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BAKALÁŘSKÁ PRÁCE

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Popis funkcí a překladových protějšků slovesných *-ing* tvarů – různé překladatelské přístupy

Verbal *-ing* forms: their functions and translation counterparts

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ABSTRACT:

The present thesis focuses on the verbal *-ing* forms in the written language and their Czech translation counterparts. The theoretical part describes the morphologic and the syntactic features of the verbal *-ing* forms, their basic distinctions and a brief description of complex condensation, which is a result of the use of non-finite verb forms in both languages.

The aim of the practical part is to analyze the use and the functions of verbal *-ing* forms in modern English fiction and the Czech translation counterparts: each of the two original texts will be compared with its two different Czech translations published in the intervals from early 1930's to 2004. The analysis presents a brief description of the development of modern Czech translation approaches to English verbal *-ing* forms, the common tendencies and individual translation solutions in contemporary Czech translations.

ABSTRAKT:

Bakalářská práce se zaměřuje na slovesné *-ing* tvary v psané angličtině a jejich české překladové protějšky. Teoretická část popisuje morfologické a syntaktické vlastnosti anglických slovesných *-ing* forem, jejich základní rozdělení a stručně vysvětluje komplexní kondenzaci, která je v obou jazycích výsledkem užívání nefinitních tvarů.

Cílem praktické části je analyzovat užívání a funkce slovesných *-ing* tvarů v anglické próze a popsat česká překladová řešení. Dva původní anglické texty jsou porovnány se svými dvěma českými překlady, které byly publikovány mezi 30. léty až do roku 2004. Analýza stručně popisuje vývoj českých překladových přístupů, společných tendencí a individuálních překladových řešení týkajících se překladu anglických slovesných *-ing* tvarů.

Contents

List of abbreviations

List of tables and diagrams

1. Introduction	8
2. Theoretical background	9
2.1. Non-finite verb forms	9
2.2. <i>-ing</i> forms	9
2.2.1. Morphology	9
2.2.2. Participle	10
2.2.2.1. <i>-ing</i> participle v. participial adjective	11
2.2.2.2. Syntactic functions of the <i>-ing</i> participles	12
2.2.3. Gerund	13
2.2.3.1. Gerund v. noun	14
2.2.3.2. Syntactic functions of gerund	14
2.2.4. Gerund v. participle	15
2.2.5. Verbal <i>-ing</i> forms in non-finite clauses	16
2.2.6. Approaches to the distinction between gerund and participle	17
2.3. Complex condensation	19
2.3.1. The Czech translations of English <i>-ing</i> condensers	21
3. Material and method	24
3.1. Research part	28
3.2. The gerund distribution	29
3.2.1. Syntactic functions of the gerund in the original texts	29
3.2.2. Translations of gerund forms	30
3.2.2.1. The degree of correspondence between the two translation pairs	31
3.3. The present participle distribution	34
3.3.1. Syntactic functions of English present participles in original texts	34
3.3.2. The Czech translations of the English present participles	35
3.3.3. The degree of correspondence between the translation pairs	37
3.3.4. The translations of absolute constructions	39
3.4. Complex condensation in the Czech translations	41
4. Conclusion	43

5. References	49
6. Summary (Shrnuti)	50
7. Appendix	52

List of abbreviations

CamDict Cambridge Dictionary

LDict Longman Dictionary

C_o Object complement

List of tables and diagrams

Figure 1: Participle forms in English

Figure 2: Gerund forms in English

Table 1: Proportion of the *-ing* forms

Table 2: Czech realizations of English gerund

Table 3: Syntactic functions of participles in the original texts

Table 4: The Czech translations of English present participles

Table 5: The use of condensation in the Czech translations

Table 6: Diachronic overview of the translation strategies in the individual translations

Diagram 1: Syntactic functions of the gerund

Diagram 2: The degree of correspondence between the Czech translations of English gerunds

Diagram 3: The degree of correspondence of present participles between the translation pairs

Diagram 4: The alternatives of transgressives in translation pair Hruša/Skoumal

Diagram 5: The degree of correspondence between the Czech translation pairs – overview

1. INTRODUCTION

The use of non-finite verb forms as syntactic elements presents one of the distinctive features between English and Czech. English tends to use nominalization more than Czech, which uses finite clauses instead. This distinction is caused mainly by the fact that the English verb system, unlike the Czech system, is enriched by a gerundial form. Moreover, all non-finite verbs distinguish present and past/perfective forms. Non-finite verb forms in English distinguish voice and temporal relations with respect to the finite verb in the main clause. The tendency to use nominalization leads to the so-called complex condensation, which is more salient in English than in Czech. (Dušková, 2006: 266)

The present thesis is based on the assumption that the distinctions between the English and Czech system of non-finite verbs may result in translation difficulties. The thesis deals with the verbal *-ing* forms, which represent one group of the condensers in English. In the Czech translations, the English *-ing* verb forms tend to be translated by various expressions including the finite clauses, non-clausal elements or transgressives. Despite the fact that the Czech transgressives are syntactically close to the English participles, their use in the translations is gradually dying out and transgressives are being replaced mostly by finite clauses.

The aim of the thesis is to analyze the main tendencies and translation choices in the Czech translations of the English verbal *-ing* forms. The thesis will focus on a description of the functions of the verbal *-ing* forms in the selected texts of English fiction and a comparison of each English non-finite element with its two different Czech translations from both synchronic and diachronic point of view.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. NON-FINITE VERB FORMS

The forms of English verbs can be either finite or non-finite (i.e. an infinitive, a participle and a gerund). The finite verb forms express all morphological categories of a verb (i.e. person, number, tense, mood and voice). The only syntactic function of a finite verb is that of a predicate. As such, the English finite verb reflects a grammatical concord with its subject in person and number unlike a non-finite verb form, which distinguishes neither person nor number. In fact, only the voice and partly a temporal system are applicable to the non-finite verb forms. (Dušková 2006: 165)

2.2. *-ING* FORMS

Although the use of all three non-finite verb forms overlaps in certain situations, we will focus only on the *-ing* forms – a present and perfective participle and a gerund. Both forms are formed by the same process of adding the *-ing* suffix, yet their semantic and syntactic functions in a sentence may differ. They are devices of the so-called nominalization, which is typical of English rather than Czech. Moreover, the position of a gerund in English grammar is interesting for two reasons. Firstly, the Czech language lacks literal counterparts of non-finite gerund clauses and secondly, the distinction between a gerund and a participle is often questioned because of the many features they have in common. Therefore, both issues will be discussed respectively in the following sections.

2.2.1. MORPHOLOGY

In the English verb system there are four inflectional forms for regular lexical verbs and four or five forms for the irregular ones – bare infinitive, *-(e)s* form, and *-ing* form are common for all verbs. The regular *-ed* suffix, which expresses both the preterite tense and the past participle, corresponds to two different forms in the majority of irregular verbs. (Dušková et al. 2006: 166)

The *-ing* forms are formed regularly by adding of the *-ing* suffix to the verb base. However, there are several considerations concerning their spelling form. The first consideration is a doubling of the final consonant of the base in the case when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelt with a single letter (*bar – barring*). The next consideration is a deletion of the final mute *-e* (*create – creating*) except in the verbs with monosyllabic bases in *-ye*, *-oe* and *-nge*, which do not lose mute *-e* before adding *-ing* (*dye – dyeing*). Finally, when adding the *-ing* suffix, the verbs whose bases end in *-ie* require *-y* instead (*die – dying*).

Nevertheless, there are several differences between spelling in British and American English. Firstly, there is a regular doubling of final *-l* in British English but in American English the verbs ending in an unstressed vowel by *-l* are formed regularly: *travel – travelling* (BritE) *–traveling* (AmE). Secondly, some verbs ending in an unstressed vowel followed by *-p* can be both doubled or not: *worship – worshipping* (both BritE and AmE) *– worshipping* (only AmE). Similarly, the verbs ending in an unstressed vowel followed by *-g* have doubling as well: *humbug – humbugging*. Thirdly, both British and American English accept doubling in the verbs ending in a vowel + *-c* spelt *-ck-*: *panic – panicking*. Finally, there are some variations in doubling for certain the verbs whose base ends in a vowel followed by *-s* : *bias – biassing – biasing* etc. (Quirk et al. 1985: 100-103)

2.2.2. PARTICIPLE

The participle includes six forms: present, past, perfect (simple and progressive) and passive (present and past).

participle		active	passive
present		<i>using</i>	<i>being used</i>
		<i>writing</i>	<i>being written</i>
perfect	simple	<i>having used</i>	<i>having been used</i>
		<i>having written</i>	<i>having been written</i>
	continuous	<i>having been using</i>	
		<i>having been writing</i>	
past		<i>used</i>	
		<i>written</i>	

Figure 1: Participle forms in English (based on Dušková et al. 2006: 270)

All the participles except the past participle are formed by adding the *-ing* suffix. The past participle can be either regular (by adding *-ed* suffix) or irregular (having special form).

As already mentioned, the only morphological categories applicable to non-finite verbs are voice and partly the temporal system, which can be seen in the Figure 1. While the use of a present participle expresses simultaneity with the action of the finite verb (ex. 1), a perfect participle signals anteriority or a completion of the action with respect to the finite verb (ex. 2). Moreover, when used together with an auxiliary *be*, the present participle is a part of a progressive tense form (ex. 3). (Dušková et al. 2006: 270)

(1) *He was completely absorbed in the game **being played**.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 270)

(2) ***Having arrived** at a decision, he dismissed the matter from his mind.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 270)

(3) *What's **happening**?* (Dušková et al. 2006: 233)

2.2.2.1. *-ING* PARTICIPLE V. PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVE

The present participle may have the same form as a participial adjective. Although the present participle displays some adjectival features, it is necessary to distinguish between the present participle and the participial adjective. There are several features that help us to distinguish these two forms.

