CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN ENGLISH AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO TURKISH

BURCU BAŞOĞLU SARITAŞ & BAHA CANKUT SARITAŞ
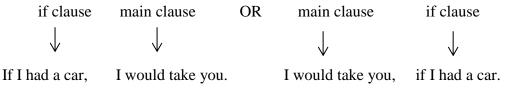
(Baskent University)

ABSTRACT

''Conditional sentences usually consist of two clauses: a conditional clause (or if clause) and the main clause (or result clause). The result in the main clause is dependent on the condition in the conditional clause'' (Foley & Hall, 2003, p.120). Conditionals is a highly controversial subject in current linguistic analysis. In this article, the basic types of conditional sentences are identified and the functioning of conditionality in the content, epistemic, and speech-act domains has been clarified, and a number of relations in these conditionals both in English and Turkish have been introduced.

Keywords: Conditional Sentences, Epistemic And Speech-act Domains, Comparative Analysis

1.0 GENERAL POINT ON CONDITIONALS

a. Sentence structure

Many grammarians, namely: Foley and Hall (2003), Bennett (2003), Celce-Murcia (1999), Sweetser (1990), Jackson (1987), and Sosa (1975) say that the conditional sentences are formed according to one of these basic structures:

if clause	main clause	OR	main clause	if clause
↓	↓		↓	↓
If I had a car,	I would take you.		I would take you,	if I had a car.

(Foley & Hall, 2003, p.120)

Foley and Hall also state that if the if clause is used first then we have to separate the clause with a comma.

Example 1:

If the bill is passed by both parliamentary houses, it becomes law.

(Foley & Hall, 2003, p.120)

At the same time, they also explain that then in the main clause can be used to emphasize the result which depends on the condition being achieved.

Example 2:

If the bill is passed by both parliamentary houses, then it becomes law.

(Foley & Hall, 2003, p.120)

Foley and Hall do say that the if clause can be put in the middle of the main clause but this they believe is rarely used:

Example 3:

It may be possible, **if both parties desire it,** to reduce the time scale.

(Foley & Hall, 2003, p.120)

Other than those Foley and Hall indicate that in conversation we often use only the main clause; the if clause is implied:

Example 4:

Actually, it would be pretty difficult. (if we did as you asked)

(Foley & Hall, 2003, p.120)

The sentence structure of the conditional sentences according to some linguists has been illustrated and their sentence patterns are addressed below.

b. Sentence patterns

The conditional sentences can be shown through patterns. According to Foley and Hall (2003), there are four basic conditional sentence patterns where our choice of tense depends on the time of the condition (past, present or future) and how possible or impossible we think the event is. Foley and Hall maintain that conditional sentences can be illustrated through a table as given below in which different tenses are expressed.

zero conditional	Possible at any time, but most commonly in the present: **If your dog is depressed**, he probably needs more exercise.
first conditional	Possible in the future. **If the single flops**, they'll sack their manager.
second conditional	Impossible in the present/possible (but improbable) in the future: **If you were a bit nicer**, he wouldn't get so cross.
third conditional	Impossible in the past: **If you had answered the door**, she wouldn't have gone away again.

(Foley & Hall, 2003. p.120).

Having illustrated the above-mentioned examples one may conclude that conditional sentences have a sentence structure that involves if clause and the main clause. Besides, conditional sentences also have four basic sentence patterns each of which has a tense that is dependent on the time of the condition.

Some intruding aspects of conditional sentences:

In this research study on Conditional Sentences, two very intruding aspects of conditional sentences have been found, which are the if p, (then) q frame and epistemic stance.

1. The if p, (then) q frames:

The if p, then q frame is a conditional issue raised by some linguists such as Sweetser (1990), Jackson (1987), Dancygier (1998), and others. ''An item is conditional if it is expressed by an English sentence consisting of 'if' followed by an English sentence followed by 'then' followed by an English sentence'' (Bennett, 2003, p.3). Sweetser supports Bennett's idea and brings out a form of conditional interpretation which shows that conditionals are used as wholes to conduct specific types of reasoning. He says that conditionals can be described as constructions in which the clauses are connected by relations. According to Sweetser, those relations depend on the cognitive domain in which assumptions are expressed by p (protasis) and q (apodosis).

