i>‘ōu!</i> ah	<i>qǐng</i> please	<i>bié</i> NEG	<i>shuō le.</i> say ASP/NTR
	POLITE	Adjunct	Predicator

(‘Ah, don’t say that please.’)

In all the above cases, *le* signals a high level of forcefulness. However, while *ma*, *ba*, *ne* and *a* cannot be combined with each other, they can follow the particle *le* such as (3.57). In this case, an alternative interpretation is to consider the particle *le* an aspectual particle instead of a modal particle.

(3.57)

<i>‘nà</i> that	<i>tài</i> too	<i>yìhàn le</i> regrettable ASP	<i>ba!</i> NTR: ass
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Negotiator

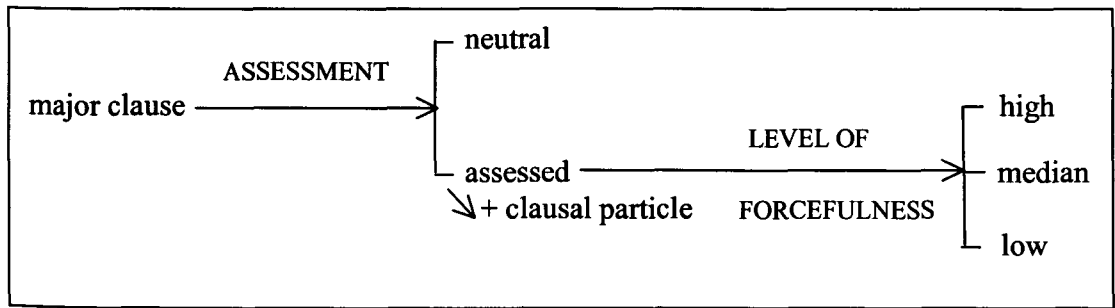
(‘Isn’t it too regrettable?’)

Tiee (1990: 228) argues that the particle *de* “expresses certainty and emphasizes the affirmative nature of a statement.” It is usually combined with *shì* to form the *shì ...de* construction. He interprets the *shì ... de* construction as a combination of the emphatic marker *shì* and the modal final particle *de*; this means that the marker *shì* gives emphasis to the element that follows it and the particle *de* indicates the certainty of the statement. However, a more common interpretation is to interpret both *shì-de* and *de* as emphatic constructions.

Now we will turn to Table 3.13 to see what was revealed by an inspection of the corpus. Both *de* and *le* are strongly associated with declarative clauses, with 93.3% of all instances of *de* and 85.3% of *le* occurring in declarative clauses. Only 5.9% of *de* and 6.8% of *le* occur in interrogative clauses and there is no instance of them occurring in a particle interrogative clause. In contrast, *ma*, *ba*, *ne* and *a* are strongly associated with interrogative clauses in general, and particle interrogative clauses in particular. Based on these results, *de* and *le* will not be included in the system of ASSESSMENT in the present study.

At this point a system of ASSESSMENT can be formulated systemically as in Figure 3.31.

Figure 3.31: The system of ASSESSMENT



3.4.3 Systems associated with free and bound clauses

Generally speaking, a free clause can serve as a move in an exchange and therefore directly contribute to the development of a dialogue, whereas a bound clause is dependent on a major clause in a clause complex or is rankshifted and embedded in other clauses. Thus bound clauses theoretically do not directly contribute to the flow of exchanges. However, there are some ‘bound’ clauses in the corpus that are also accessible to arguability in the discourse as in (3.58).

(3.58) (a) (b)

A:	‘wǒ I	xiǎng, think	nín you	zài nàlǐ at there	shì EMP	yào want	tíng stop	jǐtiān several days	de EMP	ba?’ NTR: ass
	Subject	Predicator								
			Subject	Adjunct		Pred.	Pred.	Adjunct		Negot.

(I think you would want to stay there for several days.)

B:	‘shìyae, yes	yīsītǎnbǎo Stamboul	zhè gè this	dūshì MEAS city	wǒ I	hái still	měi dào guò NEG:pf visit	ne, NTR:ass
		Complement			Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Negoti.
	[[cuòguò missing	le]] ASP	jiù then	tài too	kěxī le, pity	NTR:ass	shì ba?’ TAG	
	Subject		Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	Predicator		Mood	

(Stamboul I have never been to before, (so) missing it will be a pity, won’t it?)

	'wú shì without duty			yī shēn qīng, one body slight			
	Adjunct		(Subject)	Predicator			
	wǒ I	yào have to	zài dāngdì at that place	hǎohǎo good	guāngguāng visit	yī fān.' one MEAS	
	Subject	Modal Adjunct	Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Adjunct	

(Without any duty, one feels so relaxed. I want to pay a good visit to that place.)

In the above exchange, clauses (3.58a) and (3.58b) form a clause complex with (3.58a) as the dominant clause and (3.58b) as hypotactic projected clause. Judging from the responding turn, the focus is not on the dominant clause, i.e. whether the speaker thought, but on the projected clause, i.e. whether the addressee would stay in Stamboul for a few days. So a better interpretation is to take the dominant clause ‘*wǒ xiǎng*’ as grammatical metaphor of modality (cf. Halliday 1994, Section 10.4).

Unlike free clauses, which lead to the system of MOOD TYPE (Section 3.4.1), bound clauses lead to the system of DEPENDANT CLAUSE TYPE. Here the most general distinction is that between projection clause, as in (3.58a) and (3.58b), and expansion clause, as in (3.59a) and (3.59b).

(3.59)

(a)	<i>ruòshì</i> if	<i>dàiběnhàn</i> Debenham	<i>xiǎojiě</i> Miss	<i>shì</i> EMP	<i>wúgū</i> innocent	<i>de,</i> EMP
		Subject			Predicator	
(b)	<i>tā</i> she	<i>wèishénme</i> Q-why	<i>yào</i> have to	<i>yǐnmán</i> conceal	<i>zhì xiàng shìshí?</i> this MEAS fact	
	Subject	Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement	

(If Miss Debenham is innocent, why did she conceal that fact?)

Matthiessen (1995: 468) notes that in English “a projection clause makes a mood-like selection, but it is indirect rather than direct, which means that it does not enact a speech functional move in an exchange – rather, it is a projected proposition or proposal.” Structurally, there is only one option in an indirect proposition, namely indirect indicative. However, there are two options in the Chinese corpus, viz. indirect indicative (statement) as in (3.60) and indirect interrogative (question) as in (3.61) because in Chinese, unlike in English, an indirect interrogative has the same form as a direct interrogative.

- Indirect indicative (statement)

(3.60)

wǒ I	zhīdào know	dàjiā everyone	dōu also	dǒng understand	yī xiē yīngwén. one MEAS English
Subject	Predicator				
		Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement

(I know everyone of us understands some English.)

- Indirect interrogative (question)

(3.61)

wǒ I	xiǎng want	wèn ask	nǐ, you	xiǎojiě, Miss	
Subject	Predicator	Predicator	Complement	Vocative	
jīntiān zǎochén today morning	nǐ you	wèishénme Q-why	yào have to	duì wǒmen towards we	shuōhuǎng?' lying
Adjunct	Subject	Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	Complement	Predicator

(I want to ask you, Miss, why did you lie to us this morning?)