It can be difficult to distinguish the verb in the progressive aspect from the copular verb *be* followed by a predicative adjective, for the participial adjective shares some adjectival features, mainly the possibility to be compared and intensified by a degree adverb such as *very*, *so* or *too*. Besides the intensification of a participial adjective, the substitution of copular verb *be* for other copula is also helpful (*he **seems** willing*). On the other hand, the *-ing* participle must be intensified by *very much*, *too much* or mere *much* (*I am talking **too much**; *I am **too** talking*). Moreover, certain transitive verbs become intransitive in a function of participial adjectives (**it surprises; it is surprising*). (Dušková et al. 2006: 271)

Distinguishing the two forms is not always as simple. The following tests can help to understand the differences between both forms better. For instance, the *-ing* form in *one man is missing* is difficult to classify. The transposition of the *-ing* form to the adjectival

premodifying position does not clearly define the word as an adjective, therefore the *-ing* form can be classified using the following tests. Firstly, a participial adjective cannot be used in the non-progressive form without a complement added (*X is promising* - **X promises* – *X promises a great deal*). Secondly, a verb in the *-ing* form has a dynamic meaning (*His voice was **irritating** me*), whereas an adjective occurs only in a stative meaning (*His voice was (very) **irritating***). The last two tests are based on the morphological criteria for adjectives. As well as other adjectives, also participial adjectives can occur in the negative form with a prefix *un-* (*unyielding*) and what is more, they can be the base for derivation into adverbs by addition of a suffix *-ly* (*surprisingly*). (Biber et al. 1999: 69)

2.2.2.2. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF THE *-ING* PARTICIPLES

The *-ing* participle occurs in a number of syntactic functions. Here is a basic list of the syntactic functions expressed by an *-ing* participle:

(a) Modification:

- i) premodification: *a **squeaking** door* (Dušková et al. 2006: 580)
- ii) postmodification: *a box **containing** cigarettes* (Dušková et al. 2006: 581)

(b) Object complement: *I caught them **reading** my mail*. (Huddleston, Pullum 2002:1220)

(c) Adverbial:

- (i) ***Having asked** that she should not be disturbed she had taken the overdose in her room*. (Malá 2005: 94)
- (ii) *She went out **shutting** the door behind her*. (Dušková et al. 2006: 507)

A verbless adverbial clause is viewed in relation to the syntactic function of an adverbial; in these cases there is no expression of the semantic relation between the finite and a non-finite clause (ex.ii).

When separated by a comma, some grammars describe the present participles in the syntactic function of an adverbial as so-called supplementary clauses. The use of a supplementary clause “marks the information given in the clause as subordinate: as

background (initial position), parenthetical (medial position), or supplementary (final position).” (*She gazed down at the floor, **biting her lip**, face clouded*) (Biber et al. 1999: 201)

2.2.3. GERUND

The gerund corresponds to the present participle in form, although it differs in the number of its forms. We can distinguish the present and the past forms as well as the active and the passive ones.

gerund	present	past
active	<i>using užívání</i>	<i>having used</i>
	<i>writing psaní</i>	<i>having written</i>
passive	<i>being used</i>	<i>having been used</i>
	<i>being written</i>	<i>having been written</i>

Figure 2: Gerund forms in English (based on Dušková et. al. 2006: 268)

A present gerund can substitute a verb in a past tense when the relation of the anteriority between the two actions is implied in the semantics of the finite verb (*I remember **seeing** her there*). When the semantics of the finite verb does not imply any temporal relation between the finite verb and the gerund, it can express both simultaneity and anteriority (*Thank you for **reminding** me*). The present gerund can represent posteriority as well (*I suggest our **going** together*). A past gerund explicitly expresses anteriority (*I do not regret **having followed** your advice*). Some sentences with an active gerund form can also have passive meaning (*The windows need **cleaning***).

Unlike the participle, which is functionally close to an adjective phrase, the gerund is syntactically close to a noun. However, the gerund displays some verbal features as well. It distinguishes tense and voice, it can take objects or be modified by an adverb. The combination of both the nominal as well as verbal features can be seen in the following example: *a way of thoroughly **investigating** the matter*, where the adverbial modification and a complementation by an object are clearly verbal features and the position of the gerund after the preposition is a nominal feature. (Dušková et al. 2006: 268-269)

2.2.3.1. GERUND V. NOUN

The gerund shares certain features with a noun and it has the same form as a verbal noun derived by the *-ing* suffix. As mentioned in the previous part, the gerund shares both nominal and verbal features, therefore some difficulties in distinguishing a gerund and a deverbal noun can arise. There are several guidelines that can help us to differentiate one from the other.

Among the verbal features that the gerund shares with the verb belongs the possibility to be modified by an adverb or take an object. On the other hand, nouns are modified by adjectives; they combine with determiners and can inflect for plural (e.g. *These killings must stop*). Moreover, gerundial nouns tend to take an *of* prepositional phrase, not an object (*the killing of the birds*).

It can in some cases be quite difficult to determine which word class the *-ing* word represents. “At the level of the word, a verb and a noun are quite sharply distinct by virtue of the different dependents they take. Where no such dependents are present, ambiguities can arise.” This situation is clear in the sentence *Kim had been talking about **writing***, where *writing* can be a verb, which will take an understood object such as a letter, as well as a noun, which can be interpreted as a verbal noun denoting certain phenomenon. (Huddleston, Pullum 2002: 81, 82)

2.2.3.2. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF GERUND

The gerund occurs in these syntactic functions:

(a) Subject: ***Watching** television keeps them out of mischief.* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1063)

(b) Object:

(i) direct: *I started **thinking** about Christmas* (Biber et al. 1999: 200)

(ii) prepositional: *No-one could rely on his **going** to bed early last night.* (Biber et al. 1999:200)

(c) Subject complement: *Her first job had been **selling** computers.* (Quirk et al.1985: 1063)

(d) Appositive: *His current research, **investigating** attitudes to racial stereotypes, takes up most of time.* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1063)

(e) Modification:

(i) premodification: **drinking** water (Dušková et al. 2006: 577)

(ii) postmodification in a prepositional phrase: There are certain advantages in **living** alone. (Dušková et al. 2006: 578)

(f) Adjectival complementation: *They are busy **preparing** a barbecue.* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1063)

(g) Adverbial: *On my **entering** the room all conversation stopped.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 578)

2.2.4. GERUND V. PARTICIPLE

Although neither gerund nor present participle differs in form, there are several differences worth mentioning. As already explained above, a present participle shares some features with a participial adjective whereas a gerund resembles a noun in its function. “A gerund does not combine with auxiliaries in a way that participles do” (Huddleston, Rodney 2002: 81), which take auxiliary verb *be* to form progressive tense form. Moreover, both a present participle and a gerund can occur in the same syntactic position, namely in premodification. They can be formally distinguished: the *-ing* forms are distinguished semantically and by a different stress pattern.

In premodification the gerund and its head noun, unlike the *-ing* present participle, forms one falling intonation unit with the main stress on the gerund and the secondary stress on the noun. Paraphrasing the whole expression can also be helpful: *drinking water* can be paraphrased as *water for drinking*, so it is clear that the premodifier is a gerund while *running water* means *water that runs*, where the *-ing* form is regarded a participle. (Dušková et al. 2006: 577) In addition, a gerund can follow a preposition, while a present participle occurs with a conjunction (*on **reading** his letter; **while reading** his letter*). When the syntagmatic context of gerund and participle is not distinguished and the position of the verbal *-ing* form allows both forms in a clause, the difference between the gerund and participle is obliterated

(*I can't understand Mary/her **behaving** so foolishly – nemohu pochopit, že se Marie/ona chová tak pošetile*). (Dušková et al. 2006: 269)

Apart from the distinction between the *-ing* verb forms, it is necessary to mention the competition between the *-ing* forms and an infinitive. As we already know, a gerund has nominal features and so does an infinitive. They are both used in similar functions as subject, object, subject complement, modification and adverbial either without any particular difference in meaning or with certain differences. (Dušková et al. 2006: 569)

2.2.5. VERBAL *-ING* FORMS IN NON-FINITE CLAUSES

The verbal *-ing* forms are primarily used in so-called non-finite clauses. These clauses are called so because the non-finite verb element (infinitive, gerund or participle) displays the same internal structure as a finite clause. The non-finite clause consists of the same functional elements as are found in a finite clause. This can be compared on the following complex sentence and its reinterpretation, sharing the same clause pattern:

Knowing [V] my temper [O_d], I didn't reply.

I [S]know [V] my temper [O_d]. (Quirk 1985: 992)

Usually, the subject is missing, referring to the subject of the main clause but it can have the subject expressed. The subject in the participle construction can be:

(1) unexpressed, referring to the subject of the finite verb:

***Feeling** like a murderess, Betsy tried to comfort her.*

(2) expressed and different from the subject of the finite verb (= absolute construction):

*Lady Coots has hysterics and faints in Bill's arms – Bill **being** the weight carrier.*

(3) unexpressed, though the subject is different from that of finite verb. The reference is indefinite or general (= dangling participle):

*To come down at a punctual nine-thirty when **staying** in a country house simply wasn't done.*

The subject in the gerundial construction can be:

(1) The subject of the gerund is often identical with that of finite verb:

*Without **making** any inquiries, Pete began to howl too.*

(2) The subject is not expressed, having general or indefinite reference:

*The finite verbs are, for our purposes, eliminated by **printing** them in italics.*

(3) The subject of the gerund is the object of the finite verb:

*He felt... the familiar fury at his grandmother for **dissipating** money.*

There are two possible forms of the subject in the gerundial constructions. Firstly, the subject of the gerund is expressed “by the possessive form of the personal pronoun or noun”:

*Dick could damn him, without Tom's even **learning** about it.*

Secondly, the subject is expressed by the object non-possessive form of the personal pronoun (=fused participle). Although it is usually recommended to use the possessive form for the gerund rather than the objective form, it is not always possible:

*How are we going to prevent him **coming** along with us? (Dušková 1999: 20-26)*

2.2.6. APPROACHES TO THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN GERUND AND PARTICIPLE

The previous sections introduced the main distinctions between the gerund and the present participle, which are based mainly on their different functions. Yet, it is not unusual to find some disputable constructions that are highly ambiguous. Therefore, some grammars do not pay any special attention to the traditional distinction between a gerund and a present participle (e.g. Quirk et al. 1985).

Another approach considers the traditional distinction a complicating factor in the grammar, therefore a unique term “gerund-participle” is suggested. There is no difference of form, function or interpretation between a gerund and a present participle. It is obvious that both the gerund and the present participle are formed identically by adding the *-ing* suffix: their distinction is sustained only because of the different historical sources each form has. As

to the syntactic function, the traditional distinction between a gerund and a present participle is based on the idea that a gerund resembles a noun and a present participle is similar to an adjective. However, Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1221-1222) suggest to use a unique term “gerund-participle” for both types. Except the fact that there is only one inflectional form marked by the –ing suffix, they mention that there is neither functional nor interpretational difference between these non-finite verb forms. Firstly, both forms head expressions modifying nouns and secondly, there is no systematic difference in aspectual meaning between them. This statement can be confirmed in the following sentences:

a. **On hearing** [gerund] *his cry, she dashed into the garden.*

b. **Hearing** [participle] *his cry she dashed into the garden.*

Undoubtedly, both sentences share the same perfective meaning. To sum up, Huddleston and Pullum consider the traditional distinction between gerund and participle to be too complicated and as such it should be discarded.

The constructions revealing certain ambiguities are those with a subject of a gerund, which have been already discussed in the previous lines. There is “the almost free choice between the possessive form (which stands in subordinate relationship to its headword, and is thus consistent with the nominal character of the gerund) and the subject/object form (which is a headword modified by the –ing form, which in turn acquired an adjectival character appropriate to the participle)”. This tendency shows that the distinction between the present participle and the gerund tends to vanish. (Dušková 1999: 26)

Although the negative approaches towards the traditional distinction between the gerund and the present participle seem to be relevant, we will retain the traditional approach instead. Firstly, the identification of a gerund and a present participle is useful for practical purposes and, secondly, we will apply the distinction to the analysis of the Czech translation solutions, where the term “gerund-participle” may not be sufficient.

