

REALITY AND UNREALITY: THE STRUCTURAL AND SEMANTIC
RELATIONSHIPS OF WISH, HOPE AND CONDITIONAL IF AND
THE IMPLICATIONS FOR A PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMAR

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ABSTRACT

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The structural and semantic characteristics of 'hope' and 'wish' are contrasted in relation to the conditionals from a linguistic and philosophical view. The 'hope' structures are revealed as analogous to the real future-possible conditionals and the 'wish' structures are revealed as analogous to the unreal hypothetical conditionals. The study also examines the implications of the relationships for a pedagogically-oriented grammar.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

The decision to select two verbs, 'hope' and 'wish', and the conditional 'if', as the focus for study arose from my own and other teachers' classroom experiences in trying to explain the 'hope-wish' distinction. The contrasting structures and meanings associated with 'hope' and 'wish' are often confusing to the learner. Semantically, the mental activity or emotional states associated with 'hope' and 'wish' are, to some extent, related, while structurally, the verbal forms which follow these verbs are very different. The 'wish' forms are particularly troublesome because the past forms of verbs following 'wish' conflict with the usual semantic interpretation of time associated with past or past perfect tenses. For example:

I wish I were going with you. (present or future time)

I wish I had gone with you. (past time)

The confusion is particularly acute for students whose mother tongue has no lexical equivalent for the verb 'wish'. In my own experience in teaching English to French Canadian adult students, I have been made aware of the lexical gap and have used the technique of contrast for 'hope' and 'wish' to illustrate the semantic differences. The verb 'hope' presents no problem because the French "espérer" is lexically and semantically equivalent to 'hope'. Confusion seems to

arise when 'hope' is contrasted with 'wish' because of the shared semantic characteristics but diverse structural patterns of the two verbs.

Further to this approach, I have found an effective technique of illustrating the semantic and structural relationships of wish, hope and the conditionals via the notions of reality and unreality.

1.2 Rationale

My idea of relating hypothetical wish-structures to hypothetical conditionals is supported by many authorities on descriptive grammar and linguistic analysis such as Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik (1972); Leech & Svartvik (1975); Leech (1971) and Palmer (1965, 1974). The hypothetical conditionals and wish-structures are essentially the same in the use of the past tense and past perfect tense to express unreality. Taking this notion a step further, the hope-structures and 'real' conditionals can be linked under the notion of reality.

Further justification for linking the conditionals with 'hope' and 'wish' derives from educational psychology (Ausubel and Robinson, 1969; Rutherford, 1976). It is an axiom that learning will take place more quickly when the learner perceives relationships between what is to be learned and what is already part of his/her 'knowledge'. This view of learning supports the pedagogical basis for the analogy of the conditionals (what has been learned) to the hope and wish-structures (what is to be learned) as a teaching and learning strategy. The pedagogical approach I suggest is, in addition, based on the semantic analogies of reality and unreality. 'Hope' is analogous to the 'real' conditionals and hypothetical 'wish' is analogous to the 'unreal'

conditionals. The purpose of the study is to show that hope-structures and hypothetical wish-structures are similar in form and function to corresponding real and unreal conditionals and to demonstrate the implication of these relationships for pedagogical application.

The recent emphasis on a communicative approach to learning (Hymes, 1972; Wilkins, 1974) has led to important implications for second language teaching. An important part of the learner's communicative competence is an awareness of the formal features and relationships of language as well as the way language functions in contexts of social use. By associating the verbs under study with other related forms, the semantic and grammatical features they have in common will be made more explicit. Although development of the learner's communicative competence does not always depend on grammatical explanation, there are times when it is necessary to clarify a grammatical point. Grammatical explanation sometimes becomes necessary when a particular structure is different from its analogue in the student's mother tongue or when the structure is intrinsically complex and the students obviously require or request clarification.

Linguistic competence is often overlooked by 'communicative' enthusiasts who, in placing emphasis on the functions of language, minimize the importance of grammar in developing communicative competence.

A further impetus for this study is the paucity of materials in pedagogical grammars and language texts on the 'hope-wish' distinction. The criterion of frequency of occurrence of language items seems to apply in language textbooks as the basis for selection of items. Of

equal importance is the criterion of high potential occurrence, of relevance to the learner's purpose. Hope and wish utterances are particularly relevant to the current trend in syllabuses emphasizing communicative competence (Savignon, 1972; Widdowson, 1978) and the functional approach to teaching and learning (Wilkins, 1976). The notion of reality and unreality can be expressed in different ways, many of which include conditionality, hoping and wishing. With the recent interest in speech acts and discourse (Searle, 1970, Widdowson, 1978) and the illocutionary perspective of an utterance (Austin, 1962), the structures, "I wish (that) ..." and "I hope (that) ..." are vitally important in expressing and understanding the personal feelings, attitudes and intentions of speakers using such structures in acts of communication.

CHAPTER 2

THE FORMS AND MEANINGS OF HOPE, WISH AND CONDITIONAL IF

Hope is the encouragement given to desire.
Cogan: A Philosophical Treatise on the
Passions. Chapt. ii:3

Wish is a desire given no encouragement.
S. Gleason (personal reflection)

2.1 Descriptive Grammars and Linguistic Studies

Reflecting the present climate of linguistic thought, modern descriptive grammars account for both meaning and form. In Palmer's view (1965, 1974), no grammatical analysis can be complete unless it combines both form and function in its description. Moreover, Bolinger (1977) maintains that grammar is semantic and that there is no difference in form without some difference in meaning.

In examining descriptive grammars and linguistic studies on the verb, I wish to determine the distinguishing grammatical structures and semantic interpretations of 'hope' and 'wish' and to look for corresponding formal features and meanings in the conditionals. The relationship approach I propose is generally supported by the grammatical and semantic descriptions of authors of traditional and contemporary grammars and linguistic studies, e.g. Bolinger (1977); Hornby (1954); Jespersen (1933); Leech (1971); Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik (1972); Palmer (1965, 1974); Zandvoort (1962). The descriptive grammars provide an abundant supply of the structural forms and

examples of the usage of the two verbs and the conditionals. Linguistic studies by Palmer and Leech, amongst others, probe the finer distinctions of meaning, with an emphasis on meaning as it relates to form. The following analysis derives from the descriptions and examples provided by the above cited sources. The form and meaning relationships of the verbs under study to the conditionals are found repeatedly throughout the grammars and linguistic analyses.

2.1.1 Hope and Wish

While some structural and semantic characteristics of 'wish' and 'hope' overlap to a certain extent, more often they contrast, particularly when 'wish' has hypothetical meaning. The latter is the concern of this analysis as the structural and semantic distinctions are most apparent with hypothetical 'wish'. We can state their structural relations by means of a matrix which covers the forms of the verbs, and structures used most frequently with the verbs (Table 1). Both forms of 'wish', factual and hypothetical, have been included for the sake of completeness in order to observe the factual and hypothetical differences in form.

Table 1

Grammatical Forms and Cooccurrent Structures
For the Verbs Hope and Wish

	Hope	Wish
1. With <u>to-infinitive</u>	+	+
2. With <u>preposition for</u>	+	+
3. With <u>that-clauses</u>	+	+
4. With <u>(pro)noun + adjective</u>	+	+
5. With <u>direct + indirect objects</u>	-	+
6. <u>Passivization of the verb</u>	+	-
7. With <u>reflexive pronouns</u>	-	+
8. With <u>(pro)noun + past participle</u>	-	+
9. With <u>pro(noun) + to-infinitive</u>	-	+
10. Verb in the <u>perfect tenses</u>	+	+
11. Verb in the <u>progressive tenses</u>	+	+ *
12. Cooccurs with various combinations of tenses	+	-
13. Followed by the <u>Subjunctive were</u>	-	+
14. With Proforms <u>so and not</u>	+	-

* The following are examples in written English of contemporary usage of the progressive forms of 'wish' used with hypothetical meaning. These forms are less common in spoken English.