Indirect proposals include the orientation of both giving and demanding. Unlike in English, the two orientations are realised slightly differently in Chinese; the Subject can be ellipsed in an indirect offer but not in an indirect command. This means that two options can be differentiated here, viz. an indirect offer as in (3.62) and an indirect command as in (3.63).

- Indirect offer

(3.62)

'gè wèi xiānshēng, gè wèi nǚshì, every MEAS gentlemen every MEAS ladies	wǒ I	xiǎng think	wǒ I	shuō speak	yīngwén English	ba, NTR:ass
Vocative	Subject	Predicator				
			Subject	Predicator	Comple.	Negoti.

(Ladies and gentlemen, I think I speak in English.)

• Indirect command

(3.63)

‘wǒ I	jiào ask	tā she	qù zhàoyìng go take care	nà wèi měiguó tàitài. that MEAS America Mrs
Subject	Predicator			
		Subject	Predicator	Complement

(‘I asked her to go to take care of that American lady.’)

In Chinese, as in English, there are three basic types of expansion clause, namely elaboration, extension and enhancement. Matthiessen (1995: 470) points out that expansion clauses do not represent meta-things, i.e. ideas and facts; they represent a macro-phenomenon, i.e. a configurational phenomenon consisting of a figure (see Chapter 2; for English, see Halliday 1994: 215-273; Matthiessen 1995: 121-185 & 467-476 for details).

An elaboration clause expands another clause by elaborating on it by restating it in other words (expository), exemplifying it with examples (exemplifying) or clarifying it with comments (clarifying) as in (3.64)

(3.64)

wǒmen we	jù gather	zài zhèlǐ at here			
Subject	Predicator	Adjunct			
(we gether here)					
	shì EMP	tiàochá investigate	[[shānmùěr àidéhuá luójiādé << >> bèi cì de]] zhēnxiàng Samuel Edward Ratchett DISP:rec kill SUB truth		de EMP
(Subject)		Predicator	Complement		
(to investigate the truth of the murder of Samuel Edward Ratchett)					
	<<yě also	jiùshì be	kǎsàití>> Cassetti		
(Subject)	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement		
<<(he) was also called Cassetti>>)					

An extending clause on the other hand expands another clause by adding a new element to it (additive), giving an exception to it (varying) or offering an alternative (alternative) such as (3.65).

(3.65)

<i>zài sǐzhě shuìyī kǒudài zhōng,</i> at body pyjama pocket inside,	<i>fāxiàn le</i> find ASP	<i>yī zhī [[biǎomiàn zásuì le de]] shǒubiǎo,</i> one MEAS watch surface break ASP SUB watch
Adjunct	Predicator	Complement

(A watch whose surface was broken was found in the pocket of the body’s pyjama.)

<i>shízhēn</i> the hand of the watch	<i>shì</i> EMP	<i>tíng</i> stop	<i>zài yī diǎn yīkè shàng.</i> at one o’clock quarter upon
Subject		Predicator	Adjunct

(the watch stopped at a quarter past one.)

An enhancing clause expands another clause by embellishing it, by qualifying it with some circumstantial elements like time (temporal), place (spatial), means (manner), cause or condition as in (3.66):

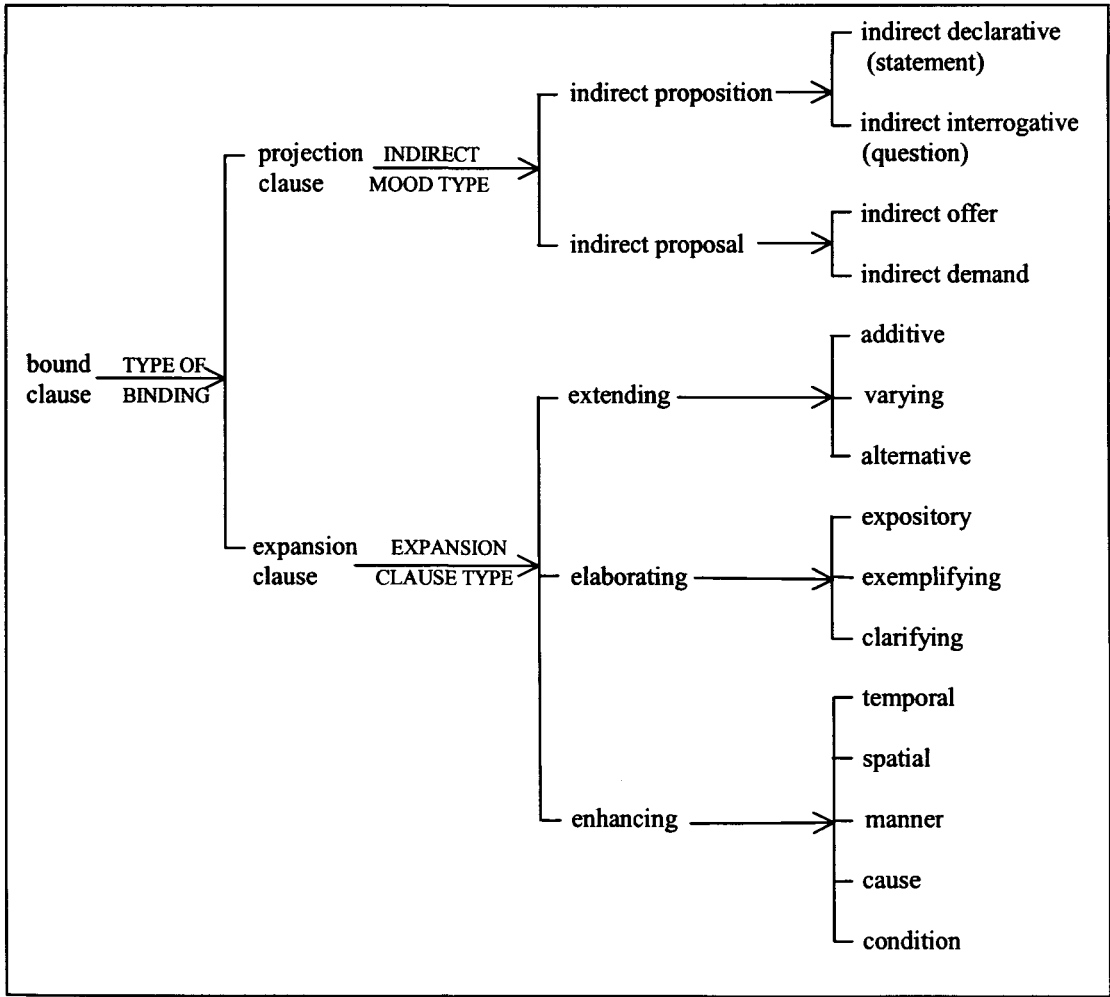
(3.66)

<i>‘nǐ</i> you	<i>yǐnmán le</i> conceal ASP	<< >>	<i>shìshí.</i> fact
Subject	Predicator		Complement
(You concealed ...the fact.)			
<< <i>zài</i> at	<i>āmúszhuàng bēijù</i> Armstrong tragedy	<i>fāshēng</i> happen	<i>de dāngshí,>></i> SUB when
Ad-	Subject	Predicator	-junct
(when the Armstrong’s tragedy was happened,)			

(You concealed the fact when the Armstrong’s tragedy happened.)

Further discussion of EXPANSION will be found in Section 4.3.2. At this point the system of bound clauses in Chinese is formulated systemically in Figure 3.32.