There are three domains according to Sweetser (1990):

1) Content domain

2) Epistemic domain

3) Speech act domains

(Sweetser, 1990, p. 113-118)

The three domains raised by Sweetser (1990) have some specialties which help us identify the relations in the conditionals. ''In the content domain, the conditional if-then conjunction indicates the realization of the event or state of affairs described in the protasis is a sufficient condition for the realization of the event or state of affairs described in the apodosis'' (Sweetser, 1990, p.114). According to Sweetser, in the content domain, causal relations hold between the described events and situations. Sweetser maintains that in real-world events there is assumed to be a causal relationship between the two, as in (A) below.

Example:

(A) If Mary goes, Nicole will go.

The event of Mary's going might bring about or enable the event of Nicole's going. So, one can infer that there is a reason why Nicole will go and the first event causes the second event thus, this sentence is highly related to the content domain.

''In the epistemic domain, if-then conjunction expresses the idea that knowledge of the truth of the hypothetical premise expressed in the protasis would be a sufficient condition for concluding the truth of the proposition expressed in the apodosis. E.g. If she's divorced, (then) she's been married. The knowledge that the proposition she's divorced is true is a sufficient condition to ensure my concluding that she has been married '' (Sweetser, 1990, p.116). Sweetser states that in the epistemic domain, the construction links premises and conclusions. I infer that the knowledge given in the first sentence causes a conclusion in the second sentence as in (B) below.

Example:

B) If Lei went to that party, (then) he was trying to infuriate Kelly.

If I know that Lei went to the party, then I conclude that he went to infuriate Kelly. The causal link is not at the content level, but at the epistemic level-the knowledge causes the conclusion. Hence, the first sentence indicates a premise that is linked to the conclusion that Lei went there to infuriate Kelly. Thus, this sentence is highly related to the epistemic domain.

''In the speech act domains, the performance of the speech act represented in the apodosis is conditional on the fulfillment of the state described in the protasis (the state in the protasis enables or causes the following speech act). All speech act conditionals have in common the fact that they are appropriately paraphrased by If [protasis], then let us consider that I perform this speech act (i.e., the one represented as the apodosis)'' (Sweetser, 1990, p.118). Sweetser claims that in speech act domains, p 's are used as comments on the speech acts performed in q 's. Sweetser maintains that speech acts (requests, questions, permissions, etc.) are for most speakers simply mark politeness or so rather than carrying its literal meaning. Now let us look at the example C below.

Example:

C) If I haven't already asked you to do so, please sign the guest book before you go.

For the purposes of our interaction; let us consider that I make the following request if I did not previously make it. The first sentence is a comment made for the speech act (request of signing the guest book) in q. Thus, in my opinion, this sentence is highly related to the speech act domain.

Another linguist Dancygier (1998) who is also working on the issues of conditionals supports Sweetser's idea. Sweetser shows that ambiguity and semantic change of various other expressions result from their being interpreted in these cognitive domains; what is more, the domains themselves are linked via a metaphor which motivates extensions of meaning from the physical into the mental and social domains. The approach not only reveals a fascinating dimension of the interpretation of conditionals but also, or perhaps firsts of all, shows that different meanings can and should be analyzed as growing one out of the other. That is, in an analysis of a given ambiguous form it is not enough to say what the differences are, one also has to be able to express generalizations about the relationships between the meanings of polysemous or polyfunctional forms. Sweetser treats the general if p, q construction as having

a general semantics, which is pragmatically ambiguous between content, epistemic, and speech-act, level interpretations of the conditional relationship'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 7). According to Dancygier, Sweetser's idea of conditionality in the content, epistemic, and speech-act domains illustrates the meaning of conditional sentences. Dancygier maintains that this idea will affect the overall interpretation of the construction, rather than any of the particular expressions used in the conditionals.

According to the data given above it is possible to give a summary of the specialties of the three domains that Sweetser (1990) is talking about.

