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*A functional-pragmatic
approach to if/si-
constructions in English,
French and Spanish: A
corpus-based study*

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TESIS DE DOCTORADO

**A FUNCTIONAL-PRAGMATIC
APPROACH TO *IF/SI*-
CONSTRUCTIONS IN ENGLISH,
FRENCH AND SPANISH:
A CORPUS-BASED STUDY**

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A functional-pragmatic approach to *if/si*-constructions in
English, French and Spanish: A corpus-based study

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A functional-pragmatic approach to *if/si*-constructions in
English, French and Spanish: A corpus-based study

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation explores *if/si*-constructions in English, French and Spanish, from a functional-pragmatic and corpus-based perspective. The analysis comprises, on the one hand, conditional constructions, including prototypical cause-consequence patterns (e.g. *If it's a really nice day, we could walk*), and also other conditionals in which the conditional meaning is weaker (e.g. *So there's two different patches there, if you see what I mean*). On the other hand, the analysis encompasses cases of insubordination (Evans, 2007), introduced by *if* and *si* (e.g. *If you'll just come next door*). The examination of both types of constructions in parallel aims to offer new light on the characterization of *if/si*-constructions and their uses and functions in interaction. The theoretical framework adopted to explore the functional-pragmatic properties of these constructions is based on the three metafunctions distinguished in Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014), allowing us to distinguish *if/si*-constructions at the ideational, interpersonal and textual levels.

Conditionals are examined in two different spoken registers: parliamentary discourse and conversation. Insubordinate clauses, in turn, are analysed in conversations exclusively, since prior research has shown that this is the register in which they typically occur (Kaltenböck, 2016; Lastres-López, 2018b). Data for parliamentary discourse are extracted from three different corpora: for English, I employ the Hansard Corpus of the British parliament; for French, I use the French component of the Hansard Corpus of the Canadian parliament; and for Spanish, in the absence of a Hansard component in this language, I resort to the *Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados*, the official record for Spanish parliamentary sessions. The conversation data are retrieved from the conversation components of reference corpora in the three languages. For English, I resort to the British component of the *International Corpus of English* (ICE-GB), and for French

and Spanish I employ a contrastive corpus, the *Integrated Reference Corpora for Spoken Romance Languages* (C-ORAL-ROM).

The results from the corpus-based analysis reveal significant differences in the use of conditionals according to register. Parliamentary discourse clearly favours ideational conditionals whereas conversation displays similar frequencies of ideational and interpersonal conditionals overall. The analysis of interpersonal conditionals in conversation allows us to distinguish a fine-grained range of six subtypes: epistemic, opinion/evaluation, politeness, metalinguistic, relevance and reservation conditionals. These interpersonal conditionals are also analysed depending on whether stance or engagement (Hyland, 2005) prevails in the construction, revealing a general preference for stance but also dominance of engagement in certain specific subfunctions. On the other hand, in subordinate clauses fulfil interpersonal functions in discourse (Van linden & Van de Velde, 2014), thus sharing an important similarity with interpersonal conditionals. The corpus findings suggest a path of pragmaticalization for *if/si*-constructions, from ideational conditionals into interpersonal and textual conditionals and, as the ultimate stage in the pragmaticalization cline, subordinate clauses and pragmatic markers. This pragmaticalization of certain conditional constructions correlates with desemantization, since the more pragmaticalized types show a weaker conditional meaning. In addition, pragmaticalized *if/si*-constructions also exhibit decategorialization, since they lack some of the morphosyntactic features typically associated with conditionals, such as the presence of a modal verb in the apodosis, variation in terms of the degree of likelihood of the condition, and protasis-apodosis order. The specialization of marked apodoses to occur only in epistemic conditionals in English and French is also interpreted as a sign of decategorialization.

Keywords: corpus linguistics; contrastive linguistics; conditional; insubordination; ideational; interpersonal; textual; stance; engagement; pragmaticalization; decategorialization

To my mother,
whose love has no 'ifs'





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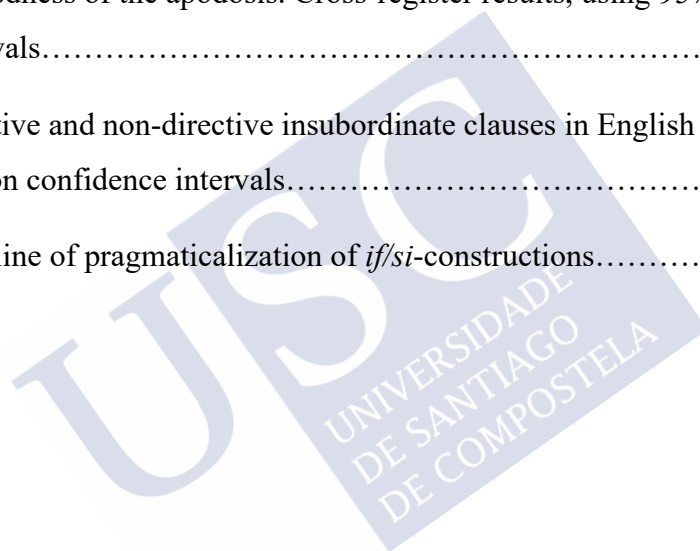
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation explores constructions introduced by *if* in English and their equivalents introduced by *si*, in French and Spanish, based on empirical data retrieved from spoken discourse. The constructions selected for analysis primarily express conditional meaning, as in (1) to (3) below.

(1) So if I get the job I'll rent for a while until the house prices pick up (ICE-GB:S1A-019 #277:1:C)

(2) Si un jour on s'en sent pas capable / on l'ouvre pas hein / le magasin (C-ORAL-ROM, ffamd1102)¹

'If one day we don't feel capable, we don't open it, the shop'

(3) Si no me gustan / las vendo (C-ORAL-ROM efamd102)

'If I don't like them, I sell them'

The various kinds of discourse relations holding between adverbial clauses have attracted much scholarly attention over the years (Thompson & Longacre, 1985; Biber & Finegan, 1988; Sanders et al., 1992; Ford, 1993; Lascarides & Asher, 1993; van der Auwera, 1998; Verstraete, 2007; Conrad & Biber, 2000; Couper-Kuhlen & Kortmann, 2000; Lewis, 2000; Hasselgård, 2010; Haegeman, 2010, 2012; Kortmann, 2012; Ehmer & Barth-Weingarten, 2016); and conditionality, in particular, has been the object of many different studies carried out from different theoretical perspectives, as we will see in

¹ In the conversation corpora employed here, pauses are indicated as <> (short pause) and <,> (long pause) in ICE-GB and as / (short pause) and // (long pause) in C-ORAL-ROM.

Chapter 2. The extensive research to date on conditional constructions follows from the fact that these structures represent, in Dancygier's (1998: 2) words, "an area of language use where the interaction of form, meaning, and context is exceptionally complex and fascinating". Indeed, it should also be noted that many constructions exhibiting the formal markers of conditionality – as can be the presence of the conjunctions *if* or *si* – "are semantically and pragmatically only marginally conditional or not conditional at all" (Traugott et al., 1986: 1). This is why the approach presented here proceeds from form to function rather than vice versa. The primary aim, therefore, is not to encompass all the conjunctions which can express conditionality or all the different syntactic constructions which can encode this meaning. But rather, the objective of this dissertation is to delve into the multiple functions that can be expressed in discourse by the prototypical conditional conjunction in the three languages under analysis: *if* in English and *si* in French and Spanish.²

There are cases, however, where the conjunctions above-mentioned are not used adverbially. Although adverbial constructions constitute the vast majority of all *if/si*-constructions, *if* and *si* can also serve as markers of other constructions, such as indirect interrogative complement clauses (Suñer, 1999; Lastres-López, 2018a), as illustrated in (4) to (6). These usages fall beyond the scope of this dissertation and have therefore been excluded from consideration here.³

(4) I don't know if they are any good though (ICE-GB:S1B-005 #173:1:A)

(5) Je sais pas si j'ai économisé de l'argent (C-ORAL-ROM ffamd101)

'I don't know if I've saved up money'

(6) No sé si te gustará / esto (C-ORAL-ROM efamcv13)

² The analysis is restricted to the prototypical markers of conditionality given that prior research has shown that these markers are quantitatively dominant. See, for example, Gabrielatos (2010), where he examines data from the BNC in English; Puente-Castelo (2017a), on conditionals in Early Modern English; or Lastres-López (2019), where I examine data from spoken courtroom discourse in English, French and Spanish, showing that *if* and *si* are the preferred markers in the three languages.

³ See Lastres-López (2018a) for an analysis on the factors involved in the variation between *if* and *whether*-complement clauses, and Lastres-López (forthcoming), for an English-Spanish contrastive study of these constructions.

‘I don’t know if you will like this’

This means that we will be concerned only with cases of *if* and *si* in which these conjunctions appear in conditional constructions or in in subordinate clauses. Conditionals range from constructions which display a clear cause-consequence pattern, as in (1) to (3) above, to others where the conditional meaning is much more subtle, as in (7). In subordinate clauses (Evans, 2007), in turn, are constructions fully complete in meaning in which the *if/si*-clause appears in isolation in discourse, without the presence of an accompanying matrix clause, as in (8), and has lost, arguably, most or all of its conditional nuances, as will be discussed in Chapter 2 below.

(7) Oh those are the uhm those are Alastair Black’s if you’re interested (ICE-GB: S1A-070#127:1:A)

(8) If you’ll just come next door (ICE-GB:S1A-089 #159:2:A)

In terms of framework and methodology, in order to understand the uses and functions of the above-mentioned constructions in real interaction, this dissertation combines a functional-pragmatic approach with a contrastive and corpus-based perspective. The rationale behind the adoption of these combined approaches is, first, that studies exploring conditionality from a functional-pragmatic perspective have been much less numerous by comparison with the huge amount of research devoted to the topic from an exclusively formal and non-empirical perspective. Second, only a few studies have discussed conditional constructions in more than one language, with cross-linguistic analyses being notably scarce. In particular, to date there is not any study that has examined conditionals in English, French and Spanish, the three languages selected here. Third, despite the large amount of research on conditionals, quantitative, corpus-based studies have been comparatively scarce, as noted by Gabrielatos (2010: 10-11). Therefore, by combining the three aforementioned approaches and examining cases of both conditional subordination and in subordination in parallel, this dissertation will attempt to fill various gaps still existing in the field, and thereby gain a better understanding of *if/si*-constructions across languages.

As noted at the beginning, the study focuses solely on spoken discourse, and does so for two reasons. First, because there exists an imbalance between the attention devoted to written versus spoken language, with the majority of research on conditionals favouring the former mode of communication. Second, because of the difficulty to find fully comparable written corpora in the three languages under examination. Out of the range of registers in spoken discourse, *if/si*-constructions are explored in two very different ones: on the one hand, parliamentary discourse; on the other, conversations. Thus, this dissertation will offer not only a cross-linguistic perspective, but also a cross-register one.

1.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The in-depth account of *if/si*-constructions in English, French and Spanish that will be presented in the remainder of this PhD thesis starts from the hypothesis that conditional constructions can serve to encode a wide range of functions in interaction, in addition to conveying conditional meaning proper. In particular, we will attempt to provide answers to the following research questions:

- (i) Which discourse-pragmatic functions do *if/si*-constructions express in spoken discourse? Do certain utterances introduced by *if* and *si* go beyond conditionality to also express other functions in interaction?
- (ii) Are there cross-linguistic (English-French-Spanish) and/or cross-register differences (parliamentary discourse versus conversations) in the discourse-pragmatic functions of *if/si*-constructions?
- (iii) Are there morphosyntactic features that correlate with specific discourse-pragmatic functions?
- (iv) Can we establish a cline of prototypicality for the expression of conditionality?

1.2 OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

This thesis is structured into six chapters. After this introduction (Chapter 1), Chapter 2 reviews *if*-constructions in English and their equivalents – *si*-constructions – in French and Spanish, and offers an overview of earlier research on conditionals and on

insubordination. Also in Chapter 2 the functional-pragmatic approach proposed to study these constructions is presented, along the lines of Halliday and Matthiessen (2014). Chapter 3 is concerned with the methodology and the corpora employed, including a description of the method of data selection and retrieval. Chapter 4 comprises three case studies: Section 4.1 consists of two case studies on subordinate *if/si*-constructions, namely: conditionals in parliamentary discourse (Section 4.1.1) and conditionals in conversation (Section 4.1.2); in turn, Section 4.2 presents a third case study on insubordinate clauses introduced by *if* and *si*. Chapter 5 reviews the findings obtained and summarises the conclusions to be drawn from the study in relation to the research questions outlined above. Finally, Chapter 6 offers some suggestions for further research.





CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter provides an overview of prior studies on *if/si*-constructions, considering research on conditional constructions in Section 2.1.1; and prior accounts of insubordination introduced by the same conjunctions in Section 2.1.2. After the literature review presented in Section 2.1, a framework is proposed in Section 2.2 for the analysis of conditional constructions, along the lines of the three metafunctions distinguished in Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014).

2.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.1 Prior research on conditional constructions

In this section, I provide an overview of previous research on conditionals. In Section 2.1.1.1 I first examine classical accounts of conditional constructions. Out of the vast literature existing on the topic, I focus on earlier studies that have placed the emphasis on the different degrees of probability or likelihood that these constructions may express, and consider as well their treatment in major reference grammars in the three languages examined. I then move on to provide an account of earlier studies on conditional constructions from the three perspectives that are combined in this dissertation: a functional-pragmatic perspective (in Section 2.1.1.2), a contrastive perspective (in Section 2.1.1.3) and a corpus-based perspective (in Section 2.1.1.4).

2.1.1.1 Classical approaches to conditionals

Conditionals have long attracted scholarly attention from various disciplines, ranging from philosophers, who have focused on these constructions as a manifestation of logical

thinking, to linguists interested in disentangling the complexity of these constructions; for, as Dancygier and Sweetser (2005: 4) noted, “there is something about *if* which engages the curiosity of the analyst”.

Conditionals are usually classified in grammars as a subtype of adverbial clause⁴ (Quirk et al., 1985: 1068-1073; Biber et al., 1999: 762-770; Real Academia Española, 2009: 3529-3530; Grevisse & Goosse, 2016: 1602). Conditional constructions, as in (9), are formed by two clauses:⁵ the protasis, highlighted in the example below; and the apodosis, in italics.

(9) **If the weather is good**, *(then) we will have a barbecue* (Quirk et al., 1985: 1088)

These constructions denote a relation of contingency between the protasis and the apodosis, in which “the truth of the proposition in the matrix clause is a consequence of the fulfilment of the condition in the conditional clause” (Quirk et al., 1985: 1088). Comrie (1986: 78) argues that “[i]n logic, conditionals [...] are defined as a relation between two propositions, the protasis (*p*) and the apodosis (*q*), such that either *p* and *q* are both true, or *p* is false and *q* is true, or *p* is false and *q* is false; excluded is the possibility of *p* being true while *q* is false”. This generalisation would allow totally unrelated propositions to appear as the protasis and apodosis in a conditional construction, as in (10) below. However, in real language, it has been argued (Comrie, 1986: 80; Sweetser, 1990: 113) that speakers require more than the appropriate truth values, they require a causal link, that is, “the content of the protasis must be interpretable as a cause of the content of the apodosis” (Comrie, 1986: 80). Thus, the example illustrated in (10) below, despite being well-formed, is seen as bizarre due to the lack of a causal relation between the protasis and the apodosis.

(10) If Paris is the capital of France, two is an even number. (Comrie, 1986: 80)

⁴ These clauses are also known as *circunstanciales* in most French grammars (Arrivé et al., 1986: 112; Riegel et al., 1994: 843; Wilmet, 2003: 609).

⁵ Note that clauses in conditional and concessive constructions in Spanish are frequently referred to as *periodos* (Real Academia Española, 2009: 3527-3528).

Focusing on these causal relations, conditional constructions have been traditionally classified in linguistics in terms of the likelihood of the condition being realised: from conditions which could likely be fulfilled to others which are impossible. As such, many different typologies have proliferated over the years. English grammars have frequently opted for bipartite taxonomies, distinguishing two degrees of probability. In contrast, French and Spanish grammars, as well as many specific studies on conditionals in English, have shown a preference for tripartite classifications. A summary of the different labels proposed in these typologies is provided in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Summary of terminological labels proposed by different authors according to the degree of probability of the condition

Degree of probability	+..... -		
Leech & Svartvik (1975)	<i>Open condition</i>	<i>Hypothetical condition</i>	
Comrie (1986) ⁶	<i>Lower hypotheticality</i>	<i>Higher hypotheticality</i>	
Huddleston (1984); Palmer (1986); Biber et al. (1999)	<i>Real condition</i>	<i>Unreal condition</i>	
Huddleston & Pullum et al. (2002)	<i>Open condition</i>	<i>Remote condition</i>	
Harris (1986a, 1986b)	<i>Real condition</i>	<i>Potential condition</i>	<i>Unreal condition</i>
Athanasiadou & Dirven (1997)	<i>Course of events conditional</i>	<i>Hypothetical conditional</i>	<i>Counterfactual conditional</i>
Wierzbicka (1997)	<i>Conditional</i>	<i>Hypothetical</i>	<i>Counterfactual</i>
Arrivé et al. (1986)	<i>Condition potentielle</i> (‘Potential condition’)	<i>Condition irréelle du présent</i> (‘Unreal condition of the present’)	<i>Condition irréelle du passé</i> (‘Unreal condition of the past’)
Montolío Durán (1999a)	<i>Condición real</i> (‘Real condition’)	<i>Condición potencial</i> (‘Potential condition’)	<i>Condición irreal</i> (‘Unreal condition’)
Real Academia Española (2009)	<i>Condición real</i> (‘Real condition’)	<i>Condición potencial</i> (‘Potential condition’)	<i>Condición irreal</i> (‘Unreal condition’)

⁶ Comrie distinguishes between lower and higher hypotheticality but it should be noted that he argues against clear boundaries between the different types of conditionals: “[t]he view that I wish to expound [...] is that, in fact, hypotheticality is a continuum, with (perhaps) no clear-cut divisions” (Comrie, 1986: 88).

The focus of these typologies revolves around the notion of hypotheticality, aiming to explain differences in truth-conditions. Conditional constructions can denote conditions that show very different degrees of hypotheticality, ranging from conditions which can be fulfilled to others which are impossible. Adopting Harris's (1986a, 1986b) terminology, we can distinguish between *real conditions*, referring to those in which the speaker does not express an opinion about the likelihood of the state of affairs expressed in the apodosis being fulfilled; *potential conditions*, being those in which the state of affairs is only hypothetically possible; and *unreal conditions*, in which the state of affairs mentioned in the apodosis refers to a past time and is therefore impossible to be changed. Examples of these three types are illustrated in (11) to (13), respectively.

(11) So if I **get** the job I'll **rent** for a while until the house prices pick up (ICE-GB:S1A-019 #277:1:C)

(12) If you **rang** her now she'd **say** yes Louis (ICE-GB:S1A-020 #138:1:B)

(13) If he **had been** a buyer I **would have sent** him a contract for buying (ICE-GB:S1B-064 #128:1:B)

As can be inferred from examples (11) to (13) above, the typologies presented in Table 1 also have to do with the tenses (and mood too in some languages) in the protasis and the apodosis (Palmer, 1986: 207). Thus, each type of conditional usually correlates with a certain tense pattern (Declerck & Reed, 2001: 231). The present tense in the protasis is usually employed for real conditions, those which are more likely to happen, as in (11); the past simple tense is used for those conditions which are more hypothetical and, therefore, less likely to occur, as in (12); and the past perfect is employed in those conditions which express an unreal or counterfactual event, since the action refers to a past time situation which cannot be changed, as in (13).⁷

⁷ These are only the most canonical tense patterns, with a much more complex tense picture being possible. See Declerck and Reed (2001) for an exhaustive analysis of the multiple tense patterns than can occur in conditional constructions and the fine-grained distinctions they can express.

Although the classifications provided in Table 1 focus on a central question within conditionality, the notion of hypotheticality, such classifications do not address the different uses and discourse-pragmatic functions that conditional constructions may express. As Traugott et al. (1986: 1) noted, “some sentences with the formal markers of conditionality are semantically and pragmatically only marginally conditional or not conditional at all”. Delving into the discourse-pragmatic complexity of conditionals, other authors have proposed different taxonomies to classify conditionals depending on the different functions they may fulfil in discourse. In their grammar, Quirk et al. (1985: 1088-1089) argue for an important first distinction between *direct* and *indirect conditions*, a difference which is also present in Spanish grammars but has been disregarded in French grammars. For Spanish, Montolío Durán (1999a: 3683-3684) distinguishes indirect conditionals as a “peripheral” use of conditionals. Likewise, the grammar from the Real Academia Española (2009: 3550-3551) makes a distinction between *condicionales del enunciado* and *condicionales de la enunciación*, which would be equivalent to the direct and indirect types proposed by Quirk et al. (1985).

In Quirk et al. (1985), direct conditions would refer to those patterns of conditionality in discourse that most scholars would agree to consider as prototypical of that semantic relation, that is, patterns where the protasis indicates the cause and the apodosis the consequence or effect, as in (11) to (13). In contrast, indirect conditions,⁸ as in (14) below, would be those in which the condition is related to the “implicit speech act of the utterance” (Quirk et al., 1985: 1089), rather than to the propositional content of the matrix clause. Direct conditions would function as adjuncts, denoting circumstances (in this case conditional circumstances) of the situation in the matrix clause; whereas indirect conditions would function as disjuncts, commenting on the style or form of what has been said in the matrix clause or referring to the circumstances of the speech act (Quirk et al., 1985: 1070-1073).⁹

⁸ Quirk et al. (1985: 1095-1096) further distinguish four uses within indirect conditions: politeness, metalinguistic, uncertainty and condition.

⁹ I employ the terms *adjunct* and *disjunct* here following the terminology proposed by Quirk et al. (1985). Other grammars employ the terms *circumstantial adjunct* and *stance adjunct*, respectively, for such functions (Biber et al., 1999).

(14) We can do with some more butter, if you're in the kitchen (Quirk et al., 1985: 1072)

In the following subsections, I outline previous research that has focused on each of the approaches that I combine in this dissertation: a functional-pragmatic perspective (subsection 2.1.1.2), a contrastive perspective (subsection 2.1.1.3), and a corpus-based perspective (subsection 2.1.1.4).

2.1.1.2 Research on conditionals from a functional-pragmatic perspective

Davies (1979) is one of the first studies that deals with conditionals from a functional perspective. Rooted in the Systemic Functional Linguistics tradition, Davies (1979: 146) distinguishes four types of conditionals: telling, decision, knowledge and performance. The first category – telling conditionals – refers to instances of conditionals that resemble the classic example discussed by Austin (1961), illustrated in (15), later usually known, after Austin's example, as *biscuit conditionals* (De Rose & Grandy, 1999; Siegel, 2006; Predelli, 2009; Corminboeuf, 2010; Elder, 2019). As Davies (1979: 146) states, what is distinct in this type of conditional is that “knowledge of what is presented with derived telling in the *if* clause is given as the reason for the full telling [...] of the main clause”.

(15) There are biscuits on the sideboard if you want them (Austin, 1961: 210).

Under the label decision conditionals, Davies (1979) includes cases similar to prototypical conditionals, but which display a decision in the main clause, as in (16). In contrast, knowledge conditionals refer to those constructions which contain a deduction in the main clause, as in (17). Finally, performance conditionals are cases of prototypical conditions which present a cause-consequence relation between the protasis and the apodosis, as in (18).

(16) If John comes, phone Mary (Davies, 1979: 148)

(17) If he's a local man, he must know about the old mine workings (Davies, 1979: 162)

(18) If the weather's wet, the roads will be treacherous (Davies, 1979: 152)

Also from a functional-pragmatic perspective, Ford and Thompson (1986) examine the discourse functions of conditional constructions in the light of corpora of written and spoken English (see, however, Section 2.1.1.4 on the problems of representability of the corpora selected). Their quantitative findings unveil interesting results about the uses of conditional constructions. First, there are differences of occurrence between speech and writing, showing that conditionals are more frequent in spoken discourse, a finding which has been confirmed by the later analysis, based on a larger corpus, in Biber et al. (1999: 821). A second important finding is that, in both speech and in writing, the initial position for the protasis in the conditional construction is quantitatively dominant, in line with the language universal principle that initial position for the protasis is the most frequent across the languages of the world (Greenberg, 1963). For *if*-clauses occurring in initial position, Ford and Thompson (1986) identify four functions which apply in both speech and writing: assuming, contrasting, expressing particular cases and exploring options; plus a fifth function, an interpersonal use as polite requests, only attested in spoken language. In contrast, when conditionals contain the protasis in final position, Ford and Thompson (1986: 370) argue, the constructions do “not display as clear a connection with preceding and subsequent discourse as does an initial *if*-clause”. In a later study, Ford (1997) expands on the study on conditionals initiated in Ford and Thompson (1986) and provides, in this case, an exploration of conditionals in informal conversation, as opposed to the formal conversations analysed earlier. The results show that *if*-clauses, due to their capacity to express hypotheticality, present content as provisional and thus play an important role serving politeness functions and encoding information in a hedged way (Ford, 1997: 389). This politeness and mitigating function of conditionals has also been pointed out with respect to Spanish (Chodorowska-Pilch, 1999, 2017) and French (Beeching, 2007; Schnedecker, 2016; Ciry, 2017).

From a cognitive – but to some extent also pragmatic – perspective, the work of Dancygier and Sweetser with respect to conditionals (see, for example, Sweetser, 1990; Dancygier, 1993, 1998; Dancygier and Sweetser, 2000, 2005; among others) has been especially relevant and has influenced many subsequent studies on the topic. Framed within Mental Spaces Theory (Fauconnier, 1985), Dancygier and Sweetser's research

over the years aims to ascribe to different cognitive domains different reasoning patterns conveyed through conditionals. One of the core ideas in their research first appears in Sweetser (1990), who distinguishes three types of conditionals: content, epistemic and speech act conditionals.¹⁰ Content conditionals would correspond to prototypical cause-consequence patterns, along the lines of Quirk et al.'s (1985) direct conditions. Epistemic conditionals, earlier described as knowledge conditionals in Davies (1979: 162-169), are largely related to the cognitive and logic domains, in that they allow a conclusion to be drawn from the protasis. Sweetser (1990: 121) claims that they can be paraphrased by “If *I know* [protasis], then *I conclude* [apodosis]”, as in example (19) below. The last category, speech act conditionals (earlier discussed by Van der Auwera, 1986), encompasses those conditionals related to the speech act of the utterance, which can be paraphrased by “If [protasis], then let us consider that I perform this speech act (i.e., the one represented as the apodosis)” (Sweetser 1990: 121), hence the terms indirect (Quirk et al., 1985: 1089) or pragmatic (Athanasiadou & Dirven, 1997), suggested by other scholars to refer to this kind of constructions. An illustration of a speech act conditional is provided in (20).

(19) If John went to that party, (then) he was trying to infuriate Miriam (Sweetser, 1990: 116)

(20) If I may say so, that's a crazy idea (Sweetser, 1990: 118)

Especially relevant for this dissertation is also the work of Brinton (2008, 2014a, 2017, 2019) with respect to conditionals, carried out from the perspective of historical pragmatics. In line with her work on comment clauses (Brinton, 2008), Brinton discusses certain types of conditionals which may fall into this category. Following Quirk et al. (1985: 1114), Brinton (2008: 4) defines comment clauses as “parenthetical disjuncts that have clausal structure and comment on the clause to which they are attached”. As such, Brinton (2008) examines the development of *if you will* from Old English to the present day, indicating that it serves a metalinguistic function and that it undergoes

¹⁰ Following Dancygier (1998), in their 2005 monograph they also mention a minor type, conditionals which may set up a metalinguistic space (Dancygier & Sweetser, 2005: 18, 126). We stick here to the three main types they primarily discuss in their research.

deategorialization, that is, “it loses its clausal qualities (such as the ability to take complements, be modified by an adverbial, and so on) and functions as a disjunct adverbial, or comment clause” (Brinton, 2008: 179). She complements this study by exploring the diachrony of the metalinguistic and politeness functions of *if you choose/like/prefer/want/wish* (Brinton, 2014a). Later, in her monograph on the development of pragmatic markers in English (Brinton, 2017), she also discusses *if I may say so*, which serves a politeness function “by mitigating or lessening the attack on the hearer’s negative face evoked by the expression of an opinion or suggestion with which the hearer might not agree” (Brinton, 2017: 231) and by seeking the hearer’s permission. Her corpus findings show that *if I may say so* (and its variant with *might*) appear predominantly in medial or final position. She argues for the semantic development of this construction along the path of change proposed by Traugott and Dasher (2002: 40, 281) from content to procedural meaning and from nonsubjective (objective) > subjective > intersubjective meaning; she finds that the change from a content conditional to a pragmatic conditional is already attested in the first examples of the construction, which date from the sixteenth century (2017: 236, 239). Finally, Brinton (2019) explores diachronically the use and rise of *if you ask me* through time. She finds that *if you ask me* is used in 80% of the cases as an indirect condition, functioning as a politeness marker attached to a clause that indicates opinion or makes an evaluative comment. In line with her prior research, she traces a path of development similar to that of *if I may say so* (Brinton, 2017) and also finds a preference for the *if*-clause to occur in final position (Brinton, 2019: 194).

2.1.1.3 Research on conditionals from a contrastive perspective

Very few studies on conditional constructions have been carried out from a contrastive or cross-linguistic perspective. Exceptions to this are Dancygier (1985), an investigation of conditionals in English and Polish, a contrastive study later on complemented by Polańska (2006), on the same languages; Lavid (1998), with a focus on the position of conditionals in administrative language in English, Italian and German; Hobæk Haff

(2013), a study of counterfactual conditionals in French and Norwegian; and Hasselgård (2014), a contrastive analysis of conditionals in English and Norwegian.¹¹

Two studies which examine two of the languages considered in this dissertation are Carter-Thomas (2007), on English and French; and Banegas Saorin and Ciry (2017), on French and Spanish. Within the framework of languages for specific purposes, Carter-Thomas (2007) examines English and French conditionals in a self-constructed corpus of research articles on oncology, with the aim of describing disciplinary practice in the medical context. Her results show that *if*- and *si*-clauses overlap in frequency but not in function, with English showing a preference for what she calls factual functions (prototypical conditionals). For their part, Banegas Saorin and Ciry (2017) examine the French conditional clause *si vous voulez* (English *if you want*) and its degree of fixation with respect to its equivalent *si quieres* in Spanish. The authors conclude that French *si vous voulez* is more pragmaticalized than its Spanish equivalent, as evidenced by the fact that it is possible to translate the French construction into Spanish as *por así decirlo/por decirlo de alguna manera* (English *sort to say*) or as *bueno* (English *well*), something which is not possible when translating Spanish *si quieres* (Banegas Saorín & Ciry, 2017: 36, 47).

This brief overview of contrastive studies on conditionals has evidenced that this is a field still deserving much scholarly attention, both in terms of the languages selected, the types of conditionals analysed and the registers explored.

2.1.1.4 Research on conditionals from a corpus-based perspective

Despite the large body of research on conditionals generally, research adopting a corpus-based approach has been comparatively scarce, as acknowledged, for instance, by

¹¹ Contrastive studies on constructions which can broadly qualify as conditionals but fall beyond the scope of this dissertation include, among others: conditional-concessive constructions, which have received attention from a contrastive French-Swedish perspective (Mossberg, 2009; Svensson, 2012a, 2012b), from a German-Dutch perspective (König & van der Auwera, 1988) and from a typological perspective, covering 40 different European languages (Haspelmath & König, 1998); conditionals introduced by complex connectives (e.g., *in quanto*, *in so far as*), in English and Italian (Visconti, 1996, 2000); inversion conditionals, in English and German (Leuschner & Van den Nest, 2015; Leuschner, 2016).

Rowley-Jolivet and Carter-Thomas (2008: 40), who point out that “[a] major drawback [...] with many existing classifications [of conditionals] is that they are mainly based on decontextualised examples”.

A corpus-based analysis usually involves a quantitative approach to the data which offers frequency results, the use of a concordancer to facilitate the data retrieval process, an explanation of the method of data extraction etc. (see, for example, McEnery and Hardie, 2012, for a detailed explanation of corpus methodology). However, some studies which resort to corpus data do not offer a quantitative analysis. For instance, Elder and Jaszczolt’s (2016) analysis, which is based on ICE-GB – one of the corpora employed in this dissertation – offers qualitative results exclusively.¹²

Among those studies which have adhered to a quantitative, corpus-based methodology, a large majority have analysed very specific registers and/or have concentrated on earlier periods of the language. These include, Mazzi (2010, 2013), on legal discourse; Ferguson (2001), Carter-Thomas (2007), Rowley-Jolivet (2007), Carter-Thomas and Rowley-Jolivet (2008) and Rowley-Jolivet and Carter-Thomas (2008), on medical discourse; Warchal (2010) and Hasselgård (2016), on academic discourse; Fuster-Márquez and Gregori-Signes (2018), on hotel websites; Facchinetti (2001), on Modern English legal texts; Puente-Castelo (2016a, 2016b, 2017a, 2017b), on Late Modern English scientific texts; and Links (2019), on Old English and Early Modern English, among others.

From a more general perspective, some of the first studies on conditionals using corpus data are Ford and Thompson (1986) and Ford (1997). Ford and Thompson (1986) is indeed one of the very first that provides a quantitative analysis, examining 490 conditionals in written discourse and 406 in speech. Although this is indeed a large sample, it should be noted that the corpora employed are limited in scope and too heterogeneous: the written component is just formed by three books (a collection of essays, a technical book for auto mechanics and a personal narrative), and the spoken one contains three university lectures and a transcript of conversations from the USA Treasury Secretary. This excessive heterogeneity does not apply to the subsequent study by Ford

¹² For a comprehensive critical summary of the types of data employed in studies on conditionals, see Gabrielatos (2010: 10-13), where he distinguishes between corpus-based, data-informed and introspective data studies on conditionals.

(1997), but her dataset is much more reduced, limiting the analysis to 55 conditionals extracted from 13 American English conversations. The value of both of these studies is, nevertheless, unquestionable, both because they were the first analyses to rely on corpora to study conditionals and because of the valuable findings obtained therefrom.¹³

More recent corpus-based studies include Gabrielatos (2010, 2019), both based on data from the written component of the British National Corpus. The analysis comprises a total of 959 *if*-conditionals, together with other conditional constructions introduced by *unless*, *provided*, *assuming* etc. The aim of both studies is to explore conditionals with respect to modality, including modal verbs, mental state verbs (such as *think* or *believe*), modal adverbs (such as *possibly*), among other modal expressions, concluding that modality typically occurs with *if*-conditionals as compared to other types of conditionals and to non-conditional constructions generally.

2.1.2 Prior research on insubordination

This section provides an overview of prior research on insubordination. It is structured as follows: Section 2.1.2.1 characterises insubordination, following Evans (2007), and provides a summary of the treatment of these constructions in major grammars; Section 2.1.2.2 discusses the pathway of development of insubordinate clauses; finally, Section 2.1.2.3 discusses work on insubordination in the three languages examined here: English, French and Spanish.

2.1.2.1 Defining insubordination

So far, we have considered cases in which the construction introduced by *if* or *si* is formed by two clauses: the protasis (or subordinate clause) and the apodosis (or main clause). There are, however, other cases in which the *if*-clause stands in isolation, as in (21) to (23) below, with no matrix clause preceding or following the subordinate clause.

¹³ Ford (1997: 388) states very clearly that the originality of her contribution lies precisely in the use of corpora; in her own words: “In my approach, I place special value on the observation of natural use in order to expand the picture we have of these structures, a picture based largely on invented examples and grammaticality judgments”.

(21) If you could give me a couple of 39c stamps please (Evans, 2007: 380)

(22) Si on allait se promener? (Evans, 2007: 380)

‘What if we went for a walk?’¹⁴

(23) A: Ah, ¡mira qué chaqueta más chula! (Schwenter, 1999: 88)

‘Oh, look, what a cool jacket!’

B: Si es horrible

‘*If it’s horrible’¹⁵

Evans (2007) coined the term *insubordination* to refer to constructions such as the ones presented above. In his by now well-known paper ‘Insubordination and its uses’, he first attracted attention to this kind of structures and defined insubordination as “*the conventionalized main clause use of what, on prima facie grounds, appear to be formally subordinate clauses*” (Evans, 2007: 367; italics in the original). In other words, these constructions formally resemble a subordinate clause in that they are introduced by a subordinating conjunction – *if* or *si* in this case – but they are used in isolation in discourse, without the presence of a matrix clause. The meaning of insubordinate clauses is complete in the discourse situation and their independent use has conventionalized to the extent that they are understood as main clauses in themselves.

Evans (2007: 368) mentions a wide range of functions that can be fulfilled by insubordinate clauses, summarised as follows:

- (i) Various expressions of interpersonal coercion, including commands, but also permissives, abilitatives, threats and warnings.
- (ii) Modal framing of various types, including the unattributed evocation of quotation or belief, and other kinds of deontic and evidential use.

¹⁴ Translation from French to English by Evans.

¹⁵ No translation of *si* into *if* is possible here. As is conventional, here and hereafter, ungrammatical examples are preceded by an asterisk.

- (iii) Marking of various discourse contexts, such as negation, contrastive statements, and reiteration, all high in presuppositionality, through the adaptation of devices for expressing interclausal relations to the expression of discourse relations more generally.

Evans's account has been pioneering, serving to define the field of insubordination; yet references to insubordinate clauses, concealed under various other names, can be found in many earlier grammars, which usually present these structures as exceptions to the norm or as marginal cases. In the English scenario, Quirk et al. (1985: 841-842) refer to them as *irregular sentences*, and Huddleston and Pullum et al. (2002: 945) as a minor clause type, namely, *conditional fragments*. Biber et al. (1999) also treat these structures as a minor type, under the label *unembedded dependent clauses*, though they note their frequency in conversation (Biber et al., 1999: 223, 1043). In major French grammars, no single reference is made to these constructions. A mention in passing is found in the contrastive French-Spanish grammar authored by Alloa and Miranda de Torres (2005), where the authors classify as subordinate conditionals with unexpressed matrix clauses examples of what we would consider here illustrative cases of *si*-insubordination. The authors point out that in these cases *si* is accompanied by *seulement* in French and *tan siquiera* in Spanish (equivalent to English *if only*). In addition, they argue that the fact that the matrix clauses are unexpressed contributes to conveying nuances of meaning related to wishes and regrets, as shown in example (24), extracted from a fiction text example mentioned by Alloa and Miranda de Torres.

(24) Si seulement la pendue ne faisait pas montre d'une telle arrogance (Alloa & Miranda de Torres, 2005: 286)

'If only the hanged woman didn't show so much arrogance'

By comparison, in Spanish grammars insubordinate clauses have received more attention. Montolío Durán (1999a: 3681) refers to these constructions as *realizaciones independientes con si* (independent realizations with *si*) and indicates that they are typical of conversation. She also explains that these constructions move away from the expression of conditionality to fulfil other functions in discourse, where they have an

emphatic assertive value and serve as a complaint or rectification (Montolío Durán, 1999a: 3681-3682). Spanish grammars also frequently refer to these constructions as *condicionales suspendidas* (suspended conditionals) or *protasis suspendidas* (suspended protases) (Real Academia Española, 2009: 3547, 3549).

Following the publication of Evans (2007),¹⁶ there has been an increasing interest in the uses, function and development of insubordinate constructions, giving rise to different collective volumes on the topic such as *Insubordination* (Evans & Watanabe, 2016), or, more recently, *Insubordination: Theoretical and Empirical Issues* (Bejering et al., 2019). Apart from studies on insubordination in English, French and Spanish – which I will discuss in more detail in Section 2.1.2.3 – research on insubordination has also included a wide range of other languages, such as Dutch (Verstraete et al., 2012; Van linden & Van de Velde, 2014), Finnish (Laury, 2012) and Italian (Lombardi Vallauri, 2010, 2016); or has been examined from a contrastive perspective, such as English-German-Hungarian-Croatian (Brdar-Szabó, 2009); Swedish-Danish (D’Hertefelt & Verstraete, 2014); Finnish-Swedish (Lindström et al., 2016, 2019); Dutch-French (Jamoena, 2017), or taking into account a wide range of Germanic languages (Verstraete & D’Hertefelt, 2016; D’Hertefelt, 2018a, 2018b).

