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ANALYSIS OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCE STRUCTURES IN LINGUISTICS

Abstract: This paper examines the non-marked case of conditional sentences, focusing on the structure "if A, B" and its various interpretations. Unlike explicitly marked conditionals, the non-marked case requires contextual inference to determine the type of logical connection between antecedent and consequent. Through transformation and syntactic modifications, we analyze necessary, sufficient, and insufficient conditionals, highlighting their distinctive features. Additionally, we explore how Uzbek linguistic structures express conditional and subjunctive moods, emphasizing the role of affixes such as -sa and modal constructions like "qani endi" and "koshki." The study illustrates how different languages manage conditionals and subjunctive expressions, underscoring both syntactic and semantic challenges in formalizing these structures.

Keywords: stylistic figure, chiasmus, French language, Uzbek language, comparative analysis, linguistics, rhetorical devices, literary language, stylistics, analysis.

We designate the non-marked case the linguistic form of the conditional “if A, B”. The difference with the previous forms is that the syntactic marker, which compounds the connective, is inadequate in isolation to determine the type of connection exemplified in the sentence. So, at first sight, the meaning of the conditional may seem ambiguous. In general, the context of utterance of the sentence or the semantic comprehension of the relations of the antecedent and the consequent permit recognition of the connection. Here, we will base our analysis only on the transformation of the conditional sentence in the non-marked case into the same conditional sentence with additional syntactic markers. But we will see that this strategy is not always sufficient. In the most complex cases, we also need to add some piece of information which is presupposed and usually known by the listeners or readers. This information may come from general knowledge of the world or be part of the information learned from the context (for instance by the previous elements of the discussion). However, we will put forward no real technical argument. We address here the comprehension and judgment of the reader who can appreciate by himself if the transformation that we propose changes wrongly or not at all the meaning of the sentence. Some subtleties may be lost, but our goal here is to bring to light and exemplify the type of connection. Sometimes, the resulting sentence is not completely grammatically correct, but at least we can always understand it, so a counter-argument in this vein is not really important. We will first examine the case of the necessary connection, then the sufficient connection and finally the insufficient connection.

Examples concerning a necessary connection expressed by an “if A, B” are scarce. But we can give for instance the following example:

We know that the speaker likes to impress people by showing off that he is very rich. This person says:

(1) I will buy this watch, if it takes all the money in my wallet.

(2) I will buy this watch, only if it takes all the money in my wallet.

This possibility seems to exist only when there is an inversion of the antecedent and the consequent. The standard way would be to use an “only if” conditional but when we use a marked-case, the antecedent and consequent can be put in the normal order. So, to exemplify a necessary connection, the non-marked case also needs this inversion. This example is not really convincing to some people but with the right intonation of voice, I think that the listener can understand it in the intended way.

It may not an obligatory interpretation of the sentence, but with the context in mind, some hearers do understand it like a hidden “only if” conditional.

I agree with the conception which says that “A only if B” is equivalent to “if A, then B”. So, we won’t have to investigate separately the logical properties of “only if” in the second part of the thesis.

The examples concerning a sufficient connection represent the majority of the instances of the “if A, B” form. The principal reason of this phenomenon is that we employ this type of connection more often than the others. We have also the tendency, especially in spoken language, to try to economize on the length of the sentence while conveying the same amount of information. So, it is natural to drop the “then” and to use the non-marked case.

Here is an example:

(3) If it is sunny, I will go to the beach.

(4) If it is sunny, then I will go to the beach.

But we can find more interesting uses. One is the conditional with a trivially true antecedent. Because the antecedent is sufficient to deduce the consequent, the meaning is that the consequent is also considered as true. So, we employ this type of conditional for a rhetorical effect. Here is one example:

(5) If there is one thing I cannot stand, it is to be caught in traffic jams.¹

(6) If there is one thing I cannot stand, then it is to be caught in traffic jams.

Veltman, “Data Semantics and the Pragmatics of Indicative Conditionals” Surely, for everybody, there exists something which is not really appreciated. Here, the real meaning is that the most hated thing is a traffic jam. Among the bad events of the world, the most “true” one for this person is to be blocked in his or her car and not to be able to move forward.

Parallel to this phenomenon, we find conditionals where the consequent is trivially false. The speaker hopes that from this, the listener will be able to deduce that the antecedent is false. There is a simple application of the principle of contraposition:

(7) If he told the truth, I’m the Pope.

¹ Veltman, “Data Semantics and the Pragmatics of Indicative Conditionals”

(8) If he told the truth, then I'm the Pope.

Contraposition and deduction: I am not the Pope. If I am not the Pope, he doesn't tell the truth. So, he doesn't tell the truth. This aspect of the sufficient conditional is particularly interesting because it shows that contraposition is one of its logical properties. So, formal systems which don't possess this property, won't be able to give an account of this type of use. But there are well-known examples where contraposition is inappropriate. The explanation is just that we are here dealing with another type of connection.

