

3 Interpersonal Grammar in Khorchin Mongolian

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3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the basic interpersonal clause system in Khorchin Mongolian – the system of MOOD.¹ The linguistic phenomena described in the MOOD system in this chapter constitute an important part of the description of the Khorchin Mongolian sentence in Mongolian Linguistics (e.g. Bayancogtu, 2002; Caganhada, 1995).² Considered from the perspective of systemic functional linguistics (hereafter SFL), the MOOD system is one of the three perspectives on the clause – that is, the interpersonal perspective in contrast to ideational and textual (Martin et al., Chapter 1, this volume). This chapter first reviews the traditional description of the Khorchin Mongolian clause with a focus on the reference grammar by Bayancogtu (2002). It will then provide an integrated description of the comparable phenomena from the perspective of SFL.

3.1.1 ‘Sentence’ Grammar of Khorchin Mongolian

3.1.1.1 *Types of Sentences* Bayancogtu (2002, pp. 419–34) classifies Khorchin Mongolian sentences in five different ways:

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¹ Following the conventions in SFL, system names are written in small caps, except when non-SFL work is reviewed.

² The term sentence is used in SFL to refer to the graphological unit between two full stops. It is typically coextensive with clause complex in grammar. The use of the term *ogeleberi* ‘sentence’ in Mongolian linguistics is preserved when descriptions in that tradition is reviewed. The classical Mongolian script (i.e. Modern Written Mongolian) is transliterated with the scheme provided in Nasunbayar et al. (1982, p. 37).

- i In terms of the realisation of the predicate: descriptive and narrative. Bayancogtu (2002, p. 420) does not provide an explanation. The examples show that the predicates in descriptive and narrative sentences are realised by nominal and verbal elements, respectively.
- ii In terms of MOOD: declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative.
- iii In terms of the relationship between sentences: simple and combined; within combined: coordinating or subordinating. Coordinating sentences are comparable to clauses in paratactic relations in SFL, and subordinating ones are related in terms of embedding (Halliday, 1994). According to Bayancogtu (2002, pp. 425–7), coordinating sentences are relatively independent while a subordinate sentence in a subordinating relation functions as part of the main sentence. Therefore, his account does not include what SFL refers to as hypotactic dependent clauses (see Halliday, 1994, pp. 221–5).
- iv In terms of constituency: unexpanded, expanded and elliptical. Unexpanded sentences comprise subject and predicate. Expanded sentences involve the additional elements of attribute, object, adverbial and so on.
- v In terms of the flexibility of the constituents: free and bound. The constituents in a bound sentence cannot be substituted freely.

The classification shows different degrees of variability. For example, classifications (i) and (ii) are independently variable as shown in Example 1.³

- | | | | |
|-----|---|-------------------------------|---|
| (1) | a | descriptive and declarative | <i>ən mən nɛ mɛl</i>
this 1PL GEN cattle
'This (is) our cattle.' |
| | b | descriptive and interrogative | <i>ən mən nɛ mɛl u:</i>
this 1PL GEN cattle IP
'(Is) this our cattle?' |
| | c | narrative and declarative | <i>tʰər mɛ:tʰər jɛp-ən</i>
3SG tomorrow leave-NPST
'She leaves tomorrow.' |
| | d | narrative and interrogative | <i>tʰər mɛ:tʰər jɛp-ən u:</i>
3SG tomorrow leave-NPST IP
'Does she leave tomorrow?' |

In contrast, there are some restrictions between classifications (ii) and (iii), classifications (ii) and (iv) and classifications (ii) and (v). In relation to (ii) and (iii), embedded sentences cannot be interrogative. In relation to (ii) and (iv), the

³ The examples are adapted from Bayancogtu (2002, pp. 420–1). The phonemic transcription is adapted to reflect the variety of Khorchin Mongolian examined in this chapter. The morpheme-by-morpheme glossing used in this chapter mainly follows the Leipzig Glossing Rules (2015); the additional abbreviations used are INTJ = interjection, IP = interrogative particle, MP = modal particle, NDEF = non-definite, TEMP = temporal.

elliptical elements of a sentence are restricted by the MOOD type – for example, the ‘pro-words’ in elemental interrogative sentences cannot be elided. In relation to (ii) and (v), idioms are more likely to be declarative than interrogative.

Pending further SFL research on the interdependencies between clause systems in Khorchin Mongolian, it seems that classification (i) is more oriented towards the ideational layer of meaning (i.e. the linguistic resources for construing experience as configurations of occurrence and entity and of entity and entity/quality), and classifications (ii) to (v) are more oriented towards the interpersonal layer of meaning (i.e. the linguistic resources for enacting social relations, casting the interlocutors into different roles and fine-tuning the arguability of a proposition). This chapter focuses on systems comparable to classification (ii) and sets aside its interaction with the other classifications for future research.

3.1.1.2 Sentence Structure Some of Bayancogtu’s (2002) classifications depend on the structural analysis of a sentence. He identifies two ‘main’ constituents and three ‘secondary’ constituents. The main constituents are subject and predicate; the secondary constituents are attribute, object and adverbial. Bayancogtu (2002) does not provide specific criteria for identifying the different constituents except that they can be realised by various classes of words. The clauses in Examples 1a and 1c would be analysed as Examples 2a and 2b.

(2) a

<i>ʒn</i> this	<i>mɛn</i> 1 PL	<i>nɛ</i> GEN	<i>mɛl</i> cattle
subject	attribute		predicate

‘This (is) our cattle.’

b

<i>tʰʒr</i> 3SG	<i>mɛ.tʰʒr</i> tomorrow	<i>jɛp-ʒn</i> leave-NPST
subject	adverbial	predicate

‘She leaves tomorrow.’

The structural analysis in Bayancogtu (2002) is only relevant to some types of sentences reviewed in the previous section. For example, in classification (iv), an unexpanded sentence comprises only subject and predicate. An expanded sentence involves one or more of attributes, objects and adverbials. No attempt has been made to relate the structural analysis with the classification of sentences in terms of MOOD. Reference grammars such as Tserenpil and Kullman (2008, pp. 360–6) even separate the classification in terms of MOOD from the other ‘types of sentences’ as ‘kinds of sentences’. For them, ‘kinds of sentences’ include declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative.

They are not determined by the structure of the sentence. On the other hand, the ‘types of sentences’ are determined by the structure of the sentence – for example, unexpanded and expanded sentences.

This disjunction between sentence structure and MOOD-based sentence classification in (Khorchin) Mongolian is likely due to the fact that MOOD in (Khorchin) Mongolian is determined by verbal suffixes and clause final particles, none of which have been traditionally considered relevant to sentence structure. Note that even for the types of sentence relevant to structural analysis, they are simply determined by the presence or absence of the ‘secondary’ constituents (i.e. expanded versus unexpanded) and the number of ‘main’ constituents (i.e. one predicate for simple and more than one for combined).

This chapter provides a layer of structural analysis for the Khorchin Mongolian clause in relation to MOOD from the perspective of SFL. MOOD will be described as an interpersonal system for clause. The options in the system are realised by particular structural configurations. The basic principle is thus that categories in lexicogrammar should be established based on ‘lexicogrammatical reflex’ (Halliday, 1985, p. xx). As Martin, Wang and Zhu (2013, p. 19) puts it, ‘if no structural consequence, then no system’.