Although insubordination is the term typically preferred to refer to these constructions nowadays,¹⁷ the great number of recent studies on the topic has given rise to a variety of alternative names, among others: *isolated if-clauses* (Stirling, 1999; Mato-Míguez, 2014a, 2014b), *independent if-clauses* (Panther & Thornburg, 2003); *independent si-clauses* (Schwenter, 1996, 1999, 2016a, 2016b), *covert-Q conditionals* (Declerck & Reed, 2001), *stand-alone conditionals* (Brdar-Szabó, 2009), *free conditionals* (Lombardi Vallauri, 2010), *apodosis-less conditionals* (Puente-Castelo,

¹⁶ In addition, it should be noted that there are some studies that dealt with these constructions prior to Evans (2007), and independently from his framework. For instance, Ohori (1995) studies the independent use of some adverbial clauses in Japanese using the term *suspended clause constructions*. Likewise, studies on conditional constructions, such as Ford (1993) and Dancygier and Sweetser (2005), mention that conditionals can appear without apodoses. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the independent study of insubordination had largely been neglected prior to the publication of Evans’ study. In the case of Spanish, early research on the independent use of *si*-clauses has been relatively frequent, with studies such as Almela Pérez (1985), Schwenter (1996, 1999) and Montolío Durán (1999b).

¹⁷ As already mentioned, an exception to this is Spanish, with a preference for the term *suspensión*.

2017a) and *monoclauses* (Traugott, 2017). However, as is evident from these pages, the by now well-established label *insubordination* will be employed here throughout.

2.1.2.2 The development of insubordination

Evans (2007) argues for the development of insubordinate clauses via an intermediate ellipsis stage. His assumption was that insubordinate clauses derive from complex sentences involving a main and a subordinate clause; the former being absent in the new construction, and the latter having conventionalized to such an extent that it is understood as a new main clause. At that stage, the main clause is not considered to be elided, since it is no longer easily retrievable from the context, although the assumption is that it was so at a certain point in time. The pathway for the development of these constructions is presented in Table 2 below, which outlines the four-stage process that insubordinate clauses follow from subordination to independent insubordinate uses. Although clauses are properly considered insubordinate when they reach the constructionalisation stage mentioned by Evans, that is, when they have acquired the status of a new construction or form/meaning pair, some studies of *if*-insubordination (Mato-Míguez, 2014a) have considered as insubordinate those clauses at both stages 3 and 4, given that the boundaries between these steps are sometimes blurred.

Table 2. The diachronic pathway from subordination to insubordination (Evans, 2007: 370)

Subordination	Ellipsis	Conventionalized ellipsis	Reanalysis as main clause structure
(1) Subordinate Construction	(2) Ellipsis of the main clause	(3) Restriction of interpretation of ellipsed material	(4) Conventionalized main clause use of formally subordinate clause (Constructionalisation)

As has just been seen, following Evans (2007), it is generally assumed that insubordinate clauses derive from earlier complex sentences, and that the source constructions can be reconstructed. As regards insubordinate *if*-clauses in particular, as in

(21) above, it is possible that they can be traced back to at least two different sources: either a full conditional clause, as in (25a); or an indirect interrogative complement clause, as (25b).

(25a) If you could give me a couple of 39c stamps please [I would be grateful]

(25b) [I wonder] if you could give me a couple of 39c stamps please

Despite the fact that a full conditional origin is generally assumed, there seems to be insufficient diachronic evidence to claim this on solid grounds. Indeed, Evans (2007: 380, 390) mentions this with a note of caution, although he is inclined towards the conditional hypothesis, as in (25a), since he argues that it is not possible to find parallel examples with insubordinate *whether*. However, the exact origin of these constructions remains unclear to date (Cristofaro, 2016; Evans & Watanabe, 2016a; Heine et al., 2016).

Evans's (2007) model for the development of insubordination via ellipsis has been challenged in recent years and has met with criticism, since this pathway of development, and its intervening stages, cannot be documented. In this respect, Siemund (2018: 317) argues that:

If such evidence cannot be procured, we would have to conclude that insubordinations represent ad hoc formations spontaneously arising in discourse, but this conclusion would be in conflict with the synchronic observation that at least some cases of insubordination possess constructional meanings that cannot be compositionally related to their constituent parts

This is why Evans's (2007) proposal has recently been reformulated to accommodate other possibilities that can explain the emergence of these constructions in discourse. Mithun (2008), for instance, argues against the possibility that insubordinate constructions emerge as a result of ellipsis. She explains the appearance of insubordinate clauses in terms of "extension of markers to functions at levels beyond the sentence" (Mithun, 2008: 108), that is, insubordinate clauses extend from the sentence domain to the discourse situation. In a similar vein, Heine et al. (2016) reject the ellipsis hypothesis as the only one possible, and suggest that Evans's (2007) and Mithun's (2008) proposals may be regarded as complementary, although they reiterate the need for further research.

By contrast, Sansiñena et al.'s (2015a: 17-18) findings support Evans's (2007) cline of development, so that they argue that ellipsis provides an intermediate stage in the pathway from subordination to insubordination, contributing to the functional specialisation of the utterances. On her part, Cristofaro (2016) contemplates multiple pathways towards insubordination, in that structures which are different in origins frequently result in the same insubordinate construction. For example, she mentions that insubordinate *if*-requests may in some cases originate from ellipsis and in others from clausal disengagement, that is, from the reinterpretation of insubordinate clauses as self-standing units which, in the absence of a specific clause, elaborate on a general topic (Cristofaro, 2016: 402). To sum up, in the light of these various studies, it seems that we should not envisage the possibility of a unique development for these constructions, but rather contemplate multiple or complementary pathways for their emergence in interaction.

2.1.2.3 A focus on insubordination in English, French and Spanish

As mentioned, recent years have witnessed increasingly scholarly attention on insubordination. If we focus on English, French and Spanish, the three languages examined in this dissertation, we observe a different scenario in terms of the amount of research carried out on insubordination in each of these languages.

As regards English, the very first study to discuss insubordination is Stirling (1999). She finds that insubordinate *if*-clauses can express directives and optatives (wishes), as in (26) and (27), respectively. It should be noted, however, that her dataset is quite limited: It comprises 44 clauses from Australian English, extracted from the General Practice Corpus – a relatively small spoken corpus of medical consultations – and from the Macquarie Dictionary Corpus – a 20 million-word corpus which mostly contains written discourse. Given the low frequency of insubordinate clauses attested in her corpora Stirling further analyses a corpus of Scottish English dialogues and reports considerably higher frequencies, but concentrates on directives only.

(26) If you'd like to move your head a little (Stirling, 1999: 278)

(27) If only Kitty had not done everything without her! (Stirling, 1999: 286)

Mato-Míguez (2014a, 2014b) examines *if*-insubordination in English, mainly attending to the two functions (directive and optative) distinguished for these constructions by Stirling (1999), though she actually centres on the directive type only. In two later studies (Mato-Míguez, 2016a, 2016b), she compares insubordination with other constructions which may also express directive meaning, such as conditionals and imperatives. She concludes that insubordinate clauses and imperatives (leaving aside *let*-imperatives) occur in similar frequencies in English and that insubordinate *if*-clauses tend to code requests more frequently than any other category of directive meaning (Mato-Míguez, 2016a: 309). Another important study is Kaltenböck (2016), which proposes a twofold classification for *if*-insubordination, distinguishing between performative and elaborative clauses.¹⁸ Under the performative category, he includes directives, optatives and exclamatives. In contrast, the elaboratives category includes elaborations of sentences uttered by the same or a different speaker, as in (28).

(28) Uhm and this is actually quite a good quality tent, if you hadn't noticed
(Kaltenböck, 2016: 352)

In my view, this categorization is too heterogeneous, in that elaborations, such as that in (28), cannot stand on their own, since they require the presence of the preceding utterance to interpret and elaborate on them. For this reason, I would not include elaborative *if*-clauses under the heading of insubordination, on the grounds that insubordinate clauses are fully independent and stand on their own, as other main clauses do, something which is not possible in the case of elaboratives. Rather, I would regard the elaborative subtype considered by Kaltenböck (2016, 2019) as a subtype of conditional, in line with Brinton (2014a, 2017, 2019), as will be more fully discussed in Section 2.2 below. Similar reasons for excluding elaboratives from the category of insubordination are given in D'Hertefelt and Verstraete (2014) and Verstraete and D'Hertefelt (2016), who argue that elaboratives represent cases of dependency shift rather than insubordination.

¹⁸ Kaltenböck (2019) maintains the same distinction between the two types but re-labels the performative category as “stand-alone insubordination”.

Insubordinate clauses introduced by *if* have been by far the most studied type of insubordination in English. However, English also has other markers of insubordination. Examples include clauses introduced by *as if*, which “denies an expressed or implied state of affairs” (Brinton, 2014b: 93), as in (29); or by *that*, which introduces clauses expressing surprise, indicating disapproval or regret (Quirk et al., 1985: 841), as in (30).

(29) He thinks you’ll be impressed. As if. (Brinton, 2014b: 93)

(30) That he should have left without asking me! (Quirk et al., 1985: 841)

Turning to French, insubordination has received little attention in this language. Examples of *si*-insubordination appear in Evans (2007) – see example (22) above – but have not received sufficient attention independently. Exceptions to this are Patard (2014) and Debaisieux et al. (2019). Patard (2014) argues that insubordinate *si*-clauses can function as optatives, suppositives or propositives. These usages are illustrated in (31) to (33). Patard (2014: 119) argues that optatives employ the past tense, whereas in the two other types both the present and the past could be grammatically possible.

(31) Si je pouvais le séduire! (Patard, 2014: 113)

‘If I could seduce him!’

(32) Si c’était sérieux? (Patard, 2014: 113)

‘What if it was serious?’

(33) Si vous retiriez votre chapeau? (Patard, 2014: 109)

‘If you could remove your hat?’

More theoretically-oriented in scope, Debaisieux et al. (2019) analyse two instances of what they call “apparent exclamative insubordinates” in French: the constructions *si tu savais* (English *if you knew*) and *quand je pense* (English *when I think*). After first approaching these constructions as illustrating insubordination, the authors then conclude that cases such as the one presented in (34) “can be explained with descriptive devices other than insubordination” (Debaisieux et al., 2019: 350). In particular, they argue that

example (34) below can be analysed as a construction in which the *si*-clause is not integrated into the grammatical structure of the main clause and functions as a pragmatic marker, followed by an exclamative main clause (*ce que moi j'étais contente*). The arguments given to support this analysis are, first, that *si tu savais* can appear isolated in discourse (without the rest of the utterance) functioning as a pragmatic marker (Debaisieux et al., 2019: 361) and, second, that the exclamatory meaning of the construction is conveyed by *ce que moi j'étais contente*, since *si tu savais* does not contribute to the propositional content of the utterance (Debaisieux et al., 2019: 368).

(34) Si tu savais ce que moi j'étais contente (Debaisieux et al., 2019: 359)

'If you imagine how happy I was'¹⁹

If we now focus on Spanish, insubordination has received more scholarly attention than in English and French. Pérez Béjar (2018a: 524) notes the high frequency of insubordination in Spanish colloquial conversation. This could be the reason for the higher number of studies on this phenomenon in Spanish, especially in Peninsular Spanish, where these constructions seem to be more frequent as compared to American varieties of Spanish (Pérez Fernández, 2019; Pérez Fernández et al., 2019). As mentioned, studies on insubordination in Spanish have been frequently treated under the label of *suspensión* (suspension) and more recently, after Evans (2007), a few have adopted the term insubordination. Spanish has devoted extensive research to insubordinate constructions compared to other languages. Among others, studies in Spanish include:

- a) Studies on adverbial constructions that result in cases of insubordination (most cases on *si*-insubordination, a few also on other markers), among others: Almela Pérez (1985), Schwenter (1996, 1999, 2016a, 2016b), Montolío Durán (1999b), on the uses and functions of *si*-insubordination; Gras (2011) and Pérez Béjar (2018a), both exhaustive examinations of different types of insubordination in Spanish; Pérez Béjar (2018b, 2019), an exploration of two specific cases of *si*-insubordination: *si es que* and *y si* respectively; Pérez Béjar (2018c), on *como-*

¹⁹ Translation into English by Debaisieux et al.

insubordination; Rodríguez-Molina & Enrique-Arias (2018), a historical account of *si*-insubordination in Old Spanish; Elvira-García et al. (2017), on the prosody of insubordination in Spanish, and Elvira García (2019), on the prosody of insubordination in *si*-insubordination in particular.

- b) Studies on complement insubordination with *que*, among others: Spitzer (1942), Porroche Ballesteros (2000), Hidalgo Navarro and Pérez Giménez (2002), Pons Bordería (2003), Etxepare (2008), Gras (2011, 2013, 2016), Gras and Sansiñena (2015, 2017), Sansiñena (2015, 2017, 2019), Sansiñena et al. (2015a, 2015b), Pérez Fernández (2019), Pérez Fernández et al. (2019) and Sánchez López (2019).

Pérez Béjar (2018a: 533) argues that insubordination with markers of conditionality is one of the most frequent types of insubordination in Spanish. Gras (2011: 292-293) distinguishes three types of independent uses with *si*: (i) suspended conditional protases, usually employed to express wishes or regrets, as in (35); (ii) structures that intensify assertions or interrogations, as in (36); (iii) structures of reply that indicate the inadequacy of the prior utterance, usually preceded by *pero*, as in (37).

(35) ¡Si acabara la tesis este verano! (Gras, 2011: 292)

‘If I could finish the dissertation this summer!’

(36) ¡Dios mío, si estará loca la pobrecita! (Alarcos, 1994: 382; cited in Gras, 2011: 292)

‘*My god, if she will be crazy my poor!’

(37) A: ¿Por qué has abierto la ventana? (Montolío Durán, 1999b: 53; cited in Gras, 2011: 293)

‘Why have you opened the door?’

B: Pero si no he sido yo

‘*But if it hasn’t been me’

Schwenter (1996, 1999, 2016a, 2016b) centres his analysis in cases like (37), both when the *si*-clause is preceded by the adversative conjunction *pero* ('but') – as a reinforcement of the message – or when *si* introduces the utterance. Schwenter argues that in subordinate *si*-clauses “are found in face-threatening illocutionary acts where a speaker provides a dialogic refutation of, or more generally objection to, what his/her interlocutor has just uttered in an immediately prior conversational turn” (Schwenter, 2016a: 90). Thus, in contrast to what happens in English or French, these constructions are primarily used in Spanish for disagreement and refutation, as in (37) above or (38) below.

(38) A: Los primos van a llegar esta tarde (Schwenter, 2016a: 90)²⁰

‘Our cousins are going to arrive this afternoon’

B: ¡Si ya han llegado esta mañana!

‘They already arrived this morning’

Schwenter (2016a: 97, 2016b: 23) argues that *si* is syntactically and semantically superfluous in the subordinate construction. Indeed, if we consider example (38), we can remove *si* in B’s response and the resulting construction (*ya han llegado esta mañana*) would be perfectly possible, both from the syntactic and the pragmatic point of view. In addition to expressing disagreement or refutation the *si*-clause also has an assertive value (it asserts that the cousins arrived this morning). This seems especially interesting considering that conditionals are inherently non-assertive constructions (Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2008: 191).

Interestingly, this function of Spanish subordinate *si*-clauses has not been mentioned in prior research on English and French, where equivalent constructions are primarily used for other functions, as has already been discussed. Nevertheless, a similar use is attested in Italian, where subordinate *se*-clauses can signal what Lombardi Vallauri (2016) terms “protest”, as illustrated in example (39) below.

²⁰ Translation into English by Schwenter. Note that in this example *si* cannot be rendered into English by means of *if*.

(39) A: Signor Giudice io ci ho sessantasei anni so' più vecchio pure de lui (Lombardi Vallauri, 2016: 149)²¹

'Your Honour I'm sixty-six I'm even older than him'

B: Se ci hai un anno più de me

'If you are one year older than me'

As can be seen from the previous overview, research on insubordination in English, French and Spanish is not lacking. However, none of the existing studies offers a contrastive analysis of how the uses and functions of insubordinate *if/si*-clauses in conversation differ across the three languages examined here. In addition, it seems necessary to explore insubordinate clauses in parallel with conditionals, so as to explore the similarities and differences in the functional-pragmatic properties of these constructions. These are the gaps that the present study, as repeatedly mentioned, intends to fill.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As already pointed out in Chapter 1 and in the research questions put forward in its Section 1.1, this dissertation will offer an account of *if/si*-constructions which can encompass their multifunctionality, considering both prototypical and less prototypical uses. For this purpose, the framework proposed here builds on the cognitive-oriented approach to conditionals developed by Sweetser (1990) and Dancygier and Sweetser (2000, 2005) (see Section 2.1.1.2 above) and integrates this approach into the three metafunctions distinguished in Systemic Functional Linguistics: ideational, interpersonal and textual (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014); these correspond basically to the levels of grammatical organization that authors such as Traugott (1982), also inspired by Halliday's work, has termed propositional, expressive and textual. The utility of Halliday's metafunctions for the analysis of various discourse phenomena has been widely recognised, as noted, for instance, by Brinton (2017: 11), who asserts that the three

²¹ Translation into English by Lombardi Vallauri.

metafunctions are “an excellent way of understanding the multifunctionality of pragmatic markers and their course of development”. Along these lines, I argue here that Halliday’s metafunctions can also explain the multifunctionality of conditionals, which, as some authors have claimed, can themselves ultimately derive into pragmatic markers (see, among others, Brinton, 2017, and Beeching, 2016a, on English; Banegas Saorin & Ciry, 2017, on French; Wang, 2017, on Chinese; and Fuentes-Rodríguez, 2019, on Spanish). To the best of my knowledge, the application of these metafunctions to the study of conditionals has not been done before, so we envisage that they will offer new insights on the functional-pragmatic properties of conditionals in discourse. In what follows, therefore, I propose a classification of *if/si*-constructions that distinguishes them in terms of the ideational, interpersonal and textual levels.

The ideational metafunction²² is concerned with how we use “language to talk about the world” (Thompson, 2014: 30). Similarly, Biber (1988: 34) also claims that it “refer[s] to the ways in which linguistic form is used to convey propositional or referential content”, that is, the focus is on the informational content of the utterance. In other words, the ideational metafunction is the prototypical one for a conditional construction, in that it functions as a representation of reality. This function is concerned with “the capacity to represent immediate, distant, imaginary and even impossible configurations of our perceptual and conceptual experience” (Labov, 1982: 25). Thus, ideational conditionals, which would correspond to the most canonical types of conditionals – *content conditionals* in Sweetser’s (1990) typology or *direct conditions* in Quirk et al. (1985) – are cases of conditional constructions denoting a cause-consequence pattern between events in discourse, which speakers employ to talk about real, potential or unreal situations, as illustrated in (40).

(40) Anyway if it’s really bad weather we’ll just <,> you know stay in <,> (ICE-GB:S1A-006 #210:1:A)

²² For our purposes here, we disregard the distinction between the subcomponents *experiential* and *logical* which are often recognised within the ideational metafunction (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014: 30).

The interpersonal metafunction allows “enacting our personal and social relationships with the other people around us” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014: 30). It is defined as being interactive and personal and is concerned with “how experiential content gets grounded in an interactive speech event and how speech roles get to be negotiated between participants” (Vandelanotte, 2017: 188). Similarly, Biber (1988: 34-36) claims that the interpersonal metafunction “depend[s] on some aspect of the relationship between participants: role relationships, overtly expressed attitudes towards participants, the extent of shared knowledge, and the interactional possibilities of the communicative event”. In keeping with this, interpersonal conditionals would be those that do not express truth conditions, as is the case of their ideational counterparts, but rather their focus is on establishing relationships between speakers and addressees, as in (41) below. Warchal (2010) is the first study that deals systematically with the interpersonal function of conditionals, although other studies have also employed the term “interpersonal” on occasion to refer to some of these constructions. For instance, Ford and Thompson (1986: 363) use this term for conditionals involving polite requests. Following Warchal (2010), the interpersonal category would subsume the epistemic and speech act types of conditionals earlier considered by Sweetser (1990).

(41) Uhm so I wouldn't say that I actually looked on religion as a bad thing if you see what I mean (ICE-GB:S1A-076 #156:1:B)

In this metafunction, we also include cases of *if/si*-insubordination, as in (42), since insubordinate clauses “all share the semantic property of expressing interpersonal meaning” (Van linden & Van de Velde, 2014: 226).

(42) If anyone would like some ice cream (ICE-GB:S1A-073 #285:1:A)

According to López-Couso (2010: 129), the interpersonal function “comprise[s] various phenomena of a subjective and intersubjective nature, which convey the speaker's evaluation and attitudes toward the proposition”. This suggests that there are two interrelated notions at play within the interpersonal metafunction, which, following

Hyland (2005), I will refer to as stance and engagement.²³ Stance refers to how speakers express their judgements, opinions and viewpoints in discourse; whereas engagement is related to how speakers involve addressees as discourse participants (Hyland, 2005; Evans et al., 2018). Thus, interpersonal conditionals expressing stance are speaker-oriented utterances, whereas those conveying engagement would be addressee-oriented. For example, in (41) above, the construction expresses engagement and its focus is oriented towards the addressee: *if you see what I mean* allows the speaker to involve the addressee in the conversation and thus mitigates the propositional content of the main clause. In contrast, in (43) the *if*-clause, rather than engaging with the addressee, expresses the viewpoint of the speaker.

(43) But at least if you're involved in something creative <,> it's original (ICE-GB:S1A-045 #299:3:A)

The fact that conditionals, as argued here, can function at the ideational and the interpersonal levels allows us to account for cases which are difficult to classify in terms of other typologies of conditionals. In Section 2.1.2.3 we discussed the so-called elaborative type of insubordination examined by (Kaltenböck, 2016, 2019), which I argued could not be considered as a proper case of insubordination since elaboratives are constructions formed by a protasis and an apodosis and cannot stand in isolation in discourse. However, Kaltenböck's elaborative type, illustrated in (44) below, falls neatly into the interpersonal category. Elaboratives, therefore, are functionally similar to insubordination, as in (42), in that both constructions are interpersonal, but they are structurally different in that elaboratives are full *if*-constructions with a protasis and an apodosis.

(44) I'll top up my tea, if you don't mind (Kaltenböck, 2019: 168)

Finally, the textual metafunction is traditionally defined as “the clause as message” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014: 84), that is, the focus is on how we “organiz[e] language

²³ As will be seen in due course, in subsequent chapters I apply the notions of stance and engagement to interpersonal conditionals whenever relevant.

to fit in its context” (Thompson, 2014: 30). Similarly, Biber (1988: 34) argues that the textual metafunction serves “to mark information structure or to mark cohesion”. Although the term textual has not been applied to conditionals explicitly, their textual function has sometimes been briefly invoked in prior research. Both Carter-Thomas (2007) and Rowley-Jolivet (2007), for example, discuss what they call discourse management functions in their studies of conditionals in medical research articles in English and French, and medical research articles as opposed to medical conference presentations in English, respectively. Carter-Thomas (2007: 158) mentions that conditionals in this function “serve to instruct or guide the readers in following the development of the text”, thus being equivalent to the textual function described here. Rowley-Jolivet’s (2007: 181, 183) findings show that, in her sample, the discourse management function is absent in writing but notably frequent in speech (33%), to provide explicit guidance about the intentions of the speaker, as illustrated in (45).

(45) If we go on to discuss the other problem, that is the local recurrence problem with rectal cancer, this is a serious problem (Rowley-Jolivet, 2007: 183)

Sometimes textual conditionals resemble interpersonal ones in that they may involve some degree of interpersonality, as in (46) and (47). These examples involve the addressees – *you*, in example (46), and *honorary members* (of parliament), in (47), respectively – in the discourse situation. However, contrary to what happens in interpersonal conditionals, textual conditionals also serve another function: they are explicit signals of discourse cohesion and, as such, help the speaker advance the argument or move from one point to another in their discourse, thus contributing to the overall cohesion of the text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 258-260). For example, in (46) and (47) the *if*-clause allows the speakers to go back to a previous topic and directs the addressees to it.

(46) But then again why should marriage be if you look at it marriage shouldn’t really do any harm anyway (ICE-GB:S1A-071 #213:1:C)

(47) The 45-minute claim was given neither undue prominence in the dossier nor undue prominence in any debates or arguments that followed. If honorary Members

on both sides of the House look at what they said in the House on the subject between September and March, they will find that it was scarcely mentioned (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)





CHAPTER 3

CORPORA AND METHODOLOGY

When envisaging a cross-linguistic dissertation such as the present one, one of the most important concerns has to do with the data to be employed. Finding suitable corpora in the three languages analysed is indeed a challenge and, to a certain extent, it also determines the choice of registers selected, in this case, spoken parliamentary discourse and conversations. Broadly speaking, two kinds of multilingual corpora can be distinguished: parallel and comparable. Parallel corpora – also sometimes known as translation corpora (Aijmer et al., 1996) – are those which contain translations of the same texts from a source language into several target languages, whereas comparable corpora contain original texts in two or more languages and are compiled using the same sampling frame (Johansson, 1998; McEnery & Wilson, 2001; Hunston, 2002).²⁴ Since, as repeatedly noted, the aim of this dissertation is to examine *if/si*-constructions in English, French and Spanish in real interaction, comparable corpora are far more adequate for my purposes; they have therefore been chosen in order to obtain the dataset necessary for the analysis.

This chapter is structured as follows. In Section 3.1, I explain the differences between the two registers selected, on the basis of the dimensions of variation proposed by Biber's (1988) multi-dimensional (MD) model. The corpora of parliamentary discourse are discussed in Section 3.2 and the corpora of conversations in Section 3.3. Both subsections offer also an account of the process of data extraction.

²⁴ The term "parallel corpus" is used differently by some authors. For example, Aijmer et al. (1996) employ parallel for the corpora categorised here as comparable, and refer to those categorised here as parallel as translation corpora. McEnery and Hardie (2012: 18-19), in turn, refer to both comparable and parallel corpora simply as multilingual corpora.

3.1 BIBER'S (1988) MULTI-DIMENSIONAL MODEL OF REGISTER ANALYSIS

As mentioned earlier, this dissertation explores two different spoken registers: parliamentary discourse and conversations, which are generally regarded as opposite extremes along the formal-informal continuum of oral discourse. Conversations are face-to-face exchanges, unprepared and informal in nature, where the focus is on the interaction between participants; whereas parliamentary discourse is generally much more formal and prepared – and often even scripted –, and the speakers tend to favour monologue over dialogue in many cases.

Biber's seminal work on register variation stresses, however, that concepts such as formal and informal cannot be viewed as discrete categories. They should rather be regarded "as dimensions because they define continuums of variation rather than discrete poles" (Biber, 1988: 9). In his original exposition of his multi-dimensional model, Biber (1988) distinguished seven different dimensions for register variation, which were later subsumed as five (Conrad & Biber, 2001)²⁵, as summarised in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Dimensions of variation, based on Biber (1988) and Conrad and Biber (2001)

Dimension 1	Involved versus Informational Production
Dimension 2	Narrative versus Non-narrative Discourse
Dimension 3	Explicit versus Situation-dependent Reference
Dimension 4	Overt Expression of Persuasion
Dimension 5	Abstract versus Non-abstract Style

Biber's multi-dimensional model was developed for the comprehensive analysis of register variation and uses statistical procedures to examine the quantitative distribution of linguistic features across spoken and written registers.²⁶ We adopt here Biber's model to explore the differences between conversations and parliamentary discourse²⁷ along the

²⁵ I leave out Dimensions 6 and 7 since, as Conrad and Biber (2001: 39) note, these dimensions are more difficult to interpret and most studies applying multi-dimensional analysis have disregarded them (see, for example, Goźdz-Roszkowski, 2011, who considers Dimensions 1 to 5 only in his multi-dimensional analysis of legal genres in English; and all the chapters in Conrad and Biber, 2001).

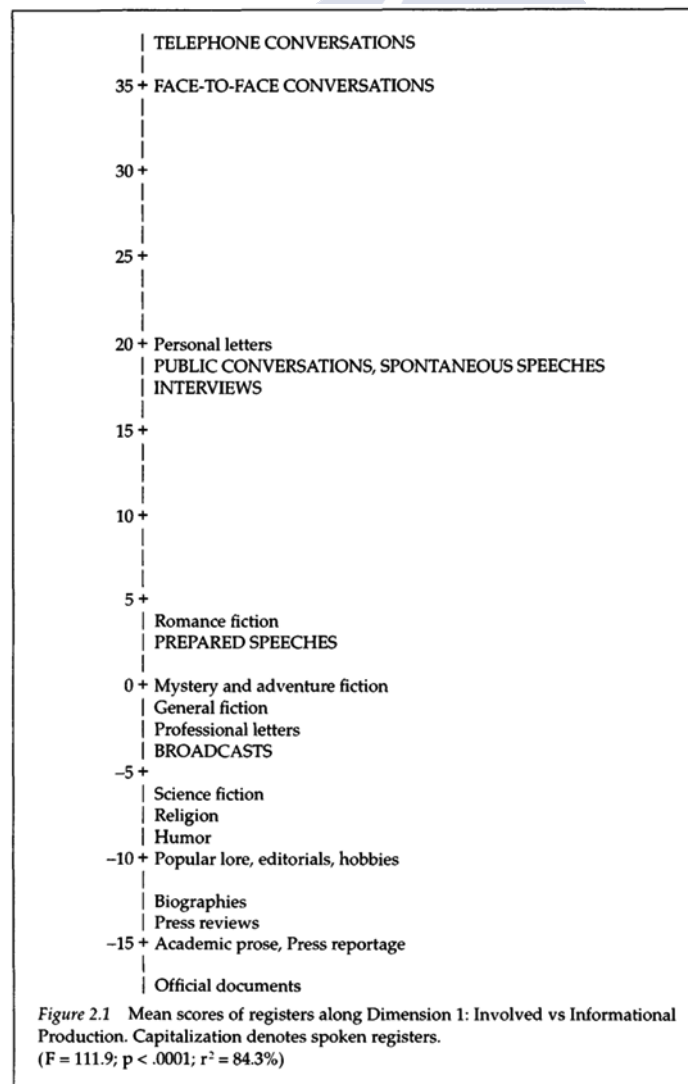
²⁶ For a brief but detailed explanation of multi-dimensional methodology, see Conrad and Biber (2001).

²⁷ Biber (1988) does not adopt the term parliamentary discourse specifically, but this register falls into the umbrella category of "prepared speeches" that he uses.

binary distinctions proposed for each dimension. This has the advantage of providing a much more complete picture of the nature of variation between informal conversation and parliamentary discourse than a unidimensional approach.

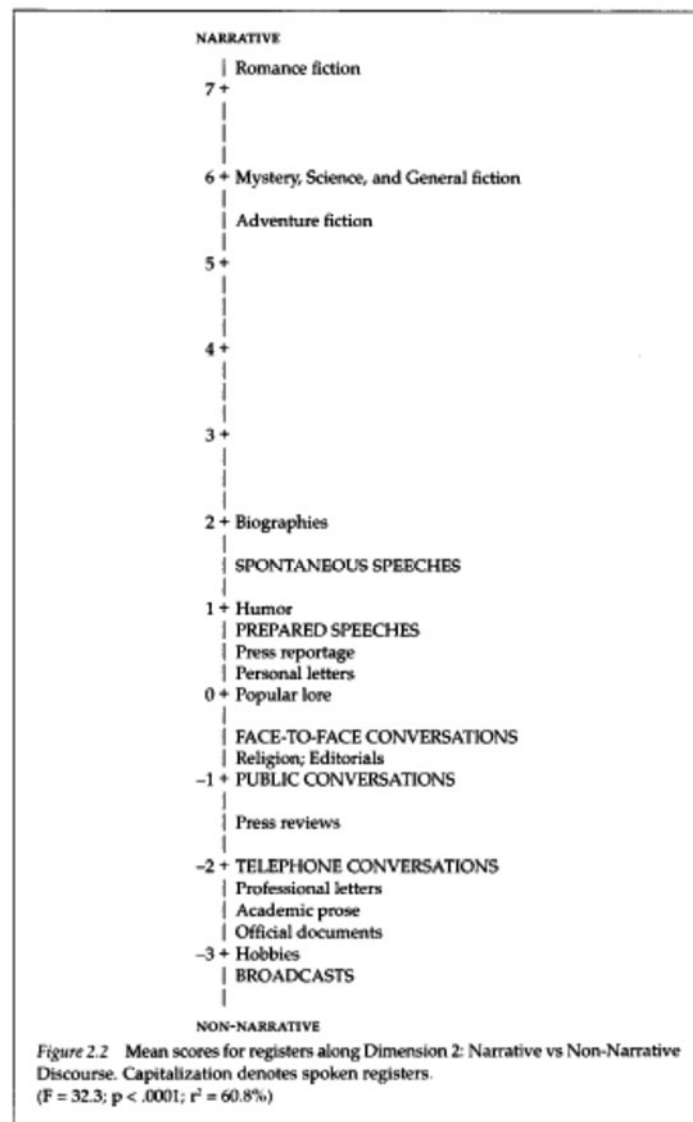
Dimension 1, *Involved versus Informational Production*, is concerned, at one extreme of the pole, with discourse that involves the speaker in the discourse situation and has, therefore “a primarily interactive or affective purpose” (Biber, 1988: 105); at the other end is discourse which is extremely informational in purpose. As we can observe in Figure 1 below, face-to-face conversations score high for involvement, whereas prepared speeches – under which parliamentary discourse would be placed – represent a more informational type of speech production.

Figure 1. Registers along Dimension 1 (based on Conrad and Biber, 2001: 27)



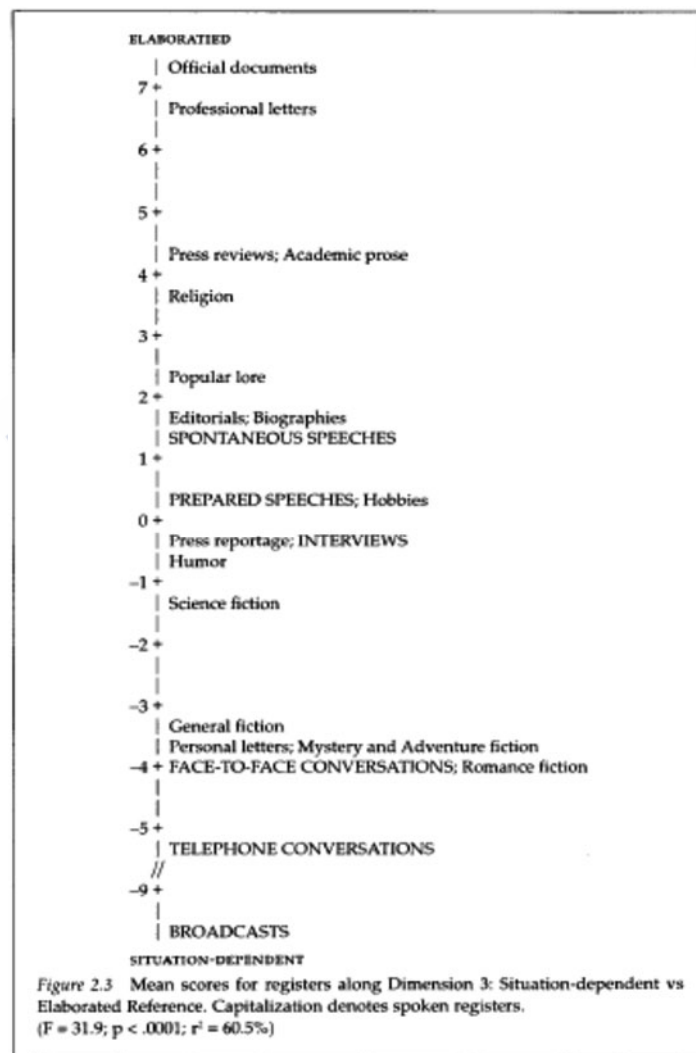
Dimension 2, *Narrative versus Non-narrative Discourse*, aims at distinguishing narrative discourse, which is event-oriented in nature, from other types of discourse, which are usually more static, descriptive or expository (Biber, 1988: 109). This dimension of variation does not seem to be particularly relevant for our purposes, as can be observed in Figure 2, since the mean score between the two registers examined in this dissertation is not very different.

Figure 2. Registers along Dimension 2 (based on Conrad and Biber, 2001: 32)



Dimension 3, *Explicit versus Situation-dependent Reference*,²⁸ distinguishes along the dimension “between highly explicit, context-independent reference and nonspecific, situation-dependent reference” (Biber, 1988: 110), that is, between texts which identify referents completely and explicitly, and those in which the reference is more dependent on the context. Figure 3 below depicts the continuum of this dimension, where we can observe that prepared speeches in parliament are more elaborated than face-to-face conversation, which is more context-dependent.

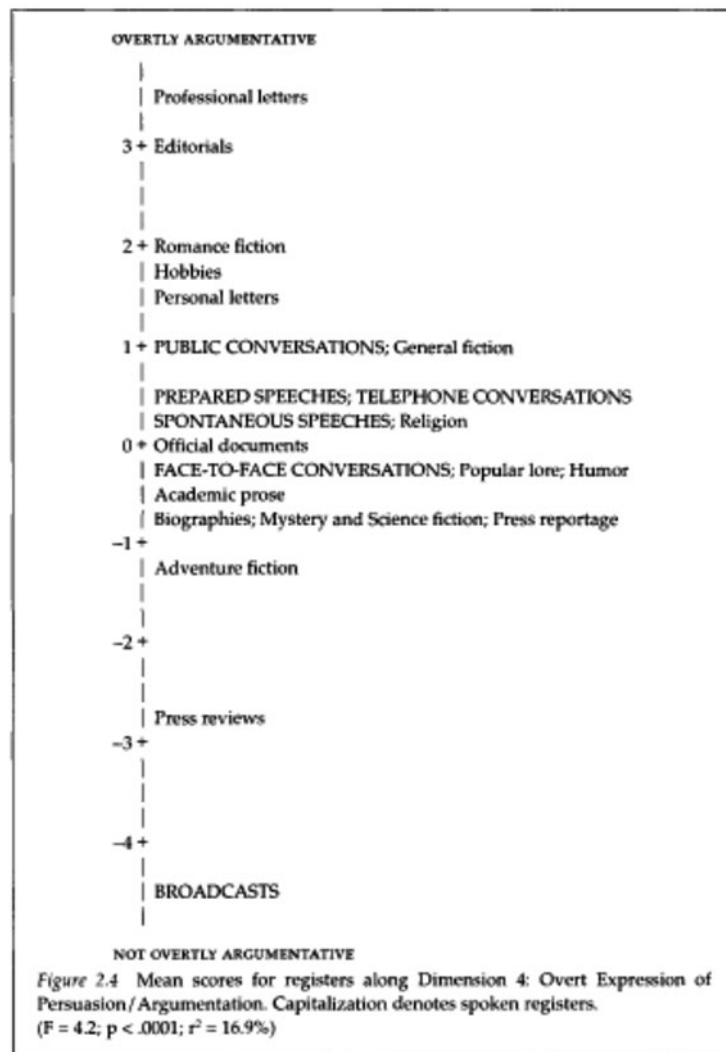
Figure 3. Registers along Dimension 3 (based on Conrad and Biber, 2001: 34)



²⁸ In several studies published after 1988, Biber also employs the term “elaborated” instead of “explicit” for this dimension (Biber, 1995). I retain here the original terminology.

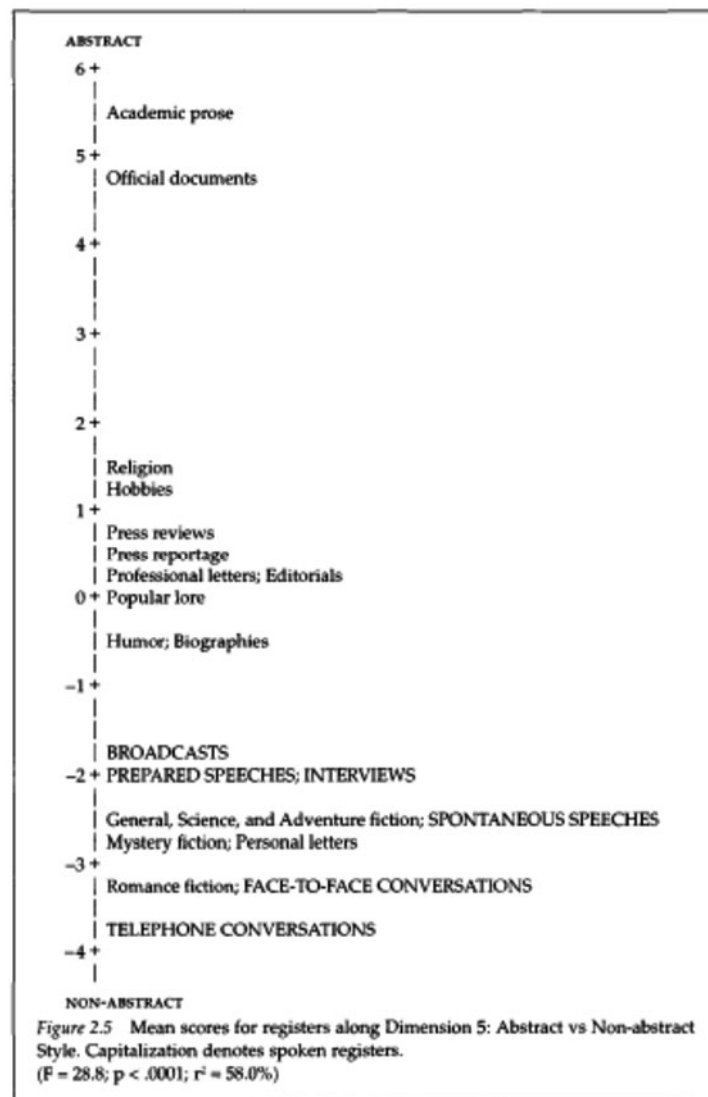
Dimension 4, *Overt Expression of Persuasion*, represents a continuum of variation between texts which encode the speaker's point of view and try to be persuasive and those which do not overtly express persuasion or argumentation. In this dimension the registers under examination are not particularly distant in the continuum of variation, as can be observed in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Registers along Dimension 4 (based on Conrad and Biber, 2001: 36)



Finally, Dimension 5, *Abstract versus Non-abstract Style*, distinguishes between texts which show a high degree of abstraction and impersonality and those where the style is less abstract and more personal. As we can see in Figure 5, both speeches and conversations show low scores, showing that both registers are non-abstract.

