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Existenciální konstrukce *there is/are* a její české překladové ekvivalenty

Existential construction *there is/are* and its Czech translation counterparts

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Poděkování

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Abstrakt

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá existenciální konstrukcí *there is/are* a jejími překladovými ekvivalenty. Existenciální konstrukce s *there* je jedním ze základních prostředků, které prezentují nový jev, a je tedy jednou z forem prezentační škály. Zatímco v anglickém jazyce se tato konstrukce užívá velmi běžně, v českém jazyce žádný ekvivalent pro tuto formu neexistuje. Předpokládalo se tedy, že nejčastěji užívaným prostředkem pro překlad prezentačních vět bude české sloveso *být* (např. *There is a long way ahead of us.* = *Je před námi dlouhá cesta.*), *mít* (např. *There is a long way ahead of us.* = *Máme před sebou dlouhou cestu*), či lexikální slovesa explicitně vyjadřující existenci daného jevu (např. *existovat, vyskytovat se, objevit se*).

Teoretická část nabízí základní shrnutí dostupné literatury o problematice prezenční škály, prezentačních vět a konstrukce *there is/are*. Zabývá se také aktuálním členěním větným, které je pro dané téma základním bodem. V závěru teoretické části je osvětlena dosavadní činnost v oblasti překladů existenciálních vět. Cílem praktické části diplomové práce bylo nashromáždit 200 anglických vět s existenciální konstrukcí *there is/are* z paralelního korpusu InterCorp v11, provést syntakticko-sémantickou analýzu všech příkladů a následně zmapovat jejich české překladové protějšky. Všechny příklady nalezené v InterCorpu pocházely z beletrie, konkrétně se jednalo o pět knih napsaných a přeložených po roce 2000. Anglické věty byly rozděleny do čtyř základních sémantických kategorií podle Duškové et al. (2006), tedy existenciální, existenciálně lokativní, akční a modální. Jejich české protějšky byly analyzovány a rozděleny především na základě sémantiky českých sloves.

Klíčová slova: prezentační škála, prezentační věty s *there*, AČV, *there is/are*, existenciální konstrukce, české překladové protějšky

Abstract:

The Diploma thesis analyses the existential construction *there is/are* and its Czech translation equivalents. The existential construction is used to present a new phenomenon and is thus one of the basic forms of the presentation scale. Even though it is a commonly used construction in English, there is no direct equivalent in Czech. It was, therefore, assumed that the most common means of translating the existential sentences to Czech would be the verb *být*, the Czech equivalent of the verb *be* (as in *There is a long way ahead of us. = Je před námi dlouhá cesta.), mít*, the Czech equivalent of the verb *have* (as in *There is a long way ahead of us = Máme před sebou dlouhou cestu*) or other lexical verbs explicitly expressing existence of the given phenomenon, such as *existovat* (=exist), objevit se (=appear) and others.

The theoretical part summarizes literature and previous work on the problematics of the presentation scale, presentation sentences and the construction *there is/are*. It also provides information about the functional sentence perspective, which is essential to the discussed topic. The final part of the theoretical section briefly discusses the previous work on the Czech translation equivalents of the existential construction. The aim of the empirical part was to gather 200 English sentences with the existential construction *there is/are* from the parallel corpus InterCorp v11, analyse all example syntactically and semantically and compare them with their Czech translation equivalents. All examples from InterCorp were found in the fiction genre, namely in five English books written and translated after the year 2000. English sentences were categorized based on Dušková et al.'s classification (2006) into four semantic categories: existential, existential-locative, action and modal. The categorization of the Czech equivalents was mainly based on the semantics of the Czech verbs.

Key words: presentation scale, presentation sentences with *there*, FSP, *there is/are*, existential construction, Czech translation equivalents

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List of abbreviations

Adv Adverb

CD Communicative dynamism

Cs Subject complement

FSP Functional sentence perspective

NP Noun phrase

PLC Prague Linguistic Circle

PP Prepositional phrase

S Subject

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1. Introduction

The study focuses on the existential construction *there is/are* and its Czech translation counterparts. The aim is to explore the mentioned construction syntactically and semantically, look for syntactic regularities and their possible relations to the semantic categories. While *there*-construction is a common means of presenting a new phenomenon in English, in Czech, there is no equivalent structure. Therefore, there is no single correct possibility of translating the construction into Czech. This thesis seeks to map the means that are used to translate the existential sentences.

The theoretical part (section 2) discusses the existential sentences and provides a summary of previous research. It discusses there-construction from the point of view of syntax (function of there, the verb be and the notional subject), semantics (providing an overview of how various linguists, such as Dušková, Quirk or Huddleston and Pullum, work with the semantic categorization) but also from the point of view of functional sentence perspective (by which, as described by Mathesius and Firbas, we understand the arrangement of sentence elements). The theoretical part also discusses the previous research on the Czech translation counterparts of the existential sentences. The material used for the thesis as well as the method are introduced in the methodological part (section 3). The aim of the analytical part (section 4) is to examine 200 examples of the existential there-construction and their Czech translation counterparts. All the examples were extracted from the English-Czech parallel corpus InterCorp v11, created by ÚČNK – Ústav českého národního korpusu. The analysis is divided into four sections corresponding to the four main semantic categories laid down by Dušková et al. (2006): existential, existential-locative, action and modal. The subdivisions of the sections are based on the main focuses of the analysis (syntactic and semantic properties, Czech translation counterparts). The thesis is concluded with the summary of main findings (section 5). All the analysed examples are to be found in the Appendix (section 8).

2. Theoretical background

The existential *there*-construction is one of the primary means of presenting a new phenomenon on the scene – hence indicating its existence. While the construction is used very frequently and is considered rather common in the English language, Czech does not offer any such counterpart. This difference arises from the analytic character of English, as opposed to the syntactic character of Czech, and their options regarding the word order. As is going to be discussed in the following sections, the role of word order is crucial in the topic of *there*-constructions. In order to provide the full picture, the theoretical part will first explain the structure of the construction (section 2.1.), focusing separately on the individual segments it comprises of, and consequently, the function of the construction will be discussed in depth (section 2.2.) along with the possible alternation with the possessive *have*-construction (section 2.3.). While the first two parts are in their nature mainly syntax-driven, section 2.4. provides also the semantic point of view. Due to the contrastive character of this study, the final part of the theoretical section will focus on the English-Czech translations of the existential constructions (section 2.5.). All the sections are to provide the theoretical background and an overview of previous research.

2.1. Structure of *there*-construction

2.1.1. There

In contrast with the locative adverb, *there* of the existential construction "has been bleached of its locative meaning and reanalysed as a pronoun" and "the clear split between locative *there* (there_{loc}) and dummy pronoun *there* (there_{pro}) is reflected in the fact that they readily combine in the same clause" (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002: 1391). Besides that, *there*

can combine also with *here* and other locative adverbs (see ibid) and, as Dušková et al. (2006: 392) mention, the pronunciation is reduced. Moreover, Breivik (1983: 157-8) explains that "non-referential *there* (= *there*₁)¹ behaves like a subject NP with respect to a number of transformations. For example, it can undergo subject raising, which raises the subject of an embedded clause into the next higher clause. Like other subject NPs *there* can be raised into either the subject or the object position of the matrix". According to Firbas, "*there* is so weak semantically that it does not as much as refer to the subject, but only fills its place" (Svoboda et al., 2010: 71). A very similar approach can be found in Quirk et al. (1985: 1402). who refer to *there* in *there*-construction as one of the "devices providing some kind of dummy theme which will enable the originator to indicate the 'new' status of a whole clause, including its subject." Linguists such as Huddleston and Pullum (2002) incline to the term "dummy *there*." The specifics and main characteristics of *there* in the existential constructions can be best explained by an excerpt from the work of Quirk et al. (1985: 1405):

The there of existential sentences differs from there as an introductory adverb in lacking stress, in carrying none of the locative meaning of the place-andjunct there and in behaving in most ways like the subject of the clause, doubtless reflecting the structural dislocation from the basic clause types:

1. It often determines concord, governing a singular form of the verb even when the following 'notional subject' is plural

There's some people in the waiting room.

2. It can act as subject in yes-no and tag question:
Is there any more soup? There's nothing wrong, is there?

3. It can act as subject in infinitive and -ing clauses

_

¹ Breivik uses the terms *there*₁ *and there*₂ in order to distinguish between the locative adverb *there* and the semantically empty *there* used in the existential construction, respectively (see Breivik, 1983: 1).

I don't want there to be any misunderstanding.

He was disappointed in there being so little to do.

Dušková et al. claim (2006: 353) that it is not only a formal means of filling the place of a subject, but it is also an elementary part of the existential and existential-locative sentence. It is very often compared with the anticipatory *it* because they both anticipate the actual subject by filling its place. Unlike *it*, however, *there* only anticipates a nominal or pronominal subject (while *it* most frequently anticipates an infinitive or a subordinate clause; see ibid).

2.1.2. The verb

The semantics of the verb, as pointed out by Firbas, plays a significant role (for further discussion see section 2.2.1.1.). Consider the examples given by Breivik (1981: 9): ?A bird is in the tree/ There is a bird in the tree. While the second one is generally considered unmarked, the first example "which does not reflect the theme-transition-rheme sequence, is found only in certain contexts (e.g. stage directions)" (ibid) and is generally considered rather 'awkward.' Quirk et al. (1985: 1403) suggest a solution for this: "Sentences with entirely 'new' themes seem to be less awkward if combined with discontinuous postmodification of the noun phrase [...], this placing the focus on new information at the end." Compare: ? A bird is in that tree./ A bird is in that tree which I have never seen around here before. (ibid) The clause can be also considered more natural if the verb used for the introduction is semantically strong itself (e.g. A bird appeared in that tree). However, in case the verb is semantically weak, such as the verb be, the intuition of a native speaker would suggest to rather use the alternative existential construction instead. Thus, sentences offering the there-alternative can be "from the point of view of FSP [...] regarded as devices to present new information: there establishes a basis from which the utterance may be developed by way of the transition to the communicative core" (ibid).

Quirk et al. (1985: 1408) mention a "rather less common, more literary type of existential clause in which *there* is followed by other verb than *be*." The verbs used in this type of constructions usually fall into the semantic category of presentation verbs: "verbs of motion (*arrive*, *enter*, *pass*, *come*, etc.), of inception (*emerge*, *spring up*, etc.), and of stance (*live*, *remain*, *stand*, *lie*, etc.)" and "the verb must be intransitive" (ibid). This is what Tárnyiková refers to as "the presentative (presentational) there-construction, which denotes a more dynamic process of bringing something "discourse-new" into sight" (Adam, 2012: 4). The present study, however, only addresses the existential construction with the verb *be* and thus this less common type will not be of interest.

2.1.3. Notional Subject

2.1.3.1. Position

"The notional subject is usually placed at the end of the sentence, which corresponds to its rhematic function" (Dubec, 2007: 18). According to Quirk et al. (1985: 1403), "the subject of the original clause² may be called the 'notional' subject of the *there* sentence, so as to distinguish it from *there* itself, which for most purposes is the 'grammatical' subject." The terminology in general is not entirely settled, for instance Huddleston and Pullum (2002) talk about a 'displaced subject,' however, for the purpose of this paper, the terminology used by Duškováet al. along with Quirk et al. – the notional subject – is going to be followed.

On what the mentioned linguists agree is the concept of the aforementioned 'underlying' or 'corresponding' construction: "Many clauses with *there* as subject have syntactically simpler counterparts without *there*" (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002: 1391): *Several windows were open*.

² What Quirk et al. have in mind is the underlying construction, hence the alternative of the existential *there*-construction, where standard S-V word order (rather than S_{there}-V-S_{notional}) is presented. The problematics of the underlying constructions is to be discussed further.

~ There were several windows open (ibid). The underlying constructions present a problem — not all the existential sentences have them. In the previous example, the corresponding sentence is possible due to the predication "open." As a subject complement in the first sentence, it shifts to the position of postmodification of the notional subject "windows" which makes both the required positions (S and Cs) filled. Nevertheless, in cases like the following one, the underlying construction is not accessible: There was an accident (ibid). The notional subject is bare, lacking any kind of modification or complementation (be it a subordinate clause, participle, etc. or an adverbial), and thus there is no corresponding construction with the notional subject "accident" in the initial position. "The verb be can hardly occur without an internal complement, and there are accordingly no non-existential counterparts" (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002: 1393): *An accident was. Quirk et al. (1985: 1403) suggest that "there is a regular correspondence between existential sentences with there + be and clauses of equivalent meaning as specified in terms of the basic clause patterns [...], provided that the clause concerned (i) has an indefinite subject [...] and (ii) has a form of the verb be in its verb phrase" which forms a "general rule:"

subject + (auxiliaries) + be + predication $\sim there$ + (auxiliaries) + be + subject + predication

Fig1.: General rule for a corresponding construction (Quirk et al., 1985: 1403).

The presence or absence of an underlying construction, however, does not influence the terminology and the term "notional subject" is going to be used in both cases.

2.1.3.2. Structure

As far as the structure of the notional subject is concerned, it can be far more complicated than in the examples given by Quirk et al., Huddleston and Pullum or even Dušková et al. In his diploma thesis, Dubec (2007: 18) suggested three main categories of the notional-subject classification: "1. simple noun phrase, 2. complex noun phrase, and 3.

compound noun phrase." While "the simple noun phrase consists only of a determinative and head, [...] the complex noun phrase contains at least one modifier [premodifier, postmodifier or combination of both]" and "the compound noun phrase consists of at least two coordinated heads" (Dubec, 2007: 18-22). The three types can be exemplified by the following sentences, all taken from Dubec's thesis (2007): simple noun phrase (NP): This means that even if there were events before the big bang, one could not use them to determine what would happen afterward, because predictability would break down at the big bang (155); complex NP: There is little meat in the diet (94); compound NP: Depending on the parameters we play with, there would be thousands or tens of thousands of these small participatory democracies (134). Not even this detailed classification is entirely complete, as Dubec himself noted. Consider the following example: [...] there was a much more general class of Friedmann-like models that did have singularities, and in which the galaxies did not have to be moving any special way. (Dubec, 2007: 19) In this sentence, "the postmodification consists of more elements – the prepositional phrase postmodifies the head and this unit is postmodified by two adnominal relative clauses in coordination" (ibid). In classification proposed by Dubec, the notional subject int his sentence would be classified as a complex NP. The problematics of modification can be concluded by saying that "it seems that a very characteristic feature of the notional subject is its heavy modification, especially postmodification. This can be assigned to several reasons. One of them is perhaps the fact that the phenomenon which is introduced into discourse is usually very complex and a simple noun phrase seems to be very often semantically incomplete" (Dubec, 2007: 50).

In their study, Rohrauer and Dubec (2011) focused on the comparison of *there*-constructions in fiction and academic prose. They categorized the analysed sentences according to the syntactic features of the construction and of the notional subject: "noun phrases realizing the notional subjects were grouped according to the presence or absence of modification

(complex NPs vs. simple NPs) and coordination (compound NPs)" (Rohrauer & Dubec, 2011: 25). Their results show that while the complex NP occurs most frequently in both styles, simple NP is far more preferred in fiction than in academic prose. The authors (2011: 26) believe that "this is because of the dramatic effect that simple NPs create." A very similar distribution of complex and simple NPs is expected in the current study as well.

It is generally recognized that the subject should be indefinite. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1396), this is due to the fact that "the existential construction is characteristically used to introduce addressee-new entities into the discourse". As was seen in the previous section, in case the corresponding structure is not possible, "the presence of an indefinite NP makes the existential pragmatically obligatory" (ibid). It should be also noted, however, that "when the indefinite NP denotes a physical entity [...], both constructions are felicitous, but when it denotes an abstract entity [...], the existential is generally required" (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002: 1397). Compare the following examples; "furniture," a NP denoting a physical entity, allows us to use both constructions: *A furniture van was in the drive./There was a furniture van in the drive.* An abstract entity such as "plenty of room," on the contrary, can be introduced only in the form of the existential *there-*construction: *Plenty of room is on the top shelf./There's plenty of room on the top shelf. (ibid)

Another difference is given by context. If the indefinite noun phrase is explained by a previous context, it is possible to leave it in the initial position. If there is, however, no connection to previous context, the existential construction is required (see ibid).

The rule that the notional subject of an existential construction should be formed by an indefinite noun phrase can be overruled, and a definite noun phrase may be used "where the definite noun phrase conveys new information, in answers to existential questions (actual or implied), such that the answer provides a specific (and hence definite) instance" (Quirk et al.,

1985: 1404). Thus, even though sentences such as *There's the money in the box are infelicitous, dialogues, such as the following, are perfectly acceptable: A: Have we any loose cash in the house? B: Well, there's the money in the box over there (ibid). This is due to the fact that "in existential there-constructions, definiteness is not expected to signal hearer-old information but rather information that is formally definite but intended to introduce hearer-new entity" (Tárnyiková, 2009: 99). Huddleston and Pullum as well as Tárnyiková provide five cases where the existential construction with a definite noun phrase is possible: "addressee-old entities treated as new addressee-new," "addressee new tokens of addressee-old types," "addressee-old entities newly instantiating a variable," "addressee-new entities with identifying descriptions," and "false definite this" (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002: 1398-1401).

2.1.4. Adjuncts

We generally mainly distinguish adjuncts of time and place in *there*-constructions. They can occur both initially and finally; when placed initially, they can be separated by comma. Adjuncts occurring in this construction can be both optional (generally classified as pure existentials) or obligatory (resulting in existential-locative classification – see section 2.4.). Dušková (1998: 37) claims that adverbials, more specifically locative and temporal adjuncts, "as a rule operate as a setting (i.e. an element with a low degree of communicative dynamism (CD) within the thematic section [...], whether in initial or final position". Even though the most natural distribution of CD is found in sentences with adverbials in the initial position, they are very frequently found in the final position in which case "the rheme is followed by the diatheme" (ibid), being "the most dynamic element within the thematic section" (Dušková, 1998: 42). Dubec (2007: 35), on the other hand, states that "according to the extent to which they contribute to the development of communication adjuncts can perform the diathematic function (scene-setting) and the function/role of specification," the latter one belonging to the

rhematic section. When the adjunct occupies the final position, it can be rather difficult to distinguish the scene-setting function and the more dynamic specification function. This confusion might arise partly from the fact that the existential construction is used to force the most dynamic element towards the end of the clause and when the scene-setting adverbial occurs after the rhematic part, it actually disrupts the natural distribution of CD. In attempt to distinguish the scene-setting and specification adverbials, Firbas (1992: 50) suggests that "the adverbials conveying obligatory amplifications belong to the core of the message," thus representing the specification, whereas "those that convey mere background information participate in laying the foundation" (ibid) and therefore serving as a scene-setting. Dubec (2007: 36) provides the following examples: [...] there were many forms of this disaster in the nineteenth century (scene-setting)./[...] there could be wavelike disturbances in the combined electromagnetic field (specification) [...].

2.2. Function of *there*-construction

As Tárnyiková (2009: 97) puts it, "existential-there is said to be primarily hearer/readeroriented and introduces into the text an entity that is supposed by the text producer to be new
to the addressee." The main purpose of using the existential construction is to shift the
communicatively heavy element towards the end of the clause, by which way "the Phenomenon
is not typically presented in the initial part of the sentence, but on the contrary, it actually
represents the culminating peak of the information structure" (Adam, 2012: 5). It particularly
serves as a special device of presenting a new element on the scene. Even though it is not the
only grammatical means of doing that, according to Dušková (1998: 36), who conducted a study
on the presentation scale (for a detailed overview of the dynamic semantic scales, see section
2.2.1.2.), the existential there-construction is the most frequent tool of this presentation of a
context-independent element: "The most frequent realization of the presentation scale is the

existential construction (39 instances, 43.3%)." This result was also confirmed by Adam whose research showed that *there*-construction was used as a device of the presentation scale in 65% of cases (see Adam, 2013: 62).

The chief trait of the existential construction is that it allows the speaker to satisfy the subconsciously natural pattern of the theme-transition-rheme ordering of elements (i.e. the linear principle) due to the fact that "the existential construction indicates the rheme by its postverbal placement after existential *be*, preceded by *there*" (Dušková, 1998: 37). In order to provide the full theoretical context of the *there*-construction and its purpose in the act of communication, let us now briefly explain the concept of Functional sentence perspective.

2.2.1. Functional sentence perspective

The topic of the existential construction is very closely connected with the theory of Functional sentence perspective (FSP) which was, among others, most significantly developed by Jan Firbas. This linguist and a member of the Prague Linguistic Circle (PLC) built his theory and research on the foundations laid by Vilém Mathesius, a PLC member as well. According to Firbas, "by functional sentence perspective the present writer understands the arrangement of sentence elements as it is viewed in the light of the actual situation, i.e. in fact in the light of the context, both verbal and situational" (Svoboda et al., 2010: 85). What "'pushes' the communication forward" is "the degree of communicative dynamism (CD) carried by a sentence element" (Svoboda et al., 2010: 282) In Firbas's words (1992: 8), CD is the "relative extent to which a linguistic element contributes towards the further development of the communication." The carrier of CD is "every meaningful element of communication (Adam, 2013: 39).

Originally, Mathesius introduced the division of an utterance into a thematic and a rhematic part. As Adam (2013: 38) explains, "according to Mathesius' studies on the word

order in Czech, the theme of a sentence represents the point of departure, that is "what is being talked about", while the rheme is connected with the core of the message, that is "what is being said about the theme." This division of utterances into a theme and a non-theme part is language universal (see ibid). Consequently, in his work, Firbas extended this idea and inserted another element between these two parts – the transition, represented by the verb. These three parts can be, therefore, separated into two: thematic one (including the theme only) and non-thematic one (comprising of the transition and the rheme). While the thematic part is already known from the context and it bears the lowest degree of CD, the rhematic part, i.e. the newly presented information, is communicatively the most dynamic one.

2.2.1.1. FSP Factors

Every sentence element is at the same time a unit bearing a certain degree of CD. "The degrees of CD are determined by the interplay of FSP factors involved in the distribution of degrees of CD" (Adam, 2008: 17). In the written communication, these factors are the linear modification, context, and the semantic structure. The spoken communication then adds another factor, intonation, which, however, is not of a concern in this thesis. These factors work on the basis of a hierarchy. It is important to note that this hierarchy is not language universal.

