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Conditional Clauses in English

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Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto bakalářskou práci vypracoval samostatně pouze s využitím uvedených pramenů a literatury.

V Olomouci 20. 4. 2023

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Rád bych poděkoval Mgr. Blance Babické, PhD za cenné rady, věcné připomínky a ochotu při konzultacích bakalářské práce.

Note with regard to examples: All examples used in the theoretical section that do not have a reference were created by the author of the thesis.

Abstract

This bachelor's thesis provides a comprehensive overview of conditional clauses in English. The theoretical section presents an in-depth classification of conditional clauses based on the work of Quirk et al. (1986). This section aims to introduce readers to the various types of conditions and their appropriate usage in different contexts. Additionally, conditionals are also discussed in terms of conditional subordinators.

The practical part of the thesis focuses on comparing the frequency and use of conditional clauses in an academic and a literary text using the classification framework defined in the theoretical section. The aim is to analyse the frequency and to discuss the various uses of conditionals in the sample texts. The main differences were found in the overall frequency of conditional clauses in the corpus, resulting in conditionals being more frequent in the literary text. Other significant difference was found in the use of conditionals. In the academic text, conditionals were mostly used for presenting factual information, while in the literary text they were rather used in direct speech or to convey the characters' thoughts and ideas.

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1 Introduction

The main purpose of this thesis is to provide a detailed overview of conditional clauses used in English. Conditionals are an important part of the language, and are often used in both written and spoken form. Regularly, they are misused and misunderstood as some constructions may be fairly complex. Nonetheless, they are an essential component of one's ability to express themselves in the language.

There is also personal motivation behind my choice of topic. I have always been fascinated by conditionals because in English, there are so many ways how to convey conditionality. Although the First, Second and Third conditional classification that is commonly taught at most schools is sufficient for the basic understanding of conditionals, it does not cover all the possibilities whatsoever. Therefore, I believe there is need for a somewhat more complex and comprehensive taxonomy.

In the theoretical section, an in-depth examination and classification of conditional clauses will be provided. To accomplish this, various viewpoints from a range of authors have been synthesized. The main classification used is based on the work of Quirk et al. (1986), which serves as a foundation for the classification system presented. The section aims to introduce readers to the various types of conditions that exist, and their appropriate usage in different contexts. For better understanding, explanatory examples will be included. Furthermore, different ways of modifying conditionals will be discussed with special focus on conditional subordinators, modal verbs, the mood or ellipsis and how these changes modify the meaning.

The practical part focuses on the differences in frequency and use of conditional clauses in an academic and a literary text. The framework for classification of conditionals is defined in the theoretical part. The corpus consists of two texts of approx. 50 standard pages – one literary and the other academic. The main aim is to compare the general frequency of conditionals, the frequency of the different types and subordinators, and to discuss and analyse the various uses in the sample texts.

2 Conditional clauses

Conditional clauses are a type of subordinate clauses. According to Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 747) they describe an outcome of a situation, possible or impossible, imagined by the speaker. Both the situation and its consequence can be related to past, present or future. The whole sentence is called a *matrix clause*, which then consists of a *main clause* and a *subordinate clause* (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 47; Berk, 1999, p. 297). Typically, these two are separated by a *subordinator* which carries conditionality (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 747).

Carter, McCarthy (2006, p. 747) and Greenbaum (1991, p. 316) all agree that *if* is the most common conditional subordinating conjunction. If the matrix clause starts with a subordinate clause, it is necessary to insert a comma before the beginning of the main clause (Swan, 2016, p. 359). However, some of the examples used do not follow this rule. That is because they are directly cited from older sources. The schema below illustrates how a subordinate clause is embedded into the matrix clause. Furthermore, it shows the proper use of a comma with conditional sentences. Different clauses are marked as shown below.

Matrix clause – [...]

Main clause – {...}

Subordinate clause – (...)

Subordinator/subordinating conjunction – if

e.g., “[{ *I will buy a new car* } if (*I earn enough money*).]”

e.g., “[If (*I earn enough money*), { *I will buy a new car* }.]”

To avoid confusion it is necessary to mention that in some older resources the terms *main clause* and *matrix clause* are interchanged, meaning that the matrix clause is embedded in the main clause. Main clause is sometimes referred to as a *superordinate clause*. For example Quirk et al. (1986, p. 991) uses this terminology as can be seen in Figure 1.

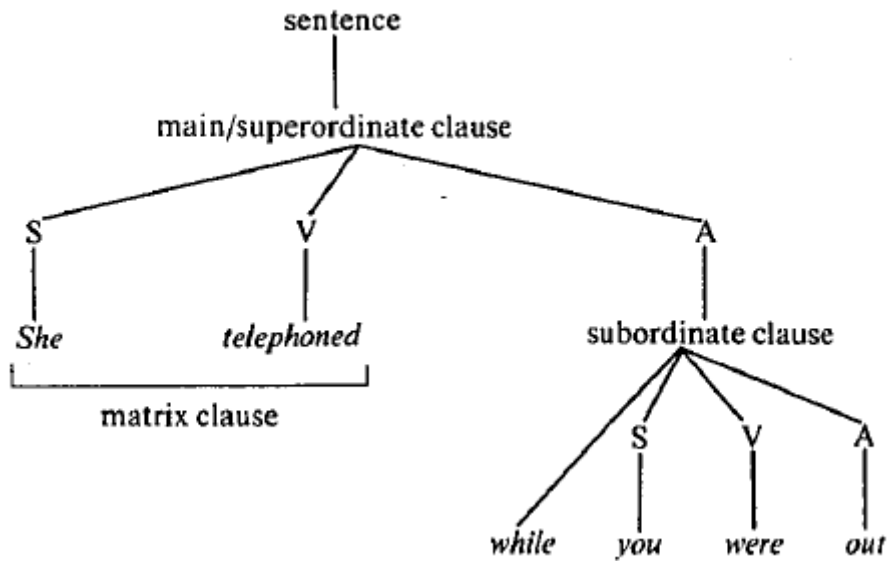


Figure 1 : Sentence structure (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 991)

In this thesis the terminology will be limited to that by Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 47) as it is more recent and more commonly used.

2.1 Condition, conditional and conditional clause

Condition – A requirement or a factor that must be met or considered for something to happen or to be proven (Crystal, 2008, p. 99).

Conditional – A grammatical term which describes a subordinate clause that delivers certain condition. It is usually preceded by a conditional subordinator for instance *if, in case, provided that, on condition that* etc. (Crystal, 2008, p. 99)

Conditional clause – A sentence that defines conditions which must be met in order for the terms given in the main clause to happen (Berk, 1999, p. 292).

3 Conditionals and their types

According to Declerck (2001, p. 15), the literature on conditionals includes various attempts to create a clear classification system, but these efforts have only been partially successful. The problem is that a single typology cannot account for all the different aspects and factors involved in conditionals. Therefore, we should consider multiple typologies to fully understand the complexity of conditionals.

In this thesis categorization by several different authors will be considered, with special focus on typology as viewed by Quirk et al. (1986, pp. 1088-1097) . Quirk et al. (1986, p. 1088) distinguishes two major groups of conditions – *direct* and *indirect*.

3.1 Direct conditions

The larger of the two categories includes all conditions where the realization of the outcome presented in the main clause depends on the fulfilment of the action introduced in the conditional structure (Quirk et al., 1986, pp. 1088-1089). Quirk et al. (1986, p. 1091) further subdivides direct conditions into *open* and *hypothetical*. Open conditions suggest a decent possibility that the condition might be fulfilled. On the contrary, hypothetical conditions are virtually impossible to happen and are mere speculations about unrealistic situations. Hypothetical conditions are also referred to by Huddleston and Pullum (2005, p. 306) as remote conditions.

Open condition

e.g., “*If it rains tomorrow, I’ll stay in*”

Hypothetical condition

e.g., “*If it had rained on Sunday, I’d have stayed in*”

In the first example, the speaker talks about a future event that has not happened yet. It is equally possible that it will rain as that it will not. Therefore, the speaker specifies what he/she will do in each of the possibilities. Hence, this condition is classified as open because both the possibilities are feasible.

In the second example, the speaker talks about a day in the past. In reality, it did not rain on that day. However, the speaker speculates about his actions if the reality had been different and

it actually rained. Therefore, this condition is classified as hypothetical or remote because the event already happened and it cannot be altered.

Swan (2016, p. 358), Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 748) mention further division of the direct conditions into *First*, *Second* and *Third* Conditionals. This division is most widely used in textbooks, however it only covers some specific types of direct conditionals. According to Swan (2016, p. 358) not even 25% of conditional structures commonly used fit the standard first, second and third conditional distribution. This is partially compensated for by adding more subgroups as *zero*, *mixed* or *rhetorical* conditions, yet there are still some unique cases which remain further unclassified.

3.1.1 Open conditions

The nature of open conditions is usually neutral. They do not suggest whether the condition is fulfilled or not. Consequently, the reality presented in the main clause remains also unresolved as it is dependent on the realisation of the condition (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1091).

3.1.1.1 The Zero/Real Conditional

Nettle, Hopkins (2003, p. 140) and Herring (2016, p. 284) recognize the Zero conditional, sometimes referred to as a real conditional by Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 749). The Zero conditional describes generic truths, laws of nature or generally speaking, situations that are always valid. The sentence uses *present simple* tense in both the main and the subordinate clause.

Present simple – present simple

e.g., “*If you heat water to 100°C, it boils.*”

This sentence describes physical law which cannot be changed. There is no doubt or space for speculations (under normal conditions) that if water is heated to 100°C, it boils. The Zero Conditional, though, is not solely limited to laws.

e.g., “*If John eats chicken, it is with rice.*”

This sentence describes a personal rule which John always obeys. Every time he eats chicken, he only eats it with rice.

e.g., *“If I eat peanuts, my face gets swollen.”*

The last example describes a general truth. The speaker is allergic to peanuts and therefore, every time he/she eats some, a certain part of his/her body swells.

3.1.1.2 The First Conditional

The First Conditional deals with situations where the fulfilment of the condition is realistically possible. Both the condition and the outcome are situated in the future. The main clause is formed using “*will + infinitive*” while the subordinate clause is built using the *present simple* tense (Swan, 2016, p. 358).

e.g., *“I will eat the lunch if I am hungry”*.

Will + inf. – present simple

e.g., *“If we play tennis, I’ll win.”* (Swan, 2016, p. 358)

Present simple – will + inf.

The sentence suggests that if the condition is met (playing tennis), the result (winning) will certainly occur. However, whether or not the condition is fulfilled remains unresolved.

3.1.1.3 Other tenses

Open conditions are not only limited to the tenses used in the Zero or First Conditionals. Aside from them, there is a variety of other conditional structures in English that use different tenses and convey diverse conditionality. For example:

Past simple – past simple

e.g., *“If it rained, they probably didn’t go out.”*

Speculation about the past with an unknown result.

Past simple – will + infinitive

e.g., *“If he overslept this morning, he won’t come in time.”*

Speculation about a past action with a future consequence.

Present continuous – present continuous

e.g., “*If you’re getting backache all the time, then you’re not sitting properly.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 749)

A repeated condition resulting in a repeated consequence.

Present continuous – will + infinitive

e.g., “*If you are lying, I will never forgive you*”

A continuous action resulting in a future outcome.

Present simple – past simple

e.g., “*If John is not in London, he deceived us.*”

A present condition with a past outcome.

Present simple + going to

e.g., “*If you want to go on holiday, you’re going to need more money.*”

Going to is a substitution for will which conveys more certainty.

3.1.2 Hypothetical conditions

Hypothetical or remote condition suggests that the requirement proposed in the subordinate clause will not be met (future), is not met (present), was not met (past) or that it is highly improbable (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1091).

3.1.2.1 The Second Conditional

The Second Conditional describes unrealistic situations and their possible outcomes which both refer to the present time. The main clause is created with the *past simple* whereas the conditional clause uses *would + infinitive* (Swan, 2016, p. 358).

e.g., “*If it rained, I would stay in.*” (Carter, Hughes and McCarthy, 2000)

Past simple – would + inf.

The speaker is not stating that it is currently raining, but rather presenting a hypothetical scenario and its potential outcome.

