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A discriptive analysis of english conditionals and their teaching in burundi secondary schools

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UNIVERSITE DU BURUNDI

FACULTE DES LETTRES ET SCIENCES HUMAINES

DEPARTEMENT DE LANGUE ET LITTERATURE ANGLAISES

A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH CONDITIONALS AND THEIR TEACHING IN BURUNDI SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Supervisors : Mr MATEGEKO Zacharie

Mrs MUHITIRA Judith

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment for the Requirements for the Degree LICENCE EN LANGUE ET LITTERATURE ANGLAISES

M. Immaculée HARUSHIMANA

Bujumbura, June, 1987.

To the one,

who bears the sweetest name
and adds a luster to the same,
who shares my joy and my sorrow,
who cannot stand that I borrow,

To the one,

whose care is my success,
who struggles for my happiness.
To you my dear
and irreplaceable mother,

I dedicate this work,
outcome of our restless days
and sleepless nights.

Kuri wewe,

Gashâto gahisha amahere,
urazwa intêka n-ukuntēza imbere
hāgirá agakómye iyô ndi ibêre rikīkama
ukazīmbwa n-ukunzigama

Kurí wewe,

Kabúra ntikaboneke
mǎma w-umukóndo
ntāzîra nk-ibibōndo
ngwārá ntugoheke

rya shûrwé
wahora uvômēra
igicúgu n-umurāngo
ngīrí rirasāmbūye

N DA R I G U T U Y E

N I A K A T S I

K A C U

A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S.

Any work of this kind inevitably builds upon insights from many sources. For this, grateful acknowledgements are due to several people.

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We are deeply indebted to all those whose practical, intellectual, moral or financial support immeasurably helped us in so many ways. Among those, Mrs NAHIMANA Caritas and her husband BUGUVU Georges deserve exceptional mention for what they represent for us.

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K E Y T O S Y M B O L S A N D A B B R E V I A T I O N S.

+	:	plus
✗	:	unacceptable construction
✓	:	incorrect but tolerable construction
✓	:	correct construction
=	:	equal
→	:	becomes
⟶	:	may be rewritten as
Cfr	:	see
Cond.	:	conditional
e.g	:	example given
i.e	:	for instance
N	:	noun
NB	:	note
O	:	object
pr. s. t.	:	present simple tense
S	:	student
S	:	subject
T	:	teacher
T	:	tense
(2)	:	bis, twice
V. I. P.	:	Very important person.

S O M E L A N G U A G E T E R M I N O L O G Y.

Conditional : A grammatical mood which describes an imaginary or hypothetical situation or event.

Conditional clause : Adverbial clause beginning with if, unless, or beginning with where a state or situation in one clause is dependent on something that may or will happen, and which is described in another clause.

Conjuncts : They are expressions which show how what is said in the sentence connects with what is said in another sentence or sentences. They are not part of the basic structure of a clause or sentence.

e.g altogether it was happy.

Conjunctive(s) : Unit (s) larger than single words which functions as conjunction (s).

e.g as long as, as if.

Conjunctive adverbs : Adverbs which are used to introduce or connect clauses.

Counterfactuals : Contrary to fact.

Disjunct : Adverb which show the speaker's attitude to or evaluation of what is said in the rest of the sentence.

e.g Naturally, I paid the bill.

Disjunctive : A conjunction which expresses opposition of or contrast between ideas.

Finite adverbial clause of condition : it is introduced by "if" and "unless" chiefly.

Finite verb : a form which is marked to show that it is related to a subject in person, and/or number, and which shows tense.

Finite clause : A clause which contains a subject as well as a predicate, except in the case of commands and ellipsis.

Generic : general, not specific, or special.

Generic reference : A type of reference which is used to refer to a class objects or things, rather than to a specific member of a class.

Hypothetical : Which makes supposition as basis for reasoning without assumption of its truth.

Hypothetical condition : (see unreal condition).

Inferential conjunct : It indicates an inference from what is implicit in the preceding sentence or sentences.

e.g else, otherwise, then.

Operator : the first auxiliary verb to occur in a verb phrase, so called because it is the verb which "operates" as the question-forming word, by moving to the initial position in the sentence in questions.

Pro-form : Form which can serve as replacement for different elements in a sentence.

e.g I hope you can come
I hope so.

Prominence : Greater stress on the words which the speaker wishes to emphasize.

Style disjunct : They convey the speaker's comment on the form of what he is saying, defining in some way under what conditions he is speaking.

e.g If I may say so, that dress does not suit you.

Real conditional : A real condition leaves unsolved the question of the fulfilment or non-fulfilment of the condition, and hence also the truth of the proposition expressed by the main clause.

Superordinate clause : 'Independent' or 'main' clause.

Supplementing clause : It can be regarded as an elliptical clause (usually parenthetic or an afterthought) for which the whole of preceding or interrupted clause constitutes the ellipsis.

Unreal condition : In, an 'unreal' condition, it is clearly expected that the condition will not be fulfilled.

A B S T R A C T.

Our endeavour to develop the topic will follow the next diagram. First of all, we will describe the structure under study – English conditionals. Second, we will sort out a hierarchy of difficulties ranging them from the less serious to the most complex. We will then try to consider those problems and see in what ways conditionals may be successfully taught in Burundi secondary schools. This teaching will be based not only on the problems arisen from the description but also on mistakes likely to be found in students' copies. In fact, investigations will be conducted in B. E. P. E. S., English Section, and they will be aimed at observing errors made by students during composition exams (Test National, Session 1985).

A suggestion of a methodology of handling English Conditionals will be made. There is no doubt that this methodology will be applied in a given class (3ème of secondary school) in order to check how efficious it is. A lesson on conditionals will be planned and given to this end. The work will be closed by a set of varied drills meant to consolidate the structure and avoid monotony and boredom in class.

I N T R O D U C T I O N.

Expressing condition is a universal phenomenon. That is, people all over the world may regret, among other things, past failures, as they can sigh for a better future. They can talk about possibilities, probabilities, improbabilities or impossibilities. This can be realized, in the world of discourse, through a grammatical structure here called the CONDITIONAL. In fact, the possible world is a world of suppositions that is why people called it an "iffy" one. Also, the universality of conditionals has been recognized by J. Greenberg in his book, Language Universals (1966). Conditionals are found in both Bantu and Indo-European languages. To support this point, one can look at some languages belonging to either of the two families. Those are Kirundi and Kiswahili as representatives of Bantu languages and French and English standing for Indo-European languages.

e.g. 1) Ni wamubóna, uramubwíra kó ndamukeneye (Kirundi)
2) Ukimuona, umuambie kwamba namuita (Kiswahili)
3) Si tu le vois, dis lui que j'ai besoin de le voir (French)
4) If you meet him, tell him that I need him (English)

Although these four statements do not mean exactly the same, they at least express the same thing : all of them suppose. This is the structure to be dealt with throughout this piece of work.

Conditionals secured our attention for various reasons. First of all, we found it very complex, therefore inciting us to analyse it in depth. Indeed, the more a complex structure

is deciphered, the less complicated its use becomes. Our interest in conditionals also stemmed from the many problems we encounter when teaching and studying them during our secondary education. Conditionals are not easy to classify, nor do they keep a steady shape. A shrewd person can, for example infer a conditional meaning from a relative clause, as he can tell a conditional sentence from word order.

e.g. 5) A country that stopped working would be quickly bankrupt > If a country stopped working, it would be quickly bankrupt.

6) Had he approached the dog, it would have bitten him.> If he had approached the dog, it ...

Only a deep study of the structure can allow the seeker to break the barriers which handicap students'apprehension of this precise matter. Conditionals are also interesting to study as the prototype of adverbial clauses in that they embody all types of problems that are likely to be true for one or another type of adverbial clauses. i.e Tense agreement problem is not the apanage of conditional constructions ; it is present in any instance of sentence subordination ; yet it is very serious in conditional combinations. The problems of terminology, punctuation, word order, typology ... are as true for conditionals as for any complex sentence.

With a firm conviction that the information we benefitted from Linguistics course, and from syntax in particular would be of some help, we ventured to conduct a scientific and didactic study of conditionals in this piece of work. The objectives of this research may therefore be summarized as follows :

- detect and raise as many general problems as possible according to what the description of conditionals offers us.

- consider both structural and language interference problems and observe to what extent they handicap an efficient teaching and learning of conditionals in Burundi secondary schools.
- attempt to elaborate a methodology of teaching conditionals
- offer a sample lesson plan and a series of reinforcement drills.

Although we did not mention the description of conditionals as an end in itself, one of the purposes of this study is to provide whoever feels interested in conditionals and even in adverbial clauses to some extent, with a more or less well-documented reference material on the topic.

This work drew inspiration from many theoricians. That is, we have tried to be eclectic to some degree. For many reasons, the major influence is from traditional grammarians. First of all we have chosen to seat our topic in the high and intermediate levels of secondary education. The reason for our choice is that it is at those stages that conditionals are tackled. Furthermore, the tense system description that those students are taught up to now is taken from traditional textbooks. They distinguish twelve tenses the application of which is illustrated perfectly in conditional complex sentences. Moreover, the way traditional grammarians have dealt with syntax and especially with complex sentences is quite satisfactory although their definitions leave much to desire. They made a clear and twofold classification of sentences.

1° According to the function they perform, four types of sentences have been listed : declarative (statements), interrogative (questions), imperative (orders) and exclamative (feeling) sentences.

2° According to their structure, three types of sentences were set. Simple, compound, and complex sentences. For traditional grammarians, a simple sentence contains a single subject-predicate combination while a compound one is made up of two independent simple sentences joined by a coordinating conjunction or separated by a semi-colon.

e.g 7) I would like to go to school but I am sick.
This is a compound sentence.

8) I am sick. (simple sentence)

A complex sentence, on the other hand, consists of two complementary sentences linked by a subordinating conjunction. The part of the sentence which is introduced by the conjunction is called the subordinate clause, and the other half the main clause. This distinction "main" and "subordinate" clauses will be discussed later on. We will have to borrow the terminology from structuralists so as to avoid confusion. Nevertheless, one should note that the feature [+dependent] assigned to the subordinate clauses makes it possible for them to function as subjects, objects or adverbs. Otherwise the classification that the traditionalists made for dependent clauses would remain unjustified. Nobody can object to the definition of a nominal clause as a clause which functions as a noun.

e.g 9) That he came at all surprised us.

An adjective clause modifies a noun as it can be seen in the sentence,

e.g 10) I remember the day when my cousin died.

An adverbial clause modifies a verb,

e.g 11) She moved away right after she graduated.

It would be dishonest to say that we did not consult generative-

transformational grammarians. They helped us very much in the chapter about teaching. We assign ourselves a task of exploiting the student's creativity and even section the teaching according to the levels of knowledge in accordance with generative-transformational theory.

Contrastive Analysis, although not really focused on in this work, will serve as an efficient device to detect problems encountered by Burundian student in the assimilation of conditional sentences.

Focus.

It would certainly seem odd although customary to spend extra time recalling what Grammar is. Grammar is covered in the science of Linguistics. There is no doubt that whoever is interested in Linguistics knows that it is a scientific study of Language. It is made up of Phonetics, a discipline which deals with word formation, syntax which concerns the sentence formation and semantics or the science of meaning. Many grammarians tried to determine the place of Grammar in Language. Some, like Christina B. Paulston risk to take it for Language. Defining Grammar as both "possible arrangements of words and sentences." (1976, p. 1), Paulston goes on saying that Grammar permeates all language skills and tho object of teaching it is the oral use of a language for communicative purpose. In fact, Paulston is right, no Language can be conceived without Grammar. Grammar is to Language what wheels are to engine. In other words, grammar must occupy a privileged place in the teaching and learning of a language. Frisby's definition of the word grammar, as Donn Byrne reaches it to us, clarifies things. "Grammar is the study of words, word groups and changes in the meaning of words which are a reflection of change in the appearence and sound of words. It is the study of the language as we hear it and see it and say it, of its analysis into its several parts and our ability to put it together again and to follow patterns already learnt." (1969 : 87) Thus, it becomes clear that grammar is intimately linked to Language. For we, who are interested in syntax, there is no possible way to ignore grammar especially when we intend to teach a structure. Grammar is paramount in language learning. We cannot limit ourselves

to the oral aspect of grammar teaching. Because Language is also written, a major emphasis will be put on syntax, the step-child of grammatical structures. The written language and the problems which are peculiarly characteristic of written style will be seriously tackled. It is impossible to embrace the whole of it in our short study, the field is very vast and consequently we will restrict ourselves to the study of conditionals as the representative of English adverbial clauses. We will try to enter deep in the matter, make a diagnosis of the problems they entail and try to solve them for the sake of the learner.

Conditionals present many difficulties both to the speaker and the hearer, and the teacher and his students as well. It is a structure which requires a lot of care particularly with learners and speakers of English as a second/foreign language. The speaker must make an adequate choice of structure and sequence of tenses according to the message he wants to convey.

i.e An unfulfilled event is best expressed by the use of a past conditional in the result clause and a past perfect in the conditional half. This combination is meant to stress the idea of regret of a given failure.

e.g 12) If I had known very early, (unfortunately I did not) I would not have spent my time on Kirundi conditionals.

Conditionals contain many overlapping cases and worse than that we have many moods intermingled in the structure from time to time. Those are, the subjunctive, the indicative, and the imperative moods.

e.g 13) If my brothers were in the house, my father would not beat my mother.

It is not easy to decide which of the indicative or the subjunctive moods is used in the above example. We will see that even the past involves similar shape. Sometimes it bears a past meaning and in other cases a present. The moods and the tenses are not the only elements which bring about problems in the practice with conditionals. Even subordinators can be the source of the difficulties. It is the case with conditional introducers like unless, in case, provided that, and other forms such as wish + past, hope ... which involve a use of well-picked tenses in well-defined contexts.

The "abridgement" of conditionals cannot occur without any risk of confusion in either the speaker or the receiver's mind. In the sentence like,

e.g 14) But for you, I would not have dealt with syntax

the hearer can understand that "I do it for you" while the statement means "I deal with syntax thanks to you." Omissions, inversions and replacements which take root from that process may cause problems, too.

The language interference is not a least problem. On the contrary it is serious as far as learners of English as a second language are concerned. This interference is caused by the structural differences between the native language of the learner and the target language (respectively Kirundi and English for our case).

i.e A Burundian student who is used to use the future in the conditional clause will feel uneasy once the teacher forbids him to use will as a future modal in the same clause in English.

e.g 15) Ukazomubona, uramubwira ko ndamukeneye.

✗ If you will see him, tell him that I need him.

but ✓ If you see him, tell him that I need him.

Such a difference can be perceived and explained only through the means of contrastive Analysis Theory. As Marianne Celce Murcia et al noticed it, "Contrastive Analysis enables one to predict problems encountered or to explain errors made by those learning a second language." (1983 : 3). The teacher of English as a foreign language is then the best indicated to save this situation when he shares the native language with his students.

We should not close our introduction without saying something about levels. Levels are very important in the teaching grammatical structures. In fact, the structure of a language is broad. Any attempt to expose it all to the students within one year would be folly. The acquisition of the grammar of a language is a result of a gradual learning by practice. Even a native language is acquired through a progressive process. As we are concerned with a foreign language, its structure acquisition will necessitate sectioning the grammar into bits to be taught according to the years of language learning. Those years are called the levels of education.

Now that we are dealing with a complex structure, such as the conditionals, its handling must not be done randomly. Its teaching must evolve with the growing mind of the learner. Contemporary educationalists claim that the learner be the center of education and this is very important. He must not be considered as "a small adult" as ancient pedagogues used to call him to mean that he can assimilate as much as an adult can do. Back to our case, the teaching of conditionals would start with the beginning of the intermediate level, that is with the third year of the learning of the language. As a matter of fact, there would be no use in teaching conditionals to beginners because as Raja T. Nasr put it, "the value of

grammar must be smallest when the pupils are beginners, for such rules as exist have been drawn from a study of the languag and cannot be of much help to pupils with so little knowledge of the language." (1972 : 38). In other words, to learn a grammatical structure successfully, one must have a sufficient pre-requisite knowledge as far as its components are concerned. Even in this case, the student is not going to know everything related to the new pattern, the process must be gradual as Wilga Rivers stressed it, "Grammatical material must be carefully graded so that student advances slowly from material thoroughly learned and practiced to more complicated material involving more conscious choices." (1968 : 83). It is right indeed that the teacher goes from the simple to the complex in order to allow the learner to dwell upon the matter methodically.

I. DESCRIPTION OF ENGLISH CONDITIONALS.

This chapter is not intended to provide the reader with thorough information about English conditionals. Nevertheless, we will try to produce a reference material which may be useful, in a way or another, to the searcher of a more or less detailed documentation about : the typology, the tense behaviou the categorization, and the overlaps related to conditional sentences.

As it will be seen, some statements formulated by traditional grammarians are debatable and we will afford to support or object to them. In other words, a gratuitous acceptance of grammarians' theories would be a sign of high stupidity. One should contribute to the amendment of old discoveries in order to adapt them to present situation.

A. Definitions.

Any author who dealt with conditionals opened his endeavou with a definition of what they may look like. R. A. Close, for example, talks of conditional clauses which according to her should be but adverbial clauses beginning with "if" or with conjunctions having similar meaning like unless ...

Marianne Celce-Murcia in common agreement with her cooperators do not stray from the above definition. To them, conditional sentences consist in the dependence of one set of circumstances (i.e the result clause) on another. She exactly repeats what Quirk said in (1979 : 324).

In Randolph Quirk et al's opinion, clauses of conditions are introduced chiefly by the subordinators if (positive condition)

and unless (negative condition).

B. D. Graver joins the three authors already consulted as he says that a conditional sentence consists of two parts. A part introduced by if which he calls a conditional clause. This clause states the condition that must be satisfied before the other part may be true. That second part is called the main clause (1971 : 89).

Thomson and Martinet evolve in the same line of thought when they say that conditional sentences have two parts : the if - clause and the main clause (1960 : 130).

Marcella Frank, on her turn, shows what conditionals look like in specifying the main conditional introducing words. Those are, if, even if, unless, in case, provided or providing that, on condition that, as (or so) long as, if only, suppose or supposing (that), whether ... or whether, in the event that (1972 :).

William Kenefick is not in any case far from others' opinion. He defines the conditional sentence in terms of the major subordinator if. He says that "if" is the appropriate word which introduces a condition and a result. (1970 : 85)

Lastly G. E. Wishon understands a conditional sentence as being one which contains two clauses : A dependent clause beginning with if (or another conjunction performing the same general function) and a main clause answering the condition of the if-clause (1968 : 329).

Many other authors defined "conditional sentences". However, they are not mentioned here for the simple reason that they repeat maybe in different terms what the quoted writers said.

Many observations can be made about those definitions. They are not only circular, but they also contain some

contradictions ; namely, the fact of calling "the main clause" the one whose fulfilment depends upon the occurence of the condition specified by the so-called subsidiary clause. In our opinion, the clause whose results depend on a given condition would bear the appelation of subsidiary clause, the orders becoming then reversed. Otherwise, one plausible solution would be simply talking of "result clause" and "conditional clause".

Apart from that problem, we agree with those grammarians. It is preferable that a conditional sentence be complex and contain an explicit subordinator although we can sometimes have implied conditions.
After the definition, an attempt to set the conditionals into groups follows.

B. A tense based typology.

It is a moot point to set up a firm classification of conditional sentences. Grammarians still vacillate between three basic types of conditional sentences in English. The classification banks on the combination of tenses involved in each pair. It is to be noticed that as Marianne Celce-Murcia observed it, "the semantics of all the various types of conditionals are subtle and hard to understand." (1983 : 55). It is hence hardly acceptable that the barriers between the kinds of conditionals are hard to cross in By Water's view (1982 : 32).
Grammarians such as : S. Pit Corder (1981 : 91-102), G.E. Wishon, Marianne Celce, Thomson & Martinet, R. A. Close, Betty S. Azar, Kenefick distinguish three types of conditionals each one containing many variations. Others, on the other hand, found out four commonest types. Among those we can cite, Harvey Madler and Leonard R. Marelli (1981 :), By Water, Marcella Frank and B. D. Graver.