The last category of sufficient conditionals expressed by the "If A, B" form is what is named "relevant conditionals". These conditionals are the trickiest one because we see here a contraction of a conditional with another piece of information. The result of this contraction is the elimination of the consequent. Always by the knowledge of the world, the listener must be able to reconstruct the argumentation. I will show here two different examples:

(9) If you are hungry, there are biscuits on the table.²

(10) If you are hungry, there are biscuits on the table that you can eat.

(11) If you are hungry, then you can eat the biscuits on the table.

(12) If you need me, my name is Marcia.³

(13) If you need me, then you can call me. My name is Marcia.

To give an account of this type of examples in formal terms seem really difficult. In fact, we have to guess the presupposed consequent. A purely syntactical solution seems simply impossible. A semantic solution is also really difficult because the missing part of the conditional must be found from the antecedent and the external sentence. Many people could claim that "relevant" conditionals are not really conditionals, because in languages like Dutch and German, the consequent has the word order of a single main clause, while in real conditionals, the verb of the consequent gets second position with respect to the antecedent.

Anyway, this construction respects in English the criteria that permit to classify it as a conditional sentence and the case is the same in other languages like in French.

We will study now the forms of the "if A, B" conditionals which correspond to an insufficient connection. The first one is used for rhetorical reasons:

(14) This is the best book of the month, if not of the year.⁴

(15) Even if it is not the best book of the year, it is the best book of the month.

We can notice here that the inversion of the antecedent with the consequent facilitates this interpretation because very often, the consequent of an "even if" is true. By putting it in the first place, the acceptance by the speaker is reinforced.

² Veltman, "Data Semantics and the Pragmatics of Indicative Conditionals"

³ Veltman, "Data Semantics and the Pragmatics of Indicative Conditionals"

⁴ Veltman, "Data Semantics and the Pragmatics of Indicative Conditionals"

The second type is conditionals where the antecedent contains a disjunction. But here, two possibilities exist. The first one is when the antecedent doesn't exhaust the universe. It means that there exists at least a third possibility in complement of those present in the antecedent:

(16) If John is dead or seriously ill, Mary will collect the money.⁵

(17) If John is dead or seriously ill, then Mary will collect the money.

We have here a sufficient connection. We can apply the classical argument to confirm this hypothesis: contraposition is valid. On the other hand, when the disjunction in the antecedent exhausts the universe, the connection is not only insufficient but also moreover inexistent. In that case, we can often replace the conditional by a compound sentence introduced by "whatever":

(18) If John is drunk or not drunk, Bill will vote for him.⁶

(19) Whatever John's consumption of alcohol, Bill will vote for him.

The "whatever" signals a limit case of an insufficient connection because the components of the antecedent don't have any link with the consequent. We have here simply no connection at all. Conversely, a conditional introduced by "even if" signals that the antecedent is a factor which could have changed the consequent in other circumstances.

We can notice also that a conjunction of two conditionals where the antecedent of the second one is the negation of the first one is equivalent to the "whatever" form. From this whatever form can be often deduced an "even if" conditional:

(20) If John is drunk, Bill will vote for him and if John is not drunk, Bill will vote for him.

(21) So, whatever John's consumption of alcohol, Bill will vote for him.

(22) Even if John is drunk, Bill will vote for him.

When the verb lexemes "istamoq – to desire, xohlamoq- to want" take the affix -sa conditional tense, the conditional meaning appears in the sentence. But in such a case, even though the content of the subjunctive mood is understood through the lexical meaning of the verb lexeme, this desire is of an unreal nature. That is, the subjunctive mood has not yet been fulfilled; it will only take place in the imagination of the speaker. For example:

Gar isinmoq istasa,

Qalbimga jo bo'lsin quyosh. (E.Vohidov)

When the lexemes of the verb "istamoq – to desire, xohlamoq- to want" take the affix -ma in the sentence, the meaning of wanting the action-state not to be realized is understood. For example: Bu yulduzlarning hammasi ko'shilib bahaybat bir yulduz bo'lishini sira istamasdim.- I never wanted all these stars to come together and become one giant star. (E.Vakhidov. "River of my life")

⁵ Iatridou, "If 'then'. Then what?"

⁶ Iatridou, "If 'then'. Then what?"

The verb “tusamoq - to want”, which has the lexical meaning of “ixtiyor etmoq, xohlamoq, istamoq”, is also involved in the formation of subjunctive mood sentences.⁷ This verb differs from “istamoq – to desire, xohlamoq- to want” synonyms in that the lexeme is widely used in colloquial speech. This unit also converts it into a subjunctive mood sentence when used as a predicate function in a sentence. When used in tasks other than the predicate in the sentence, it comes as a secondary predicate and generates information expressing a subjunctive mood in that part. For example:

1. ... Hah, ko'ngil, yana nimalarni tusaysan besar. (Sh.Rahmon. “The ode in comparison to Horse”)
2. Ko'ngli sho'r narsani tusayotganini aytdi. (Spoken.)