3.1.2 *Towards the Interpersonal Grammar in Khorchin Mongolian*

3.1.2.1 *Data and Methodology* This description of Khorchin Mongolian interpersonal grammar is based on conversational data collected during December 2017 to February 2018 in Jalaïd Banner, Hinggan League, Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, People’s Republic of China. The examples mainly come from three data sets: (i) conversations between family members at home, (ii) conversations between colleagues at their office and (iii) conversations between government officials and peasants during a routine visit to the peasants’ home. Occasionally introspective data are used to show certain patterns. The data are transcribed using Elan/Praat with IPA phonemic symbols. The phonemes by and large confirm Tiemei’s (2015) description, except that /tʃʰ/ and /ʃ/ are distinct phonemes in the variety under examination. The transcriptions in this chapter consider case marking as separate items instead of suffixes following Penglin Wang’s (1983) arguments.

The interpersonal grammatical categories are reasoned about from a ‘trinocular perspective’ (Halliday, 2009). As will be seen in the remainder of this chapter, the options in MOOD are considered (i) ‘from below’ in terms of the group rank realisations of the relevant clause rank functions, (ii) ‘from around’ in terms of the interdependencies between systems and (iii) ‘from above’ in terms of the discourse-semantic functions they realise. They are relevant to the theoretical categories of rank, axis and stratification as they are explained in Martin et al. (Chapter 1). An accessible introduction to trinocular reasoning in relation to interpersonal grammar is provided in Quiroz (2018).

3.1.2.2 SPEECH FUNCTION *versus* NEGOTIATION The reasoning of MOOD options from above involves the discourse-semantic systems associated most closely with interactions. Two models of interaction were developed separately in SFL in the 1980s. One was Halliday's SPEECH FUNCTION-based interpretation of the English MOOD options (Halliday, 1984, 1985). The other was Berry's multifunctional formulation of exchange structure (Berry, 1981a, 1981b, 1981c, 1981d), developing the exchange rank originally proposed for classroom interaction in Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Berry's interpersonal layer of exchange structure and her proposed textual system was later developed by Martin (1992) and Ventola (1987, 1988). Exchange structure is considered realising options from the interpersonal discourse-semantic system of NEGOTIATION in its later development (Martin, 1992, 2018; Martin & Rose, 2007).

The SPEECH FUNCTION-based model of interaction handles the relationship between pairs of interacts in terms of two simultaneous systems. One system is concerned with the roles of the interlocutors – that is, [giving] or [demanding]. The other system is concerned with the commodity being exchanged – that is, [information] or [goods-and-services]. The interaction between the two systems provides a semantic characterisation of the basic MOOD options in English. In the unmarked case, declarative clauses realise [giving; information], interrogative clauses [demanding; information] and imperative clauses [demanding; goods-and-services]. The semantic selection [giving; goods-and-services] does not have an unmarked realisation in English (Halliday, 1984, p. 20). The relationship between the selections from SPEECH FUNCTION and that from MOOD in English is exemplified in Example 3. The examples are from Halliday (1994, p. 69).

(3)	SPEECH FUNCTION	unmarked MOOD choice	
	giving; information	declarative	<i>He's giving her the teapot.</i>
	demanding; information	interrogative	<i>What is he giving her?</i>
	giving; goods-and-services	various	<i>Would you like this teapot?</i>
	demanding; goods-and-services	imperative	<i>Give me that teapot!</i>

The NEGOTIATION system, on the other hand, handles interactions comprising up to five interacts. It generalises proportionalities such as the one in Example 4. The single colon (:) reads 'is to' and the double colon (::) reads 'as' (Halliday, 1966). The examples are from Berry (1981a, pp. 126–7) and Martin (2018, pp. 9–10).

(4)	a	b	c
	– <i>Salisbury is the English Cathedral with the tallest spire.</i>	– <i>In England, which cathedral has the tallest spire?</i>	– <i>In England, which cathedral has the tallest spire?</i>
		– <i>Salisbury.</i>	– <i>Salisbury.</i>
			– <i>Yes.</i>

Comparable patterns are observed for exchanges concerning action (i.e. action exchanges) – as in Example 6. The interlocutor role ‘primary actor’ refers to the interlocutor who is responsible for performing the action; ‘secondary actor’ refers to the interlocutor who requests the other person to perform the action. The relevant functional slots are A1, A2, Da1. At Da1, the speaker checks the acceptability of the action before performing it at A1. A1 can be realised either verbally or non-verbally. The examples are from Martin (2018, pp. 9–10).

- (6) a [primary actor initiation: perform nuclear move]
 A1 – Your Coke, sir. (while serving the Coke.)
- b [secondary actor initiation]
 A2 – Could I have a Coke instead (please)?
 A1 – OK.
- c [primary actor initiation: anticipate nuclear move]
 Da1 – Would you like a Coke, sir?
 A2 – OK.
 A1 – OK, sir.

The knowledge exchanges and action exchanges can potentially be followed up by the secondary knower/actor and then by the primary knower/actor as in – *Joseph’s here now. – Really? – The very one!* (knowledge exchange) and – *Your Coke, sir – Thanks. – You’re welcome.* (action exchange). This chapter only focuses on the non-follow-up interacts.

Halliday’s (1984) SPEECH FUNCTION has been used extensively in the SFL descriptions of languages other than English (e.g. Caffarel et al. 2004; Mwinlaaru et al., 2018; Quiroz, 2013, 2018; Teruya et al., 2007). On the other hand, recent developments in SFL descriptive work informed by discourse semantics have productively engaged with Martin’s (1992) NEGOTIATION system (e.g. Martin & Cruz, 2018; Martin et al., in press; Rose, 2018; Wang, 2020; Zhang, 2020b). The NEGOTIATION system enables us to see the various functions played by clauses at different points in an exchange. It is to this second enterprise that the current description of Khorchin Mongolian contributes.

3.2 NEGOTIATION in Khorchin Mongolian

Speakers of Khorchin Mongolian negotiate their knowledge of information through resources available for knowledge exchanges; and they negotiate the responsibility for carrying out an action through resources available for action exchanges. Exchanges may be initiated by the primary knower or secondary knower. They comprise recognisable structures with obligatory and optional elements in relation to the well-formedness of the exchange under examination.

The exchange in Example 7 exemplifies [secondary knower initiation]. The government official (O) takes up the secondary knower role; and the peasant (P) is cast in the role of primary knower.

- (7) O = government official, P = peasant
 a O: K2 *xən ir-s i:*
 who come-PST.PTCP IP
 ‘Who came?’
 b P: K1 *wufʊəŋɣu ne xun ir-tʃ*
 Armed Forces Department GEN people come-PST
 ‘People from the Armed Forces Department came.’

Instead of accepting the casted primary knower role as in [secondary knower initiation], one may adopt the primary knower role and cast the addressee in the secondary knower role (i.e. [primary knower initiation]). Two patterns emerge when this happens: (i) the speaker claims primary knower authority right away – as in Example 8; (ii) the speaker elicits information from the addressee and delays the stamping of primary knower authority until after this information is provided – as in Example 9. The exchange in 8 is from a workplace interaction between teachers (T = teacher); the exchange in 9 is adjusted from an interaction between a four-year-old girl (niece = N) and her uncle (U).