How do those two groups of authors qualify their conditionals? The first group should be represented by Thomson and Martinet for his simple and clear terminology. He set up : probable, improbable and impossible conditions. If we chose Harvey Nadler and Leonard Marelli as the spokesmen of the second group we have : present real conditions, present unreal conditions, past real conditions and past unreal conditions.

A confrontation of the two competing teams led us to the suggestion of the following classification.

- Likely conditionals to mean either present or past possible conditions (true conditionals)
- Unlikely conditionals to mean hardly possible conditionals
- Impossible and unfulfilled conditionals to mean imaginative conditionals.

The nuances between those three types will be clarified by the subtypes in each one of those main.

1) Tense sequences (three basic types).

a. Likely conditionals.

Likely conditionals would be represented by this combination of tenses :
a present or past tense in the conditional clause and a future, present or past tense in the result clause.

e.g 16) If she did what you say, she was wrong.

17) If he has a tape recorder, he probably borrowed it.

18) If he is bothering you, I will put him outside.

The modals can/could, must, have to/had to, may/might, ought to, shall/should & would may substitute for "will" provided that they emphasize the past tense rather than indicating a conditional

tense.

Likely conditionals in fact mean that it is likely that the event we expect to happen, takes or has taken place either in the present, the past or the future. There are many odds that a condition be fulfilled and a certain result be expected to follow.

This type of conditionals can express various (actions) ideas : eventuality, necessity, provisionality, supposition, habit, inference, generalization physical phenomena, general truths, conjecture and well understood acts (facts).

- Necessity : Likely conditionals deal with necessity as one faces relationships that are true and unchanging. It is obvious that if a certain condition is fulfilled, a certain result inevitably follows. These facts are frequent in scientific writings since sciences are often concerned with such absolute truths. Necessity in this case implies a syllogistic reasonment.

  e.g If a creation is a man, he is mortal(necessarily).

- Eventuality is applied to any case showing a more or less strong conviction that soon or later an event will take place and a result will follow. Eventuality would then be an inclusive term to express : a prediction, a conjecture, an inference and an intention.

  e.g 19) If the boss is not in his office, he (is) must be out for lunch (conjecture).

  20) In the event (that) light is off, many books will be stolen (prediction).

  21) If he bothers you, I will take him with me (solution).

  22) If you stay at home, I will pay you a visit (intention).

- Provisionality : expresses a stipulation, a requirement or a demand that is expected to be made. Once such instance of conditionals are transferred into a conversational speech, they shift of function and express a habit.

e.g 23) If you wash the dishes, your brother will dry them.

24) ⟶ If I wash the dishes, my brother dries them.

25) As long as they are not controlled, students (may) go wherever they like.

- Suppositions : Suppositions are always followed by an unexpected result.

e.g 26) If I pass, I will be very glad.

27) Suppose I pass, I will be very glad.

- Habit is referred to when the conditional sentence bears a meaning of scheduling. The event tends to be repetitive and occur in regular situations.

e.g 28) If it is twelve o'clock, I go to the restaurant.

Note. Although conditional, this sentence contains an idea of time. It is hence possible to replace if by when in such conditional sentences which connote temporality.

- Instruction implies a certain order. That is, the speaker gives an order to the hearer.

e.g 29) If the baby cries, bring her to me.

30) In case you need me, please knock up.

b. Unlikely conditionals.

With this type, we deal with statements which are impossible in the present future (here time) or in the immediate present (time again). However, the event is likely to happen in the remote future although the likelihood is very uncertain.

- Those which are almost impossible only in the present time can be illustrated by the example :

e.g 31) If I had money (now), I would buy a present for my mother.

- Those which are almost impossible even in the remote future can be illustrated by the example :

e.g 32) If I were born in Washington, I would see the White House.

33) If I were a boy, I would love many girls.

None of the two wishes formulated above can be one day. The speaker simply makes hypotheses and suppositions hopelessly. The characteristic tense combination in this type is :

Simple past in the conditional clause
present conditional in the result clause.

(The continuous form of these tenses is also possible). Unlikely statements can express a doubt, uncertainty, improbability and anxiety about a given situation.

c. Impossible conditionals.

This type of conditionals deals with no more possible conditions and hence no possible results. They present us a hopeless speaker regretting a past event.
Two possible interpretations can be made.

- past and no more retrievable conditions

e.g 34) If my grandfather were alive today, my mother could not beat me.

- unfulfilled conditions which occasioned a total failure

e.g 35) If Adam and Eve had not eaten of the forbidden tree, there would have been no suffering on earth.

A characteristic tense combination of this type is:

past perfect in the conditional clause (and eventually simple past)

past conditional in the result clause (sometimes the present conditional tense).

The possible variations inside each of the three main types of conditional sentences can be well understood if we make a recapitulative table on tense behaviour as readings offered us an opportunity to gather them.

We found it better to connect each possible tense sequence with a corresponding meaning.

Recapitulative table on tense behaviour in conditional tenses.

1. Likely conditionals.

if + S_1	S_2	meaning	examples
present	present	-general truth	If you heat ice, it turns to water
		-conjecture	If the boss is not in his office, he is out
		-necessity.	If a creation is a man, he is mortal
present	future	-eventuality	If it is ready, he will bring it tomorrow
		-intention .	If you stay at home, I will pay you a visit .
(pres cont)	future	-consequence	If he is bothering you, he will come tomorrow

if + S_1	S_2	meaning	examples
present	future perfect	-high degree of anxiety (prediction)	If you do not get there before six o'clock, the bus will have left.
present perfect	future tense	open condition (dependence)	Unless he has done the work to my satisfaction, I will not pay him for it.
present	present perfect	gratuitous affirmation	If she has a tape recorder she has (probably) borrowed it.
present	past	conjecture	If he has a tape recorder, he probably borrowed it.
present	present	contrast, concession	If I am not a good runner, I am an excellent singer.
present perfect	present perfect	inference, implicature	If she has done what you say, she has done wrong.
pr. cont.	pr. cont.	generalization	If it is raining at Gitega, it is raining all over the country.
imperative + and	- future	warning, objection	Buy it, and it will cost you wood and fire.
	- present	war ing, objection	Let women into your affairs, and you never know when it (will) ends.
present cont.	imperative	permission	If he is bothering you, kick him.
pres.subj	present	diffidence	If this rumour be true, everything is possible.
past	past	deduction	If you parked your car out, you were foolish.
past	pres.perf	implicature	If she did it, she has done wrong.
past	pres.cont.	assumption	If she went to the office, she is probably catching the bus.

if + S_1	S_2	meaning	examples
past	future	informal use supposition	If he made a mistake, he will correct it.
past	future perfect	anxiety	If the thieves (really come) the bicycle will have been stolen.
past	present	great possibility	If he arrived only yesterday he is unlikely to leave today.
past cont	past	assumption	If John was running fast, he caught the bus.
past	pr. cont.	uncertainty, doubt	If Joe caught the bus, he is taking the test now.

2. Unlikely conditionals.

if + S_1	S_2	meaning	examples
past subj be	present cond.	wish, advice	If I were you, I should tell him truth.
past	present cond.	-present-non fact -doubt	If he came, I should be surprised. If he really needed money, I would give him some.
past cont	present cond.	improbability	If I was hurrying, I should not notice you.
inverted were to	present cond.	extreme improbability	Were you to leave me, I would kill myself.
If+past	present cond.	regret (in present)	If you said it, it would be a shame.

3. Impossible conditionals.

if + S_1	S_2	meaning	examples
past	past cond.	hypothesis (wish)	If you were there, my mother would not have beaten me.
past perf.	past cond.	past failure (regret)	If I had known, I would have cut class.
neg. past perf.	neg. fut.	irretrievable loss	If he had not come in when you arrived, he will not come in at all this morning.
past perf. (neg.)	present	rationalisation	If he had not left any message when you called, he hopes probably to find you still here.
past perf.	Present cond.	strong anger	If he had come before, he would be excusable.

There are some cases which do not fit in any of these three cases yet which are frequent in the world of discourse. Those are, quite often combinations of will (would) and will (would) in a pair of conditional clauses. This case constitutes an exception and can be in different contexts.

Irregularities.

if + S_1	S_2	meaning	examples
will	will	volition	If you will write to me, my parents will be glad.
will	will	emphasis of the relation-ship to future time	If he will get the money, he will give it to charity.
will	will	the result orients the condition	If it will make you happier, I will stop smoking.
would	would	hesitation or politeness (in request)	If you would write me a letter, I would be more grateful.

Comments on the tense behaviour in conditionals.

1) Conditional tenses in a complex sentence.

It seems that some authors do not recognise the existence of conditional as a tense. This assertion arises from the way in which they label forms such as

would + verbal
could + verbal
should + verbal,

in a conditional sentence. People like Quirk and Jesperson .. (1981 : 258-9) will describe the above forms as would + infinitive, could + infinitive, and should + infinitive.

Our stand is completely opposed to this opinion ranging ourselves on the side of R. Barnes & Thomson (1972 : 145-9) and Martinet (ibid : 185). The existence of a conditional tense makes it easy to distinguish which "would" implies a condition and which "one" implies a future in the past. For Barnes and Martinet a conditional tense is complex.

present cond. ⟶ would + infinitive without To.

e.g 36) I would like to go for a ride.

past cond. ⟶ should have + past participle.

e.g 37) We should have gone to the musical party instead of the play.

In order to avoid irrelevant cases, we should have a look at the role played by conditional tenses in our particular content. They are the raison d'être of conditional sentences for their imaginative and hypothetical meanings. Never can "should" and "would" express a tentative condition in a subordinate clause as long as it is not part of a conditional tense. Furthermore,

nobody would talk of unreal present or unreal past without the use of a conditional tense.

e.g 38) In, he said he would go abroad the following day. Would is the past of will and has no conditional meaning at all.

Apart from these conditional tenses, many other tenses and even moods intervene in the realisation of a conditional sentence. Those are : future tenses, past tenses, and present tenses. As for moods, the imperative, the subjunctive, and the infinitive play an important part on a semantic level. Thus,

- the present tenses (simple, continuous and perfect) used in the conditional clauses namely express likely conditions. In the result clause, those tenses match with either the future tenses (simple, progressive, or perfect) or a repeated tense from the ones in the conditional half.

- The past tenses in the result clauses signal the idea of probability provided that they correspond with either the future or the present tenses in the conditional half. Again, a repetition of the tense used in the result clause is possible.

- A present conditional in the result clause, once matched with one of the past tenses in the conditional half, signals improbability. Its occurence in a conditional half accounts for either insistence or politeness. In this case, a same tense can be repeated in a result clause.

- A past conditional in a result clause is always used to express an unfulfilled or an impossible event. It corresponds to the past perfect (quite seldom the past simple) in the conditional half.

It must be reminded that the use of will (unless it means

volition, willingness or insistence on futurity) in a condition clause is a serious mistake.

- The imperative can occur either in the conditional half or in the result clause, when it occurs in the result clause it is associated with one tense exclusively : the present simple. In this case the imperative clause gives an order, consequence of the occurence of the condition. When it appears in the conditional half, then it means something different. It provides the reader with an indirect warning. Here, the structure changes a bit. There is an introduction of either the disjunctor "or" or the conjunctive "and" in between the two halves.

e.g 39) Drop that, and I will kill you.

40) If you drop that, I will kill you.

41) Set your alarm clock, or (else) you will oversleep.

B.D. Graver managed to give a clear information about the functions of "and" and "or" in an imperative construction. "The conjunction 'and' implies a verb form in the conditional of the same sign (positive or negative) as the imperative ; whereas 'or (else)' implies a verb form of the opposite sign" (op.cit.:99) He called these forms "alternative forms". If we understand Graver, we can easily replace "or" by "otherwise" and "and" by "thus".

Such forms are used in precise contexts such as in a conversational style and in "proverbial construction" if we interprete Hornby (1954 : 234).

- The infinitive used in a conditional half makes of the clause an equivalent of the conditional clause. When it is in the perfective form, it expresses well an imaginative conditional more precisely an unfulfilled condition. In this case, it is associated with a past conditional in the other half.

e.g 42) It would have been wiser to have left it unsaid (some people prefer (to leave) the simple infinitive).

43)— It would have been wiser if you had left it unsaid (unfortunately you said it).

- An infinitive (simple) can also introduce a true condition be it in the past or in the present.

e.g. 44) I had to answer the questions to avoid a quiz.

→ 45) If I wanted to avoid a quiz, I had to answer the questions.

46) To be a good student, one must be serious first.

47) One must be serious first if he wants to be a good student.

- The subjunctive mood can be found in the conditional half of a conditional clause. It is mostly used in formal style today. It can be used to express an open condition.

e.g 48) If any student be caught cheating, he will be severely punished.

Swan defines the subjunctive as "the name of a special group of verb-forms (e.g I were, she be, be return) which are used in a few cases to talk about events which are not certain to happen- which we hope will happen, or imagine might happen, or want to happen." (op. cit : 580)

e.g 49) If I were rich, I would not work at all.

We support Swan's definition, and besides, we showed some of the meanings of the subjunctive on the table of tense sequence in conditional sentence But today its use has been restricted to literary contexts. Playwrights, Poets and novelists use the subjunctive as a literary (trick) device to take the style out of the usual associations. e.g 50) "If this rumour be true,

everything is possible"! It is to be noted that, behind the subjunctive constructions, a modal (should, would, or could) is understood. In fact, the imaginative use of preterits and especially of could, might, ought to, would, should was originally proper to the present subjunctive. Now that we get to those modals, it would be better if we analyse how some auxiliaries behave in conditional sentences.

2) Modal auxiliaries in conditionals.

Would /could/should/will.

O. Jesperson(1964:287)and Randolph Quirk made a good study about auxiliaries and this helped us very much all along our work.

In conditional sentences, could very often represents the 'unreal' present. It bears the idea of a contingent possibility or ability.

e.g 51) If I had more time, I could answer all the questions.

Should fulfills the same function, but it can also occur in rather formal real conditions to express insistence.

e.g 52) If you should change your mind, please let us know.

Would has a contingent use in the main clause of a conditional sentence.

e.g 53) He would talk too much if the teacher did not time his speech.

Would plays an imaginative function in main sentences of "condition contrary to fact".

e.g 54) You would die if you took a strong dose of the medecine.

U.B

In past conditional tense, could expresses an "unreal past".

e.g 55) If I had known how it worked, I could have told him what to do (but I did not know, so I could not tell him).

In many applications, should is a preterit of imagination in the same way as would. It expresses an obligation or duty under hypothetical conditions.

e.g 56) If I could have the power, every beggar should be chased from town.

The same should in a conditional clause can express uncertainty with regard to the future. It is nearly synonymous with "were to".

e.g 57) If he should (were to) call, there would be nobody to hear him.

Would shows a great difference from should when used in an if-clause. It expresses willingness or wishing.

e.g 58) I would be very grateful if you would offer a help

may/might, ought to, be able, must, had to.

Those auxiliaries almost keep their original meanings even in conditional sentences. Thus, may can signal a permission as in 59. You may borrow my pen if yours is dried up.
It can also signal a possibility as in : The chair may collapse if you overload it.

might can occur in a present context and signal uncertainty. In a sentence like 60. I think he might help you if you tell him the problem.
Used as a past of may, might means would perhaps, or would just. There again, it expresses a possibility.

e.g 61) I think he might help you if you told him your problem.

Must and ought to refer to an obligation, a logical necessity an expectation or a compulsion. They are mainly used in the result clause.

e.g 62) If you want to see the doctor, you must be early.

Although seldom, must can be used in the if-clause to express something unavoidable. It accounts for insistence. We met such a construction in pieces of literature.

e.g 63) "If we must die, let us die nobly". Claude Mallay

Had to is nothing but a mere past for must and have to.
Back to what we said earlier,
will never indicates futurity in a conditional clause. Yet, it can be used to express volition, willingness, or wishing.

e.g 64) If you will listen to me, I would be glad.

It can also occur in a conditional clause, when the latter refers to a result of the action of a result clause (habitually. the if-clause refers to a condition that comes before).

e.g 65) If it will make you happier, I will stay with you.

would and will can occur in the if-clause on the condition that the action is unlikely to happen or improbable but then, the same clause must give either orders, advice, or suggestions and commonly polite requests.

e.g 66) I would be grateful if you would stop smoking.

67) If you should call at Kabwa's, tell him he owes me a letter.

- If a determination or an intention are meant, will or would are not appropriate to the case, want to is recommended in the conditional clause.

e.g 68) If you want to smoke, you must go into another room.

The reader will notice that we seem to ignore the function of will in the result clause. We would not be condemned so severely on that error. Everybody knows that will predicts an event.

e.g 69) I will talk for thirty minutes if the comittee gives me the chance.

had and were to.

had is the preterit of have. And apart from its being a normal (lexical) verb, have as a function word is known to be an aspectual auxiliary for the perfective. For our case, had + the past participle of a given clause is indispensable after if, to express an unfulfilled condition in the past-that some people call counterfactual conditions.

e.g 70) If you had taken an umbrella with you, the rain would not have interrupted your travel.

The operator had in the above example stands for the unfulfilment of the action.

Even were to can be considered as a conditional auxiliary. Its function is to make a future possibility sound less probable. Moreover, it helps to make a suggestion look like more tentative.

e.g 71) If you were to move your chair a bit to the right, I would have a space to sit in.

72) What would you do if war were to break out ?

Were to used as part of conditional construction should not in any case be confused with the different forms am/is and are to and was/"were to", which are used in an if-clause to indicate obligation.

e.g 73) If he was to get in touch with me, why has not he done so ?

74) If he were to get in touch with me, I could explain the case.

Still in the section on tense sequences, it is worthy to observe the tense behaviour in a conditional sentence as one shifts from a direct speech to an indirect speech and vice versa.

3) Tense shift in reported speech.

It is generally known that whenever a speech shifts from direct to indirect, the tenses involved change according especially present tenses. As a result, the same thing happens within a conditional sentence. We should bear in mind that the the change of speech is conditioned by the tense carried by the reporting verb (present and future tenses cause no change).

- When we report a conditional sentence about the future in indirect speech, we usually change the tenses.

e.g 75) "Will you wait for me if I go and mail my letters?", asked Thérèse.

76) Thérèse asked her friends if they would wait for her if she went and mailed her letters. Here, the future is expressed in the past.

- When we report a conditional sentence about unlikely and likely conditions we usually do not change the tenses. The reason for this is simply that the tenses involved have already the shape of past and, customarily, the past tense remains unchanged in reported speech.

- Conditional tenses do not change for the simple reason, the conditional auxiliaries (would, could, might, should, had to) are already in past as far as the structure is concerned.

e.g 77) "If I were a bird, I could fly high in the air", my niece dreamt.

78) My niece dreamt that if she were a bird, she could fly high in the air.

NB There is one special case where a conditional tense (present conditional) can shift to past conditional i.e when the condition is no longer possible.

e.g 79) "I would marry her if she asked me.", said Jean to Georges.

80)→ Georges said to Jean that he would have married Mary if she had asked him. This is possible only if the condition is no longer possible. That is, if Jean has already married someone else. Otherwise, the sentence would remain unchanged.

81) ⟶ Jean said to Georges that he would marry her if she asked him. This sentence means that the action is still possible although the condition is less likely to be fulfilled.

Here is a table likely to change if the sentence is reported.

Direct speech	Indirect speech	Examples
Present cont. Future	past continuous future in the past (pres. cond)	She said she would die if her boy friend were leaving her.
simple present	simple past	Mary said that she went to the cinema if she had money. (if equivalent to when)
present perf. present cond.	past perfect past conditional	Mary thought that Rose would have called her if she had finished the homework.
present subj.	past subj.	Mary was convinced that if the rumour were true, they would have a holiday.

Quite often, the shift from a tense to another makes also a change in the idea of conditional. Hence, the likely conditional changes into an unlikely conditional or even an unfulfilled conditional as we have seen it above in one example.

C. Classification of English conditionals.

The preceding section was dealing with the different types of conditionals in terms of the tense combination. The following one will attempt to classify them in terms of subordinators. There are cases where a conditional sentence is introduced by an explicit subordinator or any other word which can signal a conditional meaning. Sometimes, however, we can infer a conditional meaning from a sentence which contains no introducing expression at all. In some of those cases, there may be some clues which are provided such as inversions, the use of subjunctives, imperatives, and infinitives which can facilitate the hearer in the detection of meaning. We preferred the terms "explicited conditions" for those sentences which contain an explicit introducer, and "infered conditions" to denote those conditions.