Through the lexeme of “tusamoq - to want” used in the first example, the content of desire is formed in the sentence. This unit can be used freely in speech with 11 verb lexemes.

Morphological units are also involved in the formation of subjunctive mood sentences in Uzbek language. In particular, verbs of the -sa conditional tense and some imperative tenses form the meaning of desire in a sentence, and subjunctive mood sentences are formed when used as a predicate function. For example, “...Qiynalib qolgan oila ekani ko'rinib turibdi. Savobgarchilikka biroz pul berib ketsammikan... -... It seems that it is a troubled family. What if I give you some money for charity ...” (N. Hoshimov). The meaning of desire is formed by the verb -sa in the conditional mood.

The use of units denoting modal attitudes such as qani endi (qaniydi), koshki (koshki edi, koshkiydi), koshki ekan, zora, shoyad in such sentences further reinforces the content of desire. D. Lutfullaeva distinguished the following syntactic patterns formed by these means: [Koshki + A +... -sa], [Koshki + A

+... -sa ekan], [Koshki edi + A +... -sa], [Qani edi + A +... -Sa], [A +... -sa edi], [A +... -ganda edi].⁸ We have not studied them in the syntactic patterns shown, given that the units of zora can also be used as incomplete sentences

The main function of the “qani endi (qaniydi), koshki (koshki edi, koshkiydi), koshki ekan, zora, shoyad” units is to further reinforce the content of the desire expressed in the sentence. Consider the following examples:

Qani endi Toshkentda ko'cha chetida shovullab oqib turgan jo'mrakka shundoq labingni bossangda, to'yguncha, yorilib ketguncha ichsang! - I wish you would drink to your heart's content when you press the tap on the tap running down the street in Tashkent! (O. Hoshimov. “Lives in the dream”)

⁷ Lutfullaeva D. (1997) Denial and formal-semantic inconsistency in affirmative statements: Candidate of Philological Sciences. Diss. Abstract. Toshkent. p. 21.

⁸ Lutfullaeva D. (1997) Denial and formal-semantic inconsistency in affirmative statements: Candidate of Philological Sciences. Diss. Abstract. Toshkent. p. 21

Qani endi xo'jayini boy-badavlat bo'lsa-yu, uyida hamisha go'shtli qozoni qaynab tursa. - If only his master were rich and his house was always boiling with meat. (N. Hoshimov. "Sound from Bride Curtain Home")⁹

The meaning of desire is also strengthened by the repeated use of verbs with the -sa affix in speech. For example:

Shu o'ynayversang-o'ynayversang, senga tegishli ishlarni birovlar bajaraversa-bajaraversa... – If you play like this, if someone does the things that belong to you ... (Kh. Tukhtaboev. "Riding the Yellow Giant")¹⁰

Yoki Pskentdagi soyning ajriqlar qoplab yotgan sohiliga yotib olsang-u, yuz-ko'zingni suvga botirib ichaversang... ichaversang...- Or if you lie down on the split bank of the river in Pskent, immerse your face in water and drink... (O. Hoshimov. "Lives in the dream")¹¹

Verbs with the -sa affix edi are used with incomplete verbs, so there is a strong expression of the meaning of desire:

Dunyoda bir odamga

Siring aytib bo'lsaydi. (M.Yusuf. "Fifth Child")¹²

When verbs with the -sa affix are combined with the verb demoq (in the form of degandim), the desire of the speaker is emphasized: U ham kelsa degandim - I said that he would also come.

In speech, the -sa affixes are often combined with go'rga edi (go'rgaydi), go'rga ekan constructions of verbs to express the wishes of the speaker. In such constructions the anxious expression of the speaker's desire is observed: Bizga gam tegmasa go'rga edim. (S. Ahmad. "Bride's Revolt")¹³

It is understood that in the Uzbek language the affix - sa is important as a means of forming the grammatical meaning of desire. The expression of the affix - sa was also mentioned by Uzbek linguists A.Gulamov, A.Khojiev, Sh.Rahmatullaev.¹⁴ In these works, the -sa affix is considered an ambiguous affix. For example, Sh.Rahmatullaev evaluated the meaning of the affix - sa as the main meaning of the desire, and the meaning of the condition as the meaning that came later.¹⁵

⁹ Адмони В.Г. Синтаксис современного немецкого языка. Система отношений и система построения. Л.: „Наука. -1973. -365 с.

¹⁰ Азизова А. Ўзбек тилида шарт ва тўсиқсиз эргаш гаплар. Ҳозирги замон ўзбек тили курсидан материаллар. - Ўзфанакадемнашр. 1955. -Б.14-17.