Figure 5. Registers along Dimension 5 (based on Conrad and Biber, 2001: 38)



This overview of register variation in the light of Biber's (1988) multi-dimensional model reinforces the idea that variation is too complex to be explored by resorting to a single dimension, which would give us only an incomplete picture of text typologies. Rather, the clines along the five dimensions reveal that the degree of difference between two given registers varies depending on the individual dimension which is being considered at any given time. In the specific case of parliamentary discourse and conversations, the two registers examined in this dissertation, two dimensions prove particularly relevant to understand their differences, namely Dimension 1 (*Involved*

versus Informational Production) and Dimension 3 (*Explicit versus Situation-dependent Reference*).

3.2 CORPORA OF PARLIAMENTARY DISCOURSE

3.2.1 Description of the corpora

Data for parliamentary discourse have been extracted from three corpora of transcriptions of parliamentary debates. For English, I have resorted to the British Parliament Hansard Corpus (Alexander & Davies, 2005).²⁹ This corpus contains data from 1803 to 2005 and totals 1.6 billion words, comprising nearly every speech given in parliament between the aforementioned dates, a total of 7,545,101 texts.

For French, I have resorted to the French component of the French/English Hansard Corpus from the Canadian Parliament, which totals 450 million words. I accessed the corpus through the freely available sample of the 36th Canadian Parliament, compiled by Ulrich Germann,³⁰ which consists of 1.3 million pairs of aligned text chunks (sentences or smaller fragments) in English and French.

For Spanish, in the absence of a Spanish component from the Hansard Corpus, the data are extracted from the *Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados*, the official record for parliamentary sessions in the Spanish Parliament. The *Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados* contains a (more or less) verbatim³¹ transcription of the contents of each parliamentary session, preceded by a summary elaborated by the official parliamentary stenographers. Although this resource is not designed for linguistic purposes, it can be employed – and has indeed been employed – as a data source for parliamentary language, given the lack of a Spanish component of the Hansard corpus;

²⁹ <https://www.hansard-corpus.org/>

³⁰ <https://www.isi.edu/natural-language/download/hansard/>

³¹ As noted by various authors, parliamentary discourse is never fully verbatim (Slembrouck, 1992; Mollin, 2007; Alexander, forthcoming; Kotze et al., forthcoming). It is frequent for parliamentary stenographers to edit the transcripts with the aim of “filtering out spokenness” (Slembrouck, 1992: 104), thus transforming the speech into a more formal style, more similar to written discourse. This transformation includes not only removing false starts, reformulations and repetitions, but sometimes also changing language at the grammatical and lexical levels (see Mollin, 2007: 197-207, for a full discussion on these features).

see for instance work by Villalba and Kern (2017); De Cock et al. (2018); Kern (2018); Troya Déniz (2018); Soler Bonafont (2018, 2019) and Estellés Arguedas (2018, 2020).³²

3.2.2 Process of data extraction

Since the corpora of parliamentary discourse selected cover a large time span, I restricted the search to present-day language, examining data from the decade 2000–2010. As for the British Parliament Hansard Corpus, the retrieval of the data has been carried out through the web interface of the corpus, displayed in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Interface of the British Parliament Hansard Corpus



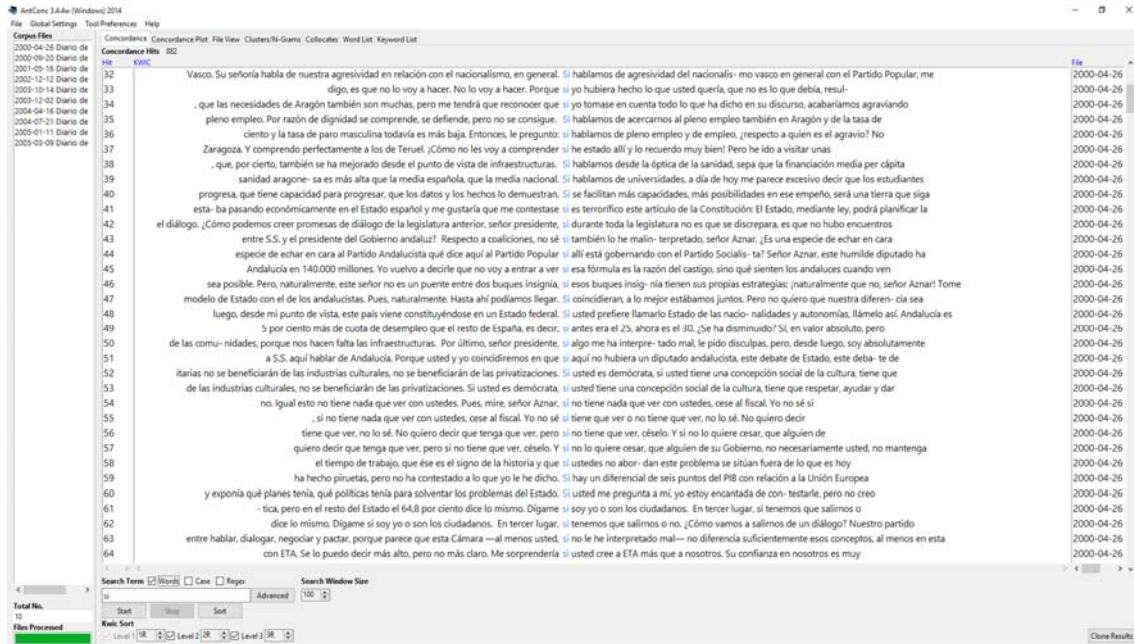
The Canadian Hansard and the *Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados* do not come with an online interface and, therefore, the texts were searched with the help of AntConc, a well-known, freely available concordancer software developed by Laurence Anthony.³³ As mentioned before, the *Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados* is not originally intended for linguistic analysis and the transcription of the members of parliament's interventions in the record is preceded by a summary elaborated by

³² I am grateful to Amparo Soler Bonafont for bringing to my attention the usefulness of this resource as a corpus of Spanish parliamentary discourse.

³³ <http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc/>

parliamentary stenographers, which I have removed from my corpus when preparing the texts to be used for linguistic analysis in AntConc. The interface of AntConc is presented in Figure 7 below.

Figure 7. Interface of AntConc



The method of data extraction in the three corpora consisted in doing an automatic search for *if* in the English corpus and for *si* in the French and Spanish corpora respectively. Due to the large size of the three corpora of parliamentary discourse, I extracted samples of 500 tokens in each language for manual examination.

3.3 CORPORA OF CONVERSATIONS

3.3.1 Description of the corpora

Data for conversations have been extracted from spoken reference corpora in the three languages. For English, I have resorted to the British component of the *International Corpus of English (ICE-GB)* (Nelson et al., 2002); for French and Spanish, I have used the *Integrated Reference Corpora for Spoken Romance Languages (C-ORAL-ROM)* (Cresti & Moneglia, 2005).

ICE-GB is part of the ICE family of corpora,³⁴ a project initiated in 1988 by Sidney Greenbaum and now coordinated by Marianne Hundt from the University of Zurich, which consists of a collection of comparable one million-word corpora for different national varieties of English worldwide. The ICE corpora follow a common corpus design and annotation scheme, which allows inter-variety comparisons. In this dissertation, the British component is selected for the analysis. ICE-GB is a corpus compiled at the Survey of English Usage at University College London, fully tagged and parsed.³⁵ It contains a written and a spoken component, with different text types in each case. The written component contains 200 texts, totalling roughly 400,000 words; and the spoken component is comprised of 300 texts, amounting to approximately 600,000 words. The texts included in the corpus date from 1990 to 1993 and include speakers of British English only.

C-ORAL-ROM is a collection of comparable spoken corpora in four Romance languages: French, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish; and the project is led by Cresti and Moneglia (2005). For our purposes, we are concerned here only with the French corpus, compiled by Campione et al. (2005), and with the Spanish corpus, compiled by Moreno et al. (2005). Unlike ICE-GB, C-ORAL-ROM only contains spoken discourse, arranged across different text types in the corpus. The component for each language totals approximately 300,000 words and contains spoken texts from the 2000-2004 period.

Although ICE-GB and C-ORAL-ROM have not been designed with the same sampling frame, they are indeed very similar with respect to their spoken components.³⁶ Tables 4 and 5 show the structure of the spoken component of ICE-GB and of C-ORAL-ROM respectively. In Tables 4 and 5 the figures in round brackets indicate the number of texts in each spoken text type and the figures in square brackets show the approximate number of words per text type. In turn, the final Appendix provides information on the metadata of the conversations analysed.

³⁴ <http://www.ice-corpora.uzh.ch/en.html>

³⁵ ICE-GB has been parsed automatically and then checked and corrected manually.

³⁶ Note that, as indicated above, ICE-GB contains a written and a spoken component whereas C-ORAL-ROM only consists of spoken language. Here and henceforth, comparisons between ICE-GB and C-ORAL-ROM only refer to speech.

Table 4. Structure of the spoken component of ICE-GB

Spoken texts (300) [600,000]	Dialogues (180) [360,000]	Private (100) [200,000]	face-to-face conversations (90) [180,000] phonecalls (10) [20,000]
		Public (80) [160,000]	classroom lessons (20) [40,000] broadcast discussions (20) [40,000] broadcast interviews (10) [20,000] parliamentary debates (10) [20,000] legal cross-examinations (10) [20,000] business transactions (10) [20,000]
	Monologues (100) [200,000]	Unscripted (70) [140,000]	spontaneous commentaries (20) [40,000] unscripted speeches (30) [60,000] demonstrations (10) [20,000] legal presentations (10) [20,000]
		Scripted (30) [60,000]	broadcast talks (20) [40,000] non-broadcast speeches (10) [20,000]
	Mixed (20) [40,000]		broadcast news (20) [40,000]

Table 5. Structure of C-ORAL-ROM

Section	Context	Domain
Informal (French, 98; Spanish, 89) [150,000]	Family-private (French, 69; Spanish, 67) [124,500]	monologue (French, 28; Spanish, 10) dialogue (French, 29; Spanish, 42) conversation (French, 12; Spanish 15)
	Public (French, 29; Spanish, 22) [25,500]	monologue (French, 6; Spanish, 2) dialogue (French, 14; Spanish, 18) conversation (French, 9; Spanish, 2)
Formal (French, 105; Spanish, 80) [150,000]	Natural context (French, 20; Spanish, 27) [65,000]	political speech (French, 2; Spanish, 2) political debate (French, 2; Spanish, 2) preaching (French, 3; Spanish, 6) professional explanation (French, 2; Spanish, 4) teaching (French, 3; Spanish, 4) conference (French, 3; Spanish, 4) business (French, 2; Spanish, 3) law (French, 3; Spanish, 2)
	Media (French, 17; Spanish, 42) [60,000]	news (French, 1; Spanish, 6) sport (French, 3; Spanish, 6) interviews (French, 2; Spanish, 5)

		meteo (weather forecast) (French, 1; Spanish, 3) scientific press (French, 2; Spanish, 4) reportage (French, 3; Spanish, 7) talk show (French, 5; Spanish, 11)
	Telephone (French, 68; Spanish, 11) [25,000]	private conversation (French, 26; Spanish, 11) human-machine interaction (French, 42) ³⁷

3.3.2 Process of data extraction

The data selected for analysis from ICE-GB and C-ORAL-ROM are conversations. These are labelled as face-to-face conversations in ICE-GB and as dialogue/conversation both of the family-private and public type in C-ORAL-ROM. Conversations in ICE-GB include exchanges between two or more people, whereas in C-ORAL-ROM a distinction is made between those exchanges involving two participants (dialogues) and those involving three or more (conversations). This distinction is not contemplated here and, for the purposes of this dissertation, I will refer to conversations as an umbrella term for one-to-one and multiparty exchanges.

Unlike in the parliamentary corpora, the conversations dataset selected in the three languages is manageable enough, in terms of size, to be fully analysed manually without having to restrict the analysis to a sample of a certain number of tokens. Thus, the data retrieval was carried out in the whole conversation components, searching for *if* in English and *si* in French³⁸ and Spanish. The retrieval of the data was carried out with the help of the corpora utility programmes, ICECUP and CONTEXTES respectively. In particular, ICECUP, the built-in retrieval software of ICE-GB, is very useful since it allows researchers to carry out complex grammatical queries. The corpus is syntactically parsed at function and category level, and each unit is presented in the form of a syntactic tree, with the whole spoken corpus totalling 59,640 parse trees. Although for the purposes of the research carried out here this is not essential, it helps to clarify ambiguous cases, such

³⁷ Category not present in the Spanish subcorpus.

³⁸ In the case of French, independent searches were also run for cases involving the contraction of the conditional conjunction and the third person singular and plural pronouns (*s'il* = 17 tokens; *s'ils* = 8 tokens).

as cases of *if* as complement clauses or as conditionals, which are often difficult to distinguish, as noted by López-Couso and Méndez-Naya (2001: 94). The interfaces of ICECUP and CONTEXTES are presented in Figures 8 and 9 respectively, with the former illustrating a parse tree of a conditional construction and the latter the general interface of the corpus.

Figure 8. ICECUP interface. Parse tree of a conditional in ICE-GB

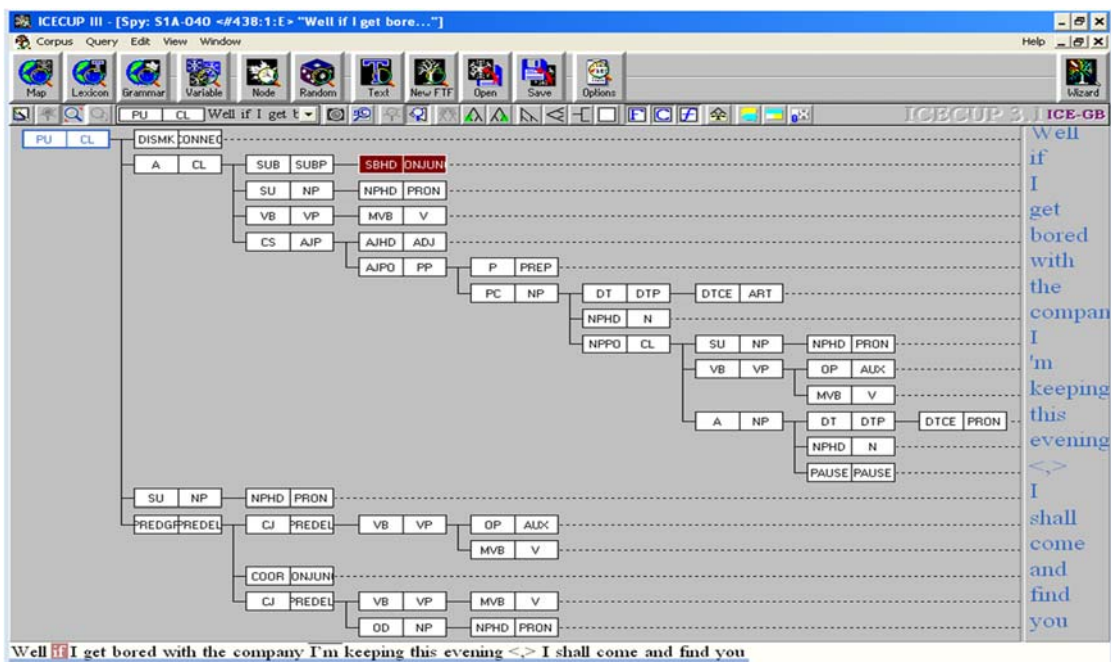


Figure 9. CONTEXTES interface

#	File	Left context	Match	Right context
1	ffamcv01	ttendu arrive // # voilà donc / seuh en fait / je sais pas	si	... *ALE: pour toi / ça résumé bien seuh *CHA: / la situ
2	ffamcv01	# je continue ou ... *ALE: oui [/] oui [/] oui [/] oui //	si	tu as <autre chose / ouais // bien sûr // vas-y> // # *CH
3	ffamcv01	*CHA: <bon ouais [/] ouais // j' en ai encore / ouais //	si	ça peut [/]> # alors là / je vais lire un truc de Georges
4	ffamcv01	pendance excessive / elle menace l' autonomie de chacun //	si	l' autonomie excède certaines limites / # elle conduira à
5	ffamcv01	pas on peut # des fois [/] on [/] enfin on en sait rien //	si	dans vingt ans / on s' entendra toujours aussi bien // la
6	ffamcv01	vingt ans / on s' entendra toujours aussi bien // ça enfin	si	on s' aimera / machin et tout quoi // *ALE: mh *CHA: non
7	ffamcv01	va' // *EM: / <ce n' est jamais> linéaire // *CHA: mais	si	tu vires un truc à long terme / # si tu [/] # si tu es amo
8	ffamcv01	néaire // *CHA: mais si tu vires un truc à long terme / #	si	tu [/] # si tu es amoureux fou machin seuh / tu vas pas co
9	ffamcv01	A: <ce c' est pas [/] pas [/] que ça ira> // *CYR: <mais	si	tu es amoureux fou machin seuh / tu vas pas commencer à sc
10	ffamcv01	ais si tu sens> *CHA: tout le temps quoi // # *CYR: mais si tu	si	tu sens> *CHA: tout le temps quoi // # *CYR: mais si tu
11	ffamcv01	ns / qu' il y a une contrainte d' adaptation / je sais pas	si	tu sens / qu' il y a une contrainte d' adaptation / je sai
12	ffamcv01	non [/]> # non [/] non // parce que <l' amour> [/] *CYR: <	si	c' est <vraiment de l' amour> // *CHA: <non [/] non [/]>
13	ffamcv01	ne <contrainte c' est un équilibre> // *CHA: <mais non //	si	tu dis je vais / je vais devoir <faire l' effort> ... *C
14	ffamcv01	chose que l' amour passionné // # <enfin> // *CHA: <mais	si	tu aimes> c' est pas une contrainte // <ah non ah non // s
15	ffamcv01	idéal // # *CHA: <mais ça serait [/] ça serait à chier /	si	// c' est le même à la base // # mais il y a comme une +
16	ffamcv01	tout à fait //hhh *ALE: ah [/] ah la preuve //hhh *VAL:	si	c' était ça> // *CYR: <un puzzle / c' est fixe // c' est
17	ffamcv01	x mois seuh ... *ALE: <xxx> *CYR: <mais pas forcément />	si	ça reste toujours pareil / ben c' est bon // j' ai vu deux
18	ffamcv01	n est parti plutôt dans [/] sc non> *VAL: <ben pour moi /	si	tout ce que tu veux se trouve dans l' autre // *VAL: ouai
19	ffamcv01	cadre / denrée périssable // # *VAL: hhh ouais // *CYR:	si	tu veux mais non> [/] *CHA: c' est toi qui dramatises tou
20	ffamcv01	tu manges trop de pizzas / tu t' en lasses // # et donc /	si	tu manges trop de pizzas / tu t' en lasses // # et donc /
21	ffamcv01	// c' est à ça que ça sert> // *VAL: <bé ouais // donc /	si	tu restes avec la personne que tu aimes / tu t' en lasses
22	ffamcv01	ça sert> // *VAL: <bé ouais // donc / si à un moment [/]	si	à un moment [/] si à [/] si à un moment où tu [/]> si il y
23	ffamcv01	// *VAL: <bé ouais // donc / si à un moment [/] si à [/]	si	à [/] si à un moment où tu [/]> si il y a un moment où tu
24	ffamcv01	nc / si à un moment [/] si à [/] si à un moment où tu [/]>	si	à un moment où tu [/]> si il y a un moment où tu te dis /
25	ffamcv01		si	il y a un moment où tu te dis / il faut que je fasse ça /

The automatic extraction of *if* and *si* from the conversations component in each corpus gave a total of 717 tokens in English, 401 in French and 940 in Spanish, which were then manually examined.





CHAPTER 4

CASE STUDIES

This chapter comprises three case studies that will offer a wide panorama of how *if/si*-constructions are used in spoken interaction. Section 4.1 is concerned with cases of conditional subordination: in Section 4.1.1, I examine conditionals in parliamentary discourse, whereas in Section 4.1.2 I analyse conditionals in face-to-face, informal conversation. Section 4.2, in contrast, is devoted to cases of *if/si*-insubordination.

4.1 CONDITIONAL SUBORDINATION

4.1.1 Case study I: parliamentary discourse

This section is concerned with conditionals in parliamentary discourse. As mentioned in Chapter 3, due to the large size of the three corpora of parliamentary discourse employed, I restrict the analysis to a sample of 1,500 tokens in total (500 in each language) so that the data can be examined both qualitatively and quantitatively. After the automatic retrieval of the data, tokens were manually analysed to discard cases that did not correspond to conditional subordination. Table 6 summarises the frequency of *if/si*-conditionals in the data sampled and quantifies the occurrence of other cases of *if* and *si*, which were discarded from the analysis that follows in subsequent sections.

Table 6. Frequency of *if* and *si* in parliamentary discourse

Type	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Conditional	470	94.00	384	76.80	360	72.00
Complement	3	0.60	72	14.40	109	21.80
Concessive	18	3.60	31	6.20	13	2.60
Manner	5	1.00	7	1.40	14	2.80
Insubordinate	4	0.80	2	0.40	4	0.80
Adverb <i>si</i> [Engl. <i>so</i>]	-	-	4	0.80	-	-
Total	500	100%	500	100%	500	100%

As expected, conditional constructions are quantitatively dominant in the three languages. It should be noted, however, that English shows a higher proportion of conditionals (94%) than French and Spanish (76.80% and 72%, respectively), where *si*-constructions are employed with a greater diversity of uses.

Turning to non-conditional uses, we can find complement, concessive, manner and insubordinate clause patterns in the three corpora. In addition, French *si* can also function as an intensifying adverb (equivalent to English *so*), a use which is not possible in English or Spanish, which just present conjunctive uses of *if* and *si*.

Complement clauses introduced by *if* and *si* express indirect interrogatives, as in (48) to (50). Cross-linguistic differences in these constructions are remarkable: on the one hand, English only presents three *if*-complement clauses (0.60%), whereas the two Romance languages display a much higher use of these constructions (14.40% in French and 21.80% in Spanish). This seems to suggest that the role played by French and Spanish indirect interrogatives in parliament is fulfilled by other constructions in English, most likely by the direct interrogative counterpart. In contrast, by employing indirect interrogatives in a higher frequency, French and Spanish seem to prefer a less confrontational questioning strategy.

(48) I do not know if the honorary Gentleman did his own research or got someone else to do it (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(49) Dans ma question complémentaire, j'ai demandé si on avait un plan d'action pour protéger les Canadiens et l'économie contre l'ascension des prix de l'énergie (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

'In my complementary question, I have asked if we had an action plan to protect the Canadians and the economy against the rise of energy prices'

(50) Ha dicho algo que no sé si es verdad (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

'You have said something that I don't know if it's true'

Concessive clauses introduced by *if* and *si*, often referred to as concessive conditionals (König, 1986), are also present in parliament, especially in French, where their occurrence is higher.³⁹ These cases are excluded from the core analysis in this dissertation on the grounds that the construction, far from being conditional, conveys a relation which is primarily concessive and could be paraphrased by *although* or *even though*. Although there are cases in which the concessive meaning can be achieved by *if* alone, as in (51), only two cases of this pattern were detected in the sample examined. In contrast, concessive conditionals are usually expressed through clauses introduced by complex conjunctions in which *if* and *si* are accompanied by a second element that precedes or follows the conditional conjunction in order to reinforce the concessive meaning. Thus, these constructions are frequently introduced by *even if* in English, as in (52); by its French equivalents *même si* (30 tokens) and, to a much lesser extent, *si bien* (1 token), as in (53) and (54); and by their Spanish counterparts *si bien* (11 tokens) and, less frequently, *incluso si* (2 tokens), as in (55) and (56).

(51) That includes women's institutes, of which I am a devoted follower, if not an eligible member (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(52) **Even if** that were not the case, battery may not be sustained in tort for the reasons that I have given (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(53) Tout enfant né au Canada devient automatiquement citoyen canadien, **même si** ses parents vivent illégalement dans notre pays (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘Every child born in Canada becomes automatically a Canadian citizen, even if their parents live illegally in our country’

(54) Nos efforts ont été vains, **si bien** que nos inquiétudes demeurent entières (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘Our efforts have been vain, even if our concerns remain deep’

³⁹ For an independent study on the concessive uses of *si* in French parliamentary discourse, see Svensson (2012a, 2012c), based on data from the European Union parliamentary debates.

(55) En cuanto a la cuarta enmienda, **si bien** hay una serie de competencias que están en manos de algunas comunidades autónomas – quiero recordar Euskadi y Cataluña – sobre el modelo, la normalización y los tipos de señales de tráfico, no es menos cierto que al Ministerio del Interior le corresponde el diseño y normalización de nuevas señales de tráfico. (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘As for the fourth amendment, even if there is a series of competences that are in the hands of some autonomous communities – I want to recall Euskadi and Catalonia – about the model, normalization and types of traffic signs, it isn’t less certain that the design and normalization of new traffic signs corresponds to the Interior Ministry’

(56) El hombre se quedó un poco desconcertado y nos dijo: aquí, esta cuestión no plantearía ningún problema; **incluso si** el Parlamento escocés hubiera votado y aprobado ser independiente, ¿qué tendría que decir el Parlamento de Westminster? (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘The man was a bit bewildered and told us: here, this question would not pose any problem; even if the Scottish Parliament had voted and approved to be independent, what would the Parliament at Westminster have to say?’

Less frequent in use in the three languages (<3%) are clauses of manner introduced by *as if* in English, *comme si* in French, and *como si* in Spanish, as illustrated in (57) to (59).

(57) **As if** that were not bad enough, there are other potential scandals to consider (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(58) C’est **comme si** on utilisait un marteau pour écraser un problème au lieu de trouver une solution raisonnable (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘It is as if we used a hammer to smash a problem instead of finding a reasonable solution’

(59) [...] en estos momentos no sabemos si la limpieza de rocas **como si** fueran piedras de catedrales afectó a la productividad de las mismas o no (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘[...] in this moment we do not know if the cleaning of the rocks as if they were cathedrals’ stones affected their productivity or not’

Similarly, cases of insubordination introduced by *if* and *si* are also attested in low frequencies in parliamentary discourse (<1%). Examples in English, French and Spanish are presented in (60) to (62).

(60) If I could just have 30 seconds (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(61) Si seulement les députés d’en face présentaient une motion ayant du mordant (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘If only the members of parliament in front presented a motion that was scathing’

(62) Si esto ya lo hemos tenido (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘We have already had this’⁴⁰

Finally, as already mentioned, French *si* can also be employed as an intensifying adverb, as shown in (63). This use of *si* as an adverb only appears in 4 tokens in French and is not possible in English and Spanish.

(63) Pourquoi est-il si facile pour la ministre de saupoudrer de l’argent que d’en rendre compte? (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘Why is it so easy for the Minister to sprinkle money rather than reporting?’

All the cases just exemplified are excluded from the analysis that follows in subsequent sections, which focuses solely on the conditional uses of *if/si*-constructions. These amount to 470 conditionals in English, 384 in French and 360 in Spanish.

⁴⁰ Translation of *si* into *if* is not possible here.

4.1.1.1 Variables examined for the analysis of conditionals in parliament

After the extraction of the data from the three corpora and the manual discarding of non-conditional cases of *if* and *si*, the conditional tokens were manually examined and annotated in a database according to a number of variables. The variables coded and the possible values for each variable are summarised in Table 7 below. These variables are then discussed in turn in subsequent sections.

Table 7. Variables coded for the analysis of conditionals in parliament

Variable	Values
Metafunction	Ideational Interpersonal Textual
Degree of likelihood	Real condition Potential condition Unreal condition
Position	Initial Final Middle
Markedness of the apodosis	Marked Unmarked
Modal in the apodosis	Modal Non-modal

4.1.1.2 Metafunction

The classification of conditionals according to their metafunction in ideational, interpersonal or textual conditionals shows, in general, similar cross-linguistic results, as shown in Table 8 below. The three languages present the same rank of metafunctions. As expected, ideational conditionals are cross-linguistically dominant; they are followed by interpersonal conditionals, and, finally, textual conditionals, with a much lower attestation in the three languages. If we focus on ideational conditionals, we can observe that the preference for this type of conditionals is much sharper in English and French (78.51% and 76.04%, respectively) than in Spanish (59.17%). Spanish, in contrast with the two other languages, presents a lower proportion of ideational conditionals that correlates with a higher use of interpersonal constructions (38.89%, as opposed to 20.64% in English and 23.18% in French). As already mentioned, textual conditionals appear in low frequencies in the three languages, but, again, Spanish textual conditionals double the frequency of this category in English or French.

Table 8. Metafunctions of conditionals in parliament

Metafunction	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Ideational	369	78.51	292	76.04	213	59.17
Interpersonal	97	20.64	89	23.18	140	38.89
Textual	4	0.85	3	0.78	7	1.94
Total	470	100%	384	100%	360	100%

Figure 10. Metafunctions of conditionals in parliament, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals

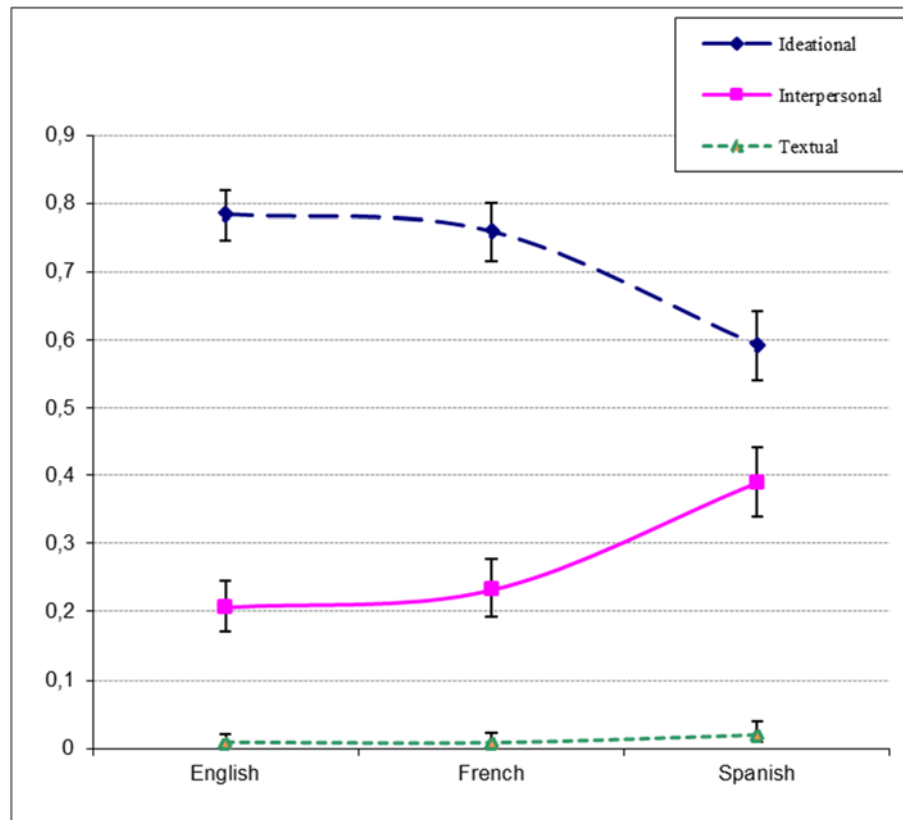


Figure 10 above graphically depicts the distribution of conditionals across the three metafunctions in the three languages, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals (Wallis, 2013a, 2013b, forthcoming). As can be observed, statistically significant differences are attested in ideational and interpersonal conditionals in Spanish, as compared to the other two languages, where the difference between the ideational versus the interpersonal pattern is not statistically significant.⁴¹

⁴¹ Here and in other figures hereafter, I use 95% Wilson confidence intervals. A confidence interval is “the range of values that an observation is likely to hold given a particular probability of error” (Wallis, 2013b: 355). In our case, this probability of error would be 0.05, which implies that the confidence level is 95%. Plotting confidence intervals

Ideational conditionals express a cause in the protasis or subordinate clause and its consequence or effect in the apodosis or main clause, as in (64) to (66). These constructions allow members of parliament to hypothesize and, as Van Dijk (1997: 32) noted, to convey “politically biased explanations of social and political facts”, which is a powerful mechanism as an argumentative strategy in parliament. Ideational *if/si*-constructions are also advantageous in parliament since, as it also happens in legal settings, “every action or requirement, from a legal point of view, is hedged around with, and even depends upon, a set of conditions which must be satisfied before anything can happen” (Crystal & Davy, 1969: 203). In fact, as also noted by Montolío Durán (2010) for Spanish, it is frequent to have several protases for one single apodosis, indicating various conditions that should be fulfilled so that the rest of the sentence is true. This pattern has been found in English and Spanish – with cases encountered with up to four protases for the same apodosis and with both protases and apodoses in sentence-initial position – as illustrated in (67) and (68), but have not been attested in the French sample. In examples (67) and (68) the conditional conjunction introducing the protases is marked in bold type and their corresponding apodoses appear in italics.

(64) Common owners are adopting the custom of charging residents for access to their homes if driveways pass over common ground (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(65) Ces réductions auraient pu être plus immédiates et plus importantes si le gouvernement avait décidé de réduire davantage ses propres dépenses (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘These reductions could have been more immediate and more important if the government had decided to reduce more their own expenses’

allows a clear visualization of which results are statistically significant. When the confidence intervals (in the form of I-shaped bars) do not overlap at any point, the results are statistically significant. In contrast, when any point of the confidence interval falls within another confidence interval, the results are not statistically different. The length of the confidence interval is also meaningful. The smallest the confidence intervals, the greater the level of certainty on the observed values. See Wallis (2013a, 2013b, forthcoming) for full discussion on confidence intervals and their importance in corpus linguistics research.

(66) Si no hay acuerdo entre los dos grandes partidos, nunca alcanzaremos la mayoría necesaria para llevar a cabo esas modificaciones. (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘If there is no agreement between the two major parties, we will never reach the necessary majority to carry out those modifications’

(67) Clearly, **if** there were 581 an obvious evil in society, **if** the huge proportion of companies were making no progress on the matter, **if** people were being thrown out of their jobs cruelly and unnecessarily at the age of 55 and **if** no company was introducing proposals to employ older people, *perhaps the House would come to a view* (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(68) *Seguramente, señor presidente del Gobierno, este debate hoy no se produciría en esta cámara si* en su momento, *si* al inicio de esta legislatura, *si* en el mes de junio, *si* en el mes de julio se hubiera afrontado la reforma de la financiación de los partidos políticos para poder desarrollar una campaña ante un referéndum. (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘Certainly, Prime Minister, this debate would not take place today in this chamber if in due course, if at the beginning of this parliamentary term, if in June, if in July it had been faced the reform of the financing of political parties to be able to carry out a campaign before a referendum’

It is also frequent to find an interrogative in the apodosis of an ideational conditional, to ask about a hypothetical situation. This can be done in order to obtain a response from another member of parliament or, more frequently, as a rhetorical device, in which the speaker uses the interrogative just to bring up a certain issue and to continue elaborating on it in their discourse. Again, this type of constructions was only found in the English and Spanish samples, as shown in (69) and (70); no single case of an interrogative apodosis was attested in French.

(69) That is a perfectly reasonable thing for the Government to say, but if they strongly disagree with the Environment Agency, who would win? (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(70) Si están en la creencia de que deben hacerlo, ¿por qué no aborda ya entonces el Gobierno estas políticas? Realmente, se hace raro. Sé que es legítimo, por supuesto, y que tiene cabida en el Reglamento [...] (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘If you believe that you should do that, why does the government not tackle these policies? Indeed, it is rare. I know it is legitimate, of course, and it has a place in the regulations [...].’

The employment of ideational conditionals also allows members of parliament to render messages less assertive, which is a powerful mechanism in parliament, where facts and actions should be presented as negotiable through debate and discussion rather than as imposed. This rendering of the message as less assertive can be done in two ways: either through reformulation, as in (71), or through the employment of a conditional to express a relation of cause between two events, as in (72). In (71), the speaker employs *cuando* (‘when’) and later reformulates the message through a conditional, as a means of making the message more hypothetical and, therefore, less assertive. Similarly, in example (72), the speaker employs a conditional construction not to utter a hypothesis – as the speaker admittedly recognises that they all want to increase the number of adoptees – but rather to simply express cause. In examples such as (72) *if* can be paraphrased by *since*.

(71) El debate del referéndum, **cuando se celebre, si llega a celebrarse**, esperando que para entonces nadie haya querido asumir la responsabilidad de bloquear el proceso, será la ocasión para que expliquemos las distintas concepciones de Europa que unos podemos tener [...] (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘The referendum debate, when it is held, if it is held, hoping that by then nobody would have wanted to assume the responsibility of blocking the process, will be the occasion to explain the different conceptions of Europe that some of us can have [...].’

(72) So if we want to increase the current 3,000 adoptees by at least 50 per cent., as we all do, there is plenty of scope in the existing material, and we need to concentrate on why more such people are not coming forward or being approved as adopters (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

Turning to interpersonal conditionals, the focus of these constructions is on establishing relations between speakers and addressees. In these cases, the *if/si*-construction no longer expresses a cause-consequence relation between two propositions. On the contrary, interpersonal conditionals allow speakers to express their opinions and viewpoints, to mitigate their messages and to engage with other members of parliament, as in (73) to (75).

(73) If the honorary Gentleman thinks that that is tinkering, I can live with that, but I think that the measures contribute to radical change (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(74) Si mes calculs sont exacts, nous sommes très loin du compte (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘If my calculations are correct, we are very far away of the total’

(75) Si es tan importante para todos ustedes, creo que también es importante que tenga un debate en toda su integridad, con toda la grandeza que tiene la Constitución (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘If it’s so important for all of you, I think it’s also important that it has a debate in all its integrity, with all the grandeur that the Constitution has’

Sometimes interpersonal conditionals also express evidential meaning, indicating the source of information that the speaker follows in uttering the assertion in the main clause, as in (76). Also frequent within the interpersonal category are epistemic conditionals (Sweetser, 1990), which present claims or conclusions in the apodosis, based on given evidence presented in the protasis. These constructions allow to verbalise a process of reasoning or logic, as illustrated in (77) below.

(76) El propagandístico lema del pleno empleo como objetivo no atiende a unos mínimos de cobertura digna y se contenta con asumir la normalidad de un paro estructural de más de un millón y medio de personas, si nos atenemos a las cuentas del Partido Popular (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘The propagandist slogan of full employment as objective doesn’t attend to a certain minimum of decent coverage and it is happy to assume the normality of structural unemployment of more than a million and a half of people, if we stick to the numbers of the People’s Party’

(77) Si j’ai eu autant d’attention soudainement, c’est que le fait d’obtenir 100 signatures d’appui signifiait que ce projet de loi avait toutes les chances possibles d’être information que les Canadiens demandent et à laquelle ils ont droit (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘If I have suddenly had so much attention, it’s because the fact of obtaining 100 signatures in support meant that this bill had all the possible chances of being information that the Canadians required and which they had the right to have’

Finally, last in the rank of frequency are textual conditionals. Despite their cross-linguistic low frequency, textual conditionals have been found in the three languages analysed, where they serve as a mechanism of cohesion that allows members of parliament to move backwards and forwards in their speech through conditionals. Illustrations of textual conditionals in the three languages are provided in (78) to (80). In (78) and (80), the conditional allows the speaker to move to the next point in their argumentation; while in (79), the speaker recapitulates cohesively what has just been said through the employment of the *si*-construction.

(78) If we look at the problems involved in opening an account, we see that the complex system put in place by the Government [...] (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(79) Si je fais une synthèse du cas présent, le gouvernement du Québec souhaite qu’il y ait des fonds dans la recherche [...] (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘If I make a summary of the present case, the government of Quebec wishes to have funds for research’

(80) Por si alguno no lo sabe, lo quiero recordar: de las viviendas construidas, las que se destinan a VPO no llegan al 10 por ciento, y si vamos a las viviendas en alquiler, de todas esas viviendas protegidas, se destinan al alquiler entre el 1 y el 2 por ciento. (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘Just in case someone doesn’t know, I want to remind them: out of the built dwellings, those allocated to the social housing system don’t attain 10 per cent, and if we go to rental dwellings, of all the social housing, only between 1 and 2 per cent are intended for rental’

4.1.1.3 Degree of likelihood

As mentioned in Chapter 2, conditionals may express different degrees of likelihood forming, as Horsella and Sindermann (1992: 138) noted, “a cline from conditionals that are sufficient and necessary to those that are merely probable, thus determining the degree of certainty of the conclusions reached”. Adopting the terminology proposed by Harris (1986a, 1986b), we distinguish here three types of constructions, which range from more to less likely: real, potential and unreal conditions. Table 9 below summarises the absolute frequencies and percentages of each type across languages.