1. Explicited conditions.

Many people designate conditional clauses by the term "if-clauses". This is too overgeneralizing. It is true that "if" and "unless" are the main and current expressions for conditionals. However, as Marcella Frank meant it in exhausting the list of condition introducers, there are so many expressions for this particular structure. Some are single like *if* and *unless*, others are compounds such as even if, in the event that, on condition that ... It is now high time we analysed how they function in a complex sentence.

a. Unless / if.

While "if" is used in positive conditions, "unless" is used in negative conditions and generally means "except if" or if ... not. In other words, unless means that there is only one condition which can prevent the action.

Besides its negative meaning, unless can indicate that a condition is necessary in order to change the situation.

e.g 82) I will not take my umbrella unless it rains.

83) I will not miss any course unless I am ill.

If-clauses (especially those expressing open conditions) are like questions in that they imply uncertainty about the actual existence of the circumstance referred to. On the other hand, unless-clauses lay stress on the excluded positive option. We will see that, if-clauses tend to contain non assertive forms such as : any, ever and unless clauses contain assertive forms.

e.g 84) I will not phone you unless I have an urgent message for you (assertive)

85) If you ever find a good example, raise your hand.

For the forestated reason, unless-clauses rarely appear in a hypothetical condition. Consequently, the negative conditional clause : "If I had not tried" has not for equivalent "Unless I had tried". Unless can unmistakeably replace "if ... not" in likely conditionals when somebody is writing about the future. "Unless" has the exclusive meaning of "only if not" or "except on the condition that".

b. Provided that / if.

Provided that can worthily replace if wherever there is a rather stronger idea of limitation or restriction. Nonetheless, it is chiefly used with permission and means "if and only if ..."

e.g 86) You can go to the cinema provided that you do not trouble my sleep when you are back.

c. As long as, so long as, and on condition that.

Those expressions are approximately synonymous with "provided that" apart from that they are quite often used in medial position. Moreover, "on condition that" requires a human agent.

e.g 87) You can go to the cinema on condition that your father does not discover it.

d. In case of, in case/in the event that.

"In case" does not share the meaning with "if". Yet, it also introduces a condition and, this time, the speaker is talking of precautions (things we do in advance to be safe or ready if there is a problem later).

e.g 88) Take an umbrella with you in case it rains.

This construction seems odd. Nevertheless, it is adequate. In fact, the difference between if and in case arises from the dissimilarity of the order of events.
In sentences about the past, in case is often followed by "should" especially in a formal style.

e.g 89) I packed my affairs in case the supervisor should kick me away.

The prepositional locution in case of has a wider meaning than "in case" and can be used in if-situations.

e.g 90) In case of fire (if there is fire), cry for help.

In case can refer to future possible conditions and is synonymous with "in the event that". Both of those expressions may be preceded by just.

e.g 91) She was seriously tired just in case she could not walk one metre on foot.

This sentence contains a meaning of degree. We will see further (see section on overlaps) that an "in case-clause" entails a purposive sense, too.

f. Suppose, supposing that.

As the terms themselves reveal it, those subordinators make a supposition about the future or the past. They help the speaker to make the hearer speculate. They currently come in initial position and require an interrogative form.

e.g 92) Suppose I had an accident, who would suffer ? Supposing I had an accident, who would have suffered ? (unfulfilled event)

g. But for.

This expression is particularly interesting for one reason ; its use offers a way to avoid an if-clause. It embodies an if-clause because it means "if it were not for", "if it had not been for". But for is synonymous with "if not for". It is a good device to substitute for past conditional which seems rather hard to apply.

e.g 93) But for the accident, I would have finished my memoir by the end of October.

As it can be read in this example, but for means that one particular circumstance has changed everything. But for plays exactly the same role as "without" in some situations.

h. Conditions introduced by without.

A prepositional phrase consisting of without + a noun sometimes has the meaning of an if-clause. Here is the way Polly Davis represents the equation of a without-phrase and an if-clause (1977 : 270).

		does not have		
without + noun =	if he	did not have	+	noun
		had not had		

e.g 94) If you do not have a visa, you cannot go abroad.

95) = Without a visa you cannot go abroad.

Without followed by a gerund can also impart a conditional meaning in the same way an if-clause does.

e.g 96) Without having studied it before, I could not follow English at the University.

i. If only.

"Only" can be placed after "if" and suggest either a strong wish, or a regret according to the tense it is associated with. That combination if + only is an intensified equivalent of if, typically used in impossible and unfulfilled events (hypothetical clauses).

e.g 97) If only he had told me truth, I would not have lost my time.

98) If only he goes to school, it will be my joy.

Here is a table relating the tense to the meaning of "if only".

if only + tense	meanings	example
past (past perf)	- regret - willingness - intention	If only he did not drive so fast. We wish he did not drive so fast.
present cond.	- regret about (wish) a present action - a not very hopeful wish concerning the future	If only he would give us five minutes more (we are sorry that he is not willing to do so. If only the noise would stop : (we wish it would stop but there is a further thought that it will go on.
present a will	hope	e.g If only he goes to school (we hope he will go). If only he will accept the offer (we hope he will be willing to).

When positive, "the if only"-clause contains assertive forms and nearly always precedes the result clause. Sometimes, however, there is no result clause at all, and the conditional clause stands on its own as a hypothetical wish.

e.g 99) If only he had not shown it to me!

j. Whether ... or indicates that any of the several conditions is sufficient to provoke the situation in the main clause. That correlative sequence has been called by Randolph Quirk, "an alternative conditional" in that it combines the meaning of if with the disjunctive meaning of either or.

e.g 100) Whether you cry or laugh, nothing will change in the punishment.

Whether ... or not means that the situation in the result clause is independent of the condition. That is, the condition can be explicitly prevented from playing any role in determining the outcome expressed in the result clause. Thus, they are referred to as "irrelevant conditions".

e.g 101) We will have to take the quiz whether we want to or not.

Note that, there is a possibility to separate "whether" from "or not" as we can keep them together especially when we are in front of a very long sentence.

e.g 102) Whether or not you need my help, I will come to your party.

k. Even if.

"Even" can be used as an emphatic of if in a conditional clause. This string indicates that a condition is not sufficient to change the situation in the main clause, although we might expect it to do so.

e.g Even if it rains, I will not wear my raincoat.

Here, the rain is not sufficient as a condition to urge me wearing a raincoat.

"Even if" is special to some extent, since it expresses both the contingent dependence of one circumstance upon another and the surprising nature of this dependence.

e.g 103) Even if he spent an hour praying me, I would not forgive him.

l. As if.

Many grammarians such as Hornby, Cartledge, Swan, ... mention "as if" as among conditional introducers. However, we ourselves

object to that as long as they do not justify how. As modifies if and hence gives to if the status of comparative expression. No condition, no result are stated in the sentence.

e.g 104) You talk as if you were very rich.

The sentence has a sense of speculation rather than a condition.

m. If with happen to.

"Happen to" can be used in an if-clause when the speaker is highly uncertain of the fulfilment of the condition. "Happen to" in this case is replaceable by "any chance".

e.g 105) If you happen to see my mother, tell her that I am badly in need of her.

106) If by any chance you see my mother, tell her that I am badly in need of her.

There is what Graver called "remote possibility". This expression refers to the insertion of "should" before "happen to" just to show the hopelessness of the speaker. It plays the role of emphasizing the unlikelihood.

Those subordinators seem like that do not always work in full clauses. We have already seen three instances with "but for , in case of, and without." The clauses introduced by those words do not often contain a conjugated verb. If they do, it is just in gerund form. This case offers us a possibility to say much in few and hence deserves attention.

"Abridgement" of if clauses.

As Sven Jacobson (1964 : 21) noticed it, adverbial clauses should be divided into two groups according to their structure. There are full clauses made up of two distinct clauses : the main clause and the subclause. On the other hand, there are

elliptical clauses which are but abridged forms of full clauses. Conditionals constitute a nice example of the last type. Some people, maybe due to laziness or economy, use ellipsis or substitution in if-clauses.

What is "ellipsis" ? Richards Jack and his friends (1985 : 90) define the word ellipsis as "the leaving out of words or phrases from sentences where they are unnecessary because they have already been referred to or mentioned". This word should not be confused with "substitution" that M.A.K. Halliday and Ruqaiya, Hasan (1976 : 143) characterize by the use of an explicit "counter" e.g one, "or do" as a place marker of what is presupposed. This interpretation of "substitution" reveals us that ellipsis can be regarded as substitution by zero. That is, it inserts nothing in the slots, while substitution always implies replacement. It would be better if we saw first how substitution functions and then proceed with the total omission of elements from if-clauses.

Regarding the substitution with "so" and "not", many an author came to the same declaration that "so" and "not" are the most frequent pro-forms of if-clauses in "if not" and "if so". Those two expressions can validly replace a full if-clause. So is used in an affirmative clause. "Not" is used in a negative clause.

e.g 107) There might be a holiday next Monday. If so (if yes) I will go upcountry.

"If so"-in this sentence- equals "if there is a holiday".

108) In, there might be a holiday next Monday. If not, the headmaster will have changed his mind.

109) "If not" -in this situation- substitutes for "if there is no holiday".

If we consider Halliday's definition, we find that he was thoroughly right. "So" and "not" stand for entire subject and predicate (clause). That is why we preferred them the term "replacives".

It is important to notice that "if not" is synonymous with "otherwise" and even "or else".

e.g 110) I was informed. Otherwise (if not) I would have cut the meeting.

As a conclusion, otherwise, or else, if not can be used interchangeably. All of those expressions imply a shift of idea either from positive to negative or from negative to positive. In any case, "so" and "not" are very helpful in that they avoid the speaker to repeat useless elements.

The inferential conjunct "then" in the eyes of Sidney Greenbaum (1969 : 75) shows a certain equivalence between "then", "in that case", and "if so". For Greenbaum, "then" appears in a "superordinate" clause following a conditional clause. It prevents the speaker from introducing tautology in his speech.

e.g 111) Now, I begin to feel that if I ought to take the quiz, then probably I ought to fail too.

There is a difference however slight it may be, between the inferential disjuncts, "or else", otherwise" and "if not". Else is added after a sentence to reinforce the implication of a conditional relationship in a sentence consisting of an imperative clause linked to a following declarative clause by or.

e.g 112) Hand over your money, or else I will shoot.

Otherwise equals "if not", but is more likely to occur in non-initial position than or else.

As to the functionning of elliptical forms in if-clauses, there is no great difference with what happens in substitution. There are many possibilities of making ellipsis in if-clauses. The mostly used have been selected for us by M. Frank (op. cit:

- A predicate noun :

  113) If (it is) a success, the play can be repeated many times.

- A predicate adjective :

  114) If (he is) still alive, he must have lost his sight.

- Prepositional phrase :

  115) If (it is) out of the subject, there is no need for me to continue.

- A participle + present :

  116) If (he is) meeting too many hardships, he will learn to be humble.

  + past part :

  117) If (it is) carefully done, his work will deserved distinction mention.

In the same wave of thoughts, if-clauses (elliptical) can behave like "style disjuncts". By disjunct one should understand those short replies that people formulate after polite requests, or simply some formulaes inserted amid a request just to implore "favour" (to win the sympathy) of the hearer.

118) I would like, if you do not mind, to have a quiet word with you

119) I would like, if I may say so, to have a quiet word with you.

120) I would like, if you follow me, to have a quiet word with you.

Hassan and Ruauaiya raised problem regarding the use of supplementary responses in if-clauses (1976, 213). Those supplementary responses are nothing but short indirect responses introduced by if. They are the kinds of replies that semanticists will easily consider as irrelevant to the request. What matters, is not this irrelevancy but that those replies are omissive to some extent. The hearer deletes a considerable part of utterance in what the speaker asks him.

e.g 121) Will you come to help me on Sunday ? If you want.

122) Have we a car ? Not (we do not), unless you come in yours ...

After all, would it be but an overgeneralisation if we said that any short answer is a form of ellipsis ?

2. Implied conditions.

So far, we have been talking about explicited conditions. The section below deals with implied conditions. That is, the condition understood through the means of inference. It is the case of conditional meanings infered from imperative clauses, inverted clauses ... Many people may ask themselves the following question : Why and when do we omit "if" ?

The omission of subordinating expressions in a conditional sentence is possible. This depends on various reasons among which two have been retained.

- If can be left out when the general content of the clause is clear from the context. Then an "ing-form" can replace not only if but the whole clause.

e.g 123) I would enjoy being a boy. (if I were a boy)

- When the information has already been given in the same or previous sentence, an if-clause is deleted to avoid tautology and vain repetitions.

e.g. 124) Jeanne did not go to the night club because her mother would have been unhappy. (if she had gone ...)

The place of implied conditions in the discourse.

a. The inverted forms.

British English users find in the auxiliary inversions an unmatched way of conveying one's thoughts as far as the conditional is concerned. This structure is mainly used in literary style and informal context. The operator had, the imaginative should, and the hypothetical were (or were to) are the auxiliaries mostly exposed to inversion. This is seen as the most accurate of expressing unlikely and unfulfilled conditions.

e.g 125) Had I known, I would have written before.

126) Should you decide to buy sugar, please tell me.

127) Were it to reveal your secrets, you could die of shame.

N.B. Even a subjunctive clause can undergo an inversion.

e.g 128) Be the rumour true, Monday will be a holiday.

b. Imperatives.

The case of imperatives has already been tackled in the section of tense sequences.

c. The infinitive offers another way of expressing a condition implicitly. Again we have seen it in the section on tenses.

d. Some verbs imply conditions when in a complex sentence. This is the case with hope, wish, and the expression had better.

"Wish" followed by a past simple or a past perfect can imply a strong regret of an action which failed at some time in the past.

e.g 129) I wi h he had not seen us (unfortunately he has).

Still in the same context, wish can refer to the present time to emphasize the improbability and even the impossibility.

e.g 130) I wish I had been ill (now). The event is but imaginative and far from reality.

"Wish" followed by the simple past or the subjunctive can also mean a regret of the things which failed to be as we wanted them to.

e.g 131) I wish I were a boy.

We tried to think deeply about this structure and came to the conclusion that the conditional meaning becomes more and more explicit as the conversation develops. The hearer may, for example, carry the conversation further with the reply, "Why do you wish so ?" Then the speaker becomes specific and clear saying, "Because if I were a boy ...". The analysis of that same "wish" in the conditional context led us to discover that it is incompatible with present and future tenses. In fact, there is nothing unusual in this. A wish is always hypothetical and never factual.

Here is how it behaves :

- Simple past :

132) I wish I got more letters (I hardly get letters)

- Past subjunctive :

133) I wish I were a boy.

- Past perfect :

134) I wish I had not lost my restaurant-card (I have lost it).

- The present conditional is used after "wish" when the fulfilment depends on the will of the doer of the action.

e.g I wish you would ring me up. You will ring me up.

This example illustrates the idea of insistence, but it can also be used to denote a dropped habit. Never, however, can "would" be used in a purely future sense in a wish-sentence. Furthermore, although "wish" in this case, has the form and meaning of a contrary-to-fact action, it has the structure of a "noun clause". There is in fact a "that" which is understood.

e.g 135) Emily wishes (that) she would be first in her class.

Back to the problem of using the future after "wish" there has been a suggestion. Wherever a future or simple present is used, then "hope" substitutes for wish.

e.g 136) I hope (that) there will be an improvement in a few days.

137) I hope that Mary has a watch.

Both those sentences deal with factual events. Yet, if the conversation goes on, a conditional statement may follow from the above examples. The hearer can put the question, "Why do

you hope so ?", or the speaker himself can complete his idea with disjuncts such as "or else" or "otherwise" which, we have seen it, occur only if a certain condition is understood.

"Had better" cannot be excluded from the range of conditionals. On the contrary, it is all present there for its advisory meaning. Whenever it is used in a full complex sentence, the subordinate clause is conditional.

e.g 138) You had better say nothing if you want to keep in good terms with him. "Had better" can also involve an infinitival construction.

e.g 139) You had better keep silent to avoid troubles.

It is to be noted that, although the expression is always in past form, the meaning has always something to do with the present or the future and never with the past.

The conjunction "but" occupies a very important place in implied conditions, especially when it is followed by a past tense. It implies an unfulfilled event.

e.g 140) I would have passed the test, but I was sick.

It is synonymous with : I would have passed the test, if I had not been sick.

Some of the expressions we have used in the point concerning the abridgement of the conditionals can fit in this case, too. It is the case for "without", "but for", "otherwise", "and", "or else", ... Although they are overtly used in the sentence is posing a condition. The hearer must make an effort before he can read a condition in the statement. This problem is due to the fact that the primary grammatical function of those expressions is not subordinating, or indicating condition. Those implied conditions present one major problem which is posed on the level

of ambiguity.

But, since the problem is not posed with understood conditions only, it is worth being considered apart. Overlapping cases are also observed in explicited conditions.

D. Overlaps in conditional sentences.

Conditionals sometimes bring about confusions. A layman can be easily fooled by the surface meaning and jump to the conclusion that a given sentence does not contain any conditional meaning at all. He can even notice the reverse, that is, assign a conditional meaning to a sentence which does not contain any. Those problems are due to two main reasons: the plurality in meanings of conditional introducers and the possibility of interpreting some subordinate clauses in many different ways. Those problems will be held under the title of "overlaps". The most striking cases of overlaps are : the confusion of conditional clauses with concessive clauses, relative clauses, causal clauses, purpose clauses, time clauses, and quite seldom that-clauses. We will also try to consider what happens with indirect questions introduced by "if" or "whether".

1. Overlap between relative and conditional clauses.

It seems certainly old yet true to say that conditional clauses are paraphrases of relative clauses. Only shrewd observers have managed to establish the relationship. Among those, we have Stockwell and her cooperators (1973 : 428), Hornby and Jesperon. Stockwell, in particular, proved that a conditional meaning is inferable from a relative clause.

e.g 141) Every linguist who reads Chomsky can learn about Transformational Generative Grammar > if he reads

Chomsky, every linguist can learn about Transformational Generative Grammar.

142) Any student who will cheat will have zero.

143) If any student cheats, he will get zero.

144) No student that has insufficient intellectual abilities can escape the failure. If he has insufficient intellectual abilities, no student can escape the failure.

145) The other generic quantifiers, few and each, conform with the rule only when the if-clause follows the result clause. Any attempt to apply a backward pronominalisation leads to ungrammaticality or change in meaning.

e.g 146) Each person who stops eating is stuffed.

*147) If he stops eating, each person is stuffed.

148) Each person is stuffed if he stops eating.

149) Few teachers who supervise our works have to work hard.

150) *If they supervise our works, few teachers have to work hard.

151) Few teachers have to work hard if they supervise our works.

An observation that one can draw on Stockwell's principle is that she overgeneralizes and hastens conclusions. We do not deny the relation, nor do we take it as universal.
She goes further and affirms the relationship between conditional clauses and relative clauses even on the level of tense sequences. She applies the restrictions regarding tense use in conditionals to relative clauses. This is an exageration. We could agree with her if she said that, will in a relative clause, makes the

sentence not sound well ; but now that she firmly objects to the use of will in a relative clause, the assertion becomes debatable.

e.g 152)*If any student will make noise, he will get out.

153)√If any student makes noise, he will get out.

154)*Any student who will make noise will get out ?

This sentence seems to be more than acceptable although : "Any student who makes noise will get out" sounds better.

2. Overlap between concessive and conditinal clauses.

We have already seen that even if can introduce a conditional clause. Nevertheless, it can also introduce a concessive clause. In that context, it is synonymous with even though. It is here that lies the confusion. It is not very easy to perceive the difference between the two in a given context.

e.g 155) Even if he gave me a thousand dollars, I would not forgive him (condition).

156) Even if you are sick, you must work (concession).

Even, If alone can express a concession. In that case the concession is not stressed. Simply, the speaker grants something not as a fact but as a possibility.

e.g 157) If she is stupid, she is at any rate pleasant to look at.

In some circumstances, if can contain a meaning of concession and contrast at the same time.

e.g 158) If I am not a good dancer, I am a good thinker at least.

To palliate with the problem, Randolph Quirk and his proponents labelled that type of clauses "Conditional-concessive clauses (1972 : 744).

The same problem is also found in alternative-conditional clauses and universal conditional clauses.