2.4. COMPLEX CONDENSATION

The non-finite verb forms are an integral part of the English syntactic system and represent a distinctive difference between English and Czech. As such they can cause difficulties in translations mainly of the so-called condensed sentences, where the non-finite verb in English substitutes the whole Czech finite clause. The following section deals with the English condensed clauses and their possible Czech translations as well as the use of the condensation in Czech.

The different use of the complex condensation in each language is related to the typologically different structures of both languages. There is certain interdependence between the analytical language structure and the reduced dynamism of the finite verb in English and on the other hand, the synthetic language structure and the strong dynamism of the finite verb in Czech. (Vachek 1961: 43) This tendency can be clearly explained on the typical use of so-called verbal phrases. Both in English and Czech, the action is described either by a finite verb alone or by a verbal phrase, which is a combination of a verb of a general meaning and specialized nominal elements such as a noun, an adjective or an adverb. These nominal elements act as quantifiers specifying the general meaning of the verb in the verbal phrase. The English verbal phrases are usually expressed by a finite verb in Czech (*he got hold of – zmocnil se, we are taking a rest – odpočíváme*). These examples show that the Czech finite verb is strongly dynamic whereas the English finite verb lacks such dynamism (Vachek 1961: 35). Therefore, there is a certain need to express the dynamism of the English verb in a different way.

The verbal dynamism in English can be found in the means of condensation because, unlike Czech condensers, the English condensers “express the setting in time of the actions or processes implied by the condensers used”. (Vachek 1961: 41) In Czech, a transgressive implies the similar temporal relations as the English participles. The Czech transgressive system is very similar to the English one having a present (ex. 1) and a past transgressive (ex. 2), as well as an active and a passive voice (ex. 3). Although the Czech transgressives tend to be strongly archaic, they are used in literature, proverbs and in several fossilized forms (ex. 4). (Mathesius 1961: 147)

(1) *nesouc* (Grepel et al. 2003: 336)

(2) *přinesši* (Grepel et al. 2003: 337)

(3) *jsa volán* (Grepel et al. 2003: 336)

(4) *vyjma, nepočítajíc* (Mathesius 1961: 147)

The Czech transgressives distinguish more grammatical categories than the English participles – a number, a tense, a voice, a Czech aspect and a nominal category of gender (Grepel et al 2003: 335), which means that each gender is represented by a different morph characterizing the individual form of transgressive. The Czech transgressive can be used only when the subject of the main clause is identical with the subject of the dependent clause. (Grepel et al 2003: 487) The use of a Czech transgressive is not only archaic but also complex, being obsolete even in written language. In other cases, the present day Czech tends to use alternative expressions, such as adjectival, nominal or participial condensers. (Grepel et al 2003: 754)

However, the dynamism of the Czech finite verb does not exclude the nominal expressions from the sentence. It is clear that the tendency to use nominalization in Czech is higher in specialized contexts, although the amount of the condensers in these contexts is still lower than in English. (Vachek 1961: 41-42)

“English tends to express by non-sentence elements of the main clause such circumstances that are in Czech, as a rule, denoted by subordinate clauses. This results in making the sentence structure more compact or, in other words, in sentence condensation, which may be called complex since in this way English can express entire complexes of content.” (Mathesius 1961: 146) In short, the complex condensation helps to make a closer cohesion of the elements in the sentence or to accumulate information in a small space. The most usual condensers in English are an infinitive, a participle and a gerund. Of course, there are other means of condensation, such as verbal noun, noun, adjective etc.

The condensation in a Czech sentence does not occupy such a prominent position in the Czech grammar. Firstly, Czech tends to use a finite verb in a clause rather than the non-finite one and, secondly, the Czech non-finite verb system lacks the gerund form. There are five types of condensers in Czech: participial, infinitival, nominal, adjectival and adverbial. The purpose of the Czech condensation is similar to that in English: the need to put more information into the frame of the sentence. Moreover, the condensation results in a closer cohesion of the sentential elements and the condensed sentences are more implicit; the

expression in the condensed clause is therefore more economical than in the decondensed clause. (Grepel et al. 2003: 755)

To sum up, as far as the function is concerned, the use of condensation in both Czech and English does not differ – the condensation makes the sentence more compact and the condensers compress the information in the sentence. The difference in the use of condensation lies in the non-finite verb system and the structure of both languages. English tends to use the complex condensation more than Czech mainly because of the weak dynamism of the English verb caused by the analytical structure of English. The strong dynamism of the Czech verb and the fact that there is no literal counterpart of English gerund in Czech tends to use finite verbs and complex sentences rather than condensed sentences. The different conditions in a use of the condensed clauses results in a disparity in the translations, which is discussed below.

2.4.1. THE CZECH TRANSLATIONS OF ENGLISH –ING CONDENSERS

The previous section dealt with the phenomenon of a complex condensation in both English and Czech, which has the same function in both languages but the conditions of the use of complex condensation differ mainly because of the different character of the language systems of English and Czech. These differences can cause difficulties in translations, not only because of the different types of condensers that both the languages employ but also because of the temporal relations in the condensed sentences, which can be implied in English but not in Czech.

The English condensers are usually translated by a dependent clause into Czech (Mathesius 1961: 152), but it is not unusual to translate the English participle in the function of condenser by a Czech finite verb related paratactically to the main clause. One of the reasons might be the fact that English tends to perceive reality as “a single basic action of process, absorbing all other potential actions or processes as its elements or concomitant circumstances” whereas Czech tends to express the reality as “a series of actions or processes, which can be mutually either co-ordinated or subordinated”. (Vachek 1961: 34) This is clear in the following translation:

*But the old sheep-dog, **not looking** up, waggled past, **flinging** out his legs from side to side.*

Ale starý ovčácký pes se po ní ani neohlédl, plouhal se dál a motal nohama sem tam.
(Vachek 1961: 34)

In addition, some condensed constructions in the passive cannot be translated word for word. They include the verb *to have*, causative verb *to make* or the perceptive verbs as so-called links between “the starting point”, which is a main clause, and “the expression of circumstances”, which is translated by a subordinate clause. In these constructions, the link is usually omitted in the Czech translation. (Mathesius 1961: 152) The following sentence is a good example of the use of the link and the *-ing* participle:

(a) *It is a great encouragement to me to find you **agreeing** with my proposition.*

(b) *It is a great encouragement to me **that you agree with my proposition.***

Je mi velkým povzbuzením, že souhlasíte s mým návrhem. (Mathesius 1961: 153)

As we can see in the first sentence, the starting point is the main clause, the link is the verb *to find* and the expression of circumstances is the clause introduced by the present participle *agreeing*. The decondensation of the sentence shows us the possible reinterpretation (ex. b) and as we can see, the link is not translated into Czech. The link in certain condensed sentences has no other meaning, as is obvious in both the decondensed English sentence and the Czech translation.

The translation of the gerund form can become complicated since the use of a verbal noun differs greatly in Czech and in English. Clearly, there is no Czech counterpart of an English gerund, as it does not exist in Czech. The Czech verbal noun acts like any other noun, whereas the English gerund retains a more verbal character. Therefore, the English gerund is mostly translated by a subordinate clause, sometimes even by a noun or by an infinitive. We can see it especially in the sentence *There are different ways of **making** money*, which can be translated literally *Jsou různé způsoby **vydělávání** peněz* or by a use of infinitive *Jsou různé způsoby, jak **vydělávat** peníze*. (Mathesius 1961: 150 - 151)

The differences concerning the translation of a complex condensation from English into Czech are caused by different features of the finite verb, which is dynamically very weak in English and on the contrary very strong in Czech. Not all condensed English clauses can be translated into Czech literally, partly because of the different system of non-finite verb forms in both languages. As a result, several facts should be taken into consideration. Firstly, the English sentences condensed by a participle are often translated into Czech paratactically,

mainly because of the different perception of the actions in each language. Secondly, the English gerund must be often translated by a finite clause or by other word classes for the Czech verb system lacks a gerund form. Finally, the temporal relations, which are implied in the English non-finite verb forms, must be expressed in the Czech translation by the alternative expressions, because the Czech transgressives, the only forms that imply temporal relations, are archaic in the present day Czech.

3. MATERIAL AND METHOD

The material for the practical part of the thesis was drawn from two works of modern English prose, *Mrs. Dalloway* by Virginia Woolf (London: Penguin, 1925) and *Dubliners* by James Joyce (London: Penguin, 1914). For each work two Czech translations that differ in the year of their publication were chosen. For *Mrs. Dalloway* we chose a translation by Vlasta Dvořáčková published in 1975 (Praha: Odeon) and a translation by Kateřina Hilská, published almost 30 years later, in 2004 (Praha: Euromedia Group). The two translations of *Dubliners* were published in a scope of more than 50 years. The first translation by Josef Hruša was published in 1933 (Praha: Vilímek), and it may be seen as representing the more archaic use of Czech, the second one translated by Aloys Skoumal was published in 1988; the edition used in the practical part is the fourth edition from the year 2012 (Praha: Argo). There is one more Czech translation of *Dubliners* by Kateřina Hilská (2012). This translation was excluded, however, because two examples of the Czech translation by the same translator could possibly distort the results due to the translator's authorial style. Therefore, we decided to choose the Czech translations translated by the different translators to achieve certain objectivity in the research.

Our aim was to identify all verbal *-ing* forms in a given stretch of text. The verbal *-ing* forms were searched for in the active pdf format by using the "Search" function with the query "*-ing*". Subsequently, it was necessary to select the relevant forms and exclude those cases, where the *-ing* occurred as a part of their stem, participles in a progressive tense form, deverbal nouns and finally adjectives. Present participles as a part of a progressive tense form, deverbal nouns and participial adjectives have their Czech literal counterparts and they are used in the Czech translations quite uniformly, therefore they are not the focus of the thesis. On the other hand, the verbal *-ing* forms, i.e. the participles and the gerunds, represent the core of our research.

We identified 40 subsequent examples¹ in each original text and their translational counterparts in the two Czech translations. The examples were taken successively from the very beginnings of the stories. In *Mrs. Dalloway*, the first 40 relevant examples occur in the scope of 1,131 words (3.5 words per 100 words), in *Dubliners*, they were found in the first 3,268 words (1.2 words per 100 words).

¹ The examples are listed in Appendix

To identify the relevant *-ing* forms, we used the tests mentioned in the theoretical part. The identification of the gerund did not cause any problems. The gerund usually occurs in a prepositional phrase and it has certain verbal features unlike the verbal noun. A verbal noun usually occurs with an article. On the other hand, the present participle occurs with a conjunction and it combines with a progressive auxiliary *be* to form a progressive tense form. The correct identification was in some cases achieved with the help of dictionaries.² Both the present participle and the adjective can stand before a noun, so their plausible identification can be complicated. It was necessary to analyse the questionable *-ing* forms by consulting the dictionaries and applying the test for the right identification of the *-ing* forms. The gerunds were usually not difficult to analyse. Unlike the gerund, the deverbal noun is usually determined by an article, takes the plural form and can be modified by an adjective or by an *of* prepositional phrase. The following two *-ing* forms in *Dubliners* can serve as an example, where example (1) represents a deverbal noun and the example (2) is a gerund:

(1) *the **reading** of the card* (Joyce 1914: 12)

(2) *He began to puff again at his pipe without **giving** us his theory.* (Joyce 1914: 10)

The verbal *-ing* form in example (1) is combined with a definite article, it is postmodified by an *of* prepositional phrase and it also forms the plural: *the readings of the cards*. In example (2), the verbal *-ing* form takes an object, in this case both direct object *his theory* and indirect object *us*, but none of mentioned tests can be applied.