¹¹ Аскарова М. А. Сложное предложение с придаточным дополнительным в современном узбекском языке. Вопросы составления описательных грамматик. --М.: -1961. -С.160-165

¹² Бердиалиев А. Ўзбек тилида эргаш гапли қўшма гаплардаги синтактик алоқа ва носинтактик муносабатлар. -Т.: -ТошДУ нашр.: -1993. -92 б.

¹³ Маъруфов А. Ҳозирги замон пайт эргаш гаплар. Филол. Фан. номзоди.... дис.-си. -Т.: -1949.

¹⁴ Gulomov A. (1964) Verb. - Tashkent: Publishing House of the Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Uzbekistan; Hojiev A. (1973) Verb. - Tashkent: Fan. p 92; Rahmatullaev Sh. (2006) Modern Uzbek literary language. Toshkent. p. 188.

¹⁵ Gulomov A. (1964) Verb. - Tashkent: Publishing House of the Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Uzbekistan; Hojiev A. (1973) Verb. - Tashkent: Fan. p 92; Rahmatullaev Sh. (2006) Modern Uzbek literary language. Toshkent. p. 188.

In sources, the -sa affix acts as a conditional affix as a means of connecting parts of a conditional sentence; it is noted that the conditional relation is further enhanced if the part of speech consisting of these affixed verbs contains conditional conjunctions such as agar, mabodo, and basharti.¹⁶ But this is not a permanent situation. Although the part of a subjunctive mood sentence consists of verbs with the -sa affix, and conditional conjunctions such as agar, mabodo, and basharti are used in the sentence, conditional sentences may not be formed. For example: Agar shu tuxumlarni yigirma kun bosib bersangiz, jahon faniga buyuk hissa qo'shgan bo'lardingiz.- If you pressed these eggs for twenty days, you would have made a great contribution to world science. (S.Ahmad. "Napoleon Mamajonov")¹⁷

In Uzbek language, the meaning of desire is formed through the command-desire affixes of the verb. The meaning of desire is especially vividly expressed through the affix -y (-ay) in the first person singular. In the -sin affix, the meanings of command, desire, can be separate and together. For example, the will of the speaker, expressed in sentence Mayli, arvoq bo'lsa ham, bag'rimga bosay, to'yib-to'yib yuzlaridan o'pay. - Well, even if it's a ghost, hug me and kiss me on the cheek. (Kh. Tukhtaboev. "Riding the Yellow Giant")¹⁸ is the main meaning.

In the examples given, the units "qaniydi, koshki" formed the sentence. In this case, the information that semantically expresses desire is understood through the same units. Such information emerges in context. In the first example, the information "Qaniydi shular amalga oshsa. - I wish this would happen" is expressed, and in the next sentence, "Erta-indin eshikdan kirib kelsa, juda yaxshi bo'lardi. - Sooner or later, it would be great if he came in the door".

In colloquial speech, it is observed that the units of "zora, shoyad (shoyadki)" also reinforce the meaning of desire, sometimes forming a subjunctive mood sentence. R. Bobokalonov called such units modal with meaning of desire.¹⁹ In the following examples, the units "zora, shoyad" reinforce the meaning of desire:

Mening ushbu she'rim sen uchun shoyad

Do'stlaring nomidan yo'qlov bo'lolsa.

Perhaps this poem of mine is for you

If there is a loss on behalf of your friends. (A.Oripov. "Tashrif")

Zora tole belgisi bo'lsa,

Zora bo'lsa omad rivoji.

If there is a sign of bad luck,

Good luck. (E.Vakhidov. "To my comrades")

¹⁶ Gulomov A., Askarova M. (1987) Modern Uzbek literature. Tashkent: Teacher. p. 270.

¹⁷S.Ahmad. "Napoleon Mamajonov" hajviya. Ziyonet.uz kutubxonasi.

¹⁸To'xtaboyev X. Sariq devni minib. – Toshkent. Yangi asr avlodi nashriyoti. 2013. B. 240.

¹⁹ Bobokalonov R. (2000) Functionally-semantically formed words in Uzbek language. Tashkent.

It is understood that the units “zora, shoyad (shoyadki)” also come in the form of sentences consisting of verbs with the -sa affix, further reinforcing the desire understood from the predicate. But in poetic verses it is also observed that these words are connected with verb predicates in the tendency to precision. In this case, the meaning of the wish is not expressed in the sentence:

Turfa gullardan u shoyad

Bir butun bo'ston bo'lur.

He is one of the most unusual flowers

It will be a whole wasteland. (E.Vakhidov. “Turkestan market”).

Thus, in Uzbek language, the means of expression of desire play an important role in the syntactic formation of subjunctive mood sentences. Units expressing desire are diverse and are divided into lexical, morphological, and syntactic means.

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