Instead of the singular past form *was* of the verb *to be*, the subjunctive *were* can be used to deliver a higher degree of formality (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 751). Both versions are equally correct in singular form with one exception. In conditions starting with *If I were you...* the subjunctive is strongly preferred as it is a fixed idiomatic expression (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1094). This idiom is usually used to give advice (Swan, 2016, pp. 363-364).

e.g., “*If I was/were in London, I would visit the London Eye.*”

e.g., “*I wouldn’t do that if I were you.*”

e.g., “~~*I wouldn’t do that if I was you.*~~”

3.1.2.2 The Third Conditional

The Third Conditional covers unrealistic situations and their possible consequences that might or might not have happened in the past. In reality the condition can never be accomplished and the outcome reached, as they both refer to the past which cannot be altered. The main clause is formed with the *past perfect* tense and the subordinate clause with *would have + perfect infinitive verb* (Wetsby, 2016, p. 13).

Past perfect – would have + perfect infinitive verb

e.g., “*If it had rained, I would have stayed in.*” (Carter, Hughes and McCarthy, 2000)

In this example, the speaker is talking about a past event (the possibility of rain) and what they would have done in response to it (staying in). As in the case of the Second Conditional, the situation is purely hypothetical.

3.1.2.3 Mixed conditionals

Falla et al. (2017, p. 90) points out that the Second and Third Conditional clauses are often combined to form so-called mixed conditionals. These newly created clauses retain hypothetical meaning. They can be formed in two ways.

Past perfect – would + inf.

e.g., *“If he’d read the map, we wouldn’t be lost.”* (Falla et al., 2017, p. 90)

The subordinate clause refers to an action that should have been done in the past to avoid the present consequence in the main clause.

Past simple – would have + past participle

e.g., *“If he could drive, he’d have got the job.”* (Falla et al., 2017, p. 90)

The main clause refers to a past result of a present condition. The condition has not changed to this day – the person was not able to drive in the past and that inability continues to the present. Therefore, this type of mixed conditional is mainly used to describe conditions which affect past decisions or actions and are still valid in the present.

3.1.2.4 Rhetorical conditional

Although the expression has the appearance of an open condition, in reality rhetorical conditional clauses state a firm claim. There are two different varieties. In the first the claim is deduced from the subordinate clause and in the second it is obtained from the main clause (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1094).

The former type suggests an obviously absurd condition which is undoubtedly false. Therefore, the claim in the main clause is also false.

e.g., *“If she doesn't get first prize, she's no daughter of yours.”* (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1094)

In this example it is obvious that she is his daughter, so it is also apparent that she will definitely get the first prize.

e.g., *“If you believe that, you'll believe anything.”* (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1094)

This rhetorical condition proposes that the addressed person will believe absolutely everything because he/she believes this.

The latter type gives a condition that is undoubtedly true. Hence, the claim in the main clause must be true as well (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 742).

e.g., *“She’s eighty if she’s a day.”* (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 742)

This rhetorical condition politely suggests that she is eighty years old. The condition *if she is a day* is obviously true and hence the fact that *she is eighty* stated in the main clause must be also true (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 742).

e.g., “*The painting must be worth a thousand dollars if it's worth a cent.*” (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1095)

The last example illustrates a situation where the speaker is absolutely certain that the painting is worth a thousand dollars, based on the premise that it is worth at least an absurdly small amount ("a cent").

3.2 Indirect conditions

On the contrary to direct conditions where the action is directly dependant on fulfilling the condition, indirect conditions are not. Quirk et al. (1986, p. 1089) claims that indirect conditions are not in any way related to the main clause. This is a marginal use of conditional structures and direct conditionals are by far more commonly used. Dušková et al. (1994, p. 639) adds that the conditional clause in this case has a function of a sentence modifier. The main reason of the modifier is to convey certain politeness.

e.g., “*She's far too considerate, if I may say so.*” (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1089)

The purpose of the subordinate conditional clause is to make the claim proposed in the main clause more polite. It also suggests that it is based on the speaker's subjective perspective and might not be objectively true.

Except for politeness, indirect conditions may also convey uncertainty of the speaker. If the speaker's utterance is not accurate enough, by using condition misunderstanding can be avoided (Quirk et al., 1986, pp. 1095-1096).

e.g., “*The Big Bang Theory of the origin of the universe bears a startling resemblance to the description of creation in Genesis, if one may put it so.*” (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1096)

The subordinate clause suggests that the speaker is not completely sure about his claim and asks for agreement, disagreement or correction from the hearer.

The uncertainty of extralinguistic knowledge may also be expressed by conditional. In such case, both the speaker's and the hearer's doubts can be suggested. Commonly used expressions are for example *if I'm correct*, *if I understand it correctly*, *if you remember or in case you don't remember* (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1096).

e.g., *"I met your girl friend Caroline last night, if Caroline is your girl friend."* (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1096)

The conditional in this example is used to express a certain degree of the speaker's uncertainty and suggests that he/she is not sure whether Caroline is the hearer's girlfriend or not.

e.g., *"Einstein's theory of gravitation is based on a mathematical concept, if you've not forgotten already."* (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1096)

This conditional clause gives the utterance an ironical subtext because the speaker questions the hearer's knowledge about Einstein's theory.

Sometimes the speaker makes his statement under certain conditions. These are expressed in the conditional phrase (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1096).

e.g., *"If you want to borrow a shoe brush, there's one in the bathroom."* (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1096)

In this example, the speaker gives the hearer permission to use his shoe brush and also tells him where it can be found.

3.2.1 If need be

The structure *if need be* is sometimes used in literature (Declerck, 2001, p. 125; Dušková et al., 1994, p. 639). This construction is preferred only in written English in literary style.

e.g., *"If need be, you can use my bike."*

3.2.2 If...will

Considering indirect conditionals, it is possible to use *will* in the subordinate clauses in some cases. According to Swan (2016, p. 365), if the proposition presented in the subordinate clause

is a result of an action presented in the main clause, it is correct to use *will* in the conditional sentence.

e.g., “*I’ll give you £100 if it’ll help you to get home.*” (Swan, 2016, p. 365)

As a result of the speaker giving the hearer £100, the hearer will go back home. The second example shows the difference with a direct condition.

e.g., “*I’ll give you £100 if it helps you to get home.*”

The hearer will get £100 only if it helps him to get home. If it does not, he/she will get nothing.

Will is also possible to be used in subordinate clauses to make a polite inquiry (Dušková et al., 1994, p. 639).

e.g., “*If you’ll excuse me I’ll go and finish my packing.*” (Dušková et al., 1994, p. 639)

4 Modifications

Conditionals can be modified in many ways. Namely by changing *modal verbs*, altering the *subordinator*, *inverting*, using *ellipsis* or changing the *mood* of the sentence.

4.1 Modality

Modal verbs are often used to modify the meaning and the level of certainty or politeness. Gabrielatos (2019, pp. 324-326) conducted research in the *Journal of English Linguistics* which found that the use of clauses that convey conditionality with *if* have the highest level of modality compared to other conditional structures. Additionally, the research pointed out that modals in combination with conditional clauses are used with higher frequency compared to all other non-conditional structures (Gabrielatos, 2019, pp. 324-326).

4.1.1 Modal verbs in main clause

Modal verbs, such as *can/could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should* or *ought to* are used in the main clause to express a certain degree of probability, politeness or to give advice. Declerck (2001, p. 127) claims that generally there are no specific restrictions for using modals as long as they fit the meaning of the clause.

e.g., “*If you have toothache as bad as that, you must go to a dentist today.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 749)

Must in the main clause has almost imperative meaning. It is used to give very pressing advice.

e.g., “*If you saw a black truck, it can't have been Johnny.*”

Modal verbs can also refer to the past to convey probability of some event that is dependent on a condition.

e.g., “*If there are any questions, I shall be glad to answer them.*” (Dušková et al., 1994, p. 638)

In this case, “*I shall be glad*” replaces “*I will be glad*” or “*I am glad*” in order to make the sentence more polite.

e.g., “*If you had time, you should have seen the museum.*”

The use of *should* in this sentence expresses an unrealized past possibility or regret, implying that the person had the opportunity to see the museum but he/she missed it. It also conveys a sense of advice, suggesting that it would have been a good idea for the person to see the museum if they had the chance.

4.1.2 Modal verbs in the subordinate clause

Modal verbs are usually restricted to be used in the subordinate conditional clauses, though, there are some exceptions (see chapter Indirect conditions). Generally speaking, *will* or *would*, which are the mostly used modals, may be substituted with some of the modals mentioned above. According to Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 752), modals in subordinate clauses are used specifically if the speaker wants to express politeness or if the conditional conveys willingness or prediction.

e. g., “I’ll do it for you, if you could just wait a minute.” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 750)

In this sentence *could* marks politeness.

e. g., “*If you should run into Peter, tell him to call me.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 750)

In this example *should* indicates that the speaker believes the likelihood of *running into Peter* is very remotely possible (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 750).

4.2 Subordinating conjunction

Even though *if* is by far the most common subordinator used with conditional clauses, there are many other conjunctions which also convey conditionality. *If* and *unless*, which is also very common, are not solely restricted to finite clauses compared to other subordinators (Greenbaum, 1991, p. 316; Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1090).

4.2.1 Unless, if...not, except if

Unless, if...not and *except if* have very similar meaning, therefore often times they can be used interchangeably (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752). However, as Dušková et al. (1994, p.

639) points out *unless* and *except if* are more specific than *if...not*. Therefore, in some sentences they are not mutually substitutable.

e. g., “*Let's have dinner out - unless you're too tired.*” (Swan, 2016, p. 369)

e. g., “*If you can't reduce the weight of that case, I'm afraid you won't be allowed on the flight.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752)

e. g., “*I always think Dave would be happier if he didn't work so hard.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752)

e. g., “~~*I always think Dave would be happier unless he worked so hard.*~~” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752)

The reason why this is not possible is that in reality Dave works hard and *unless* is used specifically for conditions that describe events that did not happen (or are very unlikely) (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752). In other words, *unless* and *if...not* can be interchanged only in the meaning of *except if* (Swan, 2016, p. 369).

4.2.2 Only if, even if

Only works as a focusing adverb and it highlights the subordinate clause (Declerck, 2001, p. 28; Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 746). The use of *even* makes the sentence more emphatic (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 751). Declerck (2001, p. 286) further specifies that *even if* also suggests expected incompatibility.

e. g., “*You can play games only if you have done your homework*”

In this example, *only* gives a little more focus on the condition. The phrase *only if* may also occur separated (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 751).

e. g., “*They'll only let you check in if you've got a passport or photo ID.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 751)

e. g., “*Even if you flew business class, it would still be an exhausting journey.*”

4.2.3 If only

Clauses with *if only* often stand on their own and do not include a main clause. They deliver a remote condition. The meaning conveyed is that the speaker wishes something to be changed (usually to become better). This structure is very similar to *I wish* constructions (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 751; Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1092; Swan, 2016, p. 364).

e. g., “*If only I was better-looking.*” (Swan, 2016, p. 364)

The speaker is not content with his/her appearance and wishes it to be more attractive.