P. G. Wodehouse, Ice in the Bedroom. 1961. London: Pan Books.

"Even at long range it is easy to discern the difference between a man with an overwrought soul and one who is simply wishing that he had avoided the lobster newburg at lunch" (p. 140).

"With the other part, she was wishing she could hit him over the head with something solid and drive some sense into him" (p. 142).

Examples:

1. A I hope to see you again.
B I wish to see the manager.
2. A We hope for better weather tomorrow.
B What do you wish for?
3. A I hope (that) I don't have to go.
B I wish (that) I didn't have to go.
4. A I hope you are well.
B He wished her dead.
5. A
B They wished me a pleasant trip.
6. A It is hoped that the results will be encouraging.
B
7. A
B He wished himself dead.
8. A
B I wish this work done by noon.
9. A
B Do you wish me to stay?
10. A I had hoped (that) you would be able to visit us.
She has hoped to go on vacation for a month now.
B I had wished for a diamond ring but got a necklace instead.
He has wished for a home of his own for a long time.
11. A I'm hoping she doesn't come back.
I was hoping you would say yes.
I've been hoping to get together with him since last week.
We had been hoping, in vain, for one of them to agree.
B What are you wishing for?
She's been wishing for the moon.

12. A I hoped he had taken your advice.
I hope the weather gets warmer.
I hope the weather will get warmer.
I hope she didn't come back.
I had hoped you would have agreed to our plan.
I hope he has done the work.

B Fixed patterns with hypothetical wish.

13. A _____

B I wish I were extremely rich.

14. A I hope so. I hope not. (In reply to an affirmative and negative statement, respectively).

B _____

Examples 10C and 10D, 11E and 11F are non-hypothetical wishes. The situations are not unreal. The wish for phrase is an expression of desire for something considered unlikely to be attained but which may come unexpectedly or through chance. The recounted wish in 10C as in 10A was true, not hypothetical, at that past moment but the wish was not realized.

The present perfect tense of 'wish' in 10D and other forms, such as:

I (etc.) am wishing for _____

I will be wishing for _____

I had wished for _____

I might have wished for _____

What do you wish for?

are real wishes. The object of the desire may not be realized but the situation is not unreal as in hypothetical statements with wish + that-clause construction.

Bolinger's claim (1977) that there is no difference in form

without some difference in meaning applies to the various forms associated with 'hope' and 'wish'. For example:

I hope you'll have dinner with us.

The simple present form of 'hope' is used when the listener is invited to do something which is to his advantage.

I am/was hoping you will/would look after the children.

The progressive forms (tentative or tactful) are appropriate to a request which will put the listener to a considerable inconvenience.

I wish I had gone with you.

The present form of 'wish' indicates (present) regret about an event that was not realized.

(Last night) I wished I had gone with you.

With the past form of 'wish' the speaker recounts a past wish which was not realized. However, an exception to Bolinger's observation is the choice of structures, to-infinitive or that-clause, with 'hope':

Example 1: I hope to see you again

may be expressed: I hope (that) I see you again

or: I hope (that) I will see you again

with no significant change in meaning. But this choice is restricted to hopes expressed in relation to one's own states or activities, or if the subject of both clauses is the same:

Bill hopes to get a promotion.

When expressing a hope not related to oneself, only a that-clause may be used:

I hope (that) Bill gets the promotion.

I hope (that) Bill will get the promotion.

As illustrated in Table 1, certain structures are common to both

verbs and some are exclusive to 'hope'; others are exclusive to 'wish' (factual and hypothetical or hypothetical only): e.g. passivization and proforms with 'hope' but not with 'wish' of both types, and subjunctive 'were' with hypothetical 'wish' only. Although in Example 3 that-clauses are common to both verbs, the verbs in these clauses have different tenses, i.e. a difference in which meaning impinges on form. In order to understand the structural differences of, for example:

I wish (that) I could write a novel.

and I hope (that) I can write a novel.

the semantic scope of the two verbs must be analyzed.

'Hope' and 'wish' are by no means synonymous even though they may share identical grammatical forms and often overlapping general meanings, i.e. referring to personal feelings or mental activities.

The most salient semantic difference is one of attitude. An expression with 'hope' is always positive and forward-looking to the possible, a desire for that which may be or can be within reality. The attitude with hypothetical 'wish' has the negative implication of 'lack of hope'. Jespersen (1933:255) states that with hypothetical 'wish' we deny the reality or possibility of certain suppositions. In the above example, the implication is 'I can't write a novel'.

A semantic correlation between wishing and hoping can be made only for possible wishes and hopes, i.e. 'wish' followed by forms other than that-clauses. Zandvoort (1962:61) offers an example where semantic parallels can be drawn. Here 'may' is used with 'hope' to express a wish:

I hope I may see you again.

I wish to see you again.

In the following examples both verbs express the desire to do something within reality:

I hope to go this afternoon.

I wish to go this afternoon.

Structurally, the statements are the same. But here, as in the examples above, semantically, 'wish' is synonymous with 'want' (a polite equivalent) and 'hope' is a presentiment about the future. However, 'hope' and 'wish' cannot always be used interchangeably:

1. I wish you luck.
2. They wished the graduates success in the future.

'Hope' cannot be substituted for 'wish' within a transitive structure (having a direct and indirect object):

3. * I hope you luck.
4. * They hoped the graduates success....

Although semantically the sentiments with 'wish' and 'hope' are positive, the structures used to express them are different. The approximate semantic equivalent with 'hope' can be paraphrased:

5. I hope you have (good) luck.
6. They hoped (that) the graduates would succeed/have success ...

Statements 5 and 6 are not quite semantically equivalent to the 'wish' statements. Although both verbs express a wish, the wishes themselves are performed in the saying of 1 and 2, while the comparative statements with 'hope' (5 & 6) express a wish for something to occur, with an expectation of learning that what is hoped for or was hoped for will turn out (turned out) the way we anticipate(d).

Both verbs are used in expressions of desire but they are seldom interchangeable. The lexical meaning of the verbs is linked to

structural differences. The contrast in meaning is especially apparent in that-clauses following 'wish' and 'hope'. For example:

I hope (that) you're coming with us. (I expect you are)

I wish (that) you were coming with us. (I assume you are not)

I hope (that) you told him. (I expect you did)

I wish (that) you had told him. (You didn't)

I hope (that) it will snow tomorrow. (I anticipate that it will)

I wish (that) it would snow tomorrow. (I don't expect it will)

I hope (that) you do enough exercise. (I expect you do)

I wish (that) you did/could do more exercise. (You don't/You can't)

With that-clauses, the semantic differences between 'hope' and 'wish' are even more pronounced because that-clauses following 'wish' usually have hypothetical meaning and the implications are negative and unreal or imaginary. A hypothetical wish expresses a desire for something considered by the speaker to be unattainable or impossible at the moment of speaking, i.e. not within reality. For example:

7. I wish (that) I were a millionaire.

8. I wish (that) I were a bird and could fly.

But always impossible to realize for the past:

9. I wish (that) I had known what I know now.

Sometimes there is some vague possibility that the wish can be realized in the present or future, but at the moment of speaking it is not considered likely. To indicate slight possibility, a past form auxiliary is used in the that-clause:

*will
10. I wish it would stop raining.

*can
11. I wish I could go to the beach.

*may
12. I wish I might see him once more.

Present forms of modals are not possible. With 'hope' both present and past forms of modals are possible.