The distinction between a participle and a participial adjective is in some cases complicated especially in the premodifying position. After consulting the disputable expressions in the dictionaries, the *-ing* word was again submitted by a series of relevant tests for distinguishing an adjective and a present participle. We examined comparison and intensification, a need of complementation in a non-progressive form of the *-ing* words and finally, their occurrence in a negative form and an adding of the adverbial suffix *-ly*. The following examples needed closer focus on their form and function:

(3) *a **murmuring** voice* (Joyce 1914: 11)

(4) *an **unassuming** shop* (Joyce 1914: 11)

² Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDict henceforth), and Cambridge International Dictionary of Contemporary English (CamDict henceforth).

According to the dictionaries, example (3) is not an adjective but a verb or a noun. Despite this fact, we continued with further analysis. The expression *murmuring* can be neither compared (**a more murmuring voice*) nor intensified as an adjective (**He was too murmuring*) but it can be intensified as a present participle by *too much* (*He was murmuring too much*). The non-progressive form does not require any complement, which is a typical feature of a present participle (*He murmurs*). The negative form cannot be formed by adding a negative prefix and the adverbial derived from the word *murmuring* does not exist either. By the applied tests we marked the example (3) as a participle. On the other hand, the example (4) shares all the features with the adjective. It can be compared (*more unassuming*) and intensified (*It was too unassuming*) and the non-progressive form must take a complement (**He assumes*). Moreover, the word *unassuming* is a negative form of an adjective *assuming* and an adverb *unassumingly* occurs in the dictionaries as well. Therefore, the example (4) was identified as a participial adjective.

However, most tests were not applicable for the compounds in the premodifying position (ex. 5, 6).

(5) *wide-awake and **laughing-like** softly to himself* (Joyce 1914: 18)

(6) *the **slow-swimming** happy ducks* (Woolf 1925: 7)

Some compounds do not occur in the dictionary, they cannot usually form any other word class by derivation and the tests for the need of complementation in a non-progressive form are not relevant either. The compound *laughing-like* can be both compared (*more laughing-like*) and intensified (*too laughing-like*) like any other adjectives. The progressive tense form cannot be formed but the use with a copular verb is in this case relevant (*He seems laughing-like*). The form of the compound *laughing-like* also shows that the subordinate constituent *like* postmodifies the superordinate constituent *laughing*. When standing alone, *laughing* is a noun or a participle depending on the position in the clause. As a dictionary headword, *like* in postposition is identified as an adjective; it is used after a noun to say that something is similar or typical of the noun (*LDict* 2003: 937). As a result, we identified the compound *laughing-like* as a participial adjective and it was excluded from our data.

The compound *slow-swimming* (ex. 6) was, on the other hand, identified as a present participle. The constituent *slow* in the premodification is identified as an adverb in the dictionaries and adverb usually modifies verbs (*CamDict* 1996: 1355). It cannot be compared

(**more slow-swimming*), but it can be used in the progressive form when paraphrased (*They were swimming slowly*) and also intensified by *too much* (*They were swimming slowly too much*). The participle *slow-swimming* contains a subordinate constituent *slow* in the premodification that does not change the word class of the compound, unlike the compound *laughing-like*. This expression was included in our research.

Special attention was paid to Czech transgressives, which could be identified as non-clausal elements expressing a syntactic function. However, as we focus on the translations from the diachronic point of view, we decided to isolate the transgressives and examine them separately from other non-clausal elements.

As to the Czech counterparts where the equivalent to an *-ing* form was a zero translation, we decided to retain them because the zero equivalent was present only in one of the two translation counterparts. The zero translations show the different possibilities of the translations. One incorrect translation was also included in the data. The incorrect translation reveals the main problems in understanding the verbal *-ing* forms in the original text.

3.1. RESEARCH PART

The following data are a result of the analysis of two modern English works of fiction and their two different Czech translations. It is essential to examine the occurrence rate of the individual verbal *-ing* forms and their syntactic functions. This will help us to compare the verbal *-ing* forms with their translations. We expect differences both in the individual translation pairs (i.e. the two Czech renditions) as well as in all four translations altogether. The differences between the translation pairs can be a matter of a subjective approach; we will, however, focus on the general tendencies in a diachronic perspective, which will be analyzed by a complex comparison of all four translations.

The distribution of the gerunds and present participles is unequal both in the individual works and in the total. In *Mrs. Dalloway* the proportion of the gerunds is almost 13 % (5 examples) while the *-ing* forms analyzed as present participles occur in almost 87.5 % (35 examples). In *Dubliners* the proportion between the gerunds and the present participles is as follows – the gerunds occur in 32.5 % (13 examples) and the occurrence of the present participles is 67.5 % (27 examples). Although the amount of gerunds is higher in *Dubliners*, overall the gerunds are less frequent and the present participles represent 77.5% of the verbal *-ing* forms.

	Mrs. Dalloway		Dubliners		TOTAL	
	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%
Gerund	5	12.5	13	32.5	18	22.5
Present Participle	35	87.5	27	67.5	62	77.5
TOTAL	40	100	40	100	80	100

Table 1: Proportion of the *-ing* forms

With respect to the Czech translation approaches and the unequal distribution of both verbal *-ing* forms, we will focus on the respective types of *-ing* forms separately, searching for the main differences in the syntactic functions and the translation strategies the Czech translators use for gerunds and present participles.

3.2. THE GERUND DISTRIBUTION

3.2.1 SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF THE GERUND IN THE ORIGINAL TEXTS

The gerunds represent three syntactic functions in the given material – a part of an adverbial (11 cases), a complementation of a verb or an adjective (4 cases) and an apposition (3 cases). As a rule, the gerunds in the adverbial function follow a preposition, indicating the nominal status. The adverbials containing gerunds usually express a temporal relation between the main clause and the non-finite clause (ex. 1). The gerunds identified as a complementation of a verb or an adjective either follow a preposition, (ex. 2 was identified as a complementation of an adjective) or do not follow any preposition (ex. 3 is an object). All three gerunds in a syntactic function of apposition occur in a single complex sentence in *Dubliners* (ex. 4).

(1) *My aunt fingered the stem of her wine-glass before **sipping** a little. (J28)*

(2) *I found it strange that neither I nor the day seemed in a mourning mood and I felt even annoyed at **discovering** in myself a sensation of freedom as if I had been freed from something by his death. (J18)*

(3) *"I love **walking** in London," said Mrs. Dalloway. (W35)*

(4) *All the work we had, she and me, **getting** in the woman to wash him and then **layin**g him out and then the coffin and then **arranging** about the Mass in the chapel. (J30-32)*

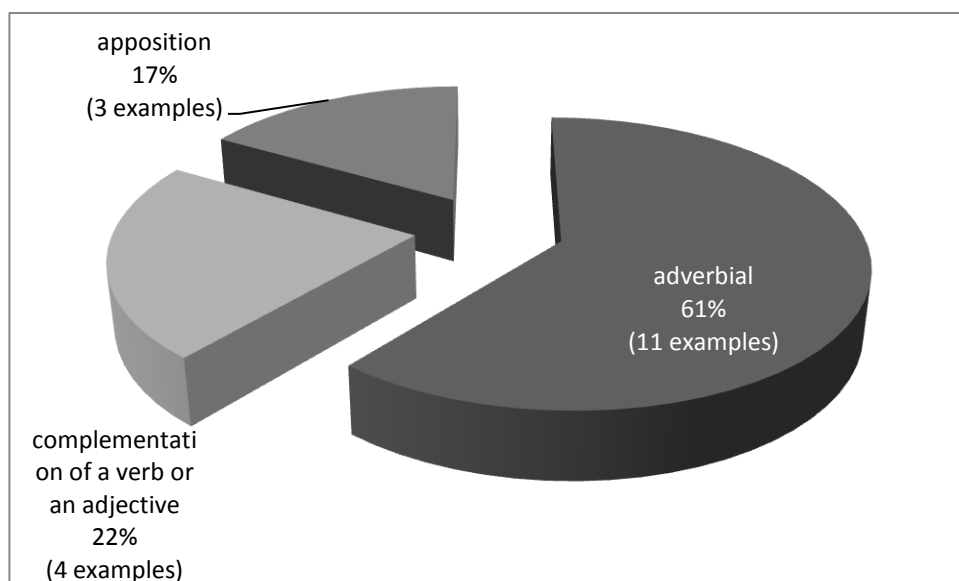


Diagram 1: Syntactic functions of the gerund

3.2.2. TRANSLATIONS OF GERUND FORMS

We analyzed 18 gerund forms, therefore we deal with their 36 translations in total. The gerunds are translated into Czech by using four different means - a coordinated main clause (ex. 5), a dependent clause (ex. 6), a non-clausal element expressing a syntactic function (ex. 7) and a transgressive (ex. 8). As the following table shows, the majority of gerunds is translated by a main or a dependent clause, and 5 examples are translated by using some non-clausal element. The translation of the gerunds by using a main clause represents 41.6 % of the total of 30 analyzed expressions in the Czech translations. The transgressives are used in two examples (5.5 %) only in the oldest translation from the 1930's; the other translations used different means of translation. The gerund form is translated by a non-clausal element in five examples, i.e. more than 6.6 % of the total. The results from the Table 2 show that there is generally a strong tendency to translate gerunds by a finite clause rather than by a non-clausal element. The nominal features of an English gerund do not affect the choice of the finite clauses in the Czech translations.

(5) *He began to puff again at his pipe without **giving** us his theory.* (J4)

Znovu zabafal a svůj názor nám nepověděl. (Skoumal)

(6) *...she always felt a little skimpy beside Hugh; schoolgirlish; but attached to him, partly from **having known** him always, ...* (W40)

...vedle Hugha si vždycky připadala trošičku nedooblečena, jako šolačka; ale vždycky ho měla ráda, zčásti proto, že se znali odjakživa, ... (Hilská)

(7) Then she put it back again in her pocket and gazed into the empty grate for some time without **speaking**. (J35)

Potom ho zas zastrčila do kapsy a chvíli **mlčky** civěla na prázdný rošt. (Skoumal)

(8) Sometimes he had amused himself by **putting** difficult questions to me, ... (J19)

Někdy se bavíval, **dávaje** mi těžké otázky... (Hrůša)

	Mrs. Dalloway				Dubliners				TOTAL	
	Dvořáčková 1975		Hilská 2004		Hrůša 1933		Skoumal 1988			
	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%
main clause	1	2.8	2	5.6	5	13.9	7	19.5	15	41.8
dependent clause	3	8.4	3	8.4	3	8.4	5	13.9	14	39
non-clausal elements expressing a syntactic function	1	2.8	0	0	3	8.4	1	2.8	5	13.9
transgressive	0	0	0	0	2	5.6	0	0	2	5.6
TOTAL	5	13.9	5	13.9	13	36.2	13	36.2	36	100

Table 2: Czech realizations of English gerunds

Generally, the English gerunds in the syntactic function of adverbials were translated by a main clause in nine cases and by a dependent clause in ten cases. Three examples were translated by a non-clausal element. The appositions were translated by an infinitive in Hrůša's translation as opposed to the dependent clause in Skoumal's translation. The gerunds in the syntactic function of object were translated by a main clause.