4.2.4 On condition that, in the event of, in the event that

All three subordinators are most frequently used in formal written English (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 753).

e. g., “*I’ll give you the day off on condition that you work on Saturday morning.*” (Swan, 2016, p. 364)

e. g., “*In the event that the plane lands on water, life-jackets are located under every seat.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 753)

e. g., “*In the event of a sudden loss of cabin pressure, oxygen masks will be lowered automatically from the panel above your seat.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 753)

According to Dušková et al. (1994, p. 640), sentences with subordinator *on condition that* can also be seen as relative clauses. Therefore, there are no restrictions about using *will* in the subordinate clause.

e. g., “*I’ll tell you on condition that you won’t/don’t tell anyone.*” (Dušková et al., 1994, p. 640)

4.2.5 Providing, provided that

According to Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 753), *providing (that)* is preferably used in speech whereas *provided (that)* is more commonly used in written English.

e. g., “*No, providing that you haven’t finished your duties.*”

e. g., “*This article may be freely distributed provided that our copyright is fully*

acknowledged.“ (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 753)

Both subordinator can also be used without *that*.

e. g., “*You can borrow my bike providing/provided you bring it back.*” (Swan, 2016, p. 369)

4.2.6 Given that, granted that

Open conditions might also be introduced by *given that* or *granted that* if the speaker expect them to be fulfilled. These are mostly used for argumentation in formal utterance (Greenbaum, 1991, p. 319; Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1093).

e. g., “*So given that a micrometre is a thousandth of a metre this'll normally be about point two five of a micrometre.*” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 341)

4.2.7 In case (of), lest

In British English *in case* is used for expressing precautions rather than simply replacing *if* Declerck (2001, p. 25), meaning *if there is a chance that something might happen*. On the other hand, in American English it is more often used as a mere substitution for *if*. *Just* is sometimes used with *in case* to note that the condition is unlikely to be met. (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 754; Swan, 2016, p. 370). According to Declerck (2001, p. 25) semantic meaning of *in case* is a combination of *if* with that of *because* or *so that*.

e. g., “*I'll take these shoes with me in case it rains.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 754)

e. g., “*I'll give you the address to give Paul, just in case you bump into him.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 754)

In the following example, *in case* is a synonym for *if*. Similar use is very uncommon in British English.

e. g., “*In case you're free this evening give me a call.*” (Swan, 2016, p. 370)

Lest has almost identical meaning with *in case*, but it is almost exclusively used in formal literary contexts (Declerck, 2001, p. 28).

e. g., “*She threw on a jacket and walked quickly out, head down into her collar, lest anyone should later be able to recognise her.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 755)

According to Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 755) *in case of* is not commonly used with *-ing* forms.

e. g., “*In case of a breakdown, call this number.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 755)

e. g., “~~*In case of breaking down, call this number.*~~” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 755)

4.2.8 As long as, so long as

Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 753) claim that these subordinators are very common in spoken English and can be used for both open and remote conditions.

e. g., “*Use it as you please so long as you give it back.*”

e. g., “*I can work an extra hour as long as I get my coffee.*”

4.2.9 Suppose (that), supposing, assuming

These subordinators are usually used with hypothetical conditions (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 753). Quirk et al. (1986, p. 1093) adds that *assuming* may also be used to introduce open conditions that are expected to be fulfilled.

e. g., “*Assuming we don’t sell the house, we can still move next spring. There are always more buyers in the spring.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 753)

e. g., “*Suppose/Supposing you were confined to bed for a long time, how would you amuse yourself?*” (Dušková et al. 1994, p. 640)

Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 754) emphasize that conditions are not imposed by supposing or assuming.

e. g., “~~*This article may be distributed supposing/assuming our logo is shown.*~~” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 754)

4.2.10 What if?

The expression *What if ...?* is utilized to introduce hypothetical scenarios and to discuss the results of these situations. It is also used to make suggestions (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 755; Swan, 2016, p. 691).

e. g., “*What if we invite your mother next weekend and go away the week after?*” (Swan, 2016, p. 691)

4.2.11 But for

The phrase *but for* is an established expression that signifies *if it were not for*. It is commonly utilized in formal situations and must be succeeded by a noun phrase (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 754).

e. g., “*But for me, you wouldn't make it* “

Meaning, *if it were not for me, you wouldn't make it*.

4.2.12 If...then

If the matrix clause begins with the subordinate clause, then the main clause might be introduced by *then*. Using *then* is not obligatory and it can be omitted. The main reason for using it is to emphasize the proposition in the main clause – similarly as *only if* highlights the subordinate clause (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 755; Swan, 2016, p. 367).

e. g., “*As long as it's okay with you, then I'll stay till Monday.* “ (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 756)

4.2.13 Otherwise

Otherwise can be used to signify a probable result in case a condition is not fulfilled. It has the capacity to introduce the clause that denotes the outcome or, in colloquial spoken language, it can be placed at the end of the sentence (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 754).

e. g., “*I won't give you the solution right away, otherwise you'll learn nothing.* “

This example could be rephrased as *If I give you the solution right away, you will learn nothing*.

e. g., “*Try harder. You will fail otherwise*”

This sentence means *If you do not try harder, you will fail.*

4.2.14 And, or

Russell (2007, p. 1), Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 755) claim that some clauses coordinated with conjunctions *and/or* can also be understood as conditionals. These sentences often deliver a feeling of a warning or a threat. On the other hand, the meaning conveyed can also be positive in the form of a promise (Declerck, 2001, p. 248). Dušková et al. (1994, p. 591) adds that sometimes it is possible to replace *or* with *otherwise/or else*.

e. g., “*I must take a pill or/or else/otherwise I shan't sleep.*” (Dušková et al., 1994, p. 591)

This example can be rephrased as *If I don't take a pill, I can't sleep* (Dušková et al., 1994, p. 591).

e. g., “*Everyone drink another can of beer and we'll set a record.*” (Russell, 2007, p. 1)

This phrase may be interpreted as *If everyone drinks another can of beer, we will set a record* (Russell, 2007, p. 1).

4.2.15 WH-conditionals

A special category are conditionals which contain words such as *whatever, whenever, however, whoever or whichever*. Conditions proposed in these clauses tend to be unchangeable (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752; Greenbaum, 1996, p. 342). Greenbaum (1996, p. 342) also adds that the number of conditions in *WH-conditionals* is not fixed, the only exception being *whichever* that suggest a fixed number of conditions.

e.g., “*Whenever the team loses, they are miserable for the rest of the weekend.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752)

e.g., “*Whatever she says, don't believe it.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752)

e.g., “*However late they arrive, how can we find the time to meet them?*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752)

In these examples, the number of conditions is not limited.

e.g., “*Red or blue whichever you prefer.*”

In this sentence the number of options is limited to two.

I would also add examples beginning with “no matter”, as they have very similar meaning.

e.g., “*No matter what you do, they will lose.*”

The meaning is identical with *Whatever you do, they will lose.*

If two different conditions have the same outcome, constructions as *whether...or* and *whether...or not* might be used (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752).

e.g., “*Whether we drive or go by train, it will still take about four hours.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 752)

e.g., “*It doesn't matter whether you study or not, you will fail anyway.*”

4.3 Ellipsis

Dušková et al. (1994, p. 639), Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 751) all agree that after *if* and *unless* the sentence may appear in an elliptical form, omitting the *subject* and the *finite verb*.

e. g., “*Unless taken four times a day, the pills have little effect.*” (Dušková et al., 1994, p. 639)

It is also possible for a *not-finite* conditional clause to use ellipsis (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 751).

e. g., “*If paying by direct debit, please make sure that you notify your bank at least one month in advance.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 751)

4.4 Inversion

Conditionality can be delivered entirely without using any subordinating or coordinating conjunction. This can be achieved by inverting the sentence. That is usually only possible for verbs *had*, *should* and *were* (plural form is used for all persons) (Carter and McCarthy, 2006,

p. 756; Greenbaum, 1996, p. 341; Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1094). Swan (2016, p. 367) also mentions that inversion is mostly used in formal written English.

e. g., “*Had I known, I would have written before.*” (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1094)

e. g., “Should the attempt fail, the whole procedure would have to be repeated” (Dušková et al., 1994, p. 641).

According to Quirk et al. (1986, p. 1094) it is also possible to form inversion also with modals *could* and *might*, yet it is very rare. It is necessary to use *but* or *just* before the lexical verb with these two modals.

e. g., “*Might/Could I but see my native land, I would die a happy man.*” (Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1094)

4.5 Mood

While the declarative mood is commonly used in conditional clauses, it is important to note that other moods such as *imperative*, *interrogative*, and *subjunctive* can also be used to convey different shades of meaning.

4.5.1 The subjunctive form

Another way to make a conditional clause more formal is to use the subjunctive form of the verb. For hypothetical conditions the past subjunctive *were* is mostly used whereas for open conditions the present subjunctive *be* is preferred (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 756; Quirk et al., 1986, p. 1093). Swan (2016, p. 363) adds that for remote conditions *was* is preferred in informal utterance.

On the other hand, *were* is often considered more correct than *was*, especially in American English. Declerck (2001, p. 125) further specifies that modern-day English only allows the use of subjunctives in the subordinate clause. With exception to the past subjunctive *were* used in hypothetical conditions, subjunctive form is sparsely used in contemporary English conditionals (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 745).

e. g., “*If there were any reason to doubt his word, we would ask him to resign.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 756)

e. g., “*I am delighted to see you again, even if it be under such tragic circumstances.*”
(Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 756)

4.5.2 Interrogative and imperative conditionals

Even though main clauses in conditional structures usually tend to be *declarative*, in some cases they can also be *interrogative* or even *imperative* (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 750). For the matrix clause it is possible to begin with both the main clause and the subordinate clause.

e.g., “*If you want to speak to him, why don't you just give him a ring?*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 750)

e.g., “*Would you tell everyone, if you won a huge amount of money on the lottery?*”
(Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 750)

e.g., “*If you get bad migraines, try a homeopathic cure.*” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 750)

e.g., “*Do it if you have the courage*”

Imperative conditionals are only possible in the 2nd person singular and plural. The meaning conveyed by imperatives is a very strong *suggestion (advice)*, *order* or *command* what to do under certain circumstances (Kaufmann, 2009, pp. 242-243; Schwager, 2006, pp. 247-248).

5 Summary

The first two chapters deal with the general idea of conditional clauses and their definition. Conditionals are addressed from the point of view of a sentence structure. Basic nomenclature and terminology is defined and explained.

The classification described in the third chapter is built on the division introduced by Quirk et al. (1986, pp. 1088-1097). The core idea is that conditionals are divided into two major groups: direct and indirect conditionals. Direct conditionals are a much larger group and they are also more frequent in English. In direct conditionals the realization of the outcome presented in the main clause is dependent on the fulfilment of the condition. In indirect conditionals, though, the condition is totally unrelated to the proposition in the main clause. Such use of conditionality is rather marginal.

The first group is further divided into open and hypothetical (remote) conditions. The biggest difference between these groups is in the possibility that the condition might be met. Open conditions can be fulfilled under certain circumstances. Hypothetical conditions, on the other hand, as the name suggests are mere speculations. It is either literally impossible for the condition to be fulfilled or the chance is so small it can be considered non-existent.

These subgroups are then further specified and categorized according to several different authors. The classification also includes the widely used Zero, First, Second and Third Conditional division and demonstrates its incompleteness for a comprehensive taxonomy.

The last chapter mainly focuses on the different ways of modifying conditional clauses. Even though *if* is undoubtedly the most common subordinator, it is by no means the only option. Modality and its relation to politeness and probability is also a large part of conditional modifications. Moreover, the proper use of the subjunctive form, ellipsis and inversion is discussed in the final chapter.

Classifying conditionals is a challenging task. The taxonomy used in this paper shows only one way of many approaches to this task. In my view, it is quite intuitive yet comprehensive. It is also important to mention that there are other classifications which are more precise for instance by Declerck (2001, pp. 1-324). Those are, however, far too complex for the scope of this work.

6 Conditionals in academic and literary text

The main aim of the practical part is to analyse the frequency and types of conditional clauses in a literary and an academic text. The results of the analysis will enable a deeper understanding of how conditional clauses are used in various contexts and for different purposes with main focus on the differences between academic and literary text.

6.1 Research objectives

There are three main objectives this research will focus on:

- To compare the frequency of conditional clauses in literary and academic text
- To analyse the frequency of specific types of conditionals in literary and academic text
- To analyse the usage of different types of conditional clauses

6.2 Research procedure

The texts were chosen randomly out of ten possibilities (5 for each category). The main focus was to ensure the texts are written in contemporary British English – meaning they were not written sooner than in 2000. *Harry Potter and the Order of the Phoenix* (Rowling, 2003) was chosen for the literary text and the academic text comes from *Ireland and the British Empire* (Kenny, 2004). A small corpus was then created by randomly selecting approximately 50 standard pages from each of the texts.

The first part of the analysis involved counting the frequency of conditional clauses in each text. This task was carried out manually by searching for the conditional subordinators specified in Chapter 4.2 which are commonly used to introduce conditional clauses. There are, however, conditionals described in Chapters 4.2.14, 4.3 and 4.4 which are not formed using any subordinating conjunctions. These conditionals, though, did not occur in either text. The data collected were then entered into a spreadsheet to facilitate comparison and further analysis. This quantitative analysis provided a basis for comparison between the two texts.

The second part of the analysis involved classifying the conditional clauses found in each text. The theoretical part of the thesis provided a framework for classifying the conditional clauses

based on their form, function, and meaning. The first step of the classification was to divide the conditional clauses into direct and indirect conditionals. The second step was to identify the open and the hypothetical conditions within the group of direct conditions. And the last step was to find if any conditional clauses match the specific cases of conditionals such as the Zero, First, Second, Third, Rhetorical etc.

Furthermore, the frequency of different subordinating conjunctions, which are described in Chapter 4.2, was also taken into account. The main focus was on confirming whether *if* is truly the most frequent subordinator and also if there are any subordinating conjunctions which tend to be more frequent in either of the texts.

The final part of the analysis involved comparing the frequency of different types of conditional clauses in each text. This comparison was carried out by analysing the data collected in the previous parts of the analysis.