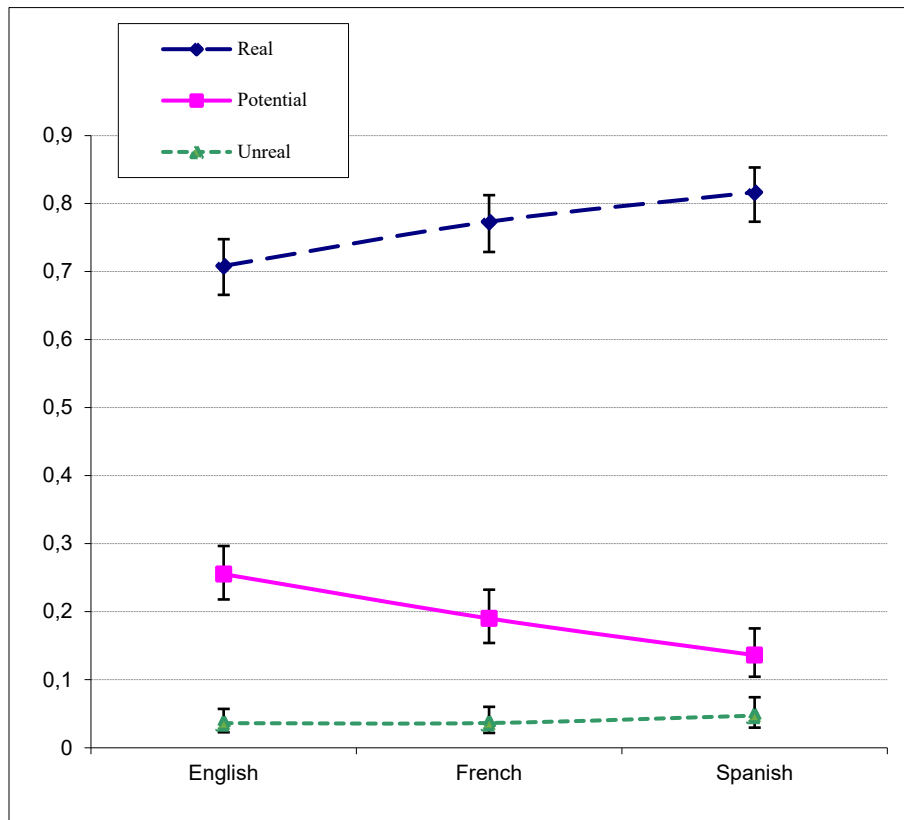
Table 9. Degree of likelihood of the condition in parliament

Semantic type	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Real condition	333	70.85	297	77.34	294	81.67
Potential condition	120	25.53	73	19.01	49	13.61
Unreal condition	17	3.62	14	3.65	17	4.72
Total	470	100%	384	100%	360	100%

As it happened with the metafunctions, again, the three languages present similar results. Real conditions are dominant in parliament cross-linguistically, followed by potential conditions, and finally unreal conditions. As also illustrated in Figure 11, Spanish presents a higher proportion of real conditions, and this difference is statistically significant as compared to English. As shown in Figure 11, the difference is not

statistically significant when compared to French, which, in terms of frequency of real conditions, represents a middle position here between English and Spanish. Much less frequent are potential conditions. Again, English and Spanish show statistically significant differences, with potential conditions being less frequent in Spanish, and French again representing an intermediate position. Finally, unreal conditions are found at very low frequencies in the three languages, with no significant cross-linguistic differences.

Figure 11. Degree of likelihood of the condition in parliament, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals



It is not surprising that the three languages present such a clear preference for real conditions. These are the default type since the speaker does not take any position in expressing how likely it is that the condition is fulfilled. In other words, the propositional content of the utterances is merely presented as possible, without any further indication of its degree of hypotheticality, as noted in examples (81) to (83).

(81) If the Conservative party wants to do some rethinking, this strikes me as a very appropriate place to start (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(82) Si nous arrivons à sauver les principes de l'assurance-maladie, il y aura encore plus d'argent sur la table (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

'If we get to protect the principles of health insurance, there will be more money on the table'

(83) Si no hay acuerdo entre los dos grandes partidos, nunca alcanzaremos la mayoría necesaria para llevar a cabo esas modificaciones (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

'If there is no agreement between the two major parties, we will never reach the necessary majority to carry out those modifications'

In contrast, both potential and unreal conditions are much more marked in terms of the likelihood of the condition coming to fruition. Thus, the position adopted by the speaker when uttering a potential condition is no longer neutral, as it happened in real conditions. On the one hand, potential conditions express a hypothetical possibility, as in (84) to (86). The condition is presented as something which can happen only potentially. This can be a useful strategy for members of parliament when they want to be cautious and present their messages as more tentative. On the other hand, unreal conditions refer to a past time event which cannot be changed. Therefore, these are constructions in which the propositional content in the apodosis is impossible to be fulfilled. Unreal conditions are usually employed in parliament to express reproach about a past time situation, as Alcaide Lara et al. (2016: 154) have already noted for Spanish. Illustrations of unreal conditions in the three languages are provided in (87) to (89).

(84) If we thought that the commissions' membership could in any way be sullied, some honorary members would certainly argue that, when their seats were redistributed or carved up, the boundary commissions made erroneous judgments because of political bias or partiality somewhere in the system (Hansard Corpus-British Parliament)

(85) Cela demanderait peu d'effort si on le faisait maintenant (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

'That would demand little effort if we did it now'

(86) Ya dije antes que si fuera el último paso no sería aceptado por nuestro grupo parlamentario y por las formaciones políticas que lo integran (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

'I have already said that if this were the last step, it would not be accepted by our parliamentary group and by the political parties that integrate it'

(87) I strongly believe that if Parliament had been given the opportunity to vote on the export of those arms, they would never have been exported (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(88) Si son objectif premier avait été de consolider la recherche biomédicale et de faire en sorte qu'il y ait de plus grandes interactions entre les chercheurs qui oeuvrent dans ce domaine, il aurait pu faire transiter des fonds vers les provinces (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

'If his first objective had been to consolidate biomedical research and to make sure that there would be bigger interactions between the researchers that work in that domain, it could have been able to pass the funds to the provinces'

(89) Ello hubiera sido posible si el Estado español hubiera tenido empeño en conseguirlo (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

'That would have been possible if the Spanish State had had the determination to achieve it'

If we examine real, potential and unreal conditions according to the type of metafunction conveyed by the construction (ideational, interpersonal or textual), as discussed in Section 4.1.1.2, we observe interesting cross-linguistic patterns. As shown in Table 10 below, corpus findings show a clear cross-linguistic trend in ideational conditionals. In the three languages, the ideational type is the one which displays the widest array of degrees of likelihood, which are ranked in very similar frequencies in the

three languages. Real conditions represent 69.92% of the total number of ideational conditionals in English, 73.29% in French and 69.48% in Spanish. Next in frequency are potential conditions, which represent a considerable fewer proportion, amounting to 25.74% of the total number of ideational constructions in English, 22.60% in French and 22.54% in Spanish. Last in frequency are unreal conditions, which represent 4.34% of the total number of ideational conditionals in English, 4.11% in French and, slightly more in Spanish, with 7.98%. The picture just described does not differ from the general findings of the different degrees of likelihood presented in Table 9 and Figure 11 above, which do not take into account the metafunction variable. In other words, ideational conditionals conform to the general trend with respect to the degree of likelihood.

However, if we focus on interpersonal conditionals, a different scenario arises. Despite interpersonal conditionals showing, again, a preference for real conditions, there are notable differences in frequency cross-linguistically. While real conditions dominate almost exclusively in French and Spanish interpersonal conditionals (89.89% and 99.29%, respectively), English shows a lower proportion (73.20%) of real conditions in the interpersonal type. This lower proportion of real conditions in English, with respect to the other two languages, correlates with a significantly higher use of potential conditions in the interpersonal type (25.77%), which can be employed in English as a strategy to express detachment or caution on the part of the speaker in the management of interpersonal relations. Potential conditions, in contrast, are encountered in much lower proportions in French and Spanish (7.86% and 0.71%, respectively). Finally, unreal conditions are almost absent in interpersonal conditionals in the three languages. Hence, it can be concluded that interpersonal conditionals clearly favour neutral conditionals in French and Spanish, with English presenting more variation between neutral and potential conditions in interpersonal conditionals. Since interpersonal conditionals focus on the establishment of relations between speakers and addressees, going beyond the mere expression of conditionality, it seems reasonable that speakers no longer need to express a degree of hypotheticality and opt for the more neutral choice of a real condition. That is, the discourse-pragmatic complexity of interpersonal conditionals seems to correlate with a simplification in the degree of likelihood in French and Spanish; whereas this simplification does not take place in English, where interpersonal conditionals also employ potential conditions for mitigation purposes.

Finally, turning to textual conditionals, the results show that all the instances in the corpus, in the three languages, contain a real condition. Although there are very few cases of textual conditionals, the findings seem to suggest, again, that correlating with a more complex discourse-pragmatic function – in which the conditional serves as a mechanism of cohesion with a preceding or subsequent part of the discourse – there seems to be a simplification at the level of the degree of likelihood, favouring the real type of condition. Table 10 below summarises the absolute frequencies and percentages of ideational, interpersonal and textual conditionals with respect to the degree of likelihood of the construction.

Table 10. Relation between degree of likelihood and metafunction in parliament

Metafunction	Degree of likelihood	English		French		Spanish	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Ideational	Real	258	69.92	214	73.29	148	69.48
	Potential	95	25.74	66	22.60	48	22.54
	Unreal	16	4.34	12	4.11	17	7.98
	Total	369	100%	292	100%	213	100%
Interpersonal	Real	71	73.20	80	89.89	139	99.29
	Potential	25	25.77	7	7.86	1	0.71
	Unreal	1	1.03	2	2.25	0	0.00
	Total	97	100%	89	100%	140	100%
Textual	Real	4	100.00	3	100	7	100
	Potential	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Unreal	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Total	4	100%	3	100%	7	100%

4.1.1.4 Position

Conditional constructions allow three different positions for the *if/si*-clause: initial, in which the protasis precedes the apodosis, as in (90) to (92); final, with the reversed order, the apodosis preceding the protasis, as in (93) to (95); and middle, in which the protasis interrupts the apodosis, as in (96) to (98). Initial position for the protasis is a language universal, that is, it is the default order for conditionals across languages (Greenberg, 1963: 84; Haiman, 1978) and, in general, for all types of subordinate clauses in adverbial sentences (Verstraete, 2007: 246). Consequently, both final and middle positions for the protasis are marked options, in that they differ from the canonical conditional order.

Haiman (1978) argues that conditionals are topics that constitute the framework of reference for the subsequent discourse. This seems to be the case when the protasis occurs

in initial position, as in (90) to (92), in which the *if/si*-clause sets the discourse participants in a particular framework in which to utter the following clause. In contrast, when the *if*-clause occurs in final position, it seems that the speaker gives more prominence to the result or the consequence, as shown in (93) to (95). Ford and Thompson (1986: 367) also argue that, due to the nature of spoken discourse, “speakers sometimes produce conditionals as afterthoughts or reminders”, hence their placement in non-initial position. Ford and Thompson’s (1986: 368) results also reveal that a large proportion of non-initial *if*-clauses serve a politeness function, in particular, to express deference or respect for the addressee. This usage is also found in parliamentary discourse, where the employment of conditionals to convey politeness and mitigation is typically found when the protasis occurs in middle position, as in (96) to (98).

(90) If we are talking about generating true, real and dynamic community involvement, surely we need to set the ground rules at the outset rather than as part of the overall process (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(91) Si ce programme peut être amélioré, il faut prendre les mesures qui s’imposent pour l’améliorer en vue des cinq prochaines années (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘If this programme could be improved, we have to take the measures that are imposed to improve for the next five years’

(92) Si usted permitiera un referéndum, o que lo convocara otra institución, nosotros respetaríamos el resultado (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘If you allowed a referendum, or allowed that it was called by another institution, we would respect the result’

(93) Second homes have half the council tax that is charged on the same house if it is used as a first home (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(94) J’estime que le conseiller législatif devra cesser d’exercer ces fonctions et respecter son serment professionnel si c’est ce qu’on attend de lui (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘I consider that the legislative counsel will have to stop performing these duties and respect his oath of office if that is what we expect of him’

(95) Es verdad que son las empresas las que tienen que competir y afrontar la creación de más y mejores factores de producción avanzados y especializados, pero esta labor debe ser compartida por las políticas públicas que deben generar un entorno en el que cualquier sector pueda prosperar si las empresas se muestran dinámicas y consiguen elevados niveles de productividad (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘It is true that companies have to compete and face the creation of more and better advanced and specialized production factors, but this duty must be shared by public policies, which must generate an environment in which any sector can prosper if the companies show dynamism and obtain high levels of productivity’

(96) That is a novel and, if I may so, obnoxious constitutional doctrine, which is certainly not acceptable to me (Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

(97) Les mesures antimercantiles que contient le projet de loi, si nous pouvons les appeler ainsi, ne seront mises en application que dans deux ans, peut-être quatre (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘The anti-mercantile measures that the bill contains, if we can call them like that, will not be implemented in two years only, maybe in four’

(98) Sobre la última intervención del representante de la Chunta Aragonesista, señor Labordeta, quiero decir que la he escuchado, si me permite que se lo diga, con toda simpatía, simpatía personal (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘About the last intervention by the representative from the Chunta Aragonesista, Mr Labordeta, I want to say that I have listened to it, if you allow me to say so, with all sympathy, personal sympathy’

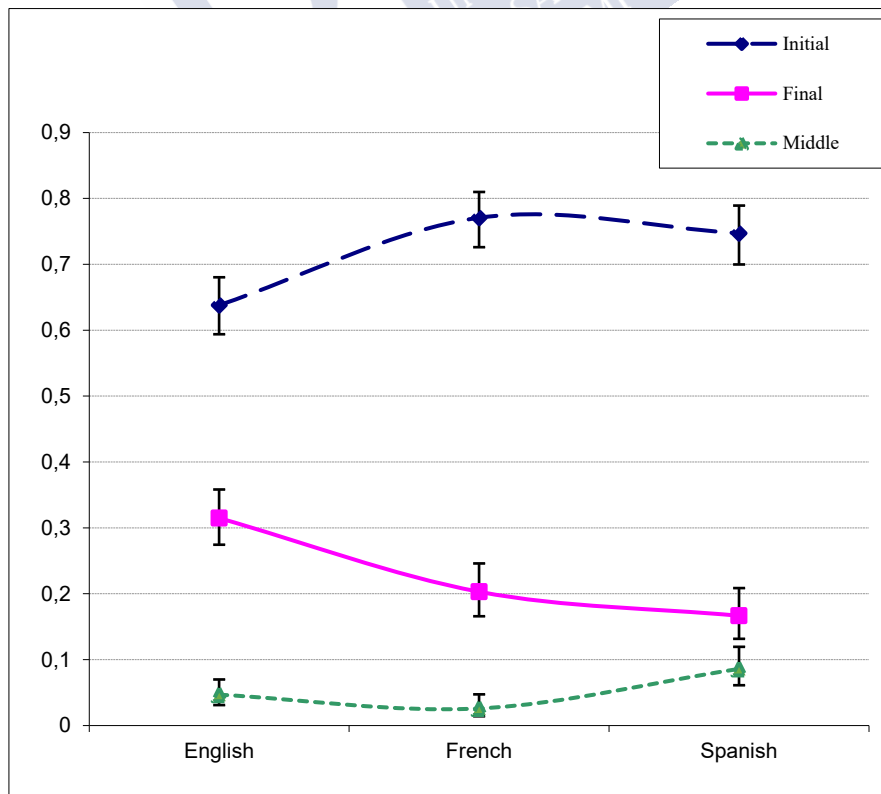
Table 11 displays the absolute frequencies and percentages of each position across the three languages. The results show the same frequency rank for the three positions cross-linguistically: initial position is the dominant one, followed by final and middle

position in the three languages. These findings go in line with the general trend, showing that initial position clearly predominates in parliamentary discourse. However, as graphically depicted in Figure 12 below, statistically significant differences have been found for initial position in English, as compared to French and Spanish. Although initial position is also dominant in English, its frequency reduces in favour of a greater preference for final position, where English also presents statistically significant differences, outnumbering both French and Spanish. Finally, middle position is attested at low frequencies in the three languages. It should be remarked, however, that middle position represents one third (31 out 91) of all the non-initial position (final and middle) conditionals in Spanish, as opposed to English and French, where the proportion is far lower.

Table 11. Position of the *if/si*-clause in the conditional construction in parliament

Position of the <i>if/si</i> -clause	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Initial	300	63.83	296	77.08	269	74.72
Final	148	31.49	78	20.31	60	16.67
Middle	22	4.68	10	2.61	31	8.61
Total	470	100%	384	100%	360	100%

Figure 12. Position of the *if/si*-clause in parliament, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals



As suggested above and also in line with Ford and Thompson (1986), it seems that the *if/si*-clause serves different functions depending on the ordering of the protasis and the apodosis in the conditional construction. Table 12 below presents the quantitative results of the relation between the variables position and metafunction. Although initial position presents no difference when comparing ideational and interpersonal metafunctions in French and Spanish, the results in English exhibit a different picture. Interpersonal conditionals in English show no preference for either initial or non-initial position, with 30.93% of the *if/si*-clauses occurring in final position and 19.59% in middle position. This high use of non-initial position in interpersonal conditionals also explains the overall higher frequency of final position in English graphically illustrated in Figure 12 above, as opposed to French and Spanish, which, contrary to what happens in English, display a preference for initial versus non-initial position regardless of metafunction. Finally, all the textual conditionals occur in initial position across languages, given their linking function in discourse.

Table 12. Relation between position and metafunction in parliament

Metafunction	Position	English		French		Spanish	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Ideational	Initial	248	67.21	223	76.37	158	74.18
	Final	118	31.98	68	23.29	43	20.19
	Middle	3	0.81	1	0.34	12	5.63
	Total	369	100%	292	100%	213	100%
Interpersonal	Initial	48	49.48	70	78.65	104	74.29
	Final	30	30.93	10	11.24	17	12.14
	Middle	19	19.59	9	10.11	19	13.57
	Total	97	100%	89	100%	140	100%
Textual	Initial	4	100.00	3	100.00	7	100.00
	Final	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Middle	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Total	4	100%	3	100%	7	100%

4.1.1.5 Markedness of the apodosis

As discussed in Section 4.1.1.4, *if/si*-clauses can appear in three different positions in the conditional construction. When the apodosis occurs sentence-finally, the conditional construction can optionally contain a marked apodosis, introduced by *then* in English, *donc* in French and *entonces* or *pues* in Spanish. Haiman (1978: 576) argues that *then* “constitutes a pronominalized form of the conditional clause” and that this marker

reinforces the causal connection between the protasis and the apodosis. In particular, this reinforcement seems to be useful “when the subordinate clause is particularly long or when the syntax of the conditional structure is especially complex” (Puente-Castelo, 2016b: 170). Despite long and complex sentences being frequent in parliamentary language, where there are abundant cases of subordination (Bayley, 2004: 13), the data sampled in English and French do not contain any marked apodosis, contrary to expectation. Similarly, the Spanish dataset only presents 3 conditionals in which the apodosis is introduced by *entonces*. Spanish marked apodoses occur in cases of particularly lengthy sentences with several protases, hence the need to mark explicitly the beginning of the apodosis, as in (99).

(99) **Si** Europa es una comunidad de valores y principios fundados en un legado cultural que denominamos la civilización europea, **si** decimos, además, que esa comunidad se traduce en el respeto a la dignidad humana, la libertad, la democracia, la igualdad, el Estado de derecho y el respeto de los derechos humanos, **entonces** requiere ser eficazmente protegida y promovida en su vivencia cotidiana por los ciudadanos (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘If Europe is a community of values and principles founded on a cultural legacy that we call European civilisation, if we say, furthermore, that such community is translated into respect for human dignity, for freedom, for democracy, for equality, for the rule of law, and for the respect for human rights, then it is required to be effectively protected and promoted in its daily experience by the citizens’

One of the reasons for the absence of marked apodoses in English could be that *then* is considered to mark the construction as being more categorial, presenting the conditional as an existing reality rather than as a hypothetical possibility (Dancygier & Sweetser, 1997: 109; Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2008: 202). This could disfavour the use of marked apodoses in parliamentary discourse, where discourse should be presented as negotiable rather than imposed.⁴² With respect to French, Beeching (2016b:

⁴² It should be noted, however, that marked apodoses are attested in higher frequencies (>16%) in more authoritarian genres in English, as is the case of courtroom discourse (Lastres-López, 2019: 67).

213) mentions that *donc* was very frequent in conditional apodoses in earlier French, but has fallen into disuse in the present-day language, which explains its absence in the present corpus.

4.1.1.6 Modal in the apodosis

The occurrence of modal verbs in conditional apodoses is characteristic of conditional constructions in English (Gabrielatos, 2007, 2010, 2019), as illustrated in (100).

(100) If it converted to a horse business, no business rate **would** still be charged
(Hansard Corpus – British Parliament)

While in English most of the conditionals in parliamentary discourse contain a modal verb in the apodosis (67.45%), the picture is completely different in French and Spanish conditionals, in which only 21.09% and 12.78% of the conditionals, respectively, employ a modal verb in the apodosis, as shown in Table 13.

Table 13. Modal verbs in the apodoses of conditionals in parliament

Modal verb in the apodosis	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Modal	317	67.45	81	21.09	46	12.78
Non-modal	153	32.55	303	78.91	314	87.22
Total	470	100%	384	100%	360	100%

The low frequency of modal verbs reported in French and Spanish *si*-constructions is by no means surprising. Modal verbs in the two Romance languages play a much less important role than they do in English due to the fact that verbal endings on the lexical verb in French and Spanish can encode meanings equivalent to those expressed by English modals.⁴³ By way of illustration, the French and Spanish conditional constructions presented in (101) and (102) do not contain a modal verb, but are translated

⁴³ For a contrastive study on a specific category of modal verbs – modals of obligation – in English and French political speeches, see Lewis (2015). Her results show that modals of obligation generally (not in conditionals in particular) occur in similar frequencies in both languages (Lewis, 2015: 162). This suggests either that the lower attestation of French modal verbs reported here is connected with their use in conditionals in particular or that the languages examined may display more similar cross-linguistic results when looking at specific categories of modal verbs.

into English using the modal verbs *would* and *will*, respectively. Similarly, a translation of example (100) from English to French or Spanish would not contain a modal verb in the target language. The modal verbs which are employed in French and Spanish parliamentary discourse – *pouvoir*, *devoir* and *falloir*, in French; and *poder* and *deber*, in Spanish – constitute an exception to the generalization just presented, since their meanings cannot be encoded by verbal endings.

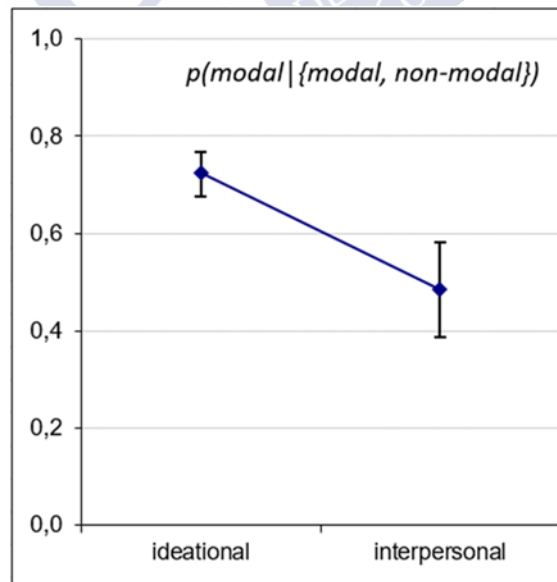
(101) Cela demanderait peu d’effort si on le faisait maintenant (Hansard Corpus – Canadian Parliament)

‘That would demand little effort if we did it now’

(102) Si hoy supera las enmiendas de totalidad, su trámite estará presidido por el diálogo, como he dicho (Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados)

‘If it overcomes the overall amendments, your procedure will be led by dialogue, as I have said’

Figure 13. Modal verbs in apodoses of ideational and interpersonal conditionals in parliament, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals



Focusing on English, we observe that the occurrence of modal verbs is not stable across metafunctions. Leaving aside textual conditionals, given their low frequency of

occurrence (4 tokens), we observe clear differences in the use of modal verbs in ideational and interpersonal conditionals. While 72.36% of the ideational conditionals contain a modal verb in the apodosis, interpersonal conditionals show the reverse pattern, with the percentage of modal verbs decreasing to 48.45%. As depicted in Figure 13 above, this difference in the use of modal verbs across metafunctions is statistically significant. A Cramér's V ($\phi = 0.207$) shows a near medium effect size for the association between metafunction and modal verb in parliamentary discourse.

4.1.1.7 Summary and conclusions from parliamentary discourse

This case study has explored conditional constructions in parliamentary interaction. Corpus findings have shown that conditionals are primarily used in parliamentary discourse in their ideational function, that is, to convey a condition under which an event is enabled, with the protasis indicating the cause and the apodosis the effect or consequence. Although this function is the dominant one cross-linguistically, conditionals also express interpersonal functions in parliamentary discourse, allowing speakers to establish relations with other members of parliament to express their opinions and judgements or to mitigate their messages. To a much lesser extent, *if/si*-constructions can also serve textual purposes in parliament, allowing speakers to construct discourse cohesively through the employment of conditionals. Cross-linguistically, while English and French present an almost identical behaviour in terms of metafunction, with more than 75% of the conditionals serving an ideational function, Spanish ideational conditionals occur in a lower frequency (59.17%), favouring a higher percentage of use of conditionals as interpersonal devices in parliament. This suggests that in British and Canadian parliamentary sessions there is less expression of the viewpoint or judgments of the speaker or less direct engagement with the other party than there is in Spanish, or at least, that such functions are conveyed in English and French by other linguistic devices.

In terms of the degree of likelihood expressed in the conditional construction, results have also shown that neutral conditions are cross-linguistically dominant in parliamentary discourse, followed by potential conditions and, finally, unreal conditions. It is worth noting that English presents a lower proportion of real conditions, as compared to the two

Romance languages, as well as a higher frequency of potential conditions. That is, members of the British parliament employ conditionals to express a higher degree of hypotheticality more often than in the two other languages. If we analyse the degree of likelihood in each type of metafunction, another finding worth remarking is related to the degree of likelihood in interpersonal conditionals across the three languages. While interpersonal conditionals in French and Spanish only opt for potential conditions very rarely (7.86% and 0.71% respectively), this percentage increases up to 25.77% in the case of English. Thus, in English the choice of a potential condition in an interpersonal conditional is probably motivated by the desire of the speaker to mitigate the utterance, given the higher degree of hypotheticality expressed in potential conditions as opposed to their real counterparts.

As for the position of the *if/si*-clause in the conditional construction, results have shown a preference for the canonical order, with the protasis preceding the apodosis, in the three languages. However, English differs significantly, again, from the two Romance languages, in that it shows a notably higher proportion of conditionals occurring in final position. The analysis of these position results in the light of the metafunctions has shown that initial and non-initial position for the protasis are equally distributed in English interpersonal conditionals, as opposed to French and Spanish, which maintain the preference for initial position across metafunctions.

Another feature examined was the markedness of the apodosis by *then* or by its equivalents in French and Spanish. Despite these markers usually being favoured in particularly complex and lengthy sentences, as is usually the case in parliamentary discourse, marked apodoses are absent in English and French parliamentary discourse and attested in only three cases in Spanish. The fact that marked apodoses are regarded as more categorial in tone (Dancygier & Sweetser, 1997) disfavours its use in parliamentary discourse, a genre where negotiation is undoubtedly at play. Conversely, in more ‘authoritarian’ genres, as is the case of courtroom discourse, marked apodoses are reported in significantly higher frequencies in English and Spanish (Lastres-López, 2019: 67).

Finally, as expected, modal verbs occur in significantly higher frequencies in English than in French or Spanish, which resort to other grammatical mechanisms to convey some

of the meanings expressed in English by modal verbs. Corpus findings have also uncovered that the presence or absence of a modal verb in the apodosis in English correlates with the metafunction of the construction, with ideational conditionals favouring modal verbs in a significantly greater proportion than their interpersonal counterparts.

4.1.2 Case study II: conversations

This case study moves away from parliamentary discourse to address conditionals in informal conversation. After the automatic extraction of instances of *if* and *si* from the corpora of conversations in the three languages, the tokens were manually classified and cases of *if* and *si* as non-conditionals were discarded. Table 14 below quantifies the frequencies of *if/si*-conditionals and of other cases of *if* and *si* attested in the corpora. The latter were discarded for full analysis in the following sections.

Table 14. Frequency of *if* and *si* in conversation

Type	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Conditional	445	62.07	189	47.14	293	31.17
Interruption, repetition, false start etc.	105	14.65	75	18.70	243	25.85
Complement	87	12.13	68	16.96	157	16.70
Manner (<i>as if, comme si, como si</i>)	33	4.60	9	2.24	16	1.70
Insubordinate	30	4.18	9	2.24	196	20.85
Concessive (<i>even if, même si, incluso si</i>)	15	2.09	15	3.74	2	0.21
Comparative (<i>than if, que si</i>)	2	0.28	0	0	1	0.11
Affirmative <i>si</i> [Engl. <i>yes</i>]	-	-	27	6.73	-	-
Adverb <i>si</i> [Engl. <i>so</i>]	-	-	5	1.25	-	-
<i>S'il vous plaît/ s'il te plaît</i> [Engl. <i>please</i>]	-	-	4	1.00	-	-
Transcription error (<i>si</i> instead of <i>sí</i> [Engl. <i>yes</i>])	-	-	-	-	21	2.24
<i>Por si acaso</i> and its variants <i>por si</i> and <i>si acaso</i> (Engl. <i>just in case</i>)	-	-	-	-	11	1.17
Total	717	100	401	100	940	100

As shown in Table 14, conditional constructions amount to 445 in English, 189 in French and 293 in Spanish. English conditionals represent 62.07% of the total number of tokens, whereas this proportion is lower in the two Romance languages (47.14% in French and 31.17% in Spanish). As it also happened in parliamentary discourse, *si*-constructions in French and Spanish are used for a wider range of uses.

Before proceeding to an in-depth analysis of conditionals in conversation, it seems necessary to provide a brief overview of the tokens that are discarded for further analysis in subsequent sections. Among those cases are many instances of speech-related phenomena such as repetitions, false starts, reformulations, (self-) interruptions, changes of topic and discontinuous conditionals⁴⁴, which are frequent in the dataset given the informal and spontaneous nature of the conversations analysed.

As it happened in parliamentary discourse, other cases discarded include complement, concessive, manner and in subordinate clauses, as illustrated in Section 4.1.1 with examples from parliamentary language. Particularly interesting is the case of in subordinate clauses, whose frequency increases dramatically in conversation. Whereas in parliamentary discourse in subordination represented less than 1% of the total number of *if/si* tokens, in conversation this figure increases to 4.18% in English and 2.24% in French. The most dramatic increase, however, occurs in Spanish, where in subordinate clauses represent 20.85% of the total number of cases. Coinciding with this higher amount, Spanish contains a much more reduced proportion of conditionals, 31.17%, as opposed to 62.07% in English and 47.14% in French. It seems, therefore, that some of the functions that conditionals have in English and French are replaced by in subordinate clauses in Spanish. A full cross-linguistic discussion of the usages and functions of in subordination will be provided in the third case study, in Section 4.2.1.

Also discarded from the conversations sample are cases in which the conditional construction is part of a comparative construction, as in (103). These cases amount to 3 and were only found in the English and Spanish corpora.

⁴⁴ Discontinuous conditionals can be of two different types: (i) cases in which the protasis and the apodosis are uttered by different speakers; or (ii) cases in which the protasis and the apodosis are uttered by the same speaker, but contain an interruption made by another speaker in the middle.

(103) And I think <,> that uh it being messed around by the food processor <,> very nearly said word processor is uhm very is a lot less harmful you know <,> has a lot less of bad effects than if you're working with your hands cos I mean it's the knife is cool isn't it <,> (ICE-GB:S1A-057 #225:1:A)

In French, three further cases were also discarded: (i) instances of affirmative *si* (equivalent to English *yes*), as in (104); (ii) cases of *si* as an intensifying adverb (equivalent to English *so*), as in (105); and (iii) cases in which *si* is part of the grammaticalized construction *s'il vous plaît* and its variant *s'il te plaît* (equivalent to English *please*), as in (106).

(104) A: tu habites pas Aix donc? (C-ORAL-ROM ffamcv02)

'Don't you live in Aix then?'

B: mais si / enfin depuis un an [...]

'Yes indeed, well since last year [...]

(105) Non / non // attends // faut pas être non plus si tranché (C-ORAL-ROM ffamcv01)

'No, no, wait, it's not necessary either to be so entrenched'

(106) A: toi tu en veux combien? six? (C-ORAL-ROM fpubcv06)

'You, how many do you want? six?'

B: sept / s'il te plait

'Seven, please'

Turning to Spanish, further cases discarded include: (i) transcription errors in the corpus in which affirmative *sí* (English *yes*), appears, by mistake, without the graphic accent (i.e. it is transcribed as *si* instead of *sí*), resulting in a homograph to conditional *si*, as illustrated in example (107); and (ii) cases in which *si* is part of the grammaticalized

construction *por si acaso* and its variants *por si* and *si acaso* (equivalent to English *just/just in case*), as in (108).

(107) A: Quieres unas fresas? (C-ORAL-ROM efamcv13)

‘Do you want some strawberries?’

B: Si / tres o cuatro [...]

‘Yes, three or four [...]

(108) Y te doy el mío también // por si acaso / pasara algo // no sé (C-ORAL-ROM epubdl05)

‘And I give you mine as well, just in case something happened, I don’t know’

4.1.2.1 Variables examined for the analysis of conditionals in conversation

After the discarding of cases of *if* and *si* that do not correspond to conditional constructions, the data were manually annotated in a database according to a number of variables, to be discussed in turn in the next sections. Table 15 provides a summary of the variables examined in conversation and their possible values. Note that the variables subfunction and stance/engagement will only be applied to interpersonal conditionals.

Table 15. Variables coded for the analysis of conditionals in conversation

Variable	Values
Metafunction	Ideational Interpersonal Textual
Subfunction	Epistemic Opinion/evaluation Politeness Relevance Reservation Metalinguistic
Stance/engagement	Stance Engagement
Degree of likelihood	Real condition Potential condition Unreal condition
Position	Initial Final Middle
Markedness of the apodosis	Marked

	Unmarked
Modal in the apodosis	Modal Non-modal

As the reader will note, most of the variables analysed coincide with those examined in the parliamentary dataset in order to allow cross-genre discussion. Due to the interpersonal nature of the conversations examined, the interpersonal metafunction allows a much more detailed analysis in conversations, as has already been shown in Lastres-López (2020) for English. Thus, we adopt a twofold approach for interpersonal conditionals, providing: (i) a fine-grained distinction of six different interpersonal subfunctions; and (ii) a classification of these constructions depending on whether the notions of stance or engagement prevail in the interpersonal construction.

4.1.2.2 Metafunction

The classification of the conditional constructions according to the metafunction they express in conversation reveals interesting findings. In contrast to what happened in parliamentary discourse – where ideational conditionals clearly prevailed cross-linguistically – the results from the conversation dataset show similar frequencies for both the ideational and the interpersonal types in the three languages. In fact, it is noteworthy that interpersonal conditionals outnumber their ideational counterparts in English (53.94%) and Spanish (51.54%), as shown in Table 16. In contrast, the textual metafunction is found at very low frequencies across the three languages.

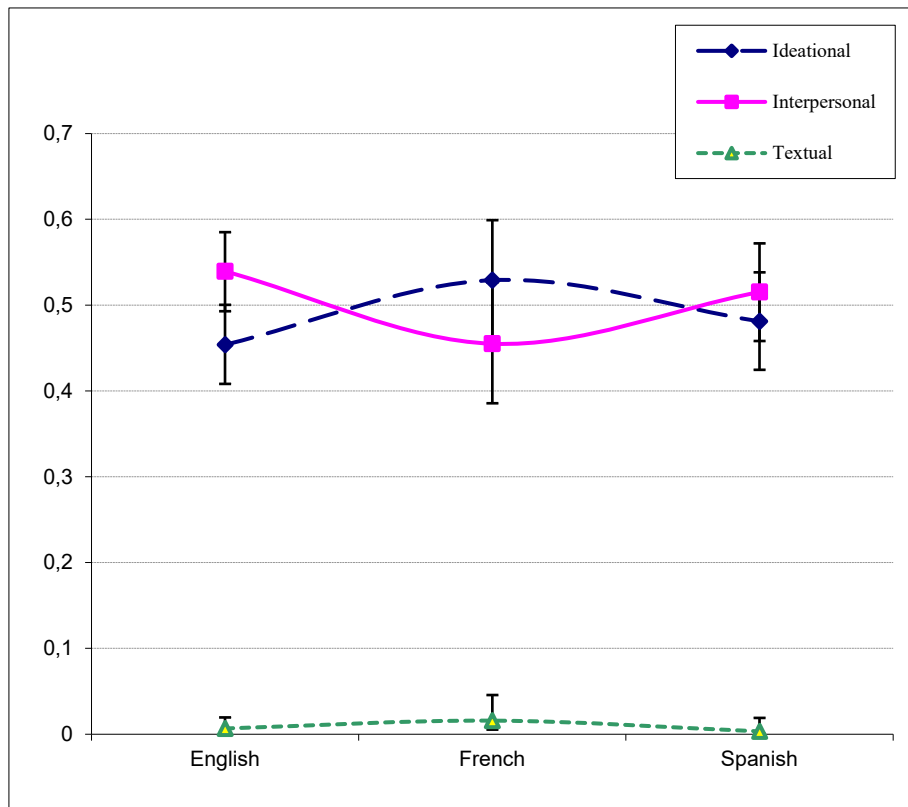
Table 16. Metafunctions of conditionals in conversation

Metafunction	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Ideational	202	45.39	100	52.91	141	48.12
Interpersonal	240	53.94	86	45.50	151	51.54
Textual	3	0.67	3	1.59	1	0.34
Total	445	100%	189	100%	293	100%

These cross-linguistic similarities and differences across metafunctions are graphically depicted in Figure 14. Although interpersonal conditionals outnumber their ideational counterparts in English and Spanish, the 95% Wilson confidence intervals

show that the difference between ideational and interpersonal conditionals is not statistically significant in any of the three languages, given the similar frequencies between these two metafunctions.

Figure 14. Metafunctions of conditionals in conversation, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals



Ideational conditionals include constructions which display a cause-consequence pattern, as shown in examples (109) to (111). These constructions are frequent in conversation since they allow speakers to hypothesise about events and their consequences or effects. As it happened in parliamentary discourse, the syntax of conversation can also be particularly complex and in some cases ideational conditionals can contain various protases for the same apodosis, as in (112).

(109) She'd be terribly offended if we didn't come and pick her up (ICE-GB:S1A-006 #322:1:A)

(110) Si je pars / une mesure trop tard / euh je finis la chanson (C-ORAL-ROM ffamdl04)

‘If I start a bar later, eh I finish the song’

(111) Si no me gustan / las vendo (C-ORAL-ROM efamdl02)

‘If I don’t like them, I sell them’

(112) And people have told me this which is that if you <,> put a very small amount of water in and if you then <,> wizz it for longer the same amount of water a small amount of water does the binding for you [...] (ICE-GB:S1A-057 #184:1:A)

Interpersonal conditionals are also frequent in conversation given the interactional and spontaneous nature of this type of discourse. Indeed, as already mentioned, they outnumber ideational conditionals in English and Spanish, where they are the most frequent type of conditional in conversation. Interpersonal conditionals are pragmatically rich and complex constructions and constitute a very heterogeneous category. Given their complex nature in conversation, a more detailed classification is proposed in Section 4.1.2.2.1 below, where these constructions are examined (i) in terms of the interpersonal subfunction they fulfil in conversation, and (ii) as to whether they convey stance or engagement.

Finally, textual conditionals are very infrequent in conversation. Nevertheless, they are present in the three languages, where they are used as mechanisms of cohesion in conversation. As cohesive elements, textual conditionals help speakers go backwards or forwards in their discourse and also aid addressees to follow the conversation with these cues. Examples of textual conditionals are illustrated in (113) to (115). In (113) the textual conditional helps the speaker shift to another point in discourse and directs the attention of the addressee towards the machine mentioned. Similarly, in (114) the speaker uses the conditional as a cue to introduce a personal experience. Likewise, in (115) the speaker also moves cohesively to discuss new technologies through a conditional construction.

