A Corpus-Based Study on Mood Combination Preference in Two-Clause Composite Sentences in Modern Chinese

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Abstract

Every clause is associated with a specific expressive intention and bears a specific mood: declarative, interrogative, imperative or exclamative. Different moods are combined with the juxtaposition of clauses. A compound sentence has a homogeneous mood combination between its constituent clauses, while the mood in a complex sentence is usually counted on its main clause with the mood in its subordinate clause(s) drowned. Clauses in a Chinese sentence, however, are independent in terms of mood; that is to say, the mood of the whole sentence is the combination of moods of each clause. Tendency for mood combination of two-clause composite sentences in modern Chinese is demonstrated as follows: 1) Homogeneous mood combinations greatly exceed heterogeneous ones; the “declarative + declarative” type outnumbers other types; and there are more combinations with a declarative mood than those without; 2) The more convincing the meaning of a particle indicates, the more frequently the corresponding mood appears in the first part of the combinations; and the mood realized by a modal adverb appears in the second part if another mood is not realized by a modal adverb; 3) A conjunction highly restricts the mood combination; and the frequency of mood combination in coordinate and causal clauses is approximately equal, much higher than that in adversative clauses.

Keywords: mood combination, declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamative

1. Mood and Mood Combination

The Latin and French based word “mode” entered English in the late Middle English period, meaning “measure, manner”, quite similar to “mood”. “Mode” is directly related to grammar, known as “manners” or forms of a verb. “Mood” was later used to replace grammatical “mode”, expressed inflectionally in distinct sets of verbal paradigms such as declarative, subjunctive, optative and imperative (Bybee & Fleischman, 1995, p. 2). But there is no inflectional change in Chinese verbs when declarative, interrogative, exclamative, imperative and other moods are involved in a sentence. Chinese language does have semantic distinctions of declarative, interrogative, exclamative, imperative and other moods, expressed by a tone, a word, a phrase, a clause or even a sentence. Mood is attached to a clause, focusing on the speaker’s mental states such as knowing, wanting, wishing and exclaiming. Mood in the traditional Chinese grammar has four major types: declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative, the same as those listed by Halliday (2000, p. 71) in “mood of clause”.

Mood combination refers to the juxtaposition of moods, usually in the context of a sentence. Every independent clause has a mood and the combination of clauses displays mood combination, which falls into two types: homogeneous combination and heterogeneous combination. Homogeneous combination is subdivided into four kinds: combination of all the declarative, interrogative, imperative clauses or exclamative clauses. Heterogeneous combination consists of such types as combination of at least one declarative plus at least one interrogative, at least one declarative plus at least one imperative, at least one declarative plus at least one interrogative, at least one interrogative plus at least one imperative, and etc. As such a large number of mood combinations are no easy job to handle in a single study, this paper only focuses on combinations of two moods homogeneously and heterogeneously. Theoretically speaking, there are four types of homogeneous mood combination and twelve types of heterogeneous mood combination in two-clause composite sentences in modern Chinese, which are listed in the following.
1.1 Four Types of Homogenous Mood Combination

1) declarative + declarative (Dec. + Dec.)

我 去 北京, 他 也 去 北京.
I go Beijing, he too go Beijing.
I’ll go to Beijing, and he will go to Beijing too.

2) interrogative + interrogative (Int. + Int.)

[2] Shì nǐ qù Běijīng ne, hái shì tā qù Běijīng?
是 你 去 北京 呢, 还 是 他 去 北京?
are you go Beijing PAR, still is he go Beijing?
Are you going to Beijing, or is he going to Beijing?

3) imperative + imperative (Imp. + Imp.)

你 去 北京, 而 且 必须 尽早 去 北京。
You go Beijing, and MOD as soon as possible go Beijing.
You go to Beijing, and you must go to Beijing as soon as possible.

4) exclamative + exclamative (Exc. + Exc.)

[4] Běijīng duō hǎo ā, nǎr de kōng qì duō xīn xiān nà!
北京 多 好 啊, 哪儿 的 空气 多 新鲜 哪!
Beijing how wonderful PAR, there PAR air how fresh PAR!
How wonderful Beijing is, and how fresh the air there is!

1.2 Twelve Types of Heterogeneous Mood Combinations

5) declarative + interrogative (Dec. + Int.)