- (8) T = teacher
 T1: K1 *pi pəl urlə ir-tʃ jəl-x ue*
 1SG TOP morning come-CVB be.able.to-NPST.PTCP NEG
 ‘I am not able to come in the morning.’
 (9) N = niece, U = uncle
 a N: Dk1 *ən ju kər xi:-sən tɐ*
 this what INS make-PST.PTCP IP
 ‘What was this made from?’
 b U: K2 *kɔjəɾ*
 flour
 ‘Flour.’
 c N: K1 *tʰɛ:r-tʃʰ*
 correct-PRF
 ‘(It) is correct.’

The exchanges in Examples 8 and 9 show that K1 is obligatory under all circumstances for an exchange to be well-formed. As Martin (1992, p. 462) puts it, ‘interlocutors work around an obligatory K1 . . . which will resolve the exchange’. K2 is obligatory when an exchange is initiated by the secondary knower or when an exchange is initiated by the primary knower but the stamping of primary knower authority over the information is delayed. In the latter case, Dk1 is also obligatory.

Similar to the patterns observed for knowledge exchanges where the elements are organised with respect to an obligatory K1, elements in a Khorchin Mongolian action exchange configure relative to an obligatory A1. At A1 the primary actor carries out the action or provides a verbal promise. The exchange in Example 10 is a [primary actor initiation]. The daughter (D) is preparing for making a cake with her mother.

- (10) D = daughter
 D: A1 *fixir* *kər-kə-ji*
 sugar out-CAUS-IMP.1
 ‘Let me take out some sugar.’

Alternatively, in [primary actor initiation] the primary actor may first check the acceptability of the action, hence delaying the performance – as in Example 11. The exchange occurred after the daughter had instructed her mother (M) to add yogurt into the bowl.

- (11) M = mother, D = daughter
 a M: Da1 *xutʂl-kə-ø* *mε*
 move-CAUS-NPST.PTCP IP
 ‘(Do I) move (= blend)?’
 b D: A2 *xutʂl-kə-ø*
 move-CAUS-IMP.2
 ‘Move (= blend).’
 c M: A1 NV (= non-verbal) (Mother starts the blender.)

The secondary actor may also initiate the exchange by requesting the action from the primary actor – as in Example 12 (i.e. [secondary actor initiation]).

- (12) D = daughter, M = mother
 a D: A2 *ən* *tʂʰər* *xi-ø*
 PROX inside put-IMP.2
 ‘Put (=separate) (the yolk) inside this (=the bowl).’ (while pointing at the bowl)
 b M: A1 NV (Mother separates the yolk inside the bowl.)

Like K1 in a knowledge exchange, the examples so far show that A1 is obligatory under all circumstances for an action exchange to be well-formed. A2 is obligatory when an action exchange is initiated by the secondary actor or when an action exchange is initiated by the primary actor but the acceptability of the action is checked with the secondary actor first. In the latter case, Da1 is also obligatory. However, unlike the nuclear K1 in a knowledge exchange, A1 in an action exchange is not necessarily realised verbally – as in Examples 11 and 12. Alternatively, A1 may be realised as a verbal promise – as in Example 13 (introspective data).

- (13) a A: A2 *kər-əx* *ui* *lɛ* *kən* *liɛ* *gi* *gə-ø*
 out-NPST.PTCP time TEMP POSS garbage ACC throw-IMP.2
 ‘When (you) go (out), throw out the garbage.’
- b B: A1 *ɛi*
 INTJ
 ‘Okay.’...
 NV (B throws out the garbage when he leaves.)

Martin (2018, p. 11) uses the systemic opposition [immediate compliance] and [prospective compliance] in his NEGOTIATION system to account for the patterns observed in Examples 12 and 13 (for [immediate compliance] action is obligatory and verbalisation is optional; for [prospective compliance] action is optional and verbalisation is obligatory (Ventola, 1987, p. 101; also see Martin, 1992, pp. 48–9). The resources for knowledge exchange and action exchange are summarised as a system network in Figure 3.1. It shows that when information or action is unnegotiated, the information is directly imparted (at K1) or the action directly performed (at A1).

Note that the agnation pattern captured in Figure 3.1 is in contrast with Martin’s (1992, 2018) networks. Therein the initiation of an exchange is privileged; thus the distinction in [perform nuclear move] and [anticipate

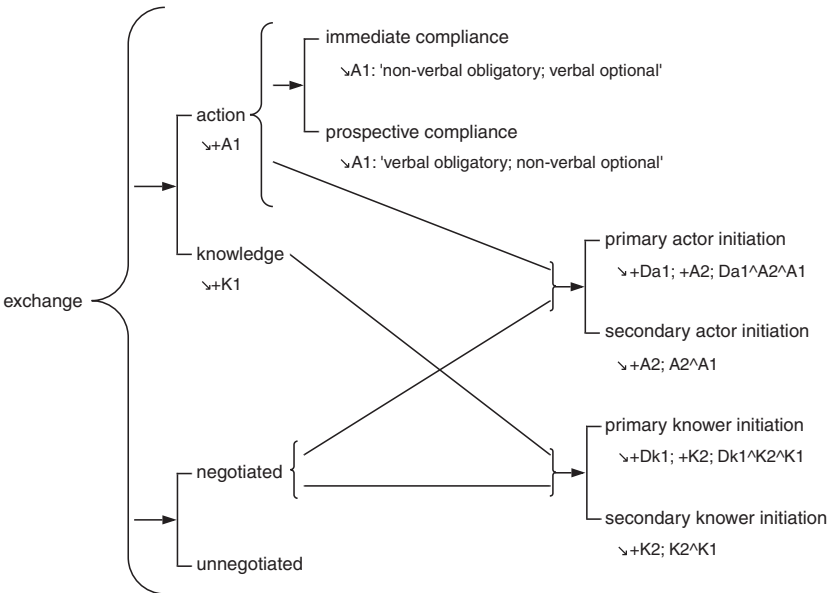


Figure 3.1 NEGOTIATION in Khorchin Mongolian

nuclear move] (the [unnegotiated] versus [negotiated] options in Figure 3.1) is considered more delicate.

One pending issue for action exchange has to do with the characterisation of the primary and secondary actor roles. The current characterisation is insufficient when both the speaker and the addressee are positioned as responsible for the carrying out of the action – as in Example 14 (introspective data).

- (14) a A: A2 *pētən* *ortər* *firə* *ki* *filtf-ul-jə*
 1PL first table ACC move-CAUS-IMP.1
 ‘Let’s move the table first.’
- b B: A1 *ei*
 INTJ
 ‘OK.’
- B: NV (A and B moves the table together.)

At Example 14a both interlocutors are positioned as responsible for moving the table. The structural analysis – that the second move is obligatory for this exchange to be well-formed – shows that the first speaker adopts the secondary actor role and casts the addressee in the primary actor role, even though the first speaker is also responsible for carrying out the action. The second speaker accepts the casted primary actor role. To capture interlocutor roles assigned in action exchanges of this kind, we need to expand our characterisation of the primary actor and the secondary actor roles:

- i Primary actor: the role assigned to the interlocutor who is responsible for carrying out the action when the action is expected to be accomplished by an individual interlocutor; or the role assigned to the interlocutor who consents to collectively carrying out the action.
- ii Secondary actor: the role assigned to the interlocutor who carries out the action through the primary actor when the action is expected to be accomplished by an individual interlocutor; or the role assigned to the interlocutor who proposes a collective action.

In the remainder of this chapter, the MOOD options will be motivated in terms of their structural realisations. They are then characterised in relation to their functions in exchange structure.