The linear modification "induces the sentence elements to manifest gradual rise in CD in the direction from the beginning to the end of the sentence" (Adam, 2008: 23) and as any Czech native speaker can intuitively infer, "in Czech, the FSP linearity principle represents the leading power governing the syntax of sentences: the further an element is in the sentence the more prominence it carries (objective, unmarked word order)" (ibid). Nevertheless, this rule does not apply to English, where "the prominent word order principle is the grammatical principle; the sentence has to satisfy the requirements of ordering the individual sentence elements in accordance with their syntactic functions (subject, verb, object, adverbial)" (Adam,

2008: 24). Firbas (1992: 9) explains that "the development of the communication, which is reflected by the distribution of degrees of CD over the sentence elements, is not invariably signalled by sentence linearity" even though the texts he examined showed evidence "of a tendency to arrange the sentence elements in accordance with a gradual rise in CD" (ibid). Firbas (1992:10) further says that "if no other factors work counter to it, linear modification can fully assert itself, and the resultant distribution of CD has come to be referred to as basic" but "basic' does not necessarily mean 'the most natural', 'most frequent' or 'unmarked'." As Adam (2008: 24) noted, "it will be beneficial to realise that while in Czech the markedness is signalled by deviation from theme-rheme sequence, in English the marked flavour consists in the deviation from the grammatical word order."

While linear modification is positioned the lowest in the hierarchy of FSP factors, "the most powerful FSP factor is the contextual factor" (Adam, 2008: 26). The units involved are the context dependent and context-independent information: "generally speaking, given information (context-dependent) represents what the sender considers shared knowledge, something clearly known by both sender and receiver, whereas new information (context-independent) is what has not been introduced to the discourse and is not clear from the situational or verbal context" (ibid). While the contextually dependent information is semantically very weak (thematic), the contextually independent information bears a high degree of CD (thus being rhematic). What is crucial about the context factor in relation to the existential construction is Firbas's theory of retrievability and irretrievability: "it is necessary to distinguish between those [elements] conveying information retrievable, and those conveying information irretrievable, from the immediately relevant preceding context. It is undoubtedly the former that contribute less, and the latter that contribute more, to the further development of the communication. The former are less dynamic than the latter" (Firbas, 1992: 6-7). He follows by explaining that "a particular kind of retrievability is shown by the

pronominal constituents of the existential construction *il*, *y* and *there*" (Firbas, 1992: 7) which have something we can consider a "permanent retrievability from the immediately relevant situational context" (ibid). If the pronoun *there* is always retrievable and very little dynamic, it "fills" the initial position which would otherwise be occupied by the dynamically much more prominent subject due to the grammatical principal. However, with the required position of the subject being filled by *there*, the subject can be moved to the final position and thus satisfy the general tendency towards the linearity principle.

The semantics of the individual sentence elements is another factor contributing to the development of the communication and, therefore, the distribution of CD. On the hierarchy of FSP factors, the semantic factor stands between context and linear modification: "the degree of CD of an element is co-determined by its semantic character and the character of its semantic relations to other elements" (Adam, 2008: 30). As Karel Pala (1974: 199) points out, "from the point of view of a speaker or a generative device, the FSP of a given sentence depends in fact on how the arguments and their corresponding predicates are distributed and what their semantic contents are." The foundation of the sentence is the verb. Adam (2008, 30) explains that "the verb in English is usually semantically very weak, has an emptied meaning, serves as a mediator between the subject and other sentence elements." Firbas (1992: 41) noted that "it is only in the absence of certain elements that the verb completes the development of the communication within a distributional field." In other words, "there are elements that, if present, take the development of the communication further than the verb and so come closer to, or even effect, the completion of the communication. In consequence, they prove to be dynamically stronger; they carry a higher degree of CD than the verb" (ibid). Connected with the semantics of verbs and the CD of their complements are the so-called dynamic semantic scales. It is yet another term coined by Jan Firbas related closely to the current research.

2.2.1.2. Dynamic semantic scales

Based on the "function of the verb in the immediately relevant context" (Adam, 2005: 59) we can distinguish two main types of scales: presentation and quality scale. The basic principle here is that "sentences in the act of communication are perspectived either towards the subject that is being introduced into discourse, or away from the subject, towards some quality that is being attributed to the subject" (Adam, 2005: 59). When they are oriented towards the subject, we call it the presentation scale. Its main function is to introduce a new phenomenon on the scene. Sentences oriented away from the subject represent the quality scale. Unlike the presentation scale, the quality scale proceeds towards specification which is the most dynamic element of the sentence: "something new (Specification) is said about the subject (Bearer of the quality)" (Adam, 2008: 32).

Both the scales "consist of a series of units carrying different degrees of CD" (Chamonikolasová & Adam, 2005: 59). In case of the presentation scale it is the setting, the presentation of phenomenon and the phenomenon presented:

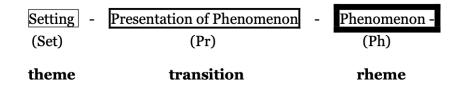


Fig2.: A scheme of the units involved in the presentation scale (Chamonikolasová & Adam, 2005: 59).

Fig3. presents the units involved in the quality scale: "scene and quality bearer rank among thematic elements, quality coincides with the transitional part of a sentence and specification is rhematic" (Drenková, 2007: 22):

Fig3.: A scheme of the units involved in the quality scale (Chamonikolasová & Adam, 2005: 59).

The presentation scale is going to be of primary concern in the present study as the existential *there*-construction is one of the most important means of presenting a new phenomenon on the scene. Besides the *there*-construction, there are three other types of sentences that present a new phenomenon on the scene – hence realizing the presentation scale: "constructions with a rhematic subject preceding a presentation verb, [...] inversion with postverbal placement of a rhematic subject triggered by an initial adverbial" and "constructions with a thematic locative subject and a phenomenon appearing on the scene construed as a rhematic object" (Rohrauer, 2013: 145) The following sentences exemplify these three types respectively:

A flame leaped into Mr. Kaplan's eyes.

Between every two letters was a star.

Every assignment contained some new and remarkable version of the English language which Mr. Kaplan had determined to master. (ibid)

It can be noticed that not all of these sentences sound perfectly natural when it comes to the distribution of CD. For instance, sentence (2) places the biggest load of CD on the initial subject, which results in a "subjective" word order. Vilém Mathesius (see 2016: 78) calls it subjective because the speaker, supposedly, rushes to express the new, i.e. rhematic, information first, only getting to the known, i.e. thematic, information afterwards. However, in order to achieve an objective ordering of the sentence elements, the speaker needs to proceed from the lowest degree of CD towards the highest one, hence placing the communicatively heavy rhematic element towards the end of the clause (so-called principle of end-focus). While

inflectional languages, such as Czech, may use the relatively free word order and rearrange the sentence elements according to the current need, analytic languages, such as English, are bound by the grammatical principle. Due to this principle, the syntactic function of a sentence element is given by its position in a sentence, which in turn prevents it from shifting the elements freely. There are, nevertheless, several means by which languages with a fixed word order can move the desired element towards the end of the clause. One of these constructions is the *there*-construction in which "the English grammatical principle requiring the SVO wording is [...] overridden by the linear modification FSP factor" (Adam, 2012: 5).

2.3. Alternation with *have*-construction

It has been explained that the *there*-construction is one of the means of realising the presentation scale (along with several other constructions presented in the previous section). There is, however, yet another option, and that is what Brůhová and Malá (2019: 162) call "presentative constructions with *have*." They suggested that "*have*-presentative constructions should be regarded as one of the realization forms of the Presentation Scale" because "the presentational function of the construction can be manifested by the alternative expression of the same content using an existential *there*-construction" (Brůhová & Malá, 2019: 163). Indeed, these two constructions are under certain circumstances synonymous and can substitute for one another. This was also suggested by Adam (2013), who claims that *have* "can definitely be interpreted as indicating the existence/appearance of a phenomenon on the scene" and it is "stripped of its possessive meaning here and is actually semantically emptied in this sense. Thus, the rhematic element which would normally be realised as the subject standing in the initial position is removed from the beginning of the sentence, which is then occupied by an element that is thematic" (Adam, 2013: 149). The close relationship of the *have*- and *there*-

construction is illustrated by these alternating sentences: *The manor now has a museum of cultural history in it.* ~ *There is a museum of cultural history in the manor.*

Unlike the *there*-construction, the *have*-construction still reflects troubles with the subject. While *there* is semantically completely empty, the subject of *have*-construction is formed by a regular noun phrase. This gave rise to differences in interpretation. In Adam's view (2013: 149), "the point is that the possessive meaning of *have* must be weakened to allow for a presentational interpretation; otherwise such subjects (especially those with personal, not locative, agents) would clearly denote a specification and thus implement the Quality Scale." His interpretation, therefore, suggests that inanimate subjects, generally mainly playing the role of locatives, would allow for *have* to be stripped of its possessive meaning and thus represent the presentation scale. Animate subjects, on the other hand, would not weaken the verb semantically and thus would represent the quality scale. The study of Brůhová and Malá claims otherwise (2019: 175): "have- presentation sentences can have an animate human subject, with generic [...] or non-generic reference." This was proved by the fact that all of the examined sentences were substitutable by the existential *there*-construction.

2.4. Semantic classification of *there*-constructions

As Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1392) point out, "The general term 'existential' derives from the fact that one use of this construction is to express propositions concerning existence," however, "existential clauses do not always express existential propositions." There are several ways in which the existential *there*-constructions have been classified. Dušková et al. (2006: 353ff) distinguish four main types: existential, existential-locative, action and modal.

a) The **existential** type corresponds to what Quirk et al. (1985: 1406) refer to as bare-existential sentences, e.g. *There is no exception* (Dušková et al., 2006: 353). According to Dušková et al. (ibid), "be is in these sentences sometimes considered a lexical verb

rather than a copula and the form without *there* is not possible. [...] *There* has no formal equivalent in Czech." An adverbial can occur in this construction as well, however, it is only facultative, cf.: *There was no sign of life in the house/ in the house there was no sign of life* (see Dušková et al., 2006: 354). The construction with the facultative adverbial (mostly a locative one) is very similar to the following type – existential locative. Nevertheless, some of the differences are that the purely existential type does not allow for this construction to appear without *there* even with the adverbial in the initial position and, unlike the existential-locative type, it cannot be transformed into the locative type (see ibid).

- b) The **existential-locative** type, to the contrary, requires an obligatory adverbial, as can be seen in the following example: *There is a girl in the waiting room* (ibid). Here the construction "expresses an existence of something in a particular location or time" (Dušková et al., 2006: 354). Dušková et al. (ibid) note that this type "contrasts with the locative type which only expresses a location (*The girl is in the waiting room*)" and "in Czech, the existential-locative and locative types only differ in word order which in this case is a constitutive syntactical component."
- c) The **action** type presents that fact that something happened, with a focus on the action as such. It is exemplified by the following sentences: *There was a click in the lock/ Or there was tree-climbing, roof-climbing, story-telling* (Dušková et al., 2006: 354-355). They show that "its action character lies in the action character of the noun that functions as a notional subject. [...] Its Czech counterpart is a verbless clause without subject.

In Dušková et al.'s classification, this category also includes sentences expressing weather conditions, *There was a flash of lightning* (ibid), or any action that introduces a new phenomenon: *There was a crash* (ibid). They, furthermore, note that

we can also include the perception type into this category, whose notional subject expresses a sensory perception: *There was the sound of footsteps* (ibid).

d) The last type of Dušková et al.'s classification is the **modal** type. This type most frequently occurs with a "subject in the form of gerund or in a negative sentence with infinitive construction" (ibid): *There is no knowing what she may do/ There is nothing to fear* (ibid).

Quirk et al.'s classification is not as specific as the one presented by Dušková et al. What he speaks of as "bare existential sentences" roughly corresponds to Dušková et al.'s existential type. In Quirk et al.'s approach to *there*-constructions, there is a special type, existential sentences with relative and infinitive clauses, which according to him is an "additional type of existential sentence which consists of *there* + *be* + noun phrase + relative clause" (Quirk et al., 1985: 1406ff), such as: *There's something (that) keeps upsetting him* (ibid).

Huddleston and Pullum (2002) distinguish bare existentials and extended existentials, the extended ones are then subclassified into locative and temporal extensions, predicative extensions, infinitival extensions, participial extensions and relative clause extensions (see Huddleston & Pullum, 2002: 1393-1396). Their distinction is based on syntax rather than semantics, but it overlaps, in certain points, with Dušková et al.'s classification – mainly in case of adjuncts. Both Huddleston and Pullum and Dušková et al. agree on distinguishing between obligatory and optional adjuncts. However, where these locative and temporal adverbials are obligatory, Huddleston and Pullum talk about extended existentials. Their classification relies on the concept of "non-existential counterparts" (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002: 1393) – where the *there*-construction can be interpreted by this underlying construction, it is interpreted as an

extended existential. If, however, the non-existential counterpart is missing, it represents the bare existential, which corresponds to what Dušková et al. call the existential type.

The main difference between the mentioned classifications is that, while Dušková et al. mainly focus on the semantics of the sentences, both Quirk et al. and Huddleston and Pullum describe the types based on their syntactic structure. A compromise was found in the work of Rambousek and Chamonikolasová (2008) who presented the following table of semantic types supplemented by their syntactic structure:

Existential sentence type	Semantic structure	Syntactic structure
Existential	Existence	there + be + NP (+ Adv)
Existential-locative	Existence in a location	there + be + NP + Adv Adv + there + be + NP there + be + Adv + NP
Action/perception	Existence of action or perception	there + be + NP
Modal	Existence of possibility or necessity	there + be + NP

Fig4.: Semantic types of *there*-constructions presented by Rambousek and Chamonikolasová (Rambousek & Chamonikolasová, 2008: 135).

Another modification of Dušková et al.'s semantic classification can be found in Rubešová's BA thesis (2007). She decided to further subclassify the existential sentences into those that do not have any extension and those that contain an optional adverbial element (see Rubešová, 2007: 60). The latter was distinguished from the existential-locative type, the criterion consisted in "in paraphrasing the sentence without *there*. If it is possible to leave there out, and transform the construction into a purely locative one, we can classify the sentence as Exist-loc with an obligatory Adv" (Rubešová, 2007: 61). The classification of the actional type was based on the semantics of the notional subject: "this type may be roughly divided in the

following subgroups: happenings and events (e.g. *drowning*), perceptions (e.g. *smell*) and acoustic/visual effects of coming into view/hearing (e.g. *flash*, *crash*)" (ibid). Unlike Dušková et al., however, Rubešová decided to slightly change the approach to the modal type. In her classification it included not only sentences in which the modality was given by context (as in Dušková et al.'s classification) but also sentences "where the modal verb is actually present in the clause. [...] Concerning the first group, the criterion for classification was paraphrasing the sentence with the corresponding modal verb, i.e. actually using the modal verb implied by the context or, as in the following example, by the notional S" (Rubešová, 2007: 62). She also added one more type, which she called formal, and it comprised of "sentences where *there* is combined with other verbs than *be*, which renders it a mere formal means of achieving rhematic position of the notional S" and where "*there* is used idiomatically" (Rubešová, 2007: 63).

For the purpose of this thesis, semantic classification proposed by Dušková et al. (2006) is going to be followed. Nevertheless, these semantic types will also by subclassified based on syntax, and for this division, the syntactic classification provided by Huddleston and Pullum as well as the one given in Dubec's thesis (2007, see section 2.1.3.2.) will serve as an inspiration.

2.5. Czech translations

The main difference between English and Czech is the degree to which they follow individual FSP factors. While English must mainly respect the grammatical principle, in Czech there is no problem shifting the rhematic element towards the end of the clause, thus presenting the rhematic element after the thematic one. Therefore, Czech does not possess any construction similar to the existential one. It is thus logical that Czech translators will have to use other means when required to translate the existential *there*-construction into Czech. The problematics of translating this construction has already been considered, among others, in Rambousek and Chamonikolasová's study (2008). They were analysing 4000 examples of the

English *there*-construction, taken from four specific books, focusing on their translations into Czech. According to their results (2008: 141), "in the Czech translations, the existential character of the original sentence was preserved in only 63% of cases, while 27% of English *there*-constructions were translated using non-existential sentences. The remaining 10% of Czech translations contain the verb mít ('to have'), which represents a transitional type of construction."

Considering the verbs themselves, even though the most frequent verb in the English sentences was the verb be, Czech displayed not only the verb $b\acute{y}t$, but also many other Czech verbs: "a number of Czech translations preserving the existential meaning contain intransitive verbs like nastat ('to occur') and dojit k ('to come to something')" (Rambousek & Chamonikolasová, 2008: 138). Even though there were some instances of non-existential translations, most of the Czech verbs were "usually intransitive with presentational meaning, that is, their function is to introduce a new element into the discourse" (ibid). This study also confirmed what has been suggested about the semantic load of the verbs: "Czech translators tend to use verbs carrying a higher semantic load than the verb to be" (Rambousek & Chamonikolasová, 2008: 141).

Another work focusing on the Czech translation counterparts of the existential construction was the aforementioned BA thesis of Michaela Rubešová (2007). She analysed 100 clauses from two English books and their Czech translations, focusing both on the syntactic and semantic character of the *there*-constructions and their Czech equivalents. Her results showed that the use of word order in Czech is indeed a very powerful means of translating existential sentences: "The majority of English notional subjects correspond syntactically to the subject in end position in the Czech sentence. In Czech the word order is employed as a means of signalling the rhematic FSP function of the subject, while in English this is achieved using the *there* construction and the semantic structure" (Rubešová, 2007: 45). In Czech, the head

was also rather frequently expressed by an object in the postverbal position (see ibid). As far as the verb is concerned, her analysis also covered examples with other verbs than *be*, even though they were not very frequent. The results correspond to the expectations about the current research: "In forty-six *there* sentences the choice of the Czech counterpart of the predicate verb is not influenced by any English clause element other than the verb. These Czech verbs comprise *být* (lexical verb), *být* (copula), *existovat*, *jít o*, *mít*" (Rubešová, 2007: 50). If the choice of the Czech verb was not influenced by the English one, it depended on other sentence elements: either "the Czech predicate is a transposed English clause element other than the verb" or "the choice of the English verb counterpart is collocationally conditioned by another English clause element (typically the notional subject) without being a direct translation of any part of the English sentence" (ibid).

It was mentioned in section 2.3. that *there*-constructions, to a certain extent, alternate with the presentative constructions with *have*. As was suggested by Rambousek and Chamonikolasová in their research (2008), this alternation, to a certain degree, played a role in the way translators approached the existential *there*-constructions in their English-Czech translations. The Czech translators used the Czech equivalent of the verb *have* – *mit* – in 10% of cases. In Poláková's study (2019), focusing on the existential *have*-construction, "the translations of English have-presentative sentences show a great tendency towards being translated by employing its Czech literal counterpart, i.e. the verb *mit*. More than half of the analysed *have*-presentatives have been translated by the corresponding Czech sentences with *mit*" (Polláková, 2019: 55). What is interesting, even though in Rabousek and Chamonikolasová's study the Czech translators used the Czech verb *mit* in 10% of analysed sentences, it apparently does not work the other way around. When Polláková focused on the Czech translations of the existential *have*-construction, she found that "in the Czech

corresponding sentences translations by *být* or *existovat* are rather marginal," only representing 6,5% of translation counterparts (Polláková, 2019: 63).

3. Material and method

3.1. Material

The aim of this thesis is to analyse 200 original English sentences with the existential *there*-construction along with their Czech translation counterparts. In the analysis, we are looking for regularities in the syntactic structure of the English construction and how the structures are related to the semantic character of the sentence. At the same time, we are trying to investigate regularities in the translations of these existential constructions.

The research is based on InterCorp v11, the parallel synchronic corpus created by the Czech National Corpus - the largest universal databank of the Czech language. In order to find a representative sample in the corpora, a specific query was designed:

It should be noted that InterCorp does include a specific tag searching for "existential there" only. However, a brief control of the results showed that there was a considerable error rate and not only the "existential *there*-constructions" were included in the results. This might have been caused by the tags being created automatically, which resulted in the borderline cases sometimes being incorrectly tagged and classified. Therefore, we decided to create a more specific query and try to avoid possible mistakes. This query states that the existential construction can start with a capital as well as a lowercase letter (thereby including constructions placed both at the beginning of a sentence and anywhere within the sentence). The first word of the construction must be the pronoun "there" followed by any word except for those that cannot, by nature, occur in the middle of *there*-constructions (such as nouns, conjunctions or lexical verbs). These are represented by the abbreviations in the second pair of

square brackets. Those that are not included in the sequence can occur in the position after the existential "there" (such as modal verbs or adverbs). This part can contain zero to three words and it also must not include any form of the verb "be" as that is to follow afterwards. There also cannot be any punctuation in order to avoid, for instance, the tag questions. The whole construction must occur within one sentence.

The query, however, only searched for declarative sentences and, unfortunately, it was not possible to create a combined query that would search for both the declarative and interrogative sentences. The only option was to create two separate queries (in order for them to cover also all tenses and all possibilities of e.g. modal verbs etc.) and search separately ten indicative and ten interrogative sentences. This would, however, influence the effort for the examples to be chosen randomly, and therefore, this thesis will only work with the declarative sentences.

Since the sentences were searched via the parallel synchronic corpus InterCorp, it was possible to only use literature included in the corpus. The shortlist of books considerable for the research thus followed several criteria:

We decided to work with five English books from the fiction genre translated into Czech, written and/or translated in the 21st century (i.e. after the year 2000). Each of these books had to be written by a different author and translated by a different translator in order to avoid a misinterpretation of the results due to an idiolect of a particular author/translator. After narrowing down the possibilities provided by InterCorp to those that satisfied the criteria, we selected books with the highest absolute frequency (i.e. how many times the construction occurs in the particular text) and relative frequency (ipm – "instances per million" – i.e. how many times the construction occurs per million words) of the *there*-construction. Table 1 provides the final list of the books selected for the analysis:

Title Eng/Cz	Author	Published	Translated	Translator	Absolute frequency	ipm
Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/ Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell	Susanna Clarke	2004	2007	Viktor Janiš	880	2430.26
The Thief of Time/Zloděj času	Terry Pratchett	2001	2002	Jan Kantůrek	552	4233.88
The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih	Markus Zusak	2005	2009	Vít Penkala	445	3022.91
Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě	Kazuo Ishiguro	2005	2007	Gisela Kubrichtová	383	3272.27
The Cleft/Puklina	Doris Lessing	2007	2008	Petr Pálenský	319	4180.43
Total					2579	17 139,75

Table 1: List of original English books translated into Czech found in the InterCorp databank and used for the analysis of the existential there-constructions. The absolute frequency marks the total number of there-constructions in the particular text, ipm (instances per million) marks relative frequency, i.e. how many there-constructions occur in the particular texts per million words.