我 去 北京, 你 也 去 吗?
I go Beijing, you too go PAR?
I’ll go to Beijing, (and) will you go to Beijing too?

6) declarative + imperative (Dec. + Imp.)

我 去 北京, 你 也 必须 去.
I go Beijing, you too MOD go.
I’ll go to Beijing, (and) you must go to Beijing too.

7) declarative + exclamative (Dec. + Exc.)

[7] Wǒ qù Běijīng, nǐ yě qù gāi duō hǎo a?
我 去 北京, 你 也 去 该 多 好 啊!
I go Beijing, you too go MOD how nice PAR!
I’ll go to Beijing, and how nice it is of you to go too!

8) exclamative + declarative (Exc. + Dec.)

[8] Qù Běijīng duō hǎo a, wǒ xiǎng qù.
去 北京 多 好 啊, 我 想 去.
Go Beijing how nice PAR, I want go.
How nice it is to go to Beijing, (and) I want to go (there).

9) exclamative + interrogative (Exc. + Int.)

[9] Qù Běijīng duō hǎo a, nǐ qù ma?
去 北京 多 好 啊, 你 去 吗?
Go Beijing how nice PAR, you go PAR?
How nice it is to go to Beijing, (and) will you go (there)?

10) exclamative + imperative (Exc. + Imp.)

[10] Qù Běijīng duō hǎo a, wǒmen yìqǐ qù ba!
去 北京 多 好 啊, 我们 一起 去 吧!
Go Beijing how nice PAR, we together go PAR!
How nice it is to go to Beijing, (and) let’s go together!
11) interrogative + declarative (Int. + Dec.)

You MOD not want go Beijing PAR, I want go.
Don’t you want to go to Beijing? (But) I want to go (there).

(N.B.: This is a composite sentence in Chinese, but its English counterpart is a sentence group consisting of two sentences. It is the same with Example 12 and 13.)

12) interrogative + imperative (Int. + Imp.)

[12] 你难道不想去北京吗，你必须去。
You MOD not want go Beijing PAR, you MOD go.
Don’t you want to go to Beijing? You must go (there).

13) interrogative + exclamative (Int. + Exc.)

[13] 你难道不想去北京吗，去北京多好啊!
You MOD not want go Beijing PAR, go Beijing how nice PAR!
Don’t you want to go to Beijing? How nice it is (of you) to go to Beijing!

14) imperative + declarative (Imp. + Dec.)

[14] 你去北京吧，北京找工作的机会多。
You go Beijing PAR, Beijing seek job PAR opportunity more.
Go to Beijing, and you will find more job opportunities.

15) imperative + interrogative (Imp. + Int.)

[15] 你去北京吧，难道你不想去北京吗?
You go Beijing PAR, MOD you not want go Beijing PAR
Go to Beijing, and don’t you want to go to Beijing?

16) imperative + exclamative (Imp. + Exc.)

[16] 你去北京吧，去北京多好啊!
You go Beijing PAR, go Beijing how nice PAR!
Go to Beijing, and how nice it is (of you) to go to Beijing!

The research questions in the paper are:

1) What is the overall tendency of homogeneous and heterogeneous mood combination in two-clause composite sentences in modern Chinese?
2) Which mood appears most frequently in heterogeneous mood combinations?
3) Which mood combination outnumbers others? And what are the underlying factors?

2. Frequency of Mood Combinations

Halliday (2000, p. 104) held that a clause consists of “mood plus residue” and all the examples he analyzed are one-clause simple sentences, so there is no mood combination in English. Following Halliday’s idea and testing English complex sentences, Peng (2000, p. 31) believed that all clauses have their own moods: the mood of conjoined clauses lies in the main clause if relative clauses are involved; whereas the mood of combined clauses is the combination of individual clauses if adverbial clauses are involved. Clauses in Chinese are generally believed to be more independent. “Every clause is associated with a specific expressive intention, and it bears a specific mood” (Xing, 2017, p. 168). Therefore, mood combination exists in Chinese language. In order to better demonstrate the frequency of mood combinations in modern Chinese, 3835 modern Chinese two-clause composite sentences were collected from the total of 860,000 Chinese characters of written texts. After a statistical analysis of the collated data, the major findings and explanation are as follows.