Content domain:	Causal relations hold between the described events and situations.
Epistemic domain:	The construction links premises and conclusions.
Speech act domain:	p 's are used as comments on the speech acts performed in q 's.

2. Epistemic stance:

Another study of conditionals is the epistemic stance. ''Fillmore (1990) analyzes the verb forms as indicative of two aspects: temporal reference and epistemic stance. In this way, Fillmore accounts for a great variety of conditional sentences showing important form-function correlations'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 7).

Example:

If I catch/ caught/ had caught the 11:30 train, I will get / would get/ would have gotten to the meeting on time.

(Dancygier, 1998, p. 7)

Danvygier asserts that the present tense form catch shows neutral epistemic stance towards a future event, while caught signals negative epistemic stance to it. The third form had caught is used to express negative stance towards a past event. The reason for this I believe is that, catch and will get indicate hope for the future event that might happen so it's neutral epistemic but caught and would get refer to a future event which we know that is impossible to happen which is a negative stance. For the third form which concerns a past action had caught and would have gotten is a state which tells us that the event didn't happen at all so it's negative stance towards a past event. Dancygier maintains that Fillmore's idea treats conditionals as constructions in which the choice of a verb form in one clause is related to the choice made in the other in a way which is ruled by the interpretation of the construction in terms of time and epistemic background.

Further crucial relationships between the clauses in conditional constructions according to linguists:

According to some linguists such as Sweetser (1990) and Dancygier (1998) there are five important relations between the clauses in conditional constructions:

- Sequentiality
- Causality
- Epistemic/inferential relations
- Speech act relations
- Metatextual relations

In this part, all of the relations given above will be discussed except for the last one which is about metatextual relations. The reason why these relations are being chosen is that they are very intruding and crucial for us as English language teachers to know and teach our language better. Metatextual relations are much more complex and are dealt with phonological concepts so I would rather mention about them later if I were to continue this paper for further research.

1. Sequentiality

According to Lightbrown and Spada (1993) children tend to produce sentences like You took all the towels away because I can't dry my hands the reason for this is that they want to state the events in the order of occurrence.

Sweetser (1990) suggests that and can be used for the iconic ordering in different domains, ''and of (1) may be simple setting of two items side by side, but that of (2) requires further explanation'' (Sweetser, 1990, p. 87).

(1) John eats apples and pears.

(2) John took off his shoes and jumped in the pool.

(Sweetser, 1990, p. 87).

According to Sweetser, the meaning in the first sentence is unchanged by reversing the order of conjunctions; but in the second sentence reversing the order would change our understanding, in particular it might change our opinion as to whether John's shoes got wet or not. Sweetser maintains that the case like the first sentence is called symmetric uses of and, while sentence (2) is an asymmetric use.

Dancygier (1998) agrees with Sweetser's idea of the use of and conjunctions. ''Sequentiality is related to the general concept putting things side by side in that it arises as an inference from how they are set side by side. Sequentiality arises, not only in and-conjoined, but also in full-stop sentences. There seems to be no difference between such sentences as:'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 74)

(1) I bought some flour and made pancakes.

(2) I bought some flour. I made pancakes.

(Dancygier, 1998, p. 74).

According to Dancygier, in both cases, the usual interpretation is that the speaker bought flour before she made pancakes. She maintains that in both cases, flour is needed for making pancakes or flour was bought so that pancakes could be made. She also reminds us that similar cases can be found among conditionals too. ''Simultaneity is present in the interpretations of many types of constructions including predictive, non-predictive, and generic:'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 77).

(3) If the baby is asleep, Mary is typing.

(4) If you live in a dorm, you don't have enough privacy.

(5) If people drove more carefully, roads would be safer.

(Dancygier, 1998, p. 77).

However, Dancygier points out some linguists who oppose to this idea. ''Wilson (1990) argues that some conditional sentences which are causally related are not sequentially related. The event p does not strictly precede event q so he concludes that causality and sequentiality should be admitted to arise independently in the interpretation''(Dancygier, 1998, p. 78) According to Dancygier, some linguists such as Wilson (1990) think that causally related sentences should not always be considered as sequential, especially when the event of p does not precede q.