For the analysis to be as objective as possible, the results were shuffled, using a special "Shuffle" function in the corpus, so that the chosen examples came from different parts of the books. From this shuffled list, the first 40 examples from each book were taken for the analysis, which left us with 200 examples in total.

3.2. Method

The analysed sentences were divided into four main semantic types: existential sentences, existential-locative sentences, action sentences and modal sentences. Based on previous research (e.g. Rubešová, 2007), a subtype of existential sentences with adverbials was included under the first category of existential sentences. A considerably frequent occurrence of a specific construction that consisted of a participle postmodification with adverbial of place led us to include a specific subtype under the existential-locative type (this construction is going

to be discussed in detail in section 4.2.2). The classification criteria for each of these types are presented in the corresponding subsections of the Analysis section.

Another observed phenomenon was the ratio of affirmative and negative sentences, and the discussion of their occurrence is thus discussed in each subsection.

The complexity of the notional subject was also an important part of the analysis. Following Dubec's thesis (2007), we also categorized the notional subjects as notional subjects with simple NP, complex NP and compound NP. Although the current syntactic analysis is not as detailed as the one presented by Dubec, the main criteria laid in his paper (and presented in section 2.1.3.2.) were followed. The simple NP category only included notional subject consisting of a noun and a determiner. During the classification, we came across a problem concerning quantifiers as they were on the borderline between determiners and modifiers. It was, therefore, decided that quantifiers would be counted into the complex NP category, based on Dubec's reasoning (Dubec, 2007: 22): "It must be pointed out here that the noun phrases that contain a quantifier are marked as complex and are included in the same chapter as modification. Although quantifiers are often referred to as predeterminers or postdeterminers, here they are treated differently. From the semantic point of view, besides the determinative function, quantifiers (and numerals) carry an additional meaning of quantity (among other meanings, like negative, universal, etc). Therefore they can semantically be placed somewhere between determiners and modifiers." A slightly different approach had to be taken in case of the negative determiner no. Due to the fact that "English has two negative particles, no and not" (Dušková, 2006: 337) and no very frequently expresses the negation along with an affirmative verb (instead of negating the verb itself), those notional subjects that consisted of a noun and a negative determiner no were included to the simple NP category. The complex NP category covers instances of notional subjects in which the head is pre- or postmodified or both. The

compound NP category included notional subjects that consisted of two or more coordinated head nouns (either simple NPs or further modified).

The analysis of the Czech translation counterparts focused on the Czech verbs. Even though all the English constructions contained the verbs be, the Czech sentences displayed a great variety of lexical verbs. This discovery is in compliance with the work of Rambousek et al. (2008: 149): "The range of verbs that appear in the Czech translations is much wider. There are verbs that could be called 'presentational verbs proper', for example, existovat ('exist'), nastat ('occur'), konat se ('take place'), objevit se ('appear'), stát ('stand'), viset ('hang'), ležet ('lie'), nacházet se ('be found'), zůstat ('stay'), zbýt ('remain') and many others. In addition, there are intransitive presentational verbs whose use is motivated by the meaning of the notional subject of the original English sentence or its post-modification, for example: there was no grass > nerostla tam tráva." They add (ibid) that "the number of verbs that can appear in translations of there-constructions is almost unlimited." It was, therefore, impossible to find any pattern in the verbs. Nevertheless, we created several categories of Czech verbs depending on their semantic properties. This division was consulted with theoretical works, namely Karlík et al.'s Příruční mluvnice češtiny (1995; 377-283 for the semantic division and 396-409 for the syntactic classification), Rambousek and Chamonikolasová's study (2008), Barbora Genserová's bachelor thesis (2019) and Eva Benešová's chapter on the Czech modal verbs (1973), and it was also partially intuitive, based on the meaning of the Czech verbs. The resulting categories are: be, have, verbs of existence, verbs of appearance, verbs derived from the head, verbs derived from modification, modal verbs, and other solutions. It should be explained here that the numbers of Czech verbs do not correspond to the number of English existential sentences. This is mainly due to the fact that some of the translators made use of the compound notional subjects and translated each head with a different verb, thus one English existential clause could be translated by as many as, e.g., seven Czech verbs. Another reason is that some of the translators (even though this phenomenon did not occur often) decided to use a different strategy and translate the existential sentence with a non-verbal Czech counterpart.

The be category consists of the Czech equivalent, být. However, unlike English, where the construction is syntactically fixed, the Czech verb can occur in various functions. It can be lexical, this is what Karlík refers (1995: 397) to as "přísudek slovesný" (lexical predicate), i.e., the verb expresses the existence of a certain phenomenon (mainly by subject). The verb být can also be "incomplete" and the meaning is then carried by its complement. This is, therefore, referred to as copular predicate, which corresponds to what Karlík marks as "přísudek slovesně-jmenný". It must be noted here that the situation in Czech is more complex than it is in English and there is not a complete agreement on this among the Czech linguists. After consultations with several specialists, it was decided to mainly follow Karlík's classification (1995: 409) which, for instance, recognizes numerical expressions in sentences such as Chlapců bylo pět as predicate numeral (including nouns expressing quantity, such as "málo", "mnoho", etc.). He also includes predicates consisting of be and infinitive, such as Ten rámus je slyšet už zdaleka (ibid). For this reason, we also decided to include unclear cases, such as je třeba, je potřeba, which are syntactically and semantically very similar to the be + infinitive predicates.

The criteria for the categories of *verbs of existence* and *verbs of appearance* were the following: the verbs had to express the existence or appearance, respectively, and, at the same time, the English sentence cannot have included its English counterpart. That means that the translator was given no clue as to how the sentence should be translated, other than the existential or presentational character of the whole construction. The categories, therefore, include verbs such as "stát" (*stand*), "vznášet se" (*hover*), "panovat" (expressing the overall presence of some element, mainly an abstract entity such as atmosphere, silence, etc.).

The categories of *verbs derived from the head* and *verbs derived from modification* consist of Czech verbs whose English counterparts are present in the notional subjects of the original sentences, particularly in their heads or modifications. The words from which its Czech translation counterparts were derived were not limited by any syntactic criteria (i.e. they may have occurred as a verb as well as a noun etc.). The main idea behind these criteria is that the translator was directly instigated to use a particular Czech word.

Verbs that could not be added to any of the mentioned categories are to be found in the category of *other solutions*. These Czech verbs are not indicated by their English counterparts but, at the same time, they cannot be classified as verbs of existence or appearance or they are considered very borderline cases. These are verbs such as "uběhnout" (*pass*), "platit" (*hold*) etc.

The *no-verb* category constitutes of translations which employ a completely different strategy and do not use any verb.

4. Analysis

4.1. Existential type

The sentences of this type formed the majority of the analysed sample, they occurred 108 times in total (54% of the whole sample). While 87 of these, i.e. 80,5% of the existential category, were categorized as "bare existentials," the remaining 21 sentences, 19,5%, were classified as an existential-with-adverbial subtype:

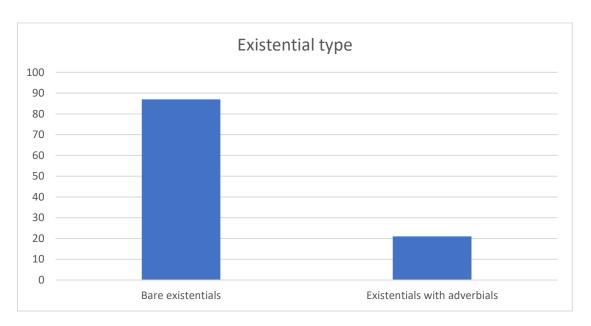


Fig5.: A graphic representation of the bare-existentials and existentials-with-adverbials ratio.

4.1.1. Bare existentials

For the clause to be classified as a bare existential, the sentence had to present a certain phenomenon, thus indicating its existence. These sentences cannot indicate any type of modality or action/process (for these were expressed by the modal and action type, respectively) and they could not include adverbial of place or time either. Adverbials of manner, focalizers and other adverbials may have occurred but they were not taken into account in the analysis. The sentences were very diverse in their meaning. For instance, the *there*-constructions were

rather frequently used for denoting the quantity of the presented entity. What was interesting, they prevailingly expressed a non-specific quantity, implying that the number of the phenomena was high. Consider the following examples:

- (1) There were <u>plenty of empty caves</u>, their possible inhabitants were over the mountain in the valley.
- (2) There were dozens of them.
- (3) Lobsang ran after Lu-Tze, and saw there were <u>hundreds no</u>, <u>thousands of the cylinders</u>, some of them reaching all the way to the cavern roof.

There were also three instances of an emphatic use of the construction, which resulted in a different word order:

- (4) Rodney's doing a little dance to demonstrate what a good feeling there is.
- (5) <u>Rage there was</u>, but it was misreported, misunderstood, as a single defining confrontation.
- (6) 'Now there was a lady with style,' said Chaos.

Example (4) presents an exclamative sentence, whose underlying construction would be "...to demonstrate that there is a good feeling," however, the emphatic use resulted in the notional subject preceding the empty subject *there*. Sentence (5) presents an example of fronting, the corresponding clause is "there was rage" but for the purpose of semantic colouring, the notional subject again precedes the subject *there*. Sentence (6) keeps the standard word order, nevertheless, it does not in fact introduce a lady who has a style, the notional subject refers to a specific person, emphasizing the fact that she was stylish via *there*-construction.

The analysis has shown that simple presentation of a phenomenon was very rare and the *there*-construction is rather used for presenting an entity which is then further described by

various types of modification. In example (7) from our sample, this postmodification is realized by a subordinate relative clause, compare it with example (8):

- (7) There weren't many people Lu-Tze respected.
- (8) There is death.

In comparison with example (8), in which the sentence employs what can be imagined as the 'pure' presentation scale, it is apparent, that example (7) provides much more information and is, therefore, more capable of standing on its own. Sentence (8), on the other hand, relies on the context more heavily for any further specification. This is going to be discussed further in section 4.1.3., which discusses the structure of the notional subjects.

4.1.2. Existentials with adverbials

The existential-with-adverbial subtype covered those clauses that included either an adverbial of place or time or, in a few cases, both of these, thus presenting the particular phenomenon in a specific spatial or temporal location. As explained in section 2.4, however, this adverbial is (unlike in the existential-locative type) optional. The main criterion for distinguishing this subtype from the existential-locative sentences was that, unlike existential-locatives, existentials with adverbials must not allow any locative re-interpretation, i.e. the sentence could not be transformed into an underlying locative sentence. Compare the following examples:

- (9) ...and while there was some kind of order in it...
 - → *...and while some kind of order was in it.../...and while in it was some kind of order...
- (10) There was, of course, nothing there.
 - → Nothing was there.

While it is not possible to paraphrase (9) by a non-existential construction (hence its classification as an existential with adverbial), it is acceptable in (10) (therefore, (10) is classified as existential-locative):

This, sometimes, caused problems with the classification because the existential sentences with adverbials are, on the one hand, clearly expressing an existence of a certain phenomenon in a particular location (which is, by definition, typical for the existential-locatives), but it is, on the other hand, not possible to rephrase them by locative sentences (thus presenting a semantic-syntactic clash). Example (11) employs a spatial adverbial, example (12) a temporal one:

- (11) Following Madame's example, I listened too, but <u>there was only</u> silence in the house.
 - \rightarrow *...only silence was in the house./...in the house was only silence.
- (12) Oh yes, there was a lot of support for our movement back then, the tide was with us.
 - → *...a lot of support for our movement was back then.../...back then was a lot of support for our movement...

Even though examples (11) and (12) present relatively clear cases, there were sentences lying on the very borderline between the existential-with-adverbial subtype and the existential-locative type. Consider the following example:

- (13) There was a peculiar look of contentment on Rudy's face.
 - → *A peculiar look of contentment was on Rudy's face/?On Rudy's face was a peculiar look of contentment.

In cases such as (13), the rephrasing is, to a certain degree, questionable. When we encountered a sentence of this kind, we looked for a construction similar to the possible underlying locative sentence in the corpora (in e.g. example (13), the construction we searched for was A "noun" was on somebody's face/On somebody's face was a "noun"). If the corpus found a considerable

number of examples containing such construction, we classified the *there*-sentence as the existential-locative type. If, however, the construction was apparently not used, we classified it as an existential with adverbial. The semantics of the notional subjects suggests that the possibility to rephrase the sentences relies, to a certain degree, on the distinction between abstract and physical entities, discussed in section 2.1.3.2. Even though it cannot be taken as a rule, abstract nouns, with no doubt, tend to appear in *there*-constructions even when being presented in a specific spatial or temporal location. The physical entities can, on the other hand, more freely combine with both *there*- and locative constructions. This tendency is visible in the examples given in (11), (12) and (13), with all the head nouns being abstract: *silence*, *room* (denoting in this case an abstract notion of space) and *look*.

The sample provided 21 sentences of the existential-with-adverbial subtype. When compared to the existential-locative category (section 4.2.), and especially the formally similar existential-locative subcategory (section 4.2.1), the existential sentences with an optional adverbial are slightly less used than those with an obligatory adverbial. While the existential-with-adverbial subtype forms 10,5% of the whole sample, the existential-locative type was found in 22% and the more syntactically and semantically similar subtype of existential-locatives forms 16% of the whole sample.

Concerning the semantics of the adverbials occurring in this subtype, the spatial adverbials prevailed (fifteen sentences, 71,4%), the temporal adverbials only occurred in five sentences (23,8%) and there was also one case of both adverbials of time and place used in one sentence (4,8%). The following sentences exemplify these three phenomena respectively:

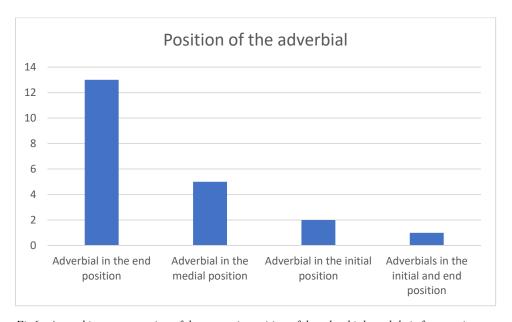
- (14) Yes, there was too much of the theoretical <u>here</u> even for Horsa...
- (15) There were a few weeks before he started painting.

(16) <u>Somewhere at the start of November</u>, there were some progress tests <u>at school</u>.

As for the position of the adverbial, our findings confirm the results of the previous studies (e.g. Rubešová, 2007: 57), i.e. that the adverbial most frequently occurred in the end position (13 sentences, 61,9%). Five sentences contained the adverbial in the medial position (23,8%) and only two sentences presented the adjunct initially (9,5%). The sentence showed in example (16) was the only one that contained the adverbials in both the initial and end position (4,8%). The following examples present the end, medial and initial adverbials respectively:

- (17) There was great dread in that vision.
- (18) But there are one or two things in Goubert's Gatekeeper of Apollo which look promising.
- (19) Earlier, there had been a parade.

The following chart (Fig6.) provides a graphic overview of the syntactic positions of the adverbials and can be compared with Fig8., which reflects the same phenomenon among the existential-locative sentences.



 $Fig 6.: A \ graphic \ representation \ of \ the \ syntactic \ position \ of \ the \ adverbials \ and \ their \ frequencies.$

4.1.3. Notional subject

The construction was only marginally used for presenting a simple unmodified phenomenon, which is confirmed by the results seen in Table 2:

Subtypes	Simple NP	Complex NP	Compound NP	Total
Bare existentials	13	65	9	87
Existentials with adverbials	2	18	1	21
Total	15	83	10	108
Percentage	13,9%	76,9%	9,2%	100%

Table 2: Syntactic properties of the notional subject in the bare existentials and existentials with adverbials.

The simple NP only occurred 13 times within bare existentials and 2 times in existentials with adverbials. A heavy modification was much more common, i.e. adding some information directly to the notional subject, thus forming a complex NP. This type of notional subject occurred in 65 bare existential sentences, and eighteen times in the existential sentences with adverbials. Compound NP only occurred ten times and was thus the least common.

One of the most frequent phenomena in this area was a head noun accompanied by both a pre- and postmodification. Consider examples (20) and (21), representing the bare existential and existential-with-adverbial categories respectively:

- (20) As Hans soon discovered, there was also <u>an alternative definition for the acronym</u>.
- (21) There is a very fine piece of moss-oak hereabouts.

In sentence (20), the head noun *definition* is premodified by the adjective *alternative* and at the same time postmodified by the prepositional phrase (PP) *for the acronym*. The head noun *piece* in sentence (21) is premodified by the adjective *fine* which is in turn intensified by the adverb *very*, and it is also postmodified by the PP *of moss-oak*. The PP was found very frequently. By far the most common was the *-of* PP, but there were also instances of *for*, *but*, *like* and others. The premodification was most frequently expressed by an adjective or a quantifier. There were also quite a few instances of multiple postmodification, as in example 22:

(22) There was one Ruth who was always trying to impress the veterans, who wouldn't hesitate to ignore me, Tommy, any of the others, if she thought we'd cramp her style.

The head noun *Ruth* is postmodified by two subordinate relative clauses, *who was always trying* to impress the veterans and who wouldn't hesitate to... and the second subordinate clause is further modified by a conditional adverbial clause. Such a heavy modification was not at all exceptional, in which our results agree with Dubec's thesis (2007).

The compound notional subject was the least frequent one, the structure was very diverse. In example (23), for instance, there are two head nouns, *moment* and *grasp*, the first head noun is premodified by the adjective *fretful* and postmodified by a PP *of unfamiliarity*, the second head noun has no premodification but is postmodified by another PP *for recollection* (thus both of the NPs are complex):

(23) There was the fretful moment of unfamiliarity and the grasp for recollection – to decode exactly where and when he was currently sitting

4.1.4. Negative and affirmative sentences

Even though most of the existential sentences (81 sentences \sim 75%) were affirmative, the ratio of the negative clauses was surprisingly high, namely 27 sentences, which corresponds to 25% (thus a whole quarter of the existential type). The layout across the two subtypes was

not surprising, the majority of the negative sentences occurred within the bare-existential subtype (23 out of 87 sentences) while only 4 out of 21 existential sentences with adverbials were negative (see Fig7.). This is apparently given by the fact that when the authors place an element to a specific spatial of temporal location, it is more logical to express its existence rather than non-existence. The bare existentials with no particular location can, on the other hand, more readily express that something does not exist.

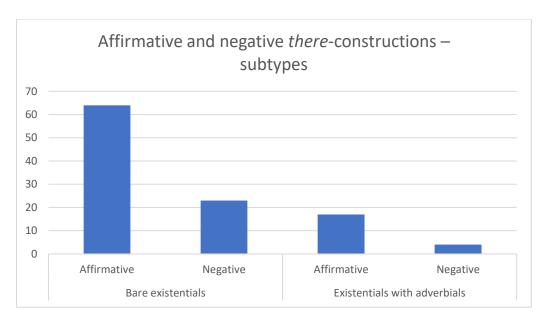


Fig7.: A graphic representation of the affirmative and negative sentences of the bare-existential and existential-with-adverbial subtypes.

The syntactic realization of the negative notional subject was very versatile. 11 notional subjects were negated by a negative determiner *no*:

(24) Ages is a word to be distrusted: it means there is no real knowledge.

Nine sentences contained a negative quantifier functioning as a proform, such as *no one*, *nothing*, etc., which constituted the head of the subject:

(25) Of course there was no one.

One sentence with a compound NP combined these two:

(26) It was hard to remember, because... there was <u>nothing</u>, no colour, no sound, no pressure, no time, no spin, no light, no life...

In four cases, the verb was negated instead of the notional subject:

(27) Old rotting trunks in unhealthy water—and so it was that there was not enough of the desirable forest for everyone.

The last type of negation that we traced was in the form of a negative adverb:

(28) Perhaps there would <u>never</u> be a precise answer as to when and where it occurred.

4.1.5. Czech translation counterparts

The existential type was most widely translated by the verb $b\acute{y}t$, it was used in 47 cases (40,9%), 38 of these were in the bare-existential subtype, nine were found in the existential-with-adverbial subtype. Cf.:

- (29) 'There was no yesterday.'
- ~ "Žádné včera nebylo."
- (30) There was great dread in that vision, especially the moment when he was forced to remove his hands.
- \sim V tom vidění <u>byla</u> i veliká hrůza, zvlášť v té chvíli, kdy ho donutili, aby spustil ruce.

The ratio of lexical and copular predicates was similar in both subtypes, 21 lexical predicates to seventeen copular predicates in the bare-existential subtype, and five lexical predicates to four copular predicates in the subcategory of existentials with adverbials. Example (29) and (30) both present the lexical predicate, examples (31) and (32) include the copular predicates:

- (31) There would be no logic to it!
- ~ To by bylo maximálně nelogické!
- (32) There are certainly too many people in London, but it seems a great deal of work to make them leave one at a time.
- ~ V Londýně je sice <u>lidí příliš</u>, připadá mi ale velmi pracné nutit je k odchodu po jednom.

The second most frequent strategy was to derive the Czech verb from the English modification of the head (13,9%). Interestingly enough, it was only used this much in the bare-existential subcategory, where it was encountered fifteen times, the existentials with adverbials only contained one translation of this type:

- (33) There was nothing <u>left</u> to give.
- ~ Nic z něj už nezbylo.
- (34) But there are one or two things in Goubert's Gatekeeper of Apollo which <u>look</u> promising.
- ~ Ale jedna dvě pasáže v Goubertově Apollónově strážci <u>vypadají</u> nadějně.