2.1 Homogeneous Mood Combinations Outnumbers Heterogeneous Ones

In terms of types of mood combination, homogenous combinations (4 types, 3229 examples, 86%) > heterogeneous combinations (12 types, 536 examples, 14%); in terms of material genres where mood combinations appear, novels (1487 examples, 38.8%) > plays (1141 examples, 29.8%) > newspapers (691
examples, 18.0%) > scientific texts (516 examples, 13.4%) (See Table 1, qtd. from Wan, 2016: 37).

Table 1. Comparison of homogeneous and heterogeneous mood combinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mood combinations</th>
<th>Newspapers</th>
<th>Scientific texts</th>
<th>Novels</th>
<th>Plays</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homogeneous</td>
<td>667</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>1294</td>
<td>824</td>
<td>3299</td>
<td>86.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogeneous</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>536</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum (percentage)</td>
<td>691 (18.0%)</td>
<td>516 (13.4%)</td>
<td>1487 (38.8%)</td>
<td>1141 (29.8%)</td>
<td>3835</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 1) The data in newspapers are 691 Chinese two-clause composite sentences (or 691 examples, similarly hereinafter) from the 200,000-Chinese-character texts of the 24 pages on Renmin Ribao (People’s Daily), Nov. 23, 2010; 2) The data in scientific texts are 514 examples from the 200,000-chatater textbook in the first seven chapters of Zhongguo Wenhuadi Li Gaishu (the 3rd ed., An Outline of Chinese Cultural Geography, ed. by Hu Zhaoliang et al, Beijing: Peking University Press, 2009); 3) The data in novels are 1294 examples from about 96,000 characters in Chapter 1, 4 and 9 of Weicheng (Fortress Besieged, by Qian Zhongshu, Beijing: People’s Literature Publishing House, 2002) and about 120,000 characters in Huo Zhe (To Live, by Yu Hua, Shanghai: Shanghai Literature and Art Publishing House, 2004); 4) The data in plays are 824 examples from 137,000 characters in Lei Yu (Thunderstorm, by Cao Yu, trans. by Wang Zuoliang and A. C. Barnes, Beijing: Foreign Languages Press, 2001), and 107,000 characters in Fengxue Ye Gui Ren (Latecomer in the Snow, by Wu Zuguang, Beijing: People’s Literature Publishing House, 2000).

2.2 “Dec. + Dec.” Combinations Outnumber Other Mood Combinations

In terms of combination types, “Dec. + Dec.” combinations outweigh others: “Dec. + Dec.” (3129 examples, 94.8%) > “Imp. + Imp.” (131 examples, 4.0%) > “Int. + Int.” (29 examples, 0.9%) > “Exc. + Exc.” (10 examples, 0.3%); In terms of material types where mood combinations appear, novels (1294 examples, 39.2%) > plays (824 examples, 25.0%) > newspapers (667 examples, 20.2%) > scientific texts (514 examples, 15.6%). Noticeably, there are only “Dec. + Dec.” combinations in scientific texts, and there are no “Exc. + Exc.” combinations in newspapers.

Table 2. Frequency of homogeneous mood combinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mood combinations</th>
<th>Newspapers</th>
<th>Scientific texts</th>
<th>Novels</th>
<th>Plays</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dec. + Dec.</td>
<td>606</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>1260</td>
<td>749</td>
<td>3129</td>
<td>94.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Int. + Int.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. + Imp.</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exc. + Exc.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum (percentage)</td>
<td>667 (20.2%)</td>
<td>514 (15.6%)</td>
<td>1294 (39.2%)</td>
<td>824 (25.0%)</td>
<td>3299</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As homogeneous mood combinations are obvious and popular, the study of heterogeneous moods combinations turns out to be more significant, thus the focus in the rest part of the paper.

2.3 Mood Combinations with Declarative Exceed Those Without Declarative

There are 6 types of mood combinations with “Dec.” and 6 types of mood combinations without “Dec.”. Those with “Dec.” as shown in the statistics are above 7.0% with an occurrence of more than 50 examples in the corpus, while those without “Dec.” are below 7.0% with an occurrence of are fewer than 50 examples.


3. Frequency of Mood Combinations in Different Contexts

Frequency of mood combinations varies from mood to mood realized in their respective clauses. Furthermore, frequency of mood combinations is conditioned by specific contexts.