2. Causality

Another important consideration is the relation of causality in conditional sentences. As I have discussed before on page 4 that according to Sweetser (1990) the causal interpretation arises when p and q refer to content domain (real world events), which are interpreted as causally related in the real world. Other linguist Sosa (1975) in his book on causation and conditionals defines causality by reference to the interference of agents: p is a cause relative to q, and q an effect relative to p. He says that if and only if by doing p we could bring about q or if we were to do p, we would thus bring about q. Dancygier (1998) also agrees with Sweetser and adds that causality can be found in disjunctive sentences, too.

Example:

(1) On Friday nights, Mary goes to see her aunt, or her parents call her and scold her on Saturday morning.

(Dancygier, 1998, p. 80)

Dancygier suggests that a paraphrase of this sentence can show us the causality in conditionals:

(2) On Friday nights Mary goes to see her aunt. If she doesn't, her parents call her and scold her on Saturday morning.

(Dancygier, 1998, p. 80)

''The paraphrase also reveals the sequential interpretation of (1) more clearly. This seems to suggest that sequentially ordered sentences in the content domain (about real world events) are likely to invite causal interpretations, regardless of the type of conjunction and syntactic frame of the construction. Thus causality can also be found in and- and full-stop utterances'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 81).

Example:

3) You say one word and I'll kill you.

(4) The road was icy and she slipped.

(5) The road was icy. She slipped.

(Dancygier, 1998, p. 81).

However, Dancycier(1998) argues that not all conditionals represent content level relations, only predictive/content conditionals are interpreted causally.

In a non-predictive sentence like (6) a causal interpretation will not arise.

(6) If you are interested, he is my husband.

''There is no immediately accessible knowledge which would support a causal relation between the hearer's interest and someone's being the speaker's husband'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 83)

Dancygier and Sweetser suggest an easy way to find causality in a sentence. If the event of p enables the event of q then the sentence can be labeled under causality.

Example:

(7) If I were president, I'd sell the White House's Limoges china to fund bilingual education.

(Dancygier, 1998, p.83)

''In sentence (7) being president would enable the speaker to sell the china rather cause her to do so'' (Dancygier, 1998, p.83).

(8) If you feel better, we'll go for a walk.

(Dancygier, 1998, p.83)

I infer that in sentence (8) feeling better would enable us to go for a walk.

(9) If I were an actress, I would live in Beverly Hills.

(Dancygier, 1998, p.83)

This sentence also indicates us that being an actress would enable me to live in Beverly Hills.

According to Dancygier's point of view, the sentences (10) and (11) have non-causal and non-sequential relations because they are examples of reasoning. They don't have causality because they can not be paraphrased as: Shegnan is late, she went to the dentist as a result, or: If Anne is wearing a wedding ring, she and Brad Pitt got married as a result. The causal relations are based on assumptions and not on states of affairs in the world. Thus, the conclusions are about going to the dentist or getting married. There seems to be no casual relation between the content of the if clause and that of the main clause.

(7) If Shengnan is late, she went to the dentist.

Shengnan's being late would enable going to the dentist is an incorrect sentence because it's senseless thus; it can not be labeled under causality.

(8) If Anne is wearing a wedding ring, she and Brad Pitt finally got married.

Anne's wearing a wedding ring doesn't enable her to get married so this sentence can not be labeled under causality either.

3. Epistemic/inferential relationships

The epistemic relations of conditional sentences have been addressed on page 4-5 but the inferential relations will be discussed more deeply. According to Sweetser (1990), as mentioned before, epistemic sentences are different from content-level conditionals, they are non-sequential but causal. The knowledge of p is interpreted as causing or enabling the conclusion in q. E.g. If they left from Spokane at nine, they have arrived to Turkey by now. Dancygier (1998) agrees with Sweetser but calls this relation as inferential. ''The protasis presents a premise, and the apodosis the conclusion inferred from the premise'' (Dancygier, 1998. p. 87). In a sense, drawing conclusions from the assumed premise seems to be central to the epistemic/inferential relations.