Figure 3.32: Systems associated with bound clause



Furthermore, a bound clause can serve as a rankshifted (downranked) clause, embedded in the structure of a clause or group/phrase. In this case, it is even further removed from arguability. For example, *zài cǐ yī mīngàn zhōng méi-yǒu cānyǔ dòngshǒu de* ((the one) who had taken no part in this murder case) is downranked as a noun group in (3.70).

(3.67)

‘[[<i>zài cǐ yī mùqān zhōng</i> at this MEAS murder inside		<i>méi-yǒu</i> NEG: pf	<i>cānyǔ</i> take part	<i>dòngshǒu de</i>]] action SUB
Adjunct		Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Predicator
Subject				
<i>gāi</i> must	<i>shì</i> be	<i>nà</i> [[<i>bèi rènzuò zuì yǒu dòn jī de</i>]] <i>rén.</i> that DISP:rec consider most have intention SUB person		
Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement		

((The person) who had taken no part in this murder case must be the one who would be considered the most likely to have done so.)

3.4.4 The System of POLARITY

From the analysis of the five dialogues in the three Chinese texts we can observe that one of the aspects that the interactants usually negotiate is the value of polarity. In a system of POLARITY, the primary contrast is ‘positive’ vs. ‘negative’. In Chinese, ‘positive’ is the unmarked option while ‘negative’ is the marked one. This is shown by two facts. First, positive clauses occur far more frequently than negative ones. Of 88 clauses in the five dialogues, 62 (70.45%) are positive and only 26 (29.55%) are negative. Note that this is already a high proportion of ‘negative’ in comparison with texts in general. The high proportion is due to the fact that there is a high degree of denial in the third and fourth dialogues, i.e. the two task-oriented interviews. Second, negative clauses are structurally marked; a negative marker (negator) has to be added to a positive clause in order to turn it into a negative one. The 26 negators in the five dialogues can be grouped into four types as shown in Table 3.15.

Table 3.15: Negative markers in Dialogues 1-5

negator marker	occurrence in Dialogues 1-5
<i>bù</i>	(2.5), (2.8), (3.20), (3.21), (3.28), (4.3), (4.4), (4.12), (5.5)
<i>méi</i>	(3.7), (3.12), (4.11), (5.9)
<i>méi (yǒu)</i>	(3.18)
<i>bié</i>	(3.15)

Among these four types of negator, *bù*, *měi* and *měi (yǒu)* are used in indicative clauses. A range of examples is given below:

(3.68)

<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>zhēn</i> <i>bù</i> really NEG	<i>zhī</i> know	<i>rúhé</i> how	<i>gǎnxiè</i> thank	<i>nǐ?</i> you
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator			
			Subject	Predicator	Complement

(I really don't know how to thank you.)

(3.69)

<i>yīsitǎnbǎo</i> Stamboul	<i>zhè</i> <i>gè</i> <i>dūshì</i> this MEAS city	<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>hái</i> still	<i>méi</i> NEG	<i>dào</i> <i>guò</i> visit ASP	<i>ne.</i> NTR: ass
Complement		Subject	Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Negotiator

(Stamboul I have never been there to before.)

(3.70)

<i>bùguò</i> however	<i>jīn nián</i> this year	(that)	<i>dàohǎi</i> still	<i>méi (yǒu)</i> NEG: pf	<i>fāshēng</i> happen	<i>nǐ.</i> NTR: ass
	Adjunct	(Subject)	Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Negotiator

(However, this year (that) has not happened yet.)

These three examples suggest that *bù* indicates the ordinary or unmarked ‘negative’. *Méi* focuses on not having the experience while *méi (yǒu)* denies the completion of process (for details, see Li & Thompson 1981; Halliday & McDonal in press). However, it should be noted that *you* is one of the verbs that realise the possessive and existential clauses, with the meaning of possess and exist respectively. So the phrase *méi-yǒu* in these two clause types constitutes two components, i.e. *méi* (the negator) and *yǒu* (the verb), and therefore has to be distinguished from the type of negator which denies the completion of a process, for example in (3.71).

(3.71)

'zhè jìjié this season	zhēn méi-yǒu really NEG: pf	shěnmē rén whatever person	lǚxíng travel	a. NTR: ass
Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	Subject	Predicator	Negotiator

(‘There are few people travelling in this season.’)

In addition, *méi-yǒu* can be used to emphase the experience as well as in (3.72). However, *méi* is far more common than *méi-yǒu* in this usage.

(3.72)

tā she	cóng méi-yǒu from NEG:pf	qù guò go ASP	měiguó? America
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement

(She had never been to America?)

The negator *bié* is usually used in the imperative as in (3.73).

(3.73)

(a)	<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>zuò xiàlái,</i> sit down	
	Subject	Predicator	
	('You sit here,)		
(b)	<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>péi zhe</i> accompany ASP	<i>nǐ,</i> you
	Subject	Predicator	Complement
	(I'll stay right by you,)		
(c)		<i>bié</i> don't	<i>dānxīn,</i> worry
	(Subject)	Modal Adjunct	Predicator
	(don't worry,)		
(d)		<i>bié</i> don't	<i>hàipà.</i> afraid
	(Subject)	Modal Adjunct	Predicator
	(don't be afraid.)		

However, it can also be used in a passive construction as in (3.74). The system of VOICE will be discussed in Chapter 5.

(3.74)

<i>nín</i> you	<i>cí xíng</i> this trip	<i>bié</i> NEG	<i>jiào tuōlúshān zhōng de dàxuě</i> DISP:rec Taurus inside ASSOC snow	<i>gěi</i> DISP:rec	<i>dǎngzhù le.</i> block ASP
	Subject	Modal Adjunct	Adjunct		Predicator

(Your trip will not be blocked by the snow at Taurus.)

‘Positive’ clauses can be either ‘marked’ with aspect as in (3.75) or ‘unmarked’ as in (3.76):

- Marked positive clauses

(3.75)

<i>‘nǐ</i> you	<i>zhēn</i> really	<i>jiù le</i> save ASP	<i>wǒmen,</i> we	<i>qīnài de péngyǒu.</i> dear NOM friend
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement	Vocative

(‘You really saved us, my dear friend.’)

- Unmarked positive clauses

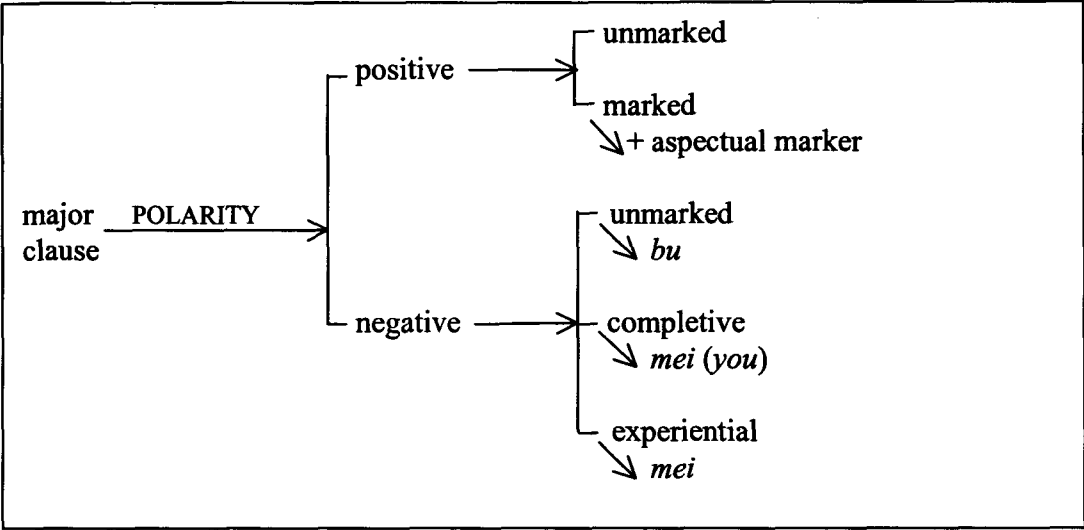
(3.76)

<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>yào</i> want	<i>zài dāng dì</i> at that place	<i>hǎohǎo</i> good	<i>guānguāng yī fān.</i> visit one MEAS
Subject	Pre-	Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	-dicator

(I want to pay a good visit to that place.)