3.1 Mood Combinations Realized by Clause-Final Particles

Chinese moods are largely realized by clause-final particles such as ba (吧, a particle used at the end of an
imperative clause either as a polite request or a consultative tone, or used at the end of an interrogative clause inclusively as a to-be-confirmed question, *ma* (吗, a particle used at the end of a question), *ne* (呢, a particle used at the end of a special, alternative or rhetorical question to indicate a question, or used at the end of a declarative clause to reinforce the assertion or play up the effect of exaggeration) and *a* (啊, an interjection attached to the end of a clause to express surprise or admiration <with a drawl>) (see the examples listed for the above-mentioned 16 types of mood combinations). Clause-final particles play a key role in determining the frequency of mood combinations.

The more convincing the meaning of a particle indicates, the more frequently the corresponding mood appears in the first part of the combinations; on the contrary, the more doubtful the meaning of a particle indicates, the more frequently the corresponding mood appears in the last place.

After a comparison of Example 17a, 17b and 17c, moods of the second clause are all realized by the particle *ne*, which indicates the speaker’s doubt, and they appear in the second part of their corresponding sentences. Moods of the first clause are realized by *de* (的, an auxiliary used at the end of a statement to indicate certainty) (Example 17a) and *le* (了, an auxiliary used at the end of a clause or a pause in the middle of a sentence to indicate a change or a new situation) (Example 17b), both of which indicate the speaker’s conviction, and they appear in the front of the sentences. But when moods of the first half are realized by *ne* (呢), both of which indicate the speaker’s conviction, and such mood combinations are not acceptable.

When particles reveal the speaker’s conviction to approximately the same degree, moods in the combination may swap. See Example 18.

The same particle, when used in a mood combination, usually shows a different level of the speaker’s conviction. The one with more conviction generally falls at the first half of the combination, and the one with less conviction is at the end of the combination. In Example 19, the first particle *a* reveals the speaker’s exclamation, and the second *a* reveals his/her doubt. The first *a* is definitely more convincing, so the mood it indicates appears in the front.
mood combination is not influenced, because it has nothing to do with the number but the convincing tone of the particles.

[20] Zànmén zǒu ba, měi kānjiàn bàmā zhèng máng zhe ne ma?
咱们走吧，没看见爸爸正忙着呢吗？
We go PAR, not see parents PRES-busy-ASP PAR PAR?
Let’s go now. And don’t you see parents are busy working?

In Example 20, the particle ba (吧) realizes an imperative mood in a polite way with no sense of doubt; by contrast, ne and ma both indicate an interrogative mood and the doubtful tone is strengthened, so ba (吧) mood is first and ne-ma mood is the second. However, both de (的) and le (了) reveal the speaker’s declaration, and this mood is a conviction, while ne (呢) is simply a doubt, so de-le (的了) mood goes the first and ne mood goes the second. See Example 21.

[21] sāngtānà tiáohuí 1.2 yuán/gǒnglì shì bù kěnéng de, xiáli=yóunéiyǒu kěnéng ne?
桑塔纳调回1.2元/公里是不可能的，夏利有限可能呢？
Santana turn back 1.2 yuan/kilo is not possible PAR, Xiali have/have not possible PAR?
(N.B.: Santana and Xiali are the brand names of Chinese-made cars.)
It is not possible for a Santana taxi to go back to the fee of 1.2yuan/kilo, (then) how about a Xiali taxi?

3.2 Mood Combinations Realized by Modal Adverbs

Modal adverbs have a remarkable influence on mood combination in that the mood realized by a modal adverb appears in the second part and the mood in the first part is not realized by a modal adverb. Mood order in Example 22 can be explained by the above rule of clause-final particle, and so can it be done by the rule of modal adverbs. The former mood is a declarative, and no modal adverb helps. The latter mood is definitely realized by the modal adverb hēbì (何必, a modal adverb used in rhetorical questions), which endows a stronger feeling, thus appearing in the second part of the sentence.

[22] Mā bù yuǎnyí, nǐ hēbì qiángpò tā ne?
妈不乐意，您何必强迫她呢？
Mum not willing, you MOD force her PAR?
(Since) Mum is not willing to do, why do you force her?