Dancygier (1998) points out that, epistemic conditionals are non-predictive in function and not used with hypothetical forms. ''If Shegnan were late she would have gone to the dentist; If Anne were wearing a wedding ring, she and Brad Pitt would have finally got married. The state of affairs referred to in p does not precede, and is not causally prior to, the state of affairs described in q; the use of predictive hypothetical forms invites an interpretation wherein the order p and q iconically represents the causal and temporal sequence of events. Thus the hypothetical forms require that both sentences be re-interpreted as representative of a different order of events, and the resulting sentence is difficult to interpret because such an order seems implausible'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 88). According to Dancygier, if the epistemic conditionals are used with hypothetical forms then they would loose their epistemic interpretation. Dancygier maintains that epistemic conditionals can't e used with hypothetical forms.

There are some clear ways to illustrate epistemic/inferential relations. ''The epistemic status of assumptions expressed in the main clauses of epistemic constructions may be revealed in the fact that they are often closely equivalent to rephrasing with the epistemic modal must. The epistemic character of the link between the if-clause and the main clause is also revealed in the possibility of replacing simple then with the phrase then it means that'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 88). Dancygier suggests that an easy way to figure out if a sentence shows epistemic/inferential relationship is to rephrase the sentence with then it means that or the epistemic modal must. The rephrasing of the sentences can help us label the epstemic/inferential conditionals easily as in the examples given below.

Example:

a) If Shegnan is late, she must have gone to the dentist; If Anne is wearing a wedding ring, she and Brad Pitt must have finally got married; If they left from Spokane at nine, they must have arrived to Turkey by now.

b) If Shegnan is late, (then) it means that she went to the dentist; If Anne is wearing a wedding ring, (then) it means that she and Brad Pitt finally got married; If they left from Spokane at nine, (then) it means that they have arrived to Turkey by now.

(Dancygier, 1998, p.88)

So, Sweetser paraphrases the epistemic conditionals as ''If I know [protasis], then I conclude [apodosis]'' (Dancygier, 1998, p.88).

4. Speech act relations

Sweetser's idea about speech act domains was addressed on page 5 but now the relation of his speech acts will be discussed with more examples according to other linguists' arguments. In her book Dancygier (1998) gives some examples about what other linguists think about speech act relations how she agrees with them or not. According to Van der Auwera (1986) the conditional speech acts are;

> Sentences in which the protasis is asserted to be a sufficient condition for a speech act about the apodosis. They are opposed to other conditionals, referred to as speech acts about conditionals, with respect to the way in which the utterance receives its speech act interpretation: A speech act about a conditional is a speech actwhose propositional content is a conditional'' (cited in Dancygier, 1998, p. 89).

Examples:

a) If you buy a house, will you redecorate it yourself?

According to Dancygier (1998), there is a conditional relation between buying a house and redecorating it oneself.

b) I'll help you with the dishes if that's all right with you.

c) Take out the garbage, if I may ask you to.

d) If I may ask, where were you last night?

As I have addressed before on page 5 Sweetser refers to sentences like (b) and (c) as conditionals in the speech act domain and paraphrases them by: '' If [protasis], then let us consider that I perform this speech act (i.e., the one presented as the apodosis)'' (Sweetser, 1990, p.121). Dancygier supports Sweetser's idea by saying '' In either interpretation, the protases of such sentences are largely independent of the content of their apodoses, and the propositional content of the sentence as a whole does not contain assumptions of sequentiality and causality between states of affairs described'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 89)

However, Dancygier also notes that,

> even if the hearers of utterances like (b) and (d) appear to be highly uncooperative, in both a linguistic and social sense, and say something like No,   it's not all right, or No, you may not ask, this would rather be interpreted as a   rejection of the offer, a refusal to act or give an answer, not as invalidating the condition on which the speech act was supposedly contingent. We would not expect the speakers (b)-(d) to look for other conditions which would eventually enable them to perform the speech acts they want, but to take No for an answer. Also, it seems that the hearer can reject the condition and still react positively to the speech act. In the case of (d), for instance, the answer may be In fact I don't think you have a right to ask, but I can tell you anyway- I had a date with Tom''   (Dancygier, 1998, p. 90).