The opposition of positive and negative and their various subcategories are formulated systemically in the system of POLARITY as shown in Figure 3.32.

Figure 3.33: The system of POLARITY



3.4.5 The System of MODALITY

The system of MODALITY is an important interpersonal grammatical resource. On the one hand, the value of MODALITY is usually negotiated between the interactants in a dialogue. On the other hand, this resource is the grammatical basis for the distinction between proposition and proposal.

The primary contrast in this system is between ‘modalisation’ and ‘modulation’. The choice of ‘modalisation’ leads to the options of ‘probability’ and ‘usuality’, whereas the choice of ‘modulation’ leads to ‘obligation’, ‘inclination’ and ‘ability’. Zhu (1996) includes the options of ‘positive’ and ‘negative’ in this system. Since the value of polarity is taken as a separate system in this study, these two options are available by reference to the separate system of POLARITY (see also Halliday & McDonald in press). The various options of ‘modalisation’ and ‘modulation’ are realised grammatically by either modal verbs or adverbs. Here are some examples from the corpus.

- Modalization: probability + high intensity (certain) realised by a modal verb:

(3.77)

<i>zhè rén</i> that person	<i>rúguǒ</i> if	<i>yào qǔ</i> want take	<i>tā de xìngmìng</i> he POSS life
Subject		Predicator	Complement
	<i>fěicháng kěnéng huì</i> very likely probable	<i>zài líkài yīsītānbǎo de dìèr tiān</i> at leave Stamboul ASSOC second day	<i>xiàshǒu.</i> take action
(Subject)	Modal Adjunct	Adjunct	Predicator

(It is highly probable that he will assassinate on the second day after leaving Stamboul.)

- Modalization: probability + medium intensity (probable) realised by an adverb:

(3.78)

<i>‘dāgài</i> probably	<i>shì</i> EMP	<i>luójiàdé</i> Ratchett	<i>bǎ tā</i> DISP: op he	<i>gěi chūmài le.</i> DISP: op betray ASP
Modal Adjunct		Subject	Complement	Predicator

(‘Probably he was betrayed by Ratchett.’)

- Modalization: probability + medium intensity (probable) realised by a full verb:

(3.79)

<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>réngrán</i> still	<i>rènwéi</i> think	<i>nǐ</i> you	<i>nòng cuò le.</i> make wrong ASP
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator		
			Subject	Predicator

(I still think that you are wrong.)

- Modalization: probability + low intensity (possible) realised by an adverb:

(3.80)

<i>‘ābósīnuò</i> Arbuthnot	<i>shàngxiào,</i> Colonel	<i>dàiběnhàn</i> Debenham	<i>xiǎojiě</i> Miss	<i>huòxǔ</i> perhaps	<i>kěyǐ</i> can
Vocative		Subject		Modal Adjunct	Modal Adjunct
<i>chēngzhīwèi</i> call	<i>yī wèi</i> one MEAS	<i>fěicháng</i> very	<i>kěyí</i> suspicious	<i>de rénwù.</i> NOM character	
Predicator	Complement				

(Colonel Arbuthnot, Miss Debenham can perhaps be called a highly suspicious character.)

- Modalization: probability + low instnsity (possible) realised by a modal verb:

(3.81)

'nǐ you	bù huì not possible	nòng cuò le make wrong ASP	ma?' NTR: int
Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Negotiator

(Weren't you possibly making a mistake?)

- Modalization: usuality + high intensity (always) realised by an adverb:

(3.82)

‘wǒ I	nàirén wife	tōngcháng always	chéng sit	huǒchē train	lǚxíng, travel
Subject		Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement	Complement
		zǒngyào must	fú eat	ānmiányào sleeping draught	
(Subject)	Modal Adjunct		Predicator	Complement	
	cái can		shuì de zhe de. sleep CC ASP EMP		
(Subject)	Modal Adjunct		Predicator		

(My wife always takes a sleeping draught before she can fall asleep when travelling by train.)

- Modalization: usuality + medium intensity (frequently) realised by an adverb:

(3.83)

'nǐ you	zhīdào know	tā he	píngcháng usually	fú eat	nǎ zhǒng ānmiányào which kind sleeping draught	ma?' NTC:int
Subject	Predicator					
		Subject	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	Complement	Nego.

(‘Do you know which kind of sleeping draught he usually takes?’)

- Modalization: usuality + low intensity (sometimes) realised by an adverb:

(3.84)

A:	'dào le zhāngwǔ reach ASP mid day		tā he	hái méi still NEG		zhàohuàn call		nǐ, you		
	Adjunct		Subject	Modal Adjunct		Predicator		Complement		
	nǐ you	bù NEG		juéde feel		qíguài strange		ma?' NTR: int		
	Subject	Modal Adjunct		Predicator		Complement		Negotiator		
	(Do you find it strange that he didn't call for you till the morning?)									
B:	méi-yǒu. NEG		yǒushíhòu sometimes		tā he	qǐlái yòng get up eat		zǎocān. breakfast.		
			Modal Adjunct		Subject	Predicator		Complement		
	('No, he sometimes got up to have breakfast.)									
	yǒushíhòu sometimes		dào wǔcān zhīqián reach lunch before				cái then	qǐchuáng.' get up		
	Modal Adjunct		Adjunct			(Subject)			Predicator	
	(Sometimes (he) didn't get up till a little before lunch.)									

- Modulation: ability realised by a modal verb:

(3.75)

'wǒ I	xiànzài now	kěyǐ gàosù can tell		dājiā, everyone of you		
Subject	Adjunct	Predicator		Complement		
[[lǒujiàde suǒ zhīdào de]] Ratchett what know SUB matter		bìdìng certainly	bǐ compare	[[tā suǒ tòulù de]] he what expose SUB		yàoduō.' more
Subject		Modal Adjunct	Adjunct		Precator	

(‘Now, I can tell everyone of you that what Ratchett knew was certainly more than what he exposed.’)

- Modulation: inclination: insisting realised by a modal verb:

(3.86)

<i>wǒ</i> I	<i>yào</i> have to	<i>zài dāng dì</i> at that place	<i>hǎohǎo</i> good	<i>guānguāng</i> visit	<i>yī fān.</i> one MEAS
Subject	Pre-	Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	-dicator	Adjunct

(I want to pay a good visit to that place.)