3.2.2.1. THE DEGREE OF CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN THE TWO TRANSLATION PAIRS

As already mentioned, the main means of the translation of the English gerund are the finite clauses. As to the individual translation pairs, the two translations of one English gerund are not always identical. The differences in the translation strategy are visible from the Table 2, which shows the individual approaches towards the Czech translation of the English gerund. The different figures in each translation pair represent the differences in the

translations. The translations of the first translation pair of *Mrs. Dalloway* do not differ much from each other. The second translation pair of *Dubliners* differs more, especially in the use of the main clauses and non-clausal elements including transgressives.

Although the translators usually choose the same means of translation, the individual translations differ in the choice of a type of the dependent clause or a type of coordination between the main clauses. The degree of correspondence between the translation pairs is represented in the following diagram. A complete correspondence represents the pairs translated by the same main clauses in an identical relation or by the same type of the dependent clause (ex. 9). The complete correspondence includes the Czech clauses translated by the same relation between the clauses, only with a different use of the conjunctions, usually bound to a specific register value. In the example (10) the conjunction *aniž* with a positive verb in Hruša's translation is nowadays considered to be archaic, whereas Skoumal's use of a conjunction *a* with a negation is a main conjunction in the Czech coordination. (Grepel et al. 2003: 557) A partial correspondence subsumes the examples translated by the same clause but in a different type of coordination or a sentence type (ex. 11). The different realizations show the translations that differ completely. The use of the same clause was identified in 73 % of the translations. The clauses identical in both translations represent 33% of the total and the translation pairs that differ only in the use of the relation between the main clauses or the type of the dependent clause take 40 %. The pairs that differ completely in the realization of the English gerund represent 27 %. In this group, only one pair differs in the choice of the clause (ex. 12), the rest of the different translations show the competition between the non-clausal elements and finite clauses (ex 13). There are no identical pairs realized by the non-clausal element or transgressives in both translations, only the translations realized by a finite clause show a complete or a partial correspondence.

(9) *My aunt fingered the stem of her wine-glass before **sipping** a little. (J28)*
Než má teta trochu upila, přejela prsty stonek číšky na víno a zeptala se; ... (Hruša)
Než si teta usrkla, ohmatala stopku číše. (Skoumal)

(10) *He began to puff again at his pipe without **giving** us his theory. (J4)*
*Opět si rozdýmal dýmku **aniž nám vyložil své názory.** (Hruša)*
*Znovu zabafal **a svůj názor nám nepověděl.** (Skoumal)*

(11) ...and laughing girls in their transparent muslins who, even now, after **dancing** all night, were taking their absurd woolly dogs for a run; ... (W 28)
 ... i rozesmáté dívky v průsvitavém mušelínu, které teď zrána, **i když protančily celou noc**, vyvádějí na procházku svoje směšné psí chundeláče; ... (Dvořáčková)
 smějící se dívky v průsvitném mušelínu, **které protančily celou noc**, a teď už venčí své směšně chundelaté psíky; ... (Hilská)

(12) I found it strange that neither I nor the day seemed in a mourning mood and I felt even annoyed at **discovering** in myself a sensation of freedom as if I had been freed from something by his death. (J18)

Bylo mi divné, že jsem ani sám nebyl ve smuteční náladě, ani den se nezdál smuteční; a dokonce mě mrzelo, **když jsem v nitru zjistil pocit svobody**, jako by mě jeho smrt byla zbavila něčeho tíživého. (Hrůša)

Bylo mi divné, že ani den, ani já nejsme naladěni na smutek **a trochu mě až mrzel ten pocit svobody**, jako bych se byl jeho smrtí od něčeho osvobodil. (Skoumal)

(13) "I love **walking** in London," said Mrs. Dalloway. (W35)

„Mám ráda **procházky** Londýnem,“ řekla paní Dallowayová. (Dvořáčková)

„Hrozně ráda **chodím** po Londýně,“ odpověděla paní Dallowayová. (Hilská)

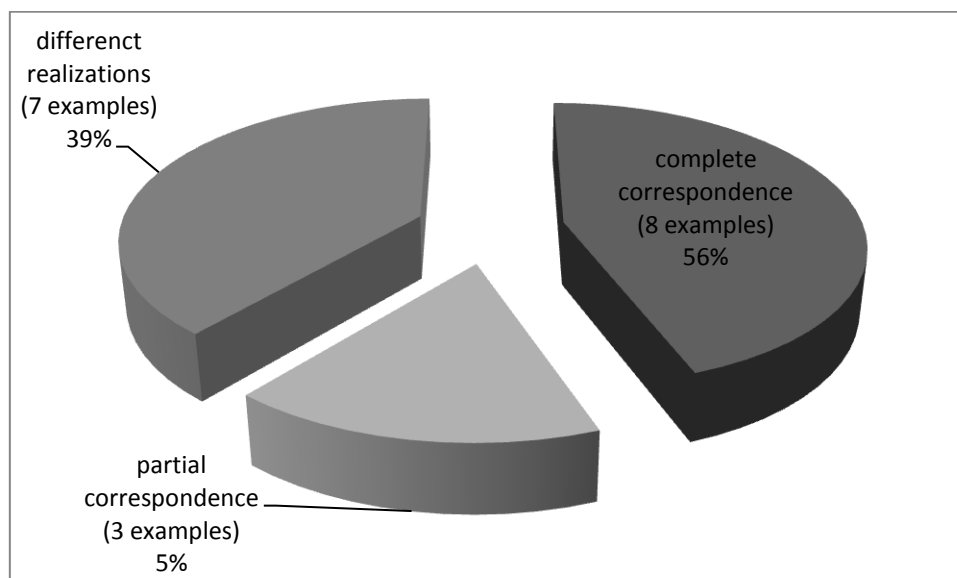


Diagram 2: The Degree of correspondence between the Czech translations of English gerunds

Diachronically, no tendency in the translation of the gerund was observed. The tendency to translate the gerund by a Czech finite clause is evident in each translation independently on the publication year. The use of the non-clausal elements is rare as well as the use of the Czech transgressives. The Czech transgressives can be considered as periodically marked, they do not occur in the later translations, only in the oldest translation from the 1930's.

3.3. THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE DISTRIBUTION

3.3.1. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF ENGLISH PRESENT PARTICIPLES IN ORIGINAL TEXTS

The present participles occur in four syntactic functions in the original texts – as an adverbial, an object complement, a post-modification and a pre-modification. Adverbials represent the most numerous group of the present participles, with the total of 58% of all the expressions in the original text. The present participles in a syntactic function of adverbials condense the dependent adverbial clauses, mostly in a semantic role of time (ex. 14), and accompanying circumstances (ex. 15). They are the main means of complex condensation in the research data. The post-modifiers (ex. 16), which occur in 19 % in the original texts, are the second most numerous group of the syntactic functions of present participles. The last two syntactic functions, pre-modifiers (ex. 17) and object complements (ex. 18) cover 14 % and 8 % respectively.

(14) *Such fools we are, she thought, **crossing** Victoria Street.* (W15)

(15) *He began to puff at his pipe, no doubt **arranging** his opinion in his mind.* (J2)

(16) *...sandwich men **shuffling** and **swinging**...* (W 21)

(17) *... a **murmuring** voice...* (J11)

(18) *I felt my soul **receding** into some pleasant and vicious region...* (J9)

	Mrs. Dalloway		Dubliners		TOTAL	
	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%
adverbial	22	35.5	14	22.6	36	58.1
Co	0	0	5	8.1	5	8.1
post-modification	8	12.9	4	6.5	12	19.4
pre-modification	5	8.1	4	6.5	9	14.6
TOTAL	35	56.5	27	43.7	62	100

Table 3: Syntactic functions of participles in the original texts

3.3.2. THE CZECH TRANSLATIONS OF THE ENGLISH PRESENT PARTICIPLES

As there are 62 examples of present participles, we dealt with their 124 translations in total. More than 41 % of the participial clauses were translated by a main clause (ex. 19), 38 % by a dependent clause (ex. 20), 23 % were translated by non-clausal elements with a syntactic function (ex. 21), the transgressives (ex. 22) occurred in 3 % of the cases and two zero realizations, which take 1.6 %, occur in the original texts.

In the case of present participles, two zero realizations in the translations were observed. These zero realizations were not identified in the same translation pair, i.e. they occur in the different examples; the differences in the realization and its omission are thus clearly visible when compared with the second translation of the pair. Examples (23) and (24) show that the present participles in the original text represent the optional modifiers, which are not important for the basic meaning of the English sentences. The translation of a noun phrase with a complex modification *whirling young men* as *vířící mladíky* in the example (23) from *Mrs. Dalloway*, is not a usual phrase in Czech, but it is a literal translation, which is more compact because of the Czech expression *mladíky*, which connects both the modification *young* and the head noun *men*. The zero translation of the noun phrase *whirling young men* omits the modification *whirling* and retains the literal translation of the phrase *young men* as *mladé muže*. The translation is not literal but it is more comprehensible for the reader. Therefore, we do not find the zero translation of the *-ing* pre-modification *whirling* a mistake. The second example, a post-modification *saying*, which modifies a noun *a notice*, is in the first case translated by a prepositional phrase *s nápisem* post-modifying a noun phrase *tabulka*, whereas the second translation omitted the post-modification. None of the translation is literal, but the accuracy of the translation cannot be preserved in this case. Both translations

sustain the main meaning of the sentence; the first translation being more accurate with respect to the original. The zero translation of the present participle *saying* does not change the meaning of the sentence, the translator used the implicitness of the noun *notice* and the situational knowledge of the reader. Therefore, there is no need to add another modification or a dependent clause, the simple omission of the post-modification *saying* does not affect the comprehension of the sentence. As a result, we do not consider the second zero translation to be a translation mistake either.