3.3 MOOD in Khorchin Mongolian: Indicative versus Imperative

The most basic grammatical distinction in the Khorchin Mongolian MOOD system is between [indicative] and [imperative]. The distinction is related to the verbal component of the clause. Indicative clauses may or may not contain a verbal component in their syntagm. Imperative clauses, on the other hand, require a verbal component. The exchanges in Examples 15 and 16 show the way indicative and imperative clauses work. The exchange in Example 15 is

concerned with knowledge about a piece of information and Example 16 with performing an action. In Example 15, the K2 and K1 are realised by indicative clauses. While the clause in Example 15a does not involve a verbal component, the one in Example 15b does. In Example 16, the Da1 and A2 are realised by an indicative clause and an imperative clause respectively. They both involve verbal components. The MOOD types and the verbal components are highlighted in bold. By convention, clause boundaries are marked by a double slash (||). The glossing of the modal particle in Example 15b is provided in the square bracket in the translation line.

(15) F = father, D = daughter

a F: K2 **indicative** *tʰər ɛn mɛpu mu || ɛltʃʊr mu*
 that TOP cleaning.towel IP hand.towel IP
 ‘(Is) that a cleaning towel or a hand towel?’

b D: K1 **indicative** *ju tʰvɛle pɔl-ɛn fitə*
 what NDEF **become**-NPST MP
 ‘[You should have known that]
 (it) can be whatever (you want it to be).’

(16) M = mother, D = daughter

a M: Da1 **indicative** *xutʃl-kə-θ mɛ*
move-CAUS-NPST.PTCP IP
 ‘(Do I) move (= blend)?’

b D: A2 **imperative** *xutʃl-kə-θ*
move-CAUS-IMP.2
 ‘Move (= blend).’

c M: A1 NV (Mother starts the blender.)

When there is a verbal component in an indicative clause, it is marked for TENSE – as in Examples 15b and 16a, both of which are marked for the non-past tense. In contrast, the verbal component in an imperative clause is marked for PERSON – as in Example 16b, which is marked for [second person]. The verbal component in an indicative clause can be expanded by co-selecting from POLARITY, MODALITY and RELATIVE TENSE. These systems are not available to the verbal component in an imperative clause. The verbal components in both indicative clauses and imperative clauses select from ASPECT. Consequently, a verbal component functioning in an indicative clause is termed an elaborated verbal group and that in an imperative clause a restricted verbal group – with respect to their potential for selecting from the verbal group systems. The verbal group selections from the above mentioned systems are exemplified in Example 17. The term [restricted] is borrowed from Quiroz’s (2013) description of the Chilean Spanish verbal group. For a detailed argumentation of the verbal group systems in Khorchin Mongolian, see Zhang (2020a).

(17) [verbal group: elaborated]

available systems: POLARITY, MODALITY, TENSE, RELATIVE TENSE, ASPECT

a <i>xutɣl-kə-tf</i> move-CAUS-CVB	<i>jɔl-tf</i> be.able.to-PROG	<i>ɛː-sɣn</i> COP-PST.PTCP	<i>kuɛ</i> NEG
	MODALITY and ASPECT	TENSE	POLARITY

‘was not being able to move’

b <i>xutɣl-kə-tf</i> move-CAUS-CVB	<i>jɔl-ntf</i> be.able.to-FUT	<i>ɛː-sɣn</i> COP-PST.PTCP	<i>kuɛ</i> NEG
	MODALITY and RELATIVE TENSE	TENSE	POLARITY

‘was not going to be able to move’

[verbal group: restricted]

available systems: PERSON and ASPECT

c <i>xutɣl-kə-tf</i> move-CAUS-PROG	<i>ɛː-∅</i> COP-IMP.2
	ASPECT
‘stay moving’	

The function of the verbal group in the interpersonal organisation of the Khorchin Mongolian clause will be referred to as **Predicator**. The **Predicator** in an indicative clause is realised by an elaborated verbal group if there is one; the **Predicator** in an imperative clause is realised by a restricted verbal group. The interpersonal structure of the clauses in Examples 15b, 16a and 16b can be analysed as Example 18 (verb.gp = verbal group).⁴

(18) a [indicative]

<i>ju</i> what	<i>tʰvɛɛ</i> NDEF	<i>pɔl-ɣn</i> become -NPST	<i>ʃitə</i> MP
		Predicator	
		verb.gp: elaborated	

‘[You should have known that] (it) can be whatever (you want it to be).’

b [indicative]

<i>xutɣl-kə-∅</i> move -CAUS-NPST.PTCP	<i>mɛ</i> IP
Predicator	
verb.gp: elaborated	

‘(Do I) move (= blend)?’

⁴ Note that the function is called **Predicator**, rather than **Predicate**, to be distinguished from the widely used terms ‘subject’ and ‘predicate’ in the analysis of Khorchin Mongolian sentence (Bayanogtu, 2002, pp. 453–6). The function **Predicator** is systemically motivated as the component that distinguishes [indicative] from [imperative].

c [imperative]

<i>xutsɪ-kə-θ</i>
move-CAUS-IMP.2
Predicator
verb.gp: restricted
‘Move (= blend).’

The preselecting relationship between [indicative] and [imperative] at clause rank and [elaborated] and [restricted] at group rank is formalised in Figure 3.2. As mentioned earlier, there is not necessarily a verbal Predicator in an indicative clause. The options other than [verbal predication] are indicated by the dotted line in the system network. Non-verbal realisation of Predicator is set aside in this chapter due to the constraints of space. For a detailed description of the various realisations of Predicator in Khorchin Mongolian, see Zhang (2020b, chapter 4). The fact that imperative clauses require a verbal Predicator and that the verbal group selects [restricted] is sufficient to establish the systemic distinction between [indicative] and [imperative] in Khorchin Mongolian.

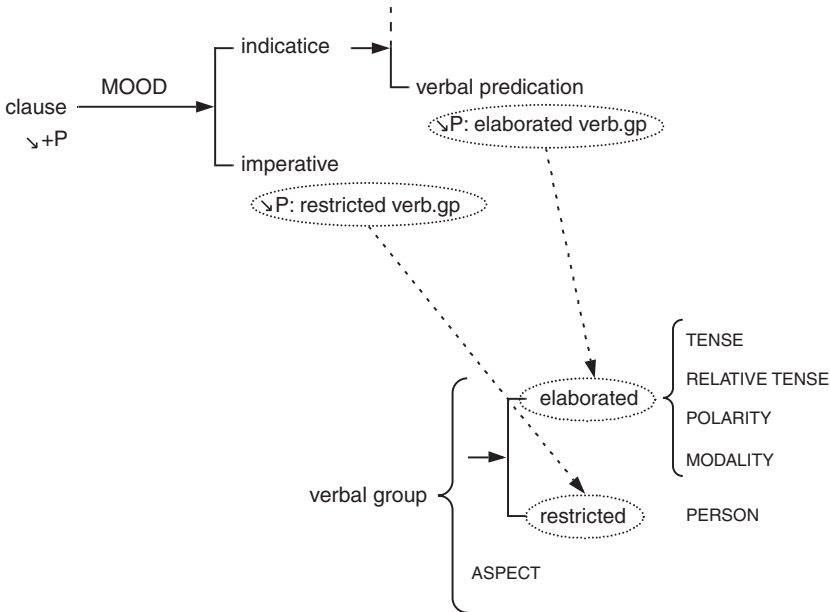


Figure 3.2 MOOD and verbal Predicator in Khorchin Mongolian

3.4 Types of Indicative and Their Functions in Exchange

3.4.1 Types of Indicative: Interrogative versus Declarative

The primary distinction in the Khorchin Mongolian indicative clause is between that of [interrogative] and [declarative]. While an interrogative clause typically involves an interrogative particle, a declarative clause does not. It is possible, however, for a declarative clause to end with a modal particle negotiating the positioning of the interlocutors. They position interlocutors as either knowing or not knowing the information under negotiation.