- Modulation: inclination: intending realised by a modal verb:

(3.87)

A:	'nǐ you	yào jiàn want see	wǒ I	ma? NTR: int		
	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Negotiator		
	('Do you want to see me?')					
B:	wǒ I	xiǎng wèn want ask	nǐ, you	xiǎojiě, Miss		
	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Vocative		
	(I want to ask you, Miss,)					
	jīntiān zǎochēn today morning	nǐ you	wèishénme Q-why	yào want	duì wǒmen towards we	shuōhuǎng? lying
	Adjunct	Subject	Adjunct	Pre-	Complement	-dicator
	(This morning, why did you lie to us?)					

- Modulation: inclination: willing realised by a modal verb:

(3.88)

<i>'wǒ nǚér de zhàngfū</i> I daughter POSS husband	<i>dāngrán</i> of course		<i>bù néng</i> NEG possible	<i>mánguò,</i> conceal	
Subject		Modal Adjunct	Modal Adjunct	Predicator	
<i>tā</i> He	<i>yě</i> also	<i>yuànyì</i> willing	<i>yǔ tā</i> with she	<i>tóng lái.</i> together come	
Subject	Adjunct	Pre-	Adjunct	-dicator	

((‘My daughter’s husband cannot be concealed, of course, he is also willing to accompany her to come.)

- Modulation: obligation: compelling realised by a modal verb:

(3.89)

<i>‘tā</i> he	<i>bìxū</i> must	<i>duì nà hái zī</i> towards that kid	<i>shù zuì de.</i> atone for sin EMP
Subject	Pre-	Adjunct	-dicator

(‘he must atone for his sin towards that kid.’)

- Modulation: obligation: expected realised by a modal verb:

(3.90)

<i>‘wǒ</i> I	<i>bēngāi</i> should have	<i>zìjǐ yī gè rén</i> self one MEAS person	<i>cì shēng</i> stab upon	<i>nà rén</i> that person	<i>shí-èr dāo de.</i> twelve knife EMP
Subject	Pre-	Complement	-dicator	Complement	Adjunct

(‘I should have stabbed that person twelve times by myself.’)

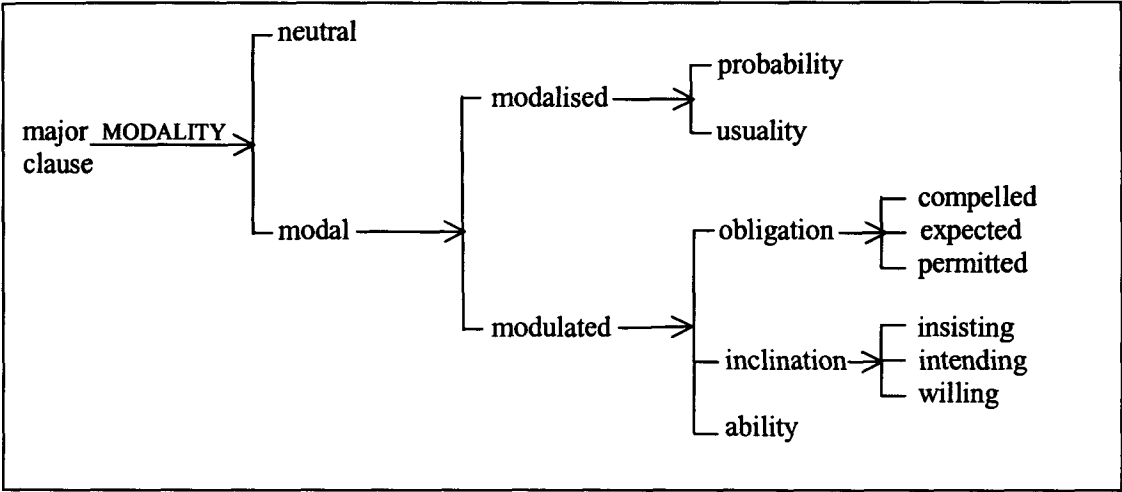
- Modulation: obligation: permitted realised by a modal verb:

(3.91)

A:	'nǐ you	ràng permit	wǒ I	liú-xià-lái stay-down	ma, NTR: int	xiānshēng?' Mr	
	Subject	Predicator				Negotiator	Vocative
			Subject	Predicator			
	('Do you permit me to stay, sir?')						
B:		'dāngrán of course	kěyǐ, can	()	màikòu'. Michel		
	(Subject)	Modal Adjunct	Predicator			Vocative	
	('Of course, you can, Michel.')						

At this point the system of MODALITY can be formulated systemically as in Figure 3.34.

Figure 3.34: The most general system of MODALITY



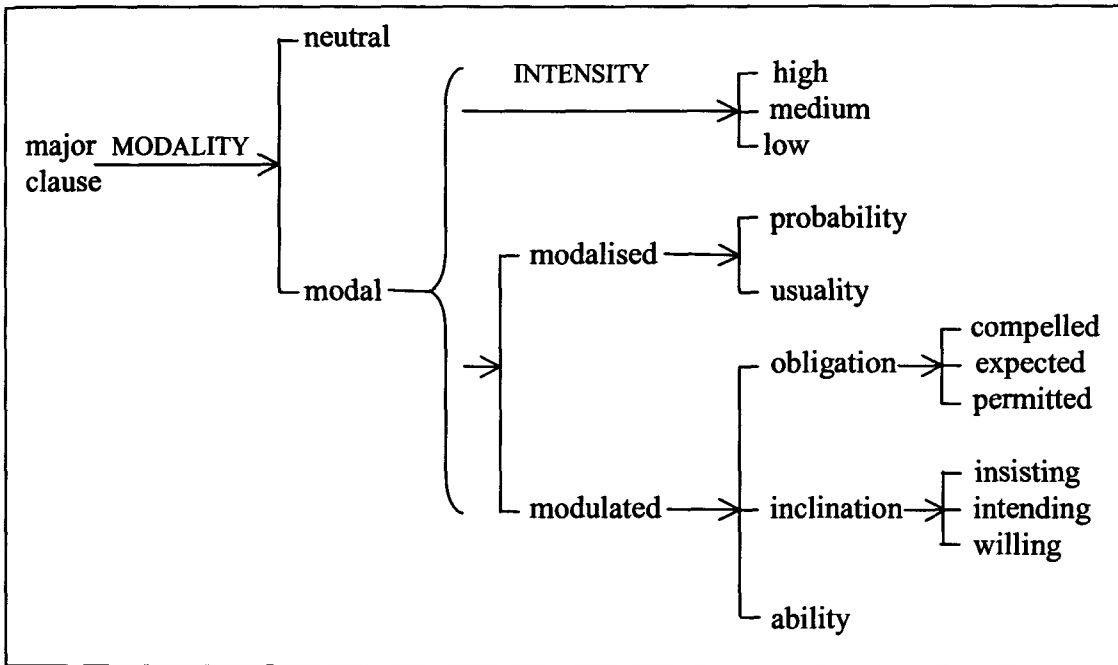
Both ‘modlization’ and ‘modulation’ are subject to different degrees of intensification, roughly divided into three degree of intensity: high, medium and low. The core paradigm is shown in Figure 3.35.