The most obvious grammatical difference between the verbs is that the forms of hypothetical 'wish' are generally limited to the present and past tenses (see footnote, p. 7): I wish, s/he wishes, etc. and I wished, s/he wished, etc., while tense and time indicators are applied to subsequent verb forms. Only past forms are possible in the following that-clause. The forms of 'hope', on the other hand, are more varied to include 'I hope', 'I hoped', 'I am/was hoping', 'I had hoped' and 'I would/would have hoped'. And 'hope' cooccurs with all tenses. Leech (1971:112) stresses that it is the negative truth-commitment of hypothetical meaning that distinguishes it from factual meaning. The structural differences can be accounted for semantically because the nature of hypothetical wishes requires the use of the past tenses to indicate unreality. Joos (1964) presents an interesting suggestion that the past tense is the remote tense, remote in time or in reality. Past tense forms (simple and progressive) for present time and past perfect tense for past time are the two tense forms used after 'wish' to indicate hypothetical meaning. These forms are the grammatical markers (and semantic cues) distinguishing the factual from the hypothetical, or the 'real' from the 'unreal'. However, tense or formal features alone may be misleading. Consider, for example:

13. I had hoped (that) he would have taken your advice.

In this sentence, tense and the perfective structure 'would have taken' are the same as those of past unreal conditionals. Yet semantically the 'hope' was originally within reality. The independent clause, 'I

'had hoped' requires the tense shift of reported speech in the subordinate clause. The original 'hope' might read:

13.1 I hope he takes your[?] advice.

Or about the past:

13.2 I hope he took your advice.

And in the reporting, we are not certain whether or not the hope was realized:

13.3 I hoped he would take your advice.

However, the 'had hoped' construction of Ex. 13 indicates that the hope was not fulfilled. Leech and Svartvik (1975:140) provide this example:

14. I had hoped that you would have done more than this.

The authors suggest that, structurally, the statement is the hypothetical counterpart of an unfulfilled wish, such as:

15. I wish you had done more than this.

But more likely the 'hope' statement (14) is another example of the tense shift of reported speech. The original hope might read:

14.1 I hope you will have done (a certain amount of) the work
(by a certain time).

Nonetheless, the negative implication is conveyed, that a certain quantity of work was not done, indicated by the structure 'had hoped' and the 'would have' perfective construction. In statements 14 and 15 the wish and hope were not fulfilled. However, 'hope' is not fundamentally hypothetical in the way 'wish' is. Leech (1971:11) states that hypothetical meaning is usually expressed by the past (or past perfect) tense only in dependent clauses and by 'would + infinitive' in main clauses for present time and 'would have + past participle'

for past time. In statement 14 'had hoped' is in the main clause and 'would have + past participle' in the dependent clause, which is incompatible with the structural pattern for hypothetical meaning. And furthermore, as Close (1962) explains, hypothetical 'wish' indicates something not only unfulfilled but contrary to reality. Negative meaning can only be conveyed for a hope not realized in the past, whereas, with 'wish' negative meaning applies to present, future and past time.

Thus the contrastive meaning, reality vs. unreality is confirmed: hypothetical meaning for unreal wishes and factual meaning for 'hope', including unfulfilled hopes.

Semantically, 'hope' and 'wish' diverge at the level of expectation. Even though in statement 14 the hope was not fulfilled, the expectation was positive that the work would be done, while the comparative statement with 'wish', Ex. 15, assumes the falsehood of the statement 'You had done more than this'. Leech (1971:117) states: "Wish' is negative or (A) contrary to reality for the past time, (B) contrary to assumption for present time and (C) contrary to expectation for future time:

- A I wish I had known his number. (in fact I didn't)
- B I wish you loved me. (I assume you don't)
- C I wish it would snow tomorrow. (I don't expect it will)."

In summary, the 'wish' + that-clause construction requires hypothetical verb forms while 'hope' does not normally require them. A statement with 'hope' refers to an unknown entity which may not eventually be fulfilled, but 'hope' always anticipates a happening with a positive expectation. 'Wish', on the other hand, has a negative connotation;

it implies an assumption by the speaker that the happening or wish did not, does not or will not take place (Leech, 1971:111).

The preceding analysis covers the basic structures and the meaning relationships, both overlapping and diverse, of 'wish' and 'hope'. The if-clauses of conditionals can be shown to correlate structurally and, in one sense, semantically, to 'wish' and 'hope' structures via the concept of reality and unreality.

2.1.2 Hope and the Real Conditionals

Hornby (1954:231) divides conditional sentences with if-clauses into two main types:

A Those that contain a condition that may or may not be fulfilled.

B Those in which a hypothetical condition is put forth.

Type A is often referred to as an open condition, that is, within reality (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1972:747). A semantic correlation can be drawn between open conditions and hopes. Like open conditions, expressions with 'hope' refer to the unknown, i.e. what is hoped for may or may not be fulfilled. For example:

16. I hope it doesn't rain. (Then we'll go to the beach).

17. If it doesn't rain we'll go to the beach.

Both statements are real future possibilities which may or may not be realized, but in the mind of the speaker the desire for good weather exists as an implied possibility. Compare the unreal condition:

18. If it weren't raining we would/could go to the beach.

And hypothetical wish:

19. I wish it weren't raining. We could go to the beach.

Sequence of tenses in open conditions and with 'hope' in the main clause-subordinate clause structures are Present-Present or Present-Future, but any other combination of tenses is possible if the meaning requires it. The most common combinations are as follows:

Present-Present

Hope: I hope she comes.

If: If she comes, I can ask Bob to come along.

Past-Past

Hope: I hope he told the truth.

If: If he told you that, he was lying.

Present-Future

Hope: I hope he will bring it tomorrow.

If: If it's ready, he will bring it tomorrow.

Present-Present Perfect Continuous

Hope: I hope you haven't been studying all night.

If: If you've been studying all night, you probably need a rest.

Present/Future-Present Perfect

Hope: I hope he has finished the work.

If: If he has finished his work, he'll be able to come with us.

Present-Past

Hope: I hope he arrived safely.

If: If he arrived only yesterday, he is unlikely to leave today.

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1972:781) note that 'will' in the if-clause can be used where 'will' has volitional or habitual meaning indicating or asking about willingness. This exceptional use of 'will' in if-clauses corresponds structurally and sometimes semantically to 'hope'-structures. For example:

20. If you will help us with the work, we'll finish sooner.
21. I hope you will help us with the work. (Then we will finish sooner.)

The verb in the main clause of conditionals and following 'hope' may

also be one of the future tense equivalents.

- Hope: 22. I hope he is going to win the election.
If: 23. If he works hard at it, he's going to win the election.
Hope: 24. I hope we're taking the bus.
If: 25. If connections are good, we're taking the bus.
Hope: 26. I hope you go.
If: 27. If you go, I go too.

Other structural similarities occur with the proforms 'so' and 'not' which may be used with 'hope' and, as Quirk et al (1972:746) indicate, as residual positive and negative conditional pre-clauses with 'if'. 'Hope' allows 'so' and 'not' as proforms for the direct object clause. An affirmative that-clause may be replaced by 'so':

28. A They will deliver the parcel this afternoon.
B I hope so. (= I hope they will deliver it this afternoon)

and a negative that-clause may be replaced by 'not':

29. A We're going to have a storm.
B I hope not. (= I hope we're not going to have a storm.)

Similarly, 'if so' and 'if not' represent an entire subject and predicate:

30. There may be a deficit in the account; if so, we'll be in trouble. (if so = if there is a deficit in the account)
31. We must settle the account; if not, we'll be in trouble. (if not = if we don't settle the account)

Both 'hope' and conditional 'if' occur with modal auxiliaries 'may', 'might', 'can' and, as shown previously, with 'will'. 'May' and 'might' are used in that-clauses after 'hope' mainly in formal style:

32. I hope I may succeed.
(Informal = succeeds or will succeed)

33. I hoped he might succeed.

(Informal = would succeed)

34. I hope he can succeed.

In conditional sentences, 'may' and 'might' and 'can' are used in the 'consequence' or main clause:

35. If he tries harder, he may succeed/might succeed.

36. If you really try hard, you can succeed.

A final grammatical point: 'hope'-structures and real conditionals, unlike hypothetical 'wish'-structures and unreal conditionals are always in the indicative mood, i.e. having normal tense-time correspondence.