In conclusion, the practical part provided an in-depth study of the use of conditional clauses in two texts: an academic and a literary text. The study involved a quantitative analysis of the frequency of conditional clauses used in each text. The comparison between the two texts helped to identify any differences in the use of conditional clauses in academic and literary texts and provided an insight into the stylistic differences between the two types of texts.

7 Text analysis

This chapter undertakes a comprehensive analysis of the two texts, with a particular focus on the use of conditional clauses. For each of the texts, the chapter is structured into two main sections, namely the Occurrences where the results of the quantitative analysis are discussed and Classification which will provide examples to support the quantitative analysis.

7.1 Literary text

For the literary text analysis, the fifth book of the Harry Potter saga – *Harry Potter and the Order of the Phoenix* written by the British author J. K. Rowling, was chosen. The sample text contains two chapters, *Christmas on the Closed Ward* and *Occlumency*, which are altogether approximately 50 standard pages long (Rowling, 2003, pp. 492-542). The text contains approximately 16,217 words.

7.1.1 Occurrences

The literary text was quite dense considering conditionals. On 50 standard pages there were 48 conditional clauses. Of those, 45 were direct conditions and only three were indirect as can be seen in Figure 2.

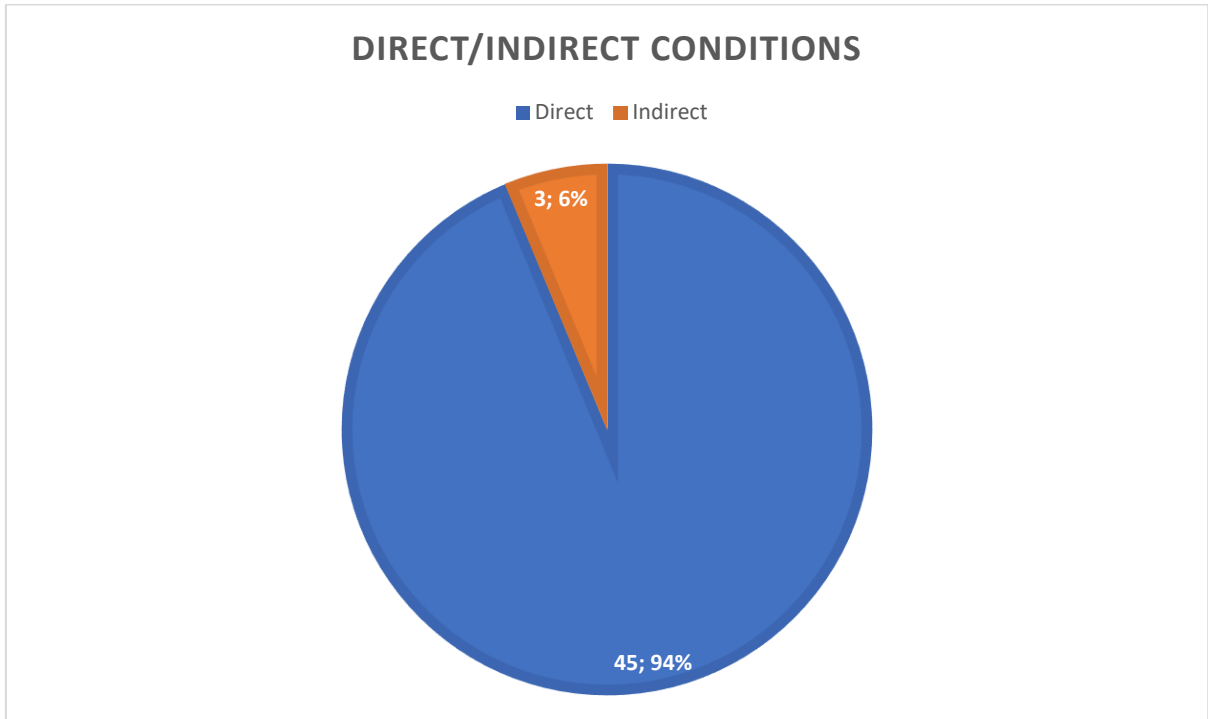


Figure 2: Direct/indirect conditions

Direct conditions were further divided into open and hypothetical conditions. Open conditions formed approximately $\frac{2}{3}$ of all of the direct conditions, with the remaining $\frac{1}{3}$ of hypothetical conditions. The exact numbers were 30 open and 15 hypothetical conditions as can be seen in Figure 3.

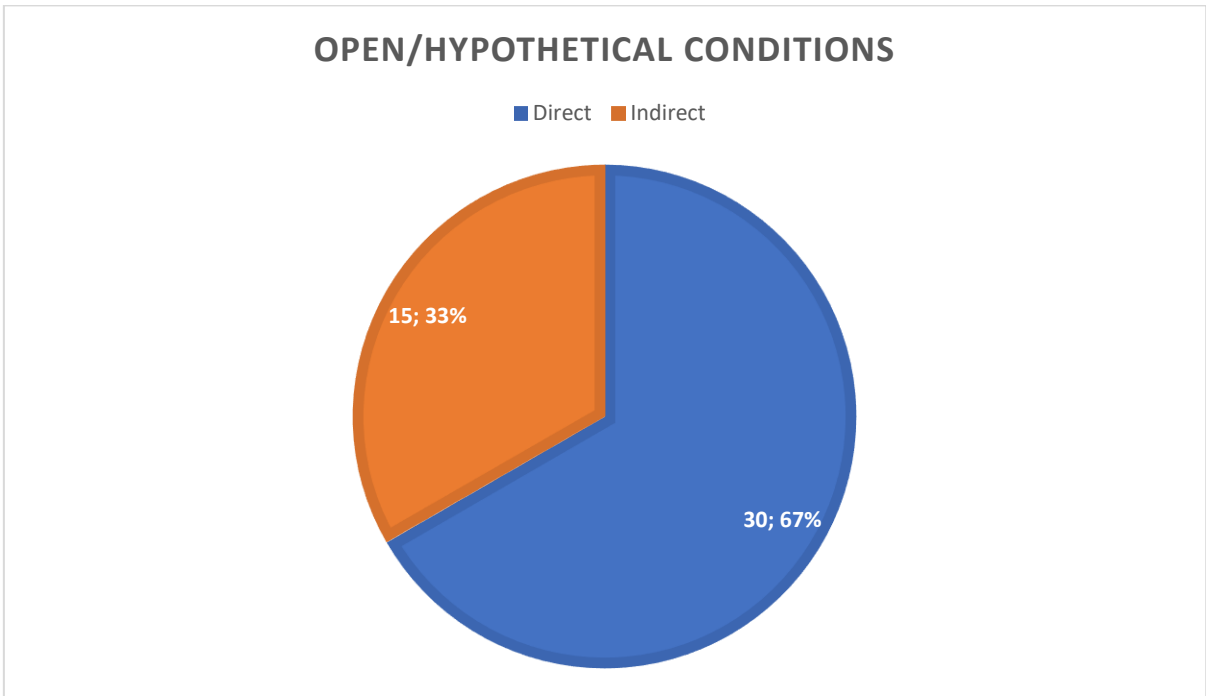


Figure 3: Open/hypothetical conditions

As not all of the conditionals described in the theoretical part occurred in the text, only these conditionals will be considered: Zero, First, Second, Third, Mixed and WH-conditionals. The following figure shows the distribution of these categories. The most frequent were the WH-conditional and the Second conditional.

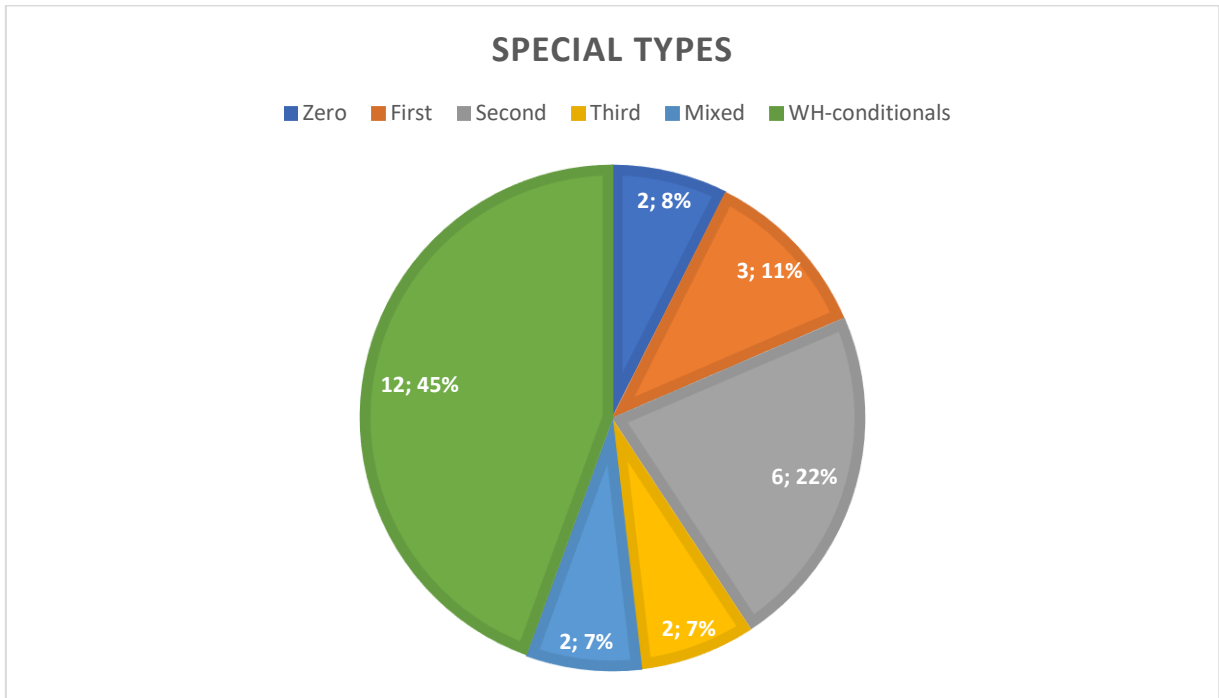


Figure 4: Special types

In terms of conditional subordinators, *if* was by far the most common one. Other frequent subordinators were *whether* and *whatever*. The rest of the subordinators appeared rather occasionally. The exact numbers can be seen in Figure 5. The total number of the subordinator *if* (including its appearance in *if only*, *even if* etc.) was 33. The second most common subordinator was *whether* with seven occurrences and the third was *whatever* with the frequency of four.

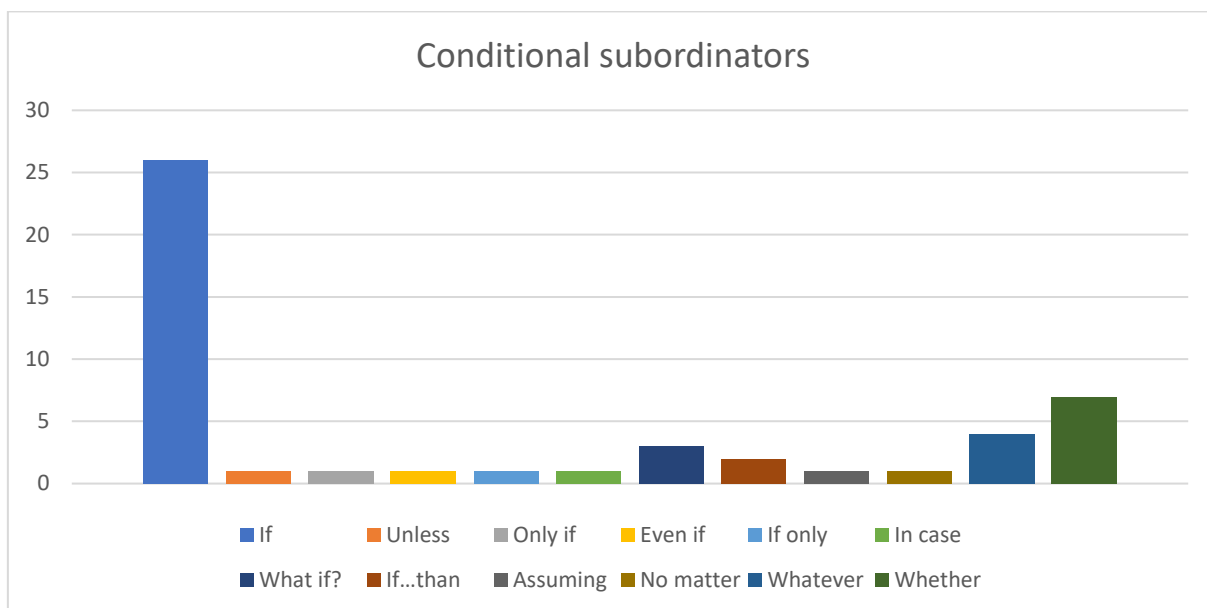


Figure 5: Conditional subordinators

The last category is the appearance of the subjunctive form and interrogative mood in conditional clauses. In the literary text the subjunctive did not appear whatsoever. On the other hand, the interrogative mood appeared three times, mostly in connection with *What if?*

7.1.2 Classification

All of the examples shown below are cited from the book *Harry Potter and the Order of the Phoenix* (Rowling, 2003, pp. 492-542), therefore only the corresponding page will be provided in parentheses with each example. Because a vast majority of the found conditionals were direct, all of the conditionals described in this subchapter are direct conditions, except for those described in the Chapter 7.1.2.3 Indirect conditions. The following conditional clauses are only selected examples; the whole list of found conditionals can be seen in Appendix 1, Table 1.