Figure 3.35: The core paradigm of [modalisation/modulation] and intensification

	[modalisation]	[modulation]
[high]	+	+
[medium]	+	+
[low]	+	+

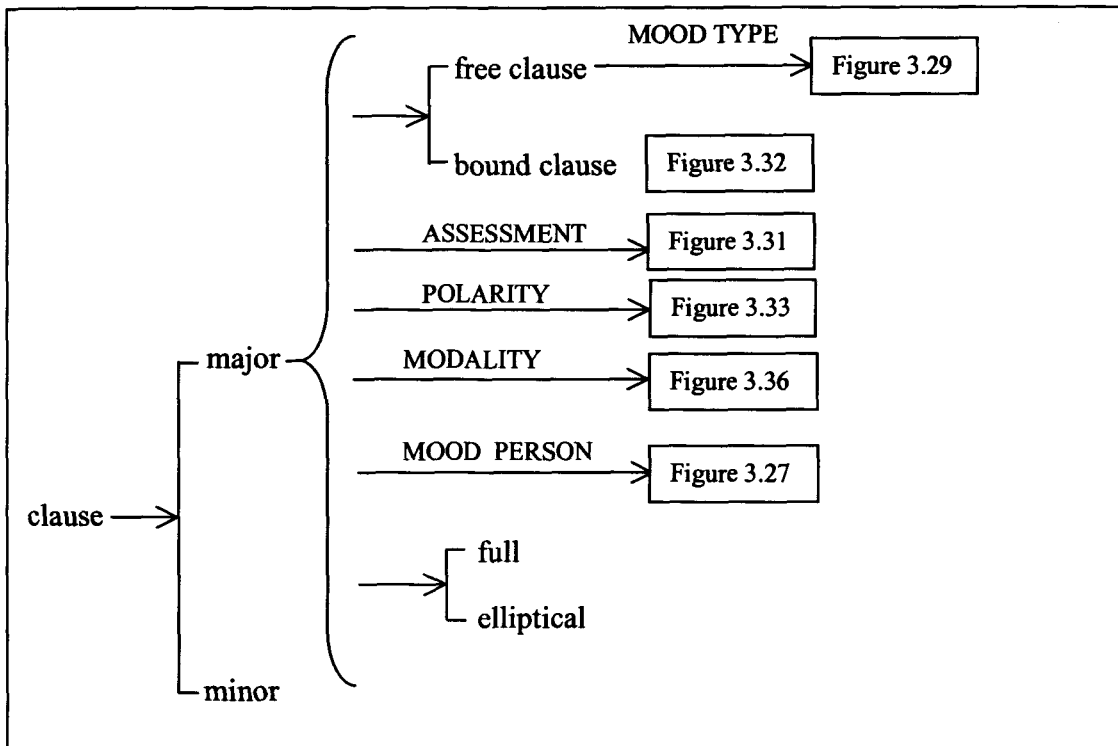
Formulating systemically as in Figure 3.36, this gives two simultaneous subsystems after the option [modalised] is chosen.

Figure 3.36: A more comprehensive system of MODALITY



In the above sections, the systems of IMPERATIVE MOOD PERSON, MOOD TYPE, ASSESSMENT, POLARITY, MODALITY, and finally the system associated with free and bound clauses have been examined. These systems provide the ranges of grammatical realisation for the various speech function features in the semantic system of SPEECH FUNCTION. Now it is time to unify the above systemic descriptions of the interpersonal clause grammar into a comprehensive system network of MOOD in Chinese, which is formulated as in Figure 3.37.

Figure 3.37: The system network of MOOD

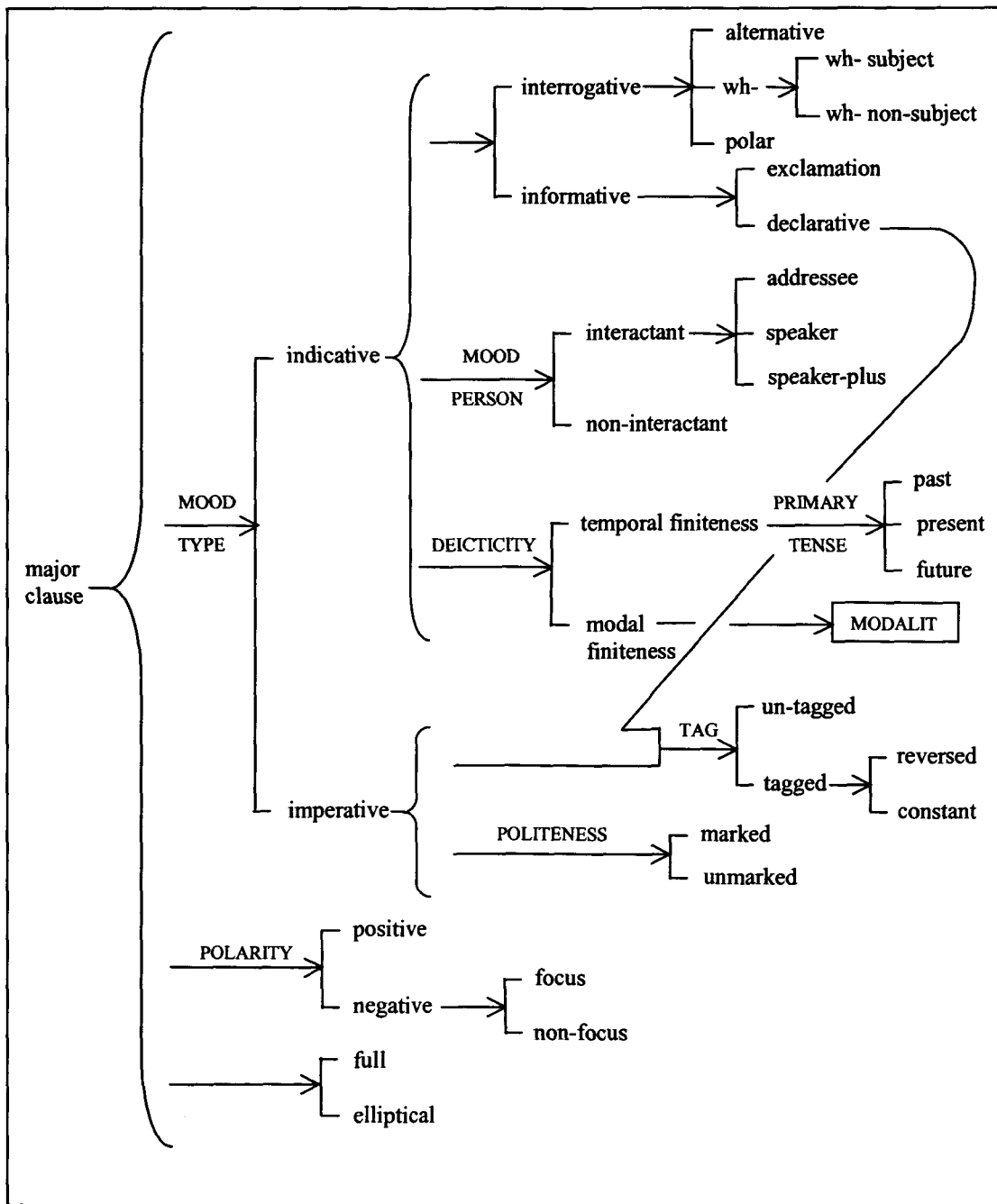


3.5 Contrastive analysis of the system of MOOD in Chinese and English

In this section, the central concern is the similarities and differences between the systems of MOOD in the two languages. As in Chapter 2, the comparisons here are also approached from the three angles: from above, around and below. In addition the relative frequency with which the various options in the system networks have been chosen in the corpus will also be compared.