When two moods are realized by two different modal verbs, the larger domain the modal adverb governs, the mood it expresses appear slater. The governing domain of a modal adverb can be easily ranked according to its place in a clause. There are 3 places of a modal adverb: MOD (,) + NP + VP; NP + MOD + VP; NP + VP + (,). MOD (Duan, 1995, pp. 19–20). Modal adverbs in front of NP govern both NP and VP, thus having the largest place in a clause. There are 3 places of a modal adverb: MOD (,) + NP + VP; NP + MOD + VP; NP + VP + (,).

Other modal adverbs after NP only govern VP, thus having the less governing domain. Such as jiānzhí (简直, a modal adverb indicating a tone of exaggeration, similar to “simply, at all”), hécháng (何尝, a modal adverb used in rhetorical questions to express “never”), hēbì (何必, kě (可, a modal adverb meaning “but, yet, however”, used to indicate a turn in meaning), qǐ (岂, a modal adverb indicating a rhetorical question), jiùjīng (究竟, a modal adverb meaning “actually, exactly”; used in questions to press for an exact answer), dàodì (到底, a modal adverb used in a question for emphasis), guórán (果然, a modal adverb meaning “really, indeed, as expected”), jūrán (居然, a modal adverb meaning “unexpectedly, actually”), jīngrán (竟然, a modal adverb meaning “unexpectedly, actually”), fànndào (反倒, a modal adverb meaning “instead, on the contrary”), wéimǎn (未免, a modal adverb meaning “naturally, unavoidably”) and so on. When modal adverbs after VP govern none, and the moods they indicate appear at the end. See Example 23.

[23] nǐn jù zhī shuō ba, jiūjīng yào duóshǎo qián yòng?
您就直说吧，究竟要多少钱用？
You MOD straight say PAR, MOD want how much money use?
Say it out straightly, and how much money do you need?
If two modal adverbs are before NP, they have the same power of commanding, then the power of expressing the speaker’s subjective attitude counts. Qi (2002, p. 220) reported the rank of these modal adverbs: those revealing the speaker’s sudden realization such as 

- guórán (果然) (certainly, definitely)
- nánguài (难怪) (hardly)
- yuánlái (原来) (formerly)

are more frequent, whereas “Dec. + Imp.” and “Dec. + Exc.” are less frequent.

### 3.3 Mood Combinations in the Context of Conjunctions

Chinese clause/mood combination does not necessarily involve a conjunction. If a conjunction is used, mood combination is highly restricted. Example 25a is of “Dec. + Imp.” mood pattern. When no conjunction is used, the clauses could not be changed and its reversed mood pattern is not possible.

If yīníwēi (因为) and suóyǐ (所以) are used together, the mood attached to the clause introduced by yīníwēi (因为) must be either declarative or exclamatory, the mood attached to the clause connected by suóyǐ (所以) could be any of the four moods, so there are five types of mood combinations: “Dec. + Int.”, “Dec. + Imp.”, “Dec. + Exc.”, and “Exc. + Int.”. Example 26 is “Dec. + Imp.”, and Example 27 is “Dec. + Int.”. Among the five types, “Dec. + Int.” and “Exc. + Dec.” are more frequent, whereas “Dec. + Imp.” and “Dec. + Exc.” are less frequent.

If “suóyǐ..., shìyǐníwēi...” is used, in contrast to “yīníwēi..., suóyǐ...”, there are only three possible mood combinations with very little frequency: “Dec. + Exc.” (Example 28), “Dec. + Int.” and “Imp. + Dec.” (Example 29).

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[24] Wùbì bùnéng fàngsōng jīngtǐ, yídīng yào jiānchìbìxī di bā fānzé zì fòuzhāng jīn xǐng xiāqù

- 务必 不能 放松 警惕，一定 要 坚持不懈 地 把 反走私 斗争 进行 下去。
- MOD not can relax alertness, MOD MOD persistent PAR PAR anti-smuggle continue down.

(We) cannot relax our vigilance; (instead) we must persist on fighting against smuggling.

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[25] a. Wǒ shénme dōu bù zhídào, nǐ què wèn bié rén ba!

- 我 什么 都 不知道，你 去 问 别人 吧！
- I what all not know, you go ask others PAR!

b. Nǐ què wèn bié rén ba, wǒ shénme dōu bù zhídào.

- 你 去 问 别人 吧，我 什么 都 不知道。
- You go ask others PAR, I what all not know.

c. Yīníwēi wǒ shénme dōu bù zhídào, suóyǐ nǐ què wèn bié rén ba!