According to Dancygier, the causal relation here does not seem to appear in the interpretation. Dnacygier maintains that causality may not necessarily to be part of the sentence as Sweetser had mentioned before. She also supports her own idea and disagrees with Sweetser to some extent by arguing that ''the status of if-clauses in speech act conditionals is therefore nebulous. They don't in fact suspend the performance of the speech act intended in the apodosis as Sweetser says, but function to give the hearer some option in reacting to the speech act performed, to make the utterance more polite or appropriate'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 90).

Speech acts in conditional sentences can be talked about in terms of formal sentence types too. ''The major groups of acts such as saying, asking, and telling are performed conditionally with the use of specialized expressions: if I may ask can accompany a question, if I may ask you to- an imperative, if I may say so-a declarative statement'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 90). Dancygier suggests that conditions on speech acts are better viewed in terms of types of speech acts commented upon than formal sentence types and they are also concerned with politeness. Dancygier maintains that politeness and speech act types are also a part of conditionals.

Another important consideration is the case of non-predictive construction in speech acts.

> Past forms of models, such as might, could, or would, are often encountered in conditional speech acts, but they are used as expressions of politeness, and thus are frequently found in if-clauses: I'll get it for you if you'd like to wait; Give me a ring, if I might/could ask you to, etc. Such forms invoke distance to indicate politeness, but

it is not the hypothetical distance postulated for predictive conditionals'' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 92).

Dancygier states that conditional speech acts are non-predictive constructions, and there are no restrictions on the verb forms used in both clauses.

However, Dancygier notes that among non-predictive constructions, speech acts can be distinguished by some features: ''The specific status of the assumption expressed in the if-clause and the form of the construction which forbids the marking of a closer relationship between the content of p and q: it is not possible to use then in front of q '' (Dancygier, 1998, p. 92). According to Dancygier the impossibility of using then signals that there is no way which the discourse segment it introduces can be seen to follow the preceding one. This feature enables the speech acts to be different from non-predictive constructions.

The last consideration about the speech act conditionals is the clause order which is flexible. ''It is equally acceptable for the if-clause to occur before the main clause or after it, as in I can type for you, if you'd like me to/ If you'd like me to, I can type it for you'' (Dancygier, 1998, p.92). According to Dancygier the clause order in speech act conditionals marks the assumptions in p and q independently. Dancygier maintains that overall; speech acts in conditional receive a great deal of consideration.

Turkish:

It will be briefly illustrated how these theories can be shown in Turkish so that it would be helpful to explain the English conditional theories to Turkish speakers.

The basic types of conditional sentences in English according to Foley and Hall (2003) and their Turkish translations.

zero conditional	Possible at any time, but most commonly in the present: **T.** *Kopeginiz depresyonday**sa**, buyuk ihtimalle daha cok egzersize ihtiyaci var.* **E.** ('**If your dog is depressed**, he probably needs more exercise.')
first conditional	Possible in the future. **T.** *Grup devrilir**se**, menejeri isten cikartacaklar.* **E.** ('**If the single flops**, they'll sack their manager.')
second conditional	Impossible in the present/possible (but improbable) in the future: **T.** *Biraz daha iyi ol**sa**n, o bu kadar zit olmazdi.* **E.** ('**If you were a bit nicer**, he wouldn't get so cross.')

third conditional	Impossible in the past: **T.** *Kapiya bak**s**aydin, o gitmis olmazdi.* **E.** ('**If you had answered the door**, she wouldn't have gone away again.')

In the table given above it is possible to say that Turkish conditional sentences are very similar to the English ones. If is shown through the auxiliary –se/-sa in Turkish. Other than that tenses and the meaning of the four basic types are the same. Below are more examples of the theories that English linguists discuss.

Examples of the three basic domains according to Sweetser (1990) in Turkish:

1) Content Domain:

T. Mary giderse, Nicole da gider.

E. ('If Mary goes, Nicole will go.')

The meaning is the same in both languages and is shown through the auxiliary –se in Turkish. As I have addressed before on page 4 there is a content domain in both languages according to Sweetser (1990).