7.1.2.1 Open

In the literary text, open conditions were the most frequent ones. Usually paired with the most common subordinator *if*. The author used various tenses to express open conditions, however, the so-called Zero or First Conditional patterns were rarely followed. Much more frequent were combinations of other tenses as described in Chapter 3.1.1.3.

These two examples were the only occurrences of the Zero Conditional. They both describe laws of the fictional world of Harry Potter with focus on what house-elves are allowed to do. The reasons for that are to set rules of the fictional world so they can have a more immersive experience.

No, no, house-elves can't leave unless they're given clothes, they're tied to their family's house," said Sirius. (p. 504)

They can leave the house if they really want to," Harry contradicted him. (p. 504)

The First conditional also occurred several times. The first example suggests a possibility for the main character what he can do. The other two examples, however, serve more as warning or a threat.

"Mum says dinner's ready, but she'll save you something if you want to stay in bed. . . ."
(p. 497)

"If I hear you're using these Occlumency lessons to give Harry a hard time, you'll have me to answer to." (p. 520)

"If you shout his name I will curse you into oblivion," muttered Tonks menacingly, now shunting Ginny and Hermione forward. (p. 524)

A large part of the open conditions formed the so-called WH-conditionals. Especially with subordinators *whether* and *whatever*.

In both examples *whether* forms an open condition which suggests two possibilities – one positive and the other negative. It could also be substituted with simple *if*. The aim of these conditionals is to find out or confirm something – *Does it really look better or not? Does she know what stitches are or not?*

He had just turned it upside down to see whether it looked better that way when, with a loud crack, Fred and George Apparated at the foot of his bed. (p. 502)

Well . . . well, I don't know whether you know what — what stitches are? (p. 507)

The use of *whatever* in both examples signifies an unchangeable condition. In the first example it does not really matter what it is, Neville should take it anyways. In the second example, it is irrelevant what venom the snake actually had in its fangs as the healer managed to find an antidote.

“Very well, Alice dear, very well — Neville, take it, whatever it is. . . .” (p. 514)

“Healer Smethwyck worked his magic in the end, found an antidote to whatever that snake’s got in its fangs, and Arthur’s learned his lesson about dabbling in Muggle medicine, haven’t you, dear? (p. 522)

Other open conditions did not follow any specific pattern. They were formed using various tenses and subordinators. Below are some selected examples:

Present continuous – present continuous

And then, with a terrible stab of panic he thought, but this is insane — if Voldemort’s possessing me, I’m giving him a clear view into the headquarters of the Order of the Phoenix right now! (p. 494)

Past simple – past simple

Well, if he had to do it, he thought, there was no point hanging around. (p. 494)

The two examples above describe the main character’s inner thoughts and speculations.

Past simple – modal verb

“If you’ve dotted the i’s and crossed the t’s then you may do whatever you please!” (p. 502)

The modal verb in the main clause signifies a permission that is given to the hearer if the condition is satisfied. However, because the speaker is a magical speaking diary and the condition is quite ridiculous it is unlikely that it would be taken seriously. It is just one of many funny phrases the diary is enchanted to say to its owner.

Present simple – present continuous

My office. If anybody asks, you are taking Remedial Potions. (p. 519)

This condition gives the hearer a strong advice what he should do under certain circumstances.

Only if serves as a focusing adverb as described in Chapter 4.2.2

“Only if you do,” she said eagerly. (p. 528)

The speaker wants to ensure herself that the hearer wants to go with her on another Hogsmead trip.

As the text is written in British English, *in case* signifies some precaution as detailed in Chapter 4.2.7.

Squinting around the room he saw the dark outline of Phineas Nigellus standing again in his portrait and it occurred to Harry that Dumbledore had probably set Phineas Nigellus to watch over him, in case he attacked somebody else. (p. 497)

In this example, the condition introduced by *assuming* is expected to be fulfilled as discussed in Chapter 4.2.9 and therefore, Harry acts as if the condition is met.

Assuming that Mundungus or some other Order member had come to call, Harry merely settled himself more comfortably against the wall of Buckbeak the hippogriff’s room where he was hiding, trying to ignore how hungry he felt as he fed Buckbeak dead rats. (p. 498)

7.1.2.2 Hypothetical

On the contrary to the open conditions, most of the hypothetical conditions followed some specific pattern, namely the Second, Third, Mixed or WH-conditional. Only a few did not match any of these groups. The most frequent was the Second Conditional. In the first example the speaker considers a hypothetical scenario while in the second example the sentence signifies that the speaker does not like the hearers behaviour and would like it to change.

If this was how life was going to be in Grimmauld Place from now on, maybe he would be better off in Privet Drive after all. (p. 497)

I think I'd prefer it if you didn't give orders here, Snape. (p. 518)

The Third conditional appeared twice. In both examples, the main character speculates about past events. The use of *might* instead of *would* suggests that the outcome is less probable.

I mean. . . I saw that snake attack Mr. Weasley and if I hadn't, Professor Dumbledore wouldn't have been able to save him, would he? (p. 531)

In fact, if it had not been for the D.A., Harry felt he might have gone to Sirius and begged him to let him leave Hogwarts and remain in Grimmauld Place. (p. 517)

Mixed Conditionals also occurred. The example illustrates past condition that results in the present. The speaker uses it to explain his opinion.

"I expect anyone would feel shaky if they'd had their mind attacked over and over again," said Hermione sympathetically. (p. 540)

Finally, there were some WH-conditionals which also delivered hypothetical condition. The use is similar to WH-conditionals in open conditions. The only difference being the unreality of the events. For example:

He wanted to talk to Sirius, to tell him that he should not listen to a word Snape said, that Snape was goading him deliberately and that the rest of them did not think Sirius was a coward for doing as Dumbledore told him and remaining in Grimmauld Place, but he had no opportunity to do so, and wondered occasionally, eyeing the ugly look on Sirius's face, whether he would have dared to even if he had the chance. (p. 522)

"Okay," said Harry, stowing the package away in the inside pocket of his jacket, but he knew he would never use whatever it was. (p. 523)

It would not be he, Harry, who lured Sirius from his place of safety, no matter how foully Snape treated him in their forthcoming Occlumency classes. (p. 523)

There were only three hypothetical condition which did not fit the types mentioned above. The first two examples are partially incomplete sentences because of the use of the expression *What if?* which is described in Chapter 4.2.10. They both express the main character's inner thoughts and speculations. The last sentence expresses a wish as discussed in Chapter 4.2.3. The main character wishes something to change.

What if it happened again . . . ? (p. 496)

What if Voldemort somehow transported me to London — ?” (p. 500)

If only his scar would stop prickling . . . then he would be able to think more clearly. . . . (p. 497)

7.1.2.3 Indirect conditions

As indirect conditions form a rather marginal use of conditionals, in the literary text they occurred only three times. The main purpose was to express politeness or insecurity.

“Now, if you will excuse me, I have better things to do than to listen to adolescent agonizing. . . . Good day to you. . . .” (p. 496)

He was no longer their sullen host of the summer; now he seemed determined that everyone should enjoy themselves as much, if not more, than they would have done at Hogwarts, and he worked tirelessly in the run-up to Christmas Day, cleaning and decorating with their help, so that by the time they all went to bed on Christmas Eve the house was barely recognizable. (p. 501)

“Fred, George, and Ginny, if you just take those seats at the back . . . Remus can stay with you. . . .” (p. 525)

7.2 Academic text

For the academic text analysis, the history book – *Ireland and the British Empire* written by British author Kevin Kenny was used (Kenny, 2004, pp. 1-41). The sample text is approximately 50 standard pages long and consists of 13,922 words – footnotes and bibliography is not included.

7.2.1 Occurrences

On approximately 50 standard pages of the academic text 35 conditional clauses were found. These conditional clauses exclusively conveyed direct conditions, which were then further classified into two types: open and hypothetical. Open conditions formed approximately $\frac{3}{4}$ of all direct conditions, while the remaining $\frac{1}{4}$ were hypothetical conditions. Figure 6 displays the specific figures - 26 open conditions and nine hypothetical conditions.

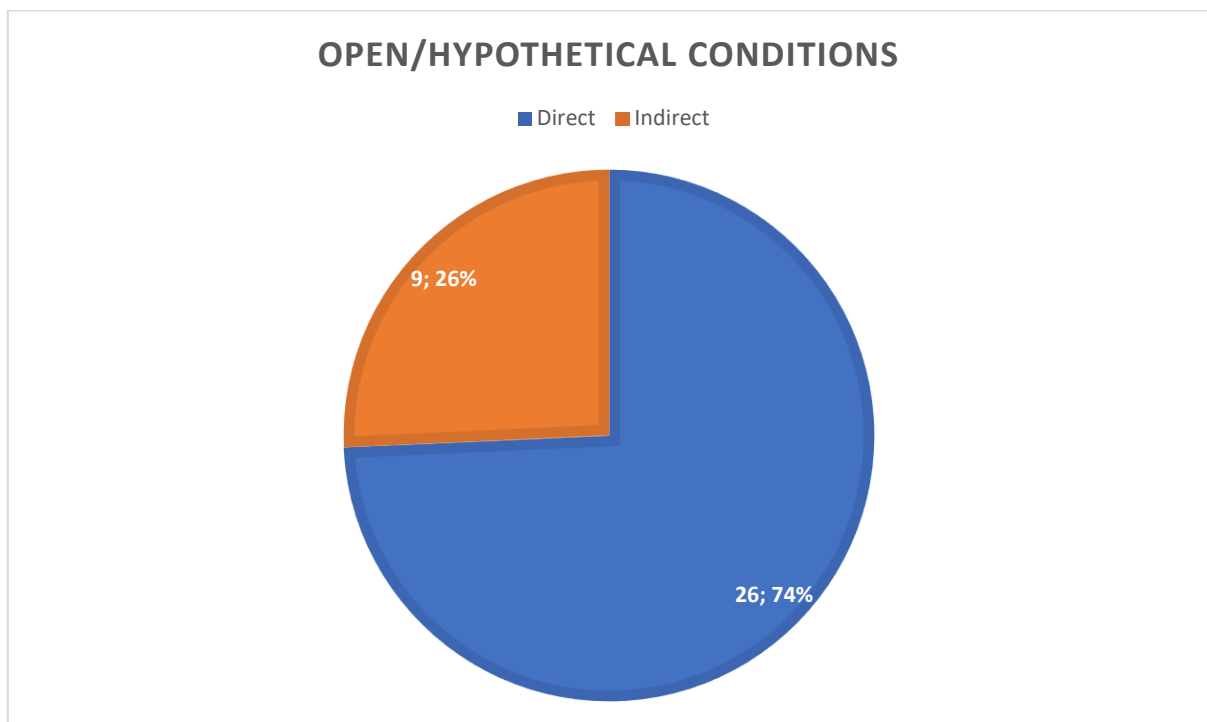


Figure 6: Open/hypothetical conditions

Since not all of the conditionals mentioned in the theoretical part appeared in the text, the focus will be solely on these four types: Second, Third, Mixed, and WH-conditionals. The distribution of these four categories is illustrated in the figure below. The WH-conditional and the Second conditional were the most frequently used.