- 因为 我 什么 都 不知道，所以 你 去 问 别人 吧！
- CON I what MOD not know, CON you go ask others PAR!

d. * suóyǐ nǐ què wèn bié rén ba, yīníwēi wǒ shénme dōu bù zhídào.

- 所以 你 问 别人 吧，因为我 什么 都 不知道。
- CON you go ask others PAR, CON I what MOD not know.

So you’d better to go ask others, I don’t know anything.

---

[26] yīníwēi shì zài gǔchéng jiùlǐ, suóyǐ nǐ yào jìng quăn lǐ bāngzhù Wèi Déhuā tāmān bā zhè jiàn shì zuò hǎo. (Dec. + Imp.)

- 因为 是 在 古城 监狱 里，所以你要 尽 全力 帮助 魏德华 他们 把 这 件 事 做好。
- CON is in old town prison in, CON you MOD try all strength help Wei Dehua them PAR this-CL thing do good.

Because it is in the old town prison, you must try all you can to help Wei Dehua and his team get this done well.

[27] Yěxū yīníwēi shì bié tǐ yǒngqì, suóyǐ zào wùzhū hái lǐng xǐe ba? (Exc. + Int.)

- 也许 因为 世界 太 拥挤，所以 造物主 那么 吝啬 吧?
- Perhaps CON world too crowded, CON Creator that stingy PAR?

Perhaps the world is too crowded, so the Creator is that stingy?

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[28] Xiányú jǐngjì zhē ge tóu mǔ zìhuó yǐlín rêmén, shìyǐníwēi tā de fènliàng tài zhòngyào le.

- 县城 经济 这个 题目 之所以 吸引人，是因为 它的 份量 太重要 了。

Because of the title's weight, the matter is of great interest.
County economy this-CL topic CON appeal people, CON its PAR function too important PAR.
The topic of county economy is appealing to people, because it is very important.

[29] Suóyí qǐng nǐ shǒuhūi nǐ de chuáié, yīnwèi nǐ wújì wǒ le!
所以 请 你 收回 你 的 擦 拭, 因为 你 哭 了!
CON please you take back your PAR guess, CON you misunderstand me PAST.

Please take back your judgment on me, because you have misunderstand me.

The conjunction yīnwèi (因为) can be used alone, and its location in the sentence plays a role in the type and frequency of mood combination. When yīnwèi (因为) is used in the middle of a mood combination, there are five types of mood combinations: “Dec. + Int.”, “Dec. + Imp.”, “Dec. + Exc.”, “Exc. + Dec.” and “Imp. + Dec.” and “Int. + Exc.”.

你 不 要 过 于 悲伤，因为 你 即将 临 产．
You not need over sad, CON you soon give birth.

Do not be over sad, because you will give birth soon.

[31] Lì jiān zěnmeyáng, yīnwèi tài hēi le. (Int. + Exc.)
里 面 怎么样，因为 太 黑 了．
In room how, CON too dark ASP.

How is the inside room? Because it is too dark (here).

(N.B.: This is a composite sentence in Chinese, but its English counterpart is a sentence group consisting of two sentences.)

When yīnwèi (因为) is used at the beginning of a mood combination, there are two types of mood combination. Comparatively speaking, mood combinations with yīnwèi (因为) in the middle are more frequent than those with yīnwèi (因为) at the beginning.

The conjunction suóyí (所以) can also be used alone. When it is in the middle of the combination, there are four types of mood combinations: “Dec. + Int.”, “Dec. + Imp.”, “Dec. + Exc.”, “Exc. + Dec.”. When it appears at the beginning, there are two types of mood combinations with less frequency: “Dec. + Int.” and “Exc. + Dec.”.

你 就 是 为 人 太 实 在 了，所以 你 就 容易 受 人 骗．
You indeed behave too good-ASP, CON you then easy PAR people cheat.

You are indeed too honest and true to people, so you are easy to be cheated.

[33] Suóyí nǐ shì fūshìkāng bù shì fūshǐshān, zhēnmé bā zán zhōngguó rén dàngchêng rìběnrén yǒng ne?
所以 你 是 富士康 不 是 富士山, 怎么 把 我 中国人 当成 日本人 用 呢?
CON you are Foxconn not are Mount Fuji, how PAR we Chinese treat Japanese use PAR?