Verbs of existence were encountered thirteen times in total (11,3%), eleven of these were in the existential category. Almost half of these existential sentences (five) employed the word "existovat" (*exist*, see ex. 35), the rest was very versatile, such as "zbývat" (*be left*), provázet (*accompany*), etc. (cf. ex. 36):

- (35) He could remember the time when there was only him.
- ~ Pamatoval si dobu, kdy <u>existoval</u> jen on.
- (36) There is nothing but the taste.
- ~ Nezbude nic, jen chuť.

In the case of existentials with adverbials, this strategy was not widely preferred, it was only used twice:

- (37) Somewhere at the start of November, there were some progress tests at school.
- ~ Někdy na začátku listopadu <u>se</u> ve škole <u>konaly</u> jakési postupové testy.

The results were very similar for the category of verbs of appearance (10,4%). Even though the total number of encounters in the existential type was twelve, eleven of these verbs

were found within the bare-existential category and only one in the existential-with-adverbial category:

- (38) 'And if there are more raids, keep reading in the shelter' ~ "A jestli <u>přijdou</u> další nálety, čti ve sklepě dál."
- (39) There are remarks in the females' records that the boys were clumsy...
- ~ V ženských záznamech <u>se objevují</u> zmínky o tom, že chlapci byli nedbalí...

The Czech verb "přijít" occurred four times, nevertheless, it was prevailingly used by the same translator. Other instances of verbs of appearance included verbs such as "objevit se" (appear/emerge), "zavládnout" (set in), "stát se" (happen) etc.

There were also seven instances of "mít" (6,1%), four in the bare-existential subcategory and three in the subcategory of existentials with adverbials. Cf.:

- (40) Really there is no one but Lord Wellington.
- ~ Kromě lorda Wellingtona tu nikoho takového nemáme.
- (41) There was a peculiar look of contentment on Rudy's face.
- ~ Rudy měl v tváři jakési zvláštní uspokojení.

The remaining categories were only very marginal. Verbs derived from notional subjects occurred three times (2,6%), and all these were encountered in the bare-existential subcategory:

- (42) There is mention of mourning for this child...
- ~ Záznamy se zmiňují o žalu nad úmrtím tohoto dítěte...

A Czech modal verb was only found one time in the bare-existential subcategory and one time in the existential-with-adverbial subcategory, two times in total (1,7%). Other solutions containted verbs such as "narodit se" (*be born*), "zmocnit se" (*overcome*),

"připadnout" (fall upon), etc., they occurred in 8,7% of cases and these verbs were mainly influenced by the Czech connotations of the subject:

- (43) But there was definitely an understanding that you didn't mention these trips out in the open.
- ~ Ale každopádně <u>platila taková nepsaná dohoda</u>, že na veřejnosti se o těchhle cestách otevřeně nemluví.

Four translations used no verb at all (3,5%), all were encountered within the bare-existential subcategory:

- (44) There was nothing but a knowing smile and a slow walk that lolled him home.
- ~ Nic než vědoucí úsměv a pomalá chůze, která ho klátivě donesla domů.

It has been mentioned that the compound notional subjects sometimes influenced the number of verbs in the Czech sentence. In the existential type, there were ten instances of a compound notional subject and only one translator decided to make use of this complex sentence and employ more verbs, which resulted in a sentence containing seven verbs in Czech in contrast to one verb *be* in English. All the Czech verbs were derived from the modification:

- (45) The campo was crowded with people: there were Venetian ladies <u>coming</u> to Santa Maria Zobenigo, Austrian soldiers <u>strolling</u> about arm-in-arm and looking at everything, shopkeepers <u>trying</u> to sell them things, urchins <u>fighting</u> and <u>begging</u>, cats <u>going</u> about their secret business.
- ~ Na carapu se tísnila spousta lidí: benátské ženy <u>vcházely</u> do kostela Santa Maria Zobenigo, rakouští vojáci <u>se procházeli</u> zavěšení do sebe a všechno <u>si prohlíželi</u>, obchodníci se jim <u>snažili</u> leccos prodat, uličníci <u>se prali</u> a <u>žebrali</u> a kočky <u>chodily</u> po tajných pochůzkách.

It can be concluded that although using $b\acute{y}t$, the Czech equivalent of the English verb be, is by far the most frequent translation strategy, translating the verb from the modification of the head is apparently rather frequent as well. However, the strategy, to a great extent, depends on the semantic type: while existentials with adverbials were, undoubtedly, most frequently translated by the Czech verb $b\acute{y}t$, bare-existential translations very frequently used

verbs from the modification of the head. This might be partly given by the fact that because the bare existentials express simple existence, the semantically less coloured verb $b\dot{y}t$ can be substituted by more vivid equivalents in order to place the communicative dynamism on the verb or the subject. On the other hand, when introducing a certain element at a specific location, more semantically heavy verb is not needed for there are other elements in the sentence which can bear the communicative dynamism.

4.2. Existential-locative type

The existential-locative type formally resembles the existential-with-adverbial subtype, however, the adverbial in the existential-locative sentences is obligatory (see section 2.4.). In distinguishing it from this subtype of the existential sentences, we followed the previous studies (e.g. Rubešová, 2007). The main criterion was that the existential-locative sentences had to be re-interpretable by an underlying locative structure. However, we added a condition that this transformation must be possible without changing the original reference of the notional subject. This principle goes slightly against what can be found in Dušková et al. (2006: 354); in their view, the existential-locative construction such as *There is a girl in the waiting-room* contrasts with the locative construction *The girl is in the waiting room*. This seems quite problematic to us, for as was explained in the theoretical part, the main purpose of the existential thereconstruction is usually the introduction of a new and context-independent phenomenon and thus the re-interpretation by a definite clause may cause a change of meaning. Therefore, we decided to follow Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1397) according to whom the sentence There's one performance at noon can be re-interpreted as One performance is at noon, while There's a firework display tonight cannot be transformed into *A firework display is tonight (notice that had Dušková et al.'s approach been followed, The firework display is tonight would have been perfectly acceptable). The typical example of our existential-locative category would thus be:

- (46) ... and we know there were many of these in the forest.
 - → Many of these were in the forest.

Given these circumstances, 44 existential-locative sentences were encountered in total, forming 22% of the examined sample. We also encountered a considerable number of a specific construction that was originally classified as existential-locative, but due to its frequency it was decided to form a special subcategory (no mention of this specific construction has been found in the previous studies). This then left us with two subtypes: existential-locative sentences and existential-locative sentences with participle + adverbial modification.

It also needs to be remembered that even though researchers such as Dubec (2007) differentiated adjuncts, conjuncts and disjuncts, the present study only took adjuncts of place and time into account. Even though there were instances of focalizers and disjuncts of style, these did not present any significant contribution to the syntactic analysis and therefore were not analysed.

4.2.1. Existential-locatives

The existential-locative subtype corresponds to what Dušková et al. call the existential-locative type and it formed 72,7% of the existential-locative type. The main purpose of these sentences is to introduce a certain phenomenon to a particular spatial or temporal location. It was not surprising to find that the absolute majority (84,4%) situated the element into a spatial location, the adverbial of place was used in 27 sentences. Single adverbial of time was only used once, it was thus very exceptional (3,1%) and it was more commonly accompanied by a spatial adverbial, i.e. the sentence included both the adverbials of time and place – this combination was encountered four times (12,5%). The following examples represent these three instances respectively:

(47) There were two doors ahead of them.

- (48) <u>A few days before Christmas</u>, there was another raid, although nothing dropped on the town of Molching.
- (49) Lord PORTISHEAD devotes a long chapter of his book to trying to prove that JOHN USKGLASS is not, as is commonly supposed, the founder of English Magic since there were <u>magicians in these islands</u> <u>before his</u> time.

As far as the position of the adverbials is concerned, the results were not surprising either: the adjuncts were mostly to be found in the end position, which was the case with 20 sentences (62,5%) and it confirms Dubec's claim (2007:28) that "adjuncts are most frequently placed to the right from the verb, i.e. they occur in end position," cf.:

(50) There is a much better place a little further along.

The second most frequent position was the medial one, it was found in six sentences (18,8%). As Dubec explains (2007: 30), "in the existential construction the medial position is the one between the verb to be and the notional subject." He adds that "the medial position is also considered the one situated between the head and its postmodification in the noun phrase that functions as the notional subject." This was very frequent in our sample as can be seen in the following two sentences:

- (51) He felt excessively pleased at the thought and rather wished there were someone <u>there</u> to see him do it and be astonished.
- (52) There's at least one person here at Hailsham who believes otherwise.

Both the examples (51) and (52) present the adjunct in the medial position, between the head and the postmodification. In sentence (51) the head pronoun is postmodified by two infinitival phrases to see him do it and be astonished. Example (52) then displays a case of two consecutive adjuncts of place (which are, however, both referring to the same location and thus express a

type of specification), and both of them are positioned between the head noun *person* and its postmodification realized by a subordinate relative clause *who believes otherwise*.

Three sentences (9,4%) contained a single adjunct in the initial position, cf.:

(53) On the right there was another lady.

As well as the existential sentences with adverbials, the existential-locatives contained two sentences (6,3%) which combined two adjuncts in the initial and end position, however, unlike the former subcategory, the latter also contained one sentence (3%) which presented the combination of adjuncts in the initial and medial position. These instances are exemplified by the following sentences, respectively:

- (54) But <u>now</u> there was no one <u>between Madame and us</u>, and as Tommy kept closing the gap, I had to grab his arm to slow him down.
- (55) I will take up your cause, oppose him with all my might and find arguments to vex him and <u>then</u> there shall still be two magicians <u>in</u> <u>England</u> and two opinions upon magic.

Example (55) is a little problematic in that what we call the medial position here is actually the position between the two coordinated heads (a compound NP). Even though it can be seen as the end position of the first head, we decided to qualify it as the medial position because it is possible to say ... and then there shall still be two magicians and two opinions upon magic <u>in</u> England, which would then be counted as the end position.

As the chart in Fig8. shows, the proportions of syntactic positions of adverbials in existential-locatives and existentials with adverbials (see Fig6.) were almost identical, including the percentages of the individual instances:

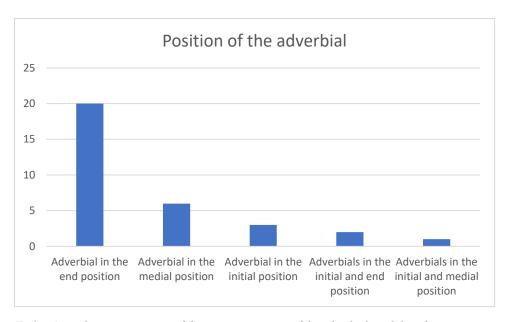


Fig8.:. A graphic representation of the syntactic position of the adverbials and their frequencies.

4.2.2. Existential-locatives with participle + adverbial modification

In these sentences, the location was expressed by an adjunct that was introduced as a part of the participial postmodification (present or past). It is thus not a typical existential-locative construction found e.g. in Duškoá et al. (2006) and we, therefore, decided to create a special subcategory for these sentences. Consider the following examples:

- (56) There was a cracked, cheap-looking glass <u>hanging on the wall</u>.
- (57) As always, there was a tight circle crowded around them.

The adverbial of place on the wall in (56) is modifying the participial postmodification hanging rather than the head of the notional subject glass (There was a cracked, cheap-looking glass hanging on the wall vs. There was a cracked, cheap-looking glass on the wall). In (57), the head noun circle is postmodified by the past participle crowded, which is then in turn further modified by the spatial adjunct around them. Dušková et al. (2006: 355) consider this modification separately from all the semantic types and explains that the participle is in these cases most frequently considered a postponed attribute because it can be extended to a relative

sentence (such as *There is another door leading to the hall – There is another door that leads to the hall*). She also points out (ibid) that in certain cases, these constructions can be transformed into continuous form (present participle) or a passive (past participle). This applies here as well, cf.:

(56a) A cracked, cheap-looking glass was hanging on the wall.

(57a) A tight circle was crowded around them.

In our sample, the occurrence of these sentences was noticeable, they were encountered twelve times, which made the total of 27,3% (more than a quarter) of the existential-locative type. As has been suggested, there were two types of modification: present participle and past participle. The present participle was more frequent, it occurred in eight sentences, the past participle modification was encountered in four clauses.

4.2.3. Notional subject

As well as in the previous type, the most frequently encountered type of the notional subject consisted of a complex NP (31 sentences, 70,5%), followed by a simple NP (nine sentences, 20,5%). Only four notional subjects comprised of a compound NP (9%). Table 3 displays the results for the individual subtypes:

Subtypes	Simple NP	Complex NP	Compound NP	Total
Existential-locatives	9	20	3	32
Participle + adverbial modification	0	11	1	12
Total	9	31	4	44
Percentage	20,5%	70,5%	9%	100%

Table 3: Syntactic properties of the notional subject in the existential locatives and existentials locatives with a participle + adverbial modification.

Given by the character of the existential-locatives with participle + adverbial modification, the notional subjects of this subtype majorly consisted of a complex NP (eleven sentences, 91,7%). There was only one instance of a compound NP (8,3%) and no instance of a simple NP. Consider the following examples, all of them are of the existential-locative subtype:

- (58) 'There's a Jew in my basement.'
- (59) There's bits of history everywhere and we've lost half the spinners!
- (60) I think it's supposed to be South America, because there are <u>palms</u> behind her and swarthy waiters in white tuxedos.

Example (58) shows an existential-locative sentence with a simple NP *a Jew*. Sentence seen in (59) presents an example of a partitive construction where the noun *bits* quantifies the uncountable noun *history*, thus representing the complex NP (all similar sentences were classified as complex NPs because the partitive quantifier, such as *bits* in this case, can be formally understood as the head of the phrase, and the uncountable entity would, therefore, be seen as a *of*-phrase postmodification). The notional subject in (60) consists of two heads, therefore forming a compound NP, first of which is simple, *palms*, while the second head *waiters* is premodifier by the adjective *swarthy* and postmodified by a prepositional phrase *in white tuxedos*.

4.2.4. Negative and affirmative sentences

The ratio of affirmative and negative sentences is similar to the previous types and subtypes – the affirmative constructions prevail, there were 36 affirmative (81,8%) and eight negative sentences (18,2%). The existential-locative subcategory contained 24 affirmative sentences and eight negative ones, while the existential-locative with participle + adverbial modification only consisted of the affirmative constructions. When compared with the

existential-with-adverbial subtype, the results are, again, very similar. Fig9. provides a graphic chart of these results:

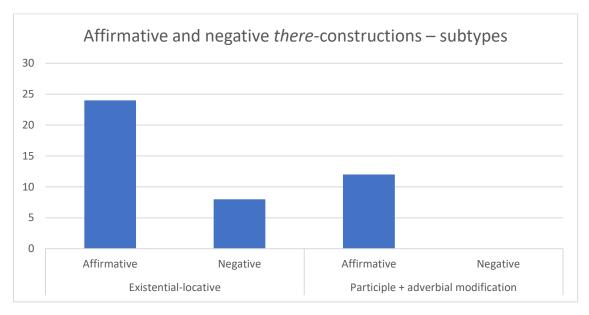


Fig9.: A graphic representation of the affirmative and negative sentences of the existential-locative subtype and the existential-locative subtype with participle + adverbial modification.

None of the negative existential-locative sentences was realized by the negation of the verb, the negativity was prevailingly expressed by a negative determiner *no* or a negative quantifier functioning as a proform, cf. the following examples:

- (61) "There is no one here!" cried Dr Greysteel.
- (62) There was no surgeon nearer than ten miles away.

There was also one instance of a negative adverb:

(63) There was <u>hardly anyone else</u> about, so I could see an unbroken line of wet paving stones stretching on in front of me.

4.2.5. Czech translation counterparts

The Czech verb $b\acute{y}t$ was once again the most frequently used translation strategy with the total of 21 occurrences (47,7%). Nevertheless, the majority of these was encountered in the existential-locative subtype, namely nineteen sentences (only two $b\acute{y}t$ -translations were found

in the other subcategory). This is not surprising because, as has been seen so far, the existential locative subcategory is very similar to the existentials with adverbials in almost all aspects, and the translation strategy is not an exception. Example (64) and (65) provide instances of the verb $b\dot{y}t$ in the existential-locative subcategory and the existential-locatives with participle + adverbial modification, respectively:

- (64) Yes, there were high water-line marks on their cave walls...
- ~ Ano, na stěnách jejich jeskyní <u>byly</u> stopy po zvýšené vodní hladině...
- (65) There was a harness attached to each board.
- ~ Na druhé straně desky bylo kožené řemení.

An absolute majority of the analysed cases presented the phenomenon by means of lexical *být* (as presented in ex. 64 and 65), there were only three instances of a copular predicate and they were all part of the existential-locative subcategory, such as the following:

- (66) 'No, there's six in one of W&B's Gold Selections,' said Susan.
- ~ "Nebyly, ještě <u>je jich šest</u> ve Zlaté bonboniéře W&B" zavrtěla hlavou Zuzana.

While only one existential-locative sentence was translated by a word from the modification of the head, it was the leading strategy in the subcategory of existential-locatives with participle + adverbial modification, nine out of twelve sentences were translated this way, together they were forming 22,7% of the category (second most frequent strategy):

- (67) it heaped itself on top of the millstones and the rocks until there was a hill <u>standing</u> there as high as the sides of the dale
- ~ Země a skály se rozpukaly, navršily se na mlýnské kameny a balvany, až tam nakonec stál kopec stejně vysoký jako úbočí údolí.

Verbs expressing existence were encountered in four sentences (9,1%) and verbs of appearance were only found twice (4,5%), all of these sentences were of the existential-locative subtype:

- (68) There were two doors ahead of them.
- ~ Před nimi stály dvoje dveře.
- (69) There was the trace of a grin on her face as she and Rudy Steiner, her best friend, handed out the pieces of bread on the road.
- ~ Jak s Rudym Steinerem, jejím nejlepším kamarádem, rozkládali po silnici kousky chleba, <u>objevil se</u> jí ve tváři náznak úsměvu.

The verb "mít" (have) was used four times, mainly in the existential-locative subtype:

- (70) His eyes were empty and there was a slight dew upon his brow.
- ~ Oči měl prázdné a čelo mírně orosené.

The three remaining translations used other solutions, there were no instances of verbless Czech clauses, modal verbs or verbs derived from the head of the notional subject. It can thus be said that the existential-locative type was prevailingly translated by the verb $b\dot{y}t$ (as well es the existential sentences with adverbials), however, the special subcategory of existential-locative sentences with participle + adverbial modification reflects a tendency to use the verb from the notional-subject modification.

4.3. Modal type

The modal type was the third most frequent category with total number of 29 sentences (14,5% of the whole sample). The main criterion for this type was that the sentence must be paraphrasable by means of a modal verb, as in example (71):

- (71) There was no question now of controlling them.
 - → They could not be controlled.

While setting the criteria for this category, we decided to diverge from Dušková et al.'s classification and follow Rubešová's criterion (2007: 62) to also include sentences where modality is directly expressed by a modal verb. In Dušková et al.'s classification (2006), the

modality is only implied, and thus the sentences of this semantic type most often occur with a "gerund subject or in the form of a negative clause with an infinitive" (2006: 355). *There*-sentences expressing modality by means of a modal auxiliary are, in Dušková et al.'s work, classified as existential ones. In our classification, derived from Rubešová's work (2007), *there*-sentences containing a modal verb were included in the modal type along with those whose modality was implied by a gerund subject or by other means. The main reason for this divergence from Dušková et al.'s classification is that both the sentences that contain a modal auxiliary and those that only imply modality follow the same purpose: to express a certain degree of certainty/uncertainty, desirability/undesirability etc. of the presented phenomenon. Compare the following two examples from our sample:

- (72) There's no question Ruth was keen to keep the whole thing going.
- (73) There must be something, even if it's only debris!

While the epistemic modality in (72) is expressed implicitly by the head *no question*, the same epistemic modality is expressed explicitly by the auxiliary verb *must* in (73). Moreover, it is even possible to rephrase both these sentences using the modality-expressing element of the other sentence while preserving the original meaning:

- (72a) Ruth <u>must have been</u> keen to keep the whole thing going.
- (73a) There is no question that there's something, even if it's only debris!

After considering this, we decided to include both the sentences that express the modality explicitly by modal auxiliaries and implicitly through gerund etc.

Dušková et al.'s claim (2006: 355) about the frequency of gerund subjects and negative clauses with an infinitive was only partially confirmed, there was indeed a frequent occurrence of negative clauses with infinitival postmodification (see ex. 74), however, the head was also

very often postmodified by a subordinate clause (see ex. 75) or a prepositional phrase with a gerund (ex. 76). The mentioned gerund subject was, however, not encountered at all.

- (74) Immediately the Frenchman called out to his compatriots that there was no reason to be afraid
- (75) There was <u>no way she was getting into any bath</u>, or into bed for that matter.
- (76) There was no question now of controlling them.

These sentences constituted the majority of the modal-type existential clauses with 23 occurrences (79,3%). The remaining six sentences expressed the modality by a modal auxiliary (20,7%):

(77) There <u>must</u> be something you desire above all else?

4.3.1. Notional subject

As well as in all other types, the most frequently encountered notional subject consisted of a complex NP, which was in this case given by the fact that the postmodification of the head was necessary for expressing the modality. The total number of complex NPs was 24, thus constituting 82,8% of the modal type. There were only four instances of a simple NP, forming 13,8% (ex. 78) and one instance of a compound NP, 3,4% (ex. 79):

- (78) 'The sign on the stairs said there was no admittance.'
- (79) Naturally there were introductions and explanations to get through...

4.3.2. Negative and affirmative sentences

As mentioned previously, our results confirm Dušková's claim about the modal existential sentences being most frequently realized by a negative sentence (see Dušková, 2006:

355). It is the only semantic type in which the negative sentences outweight the affirmative ones, as can be seen in Fig10.:

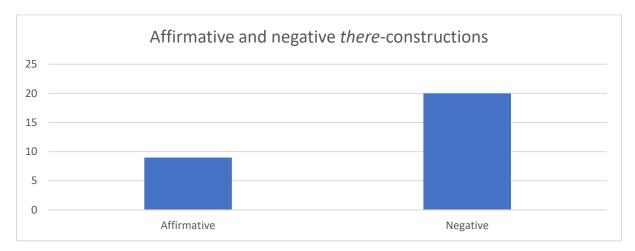


Fig10.: A graphic representation of the affirmative and negative sentences of the modal type.