Whenever a speaker utters alternative conditional sentence, there is always a concessive element of meaning which is understood. There is a kind of obligation in the utterance.

e.g 159) "You will have to take the quiz whether you want to or not" can be interpreted as :

160) You will have to take the quiz even if you want to or do not.

Again, Quirk proposes the expression alternative conditional concessive clauses (op.cit. : 750).

Even "Universal conditionals", that is, the ones introduced by Wh-compound connectors like, whatever, whoever ... undergo an overlap with concessive clauses.

In an example like "She remains thin whatever she eats". The concessive meaning is involved as one makes the inference that : Even if (although) she eats the best food of the world, she does not grow fat. No imposed condition, any condition set ends in a predicted issue.

There is an efficient way to recognize a universal conditional which entails a concessive meaning. One can replace the correlative by "it does not matter". If it is possible, then, the concessive meaning is present.

e.g 161) "Whenever you arrive, knock up" respectively means :

Knock at any time you arrive.

It does not matter the time.

3. Overlap between purposive and conditional clauses.

Infinitival constructions used as conditional clauses present in a way ambiguity. Apart from the conditional meaning - that we have already developed these clauses carry a purposive meaning which can perplex a layman learner.
It is up to the hearer to relate the sentence to the context in order to detect an adequate meaning.

e.g 162) I could not tell the truth to save my life is ambiguous. It can mean,

163) I could not tell the truth if I wanted to save my life.

164) I could not tell the truth in order to save my life.

On the contrary, the sentence "My mother could have wept to see my accident." has exclusively a conditional meaning. Here in fact, we cannot substitute the infinitival construction by an explicit purpose clause without risk of nonsense.

i.e 165) *My mother would have wept for fear that she saw my accident.

but 166) My mother would have wept if she had seen my accident.

In case can also be used to introduce a purpose.

e.g 167) I hid behind some bush in case (for fear that) my parents should discover me.

4. Overlap between causal and conditional relations.

In some instances a conditional introducer can contain a causal meaning easily expressible by as, since, or because.

e.g (Since) 168) If you have not passed the test, you do not deserve a present.

(As) 169) If you have not passed the test, you deserve no present.

The present perfect plays a big part in this overlap ; it can even be the source of the confusion in that sense that it accounts for certainty.

5. Overlap between conditional and time clauses.

A speaker is caught between a dilemma as he has to decide which of "if" and "when" he has to insert between two clauses using the same tense. e.g present, past, present perfect. This problem often happens with likely conditions. This dilemma is due to the fact that, those sentences are statements of universal truth or general validity. They appear in factual discussions or generic and habitual conditionals.

e.g 170) If(when) I made a promise, I kept it.

This sentence can have the sense of temporality, as it can convey the idea of condition (contrast).

e.g 171) (When) If you heat water, it boils.

"If" and "whether ... or" in indirect questions.

Many people, especially those who learn English as a foreign language, have problems to tell the nature of "if" and "whether" in indirect questions. They are somehow right to do so.

Actually, an interrogative sentence in written language is closed by a question mark while any sentence ended by a full-

stop is known as declarative. Then it is not easy to find out that an if-clause can account for a question.

e.g 172) "I would like to know if Mary is there" is a polit form of a direct question : "Is Mary there ?"

The same with "whether ... or". Whether or can serve as an indirect way to ask for information.

e.g 174) I do not know whether I will keep the notes or put them in my teacher's box.

There is a way to recognize at the first sight the nature of if-clause in this particular situation. That is, the free use of "will" or "would" in the "if" or "whether-half".

In one sentence, we can affirm that overlaps are the main handicaps to an adequate application of conditional sentences in the every day discourse.

E. Position and punctuation in complex conditional sentences

It would be odd if we put an end to this chapter of description, without saying a word on the punctuation, position, in conditional sentences. The irregularities we have come across in this matter as we were consulting different sources cannot go unsaid.

Actually, those elements work interdepently. The punctuation depends directly on the position of the if-clause and vice versa. After having seriously observed the conditional sentences as given by different authors, we came to conclude that there is no rigour in punctuating conditional complex sentences.

Some set the halves of the sentence by a comma when the conditional clause comes first in the sentence, others do not.

Michael Swan for example wrote :

175) If it were not for his wife's money he would never be a director.

176) Supposing you fell in love with your boss, what would you do ?

177) You are welcome to stay with us, as long as you share the rent.

178) It would be nice if you helped me.

179) Had I known what was going to happen, I would never have left alone.

While Randolph Quirk will say,

180) If we had enough money, I would not have to work so hard.

181) Had I known, I would have written before.

182) I would not object if you took a rest.

Those two authors illustrate very well how unconventional the punctuation in conditional sentences is. Nonetheless, there are some points on which they meet.

- The use of a comma after an inversion.
- The optional use of a comma after a conditional clause when it starts the sentence.
- The obligatory use of a comma after the result clause, when the if-clause refers to a result of the action of the main clause. Quite often, a comma in this context accounts for the insistence, the prominence of the condition. Otherwise, the comma is deleted when the conditional sentence starts with the result clause.

Concerning the position of clauses in a conditional sentence, three possibilities have been recorded : Front position,

mid position, and final position.

There are (precise) well-defined contexts when a conditional clause must come first. Namely, when the conditional meaning is contained in an inverted construction and also when it is entailed in the imperative.

e.g 186) Had I met you before, I would have invited you.

187) See a pin and let it lye, you will want a pin before you die.

Another case is when the conditional introducer is in initial position. Automatically the sentence which follows takes its meaning.

e.g 187) If I had a car, I would go up country.

This position has been approved by many grammarians such as B. D. Graver, Quirk, and A.S. Hornby who believed that a conditional clause is prominent when it comes first/a in sentence.

A conditional (phrase) can come in mid position when the speaker is hesitating in his utterance. This is normal, when people are making polite requests, they often insert a conditional clause, to implore the hearer's favour.

e.g 188) I would like, if you do not mind, to have a dance with you.

Lastly, the if-clause can follow the result clause and this is the structure which is currently in use maybe for its simplicity. However, we object to the practice. The reason for our objection is that, logically a result follows from a given condition. Then, as we have objected to the distinction main versus subordinate clause in conditional sentences, again we do not thoroughly agree with this last possibility. The placement of a result before the condition seems contradictory and why not nonsense.

II. HIERARCHY OF DIFFICULTY.

According to Lado, hierarchy of difficulty consists in "regrouping single problem patterns into larger patterns" (1957 : 69). Viewed from this angle, this operation accounts for neatness and economy. As a result, it can be of some help in our teaching of conditionals. Ranging the difficulty from the less difficult to the most complex will serve the teacher to elaborate an efficient method to enter upon the difficulty and present it to his students with conviction and self confidence. It will allow the teacher to treat the matter by sectionning it into complementary slices which will grant him success and esteem. In fact, as Betty Wallave Robinet pointed it out, "the inventory of difficulty" which the learner would encounter and its value of this would be meant to direct the teacher's attention to the handicapping areas so that he might devote special care and emphasis in his teaching, to the avoidance or even the breaking of the predicted difficulties. In other words, the hierarchy of difficulty is an efficient device for a teacher who is eager to progress. It is a best way of avoiding some embarrassing questions which are due to a lack of order in the teacher's teaching. The less a teacher predicts students problems, the more the latter will get confused and feel obliged to put up trap questions.

For our case we will try to apply this method so that we will feel at ease by the time we start to teach the conditionals. That is, those difficulties will be taken into consideration in the teaching of conditionals.

It is what Ellis and Tomilinson invite us to solve with their

"remedial teaching" which is "the teaching required when the teacher finds that a structure which has been previously taught is nevertheless not being correctly used by the pupils" (1980 : 18). In fact, this teaching takes into account those aspects of a structure where the teacher knows his pupils will make error. It is therefore a requirement for him and the writers of course, to have listed already those difficulties, before, as he went through the structure trying to understand and solve them. This will avoid him loss of time and hesitations in explanations. Here then we join the forementioned authors when they say that any teacher needs "acquired knowledge". That is, the information that has been deliberately acquired through the study of structural descriptions. The teacher should make proof of competence in his performance, which requires much care and earns him confidence.

As we are concerned with an area whose first characteristic is high complexity, we are the most interested in this method : range in a hierarchical order all the problems which welled up as we tried to describe English conditionals. Here is the order in which those difficulties appear in this chapter :

1° Problems of terminology

2° Semantic problems brought about by overlaps

3° Problems in typologies

4° Problems of tense sequences.

A. Terminology problems.

Terminology is of great importance in the description and teaching of a structure (from the intermediate level). Ellis and Tomilinson affirm that "a knowledge of structural terminology enables a rapid reference to some structural aspect which has been previously taught" (op. cit. : p. 13).

He is indeed right in this context he considered. But also, a lack of accurate and proper term to substitute for a tough and long pattern makes the learning tedious and slow. One specific example can illustrate the idea.

i.e If a teacher wants to teach the application of "likely conditions".

The representation of the pattern like :

Likely conditionals ⟶ If + S + V(pr.s.t), + S + V(future tense) is better than If + S + verb(unmarked form), +S+V+will+verbal+).

Not only is the last structure incomplete, but also tiring and likely to lose the student into vague and abstract symbols difficult to apply and hard to remember.

The problem becomes more serious with unlikely and impossible conditionals.

Impossible cond. ⟶ If + S + past have + Verbal (past participle), + S + Would + infinitive is inaccurate if we compare it with :

Impossible cond. ⟶ If + S + past perfect, + S +present conditional.

The last representation is very simplified and presents no difficulty for retention. The substitution of adequate terms for rather scientific symbols earns the student time and ease in the fixation.

In fact, the more a pattern is reduced to a short representation and expressed in exclusive terms, the more it becomes apprehensible.

This is part of the reason why, in the previous chapter we did not agree with the authors who preferred the representation :

would + infinitive instead of present conditional, and would + have + past participle to designate a past conditional.

Always, talking about terminology, the lack of convention among grammarians to set up firm and valid terminology applicable to the types and sub-types of conditionals is still a big question. The learner feels embarrassed when he keeps adopting different terms as he changes sources while in fact the reality remains the same. It takes him time to to f i n d o u t t h e difference implied by the use of different terms.

Terminology is a starting point in the description of a given pattern, especially with intermediate and advanced learners. The lack of clarity in a term engages the learner into vague ideas and confusions which prevent him from progressing in the assimilation. As a result, the choice of inclusive terms should be an affair to discuss in an assembly in order to reach a common agreement.

There are some subordinators w h i c h b r i n g hard time to the learner for their overapplication. A term like"unless"can equal"if ... not"in some cases (likely conditionals) and cannot in others (unlikely conditions). However, many authors substitute it for "if ... not", and "except if". This is not without danger to the learner in the sense that the flexible synonymy forces him into dilemmas. The best solution would be to use "unless" exclusively in likely conditions and let "if ... not"be used in unlikely conditions.

The same problem r i s e s w h e n u s i n g "but for" i n a conditional clause. It can easily be understood if it introduces a cause or a purpose, for example.

This sentence can be interpreted as, I will go home, to see Mummy exclusively.. Howeverlogical the interpretation seems to be, Grammarians will see in it a gross error.

"But for" means "if it were not for". Seen as such, the meaning is not easy to find out. It will take a long time to the teacher to make the student understand the translation of the term. Saying that a sentence like,

e.g 189) But for my mother, I would not be in the university can be then interpreted differently.

190) If it were not for my mother, I would not be in the university, which is O.K.

200) In my mother's opinion, I would not be in the university, which is refuted by grammarians.

This ambiguity comes from the use of "for" with "but" to introduce a condition.

The proposition could be, to try to predict the problems of the students, so that the teacher exposes them to the class before they notice them and then come back to them if he sees that they do not catch/every the point well the point.

B. Semantic problems.

We have already talked about clausal overlaps in the first chapter. Now, we should add that those overlaps are sources of confusion in the teacher's and the student's mind in particular as far as structure teaching is concerned.

There are, besides those overlapping problems, other areas of difficulty leading to a faulty interpretation of the meaning.

- It is possible, as Raudolph Quirk voiced it (1972:703)

to confuse the subjunctive and the past, in a conditional sentence. This confusion appears, when both of those moods use the "past" for tense, and - this is important - in persons other than "third singular".

e.g 201) If they were at home, they would hear me.

An interpretation of "were" as being in past of the indicative cancels the idea of doubt, uncertainty which is meant in the sentence, and instaures the sense of reality, an account of a truth. This alteration in meaning can sometimes make the sentence nonsense. And, this is true for the above example. "Would" in that context does not connote the past, but a supposition, a conditional which of course cannot match with the past of indicative in the conditional half, but rather a past of subjunctive.

This problem is introduced in this section just in order to show how complex and puzzling the conditional as a structure is.

C. Typology problems.

Once again, not much needs to be said here. We have already showed that the barriers set between the so-called basic types of conditionals are not firm. They are easy to cross especially when unlikely and impossible conditionals are confronted. The difference between "Hypothetical conditionals" and "Counterfactuals" w h i c h make up "imaginative conditionals" is hard to perceive.

i.e How far, 202) "If Joe had the time, he would go to Mungwa" is hypothetical

and 203) "If Napoleon were alive today, France would be powerful" counterfactual

is still clear. However, when a sentence like,

"if I had been there, my mother would not have begged salt" is uttered, then the decision whether the sentence is counterfactual or hypothetical cannot be hastened. It requires much care and wit.

We are not the only one to notice the difficulty. Even Hwang noticed it far before. Here is what Marianne Celce-Murcia reports from him.

> Students confuse hypothetical and counterfactual conditionals and cannot interprete them properly even when they are able to select the correct form on a multiple choice test item. Many students interprete hypotheticals as if they were counterfactuals thus ignoring a subtle semantic distinction in English." (1983 : 63)

This observation made by Hwang merely means that when an event is contrary-to-fact, the speaker in expressing it makes nothing but hypotheses to show how hopeless he is.

Such problems of confusion can be even found inside the variations in likely conditionals. But they are not as striking as they are in unlikely and impossible conditions. We preferred to treat them in the last type of difficulty, the most difficult pattern of the whole structure.

D. Problems of tense sequence.

Those problems are basically twofold. There are some problems arising from the inconsistency observed in the consideration of irregularities regarding tenses.

One blatant case of this would be : the use of will in a conditional clause. Radicalists strictly forbid the use of will as a future auxiliary in a conditional half. However, this law is transgressed and justified. Some justify their use of

will, as an emphatic, to show the degree of insistence. Others will say that will can be used even when it connotes a future event, when the result influences the condition very much.

e.g 204) If you will meet him, tell him to come(insistence)

If it will make you good, I will stop smoking.

The meaning of the last sentence would be clearer if the roles were reversed and hence saying :

If you stop smoking, it will make me good.

It becomes then very clear that the result was somehow the condition itself. The result contained part of the condition. We then see that the problem of irregularities is sharper than we imagine it to be.

Problems of tense sequence may also be observed in some odd tense combinations involving past perfect or past in the result half. Sincerely speaking, the meaning in those types of sentences is very hard to decipher.

i.e Hornby gives us at least three instances of such combinations.

a. past perfect in the if-clause and present in the result clause

e.g 206) If he had not left any message when you called, he probably hopes to find you still here.

Here is how we proceeded to understand this utterance. We imagined a context where the hearer would have called at the absence of the subject. The subject was supposed to have left a message before he left if he thought he would not see the interlocutor. Now, that he has not left the message it can be speculated that he will come to the speaker's. It is in this context that the speaker then formulates the above thought.

b. past perfect in the if-clause and future in the result clause.

e.g 207) If he had not come in when you arrived, he will not come in at all this morning.

Here again, we calculated as follows :

The subject was supposed - sometimes in the past - to come in before the hearer arrived, but he did not. Then, the speaker makes a direct inference from this attitude and affirms that even in the present moment the same things will be repeated. The subject is not coming in at all.

c. past perfect in the if-clause and present conditional.

e.g 208) If he had come before, he would be excusable.

This sentence simply means that a past action - which unfortunately failed to take place - would condition a present event.

d. past simple in the if-clause + future perfect in the result clause.

e.g 209) If the thieves really came, the bicycle will have been stolen.

This utterance cannot be understood unless we reason as follows : The speaker was absent from the house. Now, news reaches him that there have been thieves in the area where he lives. Remembering that his bike was in the open, then he conjectures that if they reached the house, the bicycle will have inevitably been stolen.

Although those constructions are very hard to interpret, Hornby and others who managed to bring those ideas under our observations, have the merit to have succeeded to relate a past event to a present situation without any risks of nonsense. It is an undertaking of great daring and high intelligence.
The four instances of unusual tense combinations that we have

selected for interpretation constitute a strong proof that tense combination is the most complicated operation of all others involved in conditional constructions.

e. present unreal and past unreal constitute another area of of difficulty as far as conditionals are concerned. It is not very easy to understand how the past tense in,

210) "If I had money, I would go upcountry"

is used for something wished for now.

III. T E A C H I N G / L E A R N I N G C O N D I T I O N A L S A N D R E L A T E D P R O B L E M S.

A. In search for a method.

Now that we have enough information about conditionals and major syntactic difficulties they entail, it is high time we taught them to our students. To be effective, any structure teaching must be prepared. The teacher is then required to know the matter to handle. Moreover, to avoid waste of time he must have all the problems considered and relevant answers. To achieve his goal, there are some fundamental elements and an amount of principles he has to obey to. He has, for example, to know the psychology of the learner. This idea joins what we have said earlier in the general introduction, that levels of education are of primary importance in the teaching of structures. Moreover, the choice of an adequate method is a great factor capable of influencing the teaching (and learning). Once t h e s e points are taken into consideration, the teacher may probably manage to avoid some of the problems which handicap his task.

We have already talked about the importance of grammar and the levels of education. There is another point which is worth being considered. It is concerned with the way in which structures should be taught and learnt.

The aim of teaching structures has been defined by Ellis and Tomilinson (1980 : 12) in a rather circular way. Yet, it is meaningful. They say that "teaching structures is to present and practice with different structures". An interesting expression is the word "practice" in that it joins what John Dewey proposes

teachers to do. For him, the student must learn by doing. This is what would be the ideal case in the teaching of the structure of a language. It is what S. Pit Corder claims when he says that

> "to learn a language is not learning it is a 'content' subject like science ..., a set of varying degrees of abstraction. This is the aim of a linguist so that he can analyze and describe it." (1966 : 6)

Learning a language is, in fact, learning a set of skills. As a result, there must be some appropriate methods facilitating the learning.

So many teaching methods have been suggested. However, only a few help the teacher who is dealing with structures. In our point of view, the direct method is suitable to this situation and we share this idea with a number of people. As a matter of fact, learning a language is acquiring a set of habits. Those habits turn into automatisms only through intense practice and this is the aim of the direct method. Its proponents believe that "students learn to understand a language by listening to a great deal of it and learn by speaking it, that is, associate speech with appropriate action." It recommends the exploitation of materials available in the classroom and insistingly forbids the translations into the native language. Wherever the meaning of words cannot be made clear by concrete representation, the teacher has to resort to miming, sketches, or explanations in the foreign language. This method has been welcome by teachers. It owes its success to the intensive practice of grammatical structures through varied and adequate drills. Yet, the theorists of the method can be reproached rigour. The native language cannot be completely ignored. It is very important in some cases especially when the students are unable to follow the explanations the teacher gives them. It constitutes a last solution in order to avoid waste of time.

The preference of the direct method does not mean that others are rejected completely. They can be used in case of extreme necessity.

B. Problems in teaching and learning structures.

Problems in teaching and learning grammar are nearly common. For this reason, we decided to talk about some of them in a rather general sense. The illustrations of those problems will be drawn from conditionals. In fact, there are many problems capable of handicapping the acquisition of competence in a foreign language : syntactic, language interference, teacher's incompetence, inadequancy and method inadequancy problems are prototypical cases.

1. Language interference problem.

Language interference problem is the sharpest hindrance to perfect mastery of a foreign language. As John Ronayn Cowan says in Robinet et al's book, "The source of error in adult second language learning is the intrusion of the native language"(1983,109). Actually, when a learner views the output of a certain rule in the second language to be functionally equivalent to the output of a given rule in the native language, then that rule tends to be applied in contexts where the learner considers it appropriate in the target language. In such a case, the learner will find it easy to understand the new structure. If, on the contrary, the two rules are antithetical, then the interference plays its negative effect on the learning. The student tempts to refute the new rule arguing that it does not exist. It will take long time for the teacher (especially the English native teacher) to erradicate the false interpretation caused by the rule strongly engrained in the student's mind.