2.1.3 Wish and the Unreal Conditionals

Hypothetical wish is analogous to unreal conditionals in many respects, both semantically and structurally. Both structures take the subjunctive mood which, semantically, is quite different from the past time-past tense concept of the indicative mood. Essentially, the unreality use of the past tenses for present, future and past time is the subjunctive mood. According to Leech (1971) the past subjunctive survives as a distinct form from the indicative only in the use of 'were', the past tense of the copula 'be'. Palmer (1965) suggests we should simply distinguish the past time and unreality uses of the past tense. He insists that the invariable form of the 'subjunctive were' for the singular as well as the plural is exactly like a normal past tense; even more regularly past than the two past indicative forms, 'was' and 'were'. Furthermore, Jespersen (1933) notes that the plural form 'were' belongs to both moods. Nevertheless, the 'was/were' forms for unreality occur optionally in modern usage.

There is a choice between:

37. If he was my friend ...

38. If he were my friend ...

However, in formal style 'were' still prevails, as well as in the familiar phrase, 'If I were you ...'. The same choice is found with 'wish':

39. I wish he were my friend.

40. I wish he was my friend.

The semantic parallels of 'wish' and unreal conditionals are most apparent with sentences beginning 'if only ...' which in essence are hypothetical wishes. Zandvoort (1962) notes that the 'if only' construction is an example of incongruity of meaning and form: in form it is a conditional clause; in meaning a simple sentence. In comparison with 'wish' the same structural pattern occurs:

41. I wish you had kept quiet.

42. If only you had kept quiet!

And, as Palmer points out, semantically and structurally, 'if only' statements may be treated as unreal conditions. The position of forms introduced by 'if only' and 'wish' is similar to that in the if-clause of unreal conditions. For present time (or future time where the present tense form has future time reference) a past tense form is used; for past time a past perfect tense or a past tense modal plus 'have' is used:

43. I wish I knew. / If (only) I knew ...

44. I wish I was going with you. / If (only) I was ...

45. I wish I could do that. / If (only) I could do that ...

46. I wish I had seen him. / If (only) I had seen him ...

47. I wish I could have gone with you. / If (only) I could have gone ...

Simple futurity after 'wish' is often followed by a progressive form:

48. I wish I was/were going to see him tomorrow.

49. I wish I was/were seeing him tomorrow.

Similarly:

50. If I was/were going to see him tomorrow ...

51. If I was/were seeing him tomorrow ...

Palmer (1974:136-7) notes one difference: with 'wish' a simple non-modal past tense form is not used to refer to the future as the form corresponding to a form with 'will'. Although we may relate:

52. It will rain tomorrow.

and 53. If it rained tomorrow ...

we may not similarly relate:

54.* I wish it rained tomorrow.

The form is instead:

55. I wish it would rain tomorrow.

In fact, Leech (1971) explains, in this context, 'it would rain' is the hypothetical equivalent of future 'it will rain' rather than present 'it rains'. Yet we would not say,

56.* I wish this book would belong to me.

but instead:

57. I wish this book belonged to me.

even though the wish may be the hypothetical equivalent of, 'It will belong to me'. As Leech indicates, unlike state verbs, event verbs are easily placed in the future. We could say:

58. I wish someone would buy me that book.

Similarly, with if-clauses we would not say:

59.* If this book would belong to me ...

but instead:

60. If this book belonged to me ...

The 'would' structure for event verbs applies to if-clauses of unreal conditionals as well. Just as the use of 'will' in if-clauses of real conditionals refers to volitional or habitual meaning, the use of 'would' is the past form counterpart for unreal conditionals.

61. If you will lend us a hand, we'll get through sooner.

62. If you would lend us a hand, we'd get through sooner.

And for wishes as well:

63. I wish you would stop that noise. (often expressed as an indirect command)

64. If only he would stop!

'Will' and 'would', however, also occur after 'if' as polite forms.

This use of 'would' does not fit the notion of unreality. For example:

65. If you will wait a moment, I'll get you a chair.

66. If you would do that for me, I would be very grateful.

65 and 66 are examples of tentative or tactful forms which apply to factual 'wish' as well:

67. I wish you would do that for me.

67 is a polite expression used, pragmatically, as a request or indirect command rather than a hypothetical statement. Leech (1971) states that hypothetical utterances which indirectly recommend a course of action do not have the full value of 'contrary to expectation'. He goes on to say, "It is tact rather than lack of hope that leads the speaker to use a hypothetical form in such cases" (p. 117).

In certain contexts the hypothetical construction with 'would' marks an unreal condition and not the usual interpretation of a request. This can be illustrated by the following examples by Palmer (1965:133):

68. If you'll only be quiet, I'll tell you. (Real)

69. If you'd only be quiet, I'd tell you. (Unreal)

and marks an unreal wish:

70. I wish the children would be quiet. (Unreal)

69 can be interpreted as: the speaker feels it unlikely that the addressee will be quiet and conveys the message that s/he won't say what s/he had intended to say (unless the addressee becomes quiet).

In 70 the speaker's expectations are again negative. The reality in the mind of the speaker is that the children will keep on being noisy.

But the difference between real and unreal conditionals is not simply in terms of tense. Ambiguity is possible as the following example illustrates:

71. If he practiced, he could lift a 200-pound weight.

71 might refer to either an unlikely future event or to an actual event in the past. Context alone will determine which interpretation is correct. With hypothetical 'wish', the formal features are more constant: the past tense forms (except for requests), always indicate present time or combined present and future time unreality, and the past perfect tense indicates an unfulfilled wish, contrary to reality. For example:

72. I wish I knew. (Present time or Present-Future time)

73. If only I knew! (Present or Present-Future time)

74. He wishes he were going with you. (Present-Future time)

75. I wish I could have done it. (Past time).

76. I wish I had known about it. (Past time)

For past time unreal conditionals (Ex. 77) the modal perfect form (as in 75) may occur as an alternative to the use of the past perfect form of 76.

77. If you could have done it, I could have done it too.

The foregoing analysis does not, of necessity, include all the nuances of meaning nor all the possible forms of the items under study. It covers only those linguistic aspects pertaining to the meaning and formal relationships wherever they apply, namely the forms and meanings of 'wish' corresponding to the unreal conditionals and of 'hope' to the real conditionals.

2.2 Philosophical-Semantic Aspects

In order to examine the relationships of 'hope' and 'wish' to the conditionals from another perspective, it is useful to look at the items in the larger context of utterance meaning, on the part of the speaker.