(19) *Whenever I'd bring in his soup to him there, I'd find him with his breviary fallen to the floor, **lying** back in the chair and his mouth open.*

*Když jsem mu přinesla polévku, breviář měl spadlý na zem, **sám ležel zhroucený v křesle**, ústa otevřená. (J33)*

(20) *For **having lived** in Westminster—how many years now? over twenty years...*

***Žije-li člověk ve Westminsteru** — jak dlouho už? přes dvacet let... (W13)*

(21) *I found it strange that neither I nor the day seemed in a **mourning** mood...*

*Bylo mi divné, že ani den, ani já nejsme naladěni **na smutek** (J17)*

(22) *'There's poor Nannie,' said Eliza, **looking** at her, 'she's wore out.*

*„Je tu ještě chudák Nána," řekla Eliška **hledíc** na ni. (J29)*

(23) *... the **whirling** young men...*

*...**na mladé muže**...*

*...ty **vířící** mladíky... (W26)*

(24) *... and on ordinary days a notice used to hang in the window, **saying**: Umbrellas*

Re-covered.

*...a ve všední dni visívala v okně tabulka **s nápisem**: Potahování deštníků..*

... ve všední den visela v okně cedulka: Potahování deštníků.... (J12)

	Mrs. Dalloway				Dubliners				TOTAL	
	Dvořáčková		Hilská		Hruša		Skoumal			
	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%
main clause	11	8.9	13	10.5	11	8.9	16	12.9	51	41.1
dependent clause	14	11.3	12	9.7	6	4.3	6	4.8	38	30.6
non-clausal elements expressing a syntactic function	9	7.36	10	8.1	6	4.8	4	3.2	29	23.4
transgressive	0	0	0	0	4	3.2	0	0	4	3.2
zero realization	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	2	1.6
TOTAL	35	28.2	35	28.2	27	21,8	27	21.8	124	100

Table 4: The Czech translations of English present participles

The English participles representing adverbials were usually translated by a main clause (41 translations) and a dependent clause (26 translations). The English participles identified as modifiers were translated mostly by a Czech modifier or another non-clausal element. As to the participles in the syntactic function of object complement, the translations in the form of dependent clauses prevailed as opposed to the main clauses and non-clausal elements.

3.3.3. THE DEGREE OF CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN THE TRANSLATION PAIRS

The degree of correspondence of the translations of present participles shows a complete correspondence in 53%, unlike the gerund translations which show 28 % with a complete correspondence. The translation pairs are equal in the choice of the clause and the relation between the clauses; many cases differed only in a syndetic or asyndetic connection of the clauses (ex. 25). The translations that differ only in a register value of the chosen conjunctions (ex. 26) are integrated into the group of complete correspondence as well. The given example shows the same alternatives *jak* and *když*, which both introduce a dependent clause of time. While *když* is a formal conjunction of time, *jak* represents its colloquial alternative. (Grepl et al. 2003: 445) The partial correspondence was identified in 11 % in the translation pairs. While gerunds differed only in the type of clause used, the present participles manifested partial correspondence in the translation of the non-clausal elements. The expression was translated by the same means but the choice of the lexis differed (ex. 27). 36 % of the translation pairs differed completely in the realization counterpart of the present participle (ex. 28). In the last group the translators usually differ in the choice of a main

clause, a dependent clause or non-clausal elements; the transgressives are in one case replaced by a dependent clause and in three cases by a main clause (ex. 29).

In one case, the translations representing a group of different realization differed in the identification of a syntactic function of the present participle (ex. 30) While Hrůša's translation identified the present participle as a post-modification and related the present participle to the head noun *my uncle*, Skoumal's translation understood the present participle *staring* as an object complement as we did. In this case, we find Hrůša's translation as incorrect due to the wrong identification of a syntactic function.

(25) *She stiffened a little on the kerb, **waiting** for Durtnall's van to pass.* (W9)

*Zastavila se na kraji chodníku, **čekala**, až přejede Durtnallův stěhovací vůz.*

(Dvořáčková)

*Maličko se zarazila na chodníku **a počkala**, až přejede dodávka od Durtnallů.* (Hilská)

(26) *... feeling as she did, **standing** there at the open window, that something awful was about to happen; ...* (W2)

***Jak tam tak stála** u otevřeného okna, cítila, že se určitě stane něco hrozného: ...*

(Dvořáčková)

*...**když tam u otevřených dveří postávala s pocitem**, že se musí přihodit něco strašného, ...* (Hilská)

(27) *It began to confess to me in a **murmuring** voice... (J11)*

*Začala se mně **tlumeně** zpovídati... (Hrůša)*

***Šeptem** se mi zpovídala... (Skoumal)*

(28) *A charming woman, Scrope Purvis thought her (**knowing** her as one does know people who live next door to one in Westminster) ... (W10)*

*Půvabná žena, pomyslel si o ní Scrope Purvis (**znal ji**, jako se znávají lidé, kteří spolu sousedí ve Westminsteru), ... (Dvořáčková)*

*Okouzlující žena, pomyslel si Scrope Purvis (**který ji znal jen tak**, jako člověk zná své sousedy ve Westminsteru), ... (Hilská)*

(29) *There's poor Nannie,' said Eliza, **looking** at her, `she's wore out. (J29)*

*„Je tu ještě chudák Nána," řekla Eliška **hledíc** na ni. (Hrůša)*

*Chudák Nannie, **koukla po ní Eliza**, sebralo ji to. (Skoumal)*

(30) *My uncle saw me **staring** and said to me: ...* (J5)

*Můj strýc na mne vytřeštil oči **a řekl mi**: ...* (Hrůša)

*Strýc si všiml, jak zvědavě koukám, **a řekl mi**: ...* (Skoumal)

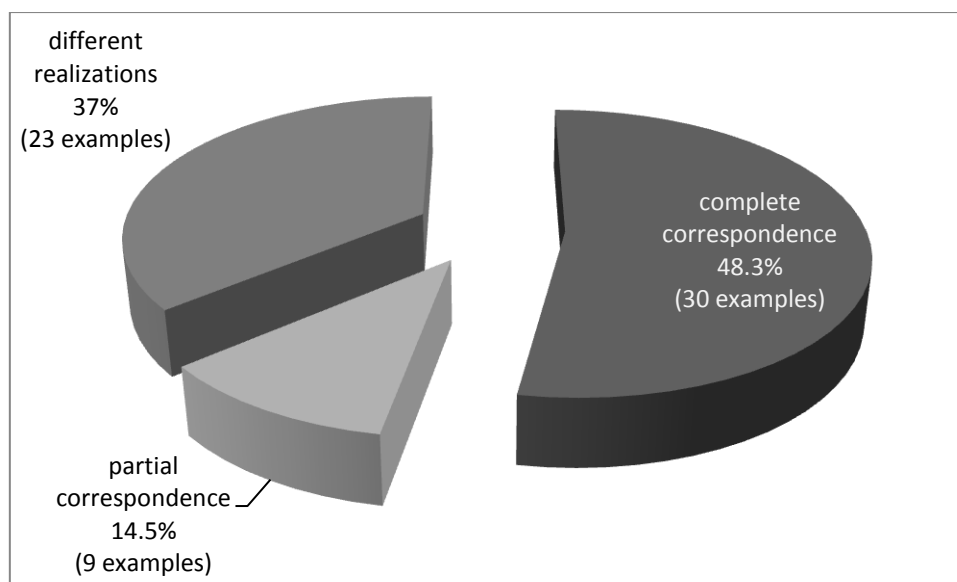


Diagram 3: The degree of correspondence of present participles between the translation pairs

From the diachronic perspective, no preference of the particular translation was observed. The tendency to replace a Czech transgressives corresponds with the tendency in the translations of the gerund.

3.3.4. THE TRANSLATIONS OF ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTIONS

An absolute construction, as explained above, includes a subject different from the subject of the finite verb. These constructions do not exist in Czech, their translations are therefore various.

There are six examples of an absolute construction in our data. All the translation pairs except one (ex. 31), which differs only in the asyndetic and syndetic connection of the main clauses, deal with the absolute constructions differently. The example (32) is in Hrůša's translation translated in a form of a Czech subjectless verbal sentence, whereas Skoumal's translation presents a verbal sentence with a subject. The absolute construction can be

translated by a Czech transgressive (ex. 33). The Czech sentence with a transgressives is closer to the participial construction in English, but the use of transgressives is nowadays obsolete. A good alternative for a transgressive is Skoumal's translation by a dependent clause. The last three examples occur in a single complex sentence (ex. 34). While Dvořáčková decided to use a pre-modification *mlžný opar* for a noun phrase the *smoke winding off them*, Hilská used a dependent clause. Dvořáčková preferred dependent clauses in the last two absolute constructions, whereas Hilská translated the construction by the use of coordinated main clauses.

(31) *There he lay, solemn and copious, vested as for the altar, his large hands loosely **retaining** a chalice.* (J26)

*Ležel tam velebně a zplna, přistrojený jako k oltáři, **obě ruce volně držely kalich.***
(Hrůša)

*Ležel vážný a statný, jakoby nastrojený k oltáři, **a v tlapách volně držel kalich,**...*
(Skoumal)

(32) *The old woman pointed upwards interrogatively and, on my aunt's nodding , proceeded to toil up the narrow staircase before us, her bowed head **being** scarcely above the level of the banister—rail.* (J24)

*Stařena ukázala prstem vzhůru jakoby s otázkou, a když teta přikývla, šla napřed plahočíc se po úzkých schodech nahoru; její sehnutou hlavu **bylo za zábradlím sotva viděti.*** (Hrůša)

*Stařena ukázala tázavě vzhůru, a když teta přikývla, trmácela se po nízkých schodech před námi, **sklopená hlava jí jen tak tak čouhala nad zábradlí.*** (Skoumal)

(33) *My aunt went in and the old woman, **seeing** that I hesitated to enter, began to beckon to me again repeatedly with her hand.* (J25)

*Teta vstoupila a stařena **vidouc**, že váhám jíti za ní, několikrát na mne rukou opět zakývala.* (Hrůša)

*Teta vstoupila dovnitř, **a protože jsem váhal jít dál**, několikrát mi stařena pokynula rukou.* (Skoumal)

(34) *How fresh, how calm, stiller than this of course, the air was in the early morning; ... chill and sharp and yet (for a girl of eighteen as she then was) solemn, feeling as*

*she did, standing there at the open window, that something awful was about to happen; looking at the flowers, at the trees with the smoke **winding off** them and the rooks **rising, falling**; standing and looking until Peter Walsh said, ... (W4-6)*

*Jak svěží, jak klidné a samozřejmě tišší nežli tady bývalo časné jitro tam; jako plesnutí vlny, polibek vlny, studený, prudký a navíc (vždyť ji tenkrát bylo osmnáct) slavnostní. Jak tam tak stála u otevřeného okna, cítila, že se určitě stane něco hrozného: dívala se na květiny, na stromy, **na mlžný opar kolem**, na vrány, jak **vzlétají a usedají**, vzlétají a zase usedají. Stála tam, dívala se, a v tom ji Peter Walsh povídá: ... (Dvořáčková)*

*Tak svěží, tak klidné, samozřejmě tišší než tady bývalo to časné jitro; ... chladne a štiplavé, a přece (pro osmnáctiletou dívku, kterou tehdy byla) sváteční, když tam u otevřených dveří postávala s pocitem, že se musí přihodit něco strašného, dívala se na květiny, **na stromy, od nichž vzlínala pára**, a havrani **vzlétali a zase přistávali**, stála a dívala se, až se ozval Peter Walsh: ... (Hilská)*

The examples of the Czech translations of the English absolute constructions show that there is a vast range of possible translations. However, present day Czech translations incline to the use of main or dependent clauses. The result of this approach is a more complex, less compact sentence than in the English absolute construction.