So you are Foxconn Technology Group but not Mount Fuji, how can you treat us Chinese as Japanese?

It must be noted that yóuyú (由于, a conjunction meaning “because, owing to, thanks to”) is a synonym of yīnwèi (因为) but the clause connected by yóuyú (由于) completely repels heterogeneous mood combination. yízhī (以致, a conjunction similar to “so that, as a result that”, which is used at the beginning of a mood combination) is a synonym of suóyí (所以), and they share mood combinations like “Exc. + Dec.”, “Dec. + Exc.” and “Dec. + Int.”. Conjunctions suóyí (所以) and yíncí (因此) can go with “Dec. + Imp.”, but yízhī (以致) cannot. The frequency of mood combinations with suóyí (所以) is higher than those with yízhī (以致) and yíncí (因此).

[34] Tā de shēnrqū shì nàiyáng jùdà, yízhī/yíncí/suóyí dāngzhù le zhēngqù de tiānkōng.
他的 身躯 是 那样 巨大, 以致/因此/所以 挡住 了 整个 的 天空．
His PAR body is so big, CON block-ASP whole PAR sky.

How big his body was! And (his body) blocked the whole sky.

啤酒 喝 了 可以 催 奶, 所以/因此/以致 你要 多 喝 一点.
Beer drink-ASP can promote breast milk, CON you need more drink a bit.

Drinking beer can promote the production of breast milk, and you need to drink a little more.

The collected data conclude the relation between heterogeneous mood combinations and conjunctions as follows:

Table 3. Heterogeneous mood combinations and linking conjunctions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of conjunctions</th>
<th>less</th>
<th>medium</th>
<th>more</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mood combinations</td>
<td>type</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>medium</td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4 Mood Combination in the Context of Semantic Relations of Conjoined Clauses

Semantic relations of clauses roughly fall into three categories: coordinate complex sentences (coordinates), causal complex sentences (causals) and adversative complex sentences (adversatives). Different clause relations restrict different frequency of mood combination. Generally speaking, the frequency of mood combination in coordinates and causals is almost equal, much higher than that in adversative clauses.

Table 4. Frequency of mood combinations and semantic relations of clauses (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heterogeneous mood combinations</th>
<th>Coordinates</th>
<th>Causals</th>
<th>Adversatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dec. + Int.</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec. + Imp.</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec. + Exc.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Int. + Dec.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Int. + Imp.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Int. + Exc.</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. + Dec.</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. + Imp.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. + Exc.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exc. + Dec.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exc. + Imp.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exc. + Exc.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. “128”, “29” are numbers of cases in our data; “√” suggests no case in our data but possible cases in Chinese two-clause composite sentences; “×” indicates no case anywhere.

The above three categories can be divided into more subcategories. Coordinates include juxtapositional, chronological, progressive and alternative. Causals include cause-effect, inferential, hypothetical, conditional and purposive. Adversatives include abrupt-adversative, concessive-adversative and negative-adversative. These relationships give a more specific picture of the frequency of mood combination in the context of different clausal relations.

Table 5. Frequency of mood combinations and semantic relations of clauses (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heterogeneous mood combinations</th>
<th>Coordinates</th>
<th>Causals</th>
<th>Adversatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Juxtapositional</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronological</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause-effect</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inferential</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abrupt</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concessive</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. “39”, “6” and etc. are the numbers of cases in our data; “√” suggests no case in our data but possible cases in Chinese two-clause composite sentences; “×” indicates no case anywhere.

In coordinates, the most frequent mood combination is “Dec. + Int.”, while in causals, the most frequent mood combination is “Imp. + Dec.”. Table 5 shows the three most frequently used mood combinations are “Dec. + Int.”, “Imp. + Dec.” and “Dec. + Imp.” and the three least frequent ones are “Int. + Exc.”, “Int. + Imp.” and “Exc.+ Imp.”. There are very few combinations of “Dec. + Int.” and “Exc.+Dec.” in adversative clauses. Here are some examples.

[36] Qǐng nǐ bù yáo zǒu, liú zài wǒ shēnbiān xìng ma? (“Imp. + Int.” in a coordinate)
Please you not go, stay by me side PAR?
Please don’t leave me; stay with me, OK?