One of the concerns of philosophy, compatible with linguistics, is to discover what certain utterances mean, in particular, the possible illocutionary forces of utterances. The concern is twofold: the meaning of the words as they are used in the utterance and the intention of the speaker. Central to the study is the notion of 'speech acts' proposed by Austin (1962) and later Searle (1970). The speech act or illocutionary act is the performance of an act in saying something. Austin suggests that the illocutionary force of an utterance is distinct from what a certain utterance means; it is a matter

of the speaker's intention. According to Corder (1973:40); "All language has an attitudinal element related to the intentions of the speaker by which he conveys something of his state of mind, his activity and why he is speaking at all." The attitudinal element is often explicitly manifested by the verb in the utterance. The verb, Searle observes (p. 68), is central as a function-indicating device in marking the illocutionary force of an utterance, namely the mood of the verb and the performativity of the verb. The performative verbs are verbs of 'doing' which refers to the verbal means of performing an action. In saying 'I wish you luck', I am performing the act of wishing, and in saying 'I hope you get well soon', I am performing the act of offering sympathy. Thus the verb indicates the force of the utterance, or how the utterance is to be interpreted in terms of the speaker's intention.

Not all performative utterances, however, require a performative verb, as it is possible to perform an illocutionary act without an explicit illocutionary force indicator. Moreover, a performative utterance can be implicit or what Searle refers to as an 'indirect speech act'. He gives the following example: "I may say,

I wish you wouldn't do that. Δ

In certain contexts this will be more than an expression of a wish but rather a request in the context where my intention is to get you to stop doing something." In some other context I may express this as a wish contrary to my expectation. Out of context, an utterance with 'hope' is ambiguous. For example: \downarrow

I hope you are satisfied.

The utterance may be a sincere hope or a sarcastic remark said in anger.

Within the framework of Austin's list of performative verbs, 'wish' and 'hope' figure variously as indicators of the illocutionary potential of an utterance. 'Wish', in the hypothetical sense, is never an explicit performative verb. The strictly performative usage of 'wish' belongs to factual wishes corresponding with reality as in the example above, 'I wish you luck'. 'Wish' in hypothetical utterances cannot be explicitly performative because, as Leech (1976:81-98) points out, 'hint', 'imply', 'insinuate' specify an indirect mode of communication. Hypothetical 'wish' specifies a negative implication and, most importantly, does not correspond with reality — two factors incompatible with performativity. In Searle's example, the illocutionary force of the 'wish-statement' is interpreted as a request in a certain context, not as a hypothetical wish. In either case, 'wish' is not performative. As an indirect command, I am not wishing in the performative sense and as a wish, wishing you not to do something that is contrary to my expectation, does not correspond with reality. It implies the falsehood of the statement, "You won't do that", which again is not a wish in the performative sense. Yet, utterances with hypothetical wish have illocutionary force because they function as expressions of attitude or state of mind and have as much illocutionary force as direct requests or factual wishes do. In hypothetical utterances, such as "I wish I had gone with you.", I reveal my state of mind as regret or disappointment about a situation in the past that was not realized. I am implying the unreality of the

statement, 'I went with you', rather than directly stating it. Thus the illocutionary force of 'wish' in the above statement reveals negation of the proposition, 'I went with you' and reveals an attitude of regret.

Similarly, unfulfilled hopes resemble a non-performative use of 'wish'. For example:

I had hoped that someone would let me know.

Here the illocutionary force is revealed as a negative implication even though the original hope was within reality, but as it turned out, was unrealized.

According to Austin's criteria for performative verbs, 'hope' and 'wish' fit into a miscellaneous class of verbs, the 'behabitives' referring to a speaker's reaction to another's behavior or fortunes. This applies to 'wish' only in its strict performative sense, e.g. 'I wish you luck' and, in many cases, to 'hope' when the utterance is directed towards someone or something. For example:

As an expression of sympathy towards someone:

I hope you are feeling better.

* I wish you were feeling better.

As an attitude towards someone:

I hope you win the next race.

* I wish you would win the next race.

As an attitude towards something:

I hope the matter is settled soon.

* I wish the matter would be settled soon.

For farewells:

I hope you come back soon.

* I wish you would come back soon.

For someone's fortunes:

I hope you get your wish.

* I wish you would get your wish.

The use of 'wish' in the 'wish' utterances does not fit the criteria for performative verbs because the utterances imply negative or hypothetical meaning and they specify an indirect mode of communication.

Both 'hope' and 'wish' involve adopting a certain attitude towards someone or something. 'To wish' or 'to hope' is both to react to someone's imminent conduct and possibly to commit oneself to a line of conduct. For example, if I say 'I hope you win the next election', I commit myself to emotionally supporting you along the way, unless I am insincere in saying this. On the other hand, this is not the case for 'wish'. In saying 'I wish you would win the next election', there is the negative implication of 'I don't think you will'. One could say then that my attitude commits me to a negative line of conduct.

'To hope' may be an exercise of authority such as 'I hope this doesn't happen again' whereas 'I wish this wouldn't happen again' or 'I wish this didn't happen so often' does not have as much authoritative force. Both verbs have an expressive function in revealing the speaker's attitude and feelings and are often peripherally related to other verbs of action or doing. According to Austin's criteria, stating or describing our own feelings in the sense of venting emotions, is connected to but lies outside the boundaries of 'behabitives', i.e. applying to another's behavior. In the following examples:

I wish to God he would go!

I hope I get to see him again.

it is not so clear whether these describe and give vent to our feelings

or constitute our reaction to someone else's conduct, or partly one, partly another. When an utterance is directed towards oneself it is only loosely connected with the class of behabitives. But when the hope is directed towards someone else, it fits best with verbs expressing an attitude. Unlike 'wish', 'hope' expresses a positive attitude. Compare these two attitudinal expressions:

I hope you know the way. (I don't know if you do.)

I wish you knew the way. (I know you don't.)

The distinction in meaning between the two utterances is highly significant in the way the verbs are used in actual speech situations to give vital information about the attitude and intention of the speaker and how the utterance is to be interpreted.

Conditional if-clauses function in similar ways as indicators of illocutionary force. The obvious illocutionary force of conditionals is that of expressing a condition and a consequence that is contingent on that condition. Normally, the if-clause contains a verb (it may contain a proform, 'so' or 'not') which may further indicate the illocutionary force of the condition. In addition, the independent clause of consequence contains a verb which reinforces the illocutionary potential of the utterance as a whole. For example, compare the following:

If I had the time I would go with you.

If I have the time I will go with you.

In the first example, the past form of the verb in the if-clause and 'would' in the main clause indicate the unreality or hypothetical

nature of the condition.* In the second example, the present tense 'have' and future 'will' indicate that the condition is possible and within reality.

When the if-clause contains the verb 'wish' or 'hope', the force of the utterance will depend on the conditional utterance as a whole and not on the verb alone. In the following examples the usage of both 'hope' and 'wish' in clauses of condition has quite a different function from their normal non-conditional usage:

If she hoped to lose weight she should have watched her diet more closely.

If you wish you could be an actress you will have to start with drama school.

In fact, the concept of reality and unreality is reversed in the interpretation of each utterance as a whole. The first example is perplexing: the condition may be real but the result is contrary to fact. The person referred to did not watch her diet. She may have had this hope or the speaker doubts whether she really hoped to lose weight. Perhaps restating the main clause with 'would have' would more clearly indicate hypothetical meaning. In the second example, the girl's wish is unreal or contrary to her expectation but the speaker in this case implies the possibility that her wish can come

*Some if-clauses look very much like hypothetical conditions structurally but differ semantically in a temporal and reality sense.

(1) If I spoke to him he would remain silent.

(2) If I had the time I would go for walks in the park.

In certain contexts these are real past conditionals: 'had' is the indicative past tense and 'would' refers to customary activity in the past. In (1) and (2) 'if' is equivalent to 'whenever'. In both cases 'would' is the past form of 'will' and refers to the future in the past.

true. The illocutionary force of the first example may be interpreted as either hypothesizing or conjecturing and the second example as expressing conditionality (condition and consequence).