3.4. COMPLEX CONDENSATION IN THE CZECH TRANSLATIONS

As already mentioned, the use of condensation in Czech is not unusual, but the stock of the condensers is different from the English one. The following table represents the proportion of the Czech translations of English verbal *-ing* forms. Almost 74 % of all the instances containing a verbal *-ing* form were translated by the use of a finite verb. The rest of the examples were translated by Czech condensers and two examples were not translated into Czech at all.

The following types of Czech condensers were identified in the given examples: an infinitive (ex. 35), a transgressive (ex. 36), an adjective (ex. 37), an adverb (ex. 38) and a verbal noun (ex. 39).

(35) *All the work we had, she and me, **getting** in the woman to wash him and then **laying** him out and then the coffin and then **arranging** about the Mass in the chapel.*

(J30)

*Měly jsme plné ruce práce, ona a já, **sehnat** ženskou, aby ho umyla, a potom ho **uložit** a obstarat rakev a **zaplatit** mši v kapli.* (Hrůša)

(36) *Then she put it back again in her pocket and gazed into the empty grate for some time without **speaking**.* (J35)

*Potom jej zase strčila do kapsy a chvíli upřeně hleděla do prázdné mřížky u krbu **nemluvíc**.* (Hrůša)

(37) *... the **slow-swimming** happy ducks;...* (W32)

*...ty **pomalů plující** blažené kachny...* (Dvořáčková)

(38) *It began to confess to me in a **murmuring** voice...* (J11)

***Šeptem** se mi zpovídala...* (Skoumal)

(39) *"I love **walking** in London," said Mrs. Dalloway.* (W35)

*„Mám ráda **procházky** Londýnem,“ řekla paní Dallowayová.* (Dvořáčková)

	Mrs. Dalloway				Dubliners				TOTAL	
	Dvořáčková		Hilská		Hrůša		Skoumal			
	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%
finite clauses	29	18.1	30	18.75	25	15.625	34	21.25	118	73.75
condensers	10	6.3	10	6.25	15	9.375	5	3.125	40	25
zero realization	1	0.6	0	0	0	0	1	0.625	2	1.25
TOTAL	40	25	40	25	40	25	40	25	160	100

Table 5: The use of condensation in the Czech translations

4. CONCLUSION

The practical part of the thesis examined the syntactic function of verbal *-ing* forms and the translation solutions used by different translators in the range of more than 70 years. Apart from the synchronic survey of the verbal *-ing* forms and their translations, we focused on the diachronic tendencies in the translations as well. We examined 80 verbal *-ing* forms in the original texts, 18 examples represented gerunds and 62 of them were present participles. Each verbal *-ing* form was compared with its two different Czech translations, so the total of 160 Czech translations were analyzed in the practical part.

Regarding the syntactic function of the verbal *-ing* forms in the original texts, gerunds occurred as constituents of adverbials, complements of a verb or an adjective and in apposition. Present participles were identified as adverbials, object complements, post-modifiers and pre-modifiers.

As to the Czech translations, the Czech translators tend to use finite clauses instead of condensers. More than 73 % of the verbal *-ing* forms were translated by a finite clause either in paratactic or hypotactic relation (Table 5). The highest use of condensers was identified in Hrůša's translation from 1930's. This fact is caused by Hrůša's use of transgressives, which are condensers as well but we examined them separately from the other condensers. The following diagram based on the translation pair Hrůša/Skoumal shows the translation tendency to substitute the Czech transgressives by other alternatives. Skoumal decided to use coordination (ex. 1) instead of subordination, which appeared only in one example (ex. 2); in one case, he used an adverbial instead of a clausal translation (ex. 3). The rest of the translators avoided transgressives and used other means of translation. The sharp decline of the transgressives in the Czech translations reflects the situation in the present day Czech. The transgressives in the fiction are used only in the individual style of a writer (Bečka 1941: 150)

(1) *...as I pattered, he used to smile pensively and nod his head, now and then **pushing** huge pinches of snuff up each nostril alternately.* (J22)

*Jak jsem je drmolil, zamyšleně se usmíval, pokyvoval hlavou **a chvílemi si do nosních dírek cpal ohromné štipce tabáku.*** (Skoumal)

(2) *Sometimes he had amused himself by **putting** difficult questions to me...* (J19)

*Někdy mi pro zábavu dával **těžké otázky**...* (Skoumal)

(3) *Then she put it back again in her pocket and gazed into the empty grate for some time without **speaking**.* (J35)

*Potom ho zas zastrčila do kapsy a chvíli **mlčky** civěla na prázdný rošt.* (Skoumal)

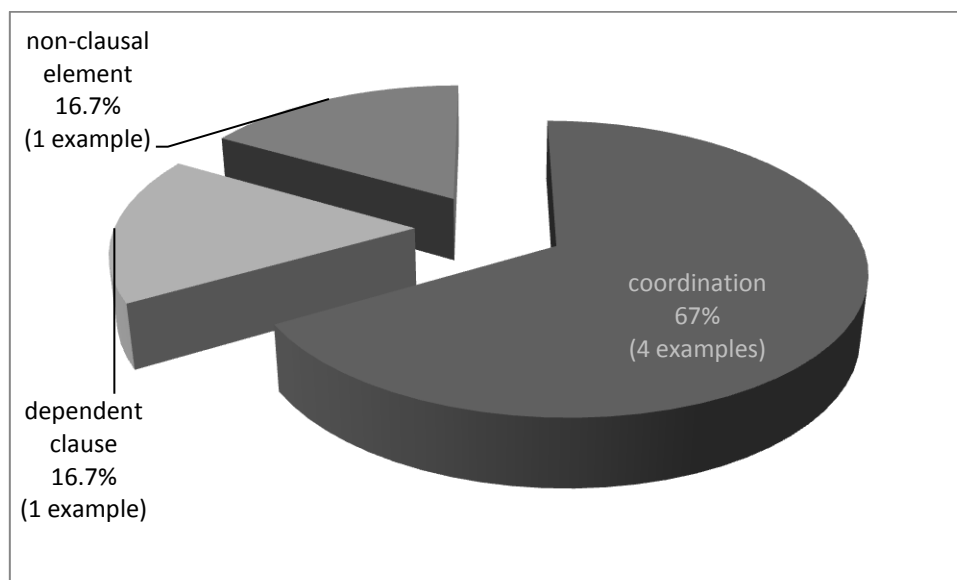


Diagram 4: The alternatives of transgressives in translation pair Hruša/Skoumal

The tendency to translate English non-finite clauses, which have limited grammatical categories, by Czech finite clauses sometimes leads to certain discrepancies. As for the expression of a subject, the English non-finite clause relates to the subject of the finite clause or, in the case of absolute constructions, has its own subject. The translator's choice of the subject of the finite Czech clause is influenced not only by the reference to the subject in the original non-finite clause, but also by the stylistic or personal preference (ex. 4). While the verbal *-ing* clauses do not express temporal relations explicitly, the Czech finite verbs indicate a category of tense. In most examples the temporal relations were implicitly expressed in the structure of a sentence in the English original. In some cases, the translators deviated from the implied temporal relation to bring dynamism into the story, as in the example (5), where Hilská decided to use historical present tense instead of the past tense, which was used by Dvořáčková.

(4) *...she always felt a little skimpy beside Hugh; schoolgirlish; but attached to him, partly from **having known** him always, ...* (W40)

...vedle Hugha se Clarissa vždycky cítila trochu nesvá, jako školačka, ale měla ho rada, částečně snad proto, že ho znala odmala, ... (Dvořáčková)

...vedle Hugha si vždycky připadala trošičku nedooblečena, jako školačka; ale vždycky ho měla ráda, zčásti proto, že se znali odjakživa, ... (Hilská)

(5) *There she perched, never seeing him, waiting to cross, very upright.* (W11)

Stála tu, jako když sedí na větývce, nevnímala ho, čekala, rovná a vzpřímená, až bude moci přejít. (Dvořáčková)

Trčí tam jako na bidýlku, vůbec ho nevnímá, narovnaná jako podle pravítka čeká, až bude moct přejít. (Hilská)

The assumption that the order of the Czech clauses may differ from the order in the original was not confirmed in our data. Almost all translations showed unity in the clause order according to the English original texts except two examples. The first example of a different clause order in the translations (ex. 6) was translated identically in both translations. The anteriority is indicated by a preposition *before* followed by a gerund in the semantic role of temporal adverbial. In the example (7) the present participle was translated by using a different clause order only in Skoumal's translation. The deviation from the original clause order is caused by the complex character of the original sentence. However, the original clause order can be sustained, as in Hruša's translation.

Due to the insufficient number of examples in the practical part, drawing any conclusion would be irrelevant. Therefore we leave the issue of the clause order in the Czech translations of English non-finite clauses to a deeper analysis.

(6) *My aunt fingered the stem of her wine-glass before sipping a little.* (J28)

Než má teta trochu upila, přejela prsty stonek číšky na víno a zeptala se: ... (Hruša)

(7) *...and I was not surprised when he told me that the fathers of the Church had written books as thick as the Post Office Directory and as closely printed as the law notices in the newspaper, elucidating all these intricate questions.* (J21)

...a nepřekvapilo mne, když mi řekl, že církevní otcové napsali knihy, tak tlusté jako Poštovní adresář a s tak drobným a hustým tiskem jako Nabídky v novinách, v nichž vykládali všechny tyto spleť otázky. (Hruša)

Nepřekvapilo mě, když jsem se dověděl, že na objasnění těchto otázek církevní otcové napsali knihy tlusté jako telefonní seznam a hustě tištěné jako novinové vyhlášky.
(Skoumal)

A handful of English absolute constructions analyzed in the practical part proved a variety of Czech translations. The translation of the absolute construction offers more possibilities mainly because of the expressed subject. The absolute constructions were translated by main clauses, transgressives, a subjectless verbal sentence and dependent clauses.

A considerable part of the research was dedicated to the degree of correspondence between two translation pairs Dvořáčková/Hilská and Hrůša/Skoumal. This part of the research focused on similarities and differences between the translation pairs. In general terms, 47 % of the pairs corresponded fully, i.e. the translators chose the same type of clause and the same relations between the clauses; only the differences in syndetic and asyndetic connection between the clauses were observed.

The translation pairs belonging in the group of a partial correspondence (15 %) were translated both by the same relation between the clauses (paratactical or hypotactical) or by the same non-clausal element, they differed in the choice of the type of the clause or lexis in the case of the non-clausal elements. 38 % of all the verbal *-ing* forms included into the research were translated differently – the pairs differed in the choice of the relation between the clauses or the choice of the non-clausal elements. The translations mostly differed in the translation of absolute constructions (the examples 31-34 in the Research Part), treating of the Czech transgressives (ex. 8) or different strategies in the use of the complex condensation in Czech (ex. 9).