2) Epistemic Domain:

T. Lei partiye gittiyse, Kelly'i kizdirmaga calisyordur.

E. ('If Lei went to that party, (then) he was trying to infuriate Kelly.')

The meaning is the same in both languages and is shown through the auxiliary –se in Turkish. As I have treated this kind of domain before on page 5, we can label both the Turkish and the English sentences as examples of the epistemic domain according to Sweetser (1990).

3) Speech act Domain.

T. Yapmaniz icin sormadiysam, lutfen gitmeden once ziyaretci defterini imzalayiniz.

E. ('if I haven't already asked you to do so, please sign the guest book before you go')

The meaning is the same in both languages and if is shown through the auxiliary –se in Turkish. As I have dealt with the speech act domain on page 6, both of these sentences can be labeled under the speech act domain according to Sweetser (1990).

Epistemic Stance in Turkish according to Dancygier's idea:

T. 11:30 trenini yakalarsam/ yakalasam/ yakalamiş olsaydim, toplantiya zamaninda gidecegim/ giderim/ gitmis olurdum.

E. ('If I catch/ caught/ had caught the 11:30 train, I will get / would get/ would have gotten to the meeting on time.')

(Dancygier, 1998, p. 7).

I have discussed the epistemic stance before on page 7 so according to that data the epistemic stance in both languages seems very similar, the tenses are the same, and the meaning is the same hence Turkish speakers would not have any problems with the epistemic stance according to Dancygier (1998).

Example Turkish Sentences for further relations of conditionals:

a) Sequentialty:

T. Suyu kaynatirsan, buharlasir.

E. ('if you boil water, it vaporizes.')

According to Dancygier (1998), sequentiality in generic sentences is possible so both of these sentences are sequential, see pages 8-9 for more information.

b) Causality:

T. Kendini daha iyi hissedersen, yuruyuşe gideriz.

E. ('If you feel better, we'll go for a walk.')

Her feeling better would enable us to go for a walk so both the Turkish and the English sentences can be labeled under causality according to Dancygier (1998), see pages 10-12 for details.

c) Epistemic/inferential relations:

T. Can oraya gittiyse, olanlari gordu.

E. ('If Can went there, he saw what happened.')

According to Dancygier (1998) and Sweetser (1990), the speaker makes inferences based on previously mentioned assumptions, see pages 13-14 for details.

d) Speech act relations:

T. Sizi bir sekilde kizdirdiysam, ozur dilerim.

E. ('If I've offended you in any way, I'm very sorry.')

In these conditional sentences, speech act relation can be seen according to Dancygier (1998) and Sweetser (1990) see page 15 for details.

Also see Appendix A for extra examples of Turkish Conditional Sentences.

Conclusion and probable error(s) that Turkish speakers might encounter while forming a conditional sentence:

As from the examples being illustrated and discussed the theories of conditionals, it is argued that Turkish is very similar to English when one considers the relations of conditional sentences. However, Turkish speakers tend to form incorrect conditional sentences in English on some occasions as in the example given by Swan and Smith. ''If I had been English I would have missed the sun'' (Swan & Smith, 2001, p.220). In Turkish, according to Swan and Smith, the use of the unreal form for present unreal if they really are unfulfillable causes Turkish speakers to form incorrect sentences. The correct form of the sentence should be If I were English I would miss the sun. I was a Turkish speaker and believe this is valid because in Turkish we do not have differences between where and had been so it might be confusing for Turkish students to understand the difference in English.

Example:

English   Turkish

a) ('If I were')   olsaydim

b) ('If I had been')   olsaydim

This type of error seems to be crucial in that the sentence would not mean the same, the tenses would be different thus the relations being discussed would not be reflected correctly. So, one cannot decide the epistemic stance theory, domain theories, or relationships between the conditionals according to the incorrect form of a conditional sentence like the given above.

REFERENCES

Bennett, J. (2003). A Philosophical Guide to Conditionals. Oxford University Press.