The final question in the analysis is the relationship of conditional 'if' to 'hope' and 'wish'. To a certain extent, hopes and wishes are 'iffy'. Whenever we say that we hope or wish something, is there not a suppressed 'if' implied? With 'hope' our expectation is somewhat dependent on conditions compatible with what we hope for and what is possible and within reality. 'Hope' refers to the unknown: if certain conditions prevail, the hope might be realized. In this sense 'hope' is akin to possible real conditionals. With hypothetical 'wish', what we wish for is unlikely or impossible. We daydream and we futilely express the emotion of regret about an event in the past. Or in drawing up a 'wish list', as we sometimes do, we list all the things we wish we could achieve but don't believe we ever will. Is there not an 'if' or 'if only', suppressed though it may be, often implied? For instance, the following example:

I wish things were (had been) different from the way they are (were) in reality.

has the very same connotation as:

If (only) things were (had been) different from the way they are (were) in reality ...

CHAPTER 3

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

3.1 The Role of Textual Analysis

Ideally, language material for pedagogical purposes should be based upon the evidence of actual occurrence of linguistic data. Corpus-based studies such as the Brown Corpus Concordance (1967), a textual analysis of written English, provide valuable information on the actual occurrence of a word and the context in which the word occurs. Of itself, any corpus of written or spoken English cannot be adequate for a comprehensive description of grammar, but it can supplement grammars in providing examples of varieties of contemporary usage. Palmer (1974:8) points out a major difficulty in basing grammar on recorded texts. He explains that even with an enormous amount of data, some forms will not occur simply because of the vast complexity of language. For example, the data of recorded texts may not produce all the evidence to establish whether a certain verb may be in the progressive form and under what conditions this form may occur. An examination of the Brown Corpus Concordance reveals the occurrence of most of the forms and structures associated with 'hope' and 'wish' and conditional 'if', as described by reference grammars. A few forms other than those found in reference grammars occur with 'hope', such as 'we should hope', 'I can only hope', 'I had been hoping' and 'hope' introducing a conditional clause, 'I hope that

if ...'. However, the present progressive form 'be hoping' does not occur at all. The 'wish' forms are more often than not followed by the indicative 'was' than the subjunctive 'were'. This usage seems unusual in written English but the passages in which these forms occur are conversational in context which explains the informal usage of 'was' rather than 'were'. Mixed subjunctive and indicative forms of 'be' are found in if-clauses as well but with slightly more formal usage of 'were' occurring. Acceptability of the two forms is confirmed in descriptive grammars in most cases other than very formal usage.

The frequency of occurrence of 'wish' and 'hope' in the Brown Corpus Concordance as compared to conditional 'if' is, not surprisingly, low. Yet there is a significant number of occurrences of 'wish' and 'hope': just over 200 entries for 'wish' and slightly more, 230 entries, with 'hope' in their usage as verbs, as compared to at least 2000 entries for conditional 'if'. The Survey of Spoken English: A Corpus of Modern English (Quirk and Svartvik, 1978) would supplement information on frequency of occurrence in different varieties of English, e.g. informal speech where one would expect to find a higher occurrence of 'wish' and 'hope' as personal statements.

Descriptive analyses and information from large corpora exert an important influence on the content of eventual pedagogical materials. Inclusion of examples of contemporary usage is desirable for pedagogical grammars and language textbooks where such texts serve as representing the way in which language is used in actual communication. The more sophisticated forms of 'hope' and 'wish' can be reserved for

active use with advanced learners and for comprehension/passive recognition only, at lower levels.

3.2 Pedagogical Grammars vs. Linguistic Grammars

Linguistic grammars describe and analyze facts about the structure of language which are invaluable as background knowledge for the language teacher. They also serve as a reference for accuracy for informal pedagogical statements. However, on the whole, linguistic insights cannot be presented directly to the language learner. By its very nature a linguistic grammar is quite different from a pedagogically oriented grammar such as the teacher wants to use in the classroom. The problem for a pedagogical grammar, as Candlin (1973) points out, is less one of measuring up to the empirical adequacy of a linguistic grammar than of making a principled choice among a plethora of data. According to Allen (1975), Corder (1974) and Jarvis (1972), pedagogical grammars are practical grammars extracted from formal linguistic grammars as the basis for teaching materials. In Corder's view the objectives of a pedagogical grammar are to organize and present the 'facts' of the language in a form which makes them accessible to the learner. Moreover, Candlin (1973:58) observes that an input from linguistic grammars contributes to only part of what the role of a pedagogical grammar should be. He states that if pedagogical grammars have as their aim to lead the learner to competence in the L2 then they must be concerned with the rules of language use as well as rules of grammaticality and the well-formedness of sentences. This concern is a dimension of the use of sentences as utterances in discourse and, as Jarvis (1972) indicates, pedagogical grammars can only

illustrate the possibilities of language use.

3.3 Treatment of Wish, Hope and the Conditionals in Pedagogical Grammars

The most difficult task for a pedagogical grammar is to design a strategy for ordering the language data in such a way as to enhance its acquisition. The treatment of 'wish', 'hope' and the conditionals in pedagogical grammars vary considerably in structural categorization and conceptual framework. In examining the rather large number of pedagogical grammars over a span of time, from Hornby's A Guide to Patterns of Usage of English (1954) to Close's A Reference Grammar for Students of English (1975), there appears to be a surprising lack of semantic distinction between the two verbs. A sampling represents the most common presentations of 'wish', 'hope', and the conditionals in pedagogical grammars within the last 20 years. Although the conditionals are generally dealt with adequately and 'wish' is often contrasted with the unreal conditionals, 'hope' and 'wish' are neglected as a contrastive pair of verbs. If they are linked semantically under one conceptual framework, such as verbs referring to emotions or feelings, no explanation is offered to distinguish between them. Quite often, as exemplified by Hornby (1954, 1976) and Praninskas (1975), 'wish' and 'hope' are grouped together within one unit but they are treated sequentially rather than contrastively. Emphasis is on structural forms and little explanation is offered as to how the verbs differ semantically.

Hornby's account of unreality linking 'wish' to the unreal conditionals are comprehensive in structural detail and although 'wish'

and 'hope' structures are dealt with, they are linked only as concepts expressing emotional states or feelings. Close offers rules for tense change in that-clauses following 'wish' as compared to rules for tense change in indirect speech after 'hope'. For example:

They are repairing it (the road). p. 45

I hope they are repairing it.

They aren't repairing it yet p. 46

but I wish they were (repairing it).

A brief note explains that with 'wish' the speaker imagines a non-fact to be a reality, to illustrate the contrast between the verbs. However, 'wish' is not linked at all to the unreal conditionals.

Praninskas presents all the conditionals and possible and hypothetical 'wish' and 'hope' within one unit and each is treated separately.

There is no organizational scheme to show the relationships or contrastive examples to clarify meaning (pp. 329-330). In the grammatical explanation the author compares the time relationships of verb forms in object clauses after 'wish' to those in conditional clauses but no examples to illustrate the similarities are given.

In Allen's Living English Structure (1974) and Frank's Modern English (1972), 'wish' and 'hope' are not contrasted at all. In fact, in Modern English cited above, and Mastering American English, Hayden, Pilgrim and Haggard (1956), 'hope' does not occur at all and it is only briefly referred to in A Practical English Grammar, Thomson and Martinet (1960), in the section on infinitives. Others such as A Comprehensive English Grammar, Eckersley and Eckersley (1960), relate 'wish' to the unreal conditionals. 'Hope' and 'wish' are related structurally under verb tenses in the use of the past perfect tense to

express a past wish or a hope that was not realized (p. 178).