The clauses in Examples 15b and 16a (analysed as Example 19) are instances of [declarative] and [interrogative]. We will refer to the functions of the interrogative particles and the modal particles in the Khorchin Mongolian clause as Interrogator and Positioner, respectively. The term Interrogator is borrowed from Pin Wang's (2020) description of the Tibetan interrogative clause. In Example 19, the Positioner and the Interrogator are highlighted in bold.

(19) a declarative

<i>ju</i> what	<i>tʃʰvɛ</i> NDEF	<i>pɔl-ən</i> become-NPST	<i>ʃitə</i> MP
		Predicator	Positioner
		verbal group	modal particle

‘[You should have known that] (it) can be whatever (you want it to be).’

b interrogative

<i>xutʃl-kə-ø</i> move-CAUS-NPST.PTCP	<i>mɛ</i> IP
Predicator	Interrogator
verbal group	interrogative particle

‘(Do I) move (= blend)?’

The Positioner in a declarative clause is optional. The declarative clause in Example 19a can be adapted as Example 20 without affecting its grammaticality.

(20)

<i>ju</i> what	<i>tʃʰvɛ</i> NDEF	<i>pɔl-ən</i> work-NPST
		Predicator
		verbal group

‘Whatever works (≈ whatever is fine).’

3.4.2 Interrogative Clauses: Polar versus Elemental

There are two general types of interrogative clause: [polar] and [elemental]. They are exemplified in Examples 21 and 22, respectively. Unlike polar

interrogative clauses, an elemental interrogative clause requires an Inquirer function along with the Interrogator. Inquirer is realised by units involving non-definite ‘pro-words’ – for example, *ju* ‘what’ in Example 22. The position of Inquirer is determined experientially, rather than interpersonally – that is, the missing experiential element is filled in by an Inquirer in situ. The term Inquirer is borrowed from Wang (Chapter 4, this volume). He uses the term to account for a comparable phenomenon in Mandarin. The unit involving the ‘pro-word’ can be a nominal group or verbal group, depending on what is being sought.

(21) **interrogative: polar**

<i>ən</i> PROX	<i>u:lpər</i> sentence	<i>tʰe:r-ø</i> correct-NPST.PTCP	<i>mɛ</i> IP
		Predicator	Interrogator
		verbal group	int. particle

‘Is this sentence correct?’

(22) **interrogative: elemental**

<i>ən</i> this	<i>ju</i> what	<i>kər</i> INS	<i>xi:-sən</i> make-PST.PTCP	<i>tɐ</i> IP
		Inquirer	Predicator	Interrogator
		nominal group	verbal group	int. particle

‘What was this made from?’

In Khorchin Mongolian, the Inquirer can be used to seek information about entities, occurrences and qualities. The elemental interrogative clause in Example 22 solicits an entity. The Inquirer is realised by an instrumental nominal group (marked with the postposition *kər*), which realises a Circumstance in the experiential organisation of the clause. In Example 23a, the elemental interrogative clause also solicits an entity; but the Inquirer is conflated with a Participant.

(23) O = government official, P = peasant

a O: K2 interrogative: elemental

<i>xən</i> who	<i>ir-s</i> come-PST.PTCP	<i>i:</i> IP
Inquirer/Participant	Predicator	Interrogator
nominal group	verbal group	int. particle

‘Who came?’

b P: K1 declarative

<i>wutʃoŋɣu</i> Armed Forces Department	<i>nɛ</i> GEN	<i>xun</i> people	<i>ir-tʃ</i> come-PST
			Predicator
			verbal group

‘People from the Armed Forces Department came.’

In Example 24a, the clause solicits an occurrence; the Inquirer is conflated with the Process. Note that when the Inquirer conflates with the Process (an

experiential function), it also conflates with the Predicator (an interpersonal function). The reverse is not necessarily true – the Predicator in Khorchin Mongolian may conflate with a participant (Zhang, 2020b, chapter 4). In Example 24b, the speaker used Mandarin Chinese, which is why there is no TENSE marker.

(24) N = nephew, A = aunt

a N: K2 interrogative: elemental

<i>xɔni</i> all	<i>it-tʃ</i> eat-CVB	<i>pɛr-x</i> finish-NPST.PTCP	<i>ue</i> NEG	<i>pɔl</i> COND
Predicator				
verbal group				

N: K2 int: el

<i>je:-n</i> what-NPST	<i>te</i> IP
Inquirer/Predicator/Process	Interrogator
verbal group	int. particle

‘What happens if I don’t finish them all?’

b A: K1 declarative

<i>fakuan</i> fine
Predicator
verbal group

‘(I) will fine (you).’

In an exchange with K2 ^ K1 structure, when the K2 is realised by a polar interrogative clause, the Predicator is typically replayed in the K1 – as in Example 25. On the other hand, when the K2 is realised by an elemental interrogative clause and the Inquirer is not conflated with the Predicator, it is typically the sought element that is provided in the K1 – as in Example 23. The Predicator is optionally replayed.

(25) T = teacher

a T1: K2 interrogative

<i>ɔn</i> PROX	<i>u:lpɔr</i> sentence	<i>tʃe:r-ɔ</i> correct-NPST.PTCP	<i>mɛ</i> IP
		Predicator	Interrogator
		verbal group	int. particle

‘Is this sentence correct?’

b T2: K1 declarative

<i>tʃe:r-nɛ</i> correct-NPST
Predicator
verbal group

‘(It) is correct.’

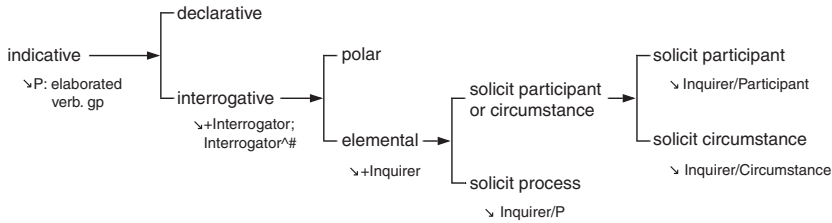


Figure 3.3 Types of indicative clause in Khorchin Mongolian

The common realisations of Inquirer in Khorchin Mongolian are:⁵

xən ‘who’

ju ‘what’

el ‘which’

el nək ‘which one’

jəmər/ jəmər̄ti ‘what like’

jəmər tʃirək ‘how’

xət/ xətən/ xəti ‘how many/ how much’

xə:/ xə:kur/ eltəkur ‘where’

xətʃə ‘when’

jə:kət ‘why’

jə:-n what-NPST ‘to what/ what happen(s)’ (a ‘wh- verb’)

The general types of indicative clause introduced so far are summarised as a system network in Figure 3.3.

In contrast to Figure 3.3 the more delicate options for [elemental] could have included three features in one system – [solicit participant], [solicit process] and [solicit circumstance]. They would be realised by the conflation of the Inquirer and the respective experiential clause functions – Participant, Process and Circumstance. In contrast, the formalisation in Figure 3.3 privileges the conflation of functions in the same metafunction (Inquirer/Predicator) and contrasts it with the conflation of functions from different metafunctions (the interpersonal function Inquirer is conflated with the experiential functions Participant and Circumstance).