Celce-Murcia, M. and Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999).The Grammar Book: An ESL/EFL Teacher's Course. 2nd ed. Heinle & Heinle.

Dancygier, B. (1998) Conditionals and prediction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fillmore, Ch. (1990). Epistemic stance and grammatical form in English conditional sentences. In M. Ziolkowski, M. Noske, and K.Deaton (eds.), Papers from the 26th Regional Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society. Chicago Linguistic Society, 137-62.

Foley, M. and Hall D, (2003). Advanced Learner's Grammar. Longman Press.

Jackson, F. (1987). Conditionals. Oxford/New York Press: Basil. Blackwell.

Lightbrown, P.M., and N. Spada (1993). How Languages are Learned. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sosa, E. (1975). Causation and conditionals. Oxford University Press.

Swan, M. and Smith, B. (2001).Learner English: A teacher's guide to interference and other problems. 2nd ed. Cambridge University Press.

Sweetser, E. (1990). From Etymology to Pragmatics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Van der Auwera, J. (1986) ''Conditionals and speech acts.'' In E.C. Traugott, A.ter Meulen, J. Snitzer Reilly, and C.A. Ferguson (eds.), 197-214.

Appendix A

Extra examples of Turkish Conditional Sentences:

According to the website learning practical Turkish.com, it is possible to draw a chart and illustrate some Turkish conditional sentences as the ones below.

Indicative Mood Past Definite, Compound Conditional Tense	*Past Definite, Compound Conditional -- Negative*
geldiysem -- ('**if** I came, if I have come')	*gelmediysem* -- ('**if** I have**n't** come')
geldiysen -- ('**if** you came, if you have come')	*gelmediysen* -- ('**if** you have**n't** come')
geldiyse -- ('**if** he came, if he has come')	*gelmediyse* -- ('**if** he has**n't** come')
geldiysek -- ('**if** we came, if we have come')	*gelmediysek* -- ('**if** we have**n't** come')
geldiyseniz -- ('**if** you came, if you have come')	*gelmediyseniz* -- ('**if** you have**n't** come')
geldiyseler -- ('**if** they came, if they have come')	*gelmediyseler* -- ('**if** they have**n't** come')

http://www.learningpracticalturkish.com/turkish-verb--past-def-comp-cond.html

Example Sentences:

1) Note: Content domain can be seen in these sentences according to Sweetser (1990).

T. Bill Bey size geldiyse, bize de uğrasın.

E. ('If (Mr.) Bill has come (to see you), tell him to call on us, too.')

2) Note: Speech act domain can be seen in these sentences according to Sweetser (1990).

T.Bu kitabı okumadıysanız, lutfen okuyunuz.

E. ('If you haven't read this book, please read it.')

3) Note: Epistemic domain can be seen in these sentences according to Sweetser (1990).

T. Jane dün okula gelmediyse, mutlaka hastadır.

E. ('If Jane didn't come to school yesterday, she must have been sick.')

4) Note: This verb construction is hardly ever used, but may be seen infrequently in the following type of conversation between two people...

Person #1: T. Dolapta biraları içtiyseniz yandınız!

E. ('If you drank [all] the beer in the fridge, then you'll be wiped out.')

Person #2: T. Içtiysek mi? Ne olmuş yani, alt tarafa 8 - 10 şişe bira.

E. ('If I drank it [all]? What's the big, deal...It's only about 8 or 10 beers.')

5) Note: This verb construction is hardly ever used, but may be seen infrequently in the following type of conversation between two people...

Person #1: T. Ocağı kapatmayı iyiki unutmadın, ben herzaman unuturum.

E. ('You didn't forget to turn off the oven [did you?]. I'm always forgetting.')

Person #2: T.Ya kapatmadıysam?

E. ('And if I didn't turn [it] off?')

Person #1: T. Kapatmadıysan mi? Bütün evi havaya uçururuz!

E. ('If you didn't turn it off? Why we'll lose our house [it will disapper]!')

Person #2: T. Şaka, şaka...Kapatmaz olur muyum hiç, tabii ki kapattim.

E. ('I'm just kidding! Would I forget to shut [it] off? Of course I shut it off...')