With conditionals, the interference problem is not particularly serious. A contrastive study of English and Kirundi has shown more likenesses than differences. This observation turned true with the comparison of English and Kirundi conditionals. i.e English conditionals have their equivalents both in French and Kirundi.

English	French	Kirundi
If	si	ní, iyó, ka
unless	à moins que	kirétse
if ... not	si ... pas	ni ... tâ
in case	au cas où	mu gihe
provided that	pourvu que	ukira

The use of one or another among those subordinators obeys to rules more or less equivalent in either languages. Those rules regard tense agreement, position, shift in speech and overlaps.

tense agreement : In many instances, the tenses combined in a conditional sentence determine the type of sentence it is.

i.e The present in the if-clause, future or imperative in the subclause represents a likely conditional.

e.g 211) If you see him, tell him that I need him.

212) Ní wamubóna, umubwire kó ndamukenéye

213) Si tu le vois, dis-lui que j'ai besoin de lui

There is, however one point at which none of the two languages coincides with English. It concerns tense restrictions, namely the case of future in a conditional clause. French and Kirundi use

future to express temporality in the conditional half while such an action is seriously sanctioned by English grammarians.

e.g 214) Ukazōmubona, urazomubarira ivyo nagútumye.

215) Au cas où tu changera d'avis, préviens-moi.

A use of "will" in similar context in English would mean something else, namely insistenœor volition.

e.g 216) If you will meet him, greet him in my place
(insistence)

- unlikely conditionals are represented by the past simple in the if-clause and the present conditional in the result clause.

e.g French 217) Si j'étais prêtre, je ne pécherais pas.

Kirundi218) Iyó mba Pātíri, sinōcumuyé.

English219) If I were a priest, I would not sin.

Here again, each of the three languages has its own restrictions. Kirundi and French are insensitive to the use of a subjunctive form in the if-clause and this constitutes an area of controversy.

- Impossible conditionals are represented by the past perfect in the if-clause and past conditional in the result clause. It is necessary to mention that Kirundi shows a slight difference from others.

220) Iyô mba narí Pātíri, sínari gucúmura.

221) If I had been priest, I would not have sinned.

222) Si j'avis été prêtre, je n'aurais pas péché.

223) Si j'avais su, j'aurais dit non.

224) Iyó ndabiménya, narí guhakana.

In cases like those ones, especially when the teacher shares the speech community with his students he will try to call upon the students' attention on those paradoxal structures.

One of possible explanations would be that a language has its peculiarities as well as universals. It is thanks to those peculiarities that a given language can declare itself unique. A good teacher then should kindly advise his students not to think in their native language or in any other language they know better.

Position of conditional clauses.

It has become almost a matter of principle that a conditional clause should come first in the sentence for the sake of prominence. Once again this is a common feature in both English, French, and Kirundi.

e.g 225) Iyo mbá nōsúbirīye kukúbona, nōje nkagúpfukamira.

226) Si tu peux voir détruit l'ouvrage de ta vie et sans dire un seul mot te mettre à rebâtir, tu seras un homme mon fils.

227) If I were you, I would keep silent.

Ovelaps.

Conditional clauses be they in English, in French or in Kirundi entwine with other clauses as far as their meanings are concerned.

e.g Overlap between time and conditional clauses.

228) Ni yazá, ndagúhamagara can respectively mean
- if he comes, I call for you.
- when he comes, I call for you.

229) If he comes, I am happy can simply mean a condition or a time, that can be interpreted as : Whenever he arrives, I am happy.

230) Si je frappe à la porte, on ouvre. can mean that : if he does not knock they do not open or : whenever he knocks, they open.

Overlap between concession and conditional clauses.

231) Nâhó nyene atānkûnda jehó ndamukunda.

232) Even if he does not love me I love him.

233) Quand bien même il ne m'aimerait pas, moi je l'aime.

Those areas of similarity do not cause many problems. On the contrary, they help the student to understand and keep in mind the new item. It is the same case, when the new item shows no slightest likeness with any of the student's familiar language. The student is obliged to accept the structure as it stands in his eyes.

Some people can intervene and say that French uses the subjunctive in conditional clauses introduced by expressions other than si, selon que, suivant que, and au cas où. We would add that those cases have nothing to do with the case of subjunctival use in English if-clauses in so far that, the subjunctive in French is distinct in itself, that is, it cannot be confused with any tense or other mood, as is the case for the past of the indicative in English.

e.g 234) Je t'attendrai pourvu que tu sois rapide cannot be confused with any other tense.

The problem can be posed with the present of the indicative and the subjunctive, but this occurs rarely.

e.g 235) Je lui écrirai, à condition qu'il me réponde. is somehow confusing (is "réponde" in present or in subjunctive ? both possibilities can be true).

To conclude on that point, we can stress that language interference is a serious bar against an easy assimilation of a

foreign language structure.

2. Syntactic problems.

There are no less serious problems as far as foreign language learning is concerned. Each problem, be it tiny or huge affects the learner.

Syntactic problems constitute another area of difficulty. They are those problems which are due to either the complexity or the complication of the item itself. A structure can appear so difficult for the student that he cannot catch anything of the teacher's topic. This disenchants the teacher to a high degree. It is in these situations that explanations turn out to be very indispensable. The teacher will try to multiply situational examples, explain briefly the structure in the target language. If the situation remains dramatic then he can even resort to the native language to avoid waste of time.

It can be the case with some unusual tense combinations in conditional sentences.

e.g 231) If the thieves came yesterday, my bicycle will have been stolen.

This sentence is easy to interprete in Kirundi.

232) Asānga abasúma bărāje éjo (hahise), ikînga ryānje rizōba ryărībwe.

- The context of the sentence would be the rememberance by the speaker of having forgotten his bicycle out the previous day.

Many other complicated tense combinations can be explained in this way. And there are at least three similar cases presented in the previous chapter. Those explanations must of course be followed by intensive practice (drills) and why not written

homeworks.

Some people think that using the native language in the teaching of a foreign language abrupts the students. However, there is nothing unusual in that.

It only becomes dangerous when a teacher takes it for a habit and overuses the mother tongue in a foreign language lesson. It should be resorted to in case of extreme necessity. In any case nobody would object to the statement that the more a pattern is hard to decipher, the more it requires simpler explanations and preferably in the native language.

Wilga Rivers says that "a short elucidation of a grammatical point in the native language will help these students much more than a prolonged attempt to explain and re-explain in the foreign language." (1968 : 85).

To sum it up, for students who are finding the language study difficult brief, coherent and adapted explanations in the native language, followed by active practice of the features under study are paramount.

3. Incompetency of the teacher.

There are many types of teachers. First, there are those who serve as a good model to the students. That is, the ones who master the language and handle it to the students irreproachably. Second, there are others who possess the language but lack the talent of communicating it in a clear way. Last and worse, there are those whose knowledge of the language is defectuous and consequently present the material in a fuzzy way. All of those teachers model the students on their image. A student is a product of what the teacher makes of him.

It becomes then clear that an incompetent teacher kills the youth. The incompetence may be rooted in the lack of enough

information about the structure of the language he is called to teach.

A teacher must have a thorough knowledge of the grammar, at least of the structure he is going to teach. Missing an accurate answer to a student's question or leaving a student's error incorrected is humiliating. We have already said it, and we should stress it again that a teacher needs to know the grammar of the language in order to be helpful to his students from all points of view. A teacher whose replies to his students' questions would always be "May be", "I do not know", "I will check" cause loss of the interest in the learning of the foreign language and doubt about the intellectual capacity of their teacher hence losing faith in him.

Even a teacher who may possess his grammar and have problems in the transmission is unworthy. A knowledge which cannot profit the learners is but a shade of knowledge. Futile teachers, that is useless to the student, deserve leaving the carreer. Human ornaments are not helpful in the classroom.

A teacher is judged not only on the knowledge he possesses but also on how he shares it with his class. The more proficient a teacher is, the more efficient his teaching will be. This, of course, will earn him fame and success.

As a hint to do to the teachers, especially, ideal ones who are proud of their knowledge, an adequate method, that is an active teaching will contribute to the increasing of the success.

Another factor he should bear in mind is that an adequate method, a considerable knowledge of the matter, must all be exploited in a climate of joy and confidence, otherwise the failure will be the outcome.

4. Inadequancy of the method in use.

Some teachers unexitically follow the teaching methods suggested by pedagogues. However, they are not always adequate. Many factors must be taken into account to decide which method goes with which lesson. Among those we can cite the context, the subject matter, and the class. In fact no method is bad, there are bad teachers. That is, the ones who pay no attention to their task. A good teacher should not rely upon books. Sometimes, he would be invited to alter things, reorder plans, even create new things. It is for this reason that three qualities are required to a teacher : imagination, energy, and will to experiment. The methodological guides provided by pedagogues are not imposed. On the contrary, they are meant to help the teacher in case of need.

A multitude of methods have been listed (grammar-translation method, Direct method, reading method, audio lingual method, and structural-situational method). However, they cannot be exploited in a discordely way. Teachers have to apply an ecclectic approach. No one of the five mentioned methods is to be neglected, nor is there one to be overused. All of them complete one another. It must be recalled that the situation of the learner is, as one pedagogue put it, as follows "I hear and forget, I see and remember, I perform and understand". As one can notice it, effective methods are indispensable in the teaching activity.

The success of the students lies in the teachers' effort to make use of adequate methods.

C. The teaching of conditionals.

According to reports from B.E.P.E.S. English section staff, the learning and use of conditionals in short sentences do not raise major problems. However, when students are asked to use the structures in compositions, the results are less satisfactory. This problem may be due to the insufficiency of practice, namely a lack of communicative drills. From our point of view, we also impeached the poor exploitation of various tense combinations. Such a drawback stemmed from what we have noticed as we went through the compositions from 1985 "Test national".

Therefore, we found it necessary to contribute to the improvement of the teaching of conditionals in Burundi schools. Nevertheless before we get into the heart of the matter, it is important to mention the typical mistakes we detected in the abovementioned section six schools (Lycée de Vugizo, Séminaire de Mugera and de Burasira, Lycée de Jenda, Collège Saint Albert, and Collège de la Victoire) were surveyed. A close investigation of the recurring mistakes in many copies gave us an idea on the main problems encountered by students.

1. Recorded mistakes.

a. If + Subject + were + Object, Subject + Present conditional + Object.

233) If I were one of his colleagues, I would tell him to employ the applicant (correct construction).

234) *If I was one of this colleagues, I would argue in favour of the applicant.

235) *If he was satisfied with the writers qualifications, he would have done anything.

235)*If I was one of his colleagues I would have told him to give the writer the job.

236)*If I was the writer I would have felt frustrated.

239)*If I was one of the colleagues, I would try to convince Mr Symond in order to change his mind.

240)*If I was one of the colleagues, I would advise Symond to let him work.

241)*If I was one of his colleagues, I could advise Symond to let him work.

242)* If I was one of his colleagues, I would have argue in favour of the applicant.

243)*If I were one of his colleagues, I should argue in favour of the applicant.

244)* If I were to speak in favour of the applicant, this is what I would say.

The confusion of the indicative and the subjunctive in conditionals is a general problem. Only fifty students on the total of two hundred proved to be aware of the difference. In fact, the error made there is tolerable since it is only a transfer of an informal style (was) into a written one. In some cases, however, the confusion can lead to misunderstanding. In some cases, for example, the subjunctive indicates a high degree of unlikelihood while the indicative connotes something probable.

e.g 245) If I was sick, I would go to the hospital (you can fall sick).

246) If I were a boy, I would love you (you cannot be a boy).

There are other mistakes which are difficult to judge such as the number in 234, the morphology of the past participle in 242, tense in 242 and 244. Those mistakes may be due to lack of time as

they may be brought about by a low degree of mastery of structures.

c. <u>If + past, present conditional.</u>

247) ✓If he failed again, I would advise Symond to search another job for him.

248) √If he managed to give the job to the writer, he would see how the other employees would receive him.

250) ✓If the writer refused they would let him go.

251) *If he worked good, I would have to be graduated after and extend to a hight job.

252) *If the writer knew to work, Mr Symond does not worry about employees.

253) *He would firstly proposed him the job and saw if he accepted or not.

254) *If I had many qualifications I must be superior to them.

255) ✓The writer had to get the job if he was not a coloured one.

256) *If he failed, try to give him an advice.

249) √I do not think that it would be a problem if the writer took the job.

So various mistakes have been made in these sentences. Of course, they are not the only ones, they are just examples.

There are mistakes which have been made from a morphological point of view. Those are, for instance, the skippring of "for" in 247 (search for), the use of good instead of well in 251, the seepping of "how" after "knew" in 252, and the use of "firstly" instead of "first" in 253. From a syntactic point of view, punctuation and tense sequence mistakes are frequent. This can be

observed in 250 and 254 (punctuation) and 252, 253, 254 and 257. It is hard to find out the source of error in 254. The student may not know the pastform of must (had to) or he may simply have meant the present. In 255, the student has the problem in differentiating"were" from "was" and we have talked about it previously. Among those mistakes, the most serious are the ones related to tense combination because they culminate in nonsense. Around ninety students over two hundred suffer this problem. It is possible to think that those students do not have at their disposal recapitulative tables on tense sequences. Hence, they make haphazard combinations.
This is a great lacuna indeed and it shows that they do not know how to locate events in time and space. As a result, no correct combination can be done. In fact, the students make no difference between the probable, the improbable, and the impossible.

One striking thing is that those mistakes have been found in the copies of students from "Collège de la Victoire". Can we assume that they have not seen this in class ? The question remains unanswered.

f. <u>If + past perfect, past conditional</u>.

257) √ If I had been one of Symond's colleagues, I would have told him that in a firm it is question of knowledge (correct construction).

258) *If he had had a job, the man could be our danger.

259) *If the first man had refused to give me the job, that means that even the next time it would be the same.

260) *If he had failed to answer to the question, it was normal not to employ him.

261) *If the employers had been with the firm a long time, there was no reason to refuse the man ...

262) *If unfortunately he had not one of his member of the family, he had not seen or had not told any word.

263) *If Mr Symond had kept the writer who is well qualified, it would be good.

We have noticed it, and we keep noticing it, morphological mistakes are unavoidable in a composition exam. Those mistakes may be due to many things.: hurry, stupidity, fear, anxiety ... Only thirty over two hundred students wrote correct sentences. In the above examples, we can cite, the use of to after "answer" (260), the translation of "bien" into "well" (in 263). Syntactic mistakes are as serious as the ones we noticed in the previous sections. Furthermore, the reasons are the same. The general problem in this case would be the lack of enough information about the past conditional tense and maybe the failure to know what kind of action the past perfect tense implies (a failure achieved in the remote past).

e. If + present, will or present.

264) ✓If we want to produce much, it is necessary to have qualified workers.

265) *If someone apply for the job and if there is a possibility to offer him it, he has to get it normally.

266) *He will never earn his life if he had made studies.

267) *If the writer would have chance to get a job, he will pass long time also.

268) *He will return back last year to see if job will be found.

269) √If there is no place for him in the factory, I try to give others reason.

270) *If he come back we advice him to return.

271) √I will get another job if God bless me.

272) If it is not possible to give him the right place, I would propose him authority with another one.

The general impression on the use of likely conditionals is not negative. However, there are gross syntactic errors such as the tense sequence in 266, 267, and 272. In all the three mentioned statements, there is a tendancy to mingle incompatible events, say, unlikely and likely, impossible and possible. In the example 268, there is a violation of the exception which says that "will" cannot be used in a sentence when it connotes futurity. It is a pity, however, that at the end of the secondary education, students do not care about the subject - verb agreement (265, 270). The only problem that can be tolerated in the mistakes above is the spelling mistake in 270.

On the whole, the application of likely conditionals was not as difficult as the others in the sense that one hundred and ten over two hundred and ten managed to write nice sentences.

Another source of problems in syntactic constructions is the length of a sentence. The longer a sentence is, the wronger it tends to be. Nay, it sometimes becomes meaningless.

e.g 273) *If our employees refuse to accept him as an authority, we will convince them that there cannot be a post without an authority, and he could understand.

This sentence would have been correct if the student had not added a useless part at the end. Unfortunately that part overloaded

the sentence and destroyed its correctness. The following sentences suffer the same problem.

274) *If I try to describe him on his way back home when he has not a job, he should have been very sad (this statement is nonsense).

275) *If the writer would have chance to get a job, he will pass long time also to be accepted with his high standard of education (this is also nonsense to some extent).

All that we can bear in mind and draw attention of our readers to is that some of the constructions we considered as mistakes may appear nice to the eyes of others. However, in accepting a student's statement one should first consider the model he has given to his class and see to what extent he departs from it or not. Second, he should consider the educational level of his student so that he may see whether the latter understood what he wrote. Otherwise, it would be an exaggeration and it becomes hard to check the assimilation of a given structural pattern. It is not a good thing for a teacher to try to justify students' mistakes. i.e the confusion was/were is not a big mistake. Leaving it uncommented is unfair, however. The students should know the difference, however minute it can be, between was and were is a conditional statement.

g. "Even if", "in case" and "as if".

276) ✓The writer continued even if he was called up in his name.

277) ✓Even if it is not suitable for him, he can begin to work.

278) *He said he would never forget that moment even if he had passed six years of trouble in the war.

279) *He become more and more nervous with Symond even if he had left him.

280) *He will never earn his life even if he had made studies.

281) *We can speak well as if we are not qualified in anything.

282) *He feels as if his life finish at that moment.

283) * Tears came as if he was a lost child.

284) *He lost his road as if he had become a fool.

285) √In case Mr Symund did not want to make him an authority, I would suggest to put the writer with other employees.

The practice of subordinators other than if showed that the expressions were unfamiliar to the students. There is a confusion between "even if" (which is conditional) and "although" (which marks a concession) (279, 280) ; but this mistake is hard to avoid because the two expressions merge into each other. Sometimes, the problem of tense sequences is always present. Actually, a past perfect is not associated with a past although advanced learners afford to do it. "As if" causes another problem. The students know that they have to use a past tense maybe because the comparison is untrue, yet they forget about the use of the subjunctive form. Some people can accuse us of being excessively rigorous, but we have to. If <u>was</u> is accepted in a spoken style, then it is good to use it there. If, on the other hand, a written style is concerned, then use the appropriate form, here, the subjunctive. The majority of students we consulted in the test use the above expressions freely.

g. Suppose ..., wish + past (subjunctive), indirect "if".

287) ✓ Suppose I was his colleague, I would argue that the qualification is essential.

288) ✓ He wishes he was not born.

289) ✓ I wish I died.

290) ✓ He started to think if he had not had replayed badly his question.

291) ✓ Mr Symond did not ask him if the writer is well qualified or if he has experience.

The common error in the use of both wish and suppose is the consideration of a supposition as truth. The two expressions cancel each other. The best form then for the sentences containing those words would be to use the subjunctive. With the indirect "if", the students do not know that "if" in indirect questions is used in informal situations, and that in written form "whether" is preferred. Those unfamiliar terms were found in a very limited number of copies (around twenty).

2. Amendment of the situation.

a. Suggested level for the teaching.

As we have already said it in our general introduction, conditionals should start at the intermediate level. As a matter of fact, at the beginning level, the learner is just trying to acquire enough stock-in-trade, that is to build up his lexicon without which the learning of the structure of a language is but impossible. The teacher, on his side, is trying to select basic structures he will start with latter. This level is also advantageous to the student : we have seen that the teaching of grammatical structures would be handled in a communicative way.

At the intermediate level, he has already achieved a relatively sufficient expression to make himself understood no matter the amount of mistakes he makes. Another reason for which conditionals start at this level would be the following. It may happen that towards the end of the beginning level, say in the third term of the second year of English, the students are already introduced to simple tenses. Since conditionals rest upon tense combination, the teacher (if he is clever enough) would take the opportunity and practice those tenses in context.

Conditionals are often taken as very difficult structures in English. Even the teachers of native English speakers recognize the fact and they have recommanded that conditionals start at the intermediate level with English born students. Cfr American Kernel Lessons.