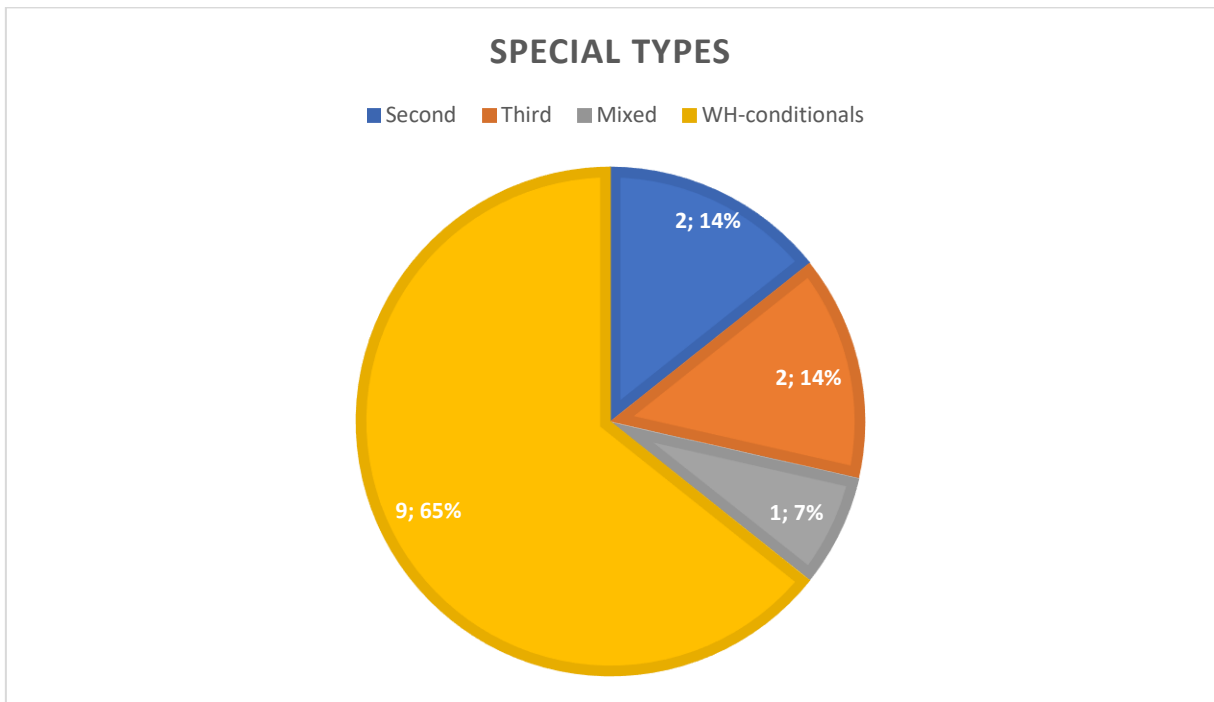


Figure 7: Special types

In terms of conditional subordinators, *if* was vastly the most frequent. *Whether*, *whatever*, and *given that* were also quite frequently used. The remaining subordinators appeared rarely. Figure 8 provides precise statistics. The total number of instances of the subordinator *if* (including its use in phrases like *if only*, *even if*, etc.) was 22. *Whether* was the second most common subordinator with seven occurrences, while *whatever* and *given that* were third with a frequency of two.

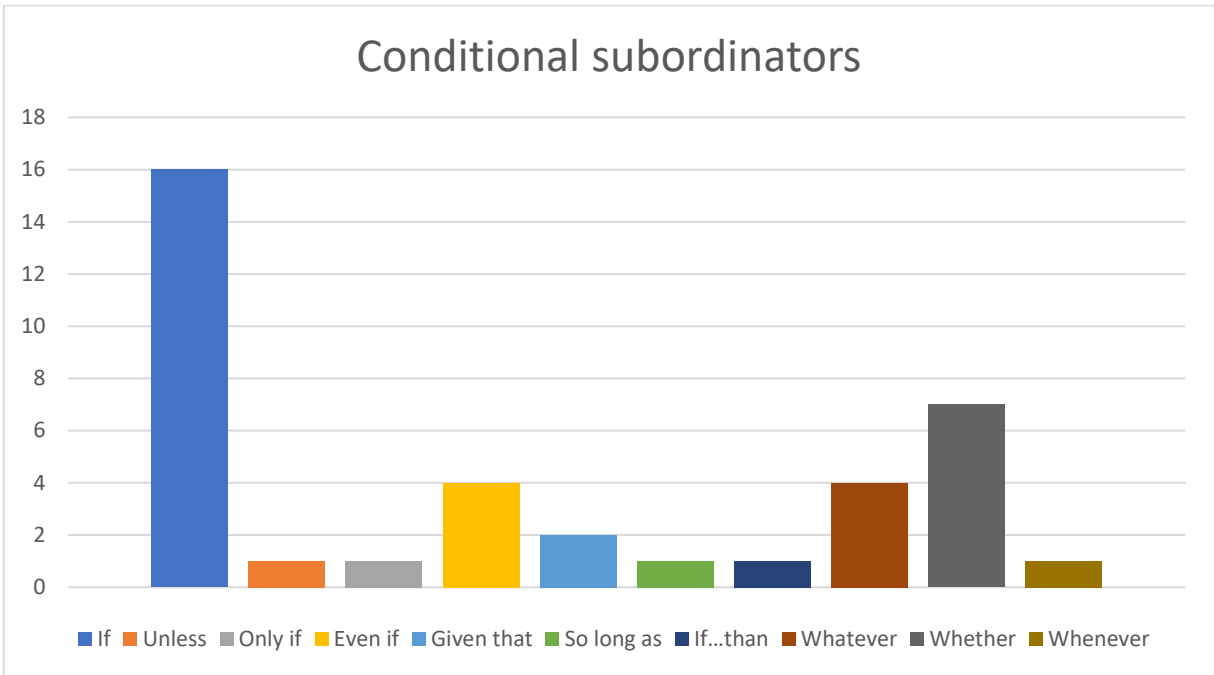


Figure 8: Conditional subordinators

The final aspect concerns the use of the subjunctive form and the interrogative mood in conditional clauses. In the academic text, the subjunctive form appeared twice, while the interrogative mood was used four times. These figures are displayed in Figure 9.

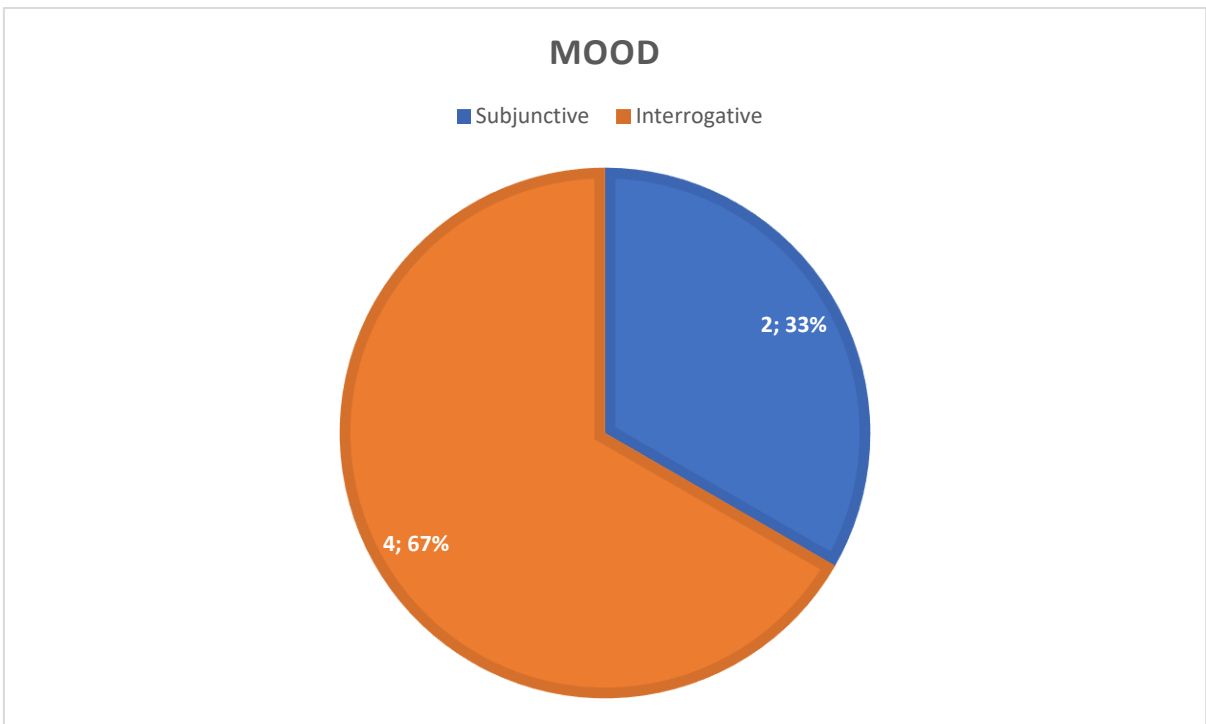


Figure 9: Mood

7.2.2 Classification

All of the examples shown below are cited from the book *Ireland and the British Empire* (Kenny, 2004, pp. 1-41), therefore only the corresponding page will be provided in parentheses with each example. Because no indirect conditionals occurred in the selected text, all of the conditionals discussed in this chapter are direct conditions. The following conditional clauses are only selected examples; the whole list of found conditionals can be seen in Appendix 1, Table 2.

7.2.2.1 Open

The analysis of the academic text showed that open conditions were the most common type, mostly formed with the subordinator *if*. The writer utilized different verb tenses to convey open conditions, but they did not use the patterns of the Zero or First Conditionals at all. Instead, they favoured using other tenses, as detailed in Chapter 3.1.1.3.

Matrix sentences were often introduced with the subordinate clause. *If* was frequently used in the sense of given that, which is usually used to present facts as discussed in Chapter 4.2.6.

If, in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, India represented one form of colony, Nigeria a second, and Australia a third, then Ireland represented yet another, combining some aspects of these three with highly particular characteristics of its own. (p. 3)

If such concepts are to be used in Irish history, they cannot be deployed as though their meaning were timeless and self-evident. (p. 4)

If 'fighting' served as one central pillar on which late medieval Irish society rested, 'feasting' was another. (p. 32)

Given that also occurred twice similarly to previous example to introduce factual information:

Given that these contemporary perceptions of the Irish as uncivil and barbaric were consistently used to justify imperial initiatives, how accurate were they? (p. 30)

Given that this integration was clearly not a union of equals, however, one might argue that it intensified rather than diminished imperial control over Ireland. (p. 10)

The use of *even if* was also rather frequent, however, *only if* appeared only once. The use of *even if* in these examples suggests expected incompatibility as noted by Declerck (2001, p. 286) in Chapter 4.2.2. *Only if*, on the other hand, works as a focusing adverb and gives an extra emphasis on the condition. The reason the author used these modifiers is to highlight the important information delivered in the condition.

And, even if Ireland was not officially ruled as a colony, its administration had distinctly colonial elements, including a separate executive in Dublin Castle with a Chief Secretary and a Lord-Lieutenant. (p. 11)

Even if historians disagree with such conceptions they must be taken seriously. (p. 14)

Modern Irish history unfolded in tandem with the rise, unprecedented expansion, and eventual decline of the Empire; and, just as Irish history does not make sense without this imperial entanglement, British imperial history assumes its full dimensions only if Ireland is included. (p. 1)

Despite *unless* being characterized in Chapter 4.2 as very common, in the academic text it only appeared once.

Poynings' Law, passed in 1494, declared that the Irish Parliament could meet only with the King's permission and that it could not pass laws unless they were previously approved by the King and his English Council. (p. 6)

Even though *so long as* in presented in Chapter 4.2.8 to be rather informal and mostly used in spoken English, it can also appear in academic text. In this case, however, it is used in a cited speech which tends to be more informal, emotional and passionate.

Yet, despite the catastrophe, Ireland's desire for independence would remain intact 'so long as our island refuses to become, like Scotland, a contented province of her enemy'. (p. 13)

A significant portion of open conditions consisted of the WH-conditionals, which are described in Chapter 4.2.15, formed with subordinators *whether* and *whatever*.

Examples with *whether*:

What was the relationship between Ireland, Britain, and the Empire at a given point in time, whether 1641, 1801, 1886, or 1922? (p. 3)

Whether aggressively pursued or not, there was nothing new in these calls for the civilization of Ireland, which dated back to the twelfth century. (p. 28)

Examples with *whatever*:

Whatever limited benefits may have accrued to Ireland in the eighteenth century, most of the country descended into poverty, squalor, and social breakdown thereafter. (p. 13)

In the end, whatever one's political perspective, it is difficult to reconcile the events of the 1840s with the notion that Ireland was an integrated and equal member of the United Kingdom. (p. 14)

7.2.2.2 Hypothetical

Most of the hypothetical conditions matched some pattern of the Second, Third or Mixed Conditional. The Second Conditional appeared twice.