3.4.3 Indicative Clauses and Exchange Structure

The distinction between [interrogative] and [declarative] is also justifiable in terms of their discourse-semantic functions. Broadly speaking, interrogative

⁵ Some of the question words listed in Bayancogtu (2002, p. 237–40, 252–4) are not included here, either because they are groups containing question words, e.g. *xəti tʃinə* ‘how much extent’, or they are not commonly used in the Khorchin Mongolian variety spoken in Hinggan League (or more specifically Jalaid Banner), e.g. *jutʰər* ‘what’.

clauses may function in both knowledge and action exchanges; declarative clauses function typically in knowledge exchanges.

As far as knowledge exchanges are concerned, interrogative clauses typically realise Dk1 and K2. The interrogative clauses in Examples 26, 27 and 28 realise Dk1, non-initiating K2 and initiating K2, respectively. Declarative clauses, on the other hand, typically realise K1. The declarative clauses in Examples 26c, 27c and 28b realise non-initiating K1. It is also possible for a declarative clause to realise non-initiating K2 – as in Examples 26b, which is an elliptical declarative clause. Declarative clauses realising K2 position the speaker as knowing the information but without primary knower authority.

(26) N = niece, U = uncle

a N: **Dk1 interrogative**

<i>ən ju kər</i> this what INS	<i>xi:-sən</i> make-PST.PTCP	<i>tɛ</i> IP
	Predicator	Interrogator
	verbal group	int. particle

‘What was this made from?’

b U: **K2 declarative**

<i>kɔjər</i> flour

‘Flour.’

c N: **K1 declarative**

<i>tʰv:r-tʰ</i> correct-PRF
Predicator
verbal group

‘(It) is correct.’

(27) N = niece, U = uncle

a N: **Dk1 interrogative**

<i>ən ju kər</i> this what INS	<i>xi:-sən</i> make-PST.PTCP	<i>tɛ</i> IP
	Predicator	Interrogator
	verbal group	int. particle

‘What was this made from?’

b U: **K2 interrogative**

<i>kɔjər</i> flour	<i>mɛ</i> IP
	Interrogator
	int. particle

‘Is it flour?’

c N: **K1 declarative**

<i>tʰv:r-tʰ</i> correct-PRF
Predicator
verbal group

‘(It) is correct.’

(28) T = teacher

a T1: **K2 interrogative**

<i>ən</i> PROX	<i>u:lpəʁ</i> sentence	<i>tʰv:r-ø</i> correct-NPST.PTCP	<i>mɛ</i> IP
		Predicator	Interrogator
		verbal group	int. particle

‘Is this sentence correct?’

b T2: **K1 declarative**

<i>tʰv:r-nv</i> correct-NPST
Predicator
verbal group

‘(It) is correct.’

A declarative clause may also realise initiating K1 and initiating K2 – as in Examples 29 and 30, respectively. Like non-initiating K2 realised by declarative clauses, initiating K2 realised by a declarative clause positions the speaker as knowing the information but lacks primary knower authority; this means the addressee is positioned as knowing the information and having primary knower authority.

(29) T = teacher

a T1: **K1 declarative**

<i>tʰəʁ</i> DIST	<i>ixin</i> daughter	<i>ən</i> 3POSS	<i>ortʰɛ</i> before	<i>sənlo</i> trike	<i>kər</i> INS
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‘[You know] her daughter was commuting’

T1: K1 **declarative**

<i>jɛp-tʃ</i> commute-PROG	<i>ɛ:-tʃ</i> COP-PST	<i>fɛ</i> MP
Predicator		Positioner
verbal group		modal particle

‘(to school) by motorised trike before.’

b T2: K2f *ŋ:*

INTJ

‘Yes (≈ She was).’

(30) T = teacher

T1: **K2 declarative**

<i>ən</i> PROX	<i>u:lpəʁ</i> sentence	<i>tʰv:r-ən</i> correct-NPST	<i>pɐ</i> MP
		Predicator	Positioner
		verbal group	modal particle

‘This sentence [may] be correct, [right?]

T2: **K1 declarative**

<i>tʰv:r-nv</i> correct-NPST
Predicator
verbal group

‘(It) is correct.’

Unlike declarative clauses, interrogative clauses also realise Da1 in action exchanges. Different from Dk1, where the addressee's knowledge is checked, at Da1 it is the acceptability of the action that is being checked. This is exemplified in Example 31.

(31) M = mother, D = daughter

a M: **Da1 interrogative**

<i>xutsɪ-kə-ø</i> move-CAUS-NPST.PTCP	<i>mɛ</i> IP
Predicator	Interrogator
verbal group	int. particle

'(Do I) move (= blend)?'

b D: A2 imperative

<i>xutsɪ-kə-ø</i> move-CAUS-IMP.2
Predicator
verbal group

'Move (= blend).'

c M: A1 NV

(Mother starts the blender.)

The discourse-semantic systems of NEGOTIATION thus enable us to see the typical discourse functions that declarative and interrogative clauses serve. This typical association between clause and exchange functions are summarised in Table 3.1.

3.5 Types of Imperative and Their Functions in Exchange

3.5.1 Types of Imperative: Interactant versus Non-Interactant

This section turns to the discussion of imperative clauses. Unlike the Predicator in an indicative clause, the Predicator in an imperative clause is realised by a restricted verbal group. The Predicator in an imperative clause is related to the interlocutor

Table 3.1 *The typical discourse-semantic functions of Khorchin Mongolian indicative clauses*

grammar	discourse semantics	
indicative in MOOD	NEGOTIATION	Primary knower authority
declarative	K1	yes
	non-initiating K2	no
	initiating K2	no
interrogative	Dk1*	yes
	non-initiating K2	no
	initiating K2	no
	Da1*	not applicable

*Dk1 and Da1 are unlikely to be realised by [interrogative: elemental]

Table 3.2 *Types of imperative clause in Khorchin Mongolian*

	clause: MOOD (imperative)	group choice realising the Predicator: PERSON	suffixes in the head of the verbal group
interactant	speaker inclusive	first person	-j (~ -jv, -jə, -ji, -jɔ)
	speaker exclusive	second person	-θ
non-interactant		third person	-k (~ -kv, -kə, -kɔ, -əʃ)

who is positioned as responsible for carrying out an action – discussed in SFL as the ‘modally responsible participant’ (see Halliday, 1994, pp. 76–8). The modally responsible participants as they are encoded in the Predicator of a Khorchin Mongolian imperative clause can be interactants (the speaker, the addressee or both the speaker and the addressee) or non-interactants. This is achieved mainly through the PERSON system in the verbal group. The selection of PERSON in the Predicator is realised at word rank through verbal suffixes on the head verb. The relationship among the types of [imperative] in MOOD at clause rank, options in PERSON at group rank and the realisations of PERSON at word rank is summarised in Table 3.2.