The practice with compound tenses like past conditionals, present conditionals, past perfect, and past continuous tenses should be tackled later. Students must first be informed about those tenses and past modals before they apply them in complex sentences. Besides, we all know that the teaching in general, and of structures in particular, must be graded. Otherwise, the learner's mind may be confused.

Complicated structures would not be touched until the advanced level is reached. Even there, the student does not have to learn them as such. He may come across one or another strange construction (like those we raised in the hierarchy of difficulty) all along his personal documentation and try to comprehend it for his sake. Nevertheless, some precocious students can foresee the difficulty still in secondary school. If then by any chance a student asks the teacher for interpretation, he will

try to set things clear, sometimes resorting to the native language in case of extreme necessity. The explanations would be simple, superficial and economical so as to avoid giving students hard time.

b. Teaching irregularities.

Not many irregular cases are found in conditionals. Nonetheless, the fewest which can be met must not be ignored nor must they take a long time in teaching. The teacher can simply point them out if he notices that the students have failed to discover them on their own. The widely known example is the use of will in a conditional clause when it connotes futurity. This restriction can be justified to some extent. A conditional clause supposes while will predicts, plans with certainty. Unfortunately, it is not very well received by the students. This has been seen in the way they falsely used "will" or "would" in subordinate clauses.

e.g 267) *If the writer would have chance to get a job, he will pass long time also.

268) *He will return back last year to see if job will be found.

275) *If the writer would have chance to get a job, he will pass long time also.

The mistakes recorded here arise from language interference. Kirundi does not contain complicated tenses such as the past conditional. However, because the student knows the existence of the conditional in Kirundi, he will try to translate a Kirundi tense in a certain conditional tense as he pleases.

e.g 292) Umwanditsi yogira imana akaronka akazi, naho nyene azorindira cane.

293)⟶ If the writer would have chance to get a job, he will pass a long time also.

The same problem is posed with the future. The student knows that Kirundi conditional clause can take a future tense. As a result, in a free composition he will be tempted to translate the structure in the target language.

e.g 294) He will return back (last) next year to see if the job will be found.

The mistake in here is twofold. The student used a faulty tense. Moreover he did not notice that he shifted from a direct to indirect speech and that thus he had to respect the changes. He simply contented himself in the translation from the mother tongue.

e.g 295) Azogaruka kuraba ko akazi kazoboneka.

Besides, the student meant.

296) He may return back next year to see if the job (will have been found) has been found.

There is only one way of correcting those mistakes. If the students do not find out the irregularity by means of induction, the teacher will try to lead them to the inquest. He will proceed by questions.

The overlaps in conditionals are rather useful to teachers than to students. The former is obliged to avoid such kinds of ambigwities in the selection of samples (cues) and drills. Consequently, he must know the different subordinators and the nuances they show.

In one sentence that a student gave :

"He will return back last year to see if job will be found".
There is a confusion of <u>if</u> and whether. Maybe because the students did not drill enough the expression "whether". And the teacher failed to stress the difference between "whether" and "if" of course at the end of the lesson. From what we noticed in the copies it seems that the students reel from "even though" to "even if". That is why they take one for another.

<u>e.g</u> 297) Even if he had high qualification, it does not mean that he had to have a high job.

277) Even if it is not suitable for him, he can begin to work.

The "even if" is not used correctly here. It is naked concession, and "even though" was the right term. Again, it is up to the teacher to set things clear for the students, involving brief explanations in case of need.

A more serious problem, as we have been able to notice it, is the use of the subjunctive in a conditional sentence. Be it after "as if", "I wish" and even after "if" if the verb was "be". Students prove poverty in information as far as the point is concerned. One per ten students manage to use "were" instead of "was". Teachers really need to test the case (diagnostic tests) so as to locate areas of difficulty and apply remedial teaching. It is the same problem with tense combinations especially : If + past perfect, past conditional.
Students betray their teachers, in one word they dishonour them. They show no trace of familiarity with tenses, even with simple tenses (past simple and present simple).

When we talk of explanations, we mean neither grammatical rules nor terminology. Those, far from helping the student make of him a kind of automat rather than a performer. Explanations

are the last thing to resort to - only when the message has been too hard to decipher. For example, the terminology is of little help especially in typologies of conditionals. Not knowing the type of conditionals which is being drilled can by no means affect the acquisition in the practice of the structure. The student mainly needs the correct use of the pattern in real world, and far less does he need to know about its heading. He wants to know the language, but not about the language. In case where terminology is needed especially to sort out the pattern constituents on the blackboard, this should be done sometimes far in the middle of the practice, or simply at the end.

e.g At the end of a lesson the teacher can make the student discover the procedure, and not the rule of producing likely conditionals.

Likely conditionals ⟶ If + S + Present + Object,
Subject + Future + Verb + O.

c. Pre-requisite knowledge of structures.

The learner's knowledge of vocabulary is not enough for the teacher to dare introduce the practice with conditionals. There is a previous knowledge of indispensable structures to deal with conditionals which must be acquired before all.

The student must be already equiped enough in the matter of basic syntactic structures.

e.g A teacher cannot endeavour the teaching of conditions if the students have never practiced with

- clauses
- phrases
- auxiliaries and modals
- conjunctions

- nouns
- verbs
- indirect and direct speech.

The student must have already developed habits in the use of all of the above-mentioned elements. Or else, the practice will be a total failure. In fact, the conditionals will offer an adequate means to fathom those sentence constituents.

In the typical mistakes we have listed a bit earlier, it is noticeable that event at the end of the intermediate level, students do not succeed in differentiating should, would, from could.

e.g 298) *If I had many qualifications, I must be superior to them.

299) *If he had had a job, the man could be our danger.

300) *If I was one of his colleagues I should tell him to give others reason.

301) *If I were one of his colleagues, I should argue in favour of the applicant.

A close observation of those four sentences shows us how the students confuse modals. The teacher should make his students drill with tense change of modals according to the conditional tense they are associated with. Ona Low tried to reduce the work of the teachers by providing them with the order in which the changes occur.

a) with present or continuous conditionals (1986 : 70)

can > could, would be able
must > would have to
may (permission) > would be able to
might (possiblity) > no change
should (ought to) > no change.

b) with past conditionals (1986 : 73)

can > had been able > would have been able

must > had had to > would have had to

may (permission) > had been allowed to > would have allowed to

should > should have done > ——

might > might have done > ——

ought to > ought to have done > ——.

These form shifts of modals in conditional context must be intensively exploited because they constitute a problem in the acquisition of grammatical structures. It falls upon the teacher's reponsibility to select different situations to present the various meanings of a same modal.

e.g can < permission → you can go home now.
can < physical capacity (I can lift a fifty kg bag)

d. The teaching of subordinators.

Actually, the chief constituent of a conditional sentence is the subordinating expression. It is the meaning bearer. The student at first, will have to grasp the meaning of the conditional introducer. In other words he must know all the vocabulary used in the sentence. In case of subordinators, if, like any other single subordinator (unless) does not cause great trouble to the learners. On the contrary, compound subordinators like but for, provided that, as long as, so long as, bring about puzzling situation. Here indeed, the expressions are opaque, that is we cannot tell the meaning by looking at words making the expressions. Yet, with in case, even if, even though, their transparency gives us an idea of what they may mean.

In front of opaque words, the teacher will resort to the (explanation) translation of the terms either in the native language or another language that the students understand best (Kirundi and French in Burundi).

3. For an effective teaching of conditionals.

In order to teach conditionals in an effective way, the teacher should avoid a couple of things : the reference to any particular terminology or to any given typology, and the setting of rigorous principles to follow.

In fact, everybody knows that conditionals show a certain complexity. Consequently it would not be easy for the teacher to establish a firm typology (we even mentioned it in the first two chapters) and expose it to the students ; there is practically no firm typology since grammarians themselves have not agreed on one yet. All that the student needs to know is the pattern. The same comment can be made on terminology. The learner does not need to know any terminology at all. He only needs the pattern, the structure in context. Still in secondary school, the student is unable to perceive the nuances likely to be found in terms. i.e The learner does not need to know that a given pattern is labelled "likely conditionals" to understand how it functions. Just the tense sequences and a few explanations could be enough. The last thing to avoid would be a prescription of principles and rules which are to be followed to establish a pattern. There are no rules in the teaching of conditionals. Only generalizations and analogies can work. Teachers should avoid, as much as possible, creating embarassing situations to their students. Nevertheless, those three elements we suggest the teachers to reveal to students

are paramount for their preparations. Teachers are intellectually mature enough to decide which, among different terms or types, typology or terminology to bank on during preparations. As Tomilinson and Ellis suggested it, "A knowledge of structural terminology enables a rapid reference to some structural aspect which has been previously taught." However, even here, they are not allowing the use of sophisticated terminology (1980 : 10). They are rather alluding to simple and basic terminology. For instance, when we come to teach conditional clauses, it is easier if we can use terms like "present simple tense', 'subject', ... Those are elementary terms without which it would be a long process to get the pupils to learn the pattern.

If + S + V (pr. s. t.) ..., + S + V (future tense).

Such terminology often serves as a short cut to learning a structure and is therefore a justification for teaching the pupils a <u>limited</u> amount of terminology. The learning of terminology must always serve as a means to an end and not aim at superfluities. What we, together with Wilga M. Rivers and Mary S. Temperley are objecting to is when "students learn new terms and a schematic apparatus readily enough without coming to grips with the concepts they represent" (1978 : 275). It is up to teachers to invent or adapt a terminology which they find helps their students grasp the concepts and use the structure effectively. Furthermore, the choice of that terminology must take into consideration the terms with which the students may already be familiar.

To crown it all, ultimately teachers themselves must take the responsibility for teaching the students as much as possible, limited abstract structures with their associated terminology as seems to be needed by a particular group. The best would be to prepare

the student to the discovery of some terms by his own efforts (research in books).

D. A design of a lesson on conditionals.

1. Conditionals are part of grammar. Therefore, a design of a grammar lesson can apply to a structure lesson as well. In that perspective, we tried to consult many a methodologist to see whose sample lesson plan of grammar can help us in our attempt to elaborate one for conditionals. Of the five pedagogues we considered (Hubbard P; et al, Wilga M. Rivers, Maria Finocchiaro et al, Ellis and Tomilinson, and Christina B. (Paulston and M. N., Bruder) we preferred Paulston and Bruder. In their design, one can see completeness. According to them, a grammar lesson should follow nine steps.

The format of the lesson looks like this : (1976 : 34)

Step 1. Presentation of pattern in context.

Step 2. Comprehension questions.

Step 3. Identification of the pattern.

Step 4. Mechanical Drills - Formal explanations.

Step 5. Mechanical Drills.

Step 6. Functional explication.

Step 7. Meaningful drills.

Step 8. Communicative drills.

Step 9. (Communicative activity).

This design is far better than the one suggested by Ellis and Tomilinson, for example (1980 : 29)

1. Introduction.

2. Oral practice.

3. Written practice.

Step 1. Presentation of pattern in context.

A structural pattern must be presented in context, no matter the form it takes. The context can be a dialogue, a letter, a diary, a new story or simply an improvised situation by the teacher. What is primordial is its relevancy. In this step, the students are asked to do a silent reading - if the context is textual - which is followed by the teacher's reading.

Step 2. Comprehension questions.

Those questions are very important to check the understanding. The teacher can seize upon the occasion to prepare the students on the pattern by asking related questions. It is to be noted that at this stage, the students are not aware that they are preparing a new structure.

Step 3. Identification of the pattern.

The teacher chooses one utterance illustrating the new pattern and makes it repeat by many students. Nay even, he will write it on the blackboard. After this activity, he will have the students find other occurences of the pattern in the passage. Each located pattern must be drilled.

Step 4. Formal explanations.

It is brief and obligatory. It is characterised by an analysis of a structural pattern, such as word order, concordance - shape and combination of forms - whatever the distinctive features the student must learn if he is to use the pattern correctly. The formal explanation should be as simple and graphic as possible, include a contrast to a similar previously learned pattern.

e.g 302) If I am sick, I will go to the hospital.

303) If I were sick I would go to the hospital.

Note. At the end of the lesson, students can induct the general rule considering regularities observed while drilling.

Step 5. Mechanical drills.

To help the students learn the forms of the new pattern, the teacher must resort to mechanical drills. This must be done at a rapid pace books closed, to memorize the pattern. If not varied, they become boring. Mechanical testing drills lend themselves to homework as they, by nature, test how well the students have learned the formal aspects of the problem. Moreover, they give all the students same chances to use the structure and all the teacher to check the understanding of some few students who escape his attention.

To avoid pupils collaboration after class, those homeworks should be worked at in class under the supervision of the teacher.

Step 6. Functional explication.

It accounts for the situational context. It defines the situation of use of the pattern under discovery and constitute the very troublesome part of the learning. The student is invited to contrast the patterns he has already seen on a given structure.

e.g 304) If I have time, I can go to school.

305) If I have time, I will go to school.

306) If I had time, I would go to school.

Step 7. Meaningful drills.

They concentrate on meaning rather than on form. They seek a true answer no matter the correctness. There is still a control of the answer to some extent seen that the question is suggestive. It is helpful if the meaningful drills follow from the functional explication to make sure that the students have grasped the structure and then reinforce it. Those drills insist on both the form and the content. The exploitation of the immediate environment teaching aids make the reinforcement of the item practical.

Step 8. Communicative drills.

They focus on what is said rather than on how it is said. The students answer grammatically and conversationally in an appropriate fashion. This step is given to the student as an opportunity to develop his reasoning and his expression. The teacher, on his side, will try to locate the areas of difficulty so that he can come back to them in his remedial teaching.

Step 9. Communicative activity.

Because communicative drills are still only drills, the students need to go beyond them to real interaction activities. This objective is hard to achieve for the simple reason that the social milieu the student lives in out of class does not favour the practice. Some teachers recommend the students to live English structures out of class. However, this is not possible. The language of the majority dominates the foreign language and the student is ashamed of making mistakes. The social constraints frustrate him. The explanations would be

placed somewhere after meaningful drills or before them for their necessity to avoid waste of time practising a structure that the students do not understand.

2. A new orientation.

We have already seen a sample grammar lesson plan by Paulston. Far from objecting to that, we got inspired by her achievements and tried to elaborate a lesson plan for conditionals. The first three steps have been modified if not left out for the sake of time economy and effectiveness.

Step one : Presentation of pattern in content.

Step two : Mechanical drills.

Step three: Meaningful drills.

Step four : Communicative drills.

Step five : Functional explanations.

Step six : Communicative activity.

- The presentation of pattern in context.

Paulston expressed her desire that grammatical items be presented in a dialogue. On this point, we depart remarkably. Conditional patterns need not be present in context like this. On the contrary, they fit in with an improvised situation (of course already prepared by the teacher) in class. We find this practical in this particular case for many reasons.

1) The teacher exploits the material in class (chalks, pen, desks ...) which students are already familiar with. This excludes the use of difficult vocabulary.

2) The teacher avoids waste of times with comprehensive questions which are normally required for the teaching of reading passage.

3) The students are likely to understand easily as they follow the teacher along the evolution of his creativity. There again, there is no much time spent to explanations.

4) The teacher gains enough time to devote to drilling, an efficient means of acquisition of habits in the use of structures.

There is only one problem with that process. How to create a relevant situation with any type of conditionals is a hard task yet not impossible. The essential of this is that the teacher uses real objects to present to real people in a real situation. Once followed correctly, the method will grant the teacher success and earn him students' confidence.

a. Teaching likely conditionals.

In his book on teaching patterns of English (1966 : 54), Hornby provided a relatively efficient approach of teaching future predictive conditions. With the assumption that the students - at the very beginning of the intermediate level - are already familiar with the conditional sentences containing the present tense both in the conditional and the main clauses, the teacher is required to proceed with future conditions. He can use the formerly known pattern as an introduction provided that the learners master the use of future tense. Another important thing to bear in mind is the exploitation of realistic and, if possible, immediate environment.

i.e

Step 1 - Situation.

Teacher : What can you do, Mary, if you have a piece of chalk ?

Student : I can write on the blackboard.

e.g 307) T. :: Do you have a piece of chalk ?

S. : No, I do not.

T. : What will she be able to do if I give her a piece of chalk ?

S. : He will be able to write on the blackboard.

T. : If I give her a piece of chalk, she will be able to write on the blackboard.

Step2. Mechanical drills.

Repetition and substitution are the best indicated types of drills for this set.

The substitution can be applied to the objects involved.

e.g 308) What will Thérèse be able to do if I give her a piece of chalk ?

309) What will Jeanne be able to do if I give her a red chalk ?

Step 3. Meaningful drills.

- An answer -by a complete sentence- to a yes/no questions can be considered as an example of meaningful drills. In fact, the answer cannot be correct if the student does not understand the question.

e.g 302) Will you be able to write on the blackboard if I do not give you a piece of chalk ?

303) Will you go out if I refuse you the permission ?

- There is a possibility of applying substitution drills to this situation.

e.g 304) If I give him a piece of chalk, he will be able to write in the notebook.

Substitute : a pen.

305) If I give him a pen, he will be able to write in the notebook.

This substitution requires a bit of thinking, since it involves another replacement.

Step 4. Communicative drills.

Those drills help the students to formulate their own opinions on the question.

e.g 306) What will you be able to do if I give you a pen?
Tell us what you will do if you finish your studies.

Step 5 . Explanations.

By means of an inductive method, the teacher can lead the student to complete the chart on tense combinations. He can profit from the occasion, and inform them that it is not advisable to use the future in the if-clause. Furthermore, the meaning of the sentence-prediction here-, can be given in r tion to other possible meanings : habit, request.

Step6. The communicative activity.

After those explanations, which in principle must be brief, the communicative drills will be carried on. This time however, students will be allowed to ask questions one another. The discrimination drills can consist in a choice of an adequate meaning between the many possibilities offered

- habit
- request
- prediction
- conjecture.

e.g 307) If I have money, I buy clothes (habit).

308) If I have money, I will go to the market(predictio.)

309) If I have money, I can buy clothes (conjecture request)

310) If you do not mind, I want to smoke (request)

In this particular structure, a long time should be devoted to the practice. It is the chance offered to the students to make longer speeches and the teacher will control the correct use of tense. It will be a favourable occasion for the teacher to check the acquisition of habit.

b. Teaching unlikely conditionals.

Step 1. Presentation of the situation.

It is a good thing to use the previously taught structure as an introduction to the new one. However, it is not always possible.

e.g 311) T. : A week ago, I had a piece of chalk.
Did I give it to Mary ?

S. : No you did not.

T. : If I gave it to her, what would she be able to do?

S. : If you gave it to her, she would be able to write on the blackboard.

Step 2. Mechanical drills.

Repetition.

Substitution.

Step 3. Meaningful drills.

Yes/No questions.

Substitution.

Step 4. Communicative drills.

The students are asked to say what they would do in precise

contexts.

Step 5. Explanations.

This structure presents some problems to the student. As a result, it is up to the teacher to set them clear.

- It is very important to tell them that the idea is in the present time, yet not true.
- Moreover, it is here and now that the student needs to know that in present untrue conditions the subjunctive form "were" is used instead of "was".
- To make the learning more effective, it would be better to insert the adverbs of time, "Now, today, and very rarely tomorrow", to stress the present meaning.

e.g 312) If I had money now, I would buy an expensive watch.

Step 6. Communicative activity.

This step should just regard the creativity of the student. The latter will be asked to invent a situation before the class and draw a conclusion containing the new pattern.

Note. Such a structure should be taught to students who have already acquired enough information on tenses and auxiliaries. Hence, such a structure suits the intermediate learners - second year of the level. This choice can be justified by the beginning of complexity in the patterns. At that stage the student feels at ease when practising the past tense.

c. Impossible conditions.

i. The revision on tenses in primordial as an introduction to this type of sentences.

The present tense

The past simple tense

The present perfect tense

The simple future tense

The present conditional tense : would + infinitive

The past conditional : would + have + ——— en

The past perfect : had + ——— en.

a. Presentation of the pattern in context.

It is customary that the recently seen pattern can work as the introduction to the new one. Consequently the present unreal conditions can prepare to the teaching of the past unreal conditionals.

e.g 314) Two weeks ago I had a piece of chalk. I wanted to give it to Mary, but I changed my mind. If I had given it to her, she would have been able to write on the blackboard.

b. Mechanical drills.

Repetition

Substitution.

c. Meaningful drills.

Yes/No questions

Substitution.

d. Communicative drills.