The most practical pedagogical grammar and one which marks a departure from traditional pedagogical grammars is Leech and Svartvik's A Communicative Grammar of English (1975). As Singh (1977) points out, the book is designed for pedagogical use, with a focus on the appropriate use as well as the grammaticality of English. While the book has a dual focus it does not exclude the necessary structural frame that students must have in order to communicate in the language beyond a basic level. 'Hope' and 'wish' are first linked in the section on concepts amongst state verbs referring to a state of mind or feeling. The use of progressive forms with 'hope' is illustrated as expressing degrees of tact and tentativeness. The section on "Fact, Hypothesis and Neutrality" deals with hypothetical meaning in which hypothetical 'wish' and hypothetical conditionals are linked. The section on "Mood, Emotion and Attitude" deals with 'wish' as neutral volition and in hypothetical circumstances. 'Hope', 'wish' and 'if only' statements are described and linked under various functions such as expressing disappointment or regret, with 'if only' as the semantic analogue of 'wish'; with disapproval (had hoped) and with volition (hypothetical 'wish' and 'if').

- e.g. I would have/had hoped that ... (unfulfilled hope). p. 140
I wish (that) someone had let me know (unfulfilled wish). p. 140
If only I had known! p. 140
I wish you would listen to me (but you won't). p. 141
John is so greedy, he would do anything for money (if you asked him). p. 141

Even though the treatment, structurally and semantically, is more

thorough than other pedagogical grammars, the two verbs are contrasted only as unfulfilled hopes and wishes.

In summary, one can sense a lack of consistency with regard to presentations of 'wish', 'hope' and the conditionals. Pedagogical accounts are limited by some or all of the following deficiencies:

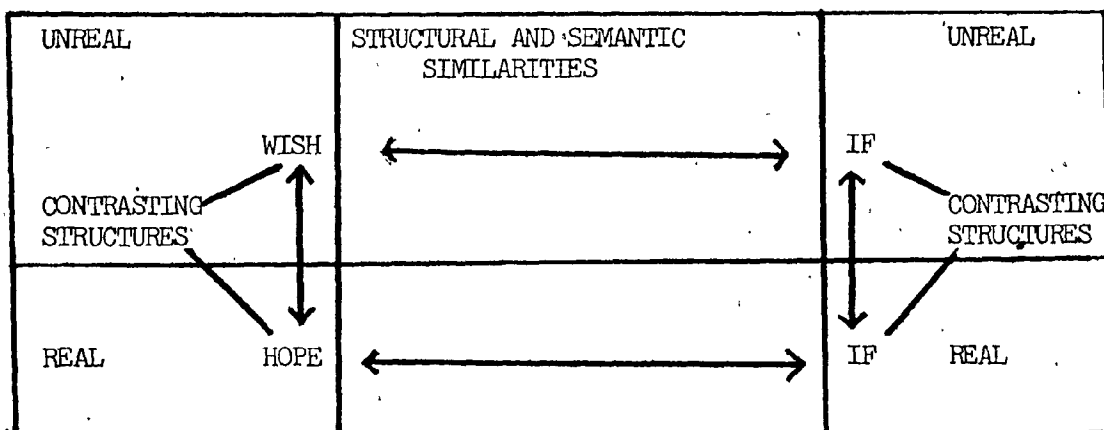
1. Inadequate treatment of the meaning of 'wish' and 'hope'.
2. Lack of contrast between the two verbs.
3. Function is virtually ignored. For example, it is assumed that the student will deduce that the verbs are used to signal different speaker involvement in the state of affairs expressed by the propositional element in the sentence.

3.4 The Relationship Approach For Pedagogical Presentation

It is clear that, semantically, wishes and hopes do not express conditions. Yet 'wish' is often presented in descriptive and pedagogical grammars as the semantic and structural analogue of the unreal conditions. By the same token, in a relationship approach, 'hope' can be presented as the analogue of the 'real' conditionals with the semantic link to the notion of possibility and the concept of reality. 'Hope' can thus be viewed as the semantic counterpart of 'wish' in the opposing relationship of reality. The two verbs are linked to the conditionals by a field of meaning, reality and unreality; that is, they have shared semantic properties rather than identical meanings. The reason for the relationship approach is to draw the parallels between related structures and meanings (real and unreal) in a unified way. The neat regularity of the correspondence suggests some useful and practical guides for presentation and explanation of the contrasting

structures (see Scheme 1).

GLOBAL GRAMMATICAL RELATIONSHIPS
OF WISH, HOPE AND THE CONDITIONALS



SCHEME 1

Ausubel and Robinson (1969) and Rutherford (1976) point out that meaningful learning will take place more quickly when the learner perceives relationships between what is to be learned and what is already part of his knowledge. To facilitate perception and learning the learner must be guided to organize his knowledge. In order to assist efficient learning it is important to arrange the items according to relevant organizing principles. Furey (1977) suggests that in the grammar explanation we can substantially assist in the assimilation and integration of newly learned material. Reintroducing structures that have been previously presented in conjunction with new but similar structures has obvious advantages for reinforcing the structures already presented (Larsen-Freeman, 1979:226) as well as minimizing the amount of intralanguage interference which could occur. The cyclical approach applies particularly since the conditionals are

usually troublesome and students often require repeated practice in learning them.

Assuming that a pedagogical grammar needs to be semantically based, the Austin/Searle concept of speech acts can be illustrated pedagogically. Silva (1975) sees meaning as having varying levels. Any utterance can have a first layer of notional meaning peeled off, for example, the basic category of time. A second layer could be that of the referential meaning of the utterance where Austin's (1962) locutions and propositions are to be found. In the case of 'wish' and 'hope', speaker attitude to the proposition contained in the utterance can be illustrated and contrasted with the conditionals semantically. The following pedagogical format is an adaptation of the theoretical model presented by Boyd and Thorne (1969). A certain oversimplification is inevitable in view of the concept of a pedagogical grammar (see Scheme 2). However, it is important to note that the speaker's purpose in uttering a sentence is not always the same as his attitude. For example, in the utterance, "I wish you would arrive on time," a negative attitude is revealed. The speaker's attitude to the proposition is that s/he negates it. S/he does not expect the hearer to arrive on time. But the speaker's purpose in the utterance may not be simply to vent his/her feelings about the situation but to express the future action s/he wishes the hearer would take. In other words, the utterance is an indirect command for the hearer to do something about his/her tardiness. Speaker attitude may or may not coincide with speaker purpose in an utterance. This is an element of context or a third level of meaning in which an utterance takes on illocutionary

force and acquires socio-linguistic meaning. A pedagogical grammar can only suggest the possibilities of meaning and rules of language use in relation to structures. As Lakoff emphasizes (1969:125), it is not only grammaticality or rules of language use that decides between acceptable and non-acceptable utterances but rather contextual acceptability.

PEDAGOGICAL ADAPTATION OF THE THEORETICAL MODEL (SEMANTIC FOCUS)

S → ILLOCUTIONARY POTENTIAL + PROPOSITION

	SPEAKER'S ATTITUDE	PROPOSITION	VERB or CONDITION	EXAMPLE
REAL	POSITIVE HOPEFUL	BOB ARRIVE ON TIME	HOPE	I HOPE BOB WILL ARRIVE ON TIME.
	PREDICTS (POSSIBILITY OF PROPOSITION DEPENDENT ON CONDITION)		IF	IF THE TRAFFIC IS LIGHT, BOB WILL ARRIVE ON TIME.
UNREAL	NEGATIVE	BOB ARRIVE ON TIME	WISH	I WISH BOB WOULD ARRIVE ON TIME.
	CONJECTURE HYPOTHESIS SUPPOSITION		IF	IF THE TRAFFIC WAS/WERE LIGHT, BOB WOULD ARRIVE ON TIME.
	REGRET ABOUT A PAST EVENT	BOB ARRIVED ON TIME	WISH	I WISH BOB HAD ARRIVED ON TIME.
	HYPOTHETICAL (ABOUT A PAST EVENT)		IF	IF THE TRAFFIC HAD BEEN LIGHT, BOB WOULD HAVE ARRIVED ON TIME.