3.5.2 *Types of Interactant Imperative: Speaker Inclusive versus Speaker Exclusive*

Two types of interactant imperative clause are marked morphologically: [speaker inclusive] and [speaker exclusive]. A speaker inclusive imperative clause either positions the speaker as modally responsible or positions both the speaker and the addressee as modally responsible. A speaker-exclusive imperative clause, on the other hand, only positions the addressee as modally responsible. In the interaction in Example 32, 32a is realised by a speaker-exclusive imperative clause, and 32b is realised by a speaker-inclusive imperative clause. In 32a, the addressee (Hairhan) is positioned as modally responsible for eating the oranges. In 32b, the speaker (the grandmother) is positioned as modally responsible for offering the oranges (imp: [imperative]; excl = [imperative: speaker exclusive], incl = [imperative: speaker inclusive]).

- (32) G = grandmother; the grandmother is offering Hairhan (the granddaughter) some oranges

Exchange 1

a G: A2 imp: excl

<i>xɛ:rxɛn</i> Hairhan	<i>itə-θ</i> eat-IMP.2
	Predicator
	verb.gp: 2nd person

‘Hairhan, eat.’

Exchange 2

b	G: A1	imp: incl	<i>tʰɛmɛ</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>ʃiɔ</i>	<i>ʃiɔ</i>	<i>nɛ</i>	<i>uk-jə</i>
			2SG	DAT	small	small	GEN	give-IMP.1
Predicator								
verb.gp: 1st person								

‘Let (me) give you the smaller ones.’

It is possible for the verbal group that selects [first person] to realise a speaker inclusive imperative clause that positions both the speaker and the addressee as modally responsible. This may be distinguished from the speaker-inclusive imperative clause that only positions the speaker as modally responsible through context or through an explicit first person plural pronominal realisation of the participant as in Example 33 (adjusting Example 32a).

(33)	speaker inclusive	<i>petɔn</i>	<i>it-jə</i>
		1PL	eat-IMP.1
Predicator			
verb.gp: 1st person			

‘Let’s eat.’

As with Example 33, the pronominal realisation of the modally responsible participant is also possible in a speaker-inclusive imperative clause that does not position the addressee as sharing the modal responsibility – as in Example 34 – and in a speaker-exclusive imperative clause – as in Example 35. Note that in Example 34b, the first person plural pronoun *petɔn* denotes an ‘exclusive we’. This is disambiguated through the second person pronominal realisation of the recipient of the orange *tʰɛmɛ t* ‘to you’.

(34) speaker inclusive: exclude addressee

a	<i>pi</i>	<i>tʰɛmɛ</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>ʃiɔ</i>	<i>ʃiɔ</i>	<i>nɛ</i>	<i>uk-jə</i>
	1SG	2SG	DAT	small	small	GEN	give-IMP.1
Predicator							
verb.gp: 1st person							

‘Let me give you the smaller ones.’

b	<i>petɔn</i>	<i>tʰɛmɛ</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>ʃiɔ</i>	<i>ʃiɔ</i>	<i>nɛ</i>	<i>uk-jə</i>
	1PL	2SG	DAT	small	small	GEN	give-IMP.1
Predicator							
verb.gp: 1st person							

‘Let us give you the smaller ones.’

(35) speaker exclusive (addressee)

a	<i>tʃʰi</i> 2SG	<i>itə-θ</i> eat-IMP.2
		Predicator
		verb.gp: 2nd person

‘You eat.’

b	<i>tʃʰetən</i> 2PL	<i>itə-θ</i> eat-IMP.2
		Predicator
		verb.gp: 2nd person

‘You eat.’

3.5.3 Non-interactant Imperative Clauses

When the verbal group realising the Predicator in a Khorchin Mongolian imperative clause is marked for [third person], the interlocutor positioned as modally responsible is not directly apparent from the clause itself. This type of imperative clause is used when the speaker intends an action to be continued without interruption. It can be the addressee who is positioned as responsible for not interfering with the action construed. Alternatively, it can be both the speaker and the addressee who are positioned as responsible for not interfering with the action. There is usually evidence from the co-text that can be used to disambiguate the positioning. This type of imperative clause is referred to as a non-interactant imperative clause. The ‘actor’ encoded in the clause is a non-interactant (i.e. it can only be replaced with a third person pronoun).

The clause in Example 36a exemplifies a non-interactant imperative clause that positions the addressee as modally responsible for not interfering with the boiling of the pot. The sister (S) informs her brother (B) that she is going to feed the pigs and the brother should leave the pot boiling. There are two exchanges in Example 36. The first exchange is initiated by the secondary actor (A2). The second exchange is initiated by the primary actor (A1). Example 36c is double coded as A1/A2f because it can be interpreted as a response to either A2 in Exchange 1 or A1 in Exchange 2 (n-int = [imperative: non-interactant]).

(36) S = sister, B = brother

Exchange 1a S: A2 **imp: n-int**

<i>tʰəkə</i> pot	<i>pæʃɨl-tʃ</i> boil-PROG	<i>ε:-kʷ</i> COP-IMP.3
		Predicator
		verb.gp: 3rd person

‘Let the pot boil.

(≈You leave the pot alone)’

Exchange 2

b S: A1 imp: incl	<i>pi kɛxɛ ki</i> 1SG pig ACC	<i>tʰitʃə-kət ir-jə</i> feed-PFV come-IMP.1
		Predicator
		verb.gp: 1st person

‘I will feed the pigs and come back.’

c B: A1/A2 f m:
INTJ
‘OK.’

In Example 36a, the addressee positioning of the non-interactant imperative clause is apparent from the co-text given that the speaker is positioned as responsible for other tasks as realised by the speaker-inclusive imperative clause in Example 36b. (Contextually, the sister walks out of the room while uttering 36b, which is another indication that she is not positioning herself as responsible in 36a).

Similarly, a non-interactant imperative clause may position both the speaker and the addressee as modally responsible for not interfering with an action. In Example 37 (adjusting Example 36), both the speaker and the addressee are positioned as being responsible for not interfering with the boiling of the pot. This is again disambiguated in the co-text. Both the interlocutors are positioned as responsible for other actions in Example 37b – drinking alcohol.

(37) **Exchange 1**

a A2 imp: n-int	<i>tʰɔkɔ</i> pot	<i>pæʃəl-tʃ</i> boil-PROG	<i>ɛ:-kɐ</i> COP-IMP.3
		Predicator	
		verb.gp: 3rd person	

‘Let the pot boil.
(≈Let’s leave the pot alone)’

Exchange 2

b A2 imp: incl	<i>pɛtən ɔrtɐ:r ɛrɔx</i> 1PL first alcohol	<i>ɔ:-tʃ</i> drink-PROG	<i>ɛ:-jɐ</i> COP-IMP.1
		Predicator	
		verb.gp: 3rd person	

‘Let’s drink alcohol first.’

Examples 36 and 37 show that when A2 is realised by a non-interactant imperative clause, and when the addressee is positioned as modally responsible for not interfering with an action, the speaker typically proposes another action

that they will engage in. When both the speaker and the addressee are positioned as modally responsible for not interfering with an action, the speaker typically proposes another action that both the interlocutors will engage in. If alternative actions are not proposed, the context is usually sufficient to disambiguate the modally responsible participant.

3.5.4 Imperative Clauses and Exchange Structure

The examples so far show that imperative clauses typically realise functions in action exchanges. The realisation of functions in action exchanges through [imperative] is summarised in Table 3.3.

Imperative clauses in Khorchin Mongolian may also realise functions in knowledge exchanges. The exchange in Example 38 follows T2's request for swapping session with T1. The non-initiating K1 at Example 38c is realised by a speaker-inclusive imperative clause.