If these trouble-makers were taken care of, by whatever degree of force necessary, the matter would quickly be solved. (p. 20)

If the conflict in Northern Ireland had colonial origins, there could no longer be an imperial solution. (p. 24)

The Third Conditional also occurred twice. In the first example the main clause is in an interrogative mood.

If Cornwall had been visited with the scenes that have desolated Cork, would similar arguments [have] been used? (p. 14)

Lord Deputy Wentworth maintained that if Ormond had been raised 'under the wing of his own parents' he would have been Catholic like his brothers and sisters. (p. 34)

The Mixed Conditional in this example describes past condition which results in the present. The use of *even if* again suggests some expected incompatibility.

Even if Ireland had been barren rock, its proximity to both continental Europe and to England meant that it constituted in English eyes an all-too-convenient base for foreign enemies and a likely haven for domestic rebels and malcontents. (p. 6)

The author used the above examples to suggest some of his ideas illustrated on hypothetical scenarios. Usually to support his claims or to suggest a suitable solution to a problem (which was not in reality used).

A few WH-conditionals also conveyed hypothetical condition.

Whether a Dublin Parliament could or would have responded better to the Irish famine has, again, been the subject of much counterfactual speculation. (p. 14)

There was nothing Britain could do to prevent Canada from leaving the Empire whenever it wished; Ireland had no such flexibility. (p. 21)

Some sentences which do not match any of the groups mentioned above also occurred, however, they were in minority.

It is hard to see how history could ever actually be paradoxical (false, absurd, contrary to known laws) even if it often appears contradictory. (p. 3)

We cannot find six instances in the memory of man of any converted to the Protestant religion by the education of the Court of Wards', he wrote, adding ominously that 'an English education and an Irish religion is much more dangerous than if both were Irish. (p. 35)

7.3 Comparison

Generally speaking, conditional clauses were more frequent in the literary text than in the academic one. In the former, the frequency was 0.96 conditional clause per page whereas in the latter it was only 0.7. In the literary text the direct condition formed a vast majority of all conditionals as only three indirect conditions occurred, while in the academic text, the indirect condition did not appear at all. With regard to direct conditions, open conditions were more frequent than hypothetical ones in both texts. In the literary text, they formed approx. 67% while in the academic text it was approx. 74%. Therefore, the ratio between open and hypothetical conditions was more or less the same in both texts.

Speaking of the specific types of conditionals which occurred in the corpus, only these were found: Zero, First, Second, Third, Mixed and WH-conditionals. The numbers of occurrences of these categories were, however, too small to make any general statements about the frequency. The only group which provided enough occurrences were WH-conditionals. In both texts, they appeared delivering both open and hypothetical conditions, however, the open condition was much more frequent. The ratio for the literary text was 3:1 and for the academic text 7:2. Therefore, the results were quite similar. In both texts, more open conditions were further unclassified, than classified. For the hypothetical conditions, it was the exact opposite and most of them fit the further classification. The precise figures can be seen in Appendix 1, Table 3.

In the terms of conditional subordinators, *if* was by far the most common one in both texts. In the literary text, it occurred in 68.7% of the conditional clauses while in the academic text it appeared in only 62.9% of them. All modifications of *if* (meaning *even if*, *only if*, *if only*, *if...then* and *What if?*) were used rather occasionally in both texts with the only exceptions being *even if* for the academic text and *What if?* for the literary one which appeared with slightly higher frequencies than the rest. The only other subordinators which occurred with significant frequency were *whether* and *whatever*. The exact numbers can be seen in Appendix 1, Table 4.

The overall use of conditional clauses was different for each of the texts, even though there were also similarities. In the academic text, conditionals were oftentimes used for presenting facts, suggesting the author's ideas or expressing contrast between two claims (mostly utilizing *even if*). Less frequently were they used to outline some hypothetical scenarios and to provoke the reader's imagination and make them think about an idea. In the literary text, conditions were

very frequently used in direct speech or to express thoughts and ideas of the characters. Rarely were they used to present facts. They were also used when the characters were considering some hypothetical scenarios.

8 Conclusion

The main reason for the research was to find out the difference in occurrences and in the use of conditional clauses between literary and academic text. The total number of conditionals found in both texts was 83, which makes 0,83 conditional clauses per page. Based on these results, it might be said that conditional clauses are quite frequently used in English. The research shows that they were slightly more used in the literary text than in the academic one. These findings support one of the initial claims that conditionals are widely used and that they are an important language device in one's utterance.

Furthermore, the research confirmed the idea proposed in the theoretical part that direct conditions form a vast majority of all conditionals used in English, and that indirect conditions are only marginally used. The purpose of indirect conditions is to express politeness or insecurity mostly in speech. That might be the reason why they did not occur in the academic text and why in the literary text, they appeared mostly in direct speech. There were no significant differences in the ratio of the frequency of open and hypothetical conditions in the texts. In both, open conditions were much more frequent.

The most significant differences were found in the use of conditional clauses. In the academic text, conditionals were primarily utilized to present facts, express contrasting claims, and suggest the author's ideas. Occasionally, they were also used to outline thought-provoking hypothetical scenarios. On the other hand, in the literary text, conditionals were frequently used in direct speech or to convey the characters' thoughts and ideas. They were seldom used to present factual information and were sometimes employed when the characters were considering hypothetical situations. Another interesting observation was that in the academic text the matrix clause tends to start with the subordinate clause very often. This, however, might be strongly influenced by the writing style of the author.

In terms of conditional subordinators, the results confirmed that *if* is the most commonly used subordinator which conveys conditionality. The research also showed that WH-conditionals are frequently used in both types of text. Other subordinators appeared only in insignificant quantities with regard to the small corpus size.

Swan (2016, p. 358) claims that not even 25% of conditional clauses commonly used in English fit the standard First, Second and Third Conditional distribution. The classification used in this

thesis is more complex and also includes also the Zero, Mixed, Rhetorical and WH-conditionals. However, considering open conditions most of the conditionals found did not fit any of these groups, therefore, these results partially support Swan's claim. Speaking of hypothetical conditionals, though, most of them fit either the Second, Third, Mixed or WH-conditional classification.

The research showed some interesting differences in the use and in the frequency of conditional clauses between literary and academic text, and proved some general claims from the theoretical part. The results, however, are only valid for the texts used in this research with regard to the relatively small corpus size. For any firm generalisations a much larger corpus would be required.

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Appendix 1

Literary text							
ID	Sentence	Direct/Indirect	Open/hypothetical	Special type	Subordinator	Subjunctive	Interrogative
1	<i>Harry remembered how the snakelike face of Voldemort had once forced itself out of the back of Professor Quirrell's head, and he ran his hand over the back of his own, wondering what it would feel like if Voldemort burst out of his skull.....(p. 492)</i>	direct	hypothetical	second	if	no	no
2	<i>And then, with a terrible stab of panic he thought, but this is insane — if Voldemort's possessing me, I'm giving him a clear view into the headquarters of the Order of the Phoenix right now! (p. 494)</i>	direct	open	x	if	no	no
3	<i>But no, that wouldn't do, there were still plenty of people at Hogwarts to maim and injure, what if it was Seamus, Dean, or Neville next time? (p. 494)</i>	direct	hypothetical	second	what if	no	yes
4	<i>Well, if he had to do it, he thought, there was no point hanging around. (p. 494)</i>	direct	open	x	if	no	no
5	<i>"Now, if you will excuse me, I have better things to do than to listen to adolescent agonizing..... Good day to you....." (p. 496)</i>	indirect	x	x	if	no	no
6	<i>What if it happened again...? (p. 496)</i>	direct	hypothetical	x	what if	no	yes
7	<i>If only his scar would stop pricking... then he would be able to think more clearly.....(p. 497)</i>	direct	hypothetical	x	if only, if...then	no	no
8	<i>"Mum says dinner's ready, but she'll save you something if you want to stay in bed...." (p. 497)</i>	direct	open	first	if	no	no
9	<i>Squinting around the room he saw the dark outline of Phineas Nigellus standing again in his portrait and it occurred to Harry that Dumbledore had probably set Phineas Nigellus to watch over him, in case he attacked somebody else. (p. 497)</i>	direct	open	x	in case	no	no
10	<i>If this was how life was going to be in Grimmauld Place from now on, maybe he would be better off in Privet Drive after all. (p. 497)</i>	direct	hypothetical	second	if	no	no
11	<i>Assuming that Mundungus or some other Order member had come to call, Harry merely settled himself more comfortably against the wall of Buckbeak the hippogriff's room where he was hiding, trying to ignore how hungry he felt as he fed Buckbeak dead rats. (p. 498)</i>	direct	open	x	assuming	no	no
12	<i>What if Voldemort somehow transported me to London —? (p. 500)</i>	direct	hypothetical	x	what if	no	yes
13	<i>He was no longer their sullen host of the summer; now he seemed determined that everyone should enjoy themselves as much, if not more, than they would have done at Hogwarts, and he worked tirelessly in the run-up to Christmas Day, cleaning and decorating with their help, so that by the time they all went to bed on Christmas Eve the house was barely recognizable. (p. 501)</i>	indirect	x	x	if	no	no
14	<i>He had just turned it upside down to see whether it looked better that way when, with a loud crack, Fred and George Apparated at the foot of his bed. (p. 502)</i>	direct	open	wh-conditional	whether	no	no
15	<i>"If you've dotted the i's and crossed the t's then you may do whatever you please!" (p. 502)</i>	direct	open	x	if...then	no	no
16	<i>"It isn't clothes," said Hermione, "although if I had my way I'd certainly give him something to wear other than that filthy old rag. (p. 503)</i>	direct	open	second	if	no	no
17	<i>No, no, house-elves can't leave unless they're given clothes, they're tied to their family's house," said Sirius. (p. 504)</i>	direct	open	zero	unless	no	no
18	<i>They can leave the house if they really want to," Harry contradicted him. (p. 504)</i>	direct	open	zero	if	no	no
19	<i>Well... well, I don't know whether you know what — what stitches are? (p. 507)</i>	direct	open	wh-conditional	whether	no	no

20	"Very well, Alice dear, very well — Neville, take it, whatever it is" (p. 514)	direct	open	wh-conditional	whatever	no	no
21	In fact, if it had not been for the D.A., Harry felt he might have gone to Sirius and begged him to let him leave Hogwarts and remain in Grimmauld Place. (p. 517)	direct	hypothetical	third	if	no	no
22	I think I'd prefer it if you didn't give orders here, Snape. (p. 518)	direct	hypothetical	second	if	no	no
23	My office. If anybody asks, you are taking Remedial Potions. (p. 519)	direct	open	x	if	no	no
24	"If I hear you're using these Occlumency lessons to give Harry a hard time, you'll have me to answer to." (p. 520)	direct	open	first	if	no	no
25	"I don't care if Dumbledore thinks you've reformed, I know better —" (p. 520)	direct	open	x	if	no	no
26	"Healer Smethwyck worked his magic in the end, found an antidote to whatever that snake's got in its fangs, and Arthur's learned his lesson about dabbling in Muggle medicine, haven't you, dear?" (p. 522)	direct	open	wh-conditional	whatever	no	no
27	He wanted to talk to Sirius, to tell him that he should not listen to a word Snape said, that Snape was goading him deliberately and that the rest of them did not think Sirius was a coward for doing as Dumbledore told him and remaining in Grimmauld Place, but he had no opportunity to do so, and wondered occasionally, eyeing the ugly look on Sirius's face, whether he would have dared to even if he had the chance. (p. 522)	direct	hypothetical	wh-conditional	whether	no	no
28	He wanted to talk to Sirius, to tell him that he should not listen to a word Snape said, that Snape was goading him deliberately and that the rest of them did not think Sirius was a coward for doing as Dumbledore told him and remaining in Grimmauld Place, but he had no opportunity to do so, and wondered occasionally, eyeing the ugly look on Sirius's face, whether he would have dared to even if he had the chance. (p. 522)	direct	hypothetical	mixed	even if	no	no
29	A way of letting me know if Snape's giving you a hard time. (p. 523)	direct	open	x	if	no	no
30	"I doubt Molly would approve — but I want you to use it if you need me, all right?" (p. 523)	direct	open	x	if	no	no
31	"Okay," said Harry, stowing the package away in the inside pocket of his jacket, but he knew he would never use whatever it was. (p. 523)	direct	hypothetical	wh-conditional	whatever	no	no
32	It would not be he, Harry, who lured Sirius from his place of safety, no matter how foully Snape treated him in their forthcoming Occlumency classes. (p. 523)	direct	hypothetical	wh-conditional	no matter	no	no
33	"If you shout his name I will curse you into oblivion," muttered Tonks menacingly, now shunting Ginny and Hermione forward. (p. 524)	direct	open	first	if	no	no
34	"Fred, George, and Ginny, if you just take those seats at the back . . . Remus can stay with you." (p. 525)	indirect	x	x	if	no	no
35	He handed over their tickets and continued to gaze, enthralled, at Harry; apparently Stan did not care how nutty somebody was if they were famous enough to be in the paper. (p. 525)	direct	open	x	if	no	no
36	His morning Potions lesson did nothing to dispel his trepidation, as Snape was as unpleasant as ever, and Harry's mood was further lowered by the fact that members of the D.A. were continually approaching him in the corridors between classes, asking hopefully whether there would be a meeting that night. (p. 527)	direct	open	wh-conditional	whether	no	no
37	"Well, I suppose you want to —?" "Only if you do," she said eagerly. (p. 528)	direct	open	x	only if	no	no
38	"Oh, it's okay if you don't," she said, looking mortified. (p. 528)	direct	open	x	if	no	no
39	"And why does Professor Dumbledore think I need it, sir?" said Harry, looking directly into Snape's dark, cold eyes and wondering whether he would answer. (p. 530)	direct	open	wh-conditional	whether	no	no
40	Whatever Snape said, Legitimacy sounded like mind reading to Harry and he did not like the sound of it at all. (p. 531)	direct	open	wh-conditional	whatever	no	no
41	I mean . . . I saw that snake attack Mr. Weasley and if I hadn't, Professor Dumbledore wouldn't have been able to save him, would he? (p. 531)	direct	hypothetical	third	if	no	no
42	But Harry did not care if Snape was angry; at last he seemed to be getting to the bottom of this business. (p. 532)	direct	open	x	if	no	no