Opportunity come-ASP, you prepare well-ASP PAR?
Opportunity has come, and are you well prepared?

[38] Nǐn gānjǐn xiè fèn shènqīng, wǒ mǐntiān lái qù. (“Imp. + Dec.” in a coordinate)
You without delay write a CL application, I will come to get it tomorrow.

The relations between clause relationships and heterogeneous mood combinations are concluded in Table 6. Heterogeneous mood combinations are more likely to appear in Group A: juxtapositional, chronological and cause-effect sentences, while Group C of alternative, purposive, conditional, negative-adversative, concessive-adversative sentences generally seem to refuse heterogeneous mood combinations.

Table 6. Frequency of heterogeneous mood combinations and semantic relations of clauses (3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic relations</th>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Group B</th>
<th>Group C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Causals</td>
<td>juxtapositional, chronological</td>
<td>progressive</td>
<td>alternative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversatives</td>
<td>cause-effect</td>
<td>hypothetical, inferential</td>
<td>purposive, conditional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogeneous mood types</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>medium</td>
<td>less</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>medium</td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause order</td>
<td>exchangeable</td>
<td>restricted</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Conclusion

Every clause in modern Chinese bears a mood, which basically falls into four types: declarative, integrative, imperative and exclamative. When clauses are conjoined to form a sentence, moods are accordingly combined. There are 16 possible combinations if two moods are involved, among which the heterogeneous mood configurations with “declarative” are more frequently used than those without “declarative”, and “declarative + interrogative/imperative/exclamative” is more frequently used than “interrogative/imperative/exclamative + declarative”.

Tendency for mood combination in modern Chinese is mainly shaped by the design features of moods. The more features the two moods share, the more easily they form a combination. Three features are identified as [+ certainty], [+ willingness] and [+ emotion]. “Certainty” refers to the speaker’s conviction of the sentence, “willingness” the speaker’s desire or hope and “emotion” the speaker’s psychological situation. The four moods bear the three features but differ from each other in the degree of the respective features, as shown in the Table 7.

Table 7. Design features and corresponding degrees of the four moods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>[+ certainty]</th>
<th>[+ willingness]</th>
<th>[+ emotion]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Declarative mood</td>
<td>strong</td>
<td>weak</td>
<td>weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrogative mood</td>
<td>weak</td>
<td>weak</td>
<td>weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative mood</td>
<td>strong</td>
<td>strong</td>
<td>weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclamative mood</td>
<td>strong</td>
<td>weak</td>
<td>strong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 7, declarative mood is featured by [strong certainty], [weak willingness] and [weak emotion]; interrogative mood by [weak certainty], [weak willingness] and [weak emotion]; imperative mood by [strong certainty], [strong willingness] and [weak emotion] and exclamative mood by [strong certainty], [weak willingness] and [strong emotion]. Comparatively, declarative and interrogative moods share two features of [weak willingness] and [weak emotion], but differ in [certainty] with declarative mood being strong and interrogative mood being weak. By contrast, interrogative and imperative mood share one feature of [weak emotion], but differ in the other two: interrogative mood is featured by [weak certainty] and [weak willingness] whereas imperative by [strong certainty] and [strong willingness]. Therefore, the combination of declarative and interrogative moods is more frequent than that of interrogative and imperative moods. Other comparisons can be made in the same way.

The order of the moods in the combination is mainly determined by the context. The mood in the front part of the combinations continues its preceding topic, while the mood in the back part proposes a new topic. Interrogative/imperative/exclamative mood is generally used to initiate an interaction with the participant after a declaration or an explanation; accordingly, interrogative/imperative/exclamative mood usually appears after a declarative mood. When interrogative/imperative/exclamative mood appears in the front, it represses the function of being interactive, which is against its nature, so interrogative/imperative/exclamative mood rarely appears
before a declarative mood.

References


Appendix A

Abbreviations used in the paper

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviations</th>
<th>Complete expressions</th>
<th>Abbreviations</th>
<th>Complete expressions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3sg</td>
<td>3rd person singular</td>
<td>AG</td>
<td>agent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASP</td>
<td>aspect</td>
<td>CL</td>
<td>classifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CON</td>
<td>conjunction</td>
<td>MOD</td>
<td>modal adverb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAR</td>
<td>particle</td>
<td>PRES</td>
<td>present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PST</td>
<td>past</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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