(8) ...as I pattered, he used to smile pensively and nod his head, now and then **pushing** huge pinches of snuff up each nostril alternately. (P22)

...když jsem vázl, zamyšlen se usmíval a kýval hlavou, **nacpává** si střídavě obé nozdry notnými dávkami šňupavého tabáku. (Hrůša)

Jak jsem je drmolil, zamyšleně se usmíval, pokyvoval hlavou **a chvílemi si do nosních dírek cpal ohromné štipce tabáku.** (Skoumal)

(9) ... the pouched birds **waddling** ...(W33)

...nafouklí **rozkolébání** ptáci... (Dvořáčková)

...ptáci **brodící se mělčinou**... (Hilská)

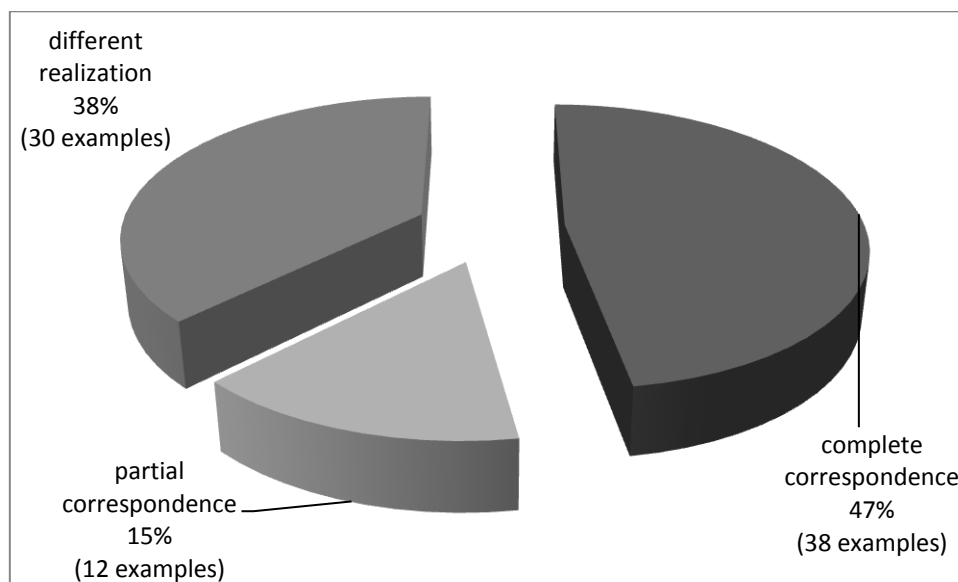


Diagram 5: The degree of correspondence between the Czech translation pairs – overview

The importance of condensers in the Czech translations of English verbal *-ing* forms is not so significant as the importance of the use of finite clauses. The Table 5 in the previous section shows that there is a strong tendency to use finite clauses instead of condensers in the Czech translations. The results of the quantitative research confirm a strong tendency to use nominalization in English caused by the weak dynamism of the English verb as opposed to the strong dynamism of the Czech verb leading to the use of the finite clauses in Czech translations.³

Apart from the synchronic survey dealing with the syntactic functions and a comparison of the Czech translations, we focused on the diachronic point of view as well. The following table depicts the general translation tendencies of the translations arranged from the earliest translation to the latest one. The results show that the tendency to use main clause as the main means of translation of the verbal *-ing* forms is apparent in all the translations. The Czech translations by dependent clauses take the similar process of more or less stable position without any long-term differences. As to the condensers, their number fluctuates depending on the number of the use of finite verbs. Regarding the transgressives, the

³ The topic of complex condensation both in Czech and English is discussed above.

condensers we separated from the previous group because of their distinct position in the present day Czech, only the earliest translation contained transgressives as the translations of the verbal *-ing* forms. The rest of the translators decided not to include the transgressives as a stylistic feature of their translations. When comparing the number of the use of finite clauses in the translations, we observed that Hruša's translation contained the most condensers in total, while the other translations preferred the use of the finite clauses.

	Hruša 1933		Dvořáčková 1975		Skoumal 1988		Hilská 2004		TOTAL	
	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%	abs	%
Main clauses	16	10	12	7,5	23	14.4	15	9.4	66	41.25
Dependent clauses	9	5.6	17	10.6	11	6.9	15	9.4	52	32.5
Condensers	9	5.6	10	6.3	5	3.1	10	6.3	34	21.25
Transgressives	6	3.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	3.75
Zero realization	0	0	1	0.6	1	0.6	0	0	2	1.25
TOTAL	40	25	40	25	40	25	40	25	160	100

Table 6: Diachronic overview of the translation strategies in the individual translations

To conclude, we noticed no long-lasting tendency concerning the use of the specific translation solutions, except the clear disappearance of the transgressives from the authorial style of the translators. We suppose that this condition is caused by the archaic character of the transgressives in the present day Czech leading to incomprehension, and the fixed and complex forms of the transgressives. On the other hand, the decreasing number of the condensers mainly because of the disappearance of the transgressives, and a stable high number of the finite clauses in the Czech translations represent a constant tendency to make the translations easier and more approachable to the present day reader.

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6. SUMMARY (SHRNUTÍ)

Bakalářská práce se zabývá funkcemi a překladovými ekvivalenty slovesných *-ing* forem v anglické próze. Teoretická část stručně pojednává o morfologii a syntaktických funkcích anglických gerundií a přítomných participií a jejich odlišení od participiálního adjektiva, které sdílí mnohé vlastnosti s přítomným participiem, a deverbativního substantiva, jež má naopak některé vlastnosti společné s gerundiem. Další podkapitoly teoretické části pojednávají o možnostech překladu nefinitních *-ing* tvarů a také o komplexní kondenzaci a jejím užíváním jak v anglickém, tak v českém jazyce.

Komplexní kondenzace, jeden z výsledků užívání nominalizace, je v angličtině užívána mnohem častěji než v češtině, což je způsobeno zejména typologickými rozdíly mezi oběma jazyky. Angličtina je spíše analytický jazyk, jenž se vyznačuje slabým slovesným dynamismem. Dynamicky slabá slovesa mají tendenci se pojit s další složkou (zejména nominální), která je hlavním nositelem významu celého slovesného výrazu. Naopak slovesa v češtině jsou silně dynamická a tíhnou převážně k jednoslovnému vyjadřování, což je způsobeno syntetickými rysy českého jazyka. Jelikož jsou nefinitní tvary hlavními kondenzáty v anglickém jazyce, jejich překlad do češtiny, která využívá častěji finitní věty, může způsobovat značné potíže.

Pro praktickou část byly excerpovány slovesné *-ing* tvary ze dvou děl anglické prózy – *Dubliners* od Jamese Joyce a *Mrs. Dalloway* od Virginie Woolf. Z každého díla bylo v aktivním pdf formátu vybráno 40 výrazů, které byly následně porovnány s jejich dvěma překladovými ekvivalenty lišícími se jak překladateli, tak dobově. Gerundia i participia byla zkoumána odděleně, zejména kvůli konečnému porovnání překladových řešení. Poměr mezi gerundií a participií byl 22,5 % ku 77,5 %. Nejprve byly analyzovány syntaktické funkce všech výrazů: gerundium se z 61 % objevovalo jako adverbiale, ze 17 % jako apozice a ve 22 % případů bylo doplněním slovesa nebo adjektiva. Přítomná participia byla identifikována ve čtyřech syntaktických funkcích – adverbiale (58,1 %), doplněk předmětu (8,1 %), postmodifikace (19,4 %) a premodifikace (14,6 %).

Analýza překladových ekvivalentů ukázala, že nejčastějším způsobem překladu byly finitní věty (73,75 %). Překladatelé volili zejména parataktická souvětí (41,25 %), v menší míře pak hypotaktická souvětí (32,5 %). České kondenzáty jako překladové ekvivalenty anglických slovesných *-ing* tvarů byly zvoleny ve 25 % případů. Dnes již zastaralé přechodníkové vazby se objevovaly pouze v prvním překladu od Josefa Hruši, ostatní

překladaelé dali přednost větným překladovým ekvivalentům. Důvodem tohoto jevu může být složité paradigma českých přechodníků, které v dnešní češtině může vést k nepochopení obsahu výpovědi. Upuštění od přechodníků a tendence k větnému vyjadřování může značit snahu překladatelů zjednodušovat obsah překladů a tím více zpřístupnit text čtenáři. U dvou výrazů se překladaelé rozhodli nepřekládat původní slovesný *-ing* tvar a zcela ho vynechat. Tyto výrazy jsou označeny jako nulové realizace. Jejich vynechání však nebylo považováno za chybné, jelikož neovlivňovalo význam ani správné pochopení věty.

Zvláštním jevem anglických nefinitních vedlejších adverbiálních vět jsou tzv. absolutní konstrukce, jež obsahují podmět odlišný od podmětu věty hlavní. Taková konstrukce v češtině není možná, proto je potřeba absolutní konstrukce vyjádřit opět finitní větou. Absolutní konstrukce, které se ve vybraných výrazech objevily jen v šesti případech, byly překládány pomocí věty hlavní i věty vedlejší, přechodníku a v jednom případě větou jednočlennou.

Dalším postupem v praktické části bylo porovnávání míry shody mezi jednotlivými překladovými páry. Porovnání překladových párů prokázalo shodu ve 47 % . Anglické slovesné *-ing* tvary byly přeloženy v rámci daného překladového páru totožně, s užitím identických vět, které se lišily pouze syndetickým nebo asyndetickým spojením. 15 % překladových párů vykazovalo částečnou shodu. Překlady se lišily zejména v typu vedlejší věty nebo rozdílném poměru mezi větami hlavními. U nevětných překladů se shodovala syntaktická funkce překladu, výběr lexika byl však rozdílný. Zbylých 38 % překladů se zcela lišilo – překlady se nejčastěji lišily ve výběru hypotaktického nebo parataktického souvětí, výjimkou nebyla ani konkurence větných a nevětných překladových ekvivalentů.

K pozorování vývoje překladových řešení anglických slovesných *-ing* tvarů nám napomohly jednotlivé překladové páry. Z analýzy je zřejmé, že řešení překladů anglických slovesných *-ing* tvarů se od 30. let 20. století výrazně neliší. Kromě úpadku přechodníku, který však pomalu mizí ve všech sférách dnešní češtiny, překladová řešení nevykazují žádné zásadní změny. Anglické slovesné *-ing* tvary jsou převážně překládány větou hlavní či vedlejší, naproti tomu české kondenzáty se užívají méně. Analýza tak potvrzuje, že čeština má vzhledem k silné dynamičnosti slovesa tendence k finitnímu vyjadřování, zatímco angličtina kvůli slabé slovesné dynamičnosti dává přednost jmennému vyjadřování vedoucí k častější kondenzaci finitních vět.