(113) You can see if you look at the machine over there <,> the two top the higher dials the small one the one near the hand switch <,> there you can see that the

<unclear-word> is down to its lowest <unclear-words> on to the right (ICE-GB:S1A-088 #033:1:A)

(114) [...] je n’imaginai pas que une telle désertification pouvait exister en Allemagne // bon si je me réfère à mon expérience de cet été en Poméranie [...] (C-ORAL-ROM ffamd106)

‘I didn’t imagine that such a desertification could exist in Germany, well, if I refer to my own experience this summer in Pomerania’

(115) Pero bueno / eso es lo mismo / yo creo que en todas las cosas // porque si nos vamos también a las nuevas tecnologías / pues para qué queremos ordenadores mejores / pero más trabajo ... pues estamos siempre igual (C-ORAL-ROM epubdl03)

‘But well, that’s the same, I think, with everything, because if we consider new technologies, then why do we want better computers but more work... then we are always like that’

4.1.2.2.1 *A focus on interpersonal conditionals*

As already mentioned, interpersonal conditionals are a heterogeneous and complex category. Conversation is a prototypical setting for interpersonality, where speakers express opinions and engage with others, hence the significantly abundant use of interpersonal conditionals in this register as compared to parliamentary discourse.

In order to provide a detailed account of the different interpersonal subfunctions that conditionals may have in conversation, I depart from Warchal’s (2010) taxonomy, one of the very few which addresses interpersonal conditionals specifically. Warchal distinguishes seven subtypes of interpersonal conditionals, namely: epistemic, politeness, relevance, metalinguistic, reservation, rhetorical and concessive. Since her study is based on a sample of academic research articles, the array of subfunctions in conversation is expected to be slightly different.

For the purposes of this dissertation, I disregard two of the subtypes proposed by Warchal (2010): the rhetorical and the concessive categories. The former, which Warchal takes from Quirk et al. (1985), corresponds to cases in which “the proposition in the

matrix clause is patently absurd [and] the proposition in the conditional clause is shown to be false” (e.g. *If they are Irish, I’m the Pope*; Quirk et al., 1985: 1094). These cases are practically absent in Warchal’s (2010) sample and were not found either in the corpus of conversations examined here. The latter subtype, concessive conditionals, are not taken into consideration here, since they represent a discourse relation different from conditionality, as already mentioned in the literature review in Chapter 2.

In addition, given the interactional nature of the exchanges examined here, it is necessary to add another subtype for those *if/si*-constructions which express an opinion or an evaluation on the part of the speaker, as in (116). This function is typical of informal conversation, but is probably absent from Warchal’s analysis given the type of texts examined, scientific writing, where writers present facts rather than express opinions.

(116) It’s not so much of a commitment if you take the registry side out (ICE-GB:S1A-071 #262:1:C)

Table 17. Interpersonal subfunctions of conditionals in conversation

Interpersonal subfunction	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Epistemic	98	40.83	27	31.39	67	44.37
Opinion/evaluation	76	31.67	31	36.05	49	32.45
Politeness	31	12.92	6	6.98	20	13.25
Relevance	13	5.42	2	2.32	15	9.93
Reservation	12	5.00	3	3.49	0	0.00
Metalinguistic	10	4.16	17	19.77	0	0.00
Total	240	100%	86	100%	151	100%

Table 17 above provides the absolute frequencies and percentages of the six different subtypes of interpersonal conditionals examined. The two most frequent interpersonal subfunctions are the epistemic and opinion/evaluation subtypes, which coincide in the three languages. Third in frequency are politeness conditionals in English and Spanish. Conversely, in French, the politeness subtype reduces its frequency by half, as compared to English and Spanish; and the third position in the French frequency rank is occupied by the metalinguistic subtype, which represents 19.77% of the total number of interpersonal conditionals in this language. Relevance, reservation and metalinguistic conditionals are less frequent (with the exception of the French metalinguistic subtype just mentioned), and it should be noted that no case of the reservation and metalinguistic

categories were found in the Spanish corpus, which thus presents the most reduced taxonomy of interpersonal subfunctions, with only four subtypes identified.

As just mentioned, epistemic conditionals, illustrated in (117) to (119), are the most frequent interpersonal subtype cross-linguistically. It has been argued that epistemic conditionals can be paraphrased by “If *I know* [protasis], then *I conclude* [apodosis]” (Sweetser, 1990: 121). This construction verbalizes a process of reasoning, in which the speaker makes a conclusion based on the propositional content presented in the protasis. Here, the epistemic function is extended so as to include mechanisms of reasoning more broadly, also taking into account cases in which the speaker assumes, rather than knows, the propositional content of the protasis as true, given that the boundaries between what someone indeed knows or simply assumes in a given context are fuzzy and often not easy to determine. Following this proposal, these constructions could be paraphrased as “If *I assume* [protasis], then *I conclude* [apodosis]”.

(117) If you are born in the Gorbals and there's absolutely no chance of your having any money well then you grow up as a normal Gorbals-born person (ICE-GB:S1A-075 #090:1:B)

(118) S'ils font / si / des tapas // c'est pour ça que ça s'appelle "Tapas Café" (C-ORAL-ROM ffamcv02)

'If they make so many tapas, it's for that that it is called Tapas Café'

(119) Es que si quieres un local grande / será porque vas a hacer restaurante (C-ORAL-ROM efamcv12)

'It's just that if you want big premises, it will be because you are going to set up a restaurant'

In English, epistemic conditionals usually contain *then* to mark the beginning of the apodosis ($n=42$, 42.86%), as in (117) above. In fact, some authors refer to this marker as “epistemic then” (Schiffrin, 1987, 1992). The presence of *then* in these constructions emphasizes the idea of “a deductive conclusion in its main clause” (Davies, 1979: 162), which is precisely the function of epistemic conditionals, and also sets clear boundaries

between the protasis and the apodosis. In French and Spanish, in contrast, the apodoses of epistemic conditionals are marked in significantly lower proportions ($n=4$, 14.81%, in French; and $n=18$, 26.87% in Spanish), making less emphatic the idea of concluding from the protasis. When *then* and their equivalents in French and Spanish are employed to mark the beginning of the apodosis, the *if/si*-clause necessarily appears in initial position, since the reverse order is ungrammatical when the apodosis is marked. Consequently, the conditional construction follows the logical order of the pattern of reasoning, with the deduction or conclusion appearing after the assumption. Marked apodoses will be discussed in more detail in Section 4.1.2.5.

Next in frequency are opinion/evaluation conditionals, which are the second most frequent interpersonal subtype in the three languages. As their name indicates, these are conditionals which express an opinion, viewpoint or evaluation on the part of the speaker, as in (120) to (122). In these constructions, the protasis contains a condition but the main clause, rather than expressing a consequence or effect, conveys the opinion or evaluation of the speaker on a certain situation or state of affairs: *it's interesting*, *c'est pas normal* and *qué más nos da*, respectively.

(120) And also <,> if people have a very limited vocabulary which a lot of people do <,> it's interesting looking at them and seeing <,> in what ways it's limited <,> (ICE-GB:S1A-037 #162:1:B)

(121) Si aucun de nous / n'utilise jamais la rocade / quelque part / c'est pas normal que ce soit nous / les cinquante qui payons / pour que un Hollandais pase gratuitement (C-ORAL-ROM fpubcv01)

'If none of us uses the ring road, some part, it's not normal that it is us, the fifty who pay, for a Dutch to have free access'

(122) Pero si vamos si nos tienen que cambiar el suelo // qué más nos da (C-ORAL-ROM efamcv14)

'But, come on, if they have to change the floor, what does it matter'

The politeness subfunction, third in frequency in English and Spanish and fourth in French, is illustrated in (123) to (125). The idea that conditionals are among the wide range of linguistic resources that may be used as mitigators in discourse was briefly sketched by Caffi (2007: 65, 67). Conditionals, as constructions that typically display hypotheticality, present content as less assertive and, thus, encode information in a more hedged way. Ford (1997: 405) argues that offers and invitations made through conditionals are a way of dealing with the negative face issues of the addressee, as is the case in (123) to (125). Interestingly, for this politeness function, Spanish uses in the vast majority of the cases *si quieres* (16 out of the 20 politeness cases in Spanish) as a fixed form, as in (125), although other variants such as *si te parece bien* and *si lo prefieres* are also attested in the corpus. Similarly, although French presents a low proportion of politeness conditionals, it also shows a preference for *si tu veux* and other variants with the verb *vouloir* (5 out of the 6 politeness cases in French), despite other options also being possible, as in (124). In contrast, English, coinciding with a higher use of this interpersonal subfunction, also presents more variation in the *if*-clauses that convey politeness, with *if you want* dominating (11 out of the 31 politeness cases in English), but also a wide range of other possibilities (*if you like, if possible, if you wish, if you could, if you don't mind, etcetera*). This seems to suggest a certain degree of fixation in the politeness subfunction for particular *if/si*-clauses, especially those associated with the verb *want* and their equivalents in French (*vouloir*) and Spanish (*querer*).

(123) I'm just going to top up my tea again if you don't mind (ICE-GB:S1A-067 #169:1:B)

(124) Écoutez euh on si ça vous dérange pas / je préférerais avoir la réponse aujourd'hui (C-ORAL-ROM fpubdl02)

'Listen, if it doesn't bother you, I would prefer to have the answer today'

(125) Te has quedado con hambre? cómete esta si quieres yo no quiero (C-ORAL-ROM efamcv06)

'Are you hungry? Eat this if you want, I don't want it'

Fourth in frequency in English and Spanish are relevance conditionals, which are, in contrast, the least frequent interpersonal subtype in French. In these cases, the *if/si*-clause restricts the validity of the proposition expressed in the matrix clause assuming that what has been said is relevant for the addressee. In other words, as illustrated in examples (126) to (128), the speaker supposes that what is uttered in the main clause is of relevance and the *if/si*-clause helps the speaker frame the context in which what is uttered may be relevant. For instance, in (128), the speaker asserts that South America is different, but such claim is only relevant for the speaker in case they are talking about poverty, that is, the validity of the proposition is restricted to such context in particular. It should be noted that the classic category of relevance in conditionals (Austin, 1961) is broader in scope and also includes cases that are classified here as belonging to the politeness domain. In line with Warchal (2010), who also regards the politeness and relevance categories as distinct, constructions which express attenuation or mitigation in discourse, as a way of dealing with a possible attack on the negative face of the addressee, are classified as belonging to the politeness category. In contrast, mere relations of relevance, in which the function of the construction is to utter a message that the speaker considers that will be of interest or relevance for the interlocutor, are ascribed to the relevance subcategory.

(126) Oh those are the uhm those are Alastair Black's if you're interested (ICE-GB:S1A-070 #127:1:A)

(127) Ah c'est là / c'est là où je l'ai mis / maintenant / si ça tombe en panne (C-ORAL-ROM fpubcv08)

'Oh, it's there, it's there where I've put it now if it breaks down'

(128) Es que si hablamos de pobreza / es distinta Sudamérica (C-ORAL-ROM efamcv15)

'Well, if we talk about poverty, South America is different'

Reservation conditionals, only present in English and French, are constructions which "restrict the validity of the proposition in the apodosis because the author feels s/he may not have adequate extralinguistic knowledge to interpret the situation correctly"

(Warchal, 2010: 145). These constructions can be interpreted along the lines of *if I am correct*, as in (129) and (130). In reservation conditionals, the *if/si*-clause mitigates the force of the message, as it happens in politeness conditionals. However, contrary to what happened in their politeness counterparts, reservation conditionals serve to preserve the self-image of the speaker, rather than being a face-saving device for the addressee. Thus, in (129) and (130), the propositional content expressed in the apodoses is presented to the addressee as less assertive and is restricted to having been correctly interpreted by the speaker (*if I remember rightly, si j'ai bien compris*).

(129) And if I remember rightly you had jaundice didn't you (ICE-GB:S1A-028 #051:1:A)

(130) Enfin son mari c'est pareil apparemment / c'est un peu un cas aussi si j'ai bien compris / enfin ils sont en instance de divorce (C-ORAL-ROM ffamd108)

'Anyway, her husband is similar apparently, he's a bit of a case too, if I have understood correctly, anyway, they are in the process of divorcing'

As it happens with reservation conditionals, metalinguistic conditionals are also present in English and French only. Although they are the least frequent interpersonal subtype in English, they represent almost 20% of the total number of interpersonal conditionals in French, occupying the third position in the rank of subfunctions in this language. Metalinguistic conditionals are used to make comments or provide explanations on the content of certain stretches of discourse. Illustrations of metalinguistic conditionals in English and French are provided in (131) and (132) respectively. In (131), the speaker mentions that he/she only reads textbooks to then refine that by textbooks, he/she means reference books. By turning to the addressee in the *if*-clause, the speaker negotiates, to a certain extent, which term would be most suitable. Similarly, in (132), the speaker claims that the establishment is a large surface and, probably unsure whether this is the best term, uses the *si*-clause as a way of downtoning the claim and negotiating the appropriateness of the term. Interestingly, as it happened in politeness conditionals, metalinguistic conditionals also show a preference for specific *if/si*-clauses to fulfil this function. In French, 15 of the 17 metalinguistic conditionals use

si tu veux and other variants with the verb *vouloir*; whereas in English half of the metalinguistic conditionals employ *if you like*. This suggests that certain protases are specializing its use to specific interpersonal subfunctions, namely, politeness and metalinguistic conditionals.

(131) I told you I only read textbooks <,> that's all uh <,> reference books if you like
(ICE-GB:S1A-016 #347:1:B)

(132) Il y a aussi ceux qui découvrent le magasin / qui le connaissaient pas avant / parce que l'on a l'avantage d'avoir un magasin qui fait grande surface / si on veut bien (C-ORAL-ROM fpubdl04)

'There are also those who discover the shop, who didn't know it before, because we have the advantage to have a shop which is a large surface, if we want'

In terms of stance and engagement, interpersonal conditionals express a clear preference for the expression of stance in English and Spanish, in line with the general trend that stance is overall more frequent than engagement (Hyland, 2005). In contrast, both stance and engagement are expressed in much more similar proportions in French, as shown in Table 18.

Table 18. Stance and engagement in interpersonal conditionals

Stance/Engagement	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Stance	168	70.00	44	51.16	113	74.83
Engagement	72	30.00	42	48.84	38	25.17
Total	240	100%	86	100%	151	100%

The notions of stance and engagement are defined as “two sides of the same coin [which] [...] contribute to the interpersonal dimension of discourse” (Hyland, 2005: 176). Stance refers to the expression of “personal feelings, attitudes, value judgements, or assessments” (Biber et al., 1999: 966). Constructions expressing stance are, therefore, speaker-oriented utterances, where the focus is placed on how speakers convey their viewpoints and how they assess situations. Engagement, in contrast, is addressee-oriented, in that its focus is on pulling the interlocutors into the argument of the speaker

and guiding their interpretations and thoughts (Hyland, 2005: 176). The idea of speaker/addressee-orientation was also put forward earlier by Quirk et al. (1985: 1096), who argue that certain conditional constructions “hedge about the speaker’s own knowledge, whereas [others] [...] hedge about the hearer’s knowledge”. Illustrations of stance and engagement are provided in (133), which expresses the speaker’s stance, and (134), which is used to involve the addressee in the conversation.

(133) But it’s the sense of freedom of being able to just lie down if you want to roll over <,> (ICE-GB:S1A-003 #110:1:B)

(134) Uhm so I wouldn't say that I actually looked on religion as a bad thing if you see what I mean (ICE-GB:S1A-076 #156:1:B)

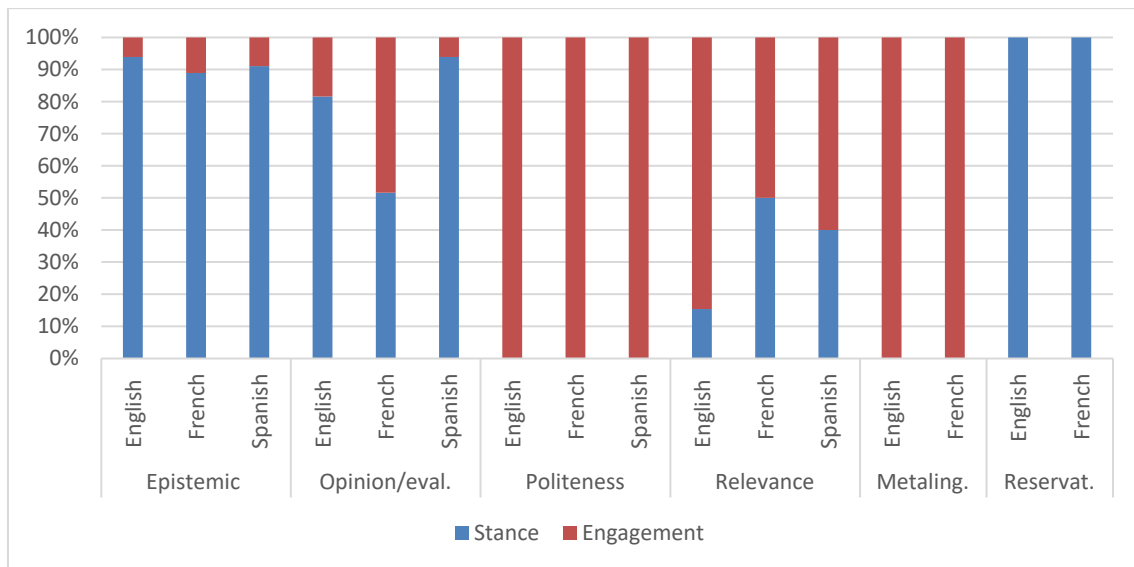
There are even cases in which exactly the same *if*-clause can convey stance or engagement depending on the context. For example, *if possible* in (135) expresses stance. The construction is speaker-oriented and indicates the desire of the speaker for travelling and working abroad. In contrast, the same sequence in (136) conveys engagement. The speaker mitigates the directive through the conditional and the *if*-clause is oriented towards the addressee, who is given the possibility to decline or to ask for a deadline extension, for example.

(135) And also I’d be very interested in travelling and working abroad if possible (ICE-GB:S1A-035 #006:1:B)

(136) I would like it done on Wednesday if possible (ICE-GB:S1A-038 #178:1:A)

Despite stance prevailing overall, there are important differences in the expression of stance and engagement across interpersonal subfunctions. Figure 15 shows the proportion of stance and engagement across the different subfunctions in each language.

Figure 15. Stance and engagement across interpersonal subfunctions



Three of the interpersonal subfunctions express both stance and engagement, namely: epistemic conditionals, opinion/evaluation conditionals and relevance conditionals. Epistemic conditionals primarily express stance, given that these constructions are used to verbalize reasoning patterns and make conclusions in the apodosis based on assumptions presented in the protasis. The verbalization of such mechanisms is usually an expression of the speakers' stance. As could be expected, in opinion/evaluation conditionals stance clearly prevails over engagement in English and Spanish. It is particularly noteworthy the case of French, where half of the opinion/evaluation conditionals are used to express engagement. These constructions, despite expressing an opinion or evaluation on the part of the speaker are used to engage with the addressee in a certain point of view, as illustrated in example (137), a use that is much less frequently attested in English and Spanish. These constructions in French typically contain a protasis with *si tu veux* and other variants with the verb *vouloir*. Finally, the third subfunction displaying both stance and engagement is relevance, in which engagement prevails, given that the nature of this function is to provide relevant information for the addressee or the context.⁴⁵

⁴⁵ Results from French, where both stance and engagement occur in similar proportions, should not be regarded as representative, given that there are only two cases of this subfunction in French.

(137) Si vous voulez c'est beaucoup plus complexe que ça (C-ORAL-ROM fpubdl01)

'If you want, it's much more complex than that'

In contrast, the other three interpersonal subfunctions – politeness, metalinguistic and reservation – express either stance or engagement only. Politeness and metalinguistic conditionals serve as vehicles to engage with the addressee. Both subfunctions intend to exert an influence on the interlocutor, in politeness conditionals this is done either by requesting something or by (rhetorically) allowing the addressee to grant permission, whereas in metalinguistic conditionals this is achieved by persuading the interlocutor to consider something in a particular manner. In contrast, reservation conditionals, express the speaker's stance. As already mentioned, reservation conditionals are used to express the limitations of the speaker on the validity of the proposition, and thus the stance of the speaker is presented through mitigation in these cases.

4.1.2.3 Degree of likelihood

As previously mentioned, conditional constructions can be classified depending on their degree of likelihood or probability of the fulfilment of the protasis, ranging from state of affairs that are presented as being more likely to happen – real conditions, as in (138) to (140) – to others with could only hypothetically occur – potential conditions, as in (141) to (143) – and finally, others which are impossible because they refer to past time events – unreal conditions, as in (144) to (146).

(138) You know you forget how awful some people are if you haven't seen them for ages <, > (ICE-GB:S1A-090 #211:2:A)

(139) Si je te demande d'en le faire / le premier / tu le mets par terre avec un peu de chance (C-ORAL-ROM ffamd11)

'If I ask you to do so, the first one, you knock it down with any luck'

(140) Si se te pica la muela no te enteras (C-ORAL-ROM efamcv06)

‘If you get a cavity in your back tooth, you don’t notice it’

(141) But I mean <, > I wouldn’t be opposed to <, > if I could get a job trying something else <, > uhm sort of short placements and things like that in that area (ICE-GB:S1A-035 #155:1:B)

(142) Sinon euh si on voulait vraiment une distance exacte / on la mesurait avec un mètre (C-ORAL-ROM ffamd125)

‘Otherwise eh if we really wanted an exact distance, we would measure it with a tape measure’

(143) [...] pero que si queríamos / ver / algo duro de tema de violencia doméstica / que nos fuéramos a una exposición que hay en / una galería ahí / en Serrano (C-ORAL-ROM efamd104)

‘But if we wanted to see something hard on the topic of domestic violence, that we should go to an exhibition which is in a gallery there, in Serrano’

(144) But uh it would’ve been nice if I had known I think (ICE-GB:S1A-017 #085:1:B)

(145) Donc que c’était une voiture vachement bonne / que si elle l’avait revendue / elle aurait bien pu la vendre cher (C-ORAL-ROM ffamcv11)

‘Well, that it was a really good car, that if she had resold it, she would have been able to sell it high’

(146) [...] si lo hubiera hecho antes / podría hacer / después / o sea / podría haber / planteado mi vida al revés (C-ORAL-ROM efamd113)

‘If I had done it before, I could do later, I mean, I could have set up my life the other way around’

Results from conversation show that real conditions clearly predominate in conversation, despite presenting different frequencies in each language, with real conditions in English representing 76.18%, 88.89% in French and 89.76% in Spanish. Whereas almost 90% of the conditions in French and Spanish belong to this category,

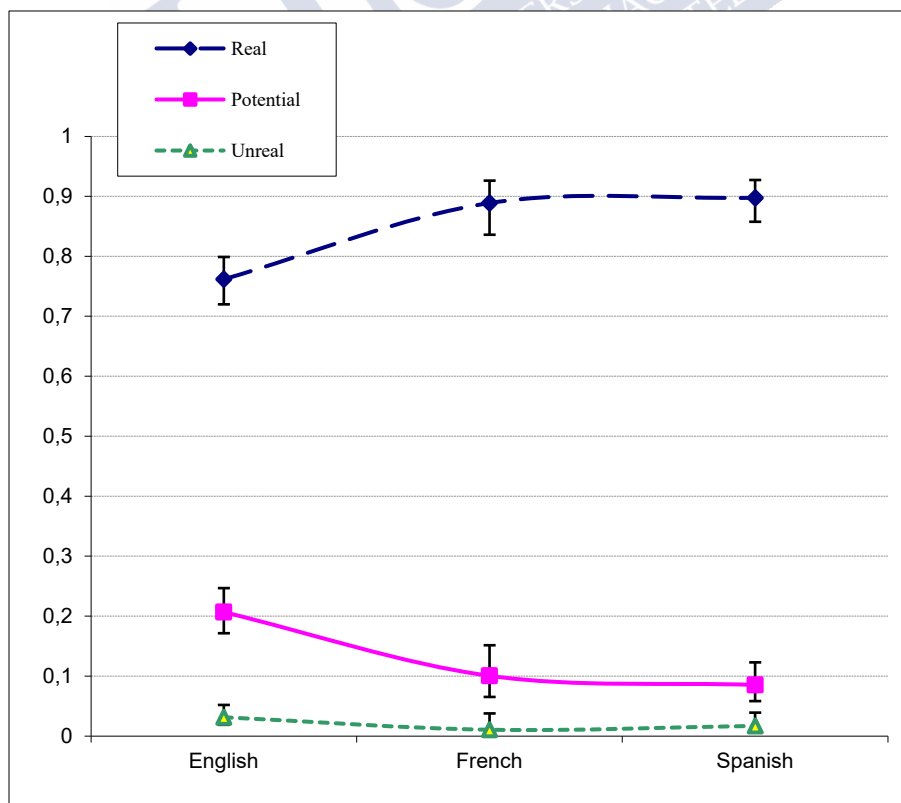
English presents more variation in the type of condition, with 20.67% of the constructions belonging to the potential type and 3.15% to the unreal category. A summary of the quantitative findings, both in absolute figures and percentages, is presented in Table 19.

Table 19. Degree of likelihood of the condition in conversation

Semantic type	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Real condition	339	76.18	168	88.89	263	89.76
Potential condition	92	20.67	19	10.05	25	8.53
Unreal condition	14	3.15	2	1.06	5	1.71
Total	445	100%	189	100%	293	100%

Figure 16 graphically depicts the cross-linguistic differences for this variable, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals. As can be observed, differences in the use of real and potential conditions in English, as compared to French and Spanish, are statistically significant.

Figure 16. Degree of likelihood of the condition in conversation, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals.



If we analyse real, potential and unreal conditions in relation to the metafunction variable, we can observe interesting patterns. First, most of the variation between the three degrees of likelihood occurs in ideational conditionals. Since ideational conditionals are constructions which display a cause-consequence pattern, it seems necessary that these constructions specify the probability that the propositional content presented in the protasis takes place. A second important finding is that a remarkably high number of interpersonal conditionals in French and Spanish (95.35% and 93.38%, respectively) are real conditions. English, in contrast, presents slightly more variation, doubling the percentage of potential conditions in interpersonal conditionals, as opposed to French and Spanish. Given that the focus of interpersonal conditionals is to establish relations between discourse participants, it is less relevant in such contexts to specify degrees of likelihood than it may be in ideational conditionals. The higher use of potential conditions in English interpersonal conditionals is related to the mitigation purposes of these constructions, since using a potential condition in an interpersonal conditional would render the message as more attenuated and less assertive. Finally, all the textual conditionals employ real conditions. Again, the purpose of these constructions is not to convey a pattern of cause-consequence, but to contribute to the cohesion of the discourse, hence the unnecessary to specify hypotheticality in these cases. A summary of the absolute frequencies and percentages of the relation between the variables degree of likelihood and metafunction in the three languages is presented in Table 20.

Table 20. Relation between degree of likelihood and metafunction in conversation

Metafunction	Degree of likelihood	English		French		Spanish	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Ideational	Real	127	62.87	83	83.00	121	85.81
	Potential	64	31.68	15	15.00	16	11.35
	Unreal	11	5.45	2	2.00	4	2.84
	Total	202	100%	100	100%	141	100%
Interpersonal	Real	209	87.08	82	95.35	141	93.38
	Potential	28	11.67	4	4.65	9	5.96
	Unreal	3	1.25	0	0.00	1	0.66
	Total	240	100%	86	100%	151	100%
Textual	Real	3	100.00	3	100.00	1	100.00
	Potential	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Unreal	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Total	3	100%	3	100%	1	100%

4.1.2.4 Position

As already mentioned, the canonical order for conditional constructions is that the protasis precedes the apodosis (Greenberg, 1963: 84; Haiman, 1978), as in (147) to (149). In such cases, the protases serve to “create backgrounds for subsequent propositions” (Ford & Thompson, 1986: 370).

(147) Well if I get bored with my company I'll be here at nine (ICE-GB:S1A-040 #447:1:C)

(148) S'ils sont issus de milieux populaires / ils sont peut-être plus susceptibles de se faire / euh manipuler ou de revendiquer / euh bon / quel soit le prétexte euh / l'exclusion des immigrés / quoi (C-ORAL-ROM ffamcv03)

'If they stem from working-class backgrounds, they are maybe more likely to be manipulated or to demand, eh well, that that is the pretext euh, the exclusion of immigrants'

(149) Yo es que los comics / si a mi me gustaran los comics / siempre me los pillaría en versión original (C-ORAL-ROM efamd107)

'I, it's just that comics, if I liked comics, I would always get them in original version'

When the protasis occurs in final position, as in (150) to (152), or in middle position (i.e. inserted into the apodosis), as in (153) to (155), the construction deviates from the canonical order and, hence, the order of the construction is marked with respect to the default type. In such cases, the order suggests a more important role for the consequence or result of the condition, which appears in initial position. As also mentioned in parliamentary discourse, Ford and Thompson (1986: 367) also argue that sometimes conditionals are produced as afterthoughts, which would contribute to a non-initial position.

(150) I'll try and show you if I can <> (ICE-GB:S1A-088 #173:1:A)

(151) Parce que c'était quatre-vingt-neuf / si mes souvenirs sont bons (C-ORAL-ROM ffamd107)

'Because it was eighty-nine, if my memories are good'

(152) No puedes decir una cosa / no me gusta / si no la has probado (C-ORAL-ROM efamd110)

'You can't say you don't like something if you haven't tried it'

(153) Uhm <,,> can you describe to me if it's possible uhm <,> a typical day in your home <,> when you were a boy of less than fourteen <,,> (ICE-GB:S1A-072 #066:1:A)

(154) Oh non du tout // du tout // euh en fait / dans ce métier là / si on veut bien / euh je dirais que c'est davantage un côté social (C-ORAL-ROM fpubd103)

'Oh, not at all, absolutely not, eh in fact, in this job, if we want, eh I would say that it is more of a social side'

(155) Que cuando estamos en clase de lengua / trato / si estamos a nivel oral / que él participe (C-ORAL-ROM epubd108)

'That when we are in language class, I try, if we are on the spoken level, that he participates'

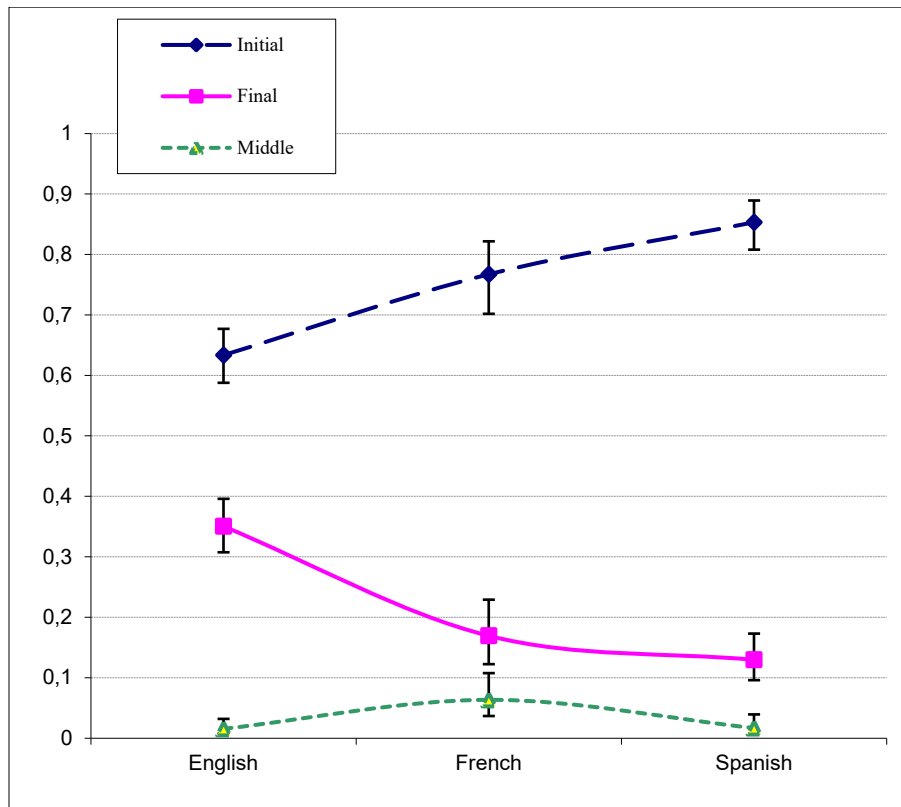
Table 21 confirms that most of the *if/si*-clauses in conversation occur in sentence-initial position, although with frequency differences across languages. The two other positions – final and middle – are much less frequent, especially the latter. Final position presents considerable differences across languages, with final *if*-clauses in English doubling the frequency of their equivalents in French and Spanish.

Table 21. Position of the *if/si*-clause in the conditional construction in conversation

Position of the <i>if/si</i> -clause	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Initial	282	63.37	145	76.72	250	85.32
Final	156	35.06	32	16.93	38	12.97
Middle	7	1.57	12	6.35	5	1.71
Total	445	100%	189	100%	293	100%

As can be observed in Figure 17, differences in both initial and final position are statistically significant at 95% confidence level in English, as compared to French and Spanish, but such differences are not statistically significant between the two Romance languages, which display a more similar behaviour.

Figure 17. Position of the *if/si*-clause in conversation, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals



Ford and Thompson's (1986) results on the position of conditionals point out that the position of the *if/si*-clause may be related to the discourse function of the construction. The question to be posed, therefore, is whether certain metafunctions (or subfunctions) favour a non-canonical position – either final or middle – for the protasis. Table 22 provides the absolute frequencies and percentages of the three possible positions across metafunctions and languages. As expected, initial position is dominant in ideational conditionals across the three languages. However, there are important quantitative differences, with initial position in French and Spanish being notably more frequent (83% and 87.23%, respectively) than in English (63.37%). This lower proportion of initial position in English ideational conditionals coincides with a higher occurrence of final

position (36.14%), as compared to French and Spanish (16% and 12.06%, respectively). A similar scenario is found in the three languages with regard to position in interpersonal conditionals, with the difference being a higher use of middle position in interpersonal conditionals as opposed to their ideational counterparts. Finally, all the textual conditionals occur in initial position, as a consequence of their cohesive function.

Table 22. Relation between position and metafunction in conversation

Metafunction	Position	English		French		Spanish	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Ideational	Initial	128	63.37	83	83.00	123	87.23
	Final	73	36.14	16	16.00	17	12.06
	Middle	1	0.49	1	1.00	1	0.71
	Total	202	100%	100	100%	141	100%
Interpersonal	Initial	151	62.92	59	68.61	126	83.44
	Final	83	34.58	16	18.60	21	13.91
	Middle	6	2.50	11	12.79	4	2.65
	Total	240	100%	86	100%	151	100%
Textual	Initial	3	100.00	3	100.00	1	100.00
	Final	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Middle	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Total	3	100%	3	100%	1	100%

A more fine-grained analysis across interpersonal subfunctions reveals more clear correlations between certain subtypes of conditionals and specific positions. A summary of the absolute frequencies and percentages of each position across interpersonal subfunctions and languages is shown in Table 23 below.

Epistemic conditionals appear predominantly in initial position cross-linguistically, with final position being rare – absent in French – and no case of middle position attested in this subfunction. Opinion/evaluation conditionals show more variation between initial and final position, with middle position only being rarely attested in Spanish. In English, almost half of the opinion/evaluation conditionals occur in initial position and the other half in final position. Differences in position are sharper in the two Romance languages, with more than 83% of the opinion/evaluation conditionals appearing in initial position. Politeness conditionals show interesting contrasts across languages. English shows a preference for the *if*-clause in final position in these constructions (64.52%) as well as a higher occurrence of middle position (9.68%), as compared to other subfunctions. Spanish presents considerable variation in terms of position for politeness conditionals, with 45% of the constructions showing a preference for initial position, another 45% for

final position and 10% of the *si*-clauses occurring in middle position. The results from French politeness conditionals, which should be taken with care given the low frequencies encountered, seem to point to a preference for initial position. The three other subtypes of interpersonal conditionals – relevance, reservation and metalinguistic – are attested in lower frequencies. Despite this, there is a clear general trend in the three subtypes, in which there is a preference for non-initial position.⁴⁶ These non-initial conditionals usually occur in final position in English, with only reservation conditionals attested in both final and middle position; whereas middle position in these three subtypes of conditionals in French is much more frequent than it is in English, with final and middle positions occurring in similar proportions in French relevance and metalinguistic conditionals. These findings unveil important correlations between certain subfunctions and specific positions for the protasis, although results for low-frequency subfunctions should be confirmed by further research.

Table 23. Relation between position and interpersonal subfunction in conversation

Interpersonal subfunction	Position	English		French		Spanish	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Epistemic	Initial	94	95.92	27	100.00	66	98.51
	Final	4	4.08	0	0.00	1	1.49
	Middle	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Total	98	100%	27	100%	67	100%
Opinion/evaluation	Initial	39	51.32	26	83.87	41	83.67
	Final	37	48.68	5	16.13	6	12.25
	Middle	0	0.00	0	0.00	2	4.08
	Total	76	100%	31	100%	49	100%
Politeness	Initial	8	25.80	4	66.67	9	45.00
	Final	20	64.52	0	0.00	9	45.00
	Middle	3	9.68	2	33.33	2	10.00
	Total	31	100%	6	100%	20	100%
Relevance	Initial	6	46.15	0	0.00	10	66.67
	Final	7	53.85	1	50.00	5	33.33
	Middle	0	0.00	1	50.00	0	0.00
	Total	13	100%	2	100%	15	100%
Reservation	Initial	3	25.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Final	6	50.00	2	66.67	0	0.00
	Middle	3	25.00	1	33.33	0	0.00
	Total	12	100%	3	100%	0	100%
Metalinguistic	Initial	1	10.00	2	11.76	0	0.00
	Final	9	90.00	8	47.06	0	0.00
	Middle	0	0.00	7	41.18	0	0.00
	Total	10	100%	17	100%	0	100%

⁴⁶ Spanish relevance conditionals constitute an exception, favouring initial position (66.67%). Note that no reservation and metalinguistic conditionals were found in Spanish.

4.1.2.5 Markedness of the apodosis

Despite marked apodoses being practically absent in the parliamentary corpora, they occur in the three languages in conversation. As can be observed in Table 24, their frequency in conversation is relatively low in the three languages.

Table 24. Markedness of the apodosis in conversation⁴⁷

Markedness of the apodosis	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Marked	42	14.89%	4	2.76%	33	13.20%
Unmarked	240	85.11%	141	97.24%	217	86.80%
Total	282	100%	145	100%	250	100%

The analysis of marked apodoses in the three languages shows that this feature does not appear in all types of conditionals homogeneously. As mentioned in Section 4.1.2.2.1, in English 42.86% of the epistemic conditionals contain *then* to signal the beginning of the apodosis and, despite *then* being grammatical in other types of conditionals, all the cases of marked apodoses in English were found in the epistemic subfunction. *Then*, considered to be a “reflex of an earlier paratactic structure” (Links, 2019: 155), seems to have survived to the present-day restricting use in conditionals to the epistemic subfunction only (in addition to other uses as a multifunctional discourse marker, cfr. Haselow, 2011).

As it happens in English, marked apodoses in French are also restricted to epistemic conditionals but occur only very sparingly. However, the four cases found in the corpus are introduced by three different markers, namely: *alors* (2 tokens), *donc* (1 token) and *voilà* (1 token), as illustrated in (156) to (158) respectively.

(156) On peut ici se poser beaucoup de questions // et si on se pose des questions / **alors** moi je voudrais / c’est que pour une fois / on fasse pas euh comme on a fait les autres fois (C-ORAL-ROM fpubcv01)

⁴⁷ Given that marked apodoses are only grammatically possible when the conditional follows the protasis-apodosis order, *if/si*-clauses in final and middle position are disregarded in here. Hence, the differences in the total absolute frequencies presented in Table 24, as compared to previous tables outlining other features.

‘We can pose many questions here, and if we pose questions, then I would want, for once, that we did eh as we have done the other times’

(157) S’il y a un moment où tu te dis / il faut que je fasse ça / **donc** / c’est que c’est plus viable (C-ORAL-ROM ffamcv01)

‘If there is a moment where you say to yourself ‘I must do that’, then it’s that it is more viable’

(158) [...] si vous êtes euh généreux et euh prêts à aider des jeunes euh créatifs / ça s’appelle euh “La Rosée” notre association / et euh **voilà** on est prêt à organiser des tas de choses intéressantes [...] (C-ORAL-ROM ffamd128)

‘If you are eh generous and eh ready to help creative youths, our association is called “La Rosée”, then we are ready to organize lots of interesting things’

Apodoses in Spanish can be marked by *pues* (32 tokens) or *entonces* (1 token), as in (159) and (160) respectively. Although 54.55% of the marked apodoses in Spanish occur in epistemic conditionals, contrary to what happens in English and French, Spanish marked apodoses are not exclusively restricted to this use. Instead, they can appear in ideational conditionals, especially in particularly lengthy sentences, with complex syntax, as is the case in the conditional construction presented in (159), which contains several protases and apodoses.