43	"How come I saw through the snake's eyes if it's Voldemort's thoughts I'm sharing?" (p. 532)	direct	open	x	if	no	no
44	"Did you see everything I saw?" Harry asked, unsure whether he wanted to hear the answer. (p. 535)	direct	open		wh-conditional	whether	no
45	"And be warned, Potter... I shall know if you have not practiced..." (p. 538)	direct	open	x		if	no
46	"I expect anyone would feel shaky if they'd had their mind attacked over and over again," said Hermione sympathetically. (p. 540)	direct	hypothetical		mixed	if	no
47	He was feeling sick again, just as he had the night he had had the vision of the snake, but thought that if he could just lie down for a while he would be all right. (p. 541)	direct	hypothetical		second	if	no
48	He did not know where he was, whether he was standing or lying down, he did not even know his own name (p. 541)	direct	open		wh-conditional	whether	no

Table 1: Literary text

Academic text							
ID	Sentence	Direct/Indirect	Open/hypothetical	Special type	Subordinator	Subjunctive	Interrogative
1	Modern Irish history unfolded in tandem with the rise, unprecedented expansion, and eventual decline of the Empire; and, just as Irish history does not make sense without this imperial entanglement, British imperial history assumes its full dimensions only if Ireland is included. (p. 1)	direct	open	x		only if	no
2	It is hard to see how history could ever actually be paradoxical (false, absurd, contrary to known laws) even if it often appears contradictory. (p. 3)	direct	hypothetical	x		even if	no
3	If, in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, India represented one form of colony, Nigeria a second, and Australia a third, then Ireland represented yet another, combining some aspects of these three with highly particular characteristics of its own. (p. 3)	direct	open	x		if...then	no
4	What was the relationship between Ireland, Britain, and the Empire at a given point in time, whether 1641, 1801, 1886, or 1922? (p. 3)	direct	open		wh-conditional	whether	no
5	If such concepts are to be used in Irish history, they cannot be deployed as though their meaning were timeless and self-evident. (p. 4)	direct	open	x		if	yes
6	If the twelfth century is too early a starting point, what then of the fifteenth century, with the incursions of Henry VII? (p. 6)	direct	open	x		if	yes
7	Poyning's Law, passed in 1494, declared that the Irish Parliament could meet only with the King's permission and that it could not pass laws unless they were previously approved by the King and his English Council. (p. 6)	direct	open	x		unless	no
8	Even if Ireland had been barren rock, its proximity to both continental Europe and to England meant that it constituted in English eyes an all-too-convenient base for foreign enemies and a likely haven for domestic rebels and malcontents. (p. 6)	direct	hypothetical	mixed		even if	no
9	If Ireland's history was entirely bound up with the origins of the British Empire in the early modern era, how are we to characterize its imperial status thereafter? (pp. 7-8)	direct	open	x		if	no
10	If Ireland, from the perspective of the Protestant Ascendancy, was ostensibly a 'sister kingdom' to England and Scotland, English politicians nonetheless dismissed it 'as variously a depending kingdom, a foreign country or a child-colony: in no case was equality, much less joint sovereignty, on offer' (p. 8)	direct	open	x		if	no

11	<i>If Unionists celebrated Ireland's equality with the rest of Britain, Home Rulers hoped that legislative autonomy in Dublin might revitalize the country (without denying it the benefits of Empire), while separatists—always a minority, but prepared to use violence if necessary—saw Ireland as a colony that could be redeemed only by a complete break with Britain and the Empire in the form of an independent republic. (p. 10)</i>	direct	open	x	if	no	no
12	<i>Given that this integration was clearly not a union of equals, however, one might argue that it intensified rather than diminished imperial control over Ireland. (p. 10)</i>	direct	open	x	given that	no	no
13	<i>And, even if Ireland was not officially ruled as a colony, its administration had distinctly colonial elements, including a separate executive in Dublin Castle with a Chief Secretary and a Lord-Lieutenant. (p. 11)</i>	direct	open	x	even if	no	no
14	<i>But if integration and direct taxation made Ireland less expensive to govern than it might otherwise have been, this arrangement scarcely enriched the British exchequer. (p. 12)</i>	direct	open	x	if	no	no
15	<i>Whatever limited benefits may have accrued to Ireland in the eighteenth century, most of the country descended into poverty, squalor, and social breakdown thereafter. (p. 13)</i>	direct	open	wh-conditional	whatever	no	no
16	<i>Yet, despite the catastrophe, Ireland's desire for independence would remain intact 'so long as our island refuses to become, like Scotland, a contented province of her enemy'. (p. 13)</i>	direct	open	x	so long as	no	no
17	<i>Even if historians disagree with such conceptions they must be taken seriously. (p. 14)</i>	direct	open	x	even if	no	no
18	<i>If the Union be not a mockery', he argued, 'there exists no such thing as an English treasury. (p. 14)</i>	direct	open	x	if	yes	no
19	<i>If Cornwall had been visited with the scenes that have desolated Cork, would similar arguments [have] been used? (p. 14)</i>	direct	hypothetical	third	if	no	yes
20	<i>In the end, whatever one's political perspective, it is difficult to reconcile the events of the 1840s with the notion that Ireland was an integrated and equal member of the United Kingdom. (p. 14)</i>	direct	open	wh-conditional	whatever	no	no
21	<i>Whether a Dublin Parliament could or would have responded better to the Irish famine has, again, been the subject of much counterfactual speculation. (p. 14)</i>	direct	hypothetical	wh-conditional	whether	no	no
22	<i>This much is true; yet as a discursive category gender is nothing if not inconstant, its malleability depending on the purposes for which it is deployed. (p. 17)</i>	direct	open	x	if	no	no
23	<i>Not only were women prominent among Irish writers, Irish novels in the nineteenth century, whether by females or males, frequently dealt with romantic love and marriage, both literally and as a metaphor for constitutional union and its shortcomings. (p. 17)</i>	direct	open	wh-conditional	whether	no	no
24	<i>Serving on the opposing side, McMahon notes, were about 28,000 Irish soldiers in the British Army; and, if pro-Boer activism inspired the Irish republican movement, imperial service against the Boers became an important component of Ulster Unionist identity. (p. 19)</i>	direct	open	x	if	no	no
25	<i>If these trouble-makers were taken care of, by whatever degree of force necessary, the matter would quickly be solved. (p. 20)</i>	direct	hypothetical	second	if	no	no
26	<i>There was nothing Britain could do to prevent Canada from leaving the Empire whenever it wished; Ireland had no such flexibility. (p. 21)</i>	direct	hypothetical	wh-conditional	whenever	no	no
27	<i>If 1916 had promised gender equality, the dominant ideology of the Free State did not. (p. 23)</i>	direct	open	x	if	no	no
28	<i>Those who sought a more moderate solution to the conflict, whether they were based in Belfast, Dublin, or London, also tended inevitably to think along lines laid down during the Union of 1801–1921, with some form of power-sharing and Home Rule as the most plausible option. (p. 24)</i>	direct	open	wh-conditional	whether	no	no
29	<i>If the conflict in Northern Ireland had colonial origins, there could no longer be an imperial solution. (p. 24)</i>	direct	hypothetical	second	if	no	no

30	<i>Whether aggressively pursued or not, there was nothing new in these calls for the civilization of Ireland, which dated back to the twelfth century. (p. 28)</i>	direct	open	wh-conditional	whether	no	no
31	<i>Given the scale of the enterprise and the lack of central funds, however, Irish Catholics, especially members of the traditional social and ruling élite, were also encouraged to serve as exemplars of civility and, whether wittingly or not, they collectively facilitated the implementation of civilizing and imperial policies throughout the island. (p. 29)</i>	direct	open	wh-conditional	whether	no	no
32	<i>Given that these contemporary perceptions of the Irish as uncivil and barbaric were consistently used to justify imperial initiatives, how accurate were they? (p. 30)</i>	direct	open	x	given that	no	yes
33	<i>If 'fighting' served as one central pillar on which late medieval Irish society rested, 'feasting' was another. (p. 32)</i>	direct	open	x	if	no	no
34	<i>Lord Deputy Wentworth maintained that if Ormond had been raised 'under the wing of his own parents' he would have been Catholic like his brothers and sisters. (p. 34)</i>	direct	hypothetical	third	if	no	no
35	<i>We cannot find six instances in the memory of man of any converted to the Protestant religion by the education of the Court of Wards', he wrote, adding ominously that 'an English education and an Irish religion is much more dangerous than if both were Irish. (p. 35)</i>	direct	hypothetical	x	if	no	no

Table 2: Academic text

Comparison

Test	Number of conditionals	Direct	Indirect	Open	Hypothetical	Zero	First	Second	Third	Mixed	WH-conditionals
Literary text	48	48	3	30	15	2	3	6	2	2	12
Academic text	35	35	0	35	9	0	0	2	2	1	9

Table 3: Conditionals – occurrences

Test	if	Unless	Only if	Even if	If only	Given that	In case	So long as	Provided that	If...then	Assuming	No matter	Whether	Whatever	Whenever	Interrogative	Subjunctive	# (total sum)
Literary text	36	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	3	2	1	1	7	4	0	3	0	33
Academic text	18	1	1	4	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	0	6	2	1	4	2	22

Table 4: Subordinators – occurrences

Test	WH-conditionals (open)	WH-conditionals (hypothetical)
Literary text	9	3
Academic text	7	2

Table 5: WH-conditionals

Test	Open - classified	Open - not classified	Hypothetical - classified	Hypothetical - not classified
Literary text	14	16	13	2
Academic text	7	19	7	2

Table 6: Open/hypothetical

Annotation

Jméno a příjmení:	Marek Štec
Katedra nebo ústav:	Ústav cizích jazyků
Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Blanka Babická, Ph. D.
Rok obhajoby:	2023

Název práce:	Podmínkové věty v angličtině
Název práce v angličtině:	Conditional Clauses in English
Anotace práce:	Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá klasifikací podmínkových vět v angličtině. Obsahem teoretické části je komplexní klasifikační systém podmínkových vět. Praktická část práce se zaměřuje na porovnání frekvence a užití podmínkových vět v akademickém a literárním textu s využitím klasifikačního rámce vymezeného v teoretické části.
Klíčová slova:	Podmínkové věty, podmínka, literární text, akademický text, srovnání, gramatika, klasifikace
Anotace práce v angličtině	This bachelor's thesis provides a comprehensive overview of conditional clauses in English. The theoretical section presents an in-depth classification. The practical part of the thesis focuses on comparing the frequency and use of conditional clauses in an academic and a literary text using the classification framework defined in the theoretical section.
Klíčová slova v angličtině:	Conditional clauses, conditional, condition, comparison, academic text, literary text, grammar, classification

Přílohy vázané v práci:	Appendix 1
Rozsah práce:	64
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