The system of MOOD in English has been explored thoroughly in many publications (Halliday 1984/1994; Martin 1983; Eggins 1990; Matthiessen 1995; Martin, Matthiessen & Painter 1997; Halliday & Matthiessen 1997). The system of MOOD in English as shown in Figure 3.38 is based on the three English texts that were analysed in this chapter, with reference to the description in Martin (1983), Halliday (1984), Halliday and Matthiessen (1997) and particularly Matthiessen (1995). It is contrasted with the system of MOOD in Chinese as shown in Figure 3.27-37.

Figure 3.38: The system network of MOOD in English

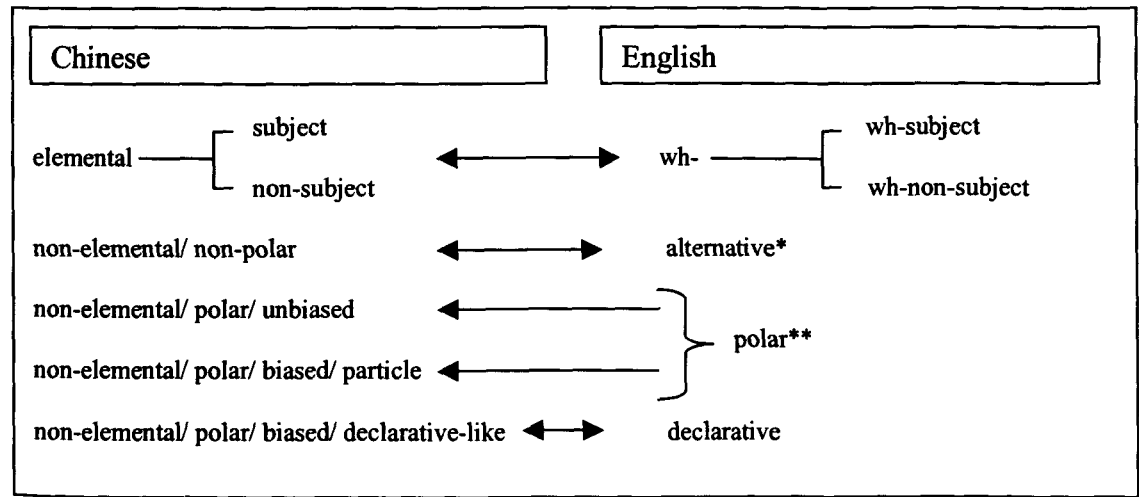


3.5.1 Approaching the system from around

Contrasting Figure 3.38 with Figure 3.37, the two subsystems of MOOD TYPE are similar at the low end of the cline of delicacy. In both systems the primary contrast is between ‘indicative’ and ‘imperative’. Indicative clauses are either ‘interrogative’ or ‘informative’; informative clauses are either ‘exclamative’ or ‘declarative’. However, there are at least three major and two minor differences at a higher degree of delicacy.

The first major difference concerns the options for interrogative clauses. In Chinese, the primary contrast between types of interrogative clause is between ‘elemental’ and ‘non-elemental’. Non-elemental interrogative clauses are either ‘polar’ or ‘non-polar’. Polar interrogative clauses are either ‘biased’ or ‘unbiased’. Unbiased interrogative clauses are either ‘particle’ interrogative or ‘declarative-like’ interrogative. In English the primary contrast between types of interrogative clause is between ‘wh-’, ‘alternative’ or ‘polar’ interrogative. Wh-interrogative clauses are either wh-subject interrogative clauses (who) or wh-non-subject interrogative clauses (**which, where, when, why and how**). The differences are illustrated in Figure 3.39. Table 3.16 shows some of the examples found in the the Chinese translation and their corresponding English original text.

Figure 3.39: Contrasting interrogative in Chinese and English



Tanle 3.16: Examples of different interrogative types in Chinese and English

Chinese	English
Elemental-subject <i>nǎ shì nà yī jiān?</i> Q-which be that one MEAS	Wh- subject Which one would that be?
Elemental-non-subject <i>wǒ zhēn bù zhī rúhé gǎnxiè nǐ?</i> I really NEG know how thank you <i>wèishénme dàibēnhàn xiǎojiě yào duì wǒ sǎhuǎng?</i> Q-why Debenham Miss have to towards I lie	Wh-non-subject How can I thank you for acceding to my request? Why did Miss Debenham lie to me?
Non-elemental: non-polar <i>[[tā shuō de]] shì yīngyǔ hái shì fǎyǔ?</i> she say SUB be English either-or French	Alterative Did he speak English or French?
Non-elemental: polar: unbiased <i>nǐ yǒu-méi-yǒu kànjiàn rènhé lǚkè zài</i> you have-not-have see any traveller at <i>guòdào shēng zǒudòng?</i> passage upon move	Polar Did you see anyone pass along the corridor outside the door? But indeed do I not remember that once you save my life?
Non-elemental: polar: biased: particle <i>kě shì, wǒ yě jìdé,</i> but I also remember <i>nín bùshì yě jiù guò wǒ yī mìng ma?</i> you NEG also save ASP I one life NTR: int	
Non-elemental: polar: biased: declarative-like <i>'----- duì nǐmen shuōhuǎng?</i> towards you lying	Declarative-like Lied to you?

The second major difference concerns the system of ASSESSMENT. This system is available in Chinese but not in English. However, this does not mean that its semantic range cannot be conveyed in English. This issue will be discussed in Section 3.5.2.

Moving towards the right on the scale of delicacy, there are some subtle differences between Chinese and English. First, the primary opposition in the system of TAG in both Chinese and English is between 'untagged' and 'tagged'. However, tagged clauses in

Chinese are either ‘A-not-A’ or ‘A-particle’ whereas in English tagged clauses are either ‘reverse polarity’ or ‘constant polarity’.

Second, the primary opposition in the system of POLARITY in both Chinese and English is between ‘positive’ and ‘negative’. In Chinese, positive clauses are either ‘marked’ or ‘unmarked’ with aspectual marker; whereas, negative clauses lead to three further options, represented by the features ‘unmarked’, ‘completive’ and ‘experiential’. In English, both positive and negative clauses are also either ‘marked’ or ‘unmarked’, but in a sense different from the case of Chinese. They are either ‘focus’ or ‘non-focus’ as shown in Table 3.17.

Table 3.17: ‘Markedness’ in English positive and negative clauses

	positive	negative
unmarked	e.g. took	e.g. didn’t take
marked	e.g. did take	e.g. did not take

3.5.2 Approaching the system from above

Seen from above, the system networks of MOOD in the two languages offer the same two sets of options – ‘indicative’ (‘interrogative’, ‘declarative’ and ‘exclamative’) and ‘imperative’ – through which the same set of speech functions is realised. But there are at least four subtle differences when delicacy is increased. First, the system of ASSESSMENT in Chinese is the grammatical resource which allows the speaker’s attitude to the proposition or involvement in the proposal of the clause to be indicated with different degrees of forcefulness. The semantic range expressed by this system of ASSESSMENT corresponds approximately to systems in English that are realised by intonation (Halliday & McDonald in press).