(159) **Si** / tengo problema en cuanto a hacer las entrevistas / o **si** vemos que se van a hacer muy tarde // cualquier cosa de éstas que / pudiese surgir / como se nos va a echar encima mayo / que sería cuando yo tengo / que entregar el trabajo / **pues** también había pensado / **pues** hacer entrevistas / eh / **pues** por ejemplo yo tengo primos pequeños / que están en colegios de allí de mi barrio / de Vallecas / entonces / **pues** también como sacar material un poco de ellos. (C-ORAL-ROM epubdl02)

‘If I have a problem as for doing the interviews, or if we see that they are going to be done very late, any of these things that could arise, since May is coming, which is when I have to hand in the assignment, then I had also thought, then to do interviews,

eh well, for example I have little cousins that go to schools in my neighbourhood in Vallecas, then, well, take some material out of them'

(160) Si se está dando la situación / de que / hay una orden / de que él tiene que venir / **entonces** la oración es verdadera (C-ORAL-ROM efamd118)

'If it arises the situation that there is an order that he has to come, then the sentence is true'

4.1.2.6 Modal in the apodosis

Conditional apodoses in English, French and Spanish show significant differences with respect to modal verb usage, as shown in Table 25. While almost half of the apodoses contain a modal verb in English, the proportion reduces to 10% or less in French and Spanish. As already mentioned for parliamentary discourse, this is due to the fact that many of the meanings encoded by modal verbs in English are conveyed through verbal endings on the lexical verb in the two Romance languages. Hence, the lower proportion of modal verbs. Those modals encountered in French and Spanish conversation are cases in which such meanings cannot be encoded otherwise. These include the verbs *falloir*, *devoir* and *pouvoir* in French and *deber* and *poder* in Spanish.

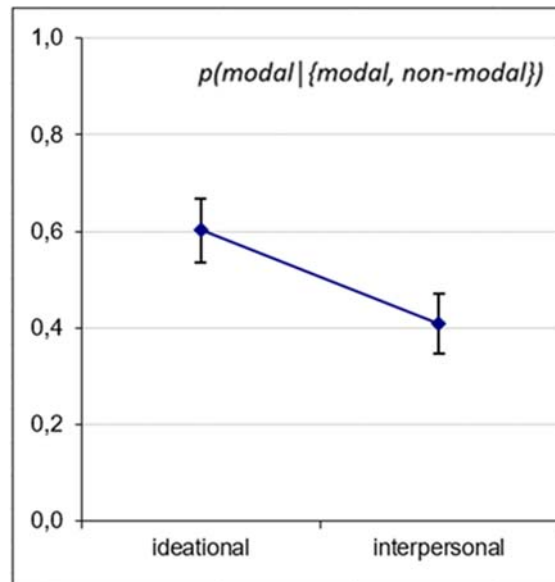
Table 25. Modal verbs in the apodoses of conditionals in conversation

Modal verb in the apodosis	English		French		Spanish	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Modal	222	49.89	19	10.05	22	7.51
Non-modal	223	50.11	170	89.95	271	92.49
Total	445	100%	189	100%	293	100%

Given that modal verbs play a more important role in English, we concentrate on this language only to examine the occurrence of modals across metafunctions in conversation. Leaving aside textual conditionals due to their low frequency, Figure 18 shows the proportion of modal verbs in ideational and interpersonal conditionals, which shows statistically significant differences at 95% confidence level. While modal verbs occur in 60.39% of the cases in ideational conditionals, this proportion reduces to 40.83% in

interpersonal conditionals. A Cramér's V ($\varphi = 0.195$) shows a near medium effect size for the association between metafunction and modal verb in conversation.

Figure 18. Modal verbs in apodoses of ideational and interpersonal conditionals in conversation, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals



4.1.2.7 Summary and conclusions from conversation

This case study has examined conditionals in conversation, where these constructions are especially rich in terms of the discourse-pragmatic functions they can fulfil. Contrary to what happened in parliamentary discourse, ideational and interpersonal conditionals occur in similar frequencies in conversation, with interpersonal conditionals even outnumbering their prototypical ideational patterns in English and Spanish. Textual conditionals occur in very low frequencies cross-linguistically, given the unplanned status of the conversations and their informal nature.

Conversation is a prototypical setting for interpersonality, where we express opinions and viewpoints and try to engage with other discourse participants. Hence, the important role of interpersonal conditionals as mechanisms for the expression of such purposes in conversation. Interpersonal conditionals are, consequently, more complex in conversation than they may be in other registers. In order to account for this complexity, the analysis presented here has provided: (i) a detailed categorization of interpersonal conditionals

into six different subfunctions (with only four present in the Spanish corpus), and (ii) a classification depending on whether stance or engagement prevails in the conditional construction. Results have shown that the epistemic, opinion/evaluation and politeness subtypes are, in that order, the most frequent types of interpersonal conditionals. Relevance, reservation and metalinguistic conditionals are encountered in significantly lower frequencies; indeed, the latter two types are absent from the Spanish corpus. An exception to this is generalization is French, which differs significantly from the two other languages. French contains half of the politeness conditionals used in English or Spanish and, contrary to what happens in the other two languages, it presents a significantly higher number of metalinguistic conditionals, which occupy the third position in the rank of frequency in this language. In terms of stance and engagement, conditionals follow the general trend in English and Spanish, with stance dominating over engagement (>70%). French, in contrast, displays very similar frequencies for both stance and engagement. If we focus on the expression of stance and engagement, findings show, in general, that stance predominates in epistemic, opinion/evaluation and reservation conditionals, whereas politeness, relevance and metalinguistic conditionals are generally used to engage with participants in discourse.

Regarding the degree of likelihood that conditionals express in conversation, results show a clear preference for real conditions in the three languages. The high use of interpersonal conditionals in conversation seems to coincide with the preference for real conditions too. Since conditionals are employed in high proportions as interpersonal devices in conversation, it is no longer so relevant the degree of hypotheticality conveyed in the construction, hence the employment of the default degree of likelihood (real conditions). Potential conditions are twice as frequent in English than in French and Spanish. English sometimes opts for rendering messages more hypothetical through potential conditions, as a strategy of detachment from the utterance, a resource which is much less frequent in the two Romance languages. Finally, unreal conditions are rarely employed in conversation cross-linguistically.

In terms of position, *if/si*-clauses tend to display a sentence-initial position in conversation, following the canonical order for these constructions. Differences are statistically significant when compared English to French and Spanish. English, in contrast to the two Romance languages, presents a lower frequency of protases in initial

position and a higher placement of these clauses in final position. Following Ford and Thompson (1986), who point to the relatedness of position and discourse function in conditionals, the analysis across metafunctions and subfunctions reveals some patterns worth mentioning. Among the interpersonal subtypes, epistemic and opinion/evaluation conditionals follow the canonical order in which the protasis precedes the apodosis (with the exception of opinion/evaluation conditionals in English which occur in almost equal proportions in initial and final position). Politeness conditionals appear predominantly in final position in English, whereas the preferences do not seem so clear in Spanish – which presents much variation – and French – due to the low frequency of this subtype. The remaining three subtypes – relevance, reservation and metalinguistic conditionals – show a clear preference for a non-initial position, either final or middle, with the exception of relevance conditionals in Spanish. Although the results in some cases should be taken with care given the low frequencies of some of the subfunctions, these findings confirm that position and discourse function are closely related in conditionals, with clear preference trends for some positions in certain subfunctions.

As for the markedness of the apodosis, corpus findings have shown a low proportion of marked apodoses, especially in French. Marked apodoses in English conversation are always introduced by *then*, whereas the two Romance languages present more variation in the lexical choice of marker (*alors, donc* and *voilà* in French; and *entonces* and *pues* in Spanish). The low frequency of marked apodoses also coincides with a specialization of this feature in epistemic conditionals in English and French. Such specialization does not occur in Spanish where, despite half of the marked apodoses being used in epistemic conditionals, the remaining cases are employed across metafunctions and subfunctions, especially in contexts where it seems more necessary to identify the consequence of the conditional more clearly.

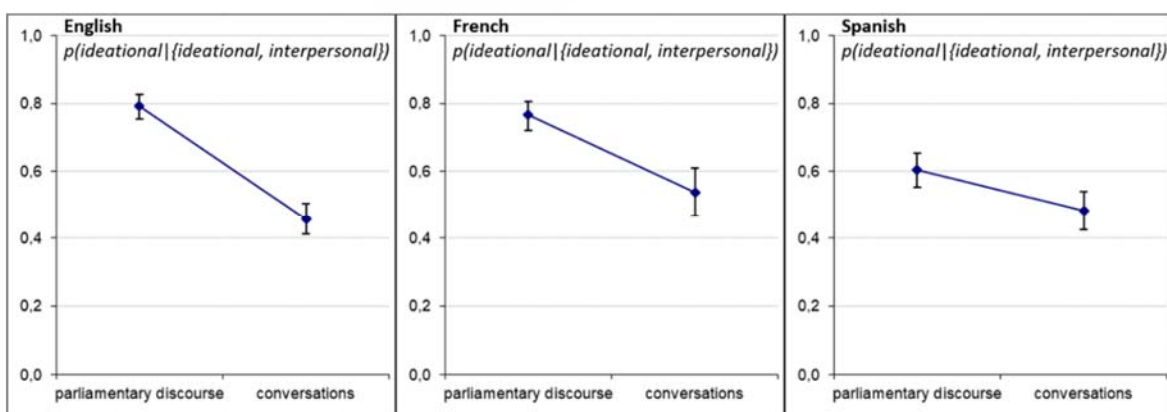
Finally, as for the employment of modal verbs in conditional apodoses, the results show that modal verbs in English occur in statistically significantly higher frequencies in ideational conditionals, whereas their employment in interpersonal conditionals is scarcer.

4.1.3 Interim discussion: Cross-register results

Sections 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 have analysed conditionals in two very distinct types of spoken interaction: parliamentary discourse and informal conversations, revealing cross-register differences and similarities. This section provides a summary of the overall results and offers a brief interim discussion, focusing especially on the variation across the two registers examined.

The analysis of parliamentary discourse has revealed that conditionals are primarily employed in this register to express their prototypical function, that of conveying a condition under which facts hold true. In contrast, conversation shows very similar frequencies of occurrence for both ideational and interpersonal conditions. In fact, as already mentioned, interpersonal conditionals even outnumber the prototypical patterns of conditionality in English and Spanish conversation. As shown in Figure 19, this difference across registers is statistically significant. The cross-register variation between the ideational-interpersonal metafunctions is more dramatic in English, followed by French and, finally, Spanish, where ideational and interpersonal conditionals occur in more similar frequencies in the two registers. Textual conditionals occur in low frequencies in both types of discourse.

Figure 19. Ideational and interpersonal conditionals. Cross-register results, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals



Regarding the different degrees of likelihood that may be expressed by conditionals, both parliamentary discourse and conversations favour neutral conditions, with some slight differences across languages. Real conditions are advantageous in both types of

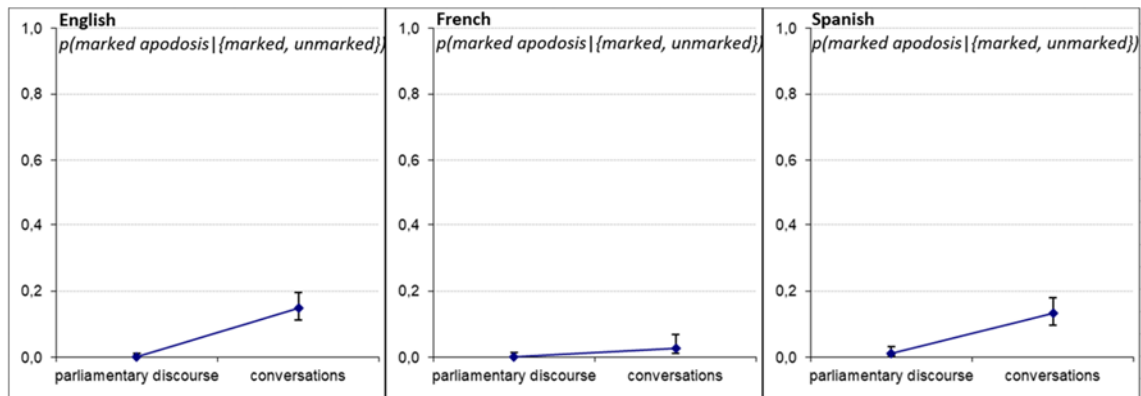
discourse, since they allow speakers to maintain a more neutral position as for the fulfilment of the condition, whereas their potential and unreal counterparts are more marked in this respect. The former renders the situation as a hypothesis and the latter refers to a past time event, and is thus often presented either as a regret or a complaint.

In terms of position of the *if/si*-clause, results are very similar in parliament and conversation. Both registers show a preference for an initial position for the protasis, in line with the canonical order for these constructions, while also presenting similar frequencies for final and middle position across registers. The analysis has unveiled interesting results when analysing position more closely across interpersonal subfunctions in conversation, which has uncovered some position-subfunction correlations in certain cases (see Section 4.1.2.4 above). Cross-register results in this respect are, however, not significant.

A variable that has been found to show much variation in the two registers examined is the markedness of the apodosis. While conditionals in parliamentary discourse did not contain any marker to signal the beginning of the apodosis (with the only exception of three cases with *entonces* in Spanish), marked apodoses appear in statistically significant higher proportions in English and Spanish conversation, as shown in Figure 20. Interestingly, marked apodoses occur with epistemic conditionals exclusively in English and French. In contrast, marked apodoses in Spanish occur in 54.55% of the cases in epistemic conditionals, with the remaining proportion distributed across a wide range of metafunctions and subfunctions. Since *then* and their French and Spanish equivalents signal a deductive conclusion (Davies, 1979: 162), the occurrence of these markers in the apodoses of epistemic conditionals emphasizes the assumption-deduction pattern characteristic of these constructions. A possible reason for the occurrence of marked apodoses in other metafunctions and subfunctions in Spanish could be the fact that its employment is often regarded as more categorial in tone (Dancygier & Sweetser, 1997), where the expression of the speaker's stance plays an important role. This would also explain the absence of marked apodoses in parliamentary discourse, where actions are often presented as negotiable rather than enforced. Another possible reason that could contribute to the higher employment of marked apodoses in conversations as opposed to parliamentary discourse is that informal conversations are full of inserts and often include interruptions or changes of topics, which can result in particularly lengthy sequences. The

inclusion of a marker to signal the beginning of the apodosis in such contexts could also be useful so that other discourse participants can interpret the consequence of the conditional more easily.

Figure 20. Markedness of the apodosis. Cross-register results, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals⁴⁸



Finally, as for the occurrence of modal verbs in conditional apodoses, corpus results have uncovered that modal verbs do not occur homogeneously across metafunctions. Ideational conditionals favour the occurrence of a modal verb in the apodosis, whereas interpersonal conditionals use modals more sparsely. This trend is confirmed in both parliament and conversation. The difference across the two register resides on a lower use of modals in conversation (49.89%, as opposed to 67.45% in parliament) that also coincides with a lower proportion of ideational conditionals in this register. Corpus findings demonstrate that the correlations between modal verbs and ideational conditionals in particular are not characteristic of any register in particular and could probably be generalised to all registers of English.

⁴⁸ Since marked apodoses are ungrammatical when the protasis occurs in sentence-final position, only cases in which the construction follows the protasis-apodosis order are taken into account here.

4.2 INSUBORDINATION

4.2.1 Case study III: insubordination

This case study is concerned with insubordinate constructions introduced by *if* and *si*. In contrast with the constructions addressed in Section 4.1, these are not complex constructions that contain a protasis and an apodosis. Instead, the constructions analysed in this section just consist of a single *if/si*-clause which, rather than being subordinate to a matrix clause as in the cases illustrated in Section 4.1, functions as a main clause.

As mentioned in Sections 4.1.1 and 4.1.2, insubordinate clauses are much more frequent in conversation than in parliament. In the parliamentary discourse corpora examined, insubordinate clauses amount to 4 in English, 2 in French and 4 in Spanish; whereas in the conversation corpora these constructions total 30 in English, 9 in French and 196 in Spanish. The scarce number of insubordinate clauses in parliamentary discourse confirms that this register is not hospitable to insubordination, and prevents us from drawing any conclusions on their use. For this reason, this case study concentrates on conversations exclusively, in order to provide more solid cross-linguistic results.

As just mentioned, these constructions occur in very different frequencies across the three languages analysed. Out of the total number of *if*-tokens in English conversation, insubordinate clauses only represent 4.18%. Even lower is the frequency of their French counterparts, which amount to 2.24% only. Spanish, in contrast, presents a high use of insubordinate *si*-constructions in conversation, which represent 20.85% of the total number of *si*-tokens in this language. A summary of the absolute frequencies and percentages of insubordinate constructions, in relation with other tokens introduced by the same conjunctions, is provided in Table 26 below for the three languages.

Table 26. Frequency of insubordinate *if/si*-clauses in conversation

Type	English		French		Spanish	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Insubordination	30	4.18	9	2.24	196	20.85
Other cases of <i>if/si</i>	687	95.82	392	97.76	744	79.15
Total	717	100%	401	100%	940	100%

After the extraction of the insubordinate clauses from the conversation corpora in the three languages, the tokens were manually examined and annotated according to their

discourse function. The remainder of this chapter is structured as follows. Section 4.2.1.1 examines the discourse functions of insubordinate constructions in English, French and Spanish conversation, focusing on each of the functions in turn in Sections 4.2.1.1.1 to 4.2.1.1.6. Finally, Section 4.2.1.2 summarizes the main findings and concludes the chapter.

4.2.1.1 Discourse functions

This section analyses the different interpersonal subfunctions that insubordinate *if/si*-clauses may have in conversation. Insubordinate constructions generally convey “interpersonal meaning” (Van linden & Van de Velde, 2014: 226). Hence, they share an important similarity with many conditional constructions, which also belong to the interpersonal metafunction of discourse.

However, from a cross-linguistic point of view, there are important quantitative differences in the expression of interpersonal meaning through conditionals or insubordinate clauses. As shown in Table 27, while interpersonal conditionals are quantitatively prominent in English and French (88.89% and 90.53%, respectively), Spanish presents a radically different scenario, with cases of insubordination representing 56.48%. Results from Spanish indicate that interpersonal meaning is more frequently encoded by insubordinate clauses than by interpersonal conditionals, as opposed to what happens in English and French.

Table 27. Frequency of insubordinate clauses and interpersonal conditionals

Type	English		French		Spanish	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Insubordination	30	11.11	9	9.47	196	56.48
Interpersonal conditionals	240	88.89	86	90.53	151	43.52
Total	270	100%	95	100%	347	100%

The range of discourse functions proposed for English insubordinate clauses here is based on Lastres-López (2018b), a larger study on insubordination carried out with data extracted from the whole spoken component of ICE-GB and from the conversations

component of the British National Corpus (BNC).⁴⁹ Insubordinate clauses are categorized into two major groups: directives (including requests, suggestions, offers, threats, and permission); and non-directives (including, wishes, assertions/exclamations, and complaints). Since directives tend to be difficult to classify in terms of illocutionary force (Mato-Míguez, 2016a: 302), directive insubordinate clauses are categorized depending on whether the agent and/or the beneficiary of the future action is the speaker or the addressee, in line with Couper-Kuhlen (2014). Table 28 provides a summary of the different types of directives in this respect.

Table 28. Types of directives according to agent and beneficiary of the future action

Type of directive	Agent of the future action	Beneficiary of the future action
Request	Addressee	Speaker
Suggestion	(Speaker &) Addressee	(Speaker &) Addressee
Offer	Speaker	Addressee
Threat	Addressee	Speaker
Permission	Speaker	Speaker

As just mentioned, the same taxonomy of functions has been applied to the cross-linguistic study presented here. Table 29 provides the absolute frequencies and percentages of the different discourse functions in each language, to be discussed in turn in subsections 4.2.1.1.1 to 4.2.1.1.6.

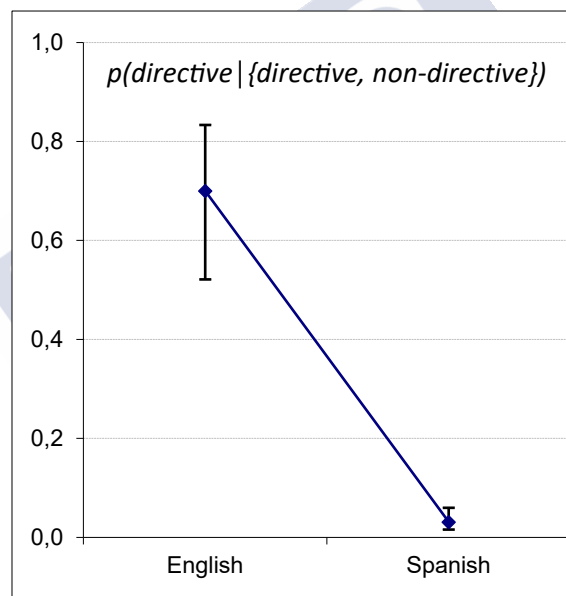
Table 29. Discourse functions of insubordinate *if/si*-clauses in English, French and Spanish

Discourse function		English		French		Spanish	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Directives	Request	18	60.00	1	11.11	1	0.51
	Suggestion	2	6.67	0	0.00	5	2.55
	Offer	1	3.33	0	0.00	2	1.02
Non-directives	Wish	6	20.00	3	33.33	4	2.04
	Assertion/exclam.	0	0.00	5	55.56	176	89.80
	Complaint	3	10.00	0	0.00	8	4.08
Total		30	100	9	100	196	100

⁴⁹ The analysis reported in Lastres-López (2018b) comprises 47 insubordinate *if*-clauses in the whole spoken component of ICE-GB and 137 instances of insubordination manually detected out of a total of 2,583 instances of *if* in sentence-initial position in the BNC. The analysis of the BNC is based on the first edition of the corpus, which dates back from the 1990s. The new spoken component of the BNC2014 (Love et al., 2017; Love, 2020), released in September 2017, was not available at the time of carrying out the analysis.

A major cross-linguistic difference has to do with the use of in subordinate clauses as directives versus non-directives. While 70% (21 tokens) of the total number of in subordinate clauses serve directive functions in English, the proportion of directives reduces drastically in the two Romance languages, where directives only account for 11.11% of the cases (1 token) in French and 4.08% of the cases (8 tokens) in Spanish. As shown in Figure 21, differences between the directive and the non-directive functions of in subordinate *if/si*-clauses in English and Spanish are statistically significant at 95% confidence level. Results from French are not taken into account in Figure 21, given the low frequency of occurrence of in subordination in this language.

Figure 21. Directive and non-directive in subordinate clauses in English and Spanish, using 95% Wilson confidence intervals



In addition, cross-linguistic differences are not limited to the directive versus non-directive dichotomy, since there is also variation in the repertoire of directive functions across languages. While in English and Spanish the directive category includes requests, suggestions and offers, directives in French are limited to a single case of a request. From a quantitative point of view, it is also worth noting that English shows a very clear preference for the use of these constructions as requests (60%), as compared to suggestions and offers, which only amount to 6.67% and 3.33% respectively. Spanish, in contrast, presents similarly reduced proportions for all the directive functions.

Contrary to what happens in English, in subordinate clauses in French and Spanish are typically used for various non-directive functions, most notably for assertions/exclamations, which is the most frequent function for subordinate *si*-clauses in these languages. The other two non-directive functions – wishes and complaints – also show cross-linguistic differences. Wishes are unequally distributed across the three languages. While they represent a significant proportion of the total number of subordinate *if/si*-clauses in English and French (20% and 33.33%), they only account for a very small proportion of these constructions in Spanish (2.04%). Finally, complaints also show variation across the three languages. While these constructions are absent from the French corpus, they represent 10% of all the cases of *if*-subordination in English and 4.08% in Spanish.

As the reader will note, some of the functions of subordinate *if*-clauses described for English in Lastres-López (2018b) and mentioned earlier in this section are not present in the sample of conversations analysed here as part of the cross-linguistic study. These functions include threats, permission and assertions/exclamations, which already displayed a low frequency in the English sample examined in Lastres-López (2018b).⁵⁰ Likewise, the threat and permission categories are not present in the French and Spanish corpora analysed either. The absence of these categories in French and Spanish could indicate that these functions cannot be fulfilled by subordinate *si*-clauses or might simply be a consequence of the relatively small size of the database. This finding should be confirmed by further research.

Finally, while subordinate clauses in English are introduced by *if* without any other accompanying marker, in French and Spanish, *si* can be reinforced by other elements. In particular, in French, it is frequent for *si* to be preceded by the adversative connector *mais* (English *but*), which occurs in 55.56% of the cases, as illustrated in example (161) below. Similarly, in Spanish, *si* can be reinforced by two other elements: *pero* (English *but*) – exactly as it happens in French – and *es que* (English *it's just/the thing is*). Fuentes Rodríguez (2015) argues that *es que* emphasizes the utterance and *pero* – and the same can be said for French *mais* – introduces a counter-argumentation. In a similar vein, Pérez

⁵⁰ For illustrative examples of subordinate *if*-clauses expressing threats, permission and assertions/exclamations, see Lastres-López (2018b: 52-53).

Béjar (2018b) describes this use of *es que* in in subordinate *si*-clauses as an intensifying disjunct that allows to focalize the information, thus being useful to emphasize a refutation or justification. As happens with its French equivalent, *pero* precedes *si*; in contrast, *es que* occurs after *si*. While it is common to have the combination of *pero* + *si* and *si* + *es que*, as happens in (162) and (163) respectively, it is also possible, although less frequent, to have the three markers occurring simultaneously, as illustrated in (164). These combinations occur in almost one third of the in subordinate *si*-clauses analysed in Spanish. In particular, *pero* + *si* amounts to 18 tokens (9.18%), *si* + *es que* totals 36 tokens (18.37%) and *pero* + *si* + *es que* reduces its frequency to occur in 5 tokens only (2.55%).

(161) Ouais mais si déjà c'est trop long (C-ORAL-ROM ffamcv09)

‘*Yes but if it’s already too long’⁵¹

(162) Pero si estamos aquí hablando contigo (C-ORAL-ROM efamcv11)

‘*But if we are here talking to you’

(163) Si es que yo no he estudiado nada (C-ORAL-ROM efamd118)

‘*If it’s just that I haven’t studied anything’

(164) Yo te llamo // ¡joder! pero si es que no me das tiempo (C-ORAL-ROM efamcv01)

‘I call you. Fuck! *But if it’s just that you don’t give me time’

4.2.1.1.1 Requests

In subordinate *if*-clauses are most frequently used as requests in English (60%). However, their frequency is much lower in the two Romance languages examined, where cases of in subordinate *si*-requests amount to only one instance in each language. In requests, as in (165) to (167), the speaker asks the addressee to perform an action – getting something across, confirming or coming on Thursday, respectively – which will eventually benefit the speaker. The use of in subordinate clauses to fulfil this requesting function is perceived

⁵¹ Note that in examples (161) to (164) the translation of *si* into English *if* is ungrammatical.

as less imposing for the addressee than the employment of other directive constructions, such as imperatives, preventing in this way a potential face-threatening act (Mato-Míguez, 2016a, 2016b).

As prior research has shown, requests uttered through in subordinate clauses in English usually contain a modal verb (Lastres-López, 2018b: 51), as in (165). Although the number of in subordinate *si*-requests is very limited in French and Spanish, a tendency towards the use of modal verbs also seems to occur in these languages. In fact, the only two examples of requests found in the French and Spanish corpora also contain the modal verbs *pouvoir* and *poder*, as shown in (166) and (167). The use of modal verbs in these constructions renders the message more tentative, thus also contributing to making the request more polite.

(165) If you could get that across to her (ICE-GB:S1A-054 #131:1:A)

(166) Je sais pas si vous l'avez lu comme moi / si vous pouvez confirmer (C-ORAL-ROM fpubcv01)

'I don't know if you have read it like me. If you could confirm'

(167) Voy a pasar el jueves // así que si puedes venir el jueves // puedes o no? (C-ORAL-ROM epubdl06)

'I'm going to drop in on Thursday. So if you can come on Thursday. Can you or not?'

4.2.1.1.2 Suggestions

As it happens with requests, suggestions also expect a future action from the addressee. Such action turns to be in many cases a joint activity between the speaker and the addressee. Contrary to what happens in requests – in which the beneficiary of such action is the speaker – in suggestions, the beneficiary is either the addressee alone or, more frequently, both the speaker and the addressee.

Suggestions constitute a reduced proportion of the total number of in subordinate *if/si*-clauses in English and Spanish (6.67% and 2.25%), and were not found in the French

corpus. Illustrations of suggestions expressed through insubordinate clauses in English and Spanish are provided in (168) and (169) respectively.

(168) If we did the preparation just before you went <,> and put it on secure it temporarily for a fortnight <,> (ICE-GB:S1A-089 #060:1:A)

(169) Si quieres el fin de semana quedar (C-ORAL-ROM epubdl05)

‘If you want to meet on the weekend’

It should be noted that two of the five Spanish examples of insubordinate suggestions occur with the coordinating conjunction *y* (English *and*) preceding *si*, as illustrated in example (170). Pérez Béjar (2019) notes that patterns with *y si* are typically used in Spanish for suggestions. Corpus results show that, while it is possible to have insubordinate suggestions with *y si*, as in (170), this suggestive function is not exclusive of *y si* and can also be fulfilled in Spanish by insubordinate *si*-clauses in which the coordinating conjunction is not present, as in (169) above.

(170) Y si no nos vamos el domingo / y nos estamos allí el lunes (C-ORAL-ROM efamd132)

‘And if we don’t leave on Sunday and stay there on Monday’

As already mentioned, no case of an insubordinate suggestion was found in the French corpus. The fact that insubordinate suggestions were not attested in French is surprising and unexpected, given that an example of a suggestion in an insubordinate *si*-clause appears in Evans’s (2007) seminal work on insubordination, as reproduced in example (171) below. This suggests that this function, although possible, is infrequent in spoken French.

(171) Si on allait se promener? (Evans, 2007: 380)

‘What if we went for a walk?’⁵²

4.2.1.1.3 Offers

Insubordinate *if/si*-clauses also allow speakers to make an offer to the addressee. Contrary to what happened in the two other directive types, offers do not expect any future action from the addressee, but rather from the speaker. By making offers – as in (172), in which the speaker offers ice cream to the interlocutors, and in (173), an invitation to go to the speaker’s house for lunch – the addressee is the sole beneficiary of the future action. As happened with suggestions, this function was only found in the English and Spanish corpora, being absent in French.

(172) If anyone would like some ice cream (ICE-GB:S1A-073 #285:1:A)

(173) Si te quieres pasar algún día a comer (C-ORAL-ROM efamdl36)

‘If you want to drop in for lunch’

4.2.1.1.4 Wishes

Moving on to non-directive functions, insubordinate clauses can also be employed to encode wishes. Contrary to what happens in directives, insubordinate clauses that convey wishes do not instruct the addressee or the speaker to carry out any action. In contrast, in this type of clauses the speaker expresses a wish or a regret.

As it happens in conditional constructions, which can express different degrees of hypotheticality for the condition to be realised, insubordinate clauses can also convey both potential and unreal wishes. The former category corresponds to cases in which the state of affairs is possible but unlikely to happen, that is, it can only *potentially* happen. For example, in (174) the speaker wishes that the person alluded to behaved properly, although this situation is perceived as unlikely to occur. In contrast, wishes ascribed to the unreal category are counterfactual. In other words, it is impossible that they occur

⁵² Translation into English by Evans.

since they make reference to a past time event. An illustration of an unreal wish is provided in example (175), in which the speaker regrets that she had not wanted to get rid of him at an earlier point in time. While in English and Spanish examples of both types of wishes are possible in insubordinate clauses, the three examples of wishes found in French correspond to the counterfactual type, as shown in (176). In example (176), the conversation revolves around photography and the speaker wishes the picture had not captured the platform's edge, regretting that this had happened.

(174) Si se portara como se tiene que portar (C-ORAL-ROM efamdl09)

'If only he behaved as he has to'

(175) If she'd really wanted to be rid of him <,> (ICE-GB:S1A-080 #176:1:B)

(176) Ouais // ça c'est la déformation d'un grand angle // mais s'il y avait pas eu ce bord de quai là / le pétrolier (C-ORAL-ROMffamdl27)

'Yes. That is the deformation of a big angle. But if it hadn't had that platform's edge, the oil tanker'

Other research on insubordination (Stirling, 1999: 285; Brinton, 2017: 115-116) has shown that the combination *if only* typically occurs in English insubordinate clauses that express wishes. Yet no examples of *if only* were found in the corpus. For illustrative purposes, an example of a wish introduced by *if only*, extracted from the ICE-GB spontaneous commentary component, is provided in example (177). The absence of *if only*-wishes in the ICE-GB conversation component can be explained in connection with the fact that these clauses emphasize the idea that "the speaker (and possibly the hearer) are not in a position to do anything to bring about the desired act" (Stirling, 1999: 287). In fact, in (177), the wish is uttered in the context of a rugby match broadcast, in which the discourse participants do not have any control as to redirecting the situation. This nuance in meaning in *if only*-wishes, which *if*-wishes do not present so straightforwardly, could explain the non-attestation of the former in the conversation corpus examined.

(177) If only Denis Betts could have picked that ball up and got it out to Offiah (ICE-GB:S2A-004 #377:1:A)

4.2.1.1.5 Assertions/exclamations

Assertions/exclamations are the dominant function for insubordinate *si*-clauses in Spanish and, to a lesser extent, in French. Although a reduced number of assertions/exclamations are found in Lastres-López (2018b) for English, no single case of this function was attested in the conversation component of ICE-GB, showing the infrequent status of this function in English, as compared to what happens in the two Romance languages analysed.

This use of insubordinate *si*-clauses to express assertions/exclamations is particularly interesting, given that conditional constructions present content in various degrees of hypotheticality and, thus, conditional conjunctions are typically treated as “marker[s] of non-assertion” (Dancygier, 1998: 19). Despite this fact, insubordinate *si*-clauses can constitute very strong assertions. Indeed, as Schwenter (1998, 1999) indicates, the assertive value is so strong that the constructions do not allow any sort of hedging, as shown in example (178), in which *si es horrible* does not admit any mitigation structure.

(178) Q: Ah, ¡mira qué chaqueta más chula!

R: Si es horrible, {#vamos, digo yo/ #vamos, creo yo} (Schwenter, 1999: 89)

‘Oh, look, what a cool jacket’

‘It’s horrible {#well, that’s what I say/ #well, I think}’

It is frequent for these assertions to occur in contexts of disagreement or refutation with the addressee, as has been frequently noted for Spanish (Schwenter, 1996, 1999, 2016a, 2016b). Illustrations of these usages are provided in (179) and (180) for French and Spanish respectively. In (179), the first speaker, identified in the corpus as MAR, claims that ANT is not interested in something. ANT uses an insubordinate clause, highlighted in bold in the example, to assert that she is indeed interested and to disagree, thus, with the previous comment. Similarly, in (180), the speaker identified as VIC expresses his opinion that he does not want his son to work so much. ALB uses the

in subordinate clause, highlighted in bold, to disagree and mention that working is good for him.

(179) MAR: [...] je sais que ça ne vous intéresse pas beaucoup / mais si je suis là / c'est parce que moi ça m'intéresse (C-ORAL-ROM fpubcv01)

'I know that you aren't very interested in it. But if I'm there, it's because I'm interested in it'

ANT: **Mais si / ça m' intéresse** // mais j'ai jamais dit que ça m' intéressait pas

'*But if I'm interested in it. But I have never said that I wasn't interested'⁵³

(180) VIC: No quiero que trabaje tanto // el trabajo no es bueno (C-ORAL-ROM efamd114)

'I don't want him to work so much. Working is not good'

ALB: **Si le viene bien trabajar**

'*If working is good for him'

VIC: no // tanto no // no // un poquito // así un ratito // pero nada más

'No. Not so much. No. Just a little bit. A little while. But that's all'

Contrary to what happens in cases where subordinate clauses fulfil other functions, in assertions, the speakers could have simply uttered the message without employing *si*. The conditional conjunction does not seem to contribute to the propositional content of the utterance and, in fact, both *mais ça m'intéresse* and *le viene bien trabajar*, in (179) and (180), would be grammatically possible without *si*. Although Schwenter indicates that the removal of *si* in Spanish would leave the utterance "open to debate or further comment/evaluation" (2016b: 23), there are contexts in which further discussion or disagreement is indeed possible even when the subordinate *si*-clause is employed. For example, in (180) above, after the subordinate *si*-clause in which ALB asserts that

⁵³ Note that in examples (179) to (181) the translation of *si* into English *if* is ungrammatical.

working is indeed good for him, VIC further insists in his next turn on his opinion that so much work is bad. Despite further discussion being possible after the employment of the insubordinate *si*-clause, as shown in (180), by resorting to the insubordinate *si*-clause, the message has undoubtedly a much stronger assertive value on the part of the speaker.

There are other cases in which the insubordinate clause does not constitute any confrontation with something previously said by the addressee and simply allows the speaker to assert something emphatically, as in (181). In cases such as the one illustrated in (181), no confronting viewpoint is mentioned and the insubordinate clause is simply used as a resource that emphasizes the message of the speaker.

(181) Están todas en una misma / cabaña / va a ser un cachondeo / si se han llevado pelucas y todo para disfrazarse (C-ORAL-ROM efamd121)

‘They are all in the same cottage. It’s going to be a blast. *If they have taken wigs and everything to dress up’

4.2.1.1.6 Complaints

Insubordinate clauses also allow speakers to complain about a certain state of affairs or to reproach something to the addressee. This function was only found in the English and Spanish corpora, being absent in French. Illustrations of complaints uttered through insubordinate clauses in English and Spanish are provided in (182) and (183) respectively. In both examples, the speakers complain about others’ behaviours. In (182) the speaker reproaches the interlocutor for putting his feet on the speaker, while in (183) the complaint revolves around the passivity of other discourse participants.

Complaints in Spanish have similarities with cases of assertion/exclamations. For instance, in (183), the speaker is clearly asserting that they do not do anything. However, utterances such as (183) serve a further function in discourse as compared to cases assigned to the assertion/exclamation category in Section 4.2.1.1.5, since they allow the speaker to complain about such behaviour, rather than just make an assertion about it.

(182) If you didn’t put your feet up on me (ICE-GB:S1A-032 #021:1:A)

(183) Si es que no hacen nada (C-ORAL-ROM efamd106)

‘*If it’s just that they don’t do anything’

4.2.1.2 Summary and conclusions from insubordination

This third case study has concentrated on insubordinate *if/si*-clauses. Despite the lower frequency of insubordination as compared to cases of subordination, discussed in Section 4.1, the former constructions are present in the three languages. As mentioned, their frequency is higher in conversation than in parliamentary discourse. Similar frequency results are reported in prior research, which has evidenced that these constructions are also more frequent in conversation than in other spoken genres such as broadcast news, classroom lessons or business transactions, to name but a few (Lastres-López, 2018b: 48). For this reason, the data analysed for *if/si*-insubordination here have been extracted from three corpora of conversations exclusively.

From a contrastive point of view, an important finding has to do with the frequency of these constructions, since insubordinate clauses appear in very different frequencies cross-linguistically. While they occur very sparingly in English and French (4.18% and 2.24%, respectively), their frequency is much higher in Spanish, where these constructions represent 20.85% of the total number of *si*-tokens. This finding is in line with other studies which also point to the high use of this and other types of insubordinate constructions in Spanish (Gras, 2011; Sansiñena, 2015; Pérez Béjar, 2018a), and especially in Peninsular Spanish as compared to American varieties of this language (Pérez Fernández, 2019; Pérez Fernández, Gras & Brisard, 2019). In fact, if we compare Spanish insubordinate *si*-clauses, which belong to the interpersonal metafunction (Van linden & Van de Velde, 2014: 226), with interpersonal conditionals, cases of insubordination even outnumber interpersonal conditionals in this language (56.48% and 43.52%, respectively). This finding can be interpreted as an indication that interpersonal meaning is more frequently encoded in Spanish by means of insubordinate *si*-clauses than by *si*-conditionals, in contrast to what happens in English and French, where full conditionals are preferred for this function.

The cross-linguistic study of the different discourse functions fulfilled by insubordinate *if/si*-clauses presented here has some limitations that should be acknowledged before proceeding any further. The number of insubordination tokens analysed in English and French – two languages where insubordination is a low-frequency phenomenon, as compared to what happens in Spanish – is very reduced. Consequently, the absence of tokens for certain discourse functions should be confirmed against larger corpora. In fact, results from a larger study carried out on English (Lastres-López, 2018b) unveil some minor discourse functions for this language which are not present here, probably as a result of the size of the corpora employed.