(38) T = teacher

Exchange 1

a T1: K2 interrogative

<i>je-ø</i> what-NPST.PTCP	<i>i:</i> IP
Inquirer/Predicator	Interrogator
verbal group	int. particle

'What is going on?
(≈Why?)'

Exchange 2

b T1: K2 interrogative

<i>pvs</i> Again	<i>kotie-ntf</i> escape-FUT	<i>ε:-ø</i> COP-NPST.PTCP	<i>mε</i> IP
	Predicator	Interrogator	
	verbal group	int. particle	

'Are you escaping again?'

Table 3.3 Imperative clauses in action exchanges

grammar	discourse semantics	Examples
imperative in MOOD	NEGOTIATION	
speaker inclusive	initiating A1	(32b)
	initiating A2	(37b)
speaker exclusive	initiating A2	(32a)
	non-initiating A2	(11b)
non-interactant	initiating A2	(36a)

c T2: **K1 imp: incl**

<i>kət̪i-ji</i> escape-IMP.1
Predicator
verb.gp: 1st person

‘Let me escape.
(≈ I will escape)’

It is also possible for a speaker-exclusive imperative clause to realise non-initiating K1 in a knowledge exchange. This is typically the case when the speaker is allocating different tasks to the addressees. In Example 39 (introspective data), A is asking about his duty after all his other colleagues have been assigned different tasks.

(39) a A: K2 interrogative

<i>ŋət pi</i> if.so 1SG	<i>ju</i> what	<i>xi:-ø</i> do-NPST.PTCP	<i>i:</i> IP
	Inquirer	Predicator	Interrogator
	nom.gp	verbal group	int. particle

‘What do I do then?
(now that all the tasks seem to have been
allocated)’

b B: **K1 imp: excl**

<i>tʰi nɔm i:</i> 2SG book ACC	<i>təkʃəl-ø</i> tidy-IMP.2
	Predicator
	verb.gp: 2nd person

‘You tidy the books.’

Similar patterns are observed for non-interactant imperative clauses. They can realise non-initiating K1. The exchanges in Example 40 (adjusting Example 36) show this pattern. The K1 at 40c is realised by a non-interactant imperative clause.

(40) S = sister, B = brother

Exchange 1

a S: A1 imp: incl

<i>pi kɛxɐ ki</i> 1SG pig ACC	<i>tʰitʃə-kət</i> feed-PFV	<i>ir-jə</i> come-IMP.1
	Predicator	
	verbal group complex	

‘I will feed the pigs and come back.’

Exchange 2

b B: K2 interrogative

<i>ŋət tʰɔkɔ ki</i> if.so pot ACC	<i>jɐ-ø</i> what-NPST.PTCP	<i>i:</i> IP
	Inquirer/Predicator	Interrogator
	verbal group	int. particle

‘Then what do (I) do with the pot?’

c S: **K1 imp: n-int**

<i>tʰɔkɔ</i> pot	<i>pœʃɔl-tʃ</i> boil-PROG	<i>ɛ:-kœ</i> COP-IMP.3
Predicator		
verb.gp: 3rd person		

‘Let the pot boil.
(≈ You leave the pot alone)’

B: K2f ɔ:

INTJ

‘I see.’

A non-interactant imperative clause may also realise an initiating K1 – as in Example 41c (an elliptical non-interactant imperative clause). The interaction in Example 41 is an excerpt from a negotiation of morning shifts between teachers. The two teachers are dividing the shifts among the three of them (the interlocutors and another teacher). Note that in 41d the K2f is also realised by a non-interactant imperative clause. As K2f is not the nuclear function in a knowledge exchange, further consideration is not pursued here.

(41) T = teacher

Exchange 1

a T1: K2 interrogative

<i>mɛ:tʰɔr</i> tomorrow	<i>urlə</i> morning	<i>xən</i> who	<i>pɔs-ø</i> get.up-NFST.PTCP	<i>i:</i> IP
		Inquirer nom.gp	Predicator verbal group	Interrogator int. particle

‘Who will get up (early) tomorrow morning?’

b T2: K1 imp: incl

<i>pi</i> 1SG	<i>pɔs-jɔ</i> get.up-IMP.1
Predicator	
verbal group	

‘Let me get up (early). (≈ I will get up early)’

Exchange 2c T1: **K1 imp: n-int**

<i>nukətur</i> day.after.tomorrow	<i>urlə</i> morning	<i>nɛrɛ</i> Nara
--------------------------------------	------------------------	---------------------

‘Let Nara (get up early) the morning
of the day after tomorrow.’

d T2: K2f imp: n-int

<i>nɛrɛ</i> Nara	<i>pɔs-kɔ</i> get.up-IMP.3
Predicator	
verbal group	

‘Let Nara get up (early).’

The non-elliptical version of Example 41c is provided in Example 42.

(42) imp: n-int	<i>nukatur</i>	<i>urlə</i>	<i>nere</i>	<i>pəs-kə</i>
	day.after.tomorrow	morning	Nara	get.up-IMP.3
				Predicator
				verbal group

‘Let Nara (get up early) the morning of the day after tomorrow.’

The typical discourse-semantic functions of imperative clauses surveyed so far are summarised in Table 3.4 (expanding Table 3.3).

3.6 Conclusions

This chapter has sketched the basic systems and structures of the Khorchin Mongolian interpersonal grammar at clause rank. Systemically, a Khorchin Mongolian clause is either [indicative] or [imperative]; and if [indicative], it is either [declarative] or [interrogative]. Structurally, the elements Predicator, Positioner, Interrogator and Inquirer realise the options in the MOOD system. The Predicator and optionally the Positioner, Interrogator and Inquirer constitute the negotiatory structure of the clause. The negotiatory elements tend to be realised towards the end of the clause, featuring what Matthiessen (2018) calls an ‘interpersonal finale’. The negotiatory meaning they establish scopes over the remainder of the clause. In discourse-semantic terms, the speaker hands over the turn by casting the addressee in various interlocutor roles.

The significance of this description is twofold. First, the description provides a unified account of the types of clause and their corresponding structures in Khorchin Mongolian, complementing the notionally defined clause categories

Table 3.4 *The typical discourse functions of Khorchin Mongolian imperative clauses*

grammar	discourse semantics	
imperative in MOOD	NEGOTIATION	Examples
speaker-inclusive	initiating A1	(32b)
	initiating A2	(37b)
	non-initiating K1	(38c)
speaker-exclusive	initiating A2	(32a)
	non-initiating A2	(11b)
	non-initiating K1	(39b)
non-interactant	initiating A2	(36a)
	initiating K1	(41c)
	non-initiating K1	(40c)

in the traditional descriptions of Khorchin Mongolian. For example, the distinction between [indicative] and [imperative] lies in the different realisations of the Predicator; and the distinction between [declarative] and [interrogative] is recognised by the possibility of declarative clauses to include a Positioner and interrogative ones as an Interrogator.

Secondly, the description provides a discourse-semantic interpretation of the options in the Khorchin Mongolian MOOD system. To this end, the chapter has described the structure of Khorchin Mongolian interactions in relation to the ways the interlocutors position one another in terms of their knowledge of the information and their responsibility for carrying out the action under negotiation. This structural view of interaction has made it possible to characterise the discourse functions of the Khorchin Mongolian clauses in a systematic way.

The approach taken in this chapter – motivating the grammatical systems in terms of language-specific grammatical structures and characterising the grammatical systems with respect to the structure of interaction – is potentially relevant to the exploration of interpersonal grammars in other languages.

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