Second, in Beijing Putonghua, the ‘speaker-plus’ option in the system of MOOD PERSON can further distinguish between *zánmen* (speaker-plus-listener) and *wǒmen* (speaker-plus-other), in which the listener may or may not be included. In addition, the ‘speaker-plus-listener’ option reveals a close relation between the speaker and the listener even though

the listener may not be involved in the event that the speaker is talking about. This subtle semantic range is not available in the system of MOOD PERSON in English.

Third, the 'negative' option in the system of POLARITY in Chinese can indicate either a purely 'negative' meaning (*bù*), or it can convey additional meanings, namely not having the experience (*méi (yǒu)*) or denying the completion of a process (*méi*). This additional semantic range seems not encoded in the system of POLARITY in English. But negative polarity in English may combine with other interpersonal features such as usuality: never, intensity: scarcely, hardly.

Fourth, as Halliday & McDonald (in press) have mentioned, the polar: biased interrogatives in Chinese are like, but not identical to, English tagged declaratives while the unbiased types are like English polar interrogative because tagged declaratives are also possible in Chinese.

3.5.3 Approaching the system from below

Seen from below, the most significant differences arise in interrogative clauses. In English, the syntactical difference between declarative clauses and polar interrogative clauses is the order of Subject and Finite; the Subject precedes the Finite in declarative clauses while the Finite precedes the Subject in polar interrogative clauses. As a result, the Finite forms the interpersonal part of the Theme. In Chinese polar interrogative clauses are realised either by question-particles, which occupy clause-final position, or by the A-not-A constructions, which follow the Subject. In both cases, the Subject remains in clause-initial position as in declarative clauses.

In English, the *wh*-elements in *wh*-interrogative clauses form the interpersonal part of the Theme whereas in Chinese the interrogative words in elemental interrogative clauses usually occupy the same position in the clause as the element that is being sought. The data includes two situations in which the interrogative elements can form part of the Theme. First, when the interrogative element is *wèishénme* (why), it can occupy thematic

position in the marked case. Second, when the interrogative element is *shuí* (who), it is the Subject of the clause and therefore occupies thematic position in the unmarked case.

Furthermore, in English, the alternative interrogative is realised by intonation; whereas in Chinese, the term *háishì* (either-or) indicates that the addressee is expected to choose among the given options.

The second major difference between the two languages lies in their construction of the mood tag. In English, the tag is constituted by Finite ^ Subject and is one of the ways to identify the Subject of the clause. In Chinese, there are two kinds of construction for the tag, namely A-not-A and A-particle. In neither case is the Subject of the clause repeated in the tag.

3.5.4 Relative frequency of various options

The number of occurrences and relative frequencies of different MOOD types in the texts in the two languages are given in Table 3.18. To make the comparison possible, the relative frequency of polar interrogative clauses in English is contrasted with the summation of the alternative interrogative clause in Chinese, the A-not-A interrogative clause and the particle interrogative clause. The data show that the range of the difference is extremely small, from 0.00% for declarative-like interrogative clauses and exclamative clauses, to 0.64% for elemental interrogative clauses in Chinese and wh-interrogative clauses in English. The number of occurrences of difference MOOD types in the data is shown in Figure 3.42.

Figure 3.42: Number of occurrences of different MOOD types in Chinese and English

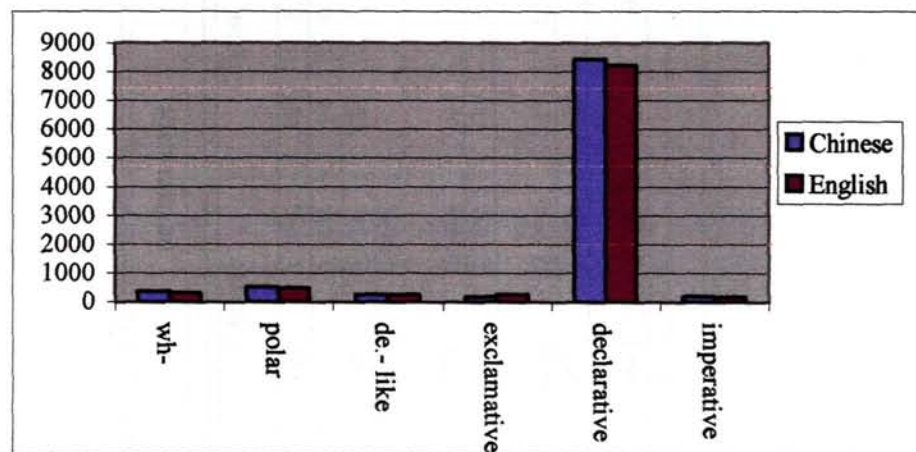


Table 3.18: Relative frequency of various MOOD types in Chinese and English

MOOD types					occurrence					
					Chinese	English				
→	indicative→	interrogative→	elemental	elemental	wh-	375	3.77%	301	3.13%	
			non-elemental	(alternative)		14	0.14%	14	0.14%	
		non-polar	polar→	unbiased	(A-not-A)	polar	47	0.47%	481	5.01%
				biased	particle		454	4.56%		
			declarative-like	253	2.54%		244	2.54%		
				exclamative	183	1.84%	177	1.84%		
	informative				declarative	8427	84.59%	8231	85.62%	
					imperative	208	2.09%	165	1.72%	
	imperative				TOTAL	9961	100%	9613	100%	

3.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the process of dialogue is treated as a language 'potential' and presented systemically as the semantic system network of SPEECH FUNCTION, which consists of three simultaneous systems, namely COMMODITY, ORIENTATION and TURN. The interactants of dialogue are interpreted as taking turn (initiating or responding) in an exchange (giving or demanding) of commodity (information or goods-&-service). There are four general types of speech function, namely statement, question, command and offer. Each of them can be issued in the initiating turn or in the responding one.

Based on the analysis of five dialogues which have different contexts of situation, the system network of SPEECH FUNCTION has been expanded to a more delicate level through expanding the system of TURN; whereas, the collaborative and interactive nature of dialogues, which is shown in the flow of exchanges, has been depicted in flow charts. These charts characterise the person-oriented or task-oriented nature of the dialogues, indicate the initiation of the interactants in them and also reflect the relaxing or stressful atmosphere through the supporting and confronting moves. All these reflect the three variables of the context of situation, particularly field and tenor.

Then an account of a general grammatical system of MOOD has been presented. The three general mood types, namely declarative, interrogative and imperative, congruently realise the speech function of statement, question and command respectively, leaving offer without any congruent grammatical realisation. Furthermore, the option of full clause is more likely to be used in the "initiating" turns; in contrast, the options of elliptical and minor clauses are more likely to be employed in the "responding" turns. However, this general system does not account for many speech function features at the more delicate level. Thus the system of MOOD has been expanded to become a more delicate network which consists of other interrelated systems such as ASSESSMENT, MODALITY, MOOD PERSON, MOOD TYPE, POLARITY, POLITENESS and TAG. In addition, the systems which are associated with bound clauses have also been examined.

Lastly, the system networks of MOOD in Chinese and in English have been compared. As in Chapter 2, the comparisons are approached from three angles: 'from above', 'from around' and 'from below'. In the corpuses, the major differences arise from the following systems: ASSESSMENT, INTERROGATIVE TYPE, MOOD PERSON, POLARITY and TAG. In addition to taking these three approaches, the relative frequency with which the various options in the system network have been chosen in the corpus has also been compared.