SCHEME 2

3.5 Strategies For Teaching the
Hope-Wish-If Relationships

The time-tense concept of hypothetical 'wish' and unreal conditionals presents a major difficulty because the past forms of verbs following 'wish' and verbs in unreal if-clauses conflict with the usual semantic interpretation of time associated with past or past perfect tenses. In teaching English to adult francophones whose mother tongue has no lexical equivalent for the verb 'wish' in its hypothetical sense, it becomes necessary to contrast 'wish' with 'hope' in order to clarify the semantic and structural differences. The French 'espérer', which is semantically equivalent to 'hope', presents no problem on its own. Verb patterns follow the indicative mood used ordinarily after other verbs. 'Espérer' like 'hope' is followed by an infinitive or the future tense or conditional (future in the past), e.g.

J'espère le voir.	I hope to see him.
J'espère que je le verrai.	I hope I will see him.
	I hope I see him (familiar).
J'espérais qu'il viendrait.	I was hoping he would come.

The closest approximation in French to hypothetical 'wish' is the use of the verbs 'aimer' and 'vouloir', with 'bien' often used as an intensifier, followed by a verb in the subjunctive mood or the infinitive (when the subject in the that-clause is the same as the subject in the main clause). For example:

J'aimerais (bien) qu'ils soient ici.
Je voudrais (bien) qu'ils soient ici.
I wish they were here.

J'aimerais être actrice.

Je voudrais être actrice.

I wish I were an actress.

For wishes about the past, 'regretter' or 'vouloir' may be used:

J'aurais (bien) voulu voir cela.

I wish I had seen it.

Je regrette d'être parti si tôt.

I wish I hadn't left so early.

When 'wish' is introduced, confusion arises because of the shared meanings and diverse structural patterns of 'hope' and 'wish'. It is at this point that 'wish' needs to be clarified in relation to 'hope' and to the concepts of reality and unreality which are mirrored in the conditionals (see Schemes 3 and 4). It can be demonstrated that the tense change for conditionals is quite similar, in French:

Si j'ai le temps, je vous aiderai.

If I have the time, I will help you.

Si j'avais le temps, je vous aiderais.

If I had the time, I would help you.

Si j'avais eu le temps, je vous aurais aidé.

If I had had the time, I would have helped you.

Perception of categories aids in ordering the grammatical features for the learner in a systematic way. Schemes 1-4 for pedagogical presentation and explanation (on chalkboard or printed form) will assist learning by involving the cognitive perception of the learner. Seeing the structures under consideration within the grammatical explanation also provides for some learning to take place through the visual modality. (Furey, 1977:47)

GRAMMATICAL AND SEMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS: IF AND HOPE

IF POSSIBLE CONDITIONS	TIME	HOPE POSSIBLE EVENTS
IF IT DOESN'T RAIN, WE CAN PLAY TENNIS.	NOW	I HOPE IT DOESN'T RAIN. WE CAN PLAY TENNIS.
IF SHE LEFT EARLY, SHE GOT HOME ON TIME.	PAST	I HOPE SHE LEFT EARLY AND GOT HOME ON TIME.
IF THE WEATHER IS GOOD WE'LL GO TO THE BEACH.	NOW FUTURE	I HOPE THE WEATHER IS GOOD. WE'LL GO TO THE BEACH.

SCHEME 3

GRAMMATICAL AND SEMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS: IF AND WISH

IF HYPOTHETICAL CONDITIONS	TIME	WISH HYPOTHETICAL SITUATIONS
IF HE SOLD HOUSES HE WOULD MAKE A PROFIT.	NOW	I WISH HE SOLD HOUSES. HE WOULD MAKE A PROFIT.
IF HE HAD SOLD HIS HOUSE, HE WOULD HAVE MADE A PROFIT.	PAST	I WISH HE HAD SOLD HIS HOUSE. HE WOULD HAVE MADE A PROFIT.
IF ONLY HE WOULD SELL HIS HOUSE! IF HE WOULD SELL HIS HOUSE, HE WOULD MAKE A PROFIT. (VOLITION)	NOW FUTURE	I WISH HE WOULD SELL HIS HOUSE. HE WOULD MAKE A PROFIT.
IF HE SOLD _____		

SCHEME 4

In the explanation involving the grammatical and semantic relationships of 'if' and 'wish' emphasis should be placed on SPEAKER ATTITUDE -- how the speaker considers the statement as CONTRARY-TO-FACT:

WISH: I wish she listened to me.
CONDITION: If she listened to me ...
FACT: She doesn't listen to me.

WISH: I wish she had listened to me.
CONDITION: If she had listened to me ...
FACT: She didn't listen to me.

WISH: I wish she would listen to me.
CONDITION: If (only) she listened/would listen to me ...
FACT: She won't listen to me.

Also, emphasis should be placed on the TIME element:

		<u>TIME</u>
WISH:	I wish I knew his name.	NOW (but I don't)
CONDITION:	If I knew his name ...	
WISH:	I wish they would stop the noise.	NOW or NEAR FUTURE.
CONDITION:	If they stopped/would stop the noise, ... (but they won't)	
WISH:	I wish I had had his phone number.	YESTERDAY or some
CONDITION:	If I had had his phone number ...	PAST time (but I didn't know it)

It is furthermore necessary to contrast speaker attitude with HOPE -- how the speaker considers the statement as FACT, and the TENSE-TIME correspondence of HOPE and REAL CONDITIONAL statements. For example:

		<u>TIME</u>
HOPE:	I hope she listens to me.	PRESENT or
CONDITION:	If she listens to me ...	PRESENT/FUTURE

		<u>TIME</u>
HOPE:	I hope she's going to/will listen to me.	FUTURE
CONDITION:	If she's going to listen to me ...	
HOPE:	I hope she listened to you.	PAST
CONDITION:	If she listened to you ...	

3.5.1 Semantic Interpretations For Explanation

Wish Utterances

- . A desire for a situation which does not exist, did not exist or probably will not exist.
- . Like contrary-to-fact conditionals, wishes speculate about a hypothetical situation dependent upon the facts being different from what they actually are or were. There is hardly the possibility of their becoming fact.
- . Although wishes sometimes do become fact, at the time the speaker issues the utterance, there is no belief in the fulfillment of the wish. The attitude of the speaker is not hopeful.
- . Wishes express regret or disappointment, daydreaming or a wish for something or some situation that is impossible, unreal, contrary-to-fact or hypothetical, e.g.

'Don't you wish you could fly to the moon?

I wish I had a million dollars.

I wish you didn't have to go.

Hope Utterances

- . A desire for a situation which is possible and within reality.
- . The speaker has a positive attitude about the fulfillment of the desire.

The speaker anticipates the happening or non-happening of the situation. For example:

I hope to go abroad next month.

I hope we don't need a passport.

Summary

Both 'hope' and 'wish' are used in expressions of desire but they are seldom interchangeable. The semantic differences are less apparent than the structural differences. The meaning of the verbs is linked to structural differences. The verbs are clearly different with respect to factual vs. hypothetical meaning, i.e., expressing real vs. unreal situations and positive vs. negative attitudes on the part of the speaker.

Similarly the structural and semantic characteristics of conditional statements are expressions of reality or unreality conditioned by the attitude of the speaker and factual vs. hypothetical meaning.

These insights from the linguistic facts and from the use of these two verbs in relation to the conditionals would be an invaluable tool for a pedagogical grammar and for the language teacher who wants to teach francophones.

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