Situational exercises

Regret of the past unfulfilled events.

e. Explanations.

Subject - auxiliary inversion is tackled. Nonetheless, to avoid complicating students, no great attention should be given to that.

Note. The teacher must be clever and competent enough to distinguish clearly impossible conditions from unlikely conditions.

It is not very easy.

f. Communicative activity.

The students can write down a short composition about their wishes either for the future or for the past.

e.g . Write a hundred line composition on what you would do if you were an English teacher. Each sentence must start with if.

. Write a hundred line of what you will do if you finish your studies.

d. Teaching "unless", "in case", "whether".

"Unless" is less frequently used than "if". As a matter of fact, Hornby advises the teacher not to extend on its use even when it occurs in the reading material. However, in that case a brief comment can be made on the structure. In fact, "unless" in simple structures equals if ... not. It is then better to keep using "if ... not" for the sake of simplicity and broad use.

The introduction of unless can follow from the practice with "if ... not" as the methodological principles want it to be. The teaching of grammatical items must go from simple to complex, from general to specific, from less difficult to more complicated, and from the well-known to the unknown.

e.g 315) T. Which day is today ?

S. Today is Wednesday.

T. What lesson are you taking ?

S. We are taking the English Lesson.

T. Will you take it next Wednesday if I am absent ?

S. No, we will not. We will take it if you are not absent.

T. Well! You will take it next Wednesday, unless I am absent.

Mechanical drills : Repetitive

Substitution : substitute : I am sick,
I forget.

316) —— You will take it next Wednesday, unless I am sick.

317) —— You will take it next Wednesday, unless I forget.

Meaningful drills : Thoughtful substitutive drills.
By thoughtful substitutive drills, one should understand those drills which, once substituted, necessarily involve other modifications within the sentence.

e.g 318) You will die of hunger unless you take some food with you.

Substitute, some drink.

319) —— You will die of thirst unless you take some drink with you.

It is not worth saying to students that unless is rarely used in the unlikely and impossible conditionals in so far as the students will not meet it anywhere in their books. They will content themselves with the pattern they find in use :

"if ... not".

e.g 320) I would have come to see you, if my mother had not sent me to an errand.

e. Teaching "in case".

We cannot spend a lot of time on the approach to use. The only difference from the other cases we have seen so far :

that "in case" and other compound subordinators need not be presented until they occur in reading texts. It is in this situation that the presentation and the illustration of the item by examples are of great necessity. The methodology of such a teaching changes accordingly and we follow the steps of Paulston unrestrictedly.

e.g 321) Take the umbrella in case it rains.

To isolate this sentence, some procedures must be performed.

Step 1ª Reading of the text by the teacher.

Step 2ª Comprehension questions which turn around the new item.

Step 3ª Identification. The students locate the item in the text, under the guidance of the teacher. By themselves, they will look for similar structures.

Step 4ª Mechanical drills. e.g Repetition.

Step 5ª Meaningful drills : What can you do in case you are sick ?

Step 6ª Communicative drills. The students are invited to use the new expression in their own sentences.

Step 7ª Explanations.

This particular item is not easy to understand. Maybe the students in the third year of the intermediate level can try to grasp the meaning. Early intermediate students will need a long time to seize that "in case" introduces a possibility against which a precaution is advisable. More than that, they will be tempted to assimilate the phrase with the propositional phrase : "In case of" which is an equivalent of "if" in full clauses.

e.g 322) In case of rain, please shelter firewood.

323) If it rains, please shelter firewood.

8. Communicative activity.

The students are asked to use the expressions "in case" and "in case of" in their own sentences.

f. Teaching "whether" as a conjunctive in indirect questions.

It is important that the students know the difference that is between "if" and "whether" as conditional introducers and them being conjunctives. The teacher should be very careful when dealing with those overlaping cases. The first thing to avoid is the mingling of things. i.e It is not a good point to introduce "if" when "whether" is being taught.

Introduction.

The teacher expects the class to be familiar with indirect questions introduced by how many, when, which, and what. As a result, he can recall some of these materials using ask and tell as an introductory step.

e.g 324) T. How many pens do you have, Mary ?
S. I have only one pen.
T. What did I ask Mary ?
S. You asked Mary how many pens she had.

Step 1. Presentation of "whether" in a situation.

e.g 325) T. I need five hundred Francs.
Does anybody in this class have five hundred Francs now ?
S. No, nobody does.
T. And I do not know whether anyone of my colleagues can help me. (2)

Step 2. Mechanical drills.

The students repeat the sentence two or more times. Even substitution drills can work in this situation.

e.g 326) T. I do not know whether anyone of my colleagues can help me.

T. Substitute give me the money.

327) S. I do not know whether anyone of my colleagues can give me the money.

T. Substitute my boy friend.

328) S. I do not know whether my boy friend can give me the money.

Step 3. Meaningful drills.

The item "whether" is interesting to internalize as far as meaningful drills are concerned. Every question either the student or the teacher puts is meaningful. That is, there is only one answer to give provided that the information is unknown to the hearer.

e.g 329) T. Have I any keys in my handbag ?

S. I do not know whether you have any.

T. Louise, do you know whether the headmaster is in his office ?

S. No, I do not know whether the headmaster is in his office.

Step 4. Communicative drills.

. The students are induced to answer by means of "whether" to some of the teacher's questions.

e.g 330) T. Are you sure you will do your homework this afternoon ?

S. I do not know whether I will have time.

. They can also use the expression in their own constructions.

Step 5. Explanations.

The students have/the right to know that "if" can replace "whether" in colloquial contexts. They will even practise the substitution.

e.g 331) I see one absent student. Does anybody know whether (if) he is ill ?

It is also important to let the students know that "whether" can be used together with "or" to signify an alternative question. In other words,"whether ... or" implies a choice among two solutions meant by one verb.

e.g 332) I wonder whether Mary drinks coffee or tea.

This situation helps very much to introduce "whether ... or whether" whose use differs from the above one in the number of verbs they use. "Whether ... or whether" requires two finite verbs.

e.g 333) The teacher used to ask us whether we would listen before writing, or whether we would do both at a same time.

Step 6. Communicative activity.

The students try to give an account of alternative solutions they had in their minds one day.

IV. APPLICATION.

The previous chapter was concerned with our methodological suggestions. The following one will be the application of the theories and methods we are proposing in order to check its efficacy.

A. An experimental lesson on conditionals.

After the elaboration of a design for a lesson on conditionals, its application followed. We went to teach them in the class of 3ème Scientifique, Lycée de Vugizo. It was on Monday, 2nd February, 1987. Made up of thirty students, this class has particularly been interesting to us in so far as it is an intermediary between the beginning and the rounding stages of the learning of conditionals. In fact, the B.E.P.E.S. programmed that students finish with the intensive learning of grammatical structures one year before the end of the college education. In their opinion, the final year should be concerned with the extensive use of those structures in compositions. In other terms, the final year might be spent developing the writing and speaking skills. The idea in itself was excellent. Unfortunately, the students drop the automatisms they have acquired through practice easily. They lack a suitable environment to preserve them. This affirmation will be sustained by the errors we found in the exercises we assigned to them to test their comprehension.

Preparation.

Main parts	Steps	Approach	Subject matter
Intro-duction	- Revision on tenses	The teacher asks some students to use some tenses in sentences.	T. : Who can give me a sentence in - the simple present - the simple past - the future - the past perfect - the present conditional (would + infinitive) - the past conditional (would+have+-en+infini-tive)
Body	1. Presenta-tion of the pattern in context.	The teacher presents the students an entire piece of chalk, starting point of an intro-ductory dialogue containing the new structure.	Likely conditionals T. Look at this piece of chalk. Is it broken ? S. No, it is not. T. What can happen if I drop it ? S. If you drop it, it can break into pieces. T. I am going to drop it down. What will happen ? S. If you drop it down, it will break into pieces.
	2. Mechani-cal drills	The students repeat the structure after the teacher.	T. If you drop it down, it will break into pieces. S. If you drop it down it will break into pieces.
	3. Meaning-ful	The students practise the structure by answering some close questions.	T. What will you do if your teacher asks you a question? S. If he asks me a question, I will answer it. T. Where will you go if you leave the class at twelve o'clock? (S. to the dining room).

Main parts	Steps	Approach	Subject matter
Body			T. What will you do if you go to the dining room ? (S. take my lunch) T. What will you do if you go to church ? (pray).
	4. Communicative drills.	The students will practise the structure by answering some open questions (they make some plans for the future)	- What will you do if you finish your studies ? - Where will you go if ten o'clock rings ? - What will you do if the teacher is absent ? - Where will you go after class ?
	5. Explanation and presentation of the pattern	By the inductive methods, the students establish the pattern regarding tense sequences in if-sentences. Some notions are brought into clarification for the sake of a good comprehension.	If | Sub-clause | Main clause | Present | Future Overlap :"if" can be replaced by "when" in this case. The event is very close to reality. Position of the if-clause. An if-clause can come first or second in a sentence. Exceptions : will is rarely used in an if-clause. Other possibilities of tens sequences : present tenses (present continuous, present simple, present perfect) can be used both in the main and the subordinate clauses II. Unlikely conditionals.
(Introduction)		The previous practice constitutes the introduction	

Main parts	Steps	Approach	Subject matter
Body	1. Presentation of the situation in context	The teacher repeats the example with likely conditionals, of course switching to the appropriate tenses	T. Some minutes ago, I had a piece of chalk. Did I drop it down ? S. No, you did not. T. What would happen if I dropped it down now ? S. It would break into pieces
	2. Mechanical drills.	Repetition of the sample sentence after the teacher	T. If you dropped the piece of chalk down, it would break. S. If you dropped the piece of chalk down, it would break.
	3. Meaningful drills.	Students answer some close questions.	- What would I teach you if I were a mathematics teacher ? - Where would you be if it were Sunday ? - Would you come to school if it were Sunday ? - Would you go to church if it were Sunday ? - What would you do if I asked you a question ?
	4. Communicative drills	The students practise the structure with some open questions	- What would you buy if you won a million in the lottery ? - What would you like to be if you finished your studies ? - What would you do if you were a boy ? (a girl ?) - What would you say if I gave/you one thousand francs ?

Main parts	Steps	Approach	Subject matter
Body	5. Explanations and symbolic presentation of the pattern.	- The teacher captures the students' attention about the use of the subjunctive form with "be"	- if subordinate clause: past simple; main clause: present conditional - the past of the conditional is said "were" instead of "was". However, "was" can be also used. III. Impossible conditionals
Body	1. Presentation of the situation in context	The teacher tells the students about someone's adventures at the market the previous day. The adventure is, in fact a failure which will lead him to formulate his unfulfilled wish.	Yesterday, Mary went to the market, but, she had not enough money with her. She saw a very nice dress for five thousand. She had only three thousand. "If she had had two thousand more, she would have bought the dress for sure.
	2. Mechanical drills	The students repeat the sample sentence after the teacher.	. If she had had two thousand more, she would have bought the dress for sure.
	3. Meaningful drills	Close questions (the students must make complete & long answers)	- Would you have been happy if you had been a boy ? - Would you have accepted, if they had sent you to study at E.F.I. last year ? - Would I have come in this class if I had not studied English ? - Would it have been kind of you if you had not greeted me ?

Main parts	Steps	Approach	Subject matter
Body	4. Communicative drills	Students give long and complete answers for some open questions.	- How would you have reacted if I had given you a quiz. - Where would you have gone at 7:30 if you had had a sports lesson ? - What would you have bought, if you had won a million francs in the lottery ? - Who would you have chosen to sit with if the teacher had let you choose ?
	5. Explanations and symbolic representation of the pattern	A word about the inversion auxiliary-subject can be said	If / Subclause: past perfect / Main clause: past conditional It is preferable to invert the auxiliary and the verb in this kind of sentences. e.g Had she had two thousand more, she would have bought the dress for sure.
Conclusion	Reinforcement exercises.	A) Complete:	If I had time, ... If it had not been raining, ... You will go in the second class, if ... You would be ill if ... We can easily have zero if...
		B) Put in the correct tense.	1) If John (eat) another slice of bread he will be sick. 2) If you (go) away, please write to me. 3) If you (be) in the house, I would have given it to you. 4) I should not do that, if I (be) you. 5) If she had had the courage she (answer) him back.

Main parts	Steps	Approach	Subject matter
			6) If you (want) me to help you, why did not you say so ?
		C) Combine the two sentences by means of "if" (practice with conditionals in negative form).	1) They speak French to her, not English. Her English does not improve. → If they did not speak French to her, her English would improve.
			2) He is very thin, perhaps that is why he feels the cold so much.
			3) He does not help me, possibly because I never ask him to.
			4) It was raining, that is why we did not go to the market.
			5) She is not a good girl, that is why Jack left her.
			6) They were driving very quickly, that is why the accident was so terrible.

B. Recorded mistakes.

General mistakes.

330) *I should not do that if I was you

331) *If you would want me to help you, why did not you say so ?

332) *You can easily have zero if you will not study very well.

333) *You can easily have zero if you will continue like that.

334) *You can easily have zero if you will not answer well.

335) *If you have been in the house, I would have given it to you.

336) *If it had not been raining, I have been gone to church.

337) *If he helps no, I could asked it to him.

338) *You can easily have zero if you will cheat.

339) *You can easily have zero if you will not listen to me.

Particular mistakes.

340) *I should not do that if I have be you.

341) *If I had had the courage, I would had answered him back.

342) *You would be ill if you had eat the mango.

343) *If you would wanted me to help you, why did you not say so ?

344) *I should not do that if I had been you.

345) *You would be ill if you do not cover you.

346) *If it had not been raining you had come to see her.

347) *If I had had the courage, I would answer him.

348) *If I had had the courage, I was have answer him back.

349) *If I had time, I would have written to you.

350) *I should not do that If I will you.

351) *If she is not a good girl you will left her.

352) *You would be ill if you taked not your coat in this cold.

353) *If I had time, I would have written to you

354) If it had not been raining I would have visited you.

355) *If you was in the house, I would have given it to you.

C. Interpretation of the mistakes.

It is to be noted that the three types of conditionals have been dealt with in fifty minutes. This may be the reason why the mistakes made by the students show a certain confusion of tense sequences. Fifty minutes were not enough.

The general mistakes, for example, have been made by a good number of students. The use of will in a conditional clause (Cfr 332, 333, 334, 338, 339, 350, 351) were due to the insufficiency of practice with present - future sequence. The student tempted to think maybe · in French or Kirundi and came to that end. One fifth of the class failed to do correct combinations. Another mistake which was made by the majority was the use of "was" instead of "were". Here again, it was too early to check how much they perceived the nuance. Only five students in the class used it correctly. In one word, forgetfulness and lack of sufficient practice might be the causes of confusion.

Concerning the odd tense combinations, namely in unlikely and impossible conditionals, can we impeach the above factors ? Maybe the lack of time to form habits is still the reason. There are mistakes that we have called particular. Indeed they are for the simple reason that they were made by one or two students in the class.
Those mistakes (e.g 348,) led us to think that those students did not make any effort at all to think a bit.
Some students had problems in forming the past participle of verbs (342, 348) or even the preterit (352) and this can be the source of confusion. If the student presents lacunas in simple things we cannot expect/to him do well in complex ones.

All in all, we cannot judge our students severely. The general impression was good, they understood the essentials. More than the half of the class did the assignment pretty well. We can assume that those who had serious problems were slow learners and that would be normal. The perfection will be achieved little by little as the students evolve in the practice. All that we can say is that, our procedure would have been very successful, if we had concentrated on one type of conditionals in a whole hour. The only condition to fulfill is the elaboration of valid and varied drills.

D. Practice in the conditionals.

The success in practicing conditionals rests on well-elaborated drills. What we can call "good drills" must have two qualities. They should be varied and placed in context. In fact, the context is very important in this case. It can solve the dilemma of offering two possibilities of tense combination in a sentence especially within unlikely and impossible conditionals. There may be a confusion between

will + verbal and will have been + past participle

would + verbal and would have been.

It may be good if we say a word on the types of drills we are going to bank on in the selection of ours.

1. The importance of drills in teaching grammatical structures.

To learn a foreign language, one must know the commonest changes in words and have a command of their structures by heart. That command of structure is more easily acquired by reading, speaking, listening to and writing the language than learning and studying explanations. And we know that those skills are

acquired through practice. To learn a language as C.F. Hockett believes it, is to learn how to use it - to respect to the situations by saying appropriate things in it, to understand what others say, and ultimately to read and write it. Such an ability is a result of habit formation. To form habits in structure teaching is realized through the practice of intensive drills and exercises.

In fact, because grammar permeates in all language skills, its objective as a topic to deal with is the oral use of the target language for communicative purposes. Language being practical, its grammar should be practical, too. If a student of English as a foreign language must walk towards the kind of automatic control of grammar that enables the native speaker to manipulate words with no hesitation and with perfect accuracy, a collection of oral and written exercises constitute an important means to achieve the purpose, oral exercises are designed to impart fluency in the production of the correct form, and written exercises provide useful reinforcement of what has been practiced orally. It is, as Wilga Rivers noticed it, in oral exercises that are focuses the students' attention on specific problems (1978 : 76). Those exercises used to reinforce the described structures are called "structural drills". The same author specifies that "they are types of exercises designed to give the students many opportunities for systematic practices of particular features in naturally phrased and easily remembered foreign language utterances." It tends to be universally accepted that theory in grammar learning is hindrance. People recorded by Bright (1970 : 237) radically object to the use of theory in teaching a language structure. They state : "We do not want theoretical knowledge, we want skill. Theoretical knowledge inhibits skill, skill is acquired only by practice". They are blatantly

priviledging drills. They are somehow right in so far that no skill can be acquired without copious practice. Language learning is a habit-formation.

An automatic production of a foreign word in the way Palmer described it (1921 : 54) must be the result of a perfectly formed habit. This is the object of language teaching exercises, drills and devices. They are invented to ensure proper repetition in attractive and interesting ways.

Those exercises fall under various groups and the practice of conditionals can fit in each of those types.

2. Types of drills.

The following typologies are adapted from Paulston because of her sense of synthesis. Her classification of structural pattern drills is threefold :

a) Mechanical drills : Those are drills where there is no control of the response and which only give one possibility of answering correctly. They are needed to help the students memorise and organize the pattern. Repetitions and substitution are good examples of that first class.

e.g 356) Repeat. If I had money I would save it.
Substitute. I would buy a car If I had money
I would buy a car.

b) Meaningful drills.

They differ from mechanical drills in their function. They help the teachers to check the understanding and mastery of the pattern. Furthermore, such kind of drills involve materials that are in the immediate environment. No free choice of answer and this is what makes them look like those in the first class.

e.g 357) Answer : Would you go out if I did not allow you to ?

c. Communicative drills.

They make the learner think before answering. In fact, he adds new information about the real world. They engage him to give his personal opinion. The simplest would be Yes/No questions, the more complicated would be Wh-questions.

e.g 358) What would you do if you were a bird ?

As we are directly interested in a syntactic structure, its teaching will require some of the following varieties of drills.

- Repetition drills.
- Discrimination drills, where the correct answer depends on the conscious choice of the three meanings. In our topic we will exploit the "context recognition" whose function is ascertain whether the students have understood the different meaning of a conditional according to the context it occurs in.

e.g Which of the three meanings (habit, conjecture, request) does each of the following sentences express ?

359) If you have a car, I would like to go to town.

360) If a dog sees a thief, it barks.

361) If he left at eight, he missed the bus.

- Alternation drills are the most important in that they provide us with the rules of the grammar where the purpose is to internalize the structure by practicing the pattern. Any variation of this kind applies to the practice of conditional patterns.

. Substitution :

e.g 369) I would help her if she asked me.

Substitute : I would leave her.

I would leave her if she asked me.

Substitute : If she were annoyed.

I would leave her if she were annoyed.

. Reduction :

e.g 370) I will come to see you if it is possible.

I will come to see you if possible.

. Integration : Conditional clause formation.

e.g 371) I do not have money.

I want a new dress.

If I had money, I would buy a new dress.

In fact here the integration consists in the combination of two utterances into one which requires some transformation.

. Transformation drills change the order of constituents in the cue in the response.

e.g 372) Ask a question with :

I will do whatever I want if I finish my studies.

Q. What will you do if you finish your studies ?

. Reply drills entail all types of drills which consist of a conversation like exchange.

e.g 372)-Will you come to see me this evening ?