We traced only nine affirmative sentences (31%), five expressed the modality by the head and its postmodification, and four included a modal verb:

- (80) Igor grimaced, but there was the Code to think of.
- (81) "Yet there <u>must</u> be a carriage somewhere," he thought

The results, therefore, imply that *there*-construction is prevailingly used to introduce negative modality (69%).

4.3.3. Czech translation counterparts

In the translations of this type, the translators used the verb $b\dot{y}t$ as often as the modal verbs (31% each). Nevertheless, the use of the lexical predicate was negligible, the majority of these $b\dot{y}t$ translations contained the copular predicate with various types of nominal elements, cf.:

- (82) 'The sign on the stairs said there was no admittance.'
- ~ "Ta tabulka na schodišti říkala, že je sem zakázaný vstup."

- (83) There was hardly any one to be seen.
- ~ Ve vesnici vládlo ticho, skoro nikdo nebyl vidět.
- (84) There's no question Ruth was keen to keep the whole thing going.
- ~ Nebylo pochyb, že Ruth chtěla, aby ta záležitost pokračovala.

Three translations contained the verb "mít" (10,3%):

- (85) A doe stood its ground, unafraid: there was <u>no reason yet for any</u> animal to fear our kind.
- \sim Laň stála nebojácně bez hnutí <u>tehdy ještě nemělo žádné zvíře důvod k</u> obavám z našeho druhu.

There were nine modal verbs encountered in the Czech translations, such as "nemoci" (cannot), "nesvést" (not manage), "muset" (must/have to) and others:

- (86) There must be something you desire above all else?
- ~ Něco přece <u>musíte</u> chtít nade vše jiné, ne?
- (87) There was no way we could get past, so we just waited.
- ~ ... a my jsme kolem ní nemohli projít, tak jsme čekali.

Four translations were derived from the modification (13,8%):

- (88) There's no chance of getting air into it now, is there?'
- ~ Do toho už vzduch nedostaneš, přece.

The three remaining Czech verbs belong to the category of other solutions and only one translation used a verb of appearance.

4.4. Action type

According to our results, the action type was the least frequent one. This, interestingly, contradicts e.g. Rubešová's thesis (2007) where the action type was the third most frequent one followed by the modal type. The main criterion for this category was based on Dušková et al.'s

explanation (2006: 354-355) that the "action character lies in the action character of the noun that functions as a notional subject." The notional subject of these sentences must, therefore, express the existence (or non-existence) of an action or process. Dušková et al. also include sentences whose notional subjects express verbs of sensory perception. Such clauses were, therefore, also classified as the action type. The category covers nineteen sentences in total (9,5%), thirteen of these sentences express an action or process, forming 68,4% of the action sentences (as in example 89) and the remaining six clauses include nouns of sensory perception, thus constituting 31,6% of the category (see example 90):

- (89) There were speeches, large funds pledged.
- (90) There was the <u>sound of opening and dragging</u>, and then the fuzzy silence who followed.

The action-type clauses could also be categorized based on the syntactic character of the notional subject, which will be described in the following section (4.4.1.).

The classification of the action sentences was sometimes on the borderline with bare existential sentences, consider the following example:

(91) When she could speak again, she said, "there is no engagement"

Even though the notional subject could be also seen as that of a bare existential sentence, the head *engagement* is derived by a suffix from the verb *engage* and even the definition of the noun, as provided by the Oxford English Dictionary, says it is "the action of engaging; the state, condition, or fact of being engaged" ("engagement, n.I."). In order to decide on these borderline cases, we applied the rule of reinterpretation: if the sentence was paraphrasable by a

corresponding sentence expressing the action by a verb (lexical or copular), we included it in the action type³. This was the case in (91):

(91a) We are not engaged.

4.4.1. Notional subject

As mentioned in the previous section, the action existential clauses can also be classified based on the syntactic structure of the notional subject. The action was either expressed by a head postmodified by a prepositional phrase, as in (90), or by the head itself, as in (89). The prepositional phrase occurred in ten sentences (52,6%), the head noun expressed the action in eight sentences (42,1%), and there was also one instance of the action being expressed by a gerund (5,3%). While the head alone unexceptionally expressed an action or process, the prepositional postmodification either expressed a sensory perception (prevailingly) or an action/process, as in (92):

(92) There was a burst of silver lights in the room.

The most frequently encountered NP was the complex one, fourteen notional subjects were of this kind (73,7%). There were only three simple NPs (15,8%) and they all described an action or process, cf.:

(93) 'There have been complaints?' said Miss Susan.

There were also two instances of a compound NP (10,5%):

(94) There were gasps of shock, and one or two nervous laughs.

73

³ This rule was, naturally, only applied to those sentences where the notional subject expresse dan action/proces, as this was not possible with the nouns of sensory perception.

(95) There was a <u>rattle of cutlery</u> and <u>a moment of uncertainty</u> regarding a vase of flowers, but almost all the tableware remained in place.

While in (94) both the heads belong to the action type, only the first head in (95) can fully represent the action or process character of this category. The second head could be (had it stood alone) rather classified as the existential type, however, due to the action character of the first head, the whole sentence was classified as the action type.

4.4.2. Negative and affirmative sentences

The semantics of clauses expressing an action, process or sensory perception again caused that the affirmative sentences prevailed. Fig11. shows that while sixteen sentences brought a certain phenomenon into existence (84,2%), only three sentences were describing that something did not happen (15,8%). Interestingly, clauses with the postmodified noun *sound* are given as a typical example in Dušková et al. (2006), and are found several times in our sample as well:

(96) To begin with, there was <u>no sound of reply</u>, but he soon sat up and searched the darkness.

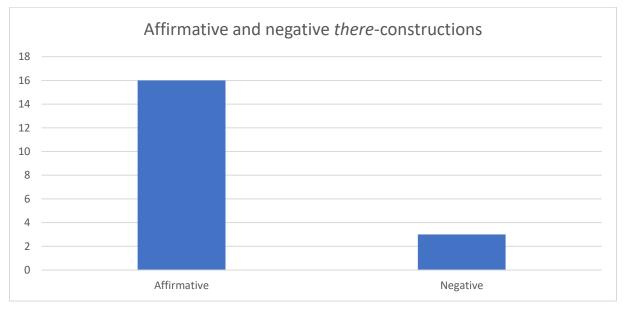


Fig11.: A graphic representation of the affirmative and negative sentences of the action type.

4.4.3. Czech translation counterparts

Dušková et al. state (2006: 355) that "the Czech counterpart of the action type is the verbless clause without subject" (or "jednočlenná věta slovesná" in Czech). Our results, however, claim otherwise. There was only one Czech verbless sentence, the remaining sentences all included a subject. The verbless sentence was the following:

- (97) To begin with, there was <u>no sound of reply</u>, but he soon sat up and searched the darkness.
- ~ Z uličky nebylo slyšet zvuk kroků.
- (97) is one of the four sentences (18,2%) that used the verb $b\dot{y}t$ (be) as their Czech counterpart (one lexical predicate and three copular predicates). Most of the translations, ten sentences with twelve verbs (54,5%), made use of the head of the notional subject, as in (98) or (99):
 - (98) It seemed at first there was a sheer drop down to the sands...
 - ~ Nejdřív to vypadalo, že <u>prudce klesá na písčinu</u>...
 - (99) ...maybe there was a look exchanged between them...
 - ~ ...možná se na sebe nějak divně podívaly...

Apart from these, there were also three instances of other solutions, therefore 13,6%, (see ex. 100) and one clause with no verb (see ex. 101)

- (100) There was even <u>some laughter</u> about the tremendous nurse and the look on Jürgen Schwarz's face.
- ~ Dokonce <u>došla posměchu</u> obrovitá sestra a to, jak se tvářil Jürgen Schwarz.
- (101) There were <u>several attempts to snatch at them</u>, but it was the mayor's wife who took the initiative
- ~ Pár pokusů je popadnout, ale pak se iniciativy chopila starostova žena.

There were only two instances of a verb of appearance (9,1%):

- (102) Down below there was the sound of metal on metal, and then of urgent gushing water.
- \sim Odněkud zdola k nim dolehl zvuk kovu skřípějícího po kovu a pak hlasité bublání prudce tekoucí vody.

As far as the two compound subjects are considered, in both cases the two heads gave rise to two Czech verbs (hence the discrepancy between the number of English sentences and Czech verbs).

The results suggest that even though Czech verbless clauses are in theory considered to be equivalents of the action existential clauses, translators in fact mostly reach for the head of the notional subject which is transformed into the corresponding Czech verb.

4.5. Summarizing tables and figures

This section provides tables and charts summarizing the phenomena that were discussed in detail throughout the analysis section.

4.5.1. Semantic types and subtypes

Semantic type	Number of occurrences		Percentage		
Existential type	Bare existentials	87	100	43,5%	54%
	Existentials with adverbials	21	108	10,5%	
Existential-locative type	Existential-locative	32		16%	22%
locative type	Participle + adverbial modification	12	44	6%	
Modal type	2	29	14,	5%	
Action type	19		9,5%		
Total	200		100%		

Table 4: Total number of occurrences of the semantic types.

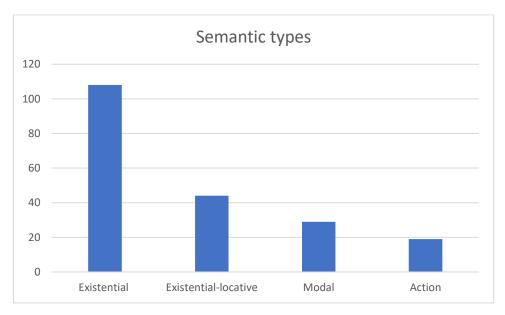


Fig12:: A graphic representation of the occurrences of the semantic types (existential, existential-locative, modal, action).

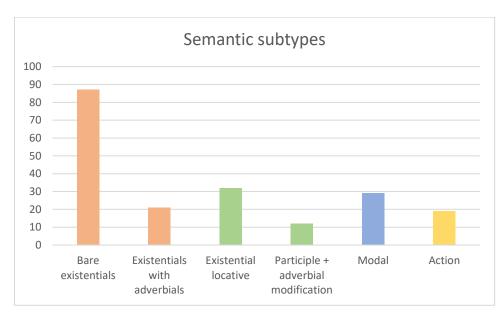


Fig13.: A graphic representation of the occurrences of the semantic types, including their subtypes. The colours distinguish bare existentials and existentials with adverbials belonging under the existential type, and the existential locative and existential-locatives with participle + adverbial modification belonging under the existential locative type.

4.5.2. Notional subject

Semantic type	Simple NP		Complex NP		Compound NP		Total	
Existential	Bare existentials	13		65	83	9	10	
type	Existentials with adverbials	2	15	18		1		108
Existential-locative type	Existential-locative	9		20	31	3	4	
	Participle + adverbial modification	0	11	1		44		
Modal type		4		24			1	29
Action type		3		14		2		19
Total		31		152		17		200
Percentage		15,5%		76%		8,5%		100%

Table 5: Syntactic properties of the notional subjects in all semantic types.

4.5.3. Negative and affirmative sentences

Semantic type	Affirmative/negative sentences	9		Percentage		
Existential	Affirmative	81	100	75%	1000/	
	Negative	27	108	25%	100%	
Existential-locative	Affirmative	36	44	81,8%	1000/	
locative	Negative	8	44	18,2%	100%	
Modal	Affirmative	9	20	31%	1000/	
	Negative	29 ative 20		69%	100%	
Action	Affirmative	16	19	84,2%	1000/	
	Negative	3	19	15,8%	100%	
Total	Affirmative	142	200	71%	100%	
	Negative	58	200	29%	100 70	

Table 6: Total number of negative and affirmative sentences divided according to the four main semantic types. The percentage in each row represents the proportion in the given semantic type, the total number of the sentences of the particular type is understood as a whole (100%). Only the last row presents the percentage of affirmative and negative sentences in the whole sample of 200 sentences, regardless of the semantic type.

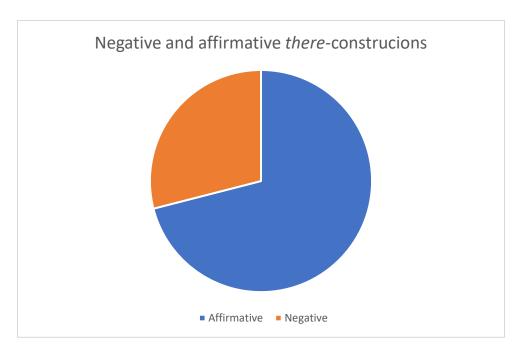


Fig14.: A graphical representation of the occurrence of affirmative and negative existential sentences.⁴

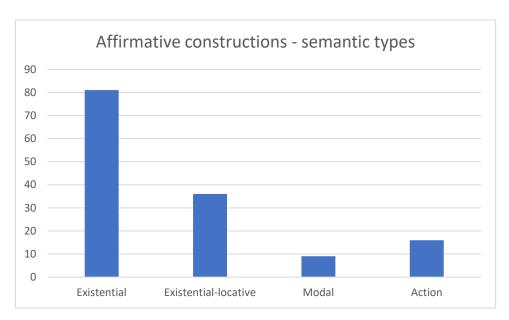


Fig15.: A graphic representation of the layout of affirmative sentences among the four main semantic types.

⁴ While bar charts were mostly used in the result section, for the purpose of this particular result, it was decided to use the pie chart for it more clearly represents the share of negative sentences in the whole sample.

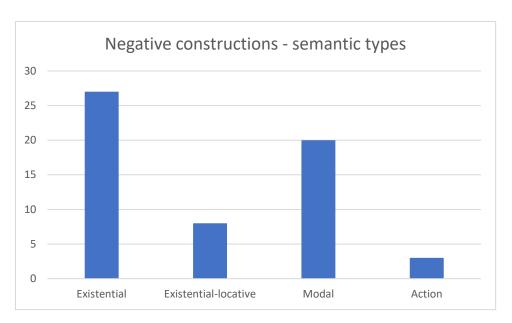


Fig16.: A graphic representation of the layout of negative sentences among the four main semantic types.

4.5.4. Czech translation counterparts

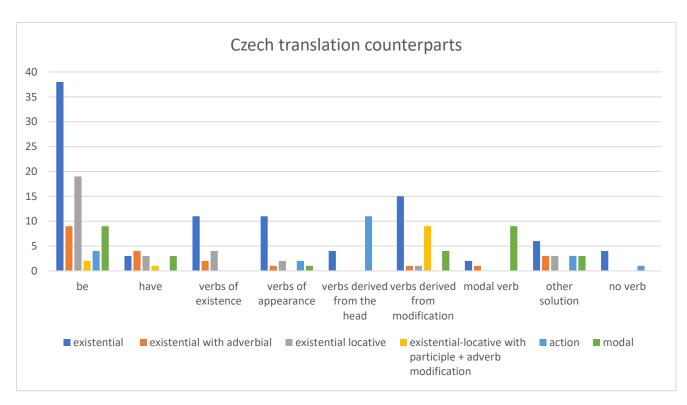


Fig17.: A Graphic representation of the Czech translation counterparts and their layout across the semantic types, including their subcategories.

5. Conclusion

The aim of the thesis was to analyse 200 sentences containing the existential construction *there is/there are* and their Czech translation counterparts. It focused on the syntactic structure as well as semantics and attempted to find regularities in both the English use and the translation strategies. The sentences were categorized into four main semantic types based on the classification laid by Dušková et al. (2006): existential sentences, existential-locative sentences, modal sentences and action sentences. The criteria of the classification as seen in Dušková et al. (2006), however, were not strictly followed and some of the category criteria were based on other work, such as Rubešová (2007) or Huddleston and Pullum (2002). Moreover, the observation of several recurrent structures led to creating several subcategories: the existential type was further divided into bare-existential and existential-with-adverbial subtype, the existential-locative type comprised of existential locatives and existential locatives with participle + adverb modification. The analysis mainly targeted general syntactic and semantic features of the individual semantic types, the ratio of negative and affirmative sentences, the syntactic structure of the notional subject and the Czech translation counterparts.

As had been expected, the existential type was the most frequently encountered one. The total number of occurrences was 108 (54%). 21 of these sentences were classified as the existential-with-adverbial subtype, therefore constituting 10,5% of the analysed sample. The existential locative-type accounted for a little less than a quarter of the total amount of the examined sentences, namely 22% with 44 occurrences. 32 sentences out of these (16% of the whole sample) were classified as "true" existential-locatives, i.e. those that are described as existential-locative sentences e.g. in Dušková et al. (2006). Apart from these, we encountered 12 sentences that were subsequently classified as a special subtype of existential-locatives with participle + adverbial modification (6%). The modal type occurred in 14,5% of cases with 29

sentences, and the least frequent category, action sentences, formed the last 9,5% with 19 occurrences.

The existential-with-adverbial subtype formally resembles the existential-locative type, more specifically the existential-locative subtype. The results for both of these subcategories were very similar. Existential sentences with an optional adverbial were found in 10,5% of the whole sample, those with obligatory adverbial were encountered in 22% of the examined sentences, the existential-locative subtype formed 16% of the sample. The adverbial was most frequently found in the end position (61,9% of the existential-with-adverbial subtype, 62,5% of the existential-locative subtype), followed by the medial position (23,8% of the existentialwith-adverbial subtype, 18,8% of the existential-locative subtype), the adverbials occurred in the initial position only marginally (9,5% of the existential-with-adverbial subtype, 9,4% of the existential-locative subtype). Some sentences displayed combination of two positions, initial and final or initial and medial (4,8% of the existential-with-adverbial subtype, 9,3% of the existential-locative subtype). These two categories only differed slightly in the semantics. The adverbials were most frequently spatial in both types (71,4% of the existential-with-adverbial subtype, 84,4% of the existential-locative subtype). However, while the existential sentences with optional adverbials expressed the temporal location in 23,8% and both spatial and temporal location in 4,8%, the existential-locative sentences displayed an opposite tendency: both time and place were expressed in 12,5% and temporal location only occurred once (3,1%).

The existential-locative type included one other subcategory, existential-locative with participle + adverbial modification. These sentences were not encountered in any previous theoretical work. They formed 27,3% of the existential-locative sentences and expressed the spatial location through the participial modification with an adverbial.

The modal type consisted of sentences that expressed the modality both implicitly and explicitly. This was a diversion from Dušková et al.'s classification which only accounts for those expressing it implicitly by means of a gerund subject or a negative clause with an infinitive. *There*-sentences expressing the modality explicitly by a modal verb would be included in the bare-existential type. In our sample, 20,7% of the modal sentences used a modal verb, the remaining 79,3% expressed the modality through the head noun or its postmodification.

Based on Dušková et al.'s classification, the action type contained sentences expressing an action or process, or sensory perception. 68,4% of the analysed action sentences expressed an action or process and 31,6% of them described the sensory perception. In 52,6% of cases, the action was expressed by a prepositional phrase in the notional subject, in 42,1% of the sentences it was expressed by the head noun and only 4,3% described the action by gerund.

The research on the syntactic complexity of the notional subject confirmed Dubec's statement (2007: 50) that "a very characteristic feature of the notional subject is its heavy modification" and one of the reasons for this might be "the fact that the phenomenon which is introduced into discourse is usually very complex and a simple noun phrase seems to be very often semantically incomplete." Our results imply that complex NP in the notional subject prevailed in all semantic types. The heavy modification of the head noun was found in 152 sentences, i.e. 76%. A simple NP with no pre- or post-modification occurred in 31 sentences, forming 15,5%. The least frequent was the compound NP, which only constituted 8,5% with 17 occurrences. The largest number of simple NPs was found in the existential-locative type, 20,5% of the existential-locative sentences, the remaining types were very even (13,9% of the existentials, 13,8% of the modal sentences and 15,8% of the action sentences had a simple NP in their subject). The modal type displayed the biggest proportion of complex NPs, 82,8%, the remaining types were, again, very even (76,9% of the existentials, 70,5% of the existentials).

locatives and 73,7% of the action sentences contained a complex NP). The compound NP was rather marginal in all the semantic types: 9,2% of the existential type, 9% of the existential locative type, 3,4% of the modal type and 10,5% of the action type.

Although the majority of examined sentences were affirmative, overall, more than a quarter of the examined sentences, in particular 29%, were found to be expressing nonexistence rather than existence of a certain phenomenon. The affirmative sentences prevailed in all but one semantic type. The existential category displayed 75% of affirmative sentences and 35% negative sentences. Most of the negative ones were found in the bare-existential subtype rather than the existential-with-adverbial subcategory. The existential-locative type consisted of 81,8% of affirmative sentences and 18,2% of negative sentences (these were all found in the existential-locative subtype, the existential-locative with participle + adverbial modification contained no negative sentences). The action type was mostly affirmative as well, only 15,8% of the sentences were negative (as opposed to 84,2% of the affirmative ones). The only semantic category that consisted of more negative than affirmative sentences was the modal type: while only 31% of the analysed sentences were affirmative, 69% expressed the negative modality. The results logically mirrored the semantic types, as the biggest proportion was found in the existential type which expresses the existence or non-existence of any phenomenon, while sentences presenting a particular feature to a specific location (existentiallocative sentences), or an action (action sentences) were prevailingly affirmative. The finding that modal sentences are mostly used to express negative modality is in agreement with Dušková et al.'s claims (see Dušková, 2006: 355).

It was expected that the Czech translation counterpart would most frequently use the Czech verb *být*, *have* or lexical verbs expressing the existence or appearance. The results showed that the verb *být* is overall very frequent but its use apparently depends on the semantic type. It was most often used in the translations of the existential-locative type, where *být*

constituted 47,7%, followed by the existential type, where it constituted 40,9%. Given by the semantic character of the modal and action type, these translations mostly used a different strategy and thus the representation of $b\dot{y}t$ in the counterparts is not very high, in particular 31% in the modal type and 19% in the action type. Overall, the verb $b\dot{y}t$ was encountered 81 times (38,8% of all counterparts).