Despite the limitations just mentioned, the analysis provides interesting preliminary contrastive results on English, French and Spanish that throw new light on the uses and functions of insubordinate *if/si*-clauses. Instances of insubordination were classified into two groups: directives, including, requests, suggestions and offers; and non-directives, including wishes, assertions/exclamations and complaints. Corpus results show that insubordinate *if/si*-clauses are primarily used for different functions across languages. In English, insubordinate clauses are usually employed to express directive functions (70%), as opposed to what happens in the two Romance languages, where directive functions represent only a very reduced proportion. In particular, it should be noted that insubordinate *if*-clauses in English are typically employed to encode requests, whereas in French and, especially, in Spanish they are used to express an assertion on the part of the speaker. It should be noted as well that not all functions are present in the three languages, especially in French, where the range of functions is limited to three types of insubordinate *si*-clauses only (requests, wishes and assertions/exclamations).

A further cross-linguistic difference is related to the conjunction that introduces the insubordinate clause. While in English insubordinate clauses are introduced by *if*, without any other accompanying element, insubordinate *si*-clauses in French and Spanish are sometimes reinforced by *mais* and *pero* (English *but*), which introduce a counter-argumentation. In the case of Spanish, *si* can also be reinforced by *es que* (English *it's just/the thing is*), which emphasizes the refutation or justifying use of the construction; and by both *pero* and *es que* simultaneously. Contrary to what happens in the two Romance languages, these combinations were not found in the English corpus.

Finally, in assertions/exclamations – the most frequent function for insubordinate *si*-clauses in French and Spanish – *si* does not seem to contribute to the propositional content of the utterance. Contrary to what happens in other functions, the clauses would be perfectly grammatical without *si*. The choice of the insubordinate construction in these cases seems to be motivated by the stronger assertive value the insubordinate *si*-clause provides.



CHAPTER 5

GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The analysis in Chapter 4 comprises three case studies. The first two, discussed in Section 4.1, are devoted to cases of conditional subordination introduced by *if* and *si* in two different spoken registers. In particular, the first case study (Section 4.1.1) analyses parliamentary discourse, while the second case study (Section 4.1.2) examines conversations. In contrast, the third case study, discussed in Section 4.2., is devoted to instances of insubordination introduced by the same conjunctions. The data examined totals 3,558 *if/si*-tokens in the three languages, thus providing solid corpus results on the use of these constructions in English, French and Spanish. In this chapter, I will provide a general discussion on both types of constructions, with the belief that the examination in parallel of conditionals and insubordinate clauses introduced by the same conjunctions will offer some new light on the characterization of these constructions and their uses and functions in interaction.

The remainder of this chapter is structured as follows. Section 5.1 provides a comparison between conditionals and insubordinate *if/si*-clauses according to their functional-pragmatic properties and discusses the main findings. Section 5.2 outlines a path of pragmaticalization for *if/si*-constructions, encompassing both conditionals and cases of insubordination. In connection with pragmaticalization, Section 5.3 discusses the notion of decategorialization with respect to certain *if/si*-constructions. Finally, Section 5.4 closes the chapter by providing a summary of the thesis and offering some concluding remarks.

5.1 COMPARING THE FUNCTIONAL-PRAGMATIC PROPERTIES OF CONDITIONALS AND INSUBORDINATE *IF/SI*-CLAUSES

As explained in Chapter 2, the framework proposed – based on the metafunctions distinguished in Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) – distinguishes three types of *if/si*-constructions in functional terms: ideational, interpersonal and textual. As has been shown in Chapter 4, while full conditional constructions – containing a protasis and an apodosis – can fulfil the three aforementioned metafunctions in spoken discourse, in subordinate *if/si*-clauses restrict their scope to the expression of interpersonal functions only.

As expected, the corpus analysis has revealed that *if/si*-conditionals are primarily used in their ideational metafunction in parliamentary discourse in the three languages. This is the default function for these constructions, allowing speakers to set a condition under which facts hold true through a cause-consequence pattern. Although ideational conditionals are the dominant type of conditional in parliamentary discourse, there are some cross-linguistic differences. The frequency of ideational conditionals in parliament is higher in English and French as compared to Spanish and this difference is statistically significant at 95% confidence level. Spanish, in contrast, shows a significantly higher use of interpersonal conditionals in parliamentary discourse, as compared to the other two languages.

When we examine conversation, the use of ideational conditionals decreases and the use of interpersonal conditionals increases with respect to parliamentary discourse. This register difference in the use of ideational versus interpersonal conditionals is also statistically significant at 95% confidence level in all three languages. The frequency of in subordinate *if/si*-clauses, which also express interpersonal meaning, is similarly higher in conversation than in parliament. Hence, we can conclude from this that conversation is the prototypical setting for interpersonality. In fact, both interpersonal conditionals and in subordinate *if/si*-clauses can express a wide range of fine-grained subfunctions in conversations. For interpersonal conditionals, the corpus analysis has revealed that these constructions can express up to six different subfunctions in conversation: epistemic, opinion/evaluation, politeness, relevance, metalinguistic and reservation, with some cross-linguistic differences, as discussed in Section 4.1.2. As for in subordinate *if/si*-

clauses, they can function as directives or non-directives. Directives include requests, suggestions and offers and are the prototypical function of these constructions in English. In contrast, non-directives, quantitatively dominant in French and Spanish, are used to convey wishes, assertions/exclamations and complaints. Despite the fact that conditionals and in subordinate *if/si*-clauses convey interpersonal functions, the frequency of both types of constructions is unbalanced. When comparing instances of insubordination with interpersonal conditionals, the former only represent a very reduced proportion in English and French (11.11% and 9.47%, respectively). In contrast, Spanish presents a radically different picture, with instances of insubordination even outnumbering interpersonal conditionals (56.48% versus 43.52%, respectively).

Finally, textual conditionals only occur very sparingly in both parliamentary discourse and informal conversation in all three languages. The low use of textual conditionals reported here may be motivated by the registers selected for analysis. By way of illustration, Biber et al. (2004: 386) found a high use of conditionals being used as discourse organizers in university teaching. This seems to suggest that textual conditionals may be restricted to specific registers, different from those analysed here. Parliamentary discourse, which is prepared in advance and sometimes even scripted, is probably more cohesive than other types of spoken discourse and, hence, it may not need these organizational cues. Conversation, at the other extreme, is in contrast unplanned and spontaneous, but textual conditionals are likewise also encountered in low frequencies. In this case, the informal nature of the exchanges seems to be sufficient reason to prevent the use of these cohesive devices in conversation.

5.2 *IF/SI*-CONSTRUCTIONS AND PRAGMATICALIZATION

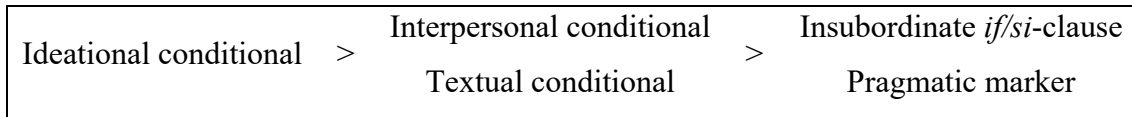
As has been evidenced in Chapter 4 (Sections 4.1.1 and 4.1.2), conditional constructions allow speakers to express a wide range of discourse-pragmatic functions, which in many cases go beyond the mere expression of conditional meaning. As has been argued for English in Lastres-López (2020: 78), if we consider that ideational conditionals conform to the prototype of a conditional construction, it seems that interpersonal and textual conditionals arise from the ideational type and further develop other functions that prevail over conditionality in interaction. This extension of ideational functions to interpersonal

and textual ones is not exclusive of conditionals and was explained by Traugott (1982: 247) as the “shift from a function which is primarily descriptive and referential to one based on the interlocutor’s intention to articulate a clear, coherent, and expressive text”.

This development in conditional constructions, from expressing fully propositional meaning to also serving interpersonal and textual functions in discourse, is characteristic of processes of pragmaticalization, as noted by Claridge and Arnovick (2010: 179) and has been analysed diachronically by Brinton (2014a) with respect to the development of the constructions *if you + choose/like/prefer/want/wish* and, more recently, *if you ask me* (Brinton, 2019).

Frank-Job (2006: 397) defines pragmaticalization⁵⁴ as “the process by which a syntagma or word form, in a given context, changes its propositional meaning in favor of an essentially metacommunicative, discourse interactional meaning”. In other words, pragmaticalization can be understood as the grammaticalization of discourse functions (Diewald, 2011). Consequently, it could be argued that some constructions introduced by *if* and *si* have undergone a process of pragmaticalization, from ideational conditionals to also serve interpersonal and textual functions in discourse. We propose a cline of pragmaticalization for *if/si*-constructions, graphically depicted in Figure 22, which also encompasses cases of in subordinate *if/si*-clauses and pragmatic markers, which seem to extend from interpersonal and textual conditionals, as the ultimate stage in the pragmaticalization cline.

⁵⁴ The distinction between grammaticalization and pragmaticalization still creates much controversy in linguistics (see, for example, the detailed discussions in Jucker and Taavitsainen, 2010; Diewald, 2011; Heine, 2013; Degand and Evers-Vermeul, 2015; among others). For some authors there is no reason to distinguish between pragmaticalization and grammaticalization. For example, Brinton (2010: 305) states that “pragmaticalization is a subtype of grammaticalization which may differ from prototypical cases but belongs to the same general process of change” and further argues that “[t]here is, in fact, little to distinguish the two processes *qua* process” (Brinton, 2017: 32) (See, along similar lines, Lewis, 2011, on the development of the discourse markers *instead* and *rather* diachronically as a process of grammaticalization). We adopt here the term pragmaticalization since we consider it more adequate given that certain *if/si*-constructions may ultimately develop from a grammatical construction (a conditional construction) into a pragmatic marker, as shown in Figure 22.

Figure 22. The cline of pragmaticalization of *if/si*-constructions

Aijmer (1997: 2) argues that pragmaticalized elements involve “the speaker’s attitude to the hearer”, as it happens with interpersonal conditionals, which express the stance of the speaker or try to engage with the addressee. In addition, textual conditionals share with their interpersonal counterparts the fact they often address or involve the interlocutor in conversation, as expounded in Chapter 2. However, contrary to what happens in interpersonal conditionals, they serve a further function, since they allow speakers to organize their discourse and provide interlocutors with linguistic cues to follow such discourse cohesively.

The prevalence of stance over engagement in interpersonal conditionals (see Section 4.1.2.2.1) can be a consequence of the development of meaning along the subjective-intersubjective path proposed by Traugott (2003, 2010), schematized as non-/less subjective > subjective > intersubjective (Traugott, 2010: 34-35). Traugott (2010: 60) argues that “subjectification is the development of meanings that express speaker attitude or viewpoint, while intersubjectification is the development of the speaker’s attention to addressee self-image”. As has been explained for English, this seems to suggest a chain of development for interpersonal conditionals, from epistemic > opinion/evaluation > relevance > less frequent types, with prevalence of stance in the first two subtypes and the reverse pattern favouring engagement in the rest (with the exception of reservation conditionals, which express stance) (Lastres-López, 2020: 79-80). This suggests that *if/si*-constructions adhere to Traugott’s subjective-intersubjective cline, since they move from expressing stance to also conveying engagement in the more pragmaticalized types of conditionals.

The path of pragmaticalization proposed in Figure 22 above may also throw light on the development of insubordinate clauses which, together with pragmatic markers, constitute a further step in the pragmaticalization cline. In insubordination, the

conjunctions *if* and *si* no longer introduce complex constructions formed by a protasis and an apodosis. Instead, the *if/si*-clause is used independently in discourse, without requiring any matrix clause. In some cases, insubordination has been defined as the “pragmaticalization of incompleteness” (Lombardi Vallauri, 2010: 80-82). This incompleteness, however, has become conventionalized and is fully complete in the discourse situation (Bowie & Aarts, 2016: 259). In fact, insubordinate clauses are regarded as main clauses and are considered independent constructions from conditionals (Evans, 2007). Although insubordinate clauses share with conditionals the fact that both types of constructions can function at the interpersonal level, each construction has developed its own range of interpersonal subfunctions, as has been shown in Sections 4.1.2.2.1 and 4.2.1.1. It seems, thus, that insubordinate *if/si*-clauses could derive from full conditional constructions which fulfil interpersonal functions that have been conventionalized to the extent that they occur as independent main clauses. The analysis of conditionals in parallel with instances of insubordination introduced by the same conjunctions seems to support Mithun’s hypothesis for the development of insubordination through the “extension of markers to functions at levels beyond the sentence” (Mithun, 2008: 108). That is to say, *if/si*-constructions, which, by default, express a prototypical conditional relation at the sentence level, are enriched pragmatically and extend their meaning beyond conditionality to fulfil interpersonal and textual functions in discourse and, ultimately, acquire a new status as a main clause.

Pragmatic markers are also located at the very extreme of the pragmaticalization cline. It has been argued that some constructions introduced by *if* and *si* have a (semi-) fixed status and may be considered pragmatic markers. Examples in English include *if you will* (Brinton, 2008), *if you know/see what I mean* (Beeching, 2016a), *if only* (Brinton, 2017), *if I may say so* (Brinton, 2017), or *if I may interrupt* (Fedriani & Sansó, 2017), among others. Similarly, in French, *si ça se trouve* (English *it could be that/maybe*) is also regarded as a pragmatic marker (Dalmas, 2013: 7). Treatments of *si tu veux* and *si vous voulez* (English *if you want*) as pragmatic markers are likewise provided in Beeching (2007), Schnedecker (2016), Ciry (2017) and Banegas Saorín and Ciry (2017). Interestingly, in their contrastive French-Spanish study, Banegas Saorín and Ciry (2017) find that the French constructions *si tu veux* and *si vous voulez* are more fixed than their Spanish equivalents. This claim is supported by the fact that *si tu veux* and *si vous voulez*

are sometimes translated into Spanish without employing a conditional (for example as *por así decirlo* [English *sort to say*] or *bueno* [English *well*]), whereas this does not happen when translating their Spanish equivalents *si quiere/si quieres/si quieren*. As for Spanish, two major dictionaries of pragmatic markers – Briz et al.’s *Diccionario de partículas discursivas del español* (2008) and Fuentes Rodríguez’s *Diccionario de conectores y operadores del español* (2009, 2018) – also recognize some pragmatic markers introduced by *si*. Briz et al. (2008) argue for the existence of *si he de decir verdad* (English *if I have to tell the truth*) as a pragmatic marker, arguing that it is an infrequent variant of the pragmatic marker *a decir verdad* (English *to tell the truth*). In contrast, Fuentes Rodríguez, in both the 2009 and the 2018 editions of her dictionary, does not consider *si he de decir verdad* and only includes *si acaso* as a pragmatic marker introduced by *si*. More recently, she has also argued that *si cabe* has similar pragmatic properties (Fuentes Rodríguez, 2019). As we can see, there is no general consensus on what to include as a pragmatic marker and the boundaries between interpersonal/textual conditionals and pragmatic markers seem to be sometimes blurred.

Correlating with pragmaticalization, these constructions also undergo desemantization or semantic bleaching as they advance in the pragmaticalization cline. In other words, the more complex these constructions are pragmatically, the weaker their conditional meaning is, a process which is also characteristic of pragmaticalized elements (Claridge & Arnovick, 2010: 179). Correlating with pragmaticalization, *if/si*-constructions also undergo some changes at the morphosyntactic level which could be interpreted as a sign for decategorialization in some of these constructions, as will be discussed in detail in Section 5.3.

5.3 IF/SI-CONSTRUCTIONS AND DECATEGORIALIZATION

As has just been mentioned, the results outlined in Section 5.2 can also be interpreted in terms of decategorialization (Hopper, 1991), that is, pragmaticalized *if/si*-constructions tend to lose some of the grammatical features typical of canonical conditionals.

This is evidenced in English when we compare the frequency of modal verbs, typically associated with conditionals (Gabrielatos, 2007, 2010, 2019), across

metafunctions. Results from both parliamentary discourse and conversation confirm that the occurrence of modal verbs in conditional apodoses is statistically significantly higher in ideational conditionals as opposed to interpersonal conditionals. The employment of modal verbs in interpersonal conditionals – a more pragmaticalized type of construction – is much scarcer. This loss of modal verbs in interpersonal conditionals is interpreted as a sign of decategorialization in these constructions.

Similarly, conditionals allow to convey different degrees of likelihood as to whether the condition would be fulfilled. Although real conditions are dominant across all metafunctions, expressing different degrees of likelihood seems to be more important when conditionals are used in their ideational metafunction than in other metafunctions. When we examine potential and unreal conditions in interpersonal conditionals, we observe a much lower frequency than in ideational conditionals. In addition, in many of these cases potential and unreal conditions are not employed to convey a greater degree of hypotheticality, but rather their use is connected with mitigation purposes. As for the textual metafunction, there is a total absence of potential and unreal conditions and all textual conditionals occur with real conditions. This also correlates with the tendency towards desemantization or semantic bleaching alluded in Section 5.2. As long as the meaning of *if/si*-constructions moves beyond the mere expression of conditionality to also acquire other pragmatic functions, the constructions do not need to signal hypotheticality explicitly and the weaker conditional meaning correlates with a lower use of potential and unreal conditions.

Likewise, the canonical order in conditionals is for the protasis to occur in initial position with respect to the apodosis (Greenberg, 1963: 84). Although non-statistically significant correlations are found in the position of the *if/si*-clause across metafunctions, a closer analysis per interpersonal subfunction reveals certain preferences for a non-initial position. This is the case, especially, of politeness conditionals in English and Spanish and relevance, reservation and metalinguistic conditionals in English and French, which all favour non-initial positions. This is interpreted as a signal of decategorialization in these subtypes of conditionals, since they favour a position which is not the default one for conditionals. In addition, this finding also seems to go in line with the subjective-intersubjective continuum proposed by Traugott (2003, 2010), discussed in Section 5.2, since subjectivity is associated with the right periphery of the sentence (initial position)

and intersubjectivity with the left periphery (final position) (Traugott, 2012; Beeching & Detges, 2014). Pragmaticalized conditionals adhere to this subjective-intersubjective cline, moving from the expression of stance to also conveying engagement and, when expressing engagement, favouring a non-initial position.

The marking of conditional apodoses by *then* and by their French and Spanish equivalents is also a feature typically associated with conditional constructions. Corpus results show that marked apodoses do not occur homogeneously across metafunctions and this finding is also interpreted as a sign of decategorialization. Marked apodoses undergo specialization in English and French, restricting their use to epistemic conditionals. In contrast, this restriction on the use of marked apodoses to a specific subtype of conditionals does not hold in Spanish, where half of the marked apodoses occur in epistemic conditionals and the other half in various other functions, including ideational conditionals (especially in cases of particularly long sentences).

Insubordinate clauses may also be considered a case of decategorialization, in that these constructions are not formed by protasis and apodosis as full conditionals do. Instead, insubordinate clauses consist of an *if/si*-clause only, which, rather than being a subordinate clause as happens in conditionals, is understood as a main clause (Evans, 2007). This structural difference with respect to conditionals could also be interpreted as a case of decategorialization if we consider that insubordinate *if/si*-clauses result from full conditionals which contain a protasis and an apodosis.

In conclusion, pragmatic complexity in *if/si*-constructions has been shown to correlate with a simplification at the grammatical level. This morphosyntactic deviation from the prototypical patterns – in terms of loss of modal verbs, reduced variation in terms of degree of likelihood of the condition to be fulfilled and preference for a non-canonical order for the protasis in pragmaticalized conditionals, as well as the specialization of marked apodoses in epistemic conditionals in English and French– is interpreted as a signal of the decategorialization of some of the constructions analysed. Likewise, insubordinate clauses, which are no longer complex constructions formed by protasis and apodosis, can also be regarded as a case of decategorialization, in that they do not present the formal features typical of a conditional construction.

5.4 SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

This thesis has offered a functional-pragmatic approach to *if/si*-constructions in spoken English, French and Spanish, dealing with cases of conditional subordination and with instances of insubordination in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of constructions introduced by *if* and *si*. In what follows I provide a summary of the study, chapter by chapter, together with the main conclusions that can be drawn from the corpus-based analysis.

In Chapter 1, I have introduced the object of study and have delimited the approach followed in the dissertation. In this chapter I have also formulated the aims of the dissertation and the research questions to be answered through the three case studies presented in Chapter 4. The chapter concludes by offering a brief overview of the structure of the thesis, divided into six chapters.

Chapter 2 is concerned with the literature review (Section 2.1) and the proposal of a theoretical framework to analyse *if/si*-constructions (Section 2.2). The literature review is organized in two main parts. Section 2.1.1 examines prior research on conditionals, whereas Section 2.1.2 is devoted to prior research on insubordination. Since there is an extremely vast amount of literature devoted to the study of conditionals from different perspectives, I focus on the three approaches combined in this dissertation to structure the literature review. In this way, I address studies which have examined conditionals from a functional-pragmatic perspective in Section 2.1.1.2, studies which have adopted a contrastive perspective in Section 2.1.1.3, and studies which have adhered to a corpus-based approach in Section 2.1.1.4. This evidences the wide range of uses and functions that constructions which qualify as conditionals can display as well as the lack of contrastive corpus-based studies carried out with the aim of disentangling the functional properties of these constructions in English, French and Spanish.

Chapter 2 then goes on to discuss prior research on insubordination in Section 2.1.2. First, I start by defining insubordination in Section 2.1.2.1. I discuss the main characteristics of insubordinate clauses, the coinage of the term insubordination by Evans (2007) and the increasing interest in this phenomenon since then. After that, I revisit the development of insubordinate clauses, following Evans's (2007) ellipsis hypothesis but also accommodating other possibilities that may explain the emergence of these

constructions, such as those by Mithun (2008), Heine et al. (2016) and Cristofaro (2016). Section 2.1.2.3 moves on to focus on prior research on insubordination in the three languages examined.

Chapter 2 concludes with the theoretical framework proposed to analyse *if/si*-constructions. This framework aims to encompass both cases of conditional subordination and instances of insubordination. The categorization proposed is based on the three metafunctions distinguished in Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014): ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational metafunction is concerned with the expression of language to talk about the world, that is, it refers to how we use language to convey propositional or referential content. The interpersonal metafunction refers to how we employ language to interact with others. Two closely-related notions are at play in this function: stance and engagement. The former refers to the expression of the speaker's judgements and viewpoints, while the latter is concerned with how we involve addressees as participants in discourse. Finally, the textual metafunction refers to the organization of discourse and to the marking of discourse cohesion.

Chapter 3 is devoted to explaining the corpora analysed and the methodology employed. In Section 3.1, I explore the two registers examined, parliamentary discourse and conversation according to Biber's (1988) multi-dimensional model of register analysis. The chapter then discusses the corpora of parliamentary discourse (Section 3.2) and conversation (Section 3.3). Both subsections follow the same structure: first, they describe the corpora and, then, they explain the data retrieval process. As for parliamentary discourse, I resort to the Hansard Corpus. For English, I employ the British Parliament Hansard Corpus (Alexander & Davies, 2005) and for French, the French component within the French/English Hansard Corpus from the Canadian Parliament. In the absence of a Spanish component from the Hansard Corpus, I extract the data for this language from the *Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados*, the official record for parliamentary sessions in the Spanish parliament. With respect to conversations, I extract the data from conversation components of reference corpora in the three languages. For English, I employ the British component of the *International Corpus of English* (ICE-GB) (Nelson et al., 2002); whereas for French and Spanish I resort to an already contrastive corpus, the *Integrated Reference Corpora for Spoken Romance Languages* (C-ORAL-ROM) (Cresti & Moneglia, 2005).

Chapter 4 presents three case studies. The first two deal with conditional subordination (Section 4.1), while the third case study explores insubordination (Section 4.2). Within subordination, conditionals are analysed in two distinct types of spoken discourse: parliamentary discourse, examined in Section 4.1.1, and conversation, analysed in Section 4.1.2. The variables coded in the analyses of parliamentary discourse and conversations are the same in order to allow cross-genre discussion, namely: (i) metafunction (ideational, interpersonal or textual), (ii) degree of likelihood (real condition, potential condition or unreal condition), (iii) position (initial, final or middle), (iv) markedness of the apodosis (marked or unmarked) and (v) modal in the apodosis (modal or non-modal). The only exception is the interpersonal metafunction, which allows a greater level of analysis in conversation. Interpersonal conditionals are further categorised in conversation in terms of (i) the interpersonal subfunction they fulfil in conversation, which allows to distinguish between epistemic, opinion/evaluation, politeness, relevance, reservation and metalinguistic conditionals, and (ii) as to whether stance or engagement prevails in the interpersonal conditional. A cross-register discussion focusing on the similarities and divergences in the use of conditionals in parliamentary discourse and conversations is provided in Section 4.1.3.

Corpus findings from parliamentary discourse can be summarised as follows. In terms of metafunction, results indicate that conditionals are typically used in parliament in their ideational function. Interpersonal functions are less dominant in this register, although their frequency is significantly higher in Spanish than in the other two languages. Textual conditionals occur in very low frequencies cross-linguistically. As for the degree of likelihood of these constructions, neutral conditions are the most frequent in all three languages, followed by potential conditions and unreal conditions. From a contrastive perspective, it is interesting to note that English presents a significantly lower proportion of neutral conditions, which correlates with a higher occurrence of potential conditions, as compared to the two Romance languages. In terms of position of the *if/si*-clause with respect to the apodosis, initial position is predominant in the three languages. However, English, again, differs significantly from French and Spanish in that it presents a lower proportion of conditionals in initial position and a higher use of these constructions in final position. With respect to the markedness of the apodosis by *then* and by their French and Spanish equivalents, the results are unexpected. Despite the fact

that these markers are usually favoured in complex and lengthy sentences, as is the case in parliamentary discourse, no instance of a marked apodosis was attested in the English and French corpora and only three cases were found in Spanish. A possible explanation for this finding seems to be that marked apodoses are considered to be more categorial in tone (Dancygier & Sweetser, 1997), which may prevent their use when parliamentarians want to downtone their discourse or present facts as negotiable. Finally, as expected, modal verbs occur in much higher frequencies in English than in the two Romance languages, which employ other grammatical mechanisms to convey the meanings encoded by English modals. Results from English also show that modals are unequally distributed among the different metafunctions, with ideational conditionals containing a significantly higher use of modal verbs.

With respect to conversation, conditionals are employed in similar frequencies in their ideational and interpersonal functions, with interpersonal conditionals even outnumbering their ideational counterparts in English and Spanish. Textual conditionals, as happened in parliamentary discourse, occur in low frequencies cross-linguistically. Conversations are revealed as the prototypical setting for the expression of interpersonality and this also allows to provide a more fine-grained analysis of interpersonal conditionals in this genre. The analysis for interpersonal conditionals in conversation is twofold. First, a detailed categorization is proposed, building on Warchal (2010), which distinguishes six different subtypes of interpersonal conditionals. The two most frequent in the three languages are epistemic and opinion/evaluation conditionals. The third position in the rank of frequency is occupied by politeness conditionals in English and Spanish. In contrast, in French the politeness category reduces its frequency by half as compared to English and Spanish, and the third position in the rank is occupied by metalinguistic conditionals, which are much less frequent in English and totally absent from the Spanish corpus. The other subfunctions include relevance, reservation and metalinguistic conditionals, which are quantitatively less dominant (with the exception of the French metalinguistic conditionals just mentioned). In fact, in Spanish no instance of two of these subfunctions – reservation and metalinguistic – was attested in the corpus, distinguishing thus only four different interpersonal subfunctions in Spanish as compared to the six identified in the other two languages. Second, interpersonal conditionals are also classified in terms of stance or engagement. The results follow the overall trend

indicating that stance is more frequent than engagement (Hyland, 2005). Three of the interpersonal subfunctions can encode both stance or engagement, although all of them show a preference either for stance or engagement. In particular, epistemic conditionals are primarily used to convey the stance of the speaker. The same happens in opinion/evaluation conditionals which also show a dominance of stance (although it is worth noting in this subfunction the higher use of engagement in French as compared with the other two languages). On the contrary, relevance conditionals are used chiefly to indicate engagement. The other three subfunctions, in contrast, are used to convey either stance or engagement exclusively, as it happens with politeness and metalinguistic conditionals, which express engagement, and reservation conditionals, which encode stance.

Regarding the degree of likelihood of these constructions in conversation, most of them show a preference for real conditions and this trend holds across languages. As for the position of the *if/si*-clause with respect to the matrix clause, the canonical order in which the protasis follows the apodosis is generally maintained in all three languages regardless of metafunction. However, a closer analysis reveals certain position preferences across interpersonal subfunctions. In particular, some types deviate from the general trend and favour a non-initial position. These are politeness conditionals in English and relevance, reservation and metalinguistic conditionals (with the exception of the relevance subtype in Spanish, which favours initial position). Since some of these subfunctions just contain a few examples, these initial results should be confirmed by further research, particularly in the case of low-frequency subfunctions. With regard to the markedness of the apodosis, only a reduced proportion of apodoses are marked. All the marked apodoses are introduced by *then* in English, whereas the corpus findings indicate a wider lexical range of markers in French (*alors*, *donc* and *voilà*) and Spanish (*entonces* and *pues*). Finally, the last variable examined is the use of a modal verb in the apodosis. As expected, this feature is more frequent in English than in French and Spanish, which resort to other mechanisms to convey modality. In English, as it happened in parliament, modal verbs occur in significantly higher frequencies in ideational than in interpersonal conditionals.

An interim discussion is provided in Section 4.1.3, where cross-register results are tackled in more detail. The two variables which show more variation across the two

registers examined are the metafunction of the conditional and the markedness of the apodosis. On the one hand, results show that the choice of metafunction is motivated by register. Parliamentary discourse clearly favours ideational conditionals, whereas in conversation both ideational and interpersonal conditionals occur in similar frequencies, with interpersonal conditionals even being more numerous than their ideational counterparts in some cases. On the other hand, the markedness of the apodosis also presents very different results in parliamentary discourse and conversation. While marked apodoses were practically absent in parliamentary discourse, their frequency – despite being low – is significantly higher in conversations.

Finally, to conclude Chapter 4, the third case study addresses instances of insubordination introduced by *if* and *si* (Section 4.2.1). First, I discuss the overall frequency of insubordination in the three languages, which is found to be significantly higher in Spanish as compared to the other two languages. Then, the chapter focuses on the functions of insubordinate *if/si*-clauses, which, in line with Van Linden and Van de Velde (2014), are assigned to the interpersonal metafunction. Following a prior study in which I explored insubordination in English (Lastres-López, 2018b), I propose a categorization of these constructions depending on whether they fulfil directive or non-directive functions. Directives, categorized in terms of who is the agent and beneficiary of the future action, in line with Couper-Kuhlen (2014), include requests, suggestions and offers, whereas the non-directive category encompasses wishes, assertions/exclamations and complaints. The major cross-linguistic difference has to do with the use of directives versus non-directives, the former being dominant in English as opposed to what happens in French and Spanish. More specifically, the most frequent function for insubordinate *if*-clauses in English is to express requests, whereas their French and Spanish equivalents are typically used to convey assertions/exclamations. Results for low-frequency subfunctions should be taken with caution and require to be confirmed against larger corpora.

The present chapter – Chapter 5 – provides a general discussion on conditional subordination and *if/si*-insubordination. After a comparison on the functional-pragmatic properties of both types of constructions in Section 5.1, the chapter continues in Section 5.2 by discussing pragmatization with respect to *if/si*-constructions. I propose a path of pragmatization for the constructions analysed, from ideational conditionals to the

development of interpersonal and textual functions in these constructions, to cases of insubordination and pragmatic markers as the ultimate extension of those interpersonal/textual functions. In Section 5.3, I discuss pragmaticalization with respect to decategorialization, since the more pragmaticalized types of conditionals lose some of the morphosyntactic features typical of ideational conditionals, namely: the loss of modal verbs in conditional apodoses, the limited variation in terms of degree of hypotheticality and the preference for a non-initial order for the protasis. Likewise, the specialization of marked apodoses, which are restricted to epistemic conditionals in English and French, is also interpreted a signal of decategorialization. If we consider that cases of insubordinate *if/si*-clauses develop from full conditionals, insubordination could also be considered to adhere to decategorialization, since insubordinate clauses no longer present the structure of a complex construction formed by a protasis and an apodosis. I conclude the chapter by providing – in this subsection – a summary of the thesis and offering some concluding remarks.

Finally, Chapter 6 follows these conclusions and closes the thesis by offering some suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 6

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This thesis constitutes a contribution towards contrastive corpus-based studies on both conditional and insubordinate *if/si*-constructions. Although I hope this research piece has thrown some new light on the topic, much remains to be explored in connection with the constructions studied here. In what follows I outline some suggestions for further research.

- The study of conditionality could be enriched by extending the analysis to written language in order to determine whether the polyfunctionality of conditional constructions is a characteristic of spoken discourse or is also present in written discourse. In the light of the results reported here, we could hypothesize that interpersonal conditionals, much more frequent in conversation than in parliament, would also have a relatively low frequency in most written registers. In these latter, conditionals would be more frequently used in their prototypical ideational function than in the interpersonal one; but this hypothesis should be tested against the data.
- Another avenue for further research includes exploring these constructions in other spoken registers and in other languages, in order to provide a wider picture on cross-register and cross-linguistic similarities and differences in the use of conditional constructions. One of the major difficulties faced when carrying out contrastive and cross-linguistic studies is the lack of fully comparable corpora. In this respect, the future release of the *International Comparable Corpus* (ICC)⁵⁵

⁵⁵ <https://korpus.cz/icc>

(Kirk & Čermáková, 2017; Kirk et al., 2018), an ongoing project to create a set of comparable corpora in different languages following the ICE corpora sampling frame, will undoubtedly contribute to mitigating this difficulty significantly.

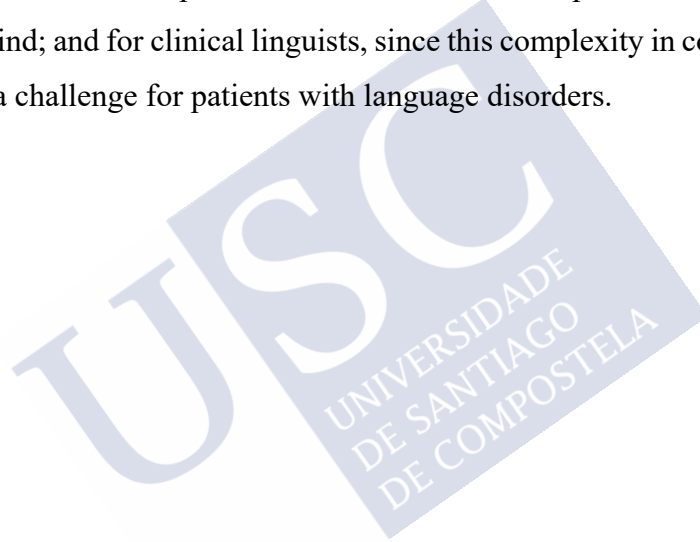
- From a register perspective, it would also be worthwhile to explore how conditionals are used in computer-mediated-communication (CMC), which although written, resembles spoken language in that it shows a very high degree of interpersonality and colloquialization.
- Likewise, further research could encompass conditional markers other than *if* and *si* in the three languages, to determine to what extent the use of other conditional markers is restricted to the ideational metafunction or whether it is also possible for them to be employed in clauses with interpersonal and/or textual functions.
- Also worth exploring are pragmatic markers deriving from conditionals, which deserve more scholarly attention. In-depth analyses of these markers can only be carried out with the help of corpora larger than those employed in this dissertation for conversations. More data would allow one to determine the degree of fixation of these constructions and confirm (or not) their consideration as pragmatic markers. Contrastive analyses of these cases would also be interesting to explore differences in the degree of fixation of certain *if/si*-constructions across languages.
- Similarly, there is still much work to be done on insubordination. The results reported here should be confirmed against larger corpora, especially in the case of French. The study of insubordination would also benefit from the analysis of clauses introduced by conjunctions other than *if* and *si*.
- Finally, the analysis could also be extended to explore conditional constructions in varieties of the three languages other than those examined here (British English, Canadian and France French, and Peninsular Spanish). For example, the results reported here for British English could be compared with those obtained for other varieties of English by examining other components within the *International Corpus of English* (ICE).

The results of this thesis may have implications for other (sub)fields of linguistics. In what follows, I briefly sketch some of the possible implications for three different domains, namely: (i) foreign language teaching and learning, (ii) translation and computational linguistics, and (iii) psycholinguistics and clinical linguistics.

- (i) Foreign language teaching and learning: As earlier research has noted, textbooks and didactic materials aimed at foreign language students tend to an oversimplification of conditional constructions, often concentrating exclusively on a very limited number of types of conditionals associated with certain degrees of hypotheticality and certain verbal tenses (Maule, 1988; Jones & Waller, 2011; Gabrielatos 2003, 2006). The results reported here have shown, on the one hand, that a clear majority of the conditional constructions in the three languages are used to express real conditions (with potential and unreal conditions being much less frequent); on the other hand, the corpus analysis has uncovered a complex picture in which constructions introduced by English *if* and their equivalents with *si* are pragmatically rich and complex. As also noted by Puente-Castelo (2017a: 82), this pragmatic complexity does not tend to be reflected in foreign language teaching. Exposure of students to the pragmatic richness of *if/si*-constructions and to interpersonal conditionals in particular seems to be necessary given the high use of these constructions in conversation. Along these lines, recent years have witnessed some isolated efforts to incorporate the pragmatic complexity of these constructions into language instruction; see, for example, the didactic materials proposed by Llanos Casado (2017: 325-392) on interpersonal conditionals and on *si*-insubordination in Spanish.
- (ii) Translation and computational linguistics: The fact that many interpersonal conditionals can be considered as cases of pragmaticalization could involve an added complexity for translation and computational linguistics. In line with Banegas Saorín and Ciry (2017), who claim that certain *si*-constructions in French could be translated into Spanish as *por así decirlo* (English *sort to say*)

or as *bueno* (English *well*), it seems that pragmaticalization may pose certain problems in the translation of *if/si*-constructions which professional translators should be aware of. In addition, this effect should be taken into account in computational linguistics for the implementation of automatic translation software, for example.

- (iii) Psycholinguistics and clinical linguistics: The fact that *if/si*-constructions are frequently used for purposes where the conditional meaning is weaker and interpersonal functions prevail over conditionality could also be worth noting for psycholinguists, who might want to consider the differences between ideational and interpersonal conditionals with respect to their processing in the mind; and for clinical linguists, since this complexity in conditionals could pose a challenge for patients with language disorders.



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APPENDIX

METADATA AND CONTEXTUAL INFORMATION OF THE CONVERSATIONS ANALYSED

This appendix provides the metadata and contextual information of the conversations analysed in Sections 4.1.2 and 4.2.1. All the information here is based on data presented in the interfaces of the corpora utility programmes: ICECUP, for ICE-GB, and CONTEXTES, for C-ORAL-ROM. Details about English conversations are also complemented by the information supplied in Nelson et al. (2002: 310-311).