- If I have time.

Because comprehensive questions appear in this set, we found it better to mention that they should be profoundly exploited. As far as conditionals are concerned, students need to develop their ability to think and formulate longer speculations. They constitute

an accurate occasion to develop the speaking and thinking process at the same time.

e.g 373) What would you do if you won a million in the lottery ?

Such an exercise can constitute a good composition topic and this will help the teacher to consider each student in particular and the problems he undergoes in the practice of the pattern.

- Completion helps to control both the understanding and the practice of the pattern and its constituents.

Complete : I would go to Europe if ...

- Reduction / Expansion :

I would like to meet someone who is going to town.
If you are going there, please tell me.

Now that we have seen how important and numerous drills are, it would be ideal if the teacher could structure and vary them. A good drill should be realistic and on target to avoid the students' confusion.

Hubbard P. and her cooperators make a good observation on the elaboration of drills. "The drills must be extremely well structured. They should be as close as possible to real langauge. If the structural pattern of a drill does not vary, the structure itself may fade into background and not be learnt at all" (1983 : 26). It is incontestably true that the longer and less varied a drill is the more it bores the student making then the learning tedious and unworthy.

3. Supplied drills.

1.1. Mechanical drills.

a. Match each of the clauses in A with the four clauses in B.

A	B
If John comes tomorrow	We shall go to the concert
If the work is not too difficult	I will be very pleased
If we finish early enough	We will be ready at six o'clock
If everything goes well	I shall not need your help.
If it does not rain	

A	B
If I had a thousand Francs	I would tell everyone
If I went to London next year	I would become a V.I.P.
If I knew the truth	I would not know what to do
If I left school tomorrow	You would be surprised
If she were a queen	

A	B
If the bus had not come	We would have gone on foot
If I had known about it	It would not have mattered
If you had lost the money	You would not have come
If they had had an accident	I would have stayed longer
If there had been any trouble	You would have been told.

b. Substitution drills.

i. The model sentence : If I understand, I will explain it to you.

Substitute : If you need it.

Response : If you need it, I will explain it to you.

Substitute : He will say it to you.

Response : If you need it, he will say it to you.

Substitute : If you request it.

Response : If you request it, he will say it to you.

Substitute : He will show it to you.

Response : If you request it, he will show it to you.

Substitute : If you like it.

Response : If you like it, he will offer it to you.

Note. The teacher has to give a sample to the students. Otherwise they will be confused in deciding which part to substitute.

ii. The same exercise can be repeated with the second type of conditionals. That is, substitute exactly with the same sentences expressing unlikely conditions.

e.g The model sentence : If I understood, I would explain it to you.

Substitute : If you needed it.

Response : If you needed it, I would explain it to you.

...

iii. Do the same with impossible conditions.

The model sentence : If I had understood, I would have explained it to you.

Substitute : If you had needed it.

Response : If you had needed it, I would have explained it to you.

c. Completions.

A part of sentence is given as a cue and the students finish the sentence with a semantically constant segment in which some syntactic or morphological change must be made according to the cue.

Model sentence : If I see him, I will tell him.

Cue : If I saw him.

Response : If I saw him, I would tell him.

Cue : If you heard it.

Response : If you heard it, I would tell him.

Cue : If you insulted him.

Response : If you insulted him, I would tell him.

Cue : They accused him.

Response : If they accused him, I would tell him

Cue : If they stole me, I

Response : If they stole my money, I would tell him.

Cue : I would suspect him.

Response : If they stole my money, I would suspect him.

Cue : I would call him.

Response : If they stole my money, I would call him.

Cue : I would declare the theft.

Response : If they stole my money, I would declare the theft.

Cue : I would leave the place.

Response : If they stole my money, I would leave the place.

Cue : I would die.

Response : If they stole me, I would die.

d. Supply the appropriate auxiliary verb.

e.g I do not have a pen, but if I did, I would lend it to you.

e.g He is busy right now, but if he were not, he would help us.

1) I did not vote in the last elections, but if I ... I would have put my card in the white urn.

2) I do not have enough money, but if I —' I would buy books.

3) The weather is cold today, but if it ——, I would go swimming.

4) She did not inform me about her failure, but if she —— I would have solved her problem.

5) I was absent last week, but if ——, I would have met my brother.

6) I cannot walk, but if I ——, I would go downtown with you.

7) I must see my doctor, but if ——, I would go upcountry today.

8) My teacher is not here yet, but if she ——, I would not be reading.

9) I taught for two years at Jenda, but if I —— I would have finished my studies.

10) I may not go upcountry this week, but if I —— I would inform you.

e. Rewrite the sentences with a correct aux. or verb.

1. If you make him angry, you (will/would) be sorry.
2. If you (drink/drank) this poison, you will die.
3. If he insulted his mother, everyone (will/would) blame him.
4. If the roof (falls/fell) on top of you, you would be killed.
5. If the world (is/were) small, people would live in floors.
6. If you open the bottle, the ink (will/would) come out.
7. If the present leader dies, another (will/would) be chosen.
8. If war (breaks/broke) out, many people would suffer.
9. If he sees a cheap dress he (will/would) buy it for his daughter.
10. If you (have/had) to go to hospital, I will visit you.
11. If I (am/were) not in, I will be at my sister's.

12. If cars (are/were) cheap, I would have one.
13. If it (does/did) not rain soon, there will be a famine.
14. If I (see/saw) a ghost, I would run away.
15. If you give a beggar food, he (will/would) trouble you again.
16. If I (see/saw) him tomorrow, he will tell me the true version.
17. If I (die/died) tomorrow, I would be soon forgotten.
18. If we asked you to be our leader (will/would) you accept.
19. If you (work/worked) harder, you would get more marks.

f. Practice with tenses : put the verb form in brackets into the suitable tense.

1) If it (rain), you will get wet.
2) I do not know if he (come), but if yes, he (be) late.
3) If he understood it, he (not laugh).
4) I (not feel) at ease if my Director fell in love with me.
5) If he had had a wife, he (be) happier.
6) If my mother had not been a faithful wife, my father (ask) for legal divorce.
7) If you say that again, I (report) you.
8) If it had been dark, I (not see) it.
9) If the message (be) really important, it would reach you sooner or later.
10) If you were left alone in a wide forest, what (do) you?
11) If he (not rape) his mother, he would not have been punished.
12) I would tell him if he (ask me).
13) I (cry) for an hour, if I fail my studies.
14) I will go alone if he (not arrive) on time.

15) If I (be) a boy, girls would have a lot of trouble with me.

g. Multiple choice questions.

Match the number with a letter of the correct tense and then put the verbs in the correct form.

A. Simple past

B. Past progressive

C. Present perfect

D. Past perfect

E. Simple present

1. If she (understand) the situation she will explain it to us.
2. Your work would have been excellent if you (avoid) careless mistakes.
3. If you (lend) him your money, you will never get it back.
4. If you (hate) me, why cannot you say it overtly ?
5. Would you have heard if I (speak) in a low voice ?
6. I really apologize, if I (disturb) you.
7. If Thomas (be) a girl, he would know how to tame a boy-friend.
8. If you (listen) carefully, you heard what I was saying.
9. If they spend their time flirting, they will have zero.
10. If Burundi (have) no wonderful lakes, many tourists would not have visited her.
11. If Vital'O (be) a good player team, they would win the cup (1984 - 1985).

h. Integration : Read each of the following situations, and then write a sentence about each one using the word if. Use each one of the three model given in the examples.

Examples : - She might pass her exam.

- She willbe very happy.

S : She will be very happy if she passes her exam.

- She is always hungry.

- She does not eat much.

S : She would not be hungry if she ate much.

- He did not get the job.

- He did not fulfill the required conditions.

S : He would have gotten the job if he had fulfilled the required conditions.

1) He takes the bus to work every morning. He does not have a car.

2) They were sick because they ate out-of-date products.

3) It might be nice this afternoon. We will go out then.

4) They gave the man some money because he looked so poor.

5) He works late every night because he has so much to do.

6) He had some serious problems. So, he took drugs.

7) He does not work very carefully, so he makes a lot of mistakes.

8) We did not go to dance because we did not have time.

9) She runs every day because she believes sports can diminish her.

10) She might be late tomorrow. Her boss will be angry.

1.2. Meaningful drills : Answer the following questions give complete answers.

1) How old would you be if you were born in the year 1900 ?

2) What will you do if you go into the diningroom ?

3) What would you have done if you had been in church yesterday ?

4) What would you be doing right now if I were a mathematics teacher ?

5) What language would you speak if you were born in Japan ?

6) What clothes would you wear if you were a girl ?

7) What clothes would you wear if you were a boy ?

8) Would you sing if I asked you to ?

9) What do you do if the teacher enters the class ?

10) Would you be happy if a scholarship were offered to you ?

1.3. Communicative drills.

a. Answer the questions. Begin with : "No, but if ...".

Ex. i. Do you have a million dollars ?

No, but if I did, I would lend it to you.

ii. Are you dead ?

No, but if I were, my mother would kill herself.

1. Do you have a car ?
2) Are you a bird ?
3) Are you married ?
4) Do you have a horse home ?
5) Can you see your mother now ?
6) Are you the teacher of this class ?
7) Are you at home right now ?
8) Are you having an exam ?
9) Are you a dumb ?
10) Can you speak Japanese ?

b. The teacher asks the above questions in past tense.

e.g i. Did you have a million dollars ?

No, but if I had had it, I would have lent it to you.

ii. Were you dead ?

No, but if I had been dead, my mother would have killed herself.

C. Complete the following sentences with your own words.

1. If I could do exactly what I wanted .....
2. If I see him again, I .....
3. Would you write to me if I .....
4. If I ever forgot my English .....
5. If you manage to speak English perfectly, ...
6. If ....., we would have left without them.

7. If you had worked harder, ...
8. If you told me truth,.....
9. If everybody in the world spoke the same language,.....
10. I might have learnt more English if,.....
11. I am sure she would not have loved him if, ...
12. If I get a letter tomorrow, ...
13. If she has done as I told her to, ...
14. If I knew I were going to die next year, ...
15. The teacher would not have been angry with us if .....

Make if-sentences following the given-model.

e.g . I had no idea it was going to be crowded.
. I would not have gone to the football match if I had known it was going to be so crowded.

1) I had no idea the play was going to be so boring.
2) I had no idea my friend was going to be angry.
3) I had no idea the exposé was going to be long.
4) I had no idea the test was going to be so difficult.
5) I had no idea the mother was going to hate her daughter.
6) I had no idea the text was going to be complicated.
7) I had no idea the world was going to be crual.
8) I had no idea my friend was going to deceive me.

Answer the following questions beginning with "stop joking, if I had".

e.g Did you **not** get a job ?
Stop joking. If I had get one, I would not be wondering in the street.

1. Did you win the lottery ?
2. Did you have a girlfriend ?
3. Did you get the maximum in the test ?

4. Did you have any friends ?
5. Did you buy new shoes ?
6. Did you win a scholarship ?
7. Did he love you ?
8. Did you prepare your lessons ?
9. Did he offer you a present ?
10; Did you get his letter ?

Refute the following statements starting with "you are telling lies".

e.g - He recognized you.
- You are telling lies. Would he have helped saying nothing if he had recognized me?

1° He died on his way back home.
2° He read your copy carefully.
3° She ran fast enough.
4° He thought carefully.
5° She knew the man's name.

d. Situational exercises (written).

1) If beginning tomorrow you had a two-week holiday and a great amount of money what would you do ? Why ?
2) If you had to teach your language to a person who knew nothing about your language at all, how would you begin. What would you do so that this person could learn your language as quickly as possible?
3) Suppose you had only one year to live. What could you do ?
4) If you were appointed headmaster of a school, how would you govern ? What would you do ? How would you feel ?
5) Describe your activities if you were in your village now. Describe your probable activities yesterday and tomorrow.

Include activities of your family and friends.

6) Enumerate all the activities you would have performed if today had been Sunday.

7) If you had not get the clause to carry on your studies, do you have an idea of what you could have become ?

(2) Make comments to the following people using :

I would not have ... if I had been you.

e.g A friend who failed an exam because he wasted his time

I would not have wasted so much time if I had been you.

1. A person who paid fifty thousand for a piece of land that was only really worth ten thousand.
2. A friend who went on a five week vacation but who spent all his money in the first week.
3. A man who has no money because he has drunk it all the previous day.
4. A man who is tired in the morning because he stayed up too late last night.
5. A friend who had a wedding in a red dress and not in a white one.
6. Astudent who was failed by his teacher because he insulted him.
7. A child who hurt himself because he was playing with a knife.
8. A teacher who was dismissed from his job because he was always absent.
9. A friend who was arrested by the policeman because he forgot his identity card home.

4. "If" and "unless" exercises.

a. Supply "if" or "unless" in the following sentences, noticing carefully the tense sequences.

1. He would come ——— you rang.
2. I would never take a dagger with me ——— I walked.
3. ——— my watch had not been slow, I should not have been late.

4. I am sorry ——— I shocked you.
5. He will not learn much ——— he works harder.
6. I cannot help you ——— you pay me.
7. He could never have achieved that ——— his wife had intervened in a way.
8. I shall not write to him ——— he writes to me.
9. ——— he wrote to me, I should write to him.
10. He would not have waited ——— you had been late.

b. Replace "if not" by "unless" and make any other necessary change

A. Come tomorrow if I do not phone.

B. Come tomorrow unless I phone.

1. I will be back tomorrow if I do not miss the bus.
2. Let's spend the evening together if you are not booked up.
3. I will go to the bar this evening if I have not any preparation.
4. We will pick you up tomorrow if you do not leave early.
5. He will throw you out if you do not shut up.
6. She will not leave you if you do not leave her.
7. The child will not hate you if you do not scold at him.
8. They will not find the answer quickly if they do not complicate things.
9. She is going to teach at the Lycée if the schedule does not change.
10. I will not give it to you if you do not ask for it.

c. Read the following paragraph as model. Write a short text similar to it in which "unless" is used at least four times.

I will not go to the party, unless the family invites me. But I am afraid they will not call me unless the music is good. I am sure it is good unless they changed the supplier. In any case I will not spend the night in my room unless my sweetheart is sick. Otherwise, we will run over the city, go from one night club to another until we find one which has

interesting records. Once we get there, we will not go back home unless they close.

d. Complete the following sentences.

1° Do not give him anything unless .....
2° Crops will not grow unless .....
3° The food will get cold unless .....
4° I cannot wake at six o'clock unless .....
5° He will not come unless .....
6° He would not have listened to me unless .....
7° I shall not pay you unless .....
8° Unless someone tells me the way .....
9° Unless you go to France .....
10° He will not tell you anything else unless ...
11° We will not forget what we have learned unless .....

C O N C L U S I O N.

This work, as one may have noticed it, has two aims. The first is to give a structural description of English conditionals. This analysis is meant to provide, whoever is interested in conditionals, with enough information about their structure. Five aspects were taken into account. Definitions, classification, typology, overlaps, and position and punctuation in conditionals. Some problems welled up during the analysis. Judging them as a serious handicap in the teaching/learning of conditionals, an idea came into the mind. Those problems might be ranged in a hierarchical order, that is, from less serious to more complex, and constitute a transitional chapter between the description and practice.

It is a moot point to speak of less serious problem as far as conditionals are concerned. Nevertheless, there would be no harm to raise some. Terminology problems are not as serious as tense sequence complications. Tense combinations are the "raison d'être" of conditionals. Therefore, a teacher can by no means ignore them. However, it is possible not to introduce any terminology when teaching conditionals.
i.e Knowing that one is practising likely, unlikely or impossible conditionals does not help to understand the process. Only patterns are important in this case.

It is the same case with typologies. Do we have to know the types of conditionals in order to practice them ? The answer to this question would be no. Another problem which seems to be as serious as the tense sequence problem is the semantic one. Nobody can practice a structure when he is incapable to understand it. Here is the order in which the problems appear :

1) terminology problems

2) typology problems

3) semantic problems

4) syntactic problems.

However this hierarchy, it is to be recognized that one problem involves another. The sole solution would be /to avoid them as much as possible.

The second aim of our work is fulfilled in the last two chapters. We attempted to teach conditionals in Burundi secondary schools. To achieve our objectives, we set that part into two further sections : a theorical section and a practical one both of which were supported by investigations we made in both secondary schools and the B. E. P. E. S.

The theoretical part consisted in teaching conditionals. This was based on the problems we noticed in the compositions that students wrote using conditionals in the Test National, session 1984-1985, on one hand, and on general problems encountered in the teaching/ learning structures, on the other.

The design of a grammar lesson as proposed by Christina Bratt and Mary Newton Bruder (op. cit. : 33) inspired us very much.

From theory we moved to practice. We gave a demonstration lesson at the lycée of Vugizo, 3ème Scientifique, in order to check the effectiveness of our methodology. It was successful to the extent that the majority of the class understood the lesson in spite of its length. We closed this part by a suggestion of a set of varied drills. Those drills, we hoped, would help both the teacher and the students consolidate the structures pleasurably.

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A P P E N D I X.

Key to exercises.

Mechanical drills.

(d) 1. had 2. did 3. were not 4. had 5. had not
6. could 7. did not have to 8. were 9. had not
10. might.

(e) 1. will 2. drink 3. could 4. fell 5. were 6. will
7. will 9. broke 10. will 11. have 12. am 13. were
14. does 15. saw 16. will 17. see 18. died 19. would
20. worked.

(f) 1. rains 2. comes/came ; will be/will have been. 3. would not laugh 4. would not feel 5. would have been 6. would have asked 7. will report 8. would not have seen. 9. were 10. would do 11. had not raped 12. asked 13. wil cry 14. does not arrive 15. were.

(g) 1.c has understood E. understands
2.D. had avoided
3.E. lend
4.E. hate
5.D. had spoken
5'.C. had disturbed, A. disturbed
6.A. were
7.B. were listening, A. listened
8.E. spend
9.D. had had
10.A. were.

(h) 1. If he had a car he would not take the bus every morning.

2. If they had not eaten out-of-date product, they would not have been sick.

3. We will go out if it is nice this afternoon.

4. If the man had not looked so poor, they would not have given him any money.

5. If he had not so much to do, he would not work late every night.

6. He could not have taken drugs if he had not any serious problems.

7. He would not make a lot of mistakes if he worked carefully.

8. If we had had time, we would have gone to town.

9. If she did not believe sports can diminish her, she would not run everyday.

10. Her boss will be angry if she is late tomorrow.

"If" and "unless" exercises.

(a) 1. if 2. unless 3. if 4. if 5. unless 6. unless
7. unless, if 8. unless 9. if 10. if.

(b) 1. I will be back tomorrow unless I miss the bus.

2. Let's spend the evening together unless you are booked up.

3. I will go to the bar this evening unless I have some preparation.

4. He will pick you up tomorrow unless you leave early.

5. He will throw you out unless you shut up.

6. She will not leave you unless you leave her.

7. The child will not hate you unless you scold at him.

8. They will find the answer quickly unless they complicate things.

9. She is going to teach at the lycée unless the schedule changes

10. I will not give it to you unless you ask for it.

(f). 2) - I do not know if he came, but if yes, he will have been late.

- I do not know if he comes, but if yes, he will be late.

(g). 5. - I really apologize if I disturbed you.

I really apologize if I have disturbed you.

7. - If you listened carefully, you heard what I was saying.

- If you were listening carefully, you heard what I was saying.

(4)a. 7.- He could never have achieved that if his wife had not intervened.

- He could never have achieved that unless his wife had intervened.

With each of the above numbers we have two possibilities depending upon which angle of vision the speaker considers.

In f for example, the first possibility places the event in the past and becomes true if the speaker was absent when the person came.

The second solution, on the other hand, places the action in the future and presents us an optimistic speaker who still hopes that the visitor will come later.

In g again, the intervention of the speaker can be true if we understand that the action of disturbing has happened some time in the past and that the speaker apologizes in the present. Then a past event is evoked. The second possibility remains true if we reason that the apology and the action of the disturbance take place in the present time. But, the action of disturbing has taken time earlier before, but the same way.

In 7 the problem is due to a simple yet intellectual dilemma : the first answer matches "listened" to "heard" and the

second matches "were listening" to "was saying" and both are true.

With the last case 4. (a) 7 we would simply advise that "unless" is not a best-indicated expression for negative impossible conditions.