Our results do not suggest any extensive use of the verb *have*, it was only encountered in 6,7%. The verbs were rather evenly spread among the semantic types and none of them reflected any significant tendency to use this strategy.

Even though it had been expected that verbs of existence and appearance would be used very frequently, the percentage was not as high. Both categories were equally represented, constituting only 8,1% of the translation counterparts. The results again copy the semantic traits of individual categories as both of these types of verbs mainly occur within the existential and existential-locative type.

The results were rather surprising in case of verbs derived from the head and verbs derived from modification: while 6,7% of the verbs were derived from the head of the notional subject, 14,8% of the Czech translations were influenced by the English modification of the notional subject. This means that deriving the Czech translation counterparts from the modification of the original head was the second most frequent strategy after using the Czech verb $b\dot{y}t$.

Czech *modal verbs* included instances of "muset/nemuset" (*must/not have to*), "moci/nemoci" (*be allowed to/not be allowed to*), "dát se" (*can*), "chtít" (*want*) etc. It is not surprising that they were mostly encountered in the modal category (81,8%).

Other solutions were mostly given by the connotations of a particular subject in the Czech language. The category covered 9,1% of the analysed verbs.

It was only a very marginal solution not to use any verb at all. It was only encountered in 2,4% of cases.

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7. Resumé

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá existenciální konstrukcí *there is/are* a jejími překladovými ekvivalenty. Práce si klade za cíl kategorizovat anglické existenciální věty podle sémantických typů, provést syntakticko-sémantickou analýzu a případné pravidelnosti vztáhnout k jednotlivým sémantickým kategoriím. Dalším cílem bylo analyzovat české překladové ekvivalenty. Vzhledem k tomu, že v českém jazyce neexistuje žádný ekvivalent existenciální konstrukce, předpokládalo se, že budou překladatelé využívat především sloveso *být, mít* a také další lexikální slovesa vyjadřující existenci (jako např. *existovat, vyskytovat se, objevit se*). Jelikož není obecně dáno jediné správné řešení pro překlad existenciálních konstrukcí, analýza českých ekvivalentů si kladla za cíl zmapovat prostředky, které překladatelé používají, a případně dohledat, zda se v překladech nachází pravidelnosti.

Teoretická část (druhá kapitola) nabízí shrnutí poznatků o existenciální konstrukci *there is/are* jak z hlediska formy, tak z hlediska funkce. Přináší také přehled literatury a výzkumů, které byly dosud v oblasti existenciálních vět provedeny. Praktická část diplomové práce analyzuje vzorek příkladů anglických existenciálních vět, které zkoumá z hlediska syntaktického i sémantického. Dále pak přináší analýzu českých překladových protějšků. Všechny poznatky jsou shrnuté v závěrečné části práce.

První podkapitola teoretické části se zabývá strukturou existenciální konstrukce s *there*. Tato konstrukce se běžně skládá ze slova *there*, slovesa (povětšinou se jedná o sloveso *být*, i když se v konstrukci mohou vyskytovat i další lexikální slovesa) a vlastního podmětu. *There* v konstrukci ztrácí svůj lokativní význam a vyplňuje tak pouze gramatickou funkci podmětu, tedy tematické části věty. Pozice slovesa může být vyplněna nejen slovesem *být*, ale i dalšími lexikálními slovesy. Díky zaměření této práce byl ovšem hlavní zřetel kladen na sloveso *být*. To slouží především jako nástroj k uvedení hlavní rematické části, tedy vlastního podmětu. Ten

zpravidla přichází po slovese v koncové pozici. V alternativní konstrukci bez *there* by se tento podmět nacházel na začátku věty. Tyto alternativní věty ale nejsou k dispozici ve všech případech. Například věta *There was an accident* nenabízí možnost alternativní konstrukce s podmětem *accident* v počáteční pozici, jelikož vlastní podmět není nijak modifikován a věta by tak postrádala větné členy potřebné k tomu, aby se jednalo o větu gramatickou: **An accident was*. Naopak větu *There were several windows open* lze převést na *Several windows were open* díky postmodifikaci *open*, která se mění na jmennou část přísudku. Vlastní podmět existenciální konstrukce bývá tedy zpravidla neurčitý (ačkoli za určitých podmínek se může vyskytovat i určitý řídící člen). Může být jednoduchý i složený, kde je řídící člen dále modifikován, řídících členů může být i více. Z příslovečných určení jsou zde rozlišována především příslovečná určení místa a času.

Z hlediska funkce (druhá podkapitola) se tato konstrukce užívá především k posunutí vlastního, komunikativně výrazného podmětu do konečné rematické pozice. Bývá to zpravidla nový a komunikačně nezapojený element, s čímž také souvisí fakt, že řídící člen bývá zpravidla neurčitý (jelikož se jedná o první zmínku). Zde se teoretická část zaměřuje na princip aktuálního členění větného, teorii vyvinutou především Vilémem Mathesiem a rozvinutou Janem Firbasem (z jehož práce tato část povětšinou vychází, dále také např. Chamonikolasová & Adam, 2005, a další). Tato teorie se zabývá pořadím větných členů a rozložením výpovědní dynamičnosti. Právě tento princip je pro téma existenciálních konstrukcí s *there* zásadní, jelikož na jeho základě se odvíjí přirozenost koncové pozice komunikačně výrazných prvků. Zde je také vysvětlena souhra tří základních faktorů aktuálního větného členění, tedy slovosledu, gramatického principu a kontextu. Vzhledem k rozdílnému charakteru českého a anglického jazyka má slovosled v každém z nich zcela jinou funkci: zatímco v českém jazyce je slovosled primárním principem, v anglickém jazyce slouží slovosled především jako gramatický prostředek. Právě konstrukce s *there* je jednou z možností, jak dosáhnout souladu mezi

přirozeným řazením dynamických prvků ke konci věty a anglickým pevným slovosledem. Poslední část druhé kapitoly se stručně věnuje škálám dynamických sémantických funkcí a vztahuje zde vlastnosti konstrukce s *there* k tzv. škále prezentační (jejímž hlavním rysem je orientace na podmět a uvádění nových jevů).

Třetí podkapitola teoretické části se zabývá alternací konstrukce s *there* s konstrukcí s *have*. Předchozí výzkum, především práce Brůhové a Malé (2019), prokázal, že tyto dvě konstrukce jsou do jisté míry synonymní a mnohou být zaměňovány. Toto tvrzení lze podložit příklady jako např. *The manor now has a museum of cultural history in it.* ~ *There is a museum of cultural history in the manor*. Vzhledem k podobnosti těchto dvou konstrukcí se tedy předpokládalo, že sloveso *mít* bude do jisté míry používáno i v českých překladech jako jeden z možných překladových ekvivalentů.

Čtvrtá podkapitola teoretické části již nabízí sémantickou klasifikaci existenciální konstrukce s *there*. Ačkoli různé teoretické práce nabízí různé možnosti klasifikace (např. Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, či Quirk et al., 1985), pro tuto práci byla použita kategorizace Duškové et al. (2006), tedy existenciální, existenciálně-lokativní, dějový a modální.

- a) Existenciální typ, např. *There is no exception*, nenabízí možnost interpretace bez *there*. Může se vyskytovat s fakultativním adverbiálním určením.
- b) Naopak v existenciálně-lokativní konstrukci je příslovečné určení obligatorní a kontrastuje tak s lokativní konstrukcí bez there, např. There is a girl in the waiting room ~ The girl is in the aiting room. Ve vlastní diplomové práci jsme se ovšem odchýlili od této interpretace, která se nám zdála poněkud zavádějící. Vzhledem k tomu, že hlavním účelem konstrukce je uvození nového jevu, tedy jevu povětšinou neurčitého, přeformulování existenciální věty na větu s určitým členem může do značné míry měnit význam dané věty. Proto jsme se jako

existenciálně-lokativní věty rozhodli klasifikovat pouze ty věty, které lze lokativně interpretovat beze změny určitosti řídícího členu (vycházeli jsme tam především z práce Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).

- c) V dějovém typu je prezentován děj nebo atmosférické stavy a smyslové vjemy, např. *There was a click in the lock* nebo *There was a flash of lightning*.
- d) Poslední, modální, typ, který pomocí kontextu indikuje modalitu. Příkladem může být věta *There is nothing to fear*. V této kategorii jsme se opět rozhodli odchýlit od klasifikace Duškové et al. (2006) a následovat práci Rubešové (2007), která do modálního typu zahrnula i věty vyjadřující modalitu expresivně modálním slovesem. K tomuto kroku jsme došli především proto, že sémantika vět vyjadřujících modalitu modálním slovesem a pomocí kontextu je velmi podobná, většinou synonymní, a tyto věty se dají zaměnit. Ačkoli Dušková et al. (2006) by tyto věty zařadili do čistě existenciálního typu, z hlediska sémantiky se zdají být spíš součástí typu modálního.

Poslední část teoretické části se věnuje českým překladovým ekvivalentům. Jak vyplývá z práce Rambouska a Chamonikolasové (2008), existenciální význam zůstává zachován přibližně v 63 % překladů. Co se týče samotných sloves, kterými se zabývala i tato DP, čeští překladatelé používají jak sloveso *být*, tak další lexikální slovesa vyjadřující existenci, například *nastat, dojít k* a další. V 10 % zkoumaného vzorku bylo použito také výše zmíněné sloveso *mít*.

Třetí kapitola DP je rozdělena na materiál a metodu. V první části popisuje způsob dohledávání 200 příkladů v paralelním korpusu InterCorp vytvořeného Ústavem Českého národního korpusu (ÚČNK). K výzkumu byl vytvořen subkorpus pěti anglických knih, které byly napsány a přeloženy po roce 2000, každá od jiného autora a jiného překladatele. Všechny

knihy jsou beletristické. V metodologické části třetí kapitoly je popsán postup při sémntické kategorizaci a syntaktické kategorizaci vět a vlastních podmětů. Analýza se soustředila sémantické rysy vět, syntaktické vlastnosti vlastního podmětu (simple, complex a compound NP), poměr kladných a záporných vět v každém sémantickém typu a překladové ekvivalenty. České věty byly rozděleny podle sémantiky sloves do několika kategorií: *být*, *mít*, slovesa vyjadřující existenci, slovesa vyjadřující objevení se na scéně, slovesa odvozená z řídícího členu anglického vlastního podmětu, slovesa odvozená z modifikace řídícího členu vlastního anglického podmětu, modální slovesa a další řešení.

Empirické části práce se věnuje čtvrtá kapitola. Ta je rozdělena do čtyř podkapitol podle čtyř výše zmíněných sémantických typů. V rámci každého z těchto typů jsou rozebrány jednotlivé analyzované aspekty.

První podkapitola je věnována existenciálnímu typu, který tvořil 54 % celého vzorku (108 vět) a byl tak nejčastějším typem. Tato kategorie se dále dělila na podtyp existenciální (bez příslovečného určení) a existenciální s adverbiálním určením. Čistě existenciální věty tvořily 80,5 % existenciálního typu, existenciální věty s fakultativním příslovečným určením se vyskytovaly ve zbylých 19,5 % případů. Nejčastěji se objevovalo příslovečné určení místa (71,4 %), ve 23,8 % jsme analyzovali příslovečné určení času, pouze 4,8 % vět obsahovala určení místa i času. Příslovečná určení se ve většině případů nacházelo v koncové pozici (61,9 %), druhá nejčastější pozice byla uprostřed (23,8 %), v počáteční pozici se nacházela jen velmi zřídka (9,5 %). Vlastní podmět byl nejčastěji složený, tedy complex NP, a to u obou podtypů (dohromady 76,9 %). Prostý popis nového jevu, tzn. simple NP, byl v obou podtypech o mnoho méně častý, pouhých 13,9 % v obou podkategoriích společně. Nejméně častý byl podmět s více řídícími členy, compound NP (9,2 % dohromady). Ačkoli většina existenciálních vět byla kladná (75 %), celá čtvrtina vět (25 %) byla záporných. Již méně překvapivě byla většina těchto záporných vět čistě existenciálních bez příslovečného určení, pouze čtyři z 21

existenciálních vět s fakultativním příslovečným určením byly záporné. Tento poměr byl zřejmě dán sémantikou vět, jelikož v určité místní či časové lokaci je logičtější vyjadřovat existenci. Nejčastěji používaným českým slovesem pro překlad existenciálních vět bylo sloveso být, 40,9 %), lexikální i sponové. Druhou nejčastější strategií bylo odvození českého slovesa z modifikace řídícího členu vlastního podmětu, 13,9 %. Tato strategie byla ovšem častější v podkategorii existenciálních vět. Slovesa vyjadřující existenci tvořila 11,3 %, většinou se jednalo přímo o sloveso *existovat*, dále například *zbývat*, *provázet* a další. Slovesa objevení se na scéně byla použita v podobné míře, celkem 10,4 % (zde se nacházela slovesa jako například *objevit se, zavládnout, stát se* atd.). Sloveso *mít* bylo použito v 6,1 %. Zbylé kategorie tvořily pouze malou číst vzorku.

Kategorie existenciálně-lokativních vět byla druhým nejčastějším typem, celkově tvořila 22 % zkoumaného vzorku. Této typ byl rozdělen na dva podtypy: existenciálně-lokativní a existenciálně-lokativní s participiální a adverbiální modifikací. Existenciálně-lokativní podtyp odpovídá existenciálně-lokativnímu typu podle klasifikace Duškové et al. (2006) a tvořil 72,7 % lokativní kategorie. Celkově byl tak o něco častější (16 % celého vzorku) než existenciální věty s fakultativním příslovečným určením (10,5 % celého vzorku). 84,4 % příslovečných určení byla místní, pouze 3,1 % vět umístila element do temporální lokace. Mnohem častější byla kombinace místního a časového příslovečného určení, 12,5 %. Stejně jako u fakultativního, i u obligatorního příslovečného určení byla jeho pozice nejčastější na konci věty (62,5 %). Uprostřed věty byla určení umístěna v 18,8 % a na začátku věty v 9,4 %. 6,3 % vět zkombinovala počáteční a koncovou pozici, 3 % přednesla určení na začátku i uprostřed věty. Druhá podkategorie, existenciálně-lokativní s participiální a adverbiální modifikací, byla vytvořena na základě častého výskytu vět vyjadřujících lokaci pomocí adjunktu, který je ale součástí participiální modifikace podmětu, jako např. v následující větě: There was a cracked, cheap-looking glass hanging on the wall. Tyto věty tvořily 27,3 %

existenciálně-lokativního typu. Ve větách se objevovalo jak přítomné, tak minulé participium, přítomné bylo častější (66,7 %). Stejně jako u předchozí kategorie, vlastní podmět byl většinou složený, tedy complex NP (70,5 %), jednoduchá nominální fráze (simple NP) tvořila 20,5 % lokativního typu, více řídících členů (compound NP) se nacházelo v 9 %. Rozdíl mezi kladnými a zápornými větami byl znatelnější než v předchozí kategorii – zatímco 81,8 % vět bylo kladných, pouze 18,2 % byla záporná. V překladových ekvivalentech se opět nejčastěji nacházelo sloveso *být* (47,7 %). Slovesa odvozená z modifikace řídícího členu podmětu se nejčastěji nacházela v druhém podtypu, celkem 75 % tohoto podtypu používala tuto strategii. Naopak v existenciálně-lokativních větách byla tato strategie použita pouze jednou. Dohromady ovšem opět tvoří druhou nejčastější strategii existenciálně-lokativního typu (22,7 %). Slovesa vyjadřující existenci tvořily 9,1 %, slovesa vyjadřující objevení se na scéně pouze 4,5 %. Zbylé kategorie byly pouze marginální.

Modální typ tvořil celkem 14,5 % příkladů. Teorie Duškové et al. (2006) Byla potvrzena pouze částečně. Dle jejich tvrzení (2006: 355) se modální typ nejčastěji vyskytuje ve formě záporné věty s infinitivem nebo s gerundiálním podmětem. V našem vzorku se záporné věty s infinitivem skutečně vyskytovaly, ovšem často se objevovaly také negativní věty postmodifikované vedlejší větou nebo předložkovou frází s gerundiem. Gerundiální podmět se ve vzorku nevyskytoval. Většina vět tohoto typu, konkrétně 79,3 %, vyjadřovala modalitu implicitně pomocí kontextu. Zbylých 20,7 % vyjádřilo modalitu explicitně modálním slovesem. I v tomto typu byl vlastní podmět nejčastěji tvořen složenou nominální frází (complex NP, 82,8 %). Jednoduchá nominální fráze (simple NP) byla nalezena pouze ve 13,8 % a více řídících členů (compound NP) tvořilo pouhá 3,4 % s jedním výskytem. Jako jediný ze všech čtyř typů měl modální typ převahu v záporných větách – zatímco 31 % vět uvozovalo kladnou modalitu, celých 69 % vět bylo záporných. Překladatelské strategie byly vyrovnané – 31 % vět bylo přeloženo pomocí slovesa *být* (v naprosté většině sponovým slovesem) a dalších 31 % použilo

modálních sloves. Sloveso *mít* se vyskytlo v 10,3 % případů a 13,8 % vět použilo sloveso odvozené z modifikace řídícího členu podmětu. Slovesa vyjadřující existenci se v této kategorii nepoužila ani jednou, slovesa objevení se na scéně pouze jednou.

Nejméně častým typem byl typ dějový. V tomto ohledu se práce neshoduje s výsledky práce Rubešové (2007), jejíž výsledky uvádí dějový typ jako třetí nejčastější a typ modální jako nejméně častý. V naší práci byl dějový typ zastoupen 9,5 %, z toho 68,4 % popisuje existenci děje a zbylých 31,6 % uvádí jméno označující smyslový vjem. Těsná většina dějových podmětů (52,6 %) byla vyjádřena předložkovou postmodifikací řídícího členu podmětu, dalších 42,1 % vyjádřilo děj přímo řídícím členem. Pouze jedna věta (5,3 %) použila k vyjádření děje gerundium. Logicky tedy bylo nejčastější realizací podmětu complex NP (73,7 %), simple NP se objevila v 15,8 % a compound NP ve zbylých 10,5 %. Valná většina vět byla kladných (84 %), záporný děj byl vyjádřen pouze v 15,8 % vět. Podle Duškové et al. (2006: 355) je českým protějškem dějových vět jednočlenná věta slovesná. Skoro všechny větu v našem vzorku ale podmět obsahovaly, narazili jsme pouze na jednu větu jednočlennou. Nejčastější překladatelskou strategií bylo odvození slovesa z řídícího členu podmětu, ta tvořila 54,5 % příkladů. Sloveso *být* bylo použito v 18,2 %. Slovesa vyjadřující existenci nebyla použita ani jednou, slovesa vyjadřující objevení se na scéně dvakrát (9,1 %). Ostatní kategorie byly zastoupeny pouze okrajově.

Následující pátá podkapitola analytické části nabízí shrnující tabulky a grafy.

Závěr práce (pátá kapitola) shrnuje všechny poznatky a závěry, ke kterým se došlo v empirické části studie.

8. Appendix

The following section provides an overview of all examples extracted from the English-Czech parallel corpus InterCorp v11. The appendix is divided into the four main semantic types: existential, existential-locative, action and modal. Each of the type is then (if possible) further subdivided into its subtypes. The examples are presented in tables, the first line shows the name of the book it was extracted from via InterCorp, and its author, the original English sentence and its Czech translation are presented in the second and third line, respectively.

8.1. Existential type

8.1.1. Bare existentials

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
1	English	If there were no Clefts, what would happen-have you really thought
1.		about that?
	Czech	Kdyby žádné Pukliny nebyly, co by bylo — pomysleli jste na to
		někdy?

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
2.	English	They had to know that without 'the games' they played with the boys,
Z.		there would be no babies.
	Czech	Musely vědět, že bez "her", které s chlapci hrály, by děti nebyly.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
3.	English	Ages is a word to be distrusted: it means there is no real knowledge.
J.	Czech	Věky je slovo budící nedůvěru — znamená, že neexistují žádné
		zaručené zprávy.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	One thing was slowly driving them all rather mad–there were no
4		babies, and no prospect of any, for there were no pregnant women.
4.	Czech	Jedna věc je všechny pomalu doháněla téměř k šílenství — již dlouho
		se nerodily žádné děti a žádné nebylo ani na cestě, neboť jediná žena
		nebyla obtěžkána.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	In any case, there was no proper conversation: she didn't want me
5.		there and neither did I.
	Czech	Každopádně k žádnému normálnímu rozhovoru nedošlo – ona
		nechtěla, abych tam byla, a ani já jsem tam nechtěla být.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
6.	English	'There was no yesterday.'
	Czech	"Žádné včera nebylo."

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	It was hard to remember, because there was nothing, no colour, no
7.	_	sound, no pressure, no time, no spin, no light, no life
	Czech	Bylo těžké si na to vzpomenout, protož tehdy nebylo nic, žádná
		barva, žádný zvuk, žádný tlak, žádný čas, otáčky, světlo, život

o	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
8.	English	Of course there was no one.
	Czech	Přirozeně tam nikdo nestál.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih		
9.	English	Perhaps there would never be a precise answer as to when and where		
	_	it occurred.		
	Czech	Určitá odpověď na to, kdy a kde se to stalo, možná nikdy nepřijde.		

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	Old rotting trunks in unhealthy water–and so it was that there was not
10.		enough of the desirable forest for everyone.
	Czech	V zapáchající vodě hnily stare kmeny — a tak vytouženého lesa
		nebyl dostatek pro všechny.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	When she looked up with a start, I could see her face was flushed, but
11.		there were no traces of tears.
	Czech	Když překvapeně vzhlédla, všimla jsem si, že má zarudlý obličej, ale
		stopy po slzách na něm nebyly.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	There was no time for anything but to run from the wells to the
12.	_	nearest spitting bearing and back, and there was not enough time even for that.
	Czech	Nezbýval čas na nic jiného než běhat ke studni a od ní k nejbližšímu
		ložisku, a ani na to se času nedostávalo.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	Okay, we'd got through a lot of the meat of it by then, but even so,
		even if we were just easing off and chatting by that point, that was
		still all part of our trying to sort things with each other, and there was
13.		no room for any pretend stuff like that.
	Czech	Dobře, většinu toho jsme tou dobou dávno probraly, ale stejně,
		kdybychom v tuhle chvíli už jen tak uvolněně tlachaly, pořád to bylo
		součástí naší snahy tu věc mezi sebou vyřešit, a na nějaké podobné
		předstírání tady nebylo místo.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
14.	English	There would be no logic to it!
	Czech	To by bylo maximálně nelogické!