Corpus	Text code	Metadata and contextual information
ICE-GB	S1A-001	<i>Date:</i> April 1991 <i>Place:</i> Middlesex Polytechnic University (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Instructor and dance student
ICE-GB	S1A-002	<u>Subtext 1</u> <i>Date:</i> April 1991 <i>Place:</i> Middlesex Polytechnic University (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Instructor and dance student <u>Subtext 2</u> <i>Date:</i> April 1991 <i>Place:</i> Middlesex Polytechnic University (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Instructor and dance student
ICE-GB	S1A-003	<i>Date:</i> April 1991 <i>Place:</i> Middlesex Polytechnic University (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Instructor and dance student

ICE-GB	S1A-004	<i>Date: April 1991</i> <i>Place: Middlesex Polytechnic University (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Instructor and dance student</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-005	<i>Date: March 1991</i> <i>Place: London</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Student friends</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-006	<i>Date: March 1991</i> <i>Place: London</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Colleagues</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-007	<i>Date: June 1991</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 5</i> <i>Gender: 3 males, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Family conversation</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-008	<i>Date: June 1991</i> <i>Place: London</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-009	<i>Date: July 1991</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Mother and son</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-010	<i>Date: July 1991</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Mother and daughter</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-011	<u>Subtext 1</u> <i>Date: June 1991</i> <i>Place: London</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends</i> <u>Subtext 2</u> <i>Date: December 1991</i> <i>Place: Cambridge</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Colleagues' conversation</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-012	<i>Date: June 1991</i>

		<p><i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 4 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Members of a barbershop quartet</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-013	<p><i>Date:</i> April 1991 <i>Place:</i> Times Books Ltd (office) <i>Number of participants:</i> 5 <i>Gender:</i> 3 males, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Marketing discussion</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-014	<p><i>Date:</i> July 1991 <i>Place:</i> Survey of English Usage (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-015	<p><i>Date:</i> June 1991 <i>Place:</i> Public house (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends recorded in a pub</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-016	<p><i>Date:</i> April 1991 <i>Place:</i> Times Books Ltd (office) <i>Number of participants:</i> 5 <i>Gender:</i> 3 males, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Marketing discussion</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-017	<p><i>Date:</i> July 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-018	<p><i>Date:</i> April 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-019	<p><i>Date:</i> June 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 6 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 4 females <i>Participants and context:</i> College friends</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-020	<p><i>Date:</i> August 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 4 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-021	<p><u>Subtexts 1 and 2</u> <i>Date:</i> July 1991 <i>Place:</i> Tunbridge Wells <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 2 females</p>

		<i>Participants and context: Friends</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-022	<i>Date: June 1991 Place: Private home (Cambridge) Number of participants: 4 Gender: 1 male, 3 females Participants and context: Family conversation</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-023	<i>Date: October 1991 Place: Private home (London) Number of participants: 2 Gender: 1 male, 1 female Participants and context: Family conversation</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-024	<i>Date: November 1991 Place: Survey of English Usage (London) Number of participants: 2 Gender: 2 males Participants and context: University professor and PhD student</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-025	<i>Date: March 1991 Place: Private home (London) Number of participants: 2 Gender: 1 male, 1 female Participants and context: Brother and sister</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-026	<i>Date: June 1991 Place: Private home (London) Number of participants: 4 Gender: 4 males Participants and context: Conversation during singing practice</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-027	<i>Date: November 1991 Place: Private home (London) Number of participants: 4 Gender: 2 males, 2 females Participants and context: Friends</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-028	<i>Date: July 1991 Place: Private home (Cambridge) Number of participants: 5 Gender: 2 males, 3 females Participants and context: Birthday party conversation</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-029	<i>Date: November 1991 Place: Survey of English Usage (London) Number of participants: 5 Gender: 5 males Participants and context: Programmers' conversation at Survey of English Usage</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-030	<i>Date: November 1991 Place: Private flat (London) Number of participants: 4 Gender: 4 males Participants and context: Flatmates' conversation</i>

ICE-GB	S1A-031	<i>Date:</i> November 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends
ICE-GB	S1A-032	<u>Subtexts 1 and 2</u> <i>Date:</i> November 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private home (Cambridge) <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Family conversation
ICE-GB	S1A-033	<i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> University College London Careers Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Careers interview
ICE-GB	S1A-034	<i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> University College London Careers Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Careers interview
ICE-GB	S1A-035	<i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> University College London Careers Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Careers interview
ICE-GB	S1A-036	<i>Date:</i> February 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Colleagues
ICE-GB	S1A-037	<i>Date:</i> May 1992 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Student friends
ICE-GB	S1A-038	<i>Date:</i> October 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private flat (Cambridge) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Flatmates
ICE-GB	S1A-039	<i>Date:</i> October 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private flat (Cambridge) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Flatmates
ICE-GB	S1A-040	<i>Date:</i> December 1991

		<p><i>Place: Private flat (Cambridge)</i> <i>Number of participants: 5</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 4 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Flatmates</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-041	<p><i>Date: December 1991</i> <i>Place: Private flat (Cambridge)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Flatmates</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-042	<p><i>Date: December 1991</i> <i>Place: Private flat (Cambridge)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 3 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Flatmates</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-043	<p><i>Date: October 1990</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-044	<p><i>Date: October 1990</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-045	<p><u>Subtexts 1 to 3</u> <i>Date: April 1991</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-046	<p><i>Date: November 1991</i> <i>Place: Private home (Cambridge)</i> <i>Number of participants: 4</i> <i>Gender: 2 males, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Family conversation</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-047	<p><i>Date: December 1991</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Christmas dinner family conversation</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-048	<p><i>Date: January 1992</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 3 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-049	<p><i>Date: June 1991</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 3 females</i></p>

		<i>Participants and context: Friends</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-050	<p><i>Date: February 1991</i> <i>Place: University College London Counselling Service (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Counselling interview</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-051	<p><u>Subtext 1</u> <i>Date: November 1991</i> <i>Place: University College London Health Centre (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Doctor and patient</i></p> <p><u>Subtext 2</u> <i>Date: November 1991</i> <i>Place: University College London Health Centre (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Doctor and patient</i></p> <p><u>Subtext 3</u> <i>Date: November 1991</i> <i>Place: University College London Health Centre (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Doctor and patient</i></p> <p><u>Subtext 4</u> <i>Date: November 1991</i> <i>Place: University College London Health Centre (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Doctor and patient</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-052	<p><u>Subtexts 1 and 2</u> <i>Date: June 1991</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 3 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Researchers and photographer</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-053	<p><i>Date: January 1992</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 2 males, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends</i></p>

ICE-GB	S1A-054	<i>Date:</i> November 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends
ICE-GB	S1A-055	<i>Date:</i> January 1992 <i>Place:</i> Cambridge University Press Staff Canteen (Cambridge) <i>Number of participants:</i> 5 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 3 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Conversation in canteen
ICE-GB	S1A-056	<u>Subtexts 1 to 4</u> <i>Date:</i> February 1992 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Mealtime conversation
ICE-GB	S1A-057	<i>Date:</i> February 1992 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Birthday party (family)
ICE-GB	S1A-058	<u>Subtexts 1 and 2</u> <i>Date:</i> January 1992 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Family conversation <u>Subtext 3</u> <i>Date:</i> February 1992 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Dinner party conversation
ICE-GB	S1A-059	<i>Date:</i> February 1991 <i>Place:</i> University College London Student Counselling Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Counselling interview
ICE-GB	S1A-060	<i>Date:</i> October 1990 <i>Place:</i> University College London Student Counselling Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Counselling interview
ICE-GB	S1A-061	<i>Date:</i> February 1992 <i>Place:</i> Restaurant (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2

		<i>Gender: 2 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Colleagues' lunchtime conversation</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-062	<i>Date: February 1991</i> <i>Place: University College London Student Counselling Office (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Counselling interview</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-063	<i>Date: August 1991</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 4</i> <i>Gender: 2 males, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Colleagues' conversation</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-064	<i>Date: November 1991</i> <i>Place: Central School of Speech and Drama (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 3 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Students of speech and drama</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-065	<i>Date: November 1991</i> <i>Place: Duns, Berwickshire</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-066	<i>Date: January 1992</i> <i>Place: University College London Careers Office (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Careers interview</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-067	<i>Date: November 1991</i> <i>Place: Private home (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-068	<i>Date: March 1992</i> <i>Place: University College London Students' Union Office (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 2 males, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Students' Union Office conversation</i>
ICE-GB	S1A-069	<u>Subtexts 1 and 2</u> <i>Date: March 1992</i> <i>Place: University College London Students' Union Office (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i>

		<i>Participants and context:</i> Students' Union Office conversation
ICE-GB	S1A-070	<i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> University College London Students' Union Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Students' Union Office conversation
ICE-GB	S1A-071	<i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Conversation in a restaurant
ICE-GB	S1A-072	<i>Date:</i> April 1991 <i>Place:</i> Middlesex Polytechnic University (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Psychology research interview
ICE-GB	S1A-073	<i>Date:</i> November 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Lunchtime conversation
ICE-GB	S1A-074	<i>Date:</i> November 1991 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Lunchtime conversation
ICE-GB	S1A-075	<u>Subtext 1</u> <i>Date:</i> December 1991 <i>Place:</i> University College London Union Travel Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Conversation in a travel agent's office <u>Subtext 2</u> <i>Date:</i> December 1991 <i>Place:</i> University College London Union Travel Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Conversation in a travel agent's office <u>Subtext 3</u>

		<p><i>Date:</i> December 1991 <i>Place:</i> University College London Union Travel Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Conversation in a travel agent's office</p> <p><u>Subtext 4</u> <i>Date:</i> December 1991 <i>Place:</i> University College London Union Travel Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Conversation in a travel agent's office</p> <p><u>Subtext 5</u> <i>Date:</i> February 1992 <i>Place:</i> University of London Union General Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Office conversation</p> <p><u>Subtext 6</u> <i>Date:</i> February 1992 <i>Place:</i> University of London Union General Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Office conversation</p> <p><u>Subtext 7</u> <i>Date:</i> February 1992 <i>Place:</i> University of London Union General Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Office conversation</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-076	<p><i>Date:</i> April 1991 <i>Place:</i> Middlesex Polytechnic University (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Psychology research interview</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-077	<p><i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> University College London Careers Office (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 4</p>

		<p><i>Gender: 2 males, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Office conversation</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-078	<p><u>Subtext 1</u> <i>Date: March 1992</i> <i>Place: University College London Union Rights and Advice Office (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: University College London Union Rights and Advice Office</i></p> <p><u>Subtext 2</u> <i>Date: March 1992</i> <i>Place: University College London Union Rights and Advice Office (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: University College London Union Rights and Advice Office</i></p> <p><u>Subtext 3</u> <i>Date: March 1992</i> <i>Place: University College London Union Rights and Advice Office (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: University College London Union Rights and Advice Office</i></p> <p><u>Subtext 4</u> <i>Date: March 1992</i> <i>Place: University College London Union Rights and Advice Office (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: University College London Union Rights and Advice Office</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-079	<p><i>Date: March 1992</i> <i>Place: University College London Union Rights and Advice Office (London)</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: University College London Union Rights and Advice Office</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-080	<p><i>Date: May 1992</i> <i>Place: Not specified</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends</i></p>
ICE-GB	S1A-081	<p><i>Date: April 1992</i></p>

		<p><i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Family conversation</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-082	<p><i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> Central School of Speech and Drama (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Students of speech and drama</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-083	<p><i>Date:</i> April 1992 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Tennis coaches</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-084	<p><i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> University College London English Department Student Common Room (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Students</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-085	<p><i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-086	<p><i>Date:</i> April 1992 <i>Place:</i> Private home (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 3 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-087	<p><u>Subtexts 1 and 2</u> <i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> Dental Surgery (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Dentist and patient</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-088	<p><i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> Dental Surgery (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Dentist and patient</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-089	<p><u>Subtext 1</u> <i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> Dental Surgery (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Dentist and patient</p>

		<p><u>Subtexts 2 to 4</u> <i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> University College London Health Care (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Doctor and patient</p>
ICE-GB	S1A-090	<p><u>Subtext 1</u> <i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> University College London English Department Student Common Room (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 3 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Students' conversation</p> <p><u>Subtext 2</u> <i>Date:</i> March 1992 <i>Place:</i> University College London English Department Student Common Room (London) <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 3 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Students' conversation</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv01	<p><i>Date:</i> May 2000 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 5 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 3 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between friends at the faculty</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv02	<p><i>Date:</i> March 2000 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between friends at the faculty about their night out in Aix-en-Provence</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv03	<p><i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Friendly discussion at home between friends</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv04	<p><i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between three students at the university</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv05	<p><i>Date:</i> May 2000 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 4</p>

		<i>Gender: 4 females</i> <i>Participants and context: At home, conversation between friends</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv06	<i>Date: May 2000</i> <i>Place: Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 6</i> <i>Gender: 4 males, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Friendly discussion at the university</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv07	<i>Date: October 2001</i> <i>Place: Poitiers</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 3 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Friendly discussion at home</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv08	<i>Date: March 2001</i> <i>Place: Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Conversation between friends at home</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv09	<i>Date: March 2001</i> <i>Place: Allauch, Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 3 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Conversation between friends at home</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv10	<i>Date: March 2001</i> <i>Place: Allauch, Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 3 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Conversation between friends at home</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv11	<i>Date: June 2002</i> <i>Place: Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Discussion between friends at the university</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamcv12	<i>Date: November 2001</i> <i>Place: Poitiers</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 2 males, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Gossips at home</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamd101	<i>Date: November 2001</i> <i>Place: Poitiers</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Friendly discussion at home</i>

C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl02	<i>Date:</i> January 2001 <i>Place:</i> Caen <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Friendly discussion in a shop
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl03	<i>Date:</i> November 2001 <i>Place:</i> Luynes <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 (+ interviewer) <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Friendly discussion in the place of residence of the couple
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl04	<i>Date:</i> January 2002 <i>Place:</i> Nancy <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Dialogue at home
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl05	<i>Date:</i> January 1999 <i>Place:</i> Bayonne <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 (+ interviewer) <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion with a professor
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl06	<i>Date:</i> October 2001 <i>Place:</i> Poitiers <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion at home
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl07	<i>Date:</i> October 2001 <i>Place:</i> Poitiers <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion at home
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl08	<i>Date:</i> November 2001 <i>Place:</i> Viennay <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Gossips at home
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl09	<i>Date:</i> Non-specified month, 1994 <i>Place:</i> Martigues <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion with a nurse
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl10	<i>Date:</i> April 2002 <i>Place:</i> Manosque <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Friendly discussion at home
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl11	<i>Date:</i> April 1994 <i>Place:</i> Bezaudin sur Bine, Drôme

		<p><i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Interview of a goat-girl on her place of work</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamd112	<p><i>Date: January 2001</i> <i>Place: Narbonne</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Interview at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamd113	<p><i>Date: Non-specified month, 1994</i> <i>Place: Allauch</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Discussion with a saleswoman</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamd114	<p><i>Date: November 2000</i> <i>Place: Paris</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Dialogue at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamd115	<p><i>Date: November 1994</i> <i>Place: Matha</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Interview in a showroom</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamd116	<p><i>Date: November 2001</i> <i>Place: Matha</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Interview in a showroom</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamd117	<p><i>Date: Non-specified month, 1994</i> <i>Place: Lens</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Discussion with an ancient miner</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamd118	<p><i>Date: December 1999</i> <i>Place: Nice</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Interview</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamd119	<p><i>Date: January 2000</i> <i>Place: Paris</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Interview on the place of work</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamd120	<p><i>Date: February 1998</i> <i>Place: Auxerre</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i></p>

		<i>Gender: 2 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Interview at home</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl21	<i>Date: February 1998</i> <i>Place: Auxerre</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Interview at home</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl22	<i>Date: January 2001</i> <i>Place: Rouen</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Interview in a hotel room</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl23	<i>Date: April 2002</i> <i>Place: Marseille</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Domestic discussion around a rabbit in the dining room of the grandmother</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl24	<i>Date: October 2002</i> <i>Place: Châtelailon</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Discussion at home</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl25	<i>Date: Non-specified month, 1994</i> <i>Place: Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Discussion with an amateur photographer</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl26	<i>Date: Non-specified month, 1994</i> <i>Place: Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Discussion with an amateur photographer</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl27	<i>Date: Non-specified month, 1994</i> <i>Place: Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Discussion with an amateur photographer</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl28	<i>Date: Non-specified month, 1994</i> <i>Place: Not specified</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Discussion with a potter</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	ffamdl29	<i>Date: October 2002</i> <i>Place: Châtelailon</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i>

		<i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Discussion at home</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubcv01	<i>Date: November 1999</i> <i>Place: Amiens</i> <i>Number of participants: 10</i> <i>Gender: 3 males, 7 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Meeting in a room of the City Hall</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubcv02	<i>Date: May 2001</i> <i>Place: Poitiers</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 3 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Conversation in the office of a school secretary</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubcv03	<i>Date: May 2001</i> <i>Place: Poitiers</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 3 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Conversation in the office of a school secretary</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubcv04	<i>Date: April 2002</i> <i>Place: University of Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Conversation in the office of the technicians</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubcv05	<i>Date: April 2002</i> <i>Place: Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 4</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 3 females</i> <i>Participants and context: At university, conversation between teachers and students</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubcv06	<i>Date: May 1994</i> <i>Place: Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 6</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 5 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Reading lessons at school</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubcv07	<i>Date: February 1994</i> <i>Place: Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 10</i> <i>Gender: 5 males, 5 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Reading lessons at school</i>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubcv08	<i>Date: April 2002</i> <i>Place: University of Aix-en-Provence</i> <i>Number of participants: 5</i> <i>Gender: 2 males, 3 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Conversation between students and a professor of data processing on the problems of data storage</i>
C-ORAL-ROM	fpubcv09	<i>Date: April 2002</i>

(French)		<p><i>Place:</i> University of Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 6 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 5 females <i>Participants and context:</i> At university, conversation between teachers and students</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl01	<p><i>Date:</i> January 2001 <i>Place:</i> Rouen <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion with an employee</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl02	<p><i>Date:</i> April 1994 <i>Place:</i> Hotel (unknown location) <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Selling a holiday package</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl03	<p><i>Date:</i> March 1994 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Interview of an employee about his profession: funerary assistant</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl04	<p><i>Date:</i> March 1994 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Interview of an employee about his profession: funerary assistant</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl05	<p><i>Date:</i> April 2002 <i>Place:</i> University of Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> At university, conversation between a teacher and a secretary</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl06	<p><i>Date:</i> January 2001 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 4 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Interview in a bakery</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl07	<p><i>Date:</i> January 2001 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Sale in a bakery</p>
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl08	<p><i>Date:</i> January 2001 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 3 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Sale in a bakery</p>
C-ORAL-ROM	fpubdl09	<p><i>Date:</i> June 2002</p>

(French)		<i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between two friends at the university
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl10	<i>Date:</i> June 2002 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between two friends at the university
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl11	<i>Date:</i> June 2002 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between two friends at the university
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl12	<i>Date:</i> June 2002 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between two friends at the university
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl13	<i>Date:</i> June 2002 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between two friends at the university
C-ORAL-ROM (French)	fpubdl14	<i>Date:</i> June 2002 <i>Place:</i> Aix-en-Provence <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between two friends at the university
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv01	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 5 <i>Gender:</i> 3 males, 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between friends at a party
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv02	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 5 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 3 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between relatives in a living room
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv03	<i>Date:</i> May 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 3

		<p><i>Gender: 1 male, 2 females</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends in the living room</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv04	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 3</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 2 males, 1 female</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between colleagues in classroom</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv05	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 3</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 2 males, 1 female</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv06	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 4</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 2 males, 2 females</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Four friends at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv07	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 5</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 2 males, 3 females</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Conversation between friends at an underwear shop</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv08	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 3</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 1 male, 2 females</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv09	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Segovia</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 5</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 4 males, 1 female</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv10	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 4</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 1 male, 3 females</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends at university</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv11	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Segovia</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 3</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 3 males</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Discussion between mates at the association's room</i></p>

C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv12	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Talk between friends at home
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv13	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Segovia <i>Number of participants:</i> 4 <i>Gender:</i> 3 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between relatives in living room
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv14	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 6 <i>Gender:</i> 3 males, 3 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between relatives at home
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamcv15	<i>Date:</i> May 2001 <i>Place:</i> Segovia <i>Number of participants:</i> 3 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between friends at the bank
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd101	<i>Date:</i> February 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat at coffee time at home
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd102	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Conversation between cousins in an underwear shop
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd103	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between friends at home
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd104	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between friends at home
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd105	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Segovia <i>Number of participants:</i> 2

		<p><i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd106	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 2</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 2 females</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd107	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 2</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends in the living room</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd108	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 2</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 2 females</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends at university</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd109	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 2</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd110	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Segovia</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 2</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat in the living room</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd111	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 2</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 2 females</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends in the living room</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd112	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 2</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 2 females</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between friends at coffee time at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd113	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i></p> <p><i>Place: Madrid</i></p> <p><i>Number of participants: 2</i></p> <p><i>Gender: 2 females</i></p> <p><i>Participants and context: Chat between mates at the laboratory</i></p>

C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd114	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Talk between husband and wife
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd115	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between friends at the laboratory
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd116	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between friends in the living room after dinner
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd117	<i>Date:</i> February 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between grandson and grandmother
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd118	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between friends at the multimedia room desk
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd119	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Talk between husband and wife at home
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd120	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between workmates at the OCU's [consumer organization] offices
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd121	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between friends in the living room
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd122	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid

		<p><i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Two friends chatting in the living room</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd123	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Conversation between mates at classroom</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd124	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends chatting at one of the participant's home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd125	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Friends talking at one of the participant's home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd126	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Discussion between friends at home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd127	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Chat between friends at parents' home</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd128	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Talk between friends at a friend's house</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd129	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 males</i> <i>Participants and context: Talk between workmates at the office</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd130	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i></p>

		<i>Participants and context:</i> After class, two friends talk about the weekend
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamdl31	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between mates in a classroom
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamdl32	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Coffee time at one of the participants' home
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamdl33	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends chatting in a living room
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamdl34	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> A couple talking in their kitchen
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamdl35	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends at university
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamdl36	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Friends chatting at university
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamdl37	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Two friends talking in the living room
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamdl38	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Talk between friends at lunch break
C-ORAL-ROM	efamdl39	<i>Date:</i> April 2001

(Spanish)		<p><i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: In the kitchen</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd140	<p><i>Date: March 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Chat at the OCU [consumer organization] offices</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd141	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Talk between friends after class</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	efamd142	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Dialogue after lunch</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubcv01	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 4</i> <i>Gender: 2 males, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Chat between hairdresser and client</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubcv02	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 3</i> <i>Gender: 2 males, 1 female</i> <i>Participants and context: Chat between friends outside the library</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl01	<p><i>Date: April 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 4</i> <i>Gender: 2 males, 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Chat between hairdresser and client</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl02	<p><i>Date: February 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 2 females</i> <i>Participants and context: Teacher and student discuss at the teacher's office</i></p>
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl03	<p><i>Date: February 2001</i> <i>Place: Madrid</i> <i>Number of participants: 2</i> <i>Gender: 1 male, 1 female</i></p>

		<i>Participants and context:</i> Two workmates talking at work
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl04	<i>Date:</i> February 2002 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Exchange between client and seller in the seller's office
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl05	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> An informal class in a classroom
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl06	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Talk between doctor and patient at a massage centre
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl07	Information not available
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl08	<i>Date:</i> March 2002 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> In the office
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl09	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males <i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between workmates at coffee time
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl10	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Seller and client talking at a gift shop
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl11	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Talk between workmates in the multimedia room
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl12	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 males

		<i>Participants and context:</i> Chat between friends in a classroom
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl13	<i>Date:</i> February 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between workmates at the office
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl14	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion at the university lunch room
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl15	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 1 male, 1 female <i>Participants and context:</i> Explanation in a classroom
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl16	<i>Date:</i> April 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Private lesson in one of the participant's living room
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl17	<i>Date:</i> February 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Interview at a printing house
C-ORAL-ROM (Spanish)	epubdl18	<i>Date:</i> March 2001 <i>Place:</i> Madrid <i>Number of participants:</i> 2 <i>Gender:</i> 2 females <i>Participants and context:</i> Discussion between workmates at the office

RESUMEN EN ESPAÑOL

Esta tesis doctoral aborda el estudio de las construcciones introducidas por la conjunción *if* en inglés y sus equivalentes introducidas por *si* en francés y español, desde una perspectiva pragmático-funcional y de corpus. El estudio abarca, por una parte, las construcciones subordinadas condicionales, formadas por prótasis o cláusula subordinada y apódosis o cláusula principal; y, por otra, las construcciones insubordinadas, en las que la prótasis aparece de manera aislada, pero tiene un significado completo en el discurso y es considerada como una cláusula principal (Evans, 2007).

El capítulo 1 presenta el objeto de estudio de la tesis doctoral y sus objetivos, delimitando las construcciones a estudiar en los siguientes capítulos y circunscribiendo el estudio a una aproximación pragmático-funcional, contrastiva y de corpus. El análisis se restringe al discurso oral y, en particular, a dos registros diferentes: el discurso parlamentario y las conversaciones. En la sección 1.1 se formulan las preguntas de investigación a las que se tratará de dar respuesta en los tres casos de estudio que se presentan en el capítulo 4. El capítulo concluye en la sección 1.2, en la que se ofrece un breve resumen de la estructura de la tesis y de los contenidos que se tratarán en cada uno de los seis capítulos.

El capítulo 2 ofrece una revisión de la literatura y establece la propuesta de marco teórico para analizar las construcciones introducidas por *if* en inglés y sus equivalentes con *si* en francés y español. La sección 2.1 aborda la revisión de la literatura y se divide en dos partes. En la primera de ellas (sección 2.1.1), se examinan los estudios previos sobre construcciones condicionales, mientras que en la segunda (sección 2.1.2), se revisa la investigación previa acerca de la insubordinación. Las construcciones condicionales han sido objeto de análisis de un número de estudios extremadamente elevado, llevados a cabo desde perspectivas diferentes. Por esta razón, nos centramos en las tres aproximaciones que se combinan en esta tesis para estructurar la revisión de la literatura. De este modo, la sección 2.1.1.2 está dedicada a estudios previos que han examinado las construcciones condicionales desde una perspectiva pragmático-funcional; la sección

2.1.1.3 examina los estudios que han adoptado una perspectiva contrastiva; y la sección 2.1.1.4 cierra la revisión de la literatura abordando los estudios previos llevados a cabo desde una aproximación de corpus. Esta revisión de la investigación previa sobre el tema muestra el amplio repertorio de usos y funciones de las construcciones que se pueden englobar como condicionales. Del mismo modo, se evidencia la falta de estudios contrastivos de corpus que se hayan llevado a cabo con el objetivo de desentrañar las propiedades pragmático-funcionales de estas construcciones en inglés, francés y español.

A continuación, el capítulo 2 aborda estudios previos realizados sobre la insubordinación en la sección 2.1.2. En primer lugar, se define el concepto de insubordinación en la sección 2.1.2.1, explicando las principales características de las cláusulas subordinadas, la acuñación del término insubordinación por Evans (2007) y el incipiente interés por el estudio de estas construcciones desde entonces. Seguidamente, en la sección 2.1.2.2, se explica el desarrollo de las cláusulas subordinadas teniendo en cuenta la hipótesis de la elipsis propuesta por Evans (2007), pero acomodando también otras posibilidades que explican el desarrollo de estas construcciones, como las propuestas por Mithun (2008), Heine et al. (2016) y Cristofaro (2016). Finalmente, la sección 2.1.2.3 cierra la parte sobre insubordinación ofreciendo una revisión de la investigación previa realizada sobre la insubordinación en inglés, francés y español.

El capítulo 2 concluye en la sección 2.2 proponiendo un marco teórico que abarque tanto construcciones condicionales subordinadas como casos de insubordinación introducidos por las mismas conjunciones. El marco teórico propuesto se basa en las tres metafunciones distinguidas por la Lingüística Sistémico-Funcional (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014): ideacional, interpersonal y textual. La metafunción ideacional hace referencia a cómo empleamos la lengua para hablar sobre el mundo, es decir, alude al empleo de la lengua para expresar contenido proposicional o referencial. La metafunción interpersonal, por su parte, se refiere a cómo empleamos la lengua para interactuar con otros. En ella, entran en juego los conceptos interrelacionados de *stance* y *engagement* (Hyland, 2005). El primero de ellos hace referencia a la expresión de juicios, opiniones y puntos de vista por parte del hablante, mientras que el segundo aborda cómo implicamos a nuestros interlocutores como participantes en el discurso. En último lugar, la metafunción textual se refiere a cómo organizamos el discurso y cómo marcamos explícitamente la cohesión discursiva.

El capítulo 3 se dedica a la metodología empleada en la tesis doctoral y ofrece información sobre los diferentes corpus utilizados. En la sección 3.1 se da cuenta del modelo de análisis multidimensional propuesto por Biber (1988) para explicar la variación entre registros y, en particular, se explican las diferencias entre los dos registros examinados, el discurso parlamentario y las conversaciones. Los corpus empleados para extraer los datos del discurso parlamentario se describen en la sección 3.2, mientras que los utilizados para el análisis de las conversaciones se tratan en la sección 3.3. Ambas secciones muestran la misma estructura, describiendo, en primer lugar, las características de los corpus y, a continuación, el proceso de extracción de datos. Para el análisis del discurso parlamentario, se analiza el Hansard Corpus. En particular, para el inglés se emplea el Hansard Corpus del parlamento británico (Alexander & Davies, 2005), mientras que para el francés los datos se extraen del componente francés del Hansard Corpus del parlamento canadiense. En español, dada la ausencia de un componente del Hansard Corpus en esta lengua, los datos se extraen del Diario de Sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados. En lo que respecta a las conversaciones, se recurre a los componentes conversacionales de corpus de referencia en las tres lenguas. En el caso del inglés, se emplea el componente británico del *International Corpus of English* (ICE-GB) (Nelson et al., 2002); mientras que para el francés y el español se utiliza un corpus que ya es contrastivo, el *Integrated Reference Corpora for Spoken Romance Languages* (C-ORAL-ROM) (Cresti & Moneglia, 2005).

El capítulo 4 comprende tres casos de estudio. Los dos primeros abordan la subordinación condicional (Sección 4.1), mientras que el tercero trata casos de insubordinación (Sección 4.2). Dentro de la subordinación, se analizan las construcciones condicionales en dos registros orales diferentes: el discurso parlamentario, analizado en la sección 4.1.1, y la conversación, que se analiza en la sección 4.1.2. Las variables examinadas en el discurso parlamentario y en las conversaciones son las mismas, con el fin de permitir un análisis contrastivo de ambos registros: (i) metafunción (ideacional, interpersonal o textual), (ii) grado de probabilidad (condición real, condición potencial o condición irreal), (iii) posición (inicial, final o media), (iv) marcación de la apódosis (marcada o no marcada) y (v) verbo modal en la apódosis (modal o no modal). La metafunción interpersonal permite un mayor grado de análisis en las conversaciones y, por ello, las condicionales interpersonales se categorizan también en este registro de acuerdo con las siguientes variables: (i) subfunción interpersonal, lo que permite

distinguir entre condicionales epistémicas, condicionales de opinión/evaluación, condicionales de cortesía, condicionales de relevancia, condicionales de reserva y condicionales metalingüísticas, y (ii) en cuanto a si el concepto de *stance* o el de *engagement* prevalece en la condicional interpersonal. En la sección 4.1.3 se ofrece una discusión intermedia, enfocada al análisis de las similitudes y divergencias de las condicionales en el discurso parlamentario y en las conversaciones.

En lo que respecta al discurso parlamentario, los resultados del análisis de corpus se pueden resumir de la siguiente forma. En cuanto a la variable de la metafunción, los resultados muestran que las construcciones condicionales se utilizan principalmente en su metafunción ideacional en el discurso parlamentario. A su vez, las condicionales interpersonales son menos predominantes en este registro, aunque se encuentran diferencias estadísticamente más altas en español en comparación con las otras dos lenguas. Las condicionales textuales, por su parte, tienen una ocurrencia muy baja en las tres lenguas. En cuanto a la variable de grado de probabilidad, las condiciones neutras son las predominantes en las tres lenguas, seguidas de las potenciales y, finalmente, de las irreales. Desde un punto de vista contrastivo, es interesante tener en cuenta que el inglés presenta una proporción significativamente más baja de condiciones neutras, en correlación con un uso más frecuente de condiciones potenciales, en comparación con las otras dos lenguas. Con respecto a la variable de la posición de la prótasis en la construcción condicional, la posición inicial es la predominante en las tres lenguas. Sin embargo, el inglés difiere significativamente del francés y del español, ya que presenta una frecuencia más baja de prótasis en posición inicial y una frecuencia más alta de prótasis en posición final con respecto a las otras dos lenguas. En lo referido a la marcación de la apódosis por *then* y sus equivalentes en francés y español, los resultados resultan sorprendentes. Pese a que el uso de *then* y sus equivalentes tiende a darse en oraciones largas y sintácticamente complejas, como suele ser el caso en el discurso parlamentario, no se ha encontrado ningún caso de apódosis marcada en los corpus del inglés y del francés y únicamente se han encontrado tres casos en español. Una posible explicación de este resultado podría ser que las apódosis marcadas suelen ser consideradas más categóricas en tono (Dancygier & Sweetser, 1997), lo que no favorecería su uso cuando los miembros del parlamento desean rebajar el tono de su discurso o mostrarse dispuestos a negociar, por ejemplo. Finalmente, como era esperado, los verbos modales, tienen una ocurrencia mucho mayor en inglés que en las dos lenguas

románicas, ya que estas últimas emplean otros mecanismos gramaticales para transmitir los significados expresados por los verbos modales en inglés. Los resultados del inglés también demuestran que los verbos modales tienen una distribución desigual entre las metafunciones, ya que las condicionales ideacionales presentan un empleo de verbos modales significativamente más alto que las condicionales interpersonales.

En cuanto a las conversaciones, los resultados del análisis de corpus muestran frecuencias de uso similares entre las condicionales ideacionales y las interpersonales, incluso superando en número las interpersonales a las ideacionales en inglés y en español. Por su parte, las condicionales textuales tienen una frecuencia de aparición muy baja en las tres lenguas, al igual que ya ocurría en el discurso parlamentario. Los resultados indican que la conversación es el registro donde predomina la expresión de la interpersonalidad y ello permite también un análisis más detallado de las condicionales interpersonales en este género. De este modo, el análisis de las condicionales interpersonales es doble en las conversaciones. Por una parte, se propone una categorización detallada de estas construcciones que toma como punto de partida el estudio de Warchal (2010), lo que permite distinguir seis subtipos diferentes de condicionales interpersonales. Las dos subfunciones más frecuentes en las tres lenguas son las condicionales epistémicas y las condicionales de opinión/evaluación. La tercera posición en términos de frecuencia la ocupan las condicionales de cortesía en inglés y español. Por el contrario, en francés las condicionales de cortesía reducen su frecuencia a la mitad, en comparación con el inglés y el español, y la tercera posición del ranking de frecuencia la ocupan las condicionales metalingüísticas, que presentan una frecuencia mucho menor en inglés y no aparecen en el corpus español. Las otras subfunciones incluyen condicionales de relevancia, de reserva y metalingüísticas, y son menos preponderantes cuantitativamente (con la única excepción de las condicionales metalingüísticas en francés ya mencionadas). De hecho, en español no se ha encontrado en el corpus ningún caso de condicionales de reserva ni de condicionales metalingüísticas, lo que únicamente permite distinguir un repertorio de cuatro subfunciones interpersonales en el corpus español, en comparación con las seis que se observan en las otras dos lenguas. Por otra parte, las condicionales interpersonales también se clasifican en términos de *stance* o *engagement*. Los resultados siguen la tendencia general que indica que la expresión de *stance* es más frecuente que la de *engagement* (Hyland, 2005). Tres de las subfunciones interpersonales pueden expresar tanto *stance* como *engagement*, aunque

todas ellas muestran una preferencia clara ya sea por la expresión de *stance* o por la de *engagement*. En particular, las condicionales epistémicas se usan principalmente para expresar la opinión o punto de vista del hablante, predominando el concepto de *stance*. Lo mismo ocurre con las condicionales de opinión/evaluación, donde también prevalece el concepto de *stance* (aunque es necesario señalar que en esta subfunción el francés presenta un uso más alto de *engagement* en comparación con las otras dos lenguas). Por el contrario, las condicionales de relevancia se utilizan en su mayoría para indicar *engagement*. En cuanto a las otras tres subfunciones, se emplean exclusivamente bien sea para manifestar *stance* o *engagement*. De este modo, las condicionales de cortesía y las metalingüísticas expresan *engagement*, mientras que las condicionales de reserva denotan *stance*.

En cuanto a la segunda variable analizada, el grado de probabilidad, los resultados indican una preferencia por expresar condiciones reales en las tres lenguas. En lo que respecta a la tercera variable, la posición de la prótasis con respecto a la apódosis, en líneas generales se sigue el orden canónico para estas construcciones (prótasis-apódosis) en las tres metafunciones. Sin embargo, un análisis más pormenorizado revela ciertas preferencias de posición en algunos subtipos de condicionales interpersonales. En concreto, algunos subtipos muestran una desviación de la tendencia general, favoreciendo una posición no inicial de la prótasis. Se trata, en particular, de las condicionales de cortesía en inglés y de las condicionales de relevancia, de reserva y metalingüísticas en las tres lenguas (con la excepción de las condicionales de relevancia en español, que favorecen la posición inicial). Debido a que algunas de estas subfunciones son cuantitativamente escasas, estos resultados iniciales deben ser confirmados en investigaciones futuras. Con respecto a la cuarta variable, la marcación de la apódosis, los resultados de corpus muestran una proporción reducida de apódosis marcadas. En inglés todas las apódosis marcadas están introducidas por *then*, mientras que los resultados revelan una mayor variación léxica en cuanto a sus equivalentes en francés (*alors, donc y voilà*) y en español (*entonces y pues*). Por último, se analiza la variable del empleo de un verbo modal en la apódosis. Como se esperaba, esta característica es más frecuente en inglés que en español y francés, puesto que estas dos últimas lenguas recurren a otros mecanismos para expresar modalidad. En el caso del inglés, al igual que ya ocurría en el discurso parlamentario, los verbos modales muestran una frecuencia de

ocurrencia significativamente mayor en las condicionales ideacionales que en las interpersonales.

La sección 4.1.3 ofrece una discusión intermedia, que se enfoca en analizar los resultados de los dos registros en contraste. Las dos variables que muestran unos resultados más divergentes en los dos registros examinados son la metafunción y la marcación de la apódosis. Por una parte, los resultados evidencian que la elección de metafunción está motivada por el registro. El discurso parlamentario favorece claramente el uso de condicionales ideacionales, mientras que en la conversación las condicionales ideacionales y las interpersonales aparecen con una frecuencia similar, incluso superando en frecuencia las condicionales interpersonales a las ideacionales en algunos casos. Por otra parte, la marcación de la apódosis también presenta resultados muy diferentes en el discurso parlamentario y en las conversaciones. Mientras que las apódosis marcadas prácticamente no aparecen en el discurso parlamentario, su frecuencia – pese a ser baja – es significativamente más alta en las conversaciones.

Como conclusión al capítulo 4, el tercer caso de estudio aborda el análisis de las cláusulas subordinadas introducidas por *if* y *si* (Sección 4.2.1). En primer lugar, se analiza la frecuencia general de la subordinación en las tres lenguas. Los resultados del análisis de corpus indican que el uso de cláusulas subordinadas introducidas por *if* y *si* es significativamente más alto en español que en inglés y en francés. A continuación, el análisis se centra en las funciones de estas construcciones que, en línea con Van Linden y Van de Velde (2014), se asignan a la metafunción interpersonal. Siguiendo un estudio previo en el que ya analicé la subordinación en inglés (Lastres-López, 2018), se propone una categorización de estas construcciones dependiendo de si expresan funciones directivas o no directivas. Las directivas se categorizan en términos de quien es el agente y el beneficiario de la acción futura, en línea con Couper-Kuhlen (2014), e incluyen peticiones, sugerencias y ofrecimientos. Por su parte, las no directivas abarcan deseos, afirmaciones/exclamaciones y quejas. Desde una perspectiva contrastiva, la principal diferencia tiene que ver con el uso de construcciones directivas frente a no directivas. Las directivas son predominantes en inglés, al contrario de lo que ocurre en francés y español. En concreto, la función más frecuente de las cláusulas subordinadas en inglés es la de petición, mientras que sus equivalentes en francés y español se utilizan mayoritariamente para expresar afirmaciones/exclamaciones. Los resultados de las subfunciones que

muestran una baja frecuencia de aparición se deben tomar con cierta cautela y requieren ser confirmados en futuras investigaciones que empleen corpus de mayor tamaño.

El capítulo 5 consiste en una discusión general acerca de la subordinación condicional y la insubordinación introducida por las mismas conjunciones. Tras una comparación de las propiedades pragmático-funcionales de ambas construcciones en la sección 5.1, el capítulo aborda la pragmaticalización con respecto a estas construcciones en la sección 5.2. Se propone una escala de pragmaticalización para las construcciones analizadas, de condicionales ideacionales al desarrollo de funciones interpersonales y textuales en estas construcciones y, de ahí, a casos de insubordinación y marcadores pragmáticos, como última extensión de estas funciones interpersonales y textuales. En la sección 5.3, se discute la noción de pragmaticalización con respecto a la de descategorialización, ya que los tipos más pragmaticalizados de condicionales pierden algunas de las características morfosintácticas típicas de las condicionales ideacionales, en particular: la pérdida de verbos modales en apódosis condicionales, la limitada variación en cuanto al grado de hipoteticalidad y la preferencia de un orden no inicial para la prótasis. Del mismo modo, la especialización de las apódosis marcadas, restringidas a las condicionales epistémicas en inglés y francés, se interpreta también como signo de descategorialización. Si consideramos que las cláusulas insubordinadas introducidas por *if* y por *si* se desarrollan a partir de condicionales, la insubordinación también se adheriría a la descategorialización, puesto que las cláusulas insubordinadas no presentan una estructura compleja formada por prótasis y apódosis. La sección 5.4 cierra el capítulo 5 ofreciendo el resumen de la tesis y las conclusiones.

Por último, el capítulo 6 concluye la tesis aportando algunas sugerencias para investigaciones futuras.

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This thesis explores *if/si*-constructions in English, French and Spanish, from a functional-pragmatic and corpus-based perspective. The analysis comprises both conditional constructions and cases of insubordination introduced by the same conjunctions, with the belief that the examination of both types of constructions in parallel will offer new light on their characterization. The theoretical framework proposed is based on the three metafunctions distinguished in Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) and the data analysed are retrieved from parliamentary discourse and conversations corpora in the three languages.