15.	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
	English	There is nothing to this.
	Czech	Nic na tom není.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
16.	English	There is nothing but the taste.
	Czech	Nezbude nic, jen chuť.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There was nothing but a knowing smile and a slow walk that lolled
17.	_	him home.
	Czech	Nic než vědoucí úsměv a pomalá chůze, která ho klátivě donesla
		domů.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange &
10		Pan Norrell
18.	English	Really there is no one but Lord Wellington.
	Czech	Kromě lorda Wellingtona tu nikoho takového nemáme.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	Money was clutched in filthy fingers, and the calls and cries were
19.		filled with such vitality that there was nothing else but this.
	Czech	Zamazané prsty svíraly peníze, a výkřiky a povzbuzování byly tak
		plné života, že kromě nich nic jiného neexistovalo.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
20.	English	There was nothing more to it than that?'
	Czech	Nic víc v tom nebylo?" chtěl vědět Tommy.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
21.	English	There weren't many people Lu-Tze respected.
	Czech	Lidí, které LuTze respektoval, bylo málo.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	'Of course, they won't be living in 'em very long, because by the
		time the grey people have finished taking them to pieces to see how
22.		they work there won't be any belief left.'
22.	Czech	"Samozřejmě už v nich nebudou žít dlouho, protože ve chvíli, kdy
		se jich zmocní ti šedí hajzlíci, rozeberou je na molekuly, aby
		zjistili, jak vlastně takoví lidé a města fungují, a pak už žádná víra
		nezbude."

	Source	Markus Zusak - The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
23.	English	There was nothing left to give.
	Czech	Nic z něj už nezbylo.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
24.	English	There were speeches, large funds pledged.
	Czech	Přednášely se projevy, slibovaly se peníze.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	It was like when you make a move in chess and just as you take
		your finger off the piece, you see the mistake you've made, and
		there's this panic because you don't know yet the scale of disaster
25.		you've left yourself open to.
	Czech	Bylo to, jako když hrajete šachy, uděláte nějaký tah a sotva dáte
		prst z figurky, vidíte, jakou jste udělali chybu. Zmocní se vás
		panika, protože ještě neznáte rozsah katastrofy, které jste uvolnili
		cestu.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
26.	English	He could remember the time when there was only him.
	Czech	Pamatoval si dobu, kdy existoval jen on.

27.	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	For now, there was only the one as far as Liesel was concerned, and
		she was enjoying it.
	Czech	Ale pro Liesel tu teď byl jen jeden, a jí se v něm líbilo.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
28.	English	And there were other new defenders: the girls who had recently returned from the valley were allied in their minds with the Squirts, and when labour and birth seemed imminent, positioned themselves ready to snatch up a babe as it appeared, to hand it to the waiting eagles.
	Czech	A malé Zrůdy měly i další ochránce — dívky, které se nedávno vrátily z údolí, v duchu soucítily s Malíky, a když se schylovalo k porodu, byly připraveny uzmout dítě, jakmile přijde na svět, a odevzdat ho čekajícím orlům.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
29.	English	But there was another way, with Mrs Ogg.
	Czech	Ale byla tady jiná možnost. Jít s paní Oggovou.

20	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	There were other little incidents like that, and before long I came to
		see Miss Lucy as being not quite like the other guardians.
30.	Czech	Staly se ještě další podobné drobné příhody a já jsem zanedlouho
		začala chápat, že slečna Lucy není úplně stejná jako ostatní
		vychovatelky.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	But there are so many rules and exceptions, impossible to
31.		understand.
	Czech	Jenže existuje tolik zákazů a výjimek, že se v tom jeden absolutně
		nevyzná.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	The leaders of the different communities sometimes fought, and
		there were casualties, and the women sent protests and
32.		admonitions-but it was Horsa who ended the fighting.
	Czech	Vůdci různých společenství proti sobě občas bojovali, boje
		přinášely mrtvé a raněné a ženy se bouřily a nadávaly — tyto boje
		ukončil až Horsa.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	But they knew there was an interval after mating and then there
33.		was a baby, girl or boy.
	Czech	Ale věděly, že po páření trvá nějaký čas, než se narodí dítě, děvče
		či chlapec.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
34.	English	Hold on, there's a trick, isn't there?
	Czech	Tak počkej, v tom bude nějaký fígl, že?

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
35.	English	There were two guards.
	Czech	Byli tam dva průvodčí.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	He does that sometimes when there's a raid – he doesn't get to look
36.		much at the sky, you see.
	Czech	Někdy to při náletech dělá – moc často se na nebe koukat nemůže,
		víte.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
37.	English	'And if there are more raids, keep reading in the shelter.'
	Czech	"A jestli přijdou další nálety, čti ve sklepě dál."

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
38.	English	There is death.
	Czech	Je tady smrt.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
39.	English	'There were stars,' he said.
	Czech	"Byly tam hvězdy," odpověděl.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
40.	English	'There's fog and ash – I think they let us out too early.'
	Czech	"Je tam mlha a popel – myslím, že nás nechali vyjít moc brzo."

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
41.	English	There were dozens of them.
	Czech	Byl jich přinejmenším tucet.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
42.	English	There will only be one Norrellite magician and dozens of Strangite magicians.
	Czech	Na jednoho jediného norrellovského mága připadnou desítky
		strangeovských mágů.

43.	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	Lobsang ran after Lu-Tze, and saw there were hundreds – no,
		thousands – of the cylinders, some of them reaching all the way to
		the cavern roof.
	Czech	Lobsang se rozeběhl za LuTzem a všiml si, že jsou tady stovky ne,
		tisíce válců, z nichž některé dosahovaly až ke stropu jeskyně.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	There had always been plenty of those – small apocalypses, not the
44.		full shilling at all, fake apocalypses: apocryphal apocalypses.
	Czech	Těch vždycky bývalo dost – malé apokalypsy, sotva za pár korun,
		falešné apokalypsy, podvržené apokalypsy.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	There were plenty of empty caves, their possible inhabitants were
45.		over the mountain in the valley.
	Czech	Byla tu spousta prázdných jeskyní. Obyvatelé, pro něž byly
		původně určeny, žili v údolí na druhé straně hory.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
46.	English	It has been many years since all of that, but there is still plenty of
46.	_	work to do.
	Czech	Od toho všeho už utekla spousta let, ale pořád je co dělat.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	Then there was a bit of confusion as the rest of us all moved back
47.		our chairs from the little table all at once.
	Czech	Potom zavládl trochu zmatek, protože i my ostatní jsme všichni
		najednou odsunuli židle od stolku.

48.	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	Horsa pointed out that there were many different kinds of shore,
		none far away from the original one, and there was no need for the
		females to stay where they were.
	Czech	Horsa ženám říkal, že je mnoho jiných pobřeží, všechny nedaleko
		jejich stávajícího, a že tedy není třeba, aby zůstávaly tam, kde jsou.

49.	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	There is mention of mourning for this child, very different in empha
		sis from the careless, even indifferent, attitude towards much earlier deaths.
	Czech	Záznamy se zmiňují o žalu nad úmrtím tohoto dítěte, jež se tak lišil
		od bezstarostného až lhostejného přístupu k dřívějším zemřelým.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	A wicked man – readers could see he was wicked because it said he
		was wicked, right there on the page – built a clock of glass in which
		he captured Time herself, but things went wrong because there was
		one part of the clock, a spring, that he couldn't make out of glass,
50.		and it broke under the strain.
	Czech	Nějaký zlý člověk čtenáři věděli, že je zlý, protože se tam říkalo, že
		je zlý, hned na první stránce zkonstruoval hodiny, ve kterých
		uvěznil sám čas. Jenže se to všechno nějak zvrtlo, protože v
		hodinách byla součástka, pero, které se ze skla udělat nedalo, a to
		pod tím hrozným zatížením prasklo.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
51.	English	There was an overpowering smell of milk.
	Czech	Všude se vznášel nesmírně intenzivní pach mléka.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	When he saw the upside-down face of a girl above him, there was
		the fretful moment of unfamiliarity and the grasp for recollection –
52.		to decode exactly where and when he was currently sitting.
	Czech	Když nad sebou uviděl převrácenou dívčí tvář, přišla rozmrzelá
		chvíle, kdy nevnímal nic povědomého, a šmátrání po vzpomínkách
		– musel rozluštit, kde a kdy přesně to zrovna sedí.

	Source	Terry Pratchett - The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
53.	English	And then there was the matter of the face.
	Czech	A pak tady byla ta věc s obličejem.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
54.	English	There were disagreements, worse, bad quarrels.
	Czech	Provázely ji spory, ba hůře, ostré hádky.

55.	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There was music, soup and jokes, and the laughter of a fourteen-
		year-old girl.
	Czech	Muzika, polévka, vtipy a smích čtrnáctileté dívky.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There was the memory of him bent over in his coat and his
56.	_	appearance at the bonfire on the Führer's birthday.
	Czech	Vybavovala si ho, v kabátě a sehnutého, i jeho přítomnost u ohně o
		Hitlerových narozeninách.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
57.	English	But there's just too much talk like this.
	Czech	Ale podobných řečí je tu prostě nějak moc.

	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
58.	English	The first thing a student of magic learns is that there are books
		about magic and books of magic.
	Czech	Pustí-li se člověk do studia magie, brzy zjistí, že existují knihy o
		magii a knihy magie.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	But there was a real authority about the way Ruth had spoken, and
50		the three of us knew each other well enough to know there had to
59.		be something behind her words.
	Czech	Ale Ruth to řekla tak přesvědčivě a my tři jsme se tak dobře znali,
		že bylo jasné, že v jejích slovech musí být aspoň zrnko pravdy.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
60	English	As Hans soon discovered, there was also an alternative definition
60.	_	for the acronym.
	Czech	Hans brzy zjistil, že ta zkratka se dá vykládat i jinak.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
61.	English	And then there was that stuff with Miss Lucy.
	Czech	A pak přišlo to se slečnou Lucy.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	And there is something inherently implausible about males as
		subsidiary arrivals: it is evident that males are by nature and
62.		designed by Nature to be first.
	Czech	A tvrzení, že muži přišli na svět až jako druzí, je navíc nepřijatelné
		v samé podstatě: je totiž zjevné, že výsadní postavení mužů je
		přirozené a je určeno Přírodou.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	But there is something too raw and bleeding about the account of
63.		the cruelties to be a fake.
	Czech	Avšak tato zpráva popisuje krutosti až příliš hrubě a krvavě na to,
		aby šlo o padělek.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
64.	English	There is something rather admirable in all this, do you not agree?
	Czech	Na tom všem je něco docela obdivuhodného, nemyslíte?

65.	Source	Markus Zusak - The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There's a multitude of stories (a mere handful, as I have previously
		suggested) that I allow to distract me as I work, just as the colours
		do.
	Czech	Odehrála se nesmírná spousta příběhů (pouhá hrstka, jak už jsem
		dala na srozuměnou dřív), kterým jsem dovolila, aby mě při práci
		rozptylovaly a přiváděly mě na jiné myšlenky, stejně jako to dělají
		barvy.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	There was another reason the men could not be far: the little boys
		living here in the valley had gone with the men and that surely
66.		meant they must all be close.
	Czech	Byl tu ještě jeden důvod, proč muži nemohli být daleko — spolu s
		muži zmizeli I malí chlapci, kteří tu s nimi žili, a to znamenalo, že
		museli být někde blízko.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
67.	English	And if there are those who criticise us, then I have only one reply.
	Czech	A pokud nás někdo odsuzuje, povím mu jediné.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	This squat, solid, healthy female reached the Old Shes lying out on
		their rocks like stranded fish, and she smiled and said, 'There are
		things we need to talk about' – taking the initiative away from
68.		them.
	Czech	Tato zavalitá, mohutná, zdravím překypující žena došla ke Starším,
		jež polehávaly na svých skaliskách jako ryby uvízlé na suchu,
		usmála se a řekla: "Musíme si spolu promluvit." Tím převzala
		iniciativu na sebe.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	At least there was a species that could be persuaded to shoot itself
69.		in the foot.
	Czech	Konečně se objevil živočišný druh, který jste dokázali přesvědčit,
		aby se střelil třeba do nohy.

70.	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
	English	Then there is William Hadley-Bright who was one of Wellington's
		aides-de-camp at Waterloo, and an odd little man called Tom Levy
		who is presently employed as a dancing-master in Norwich.
	Czech	Pak je tu William Hadley – Bright, který u Waterloo sloužil jako
		Wellingtonův pobočník, a zvláštní človíček jménem Tom Levy,
		jenž je v současné době zaměstnaný jako učitel tance v Norwichi.

71.	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
	English	There is someone who means to bind her to a life of ceaseless misery!
	Czech	Někdo ji tu chce spoutat, připravit jí život plný nekonečného utrpení!

72.	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
	English	"There are certain precautions that are necessary to secure Mrs
		Strange's safety," explained Mr Norrell.
	Czech	"Je potřeba podniknout některá předběžná opatření k zajištění
		bezpečnosti paní Strangeové," vysvětlil pan Norrell.

73.	Source	Markus Zusak - The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There were still people who refused to believe that this small town
		on Munich's outskirts could be a target, but the majority of the
		population was well aware that it was not a question of if, but
		when.
	Czech	Pořád ještě byli lidé, kteří odmítali uvěřit, že by se to městečko u
		Mnichova mohlo stát terčem, ale většina obyvatel velmi dobře
		věděla, že nejde o to jestli, ale kdy.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	There was one Ruth who was always trying to impress the veterans,
		who wouldn't hesitate to ignore me, Tommy, any of the others, if
74.		she thought we'd cramp her style.
	Czech	Jedna Ruth, která se neustále snažila udělat dojem na veterány,
		která neváhala úplně ignorovat mě, Tommyho a kohokoliv jiného,
		pokud si myslela, že bychom jí pokazili styl.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	There was a character – a large woman who lived next door to the
		main characters – who did exactly what Susie did, so when her
		husband went off on a big spiel, the audience would be waiting for
		her to roll her eyes and say 'Gawd help us' so they could burst out
75.		with this huge laugh.
	Czech	Vystupovala tam jedna postava – taková velká ženská, která
		bydlela v sousedství hlavních hrdinů – a ta dělala přesně to, co
		Susie, takže když se její muž pustil do nějakých výkladů,
		obecenstvo čekalo, až obrátí oči v sloup a řekne "Panebože", aby
		mohlo propuknout v smích.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	But the thing was, after she'd taken it in and seen it was me, there
		was a clear second, maybe more, when she went on looking at me
76.		if not with fear, then with a real wariness.
	Czech	Ale šlo o to, že když jí to došlo a ona poznala, že jsem to já, tak
		vteřinu nebo možná i déle na mě zírala, když ne se strachem, tedy
		aspoň s ostražitostí.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	There was a rumour that he was religious and dead against not just
77.		porn, but sex in general.
	Czech	Vykládalo se o něm, že je nábožensky založený a že není zaujatý
		jenom proti pornu, ale proti sexu vůbec.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
78.	English	There was one I noticed on the way out.
	Czech	Když jsme jeli sem, tak jsem si jednoho takovýho všimla.

79.	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	There was one of those pauses when no-one is quite ready to speak.
	Czech	Pak nastala jedna z těch přestávek, kdy vlastně nikdo není
		připraven hovořit.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	But there was definitely an understanding that you didn't mention
80.		these trips out in the open.
	Czech	Ale každopádně platila taková nepsaná dohoda, že na veřejnosti se
		o těchhle cestách otevřeně nemluví.

81.	Source	Terry Pratchett - The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	The horse was black, glistening with condition, and there was this
		about it that was odd: it shone as though it was illuminated by a red light.
	Czech	Kůň byl černý, srst se mu blýskala a bylo na něm něco zvláštního.
		Zvíře se blýskalo, jako kdyby ho odněkud osvětlovala rudá záře.

	Source	Terry Pratchett - The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	'I'm just wondering if there is anything about this situation that
82.		makes you, you know slightly nervous?'
	Czech	"Jenom mě napadlo, jestli na celé té situaci není něco, z čeho byste
		byli alespoň trochu nervózní."

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There was also an acknowledgment that there was great beauty in
83.		what she was currently witnessing, and she chose not to disturb it.
	Czech	Bylo též třeba uznat, že v tom, čeho je právě svědkem, je mnoho
		krásy, a ona se rozhodla, že ji nenaruší.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
	English	The campo was crowded with people: there were Venetian ladies
		coming to Santa Maria Zobenigo, Austrian soldiers strolling about
		arm-in-arm and looking at everything, shopkeepers trying to sell
84.		them things, urchins fighting and begging, cats going about their
		secret business.
	Czech	Na carapu se tísnila spousta lidí: benátské ženy vcházely do kostela
		Santa Maria Zobenigo, rakouští vojáci se procházeli zavěšení do
		sebe a všechno si prohlíželi, obchodníci se jim snažili leccos
		prodat, uličníci se prali a žebrali a kočky chodily po tajných
		pochůzkách.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	Rodney's doing a little dance to demonstrate what a good feeling
85.		there is.
	Czech	Rodney předvádí taneček, aby dal najevo, jaká tu panuje skvělá
		atmosféra.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	Rage there was, but it was misreported, misunderstood, as a single
86.		defining confrontation.
	Czech	Ten Hněv byl skutečný, avšak byl nesprávně pochopen a vykládán
		jako jediný, přesně vymezený spor.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
87.	English	'Now there was a lady with style,' said Chaos.
	Czech	"Řeknu ti, tahle dáma tedy měla opravdu styl," řekl Chaos.

8.1.2. Existentials with adverbials

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
88.	English	But there isn't room for all of it in here.
	Czech	Ale nebylo tady pro všechny ty věci dost místa.

	Source	Doris Lessing - The Cleft/Puklina
	English	There is nothing here like the raw angry fragment (which I did not
		copy out because of its relishing vindictive cruelty) which is the
89.		very first we hear from the Clefts.
	Czech	Zdaleka se nepodobá onomu syrovému zlostnému fragmentu (který
		jsem tu neuváděl kvůli jeho pomstychtivé krutosti), jenž je prvním
		dokladem o Puklinách.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
90.	English	There was no anger in her eyes, just a kind of wariness.
	Czech	V jejích očích nebyla žádná zloba, jen jakási ostražitost.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	It is in the story that there had never been that kind of quarrel
91.		before.
	Czech	Tak to stojí v historii, že ještě nikdy předtím nebyly mezi námi
		takové hádky.

	Source	Markus Zusak - The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There was a small portion of guilt at first, but the plan was perfect,
92.		or at least as close to perfect as it could be.
	Czech	Byla v tom zpočátku špetka provinilosti, ale plán to byl dokonalý,
		nebo se alespoň dokonalosti přiblížil natolik, jak to jen bylo možné.

	Source	Doris Lessing - The Cleft/Puklina
	English	A great pack of the stuff, and while there was some kind of order in
93.	_	it, it was not necessarily how I would have arranged it.
	Czech	Byl to obrovský balík, a přestože měl ve skutečnosti jistý řád, ne
		vždy se shodoval s tím, jak bych ho uspořádal já.

	Source	Markus Zusak - The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
94.	English	There were a few weeks before he started painting.
	Czech	Než se pustil do malování, uběhlo ještě pár týdnů.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	Yes, there was too much of the theoretical here even for Horsa who
		is revealed by this 'edict' to be one of those leaders who would
95.		expect difficulties simply to melt away.
	Czech	Ano, bylo v tom až příliš teorie, a to i na Horsu, jehož tento
		"výnos" řadí mezi ty vůdce, kteří mají pocit, že se těžkosti vyřeší
		samy od sebe.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	Oh yes, there was a lot of support for our movement back then, the
96.		tide was with us.
	Czech	Ano, tenkrát mělo naše hnutí obrovskou podporu, veřejné mínění
		bylo s námi.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	Following Madame's example, I listened too, but there was only
97.		silence in the house.
	Czech	Následovala jsem příkladu Madam a taky jsem se zaposlouchala,
		ale v domě bylo úplné ticho.

	Source	Terry Pratchett - The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	There is a terrible habit amongst horsy people to call a white horse
		'grey', but even one of that bowlegged fraternity would have had to
		admit that this horse, at least, was white – not as white as snow,
98.		which is a dead white, but at least as white as milk, which is alive.
	Czech	Lidé od koní mají příšerný zvyk říkat všem bílým koním šedák, ale
		v tomto případě by musel každý z toho křivonohého bratrstva
		připustit, že přinejmenším tenhle kůň je bílý ne bílý jako sníh, který
		je mrtvolně bledý, ale bílý jako mléko, které je vlaze živé.

	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
99.	English	He appeared to be in excellent spirits, and bowed and smiled and walked to and fro so much that five minutes later there was scarcely an inch of carpet in the room that he had not stood upon, a table or chair he had not lightly and caressingly touched, a mirror he had not danced across, a painting that he had not for a moment smiled upon.
	Czech	Podle všeho měl výbornou náladu a ukláněl se, usmíval se a chodil sem a tam takovým způsobem, že během pěti minut by se sotva našel centimetr čtvereční koberce, na němž by nestanul, stůl či židle, které by lehce nepohladil, zrcadlo, před nímž by neprotančil, a obraz, na nějž by se nakrátko neusmál.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
100.	English	There are certainly too many people in London, but it seems a great
		deal of work to make them leave one at a time.
	Czech	V Londýně je sice lidí příliš, připadá mi ale velmi pracné nutit je k
		odchodu po jednom.

101	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
101.	English	There is a very fine piece of moss-oak hereabouts.
	Czech	Tady někde se dá najít vynikající rašeliništní dub.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
102.	English	There was a peculiar look of contentment on Rudy's face.
	Czech	Rudy měl v tváři jakési zvláštní uspokojení.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There was great dread in that vision, especially the moment when
103.		he was forced to remove his hands.
	Czech	V tom vidění byla I veliká hrůza, zvlášť v té chvíli, kdy ho donutili,
		aby spustil ruce.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	There are remarks in the females' records that the boys were
		clumsy, seemed to lack a feeling for their surroundings, and were
104.		inept and did not understand that if they did this, then that would
		follow.
	Czech	V ženských záznamech se objevují zmínky o tom, že chlapci byli
		nedbalí, jako by nebrali ohled na své okolí, byli hloupí a nechápali,
		že pokud udělají toto, pak bude následovat tamto.

105.	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
	English	But there are one or two things in Goubert's Gatekeeper of Apollo which look promising.
	Czech	Ale jedna dvě pasáže v Goubertově Apollónově strážci vypadají nadějně.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
106.	English	Even between the two of us there was too much and I dropped a
100.		couple of things on the way.
	Czech	Bylo toho dost i pro dva a mně taky po cestě sem tam něco upadlo.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
107.	English	Earlier, there had been a parade.
	Czech	O něco dříve šel kolem průvod.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	Somewhere at the start of November, there were some progress
108.		tests at school.
	Czech	Někdy na začátku listopadu se ve škole konaly jakési postupové
		testy.

8.2. Existential-locative type

8.2.1. Existential-locatives

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
109.	English	There was no edge here.
	Czech	Tady ovšem žádnou výhodu neobjevil.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	But now there was no one between Madame and us, and as Tommy
110.		kept closing the gap, I had to grab his arm to slow him down.
	Czech	Jenže mezi námi a ní nikdo nebyl, a jak Tommy zkracoval
		vzdálenost, musela jsem ho vzít za loket a trochu ho zbrzdit.

111	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
111.	English	"There is no one here!" cried Dr Greysteel.
	Czech	"Nikdo tu není!" vykřikl doktor Greysteel.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
112.	English	There was, of course, nothing there.
	Czech	Tam, samozřejmě, nic nebylo.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
112		& Pan Norrell
113.	English	There was no surgeon nearer than ten miles away.
	Czech	K nejbližšímu lékaři to bylo víc než deset mil.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	There was hardly anyone else about, so I could see an unbroken
114.		line of wet paving stones stretching on in front of me.
	Czech	Nebyli tam skoro žádní lidé, takže jsem viděla, jak se přede mnou
		rozprostírá nepřerušovaná linie mokrých dlažebních kostek.

115.	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
	English	There is probably not a man among them who does not have a brother or cousin in some other French regiment.
	Czech	Není mezi nimi snad jediný, který by neměl bratra či bratrance v
	Czecn	nějakém dalším francouzském pluku.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	Except this time there was something else, something extra in that
116.		look I couldn't fathom.
	Czech	Až na to, že tentokrát v tom pohledu bylo ještě něco jiného, něco
		dalšího, co jsem nedokázala pochopit.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
117.	English	'There's a Jew in my basement.'
	Czech	"Mám ve sklepě Žida."

118.	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	'No, there's six in one of W&B's Gold Selections,' said Susan.
	Czech	"Nebyly, ještě je jich šest ve Zlaté bonboniéře W & B," zavrtěla
		hlavou Zuzana.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
	English	Lord PORTISHEAD devotes a long chapter of his book to trying to
		prove that JOHN USKGLASS is not, as is commonly supposed, the
119.		founder of English Magic since there were magicians in these
		islands before his time.
	Czech	Lord PORTISHEAD věnoval jednu dlouhou kapitolu své knihy
		pokusu dokázat, že JOHN USKGLASS není, jak se běžně
		předpokládá, zakladatelem anglické magie, neboť na těchto
		ostrovech působili mágové ještě před jeho narozením.

120	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
120.	English	There were two doors ahead of them.
	Czech	Před nimi stály dvoje dveře.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	I think it's supposed to be South America, because there are palms
121.		behind her and swarthy waiters in white tuxedos.
	Czech	Myslím, že to mělo být v Jižní Americe, protože za ní jsou palmy a
		snědí číšníci v bílém smokingu.

122.	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	There were shelters down there, but she had never seen anything of
		the kind.
	Czech	Tam dole stály přístřešky, nic takového nikdy neviděla.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	Yes, there were high water-line marks on their cave walls, big
		waves must at some time have come rushing up, more than once,
123.		but these were creatures of the sea.
	Czech	Ano, na stěnách jejich jeskyní byly stopy po zvýšené vodní hladině,
		jistě více než jedenkrát stoupaly z moře obrovské vlny, avšak
		Pukliny byly tvory moře.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	There was not only this ferocious type of pig, but a kind of feline,
		very large, able to defeat a porker, or more, and we know there
124.		were many of these in the forest.
	Czech	Nežili tu pouze tito divocí kanci, ale také veliké kočky, které
		dokázaly zabít vepře I větší zvíře, a víme, že v lese jich bylo
		mnoho.

105	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
125.	English	There were canals of still water in stone embankments.
	Czech	Byla tam kamenná nábřeží a kanály se stojatou vodou.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
126.	English	It seemed impossible that such a very loud noise should have come out of such a very small bird and Stephen concluded that there was another person in the cart, someone he had not yet been privileged to see.
	Czech	Zdálo se mu nemožné, aby tak malý pták vydával tak hlasitý zvuk. Stephen tedy usoudil, že v povozu je ještě jeden člověk, s nímž
		zatím neměl tu čest.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
127.	English	I will take up your cause, oppose him with all my might and find
		arguments to vex him – and then there shall still be two magicians
12/.		in England and two opinions upon magic.
	Czech	Budu se brát za vaši věc, postavím se mu celou svou mocí a najdu
		argumenty, které ho rozčílí – a pak tu v Anglii pořád budou dva
		mágové a dva náhledy na magii.
	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
128.	English	There's bits of history everywhere and we've lost half the spinners!
	Czech	Všude poletují kusy historie a ztratili jsme víc než polovinu vřeten!
	-	
	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
129.	English	There is a much better place a little further along.
	Czech	Jeden takový je kousek odtud.
	Source	Markus Zusak - The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There was the trace of a grin on her face as she and Rudy Steiner,
130.		her best friend, handed out the pieces of bread on the road.
	Czech	Jak s Rudym Steinerem, jejím nejlepším kamarádem, rozkládali po
		silnici kousky chleba, objevil se jí ve tváři náznak úsměvu.
	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	There's at least one person here at Hailsham who believes
131.		otherwise.
	Czech	V Hailshamu je přinejmenším jeden člověk, který má na věc jiný
		názor.
		,
	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
132.	English	Mr Palmer did not wish to buy the house, but a friend had told him
102.		that there was a library there worth examining.
	Czech	Pan Palmer si tento dům nepřál koupit, ale od přítele slyšel, že
		tamější knihovna stojí za prohlédnutí.
	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
122	English	He felt excessively pleased at the thought and rather wished there
133.		were someone there to see him do it and be astonished.
	Czech	To pomyšlení ho nesmírně těšilo a docela litoval, že ho tu nikdo
		nevidí, a že tudíž ani nemůže nikoho ohromit.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
134.	English	There is something in her pictures, altogether lively and pretty which
	Czech	Na jejích obrazech je cosi převelice živého a krásného, co

135.	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	That there was some sort of communion between them was evident,
		but what was it?
	Czech	Že je mezi nimi jakési pouto, bylo zjevné, avšak co to bylo?

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
136.	English	There was paint and blood on his hands.
	Czech	Na rukou měl barvu a krev.

125	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
137.	English	His eyes were empty and there was a slight dew upon his brow.
	Czech	Oči měl prázdné a čelo mírně orosené.

	Source	Markus Zusak - The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	On the ration cards of Nazi Germany, there was no listing for
138.		punishment, but everyone had to take their turn.
	Czech	Na přídělových kartách nacistického Německa sice položka" trest"
		nebyla, ale přijít si musel každý.

120	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
139.	English	On the right there was another lady.
	Czech	Po pravé straně se nacházela další dáma.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	A few days before Christmas, there was another raid, although
140.		nothing dropped on the town of Molching.
	Czech	Pár dní před Vánoci přišel další nálet, na Molching ale nic
		neshodili.

8.2.2. Existential-locatives with participle + adverbial modification

	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
1.41	English	& Pan Norrell it heaped itself on top of the millstones and the rocks until there
141.		was a hill standing there as high as the sides of the dale.
	Czech	Země a skály se rozpukaly, navršily se na mlýnské kameny a
		balvany, až tam nakonec stál kopec stejně vysoký jako úbočí údolí.
	.	
	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
142.	English	There was a cracked, cheap looking-glass hanging on the wall.
	Czech	Na zdi viselo popraskané, od pohledu laciné zrcadlo.
	CZCCII	The Zer visere populatione, ou pointed interior Zroudie.
	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
143.	English	There was also a scythe leaning against the back of the armchair.
	Czech	O opěradlo křesla se opírala kosa.
	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
	English	For one horrible moment he thought that his mouth was full of bees
144.		and that there were bees buzzing and flying under his skin, in his
		guts and his ears.
	Czech	Na chvíli se ho zmocnil příšerný pocit, že má ústa plná včel a že
		mu včely bzučí a létají pod kůží, ve střevech a v uších.
	Source	Markus Zusak - The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
145.	English	'There's a Jew and a German standing in a basement, right?'
	Czech	"To takhle stojí ve sklepě Žid a Němec"
		J 1
	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	When I'd finished, there was a funny sort of silence hanging in the
		dark, and I realised everyone was waiting for Ruth's response –
146.		which was usually what happened whenever something a bit
140.		awkward came up.
	Czech	Když jsem skončila, viselo ve tmě takové zvláštní ticho, a já jsem
		si uvědomila, že všichni čekají, jak zareaguje Ruth. Tak se to
		stávalo vždycky, když přišlo na přetřes něco lehce nemístného.
	Τα	D ' I ' TH GL 6/D 11'
1.45	Source	Doris Lessing - The Cleft/Puklina
147.	English	There are always clouds building up there, we can all see that.
	Czech	Tam v dáli jsou pouze mračna, to vidíme všichni.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	But there was something new, hovering in the air just a few inches
148.		above the ground right where the old man had been.
	Czech	Ale ve vzduchu, několik decimetrů nad místem, kde stařík předtím
		byl, se vznášelo něco nového, něco, co tam dřív nebylo.

149.	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	The thing was, Tommy must have been sitting on the ground
		earlier, because there was a sizeable chunk of mud stuck on his
		rugby shirt near the small of his back.
	Czech	Šlo o to, že Tommy asi musel předtím sedět někde na zemi, protože
		měl na zadku slušně velkou skvrnu od bláta.

150.	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
	English	There once was a very fine town stood on the coast of Yorkshire whose citizens began to wonder why it was that their King, John
		Uskglass, should require taxes from them.
	Czech	Na pobřeží Yorkshiru stálo kdysi velice hezké město, jehož
		obyvatelé se jednoho dne začali podivovat, proč po nich jejich Král,
		John Uskglass, požaduje daně.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
151.	English	There was a harness attached to each board.
	Czech	Na druhé straně desky bylo kožené řemení.

	Source	Markus Zusak - The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
152.	English	As always, there was a tight circle crowded around them.
	Czech	Jako vždycky se kolem nich sevřel těsný kruh.

8.3. Modal type

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
153.	English	There was no question now of controlling them.
	Czech	Nyní již bylo zcela nemožné je přimět k poslušnosti.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
154.	English	There's no chance of getting air into it now, is there?'
	Czech	Do toho už vzduch nedostaneš, přece."

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	A doe stood its ground, unafraid: there was no reason yet for any
155.		animal to fear our kind.
	Czech	Laň stála nebojácně bez hnutí — tehdy ještě nemělo žádné zvíře
		důvod k obavám z našeho druhu.

156.	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
	English	Immediately the Frenchman called out to his compatriots that there was no reason to be afraid;
	Czech	Onen Francouz tedy okamžitě zavolal na své krajany, že se nemají proč bát;

	Source	Doris Lessing - The Cleft/Puklina
157.	English	They could not share a cave with the others: and there was no
137.		reason to.
	Czech	Nemohly být v jeskyni s ostatními a také nebylo třeba.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	Some modern books, by people like Edna O'Brien and Margaret
		Drabble, had some sex in them, but it wasn't ever very clear what
		was happening because the authors always assumed you'd already
158.		had a lot of sex before and there was no need to go into details.
130.	Czech	V některých novějších knihách, třeba od Edny O'Brienové a
		Margaret Drabbleové, se sice o sexu psalo, ale nebylo moc jasné, co
		se vlastně děje, protože autorky vždycky předpokládají, že čtenář
		má se sexem spoustu zkušeností a že tedy není nutné zabíhat do
		detailů.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	They stood silent under the trees which had looked over their
		childhood and there was
		nothing to spoil their memories but the three women they had
159.		brought with them, and who had protested at the men's insistence
		that they must come.
	Czech	Stáli tiše pod stromy, jež dohlížely na jejich dětství, a jejich
		vzpomínky nemohlo pokazit nic, kromě tří žen, jež vzali s sebou,
		přestože s nimi jít nechtěly.

160	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
160.	English	There was hardly any one to be seen.
	Czech	Ve vesnici vládlo ticho, skoro nikdo nebyl vidět.

	Source	Doris Lessing - The Cleft/Puklina
161.	English	There was nothing the women could do.
	Czech	Ženy zde nic nesvedly.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan
		Strange & Pan Norrell
	English	It is an extraordinary thing that a man such as Mr Norrell – a man
		who had destroyed the careers of so many of his fellow-magicians
		– should be able to convince himself that he would rather all the
162.		glory of his profession belonged to one of them, but there is no
		doubt that Mr Norrell believed it when he said it.
	Czech	Je pozoruhodné, že člověk jako Norrell – člověk, jenž zmařil
		kariéry tolika kolegů mágů – se dokázal přesvědčit, že by byl
		raději, kdyby veškerá sláva jeho profese připadla někomu z nich,
		nebylo ovšem pochyb, že tomu pan Norrell věřil, když to vyslovil.

163.	Source	Markus Zusak - The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There was no way she was getting into any bath, or into bed for
		that matter.
	Czech	Do žádné vany ji ani náhodou nedostanou, a do postele taky ne.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	There was no way we could get past, so we just waited.
164.	Czech	Já a Tommy jsme měli chuť se vytratit, ale George zrovna
		pomáhal slečně Emily do kabátu. Ta stála pevně mezi svými
		berlemi a my jsme kolem ní nemohli projít, tak jsme čekali.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
165.	English	There's no question Ruth was keen to keep the whole thing going.
	Czech	Nebylo pochyb, že Ruth chtěla, aby ta záležitost pokračovala.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	But I was thinking, well, there's no reason why I should keep it all
166.		secret any more.'
	Czech	Ale říkal jsem si, že možná není důvod, proč bych to měl dál před
		ostatníma tajit."

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
167.	English	There's nothing you can do?'
	Czech	Nemůžete nic udělat?"

	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
168.	English	Upon my word, there is nothing in the world so easy to explain as
100.		failure – it is, after all, what every body does all the time.
	Czech	Dejte na mne, nic na světě se nevysvětluje snadněji než neúspěch
		 vždyť to koneckonců dělá každý a pořád.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro - Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	Then if he's still not prepared to be sensible, I'll know there's no
169.		point carrying on with him.
	Czech	A když ani potom nezačne bejt rozumnej, tak budu vědět, že nemá
		cenu o něj ještě stát.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
170.	English	What need had there ever been to define time?
	Czech	K čemu bylo třeba dříve určovat čas?

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
171.	English	Igor grimaced, but there was the Code to think of.
	Czech	Igor udělal ošklivý obličej, ale pak si rychle připomenul Kód.

	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange
		& Pan Norrell
	English	Naturally there were introductions and explanations to get through
172.		(Henry Woodhope had not known Strange was coming) and for the
		moment Strange's unexpected announcement was forgotten.
	Czech	Přirozeně došlo na představování a vysvětlování (Henry Woodhope
		nevěděl, že má Strange přijet), a tak se na Strangeovo nečekané
		oznámení na chvíli zapomnělo.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
173.	English	She removed the sheets closest to the wall until there was a small
173.		corridor to look through.
	Czech	Odsunula povlaky nejblíž u zdi, až se vytvořil úzký průhled.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
174.	English	There was even the possibility she wasn't telling the truth.
	Czech	Naskýtala se dokonce možnost, že nemluví pravdu.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
175.	English	'The sign on the stairs said there was no admittance.'
	Czech	"Ta tabulka na schodišti říkala, že je sem zakázaný vstup."

	Source	Doris Lessing - The Cleft/Puklina
	English	They were a little shamefaced, but not much, though Horsa was
176.		angry, and said there must not be more provocations of this kind.
	Czech	Tvářili se trochu zahanbeně, avšak nikoli příliš, i když Horsa se
		zlobil a řekl, že podobné výstřelky již se nesmí opakovat.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	The senior monks well, there could be no such thing as bad
		thoughts amongst people so enlightened, but it is true that the sight
		of Lu-Tze ambling insolently through the temple did tarnish a few
177.		karmas.
1//.	Czech	Starší mniši řekněme to takhle mezi lidmi tak osvícenými
		nemohlo existovat nic takového jako zlé myšlenky, ale je pravda,
		že pohled na LuTzeho, který se s bohorovným klidem šourá
		chrámem a jinými svatými prostorami, už očadil mnohou
		křišťálovou karmu.

170	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
178.	English	There must be something you desire above all else?
	Czech	Něco přece musíte chtít nade vše jiné, ne?

179.	Source	Doris Lessing - The Cleft/Puklina
	English	Of course boys will venture into danger, and there must be
		accidents.
	Czech	Samozřejmě že chlapce láká nebezpečí a nehody k tomu patří.

	Source	Terry Pratchett - The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
180.	English	'There must be something, even if it's only debris!'
	Czech	"Něco tam být musí, kdyby to byly třeba jen trosky!"

	Source	Susanna Clarke - Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
181.		& Pan Norrell
101.	English	"Yet there must be a carriage somewhere," he thought.
	Czech	"Ale stejně tady někde musí být kočár," pomyslel si.

8.4. Action type

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
182.	English	There was no sound of footsteps in the alley.
	Czech	Z uličky nebylo slyšet zvuk kroků.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
183.	English	To begin with, there was no sound of reply, but he soon sat up and
183.	_	searched the darkness.
	Czech	Nejdřív se neozýval, ale pak se posadil a šmátral ve tmě.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	Down below there was the sound of metal on metal, and then of
184.		urgent gushing water.
	Czech	Odněkud zdola k nim dolehl zvuk kovu skřípějícího po kovu a pak
		hlasité bublání prudce tekoucí vody.

185.	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There was the sound of opening and dragging, and then the fuzzy
		silence who followed.
	Czech	Ozval se zvuk otevírání a tahaní, a pak přišlo rozmazané ticho.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
186.	English	Sometimes there was the faint sound of waves, or a jungle.
	Czech	Někdy je to prý šplouchání vln, jindy zvuky pralesa.

187.	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	There was a rattle of cutlery and a moment of uncertainty regarding
		a vase of flowers, but almost all the tableware remained in place.
	Czech	Zařinčely příbory, nastal kratičký okamžik nejistoty, který se týkal
		především vázy s květinami, ale jinak téměř vše, co bylo původně
		na stole, zůstalo na své místě.

188.	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
	English	There were gasps of shock, and one or two nervous laughs.
100.	Czech	Ozvala se šokovaná nadechnutí a několik přítomných se nervózně
		zasmálo.

100	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
189.	English	There was a burst of silver lights in the room.
	Czech	Místnost se prudce rozzářila stříbrným světlem.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
190.	English	Of course, there was also the scratchy feeling of sin.
	Czech	A pochopitelně tu byl i svědivý pocit, že hřeší.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There was even some laughter about the tremendous nurse and the
191.		look on Jürgen Schwarz's face.
	Czech	Dokonce došla posměchu obrovitá sestra a to, jak se tvářil Jürgen
		Schwarz.

192.	Source	Susanna Clarke – Jonathan Strange & Mr Norrell/Jonathan Strange & Pan Norrell
	English	When she could speak again, she said, "there is no engagement.
	Czech	Když konečně mohla zase mluvit, řekla mu:" Nejsme zasnoubení.

	Source	Terry Pratchett – The Thief of Time/Zloděj času
193.	English	'There have been complaints?' said Miss Susan.
	Czech	"Někdo si stěžoval?" zeptala se slečna Zuzana.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
194.	English	There were speeches, large funds pledged.
	Czech	Přednášely se projevy, slibovaly se peníze.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	It seemed at first there was a sheer drop down to the sands, but
		once you leant over the rail, you could see zigzagging footpaths
195.		leading you down the cliff-face to the seafront.
	Czech	Nejdřív to vypadalo, že prudce klesá na písčinu, ale když jsme se
		naklonili přes zábradlí, viděli jsme úzkou stezičku, vedoucí cikcak
		po přední straně útesu dolů k moři.

196.	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	There had been successive complaints from both, and all the
		differing versions described the same thing, unnecessary
		multiplications of the 'Rage'.
	Czech	Obě strany si neustále mnohé vyčítaly a celá ta řada různících se
		zpráv popisuje jeden a tentýž zbytečně znásobený" Hněv".

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
	English	The depletion of both the communities was such that there was
		speculation by the Memories that it would take very little to wipe
197.		out all the people living on the shores and the valley.
	Czech	Obě společenství se ztenčila do té míry, že podle úvah Pamětnic
		bývalo stačilo jen velmi málo k tomu, aby vymřeli veškeří lidé
		žijící na pobřeží I v údolí.

	Source	Kazuo Ishiguro – Never let me go/Neopouštěj mě
	English	It was only when I was virtually right up to them – maybe there
		was
198.		a look exchanged between them – that it suddenly hit me what was
		about to happen.
	Czech	Teprve když jsem byla prakticky u nich – možná se na sebe nějak
		divně podívaly –, tak mi došlo, co se stane.

	Source	Markus Zusak – The Book Thief/Zlodějka knih
	English	There were several attempts to snatch at them, but it was the
199.		mayor's wife who took the initiative.
	Czech	Pár pokusů je popadnout, ale pak se iniciativy chopila starostova
		žena.

	Source	Doris Lessing – The Cleft/Puklina
200.	English	There was constant visiting.
	Czech	Navzájem se nepřetržitě navštěvovali.